

7 The chemistry and uses of acids, bases and salts

Content

- 7.1 The characteristic properties of acids and bases
- 7.2 Preparation of salts
- 7.3 Properties and uses of ammonia
- 7.4 Sulfuric acid

Learning outcomes

Candidates should be able to:

7.1 The characteristic properties of acids and bases

- (a) describe the meanings of the terms acid and alkali in terms of the ions they contain or produce in aqueous solution and their effects on Universal Indicator paper
- (b) describe how to test hydrogen ion concentration and hence relative acidity using Universal Indicator paper and the pH scale
- (c) describe the characteristic properties of acids as in reactions with metals, bases and carbonates
- (d) describe qualitatively the difference between strong and weak acids in terms of the extent of dissociation
- (e) describe neutralisation as a reaction between hydrogen ions and hydroxide ions to produce water, $\text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- (f) describe the importance of controlling the pH in soils and how excess acidity can be treated using calcium hydroxide
- (g) describe the characteristic properties of bases in reactions with acids and with ammonium salts
- (h) classify oxides as acidic, basic or amphoteric, based on metallic/non-metallic character

7.2 Preparation of salts

- (a) describe the techniques used in the preparation, separation and purification of salts as examples of some of the techniques specified in Section 1.2(a)
(methods for preparation should include precipitation and titration together with reactions of acids with metals, insoluble bases and insoluble carbonates)
- (b) describe the general rules of solubility for common salts to include nitrates, chlorides (including silver and lead), sulfates (including barium, calcium and lead), carbonates, hydroxides, Group I cations and ammonium salts
- (c) suggest a method of preparing a given salt from suitable starting materials, given appropriate information
- (d) describe the meanings of the terms hydrated, anhydrous and water of crystallisation

7.3 Properties and uses of ammonia

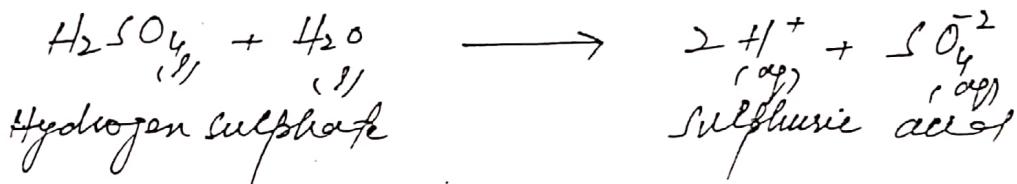
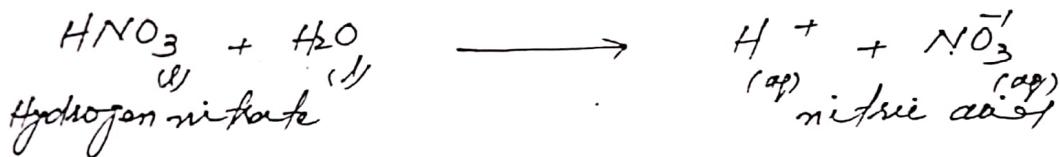
- (a) describe the use of nitrogen, from air, and hydrogen, from cracking hydrocarbons, in the manufacture of ammonia
- (b) state that some chemical reactions are reversible (e.g. manufacture of ammonia)
- (c) describe and explain the essential conditions for the manufacture of ammonia by the Haber process
- (d) describe the use of nitrogenous fertilisers in promoting plant growth and crop yield
- (e) compare nitrogen content of salts used for fertilisers by calculating percentage masses
- (f) describe eutrophication and water pollution problems caused by nitrates leaching from farm land and explain why the high solubility of nitrates increases these problems
- (g) describe the displacement of ammonia from its salts and explain why adding calcium hydroxide to soil can cause the loss of nitrogen from added nitrogenous fertiliser

7.4 Sulfuric acid

- (a) describe the manufacture of sulfuric acid from the raw materials sulfur, air and water in the contact process
- (b) state the use of sulfur dioxide as a bleach, in the manufacture of wood pulp for paper and as a food preservative (by killing bacteria)
- (c) state the uses of sulfuric acid in the manufacture of detergents and fertilisers, and as a battery acid

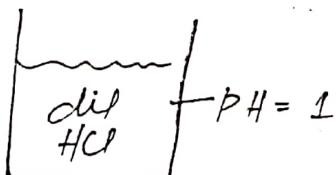
Acids and Bases

Acids:- Those substances which produce H^+ in their aqueous solution are called acids, e.g;

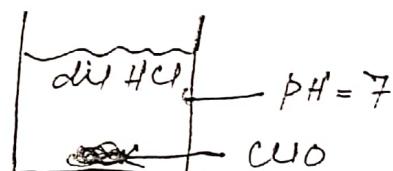


Bases:- Those substances which can neutralise acids are called Bases.

All metal oxides, metal hydroxide and metal carbonates are Bases, e.g; Na_2O , $NaOH$, Na_2CO_3 , FeO , $Fe(OH)_2$, $FeCO_3$, CuO , $Cu(OH)_2$, $CuCO_3$ etc



Before adding CuO (excess)



~~CuO~~ CuO

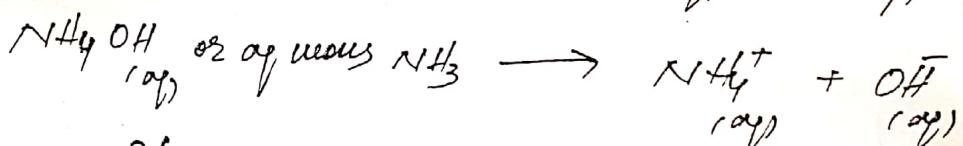
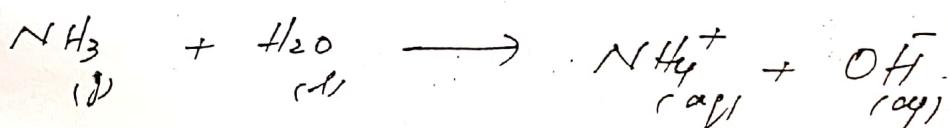
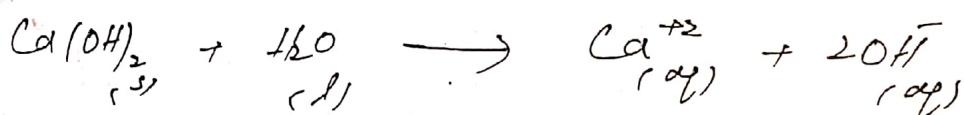
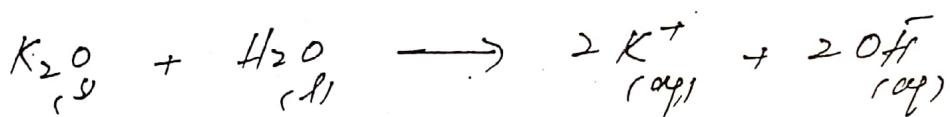
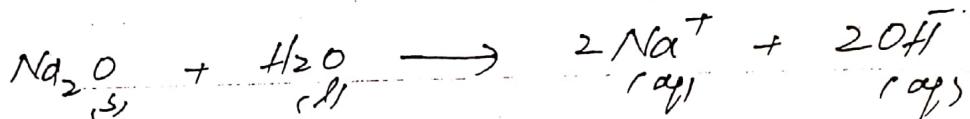
After adding CuO

Alkalies:- water soluble bases are called alkalies.

- ⇒ Common alkalies include
- ⇒ oxides, hydroxides and carbonates of group I
- ⇒ oxides and hydroxides of group II
- ⇒ Ammonium hydroxide and ammonium carbonate.

(2)

Definition of alkalis: those substances which produce hydroxide ions (OH^-) in their aqueous solution are called alkalis e.g;



Physical properties of acids and alkalis

- ⇒ Sour in taste
- ⇒ Corrosive in nature
- ⇒ aqueous solution conduct electricity due to the presence of freely moving ions, called electrolyte
- ⇒ have pH below 7

Alkalies

Bitter in taste / soapy to corrosive in nature

Electrolytes

=
have pH greater than

Acids

- turn blue litmus red
- phenolphthaleine remains colourless
- methyl orange turns red
- Universal Indicator (pH paper)
- in pH solution turns red in strong acids and orange in weak acids

Alkalies

- turn red litmus blue
- turns pink
- turns yellow
- turns blue in strong alkalies and greenish in weak alkalies

Chemical properties of acids

(i) Reaction with metals



Pakistan	K	React violently with acids, their reaction must be avoided	$Mg + HCl \rightarrow MgCl_2 + H_2 \uparrow$
Steel	Na		$Al + H_2SO_4 \rightarrow Al_2(SO_4)_3 + H_2 \uparrow$
Covers	Ca		$Zn + HNO_3 \rightarrow Zn(NO_3)_2 + H_2 \uparrow$
many Acids	Mg Al		$Fe + HCl \rightarrow FeCl_2 + H_2 \uparrow$
Zameen	Zn	React moderately with acids	$Fe + H_2SO_4 \rightarrow FeSO_4 + H_2 \uparrow$
its	Fe		
loss	Pb		
has	H		
caused	Ca	can't react with dil acids as they are less reactive than hydrogen	
many	Hg		
serious	Ag		
envt	Au		
Problems	Pt		

Observations

⇒ Bubbles are seen

⇒ metal decreases in size

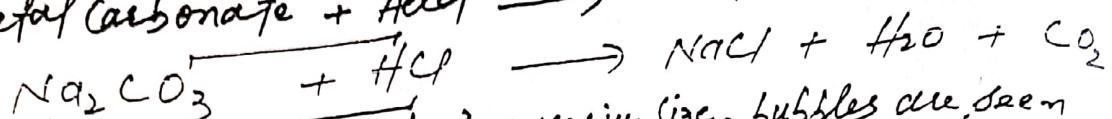
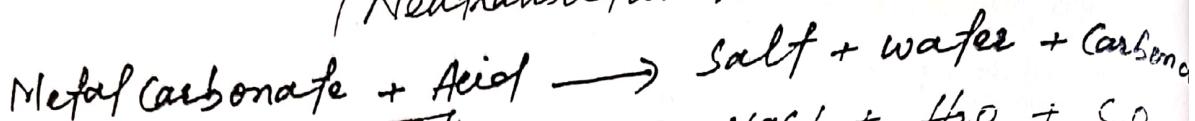
⇒ with Iron colourless solution of acids turns green

Important

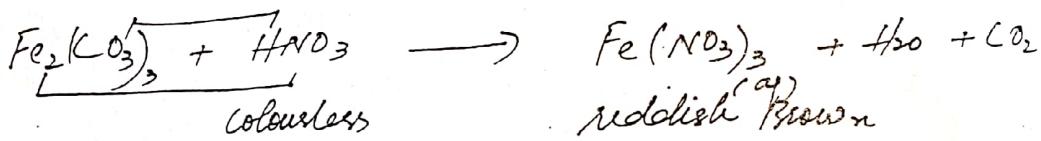
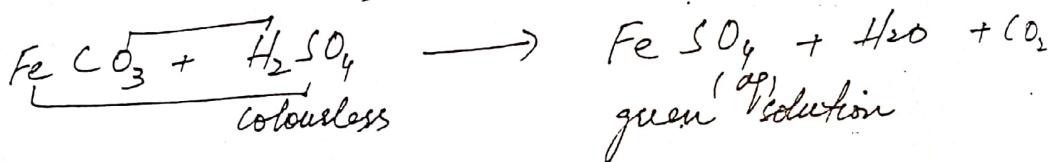
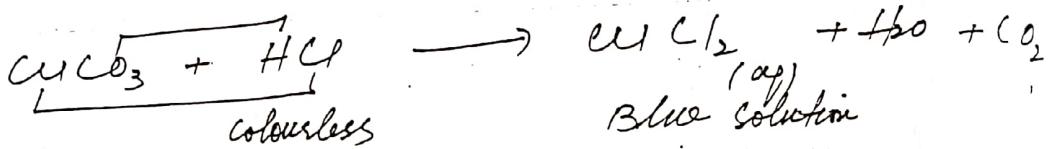
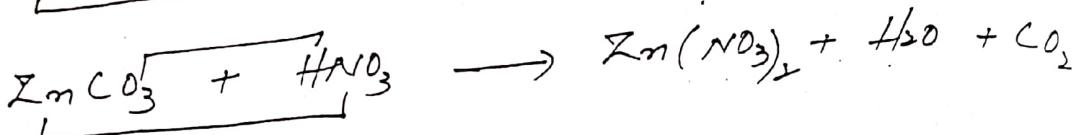
Iron when reacts with acids, it forms salts with +2 valency

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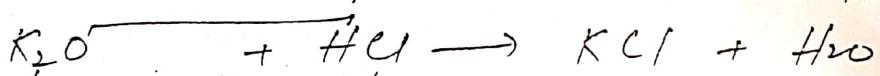
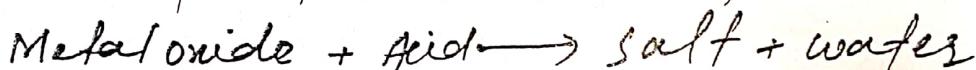
(2) Reaction with metal carbonates (Bases) (Neutralisation reaction)



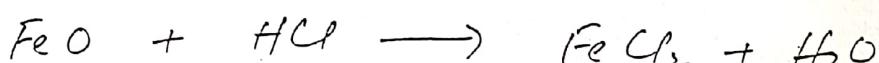
Observation: Carbonate decreases in size, bubbles are seen



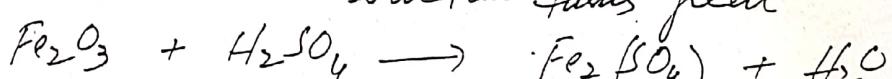
(3) Reaction with metal oxide (Bases) (Neutralisation reaction)



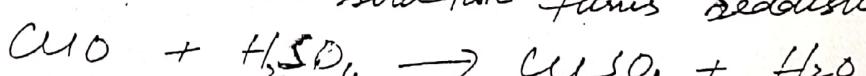
metal oxide decreases in size



colourless solution turns green



colourless solution turns reddish brown

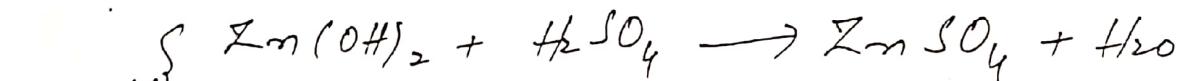
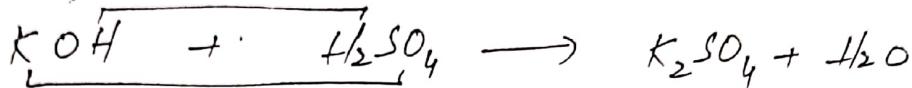
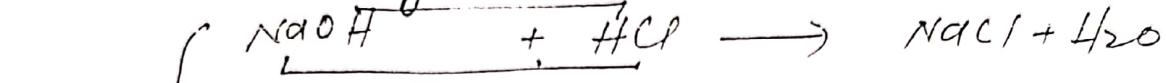


black solid colourless solution turns blue

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(4) Reaction with metal hydroxide (Bases) (Neutralisation reaction)

Metal hydroxide + Acid \rightarrow salt + water



Chemical properties of Bases

(5) Reaction with ammonium salts (Neutralisation reaction)

Ammonium salt + Base $\xrightarrow{\text{Heat}}$ Salt + water + Ammonia

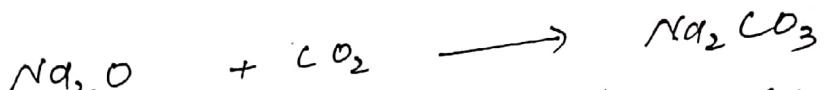


Ammonium salts release hydrogen, so show acidic character.

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(2) Reaction with carbon dioxide (Neutralisation reaction)

Metal oxide + $\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow$ metal carbonate (salt)
Metal hydroxide + $\text{CO}_2 \rightarrow$ metal carbonate + water



lime



lime water turns milky

use of lime or limewater in agriculture

Lime or lime water being basic in nature neutralise excessive acidity of the soil which is caused by the excessive use of fertilizers this increases the pH of the soil.



lime

Ca(OH)_2
(aq)
limewater

\Rightarrow lime water is also used to white wash buildings

Strong and weak acids

Strong acids

\Rightarrow are completely ionised in water

\Rightarrow greater number of H^+ in water

\Rightarrow pH from 0-2

weak acids

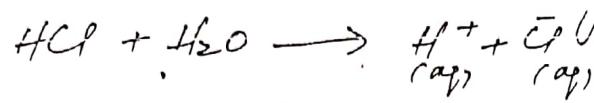
partially ionised

lesser number of H^+

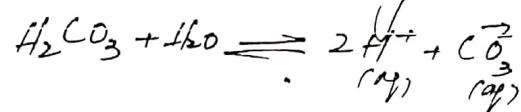
pH from 3 to 6.9

Strong acids

\Rightarrow Ionise in water irreversibly

Weak acids

Ionise reversibly



\Rightarrow Examples HCl , HNO_3 and H_2SO_4

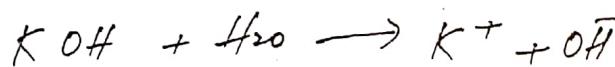
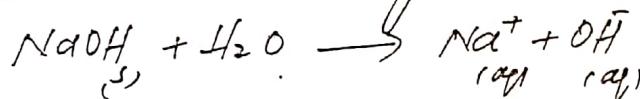
carbonic acid, phosphoric acid,
ethanoic acid etc

Strong and weak alkalisStrong alkalis

\Rightarrow are completely ionised in water

\Rightarrow produce greater number of OH^-

\Rightarrow ionise \rightarrow irreversibly in water



\Rightarrow pH from 11 to 14

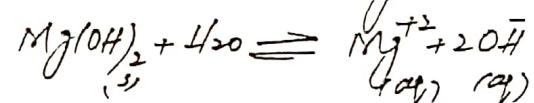
\Rightarrow Example, group I oxides and
hydroxide $NaOH$, Na_2O , K_2O , KOH

Weak alkalis

partially ionise

lesser number of OH^-

ionise reversibly



pH from 7.1 to 10

\Rightarrow Examples $Mg(OH)_2$, $(Ca(OH))_2$,
 NH_4OH .

Acidity needs waterTest

Blue litmus

HCl in water

turns red

HCl in Benzene

no change

Mg metal

Bubbles

no bubbles

Electricity

Pass

don't pass

Reason: Acids ionise only in water, same is true for alkalis, produce H^+ and OH^- respectively only in water.

Types of Oxides

Basic oxides
oxides which neutralise acids

→ metal oxides are basic
e.g. Na_2O , MgO , CaO
 Fe_2O_3 , CuO



Base

acidic salt water

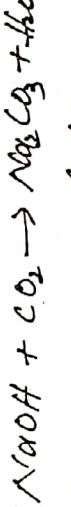
Acid oxides

oxides which neutralise bases

→ non metallic oxides
are acidic

e.g. CO_2 , SO_2 , SO_3 , NO_2

P_2O_5 , P_2O_3



Amphotropic
Oxides

→ oxides which
neutralise acids and
bases both
→ P_2O_5 Oxides
 P_2O_5 $\xrightarrow{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ H_3PO_4

→ neither
acid nor
basic
Bases

$\text{ZnO} + \text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{ZnCl}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
acid Base Salt

Neutral
oxides

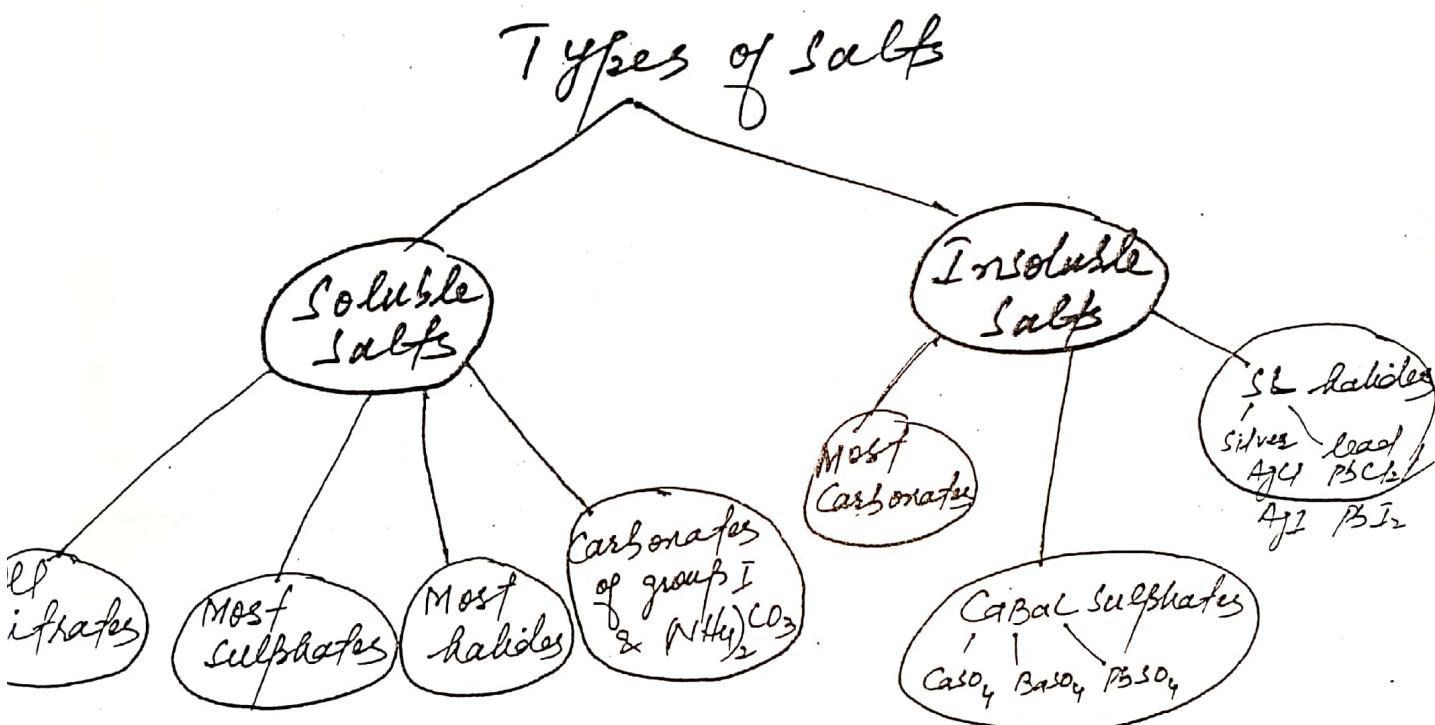
→ neither
acid nor
basic

(a)

Salts

Salts are produced when hydrogen of an acid is completely or partially replaced by a metal.

- Compounds in which ^{any} metal or ammonium is bonded with chloride, bromide, iodide, fluoride, sulphate, nitrate, phosphate, carbonate etc
- In short metals and ammonium "ide", "ite" and "ate" are salts



Halides:- Salts of halogens are called halides e.g; NaCl, KCl, AgCl, AgBr, AgI, PbCl₂ etc

Important:- All group I and all ammonium salts are water soluble.

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Preparation of Soluble Salts

Method: Crystallisation

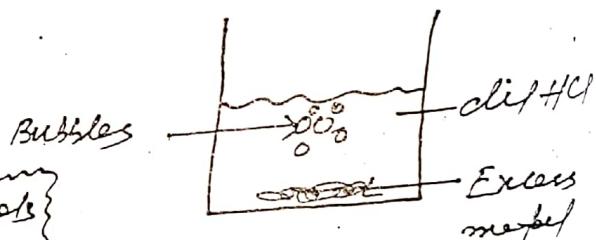
(1) Preparation of soluble salts by the reaction of reactive metals with dil. acids

- ⇒ K, Na and Ca should not be used to react with acids because they react violently with acids.
- ⇒ Metals present below hydrogen in the reactivity series e.g. Cu, Hg, Ag, Au and Pt can't react with dil. acids



Sulfide
metals

Mg
Al
Zn
Fe



⇒ Lead can react with acids but with H_2SO_4 and HCl , it forms insoluble PbSO_4 and PbCl_2 respectively.

⇒ Lead forms soluble salt only when it reacts with nitric acid, then it forms soluble $\text{Pb(NO}_3)_2$.

Evaporation:- Filter is evaporated by heating over water bath till crystals appear, stop heating.

⇒ Allow solution to cool at room temperature.

⇒ Separate crystals by filtration, wash them with cold water and then dry over filter paper.

Endpoint:- when no bubbles are seen.

Filtration:- to remove unreacted metal.

Evaporation:- Filter is evaporated by heating over water bath till crystals appear, stop heating.

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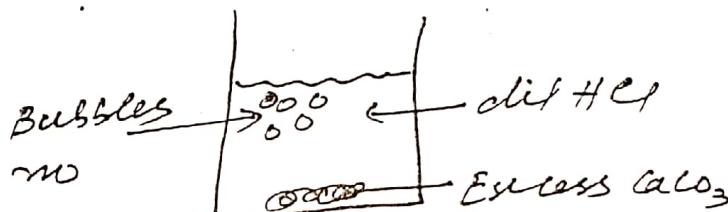
(ii) Preparation of soluble salt by the reaction of metal carbonate with acids



Soluble metal carbonate should not be used because they dissolve in water and contaminate the salt.



Because CaSO_4 is insoluble sulphate

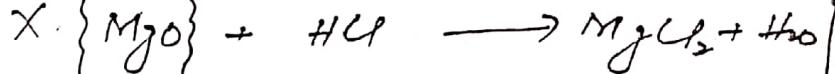
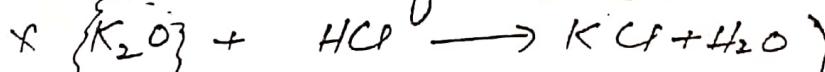


Endpoint: When no more bubbles are seen

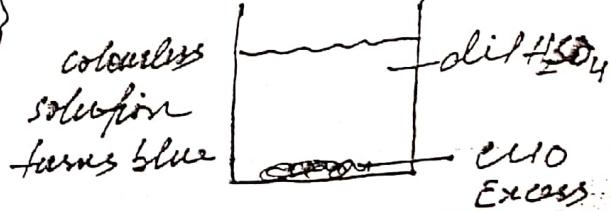
Filtration: to remove unreacted CaCO_3 .

Evaporation: Same, as mentioned on a previous page.

(iii) Preparation of a soluble salt by the reaction of metal oxide with acids

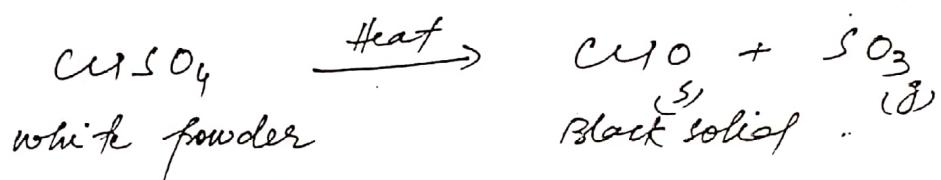
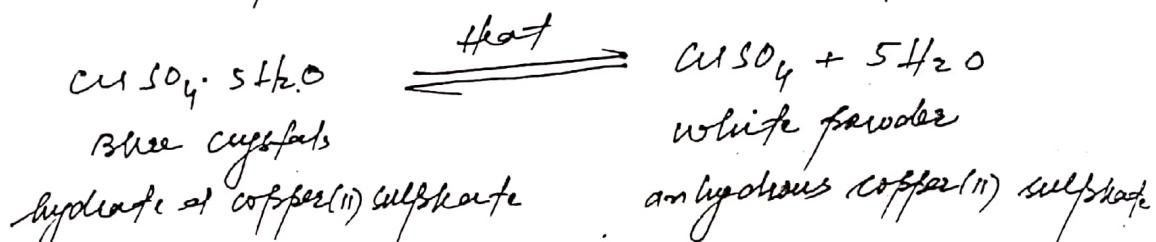


Soluble metal oxides, dissolve and contaminate the salt.



Filtration: to remove unreacted metal oxide

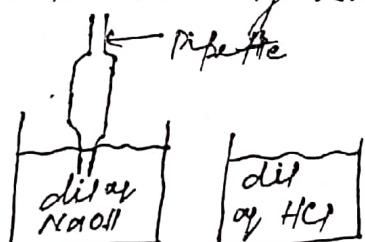
Evaporation :- same as mentioned for the first method, but this time extra care should be done to prevent solution from degrees, otherwise blue crystals of $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$ damage to white powder CuSO_4 .



Preparation of a soluble salt by the reaction of a soluble bases with acid

Method or Technique :- Titration

Soluble bases e.g; Na_2O , NaOH , Na_2CO_3 are always made to react with acids by the method of filtration by using the aqueous solution of soluble base.



when solution in conical flask is evaporated by heating over a water bath in an evaporating dish, coloured crystals are obtained due to the presence of indicator.

How to get rid of indicator

Method 1:- Perform titration first with indicator and then without indicator but using the same volume of acids and alkalies each time, then evaporate solution by heating over ^{water} bath till-----

Method 2:- Perform titration using indicator till the end point, then boil solution for 5 to 10 minutes after adding charcoal as colour absorbant. Filter solution to remove charcoal. Evaporate solution by heating -----

Preparation of insoluble salts

Method:- Precipitation

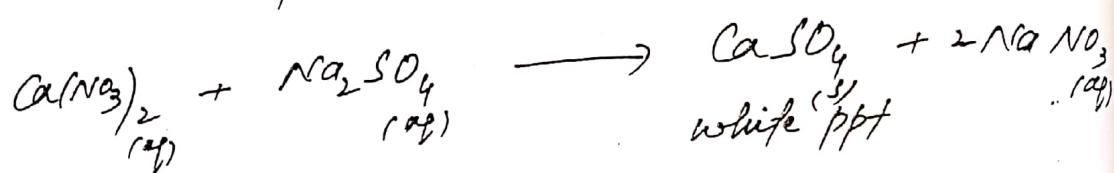
An ~~o~~ insoluble salt is prepared by reacting two soluble compounds. For example



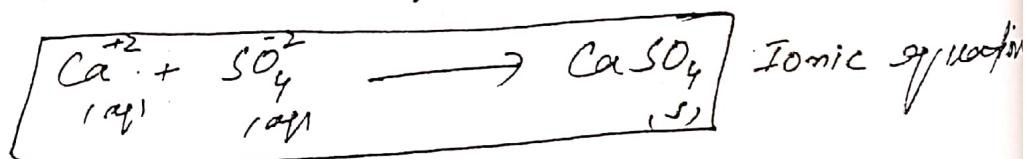
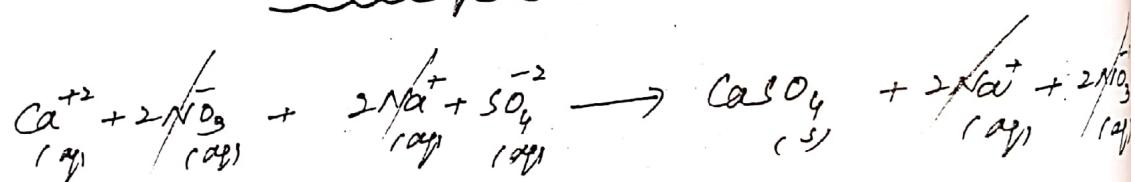
Precipitates are separated by filtration, washed with cold water and dry over filter paper.

Important point: For the preparation of insoluble salts, the compounds to be selected should be a "nitrate" and a group I compound's because they are always water soluble.

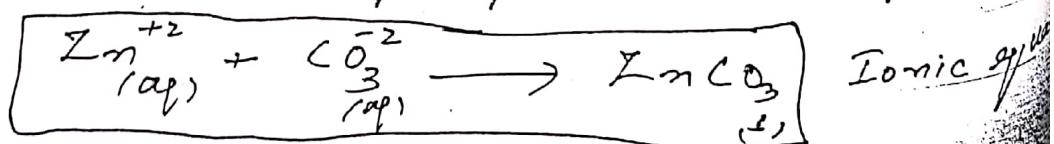
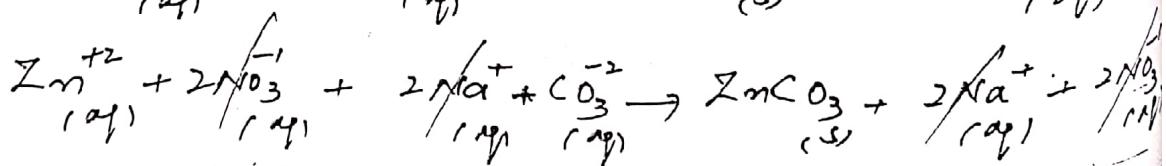
for example CaSO_4



Ionic equation



Preparation of ZnCO_3 and Ionic equation



Direct method of writing ionic equation

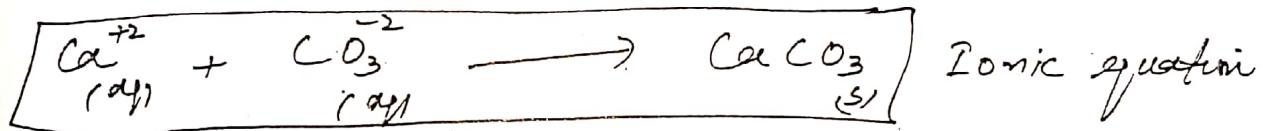
⇒ Always balance the simple equation



⇒ Cancel those substances which are common at both sides and which states are same at both sides



⇒ Write remaining parts (substances) in their ionic form...



Balancing of Ionic equation

An ionic equation is considered balanced if it is balanced not only with respect to atoms but also with respect to charges.

Types of Ionic equation

(i) Ionic equations contain charge particles only at one side of equation

In such equations charge is balanced by

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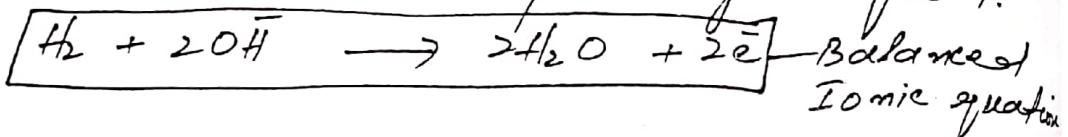
using electrons e.g;



Balance atoms first



Left side contains (-2) charge, so 2 electrons should be written side to keep charges equal.

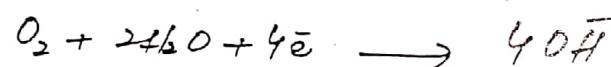
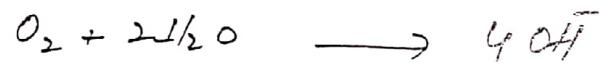


Similarly

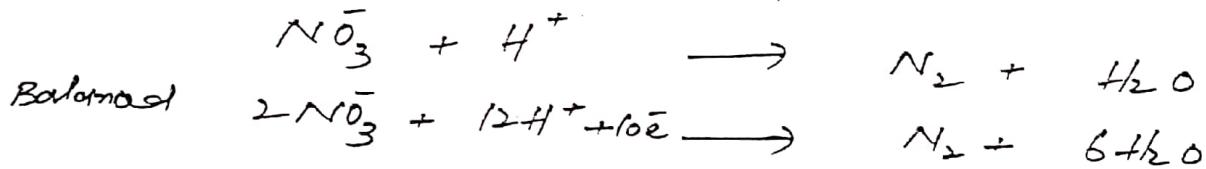
Balance atoms



Balance charges



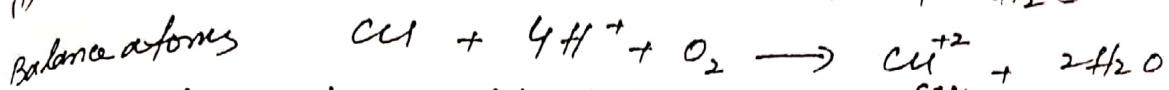
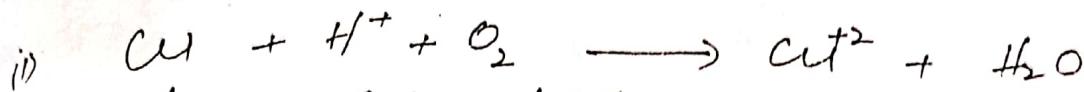
More examples



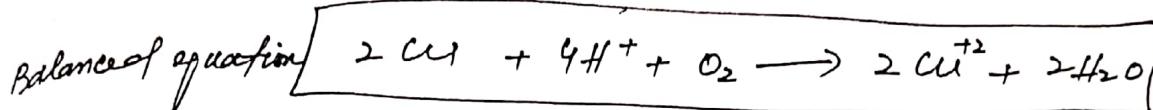
(2) Ionic equations containing charge part at both sides of equation

In such ionic equations, charges are balanced without using electrons, only using multiplication method.

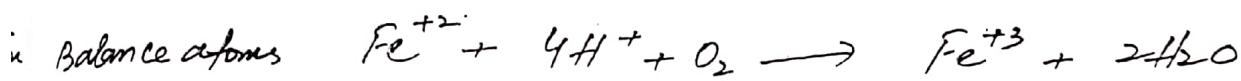
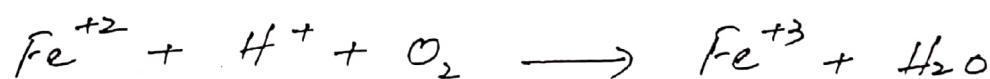
(17)



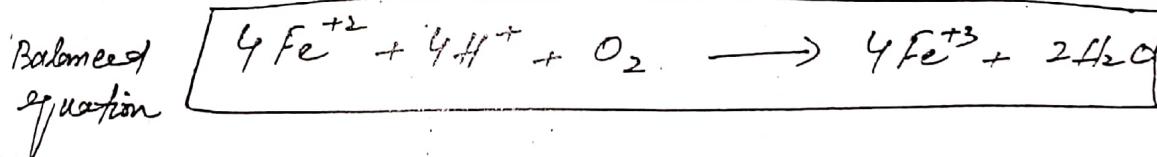
Balance charge by multiplying copper by $\frac{(2)}{(1)}$ both sides



Solve following equation



charges will be balanced by multiplying iron by (4) both sides



10

-

at

!

57

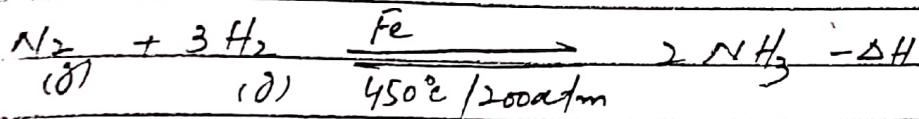
58

Ammonia and its uses

Manufacture of Ammonia

Haber's process

In the industry ammonia is manufactured by Haber's process which is represented by the following equation.



Raw material

N_2

H_2

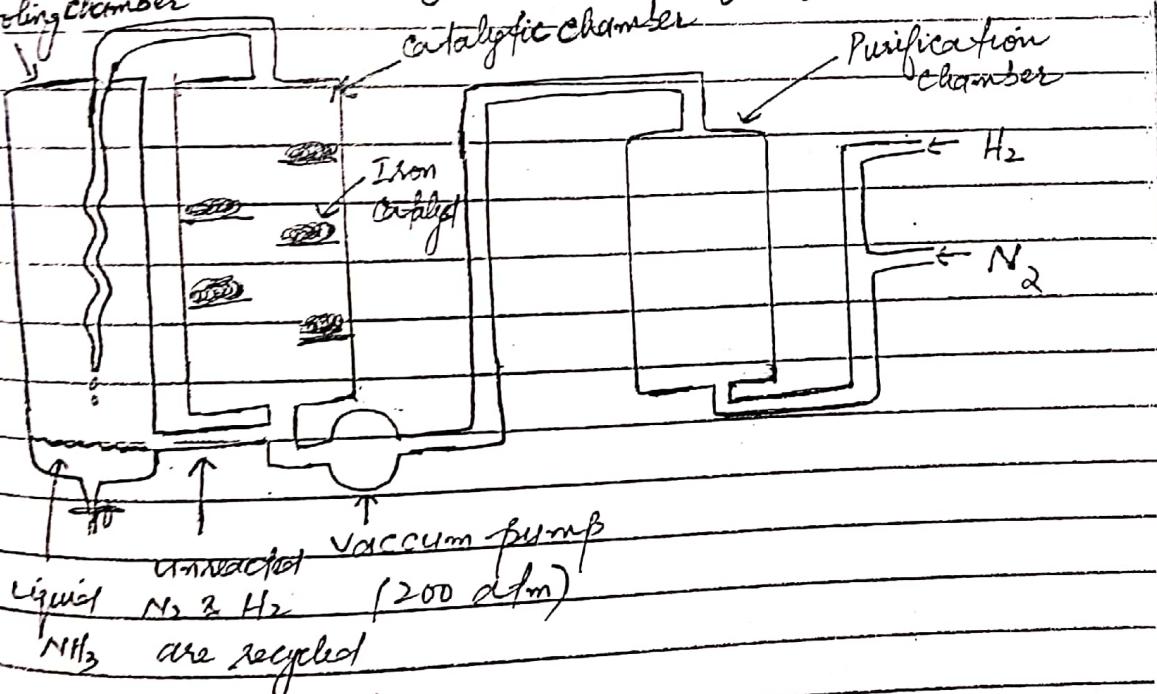
cooling chamber

Source

By the fractional distillation of air
By the cracking of oil

catalytic chamber

Purification chamber



Factors affecting yield of Ammonia

Concentration of reactants & products

Percentage yield of ammonia can be increased by keeping the continuous supply of N_2 & H_2 .

and by continuously removing ammonia from the reaction mixture.

Effect of pressure

High pressure of 200 atm increases the yield of ammonia by shifting dynamic equilibrium towards the product side as there are lesser number of moles towards product side.

Effect of temperature

High temperature of 450°C decreases the yield of ammonia by shifting dynamic equilibrium towards the backward direction as the forward is endothermic.

But this high temperature is maintained to keep the rate of reaction higher.

Uses of ammonia

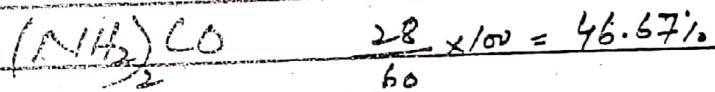
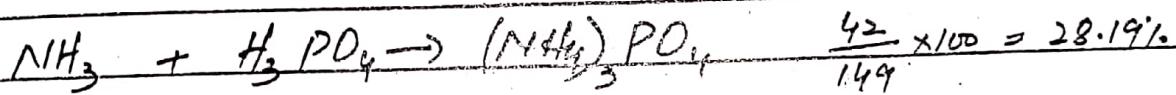
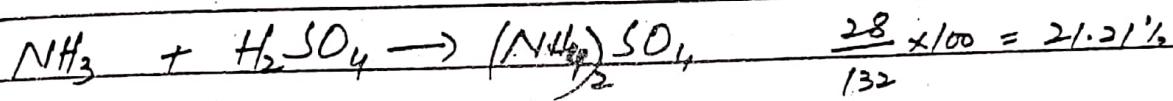
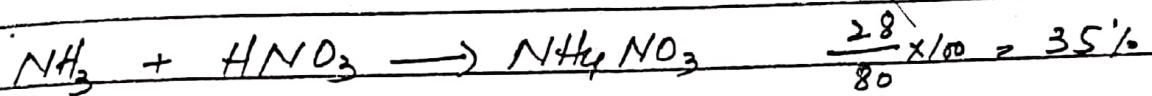
⇒ Ammonia is used in the manufacture of explosives.

⇒ Ammonia is used in the manufacture of nitrogenous fertilisers e.g. ammonium nitrate (NH_4NO_3), Ammonium sulphate ($(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$), Ammonium phosphate ($(\text{NH}_4)_3\text{PO}_4$) and Urea ($(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{CO}$).

Purpose of adding nitrogenous fertilizers in the soil

They are added to replace nitrogen in the soil which is used up by plants to make proteins.

Preparation of fertilizers and percentage of nitrogen



Urea

So Urea is the best nitrogenous fertiliser as it has greater percentage of nitrogen.

Most essential needed by plants

N P K are the most essential elements
nitrogen phosphorus potassium

Least essential elements for plants

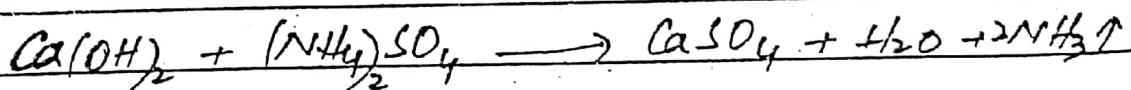
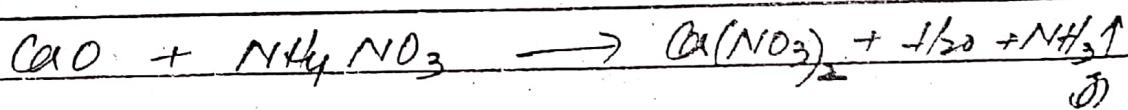
Calcium, Magnesium and Sulphur are the least essential elements needed by plants.

Harmful effect of fertilisers

Fertilisers are acidic in nature, so acidity of the soil is increased and pH of the soil is decreased.

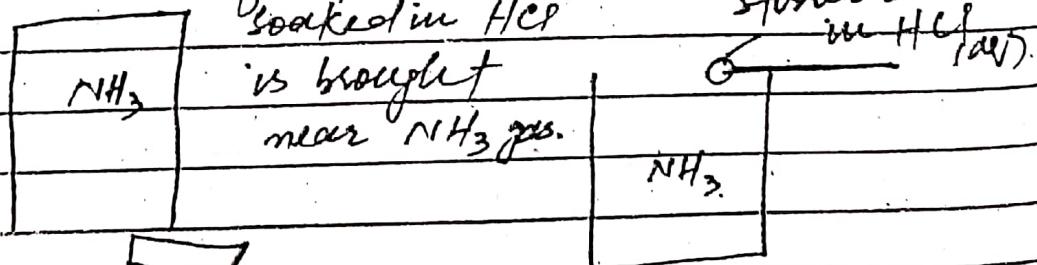
use of lime or limewater to decrease the acidity of the soil

Lime CaO or limewater $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$, which are alkaline in nature is added in the soil to decrease the acidity of the soil and to increase its pH value but this releases NH_3 gas, as a result nitrogen content of the soil is decreased.



Test for NH_3 gas

- i) NH_3 gas turns damp litmus blue
ii) white fumes of NH_4Cl are seen when a stirrer, soaked in HCl



damp litmus blue white fumes of NH_4Cl
are seen

Manufacture of Sulphuric acid by contact process

In the industry sulphuric acid is manufactured by contact process.

Raw materials

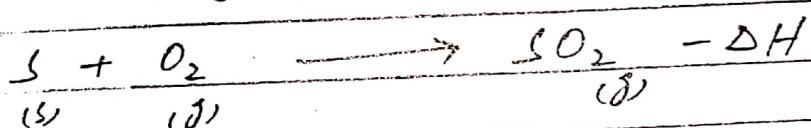
Sulphur

Concentrated H_2SO_4

water

Following steps are involved

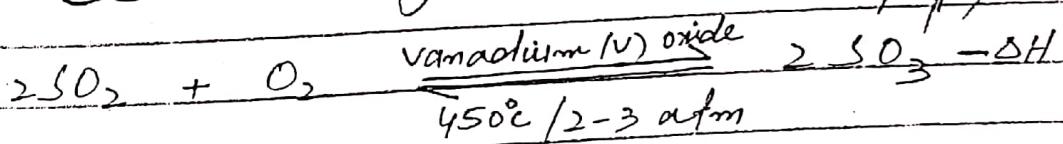
(i) Burning of Sulphur



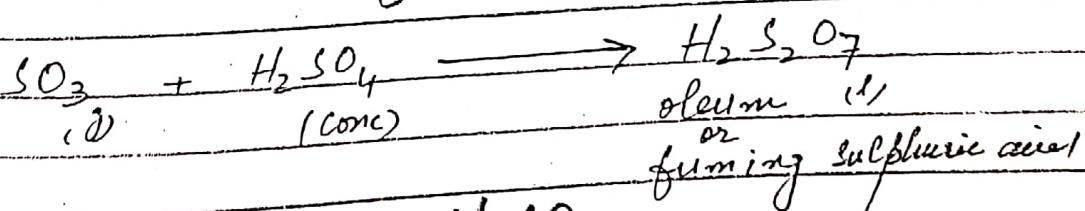
(ii) Purification of SO_2 and air

To remove impurities which can cause poisoning of catalyst.

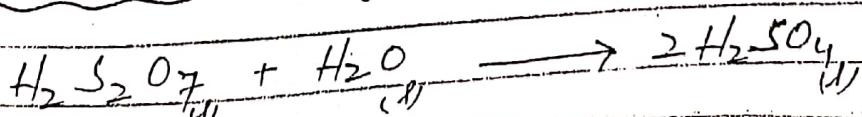
(iii) Oxidation of SO_2 to SO_3 (Most important step)



(iv) Formation of Oleum



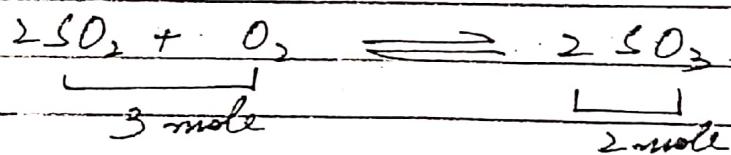
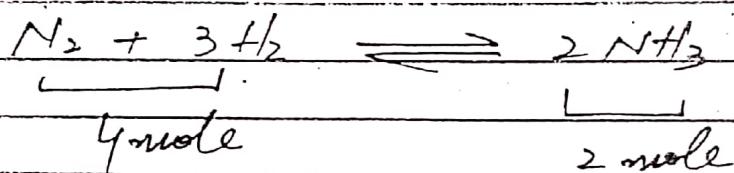
(v) Formation of H_2SO_4



Some important questions

Q:- Why a lower pressure of 2-3 atm used in the oxidation of SO_2 to SO_3 as compared to a very high pressure of 200 atm in the manufacture of ammonia?

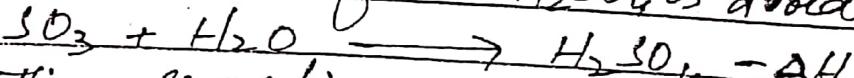
Ans:- High pressure will not be as effective in the oxidation of SO_2 to SO_3 as compared to NH_3 due to the lesser difference of moles between reactant and products.



2nd answer:- Lower pressure will keep process economical.

3rd answer:- High pressure will be risky because SO_2 and SO_3 are very corrosive.

Q:- Why a direct reaction of SO_3 with water to form H_2SO_4 is avoided?



Ans:- This reaction is dangerously exothermic and will cause explosion.

uses of SO_2

- ⇒ used as a preservative in jams, jellies and marmalades.
- ⇒ As bleaching agent to bleach wood pulp in the manufacture of paper.
- ⇒ To sterilise baby bottles

Reason

SO_2 is a very good reducing agent. It oxidises itself and does not let bacteria to multiply by not allowing oxygen to reach bacteria.

uses of sulphuric acid

- ⇒ In the manufacture of detergents.
- ⇒ In the manufacture of fertiliser e.g. Ammonium Sulphate $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$
- ⇒ As an electrolyte in car batteries.

25th January, 2011

Lab Activity

Objective : To perform acid-base titrations

Required :

- a burette.
- a pipette.
- conical flask.
- a beaker.
- dilute Sodium hydroxide (NaOH)
- dilute hydrochloric acid (HCl)

Method: 1) Take the acid (HCl) in a conical flask. Add this in the burette (25cm^3)

- 2) Use the pipette to take 25cm^3 of dilute NaOH in a beaker.
- 3) Place the beaker under the burette that is fixed in a retort stand.
- 4) Add few drops of methyl orange solution to the beaker.

Observations : At the end point the yellow colour of the solution in the beaker becomes red.

- Method :
- 1) Repeat the same experiment one more time after removing the solution from the beaker and taking a fresh solution of dilute NaOH .
 - 2) Do the same experiment, but by using

phenolphthalein as the indicator.

Conclusion :-

Methyl Orange	Phenolphthalein		
Experiment 1	Experiment 2	Experiment 1	Experiment 2
→ 20.9 cm ³ acid (dilute HCl)	21.3 cm ³ acid (dilute HCl)	18.5 cm ³ acid (dilute HCl)	19.2 cm ³ acid (dilute HCl)
→ neutralises 25 cm ³ of alkali (dilute NaOH)	neutralises 25 cm ³ of alkali (dilute NaOH)	neutralises 25 cm ³ of alkali (dilute NaOH)	neutralises 25 cm ³ of alkali (dilute NaOH)

Colour changes : i) Yellow to Red (Methyl Orange)
ii) Purple to Colourless (Phenolphthalein)

Lab Activity

Objectives: To carry out various tests on different solutions, thus determine whether they are acidic, alkaline or neutral.

Solution	Litmus Paper (Result)	pH Paper (Result)	Phenolphthalein (Result)	Methyl Orange (Result)	Magnesium piece	Na_2CO_3
A	Red	1	Colourless	Red	More bubbles (faster reaction)	More bubbles (faster reaction)
B	Red	3	Colourless	Red	Less bubbles (slower reaction)	Less bubbles (slower reaction)
C	No change	7	Colourless	Orange (no change)	—	—
D	Blue	10	Purple	Yellow	—	—
E	Blue	11	Purple	Yellow	—	—
F	Blue	12	Purple	Yellow	—	—
						15
						Q of
						orange
						of
						pot 2