Solution Concentrations

Key terms and concepts

- > Defining solution; Types of solution
- Ways to express solution concentration: percent by weight, percent by volume, Molarity, Molality, Normality, parts per million
- > Solution preparation from solid solute
- > Solution preparation from liquid solute
- > Interconverting concentration units

A solution may be dilute or concentrated:

- A dilute solution is one that contains a relatively small amount of the solute in a given volume of solvent.
- > A concentrated solution contains a relatively large amount of the solute in the same volume of solvent.
- ➤ Generally, a dilute solution
 - Contains a smaller amount of solute than does a concentrated solution
 - Moreover, a dilute solution contains more solvent than an equal volume of concentrated solution does

Solution Concentrations

- Solutions are a homogeneous mixture composed of two or more substances. They consist of a solvent (a liquid, such as water) and one or more solutes (substances that are dissolved in the solvent)
- ➤ The dissolving of a solute in a solvent is a physical change. However, chemical reactions often occur between substances that are in solution. These chemical changes can depend on the amount of substances—that is, their concentrations— in the solution.
- For many solutions, there is a limit to the amount of solute that can be dissolved in the solvent.
- A solution in which no more solute will dissolve is called a **saturated solution**.
- A solution that contains an excess of dissolved solute is called **supersaturated**.
- Actually, a supersaturated solution is unstable and some solute will crystallize if the solution is disturbed. For example, adding a small crystal of the solute can start the crystallization
- An **aqueous** solution is a solution in which the solvent is water.

- ➤ The terms "dilute," "concentrated," and "saturated" can be useful when talking about how much solute is in a solution, but they do not tell us exactly how much solute is present
- Chemists often need to express concentrations in more precise terms. There are different ways to express solution concentration in chemistry—Weight Percent, Volume Percent, Molarity, Molality, Normality, Parts Per Million, etc

Volume Percent (percentage by volume)

➤ Volume percent is often used to express the concentration of a liquid solute in a liquid solvent. The volume percent is equal to the volume of the solvent divided by the total volume of the solution and multiplied by 100 to get a percentage

Sample problem:

➤ A solution is prepared by diluting 10 mL acetic acid with distilled or deionized water to make 100 mL of solution. Calculate the volume percent concentration

Weight Percent (percentage by mass)

➤ Weight percent is often used to express the concentration of a solid substance dissolved in a liquid. The weight percent is equal to the weight of the solute divided by the total weight of the solution and multiplied by 100 to get a percentage

The total mass of the system is the mass of the solute plus the mass of the solvent.

Sample problem:

➤ What is the percentage by mass of a solution made by dissolving 0.49 g of potassium sulfate in 12.70 g of water?

Molarity

>Molarity is the most common way to express concentration in chemistry. Molarity is the number of moles of solute per liter of solution and is given as a number followed by a capital M.

$$Molarity(M) = \frac{moles\ of solute(mol)}{volume\ of\ solution\ in\ liters(L)}$$

Sample problem:

➤ What is the molarity of a solution prepared by dissolving 37.94 g of potassium hydroxide in some water and then diluting the solution to a volume of 500.00 mL?

Example Molarity of Salts in the Sea

(a) Typical seawater contains 2.7 g of salt (sodium chloride, NaCl) per 100 mL (= 100 × 10⁻³ L). What is the molarity of NaCl in the ocean? (b) MgCl₂ has a concentration of 0.054 M in the ocean. How many grams of MgCl₃ are present in 25 mL of seawater?

Solution (a) The molecular mass of NaCl is 22.99 g/mol (Na) + 35.45 g/mol (Cl) = 58.44 g/mol. The moles of salt in 2.7 g are (2.7 g)/(58.44 g/mol) = 0.046 mol, so the molarity is

Molarity of NaCl =
$$\frac{\text{mol NaCl}}{\text{L of seawater}} = \frac{0.046 \text{ mol}}{100 \times 10^{-3} \text{ L}} = 0.46 \text{ M}$$

(b) The molecular mass of MgCl₂ is 24.30 g/mol (Mg) + 2×35.45 g/mol (Cl) = 95.20 g/mol. The number of grams in 25 mL is

Grams of MgCl₂ =
$$\left(0.054 \frac{\text{mol}}{\text{k}}\right) \left(95.20 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{mol}}\right) (25 \times 10^{-3} \text{K}) = 0.13 \text{ g}$$

Normality

➤ It is defined as the number of equivalents per liter rather than the number of moles per liter. It is dependent on the specific chemistry (or reaction) of the analysis. It may be calculated by dividing the equivalents of solute by the liters of solution in which that number of equivalents is dissolved:

normality = N =
$$\frac{\text{number of equivalents of solute}}{1 \text{ liter of solution}} = \frac{\text{equivalents}}{1 \text{ liter}}$$

where

number of equivalents of solute =
$$\frac{\text{grams of solute}}{\text{equivalent weight of solute}}$$

then

$$N = \frac{\text{grams of solute}}{\text{eq wt solute} \times L \text{ solution}} = \frac{\text{grams}}{\text{eq wt} \times L}$$

Molality

> Molality is the amount in moles of solute per kilogram of solvent and is given by a number followed by an italic lowercase m. Molal concentration is important primarily in working with colligative properties of solutions.

Molality =
$$m = \frac{\text{mols of solute}}{\text{kg of solvent}}$$

Sample problem:

➤ Determine the molal concentration of a solution containing 81.3 g of ethylene glycol, HOCH₂CH₂OH, dissolved in 166 g of water.

> Alternative expressions for normality are shown below:

$$normality = \frac{equivalents\ of\ solute}{liter\ of\ solution}$$

$$= \frac{\text{moles of solute} \times \text{equivalents per mole}}{\text{liters of solution}}$$

The equivalent is either the same as the mole or some fraction of the mole, depending on the reaction involved, and the equivalent weight, or the weight of one equivalent, is either the same as the formula weight or some fraction of the formula weight.

 \triangleright Normality is either the same as molarity or some multiple of molarity: N = nM where n is an integer constant \ge 1 and n for a particular species is defined by the reaction type and the balanced chemical reaction.

The equivalent weight of an acid in an acid-base neutralization reaction is defined as the formula weight divided by the number of hydrogen lost per formula of the acid in the reaction. Acids may lose one or more hydrogen (per formula) when reacting with a base.

$$HCl + NaOH \rightarrow NaCl + H_2O$$
 (one hydrogen lost by HCl)
 $H_2SO_4 + 2NaOH \rightarrow Na_2SO_4 + 2H_2O$ (two hydrogens lost by H_2SO_4)

The equivalent weight of HCl is the same as its formula weight, and the equivalent weight of H₂SO₄is half the formula weight.

✓ In the case of HCl, there is one hydrogen lost per formula; one equivalent is therefore the same as the mole, and the equivalent weight is the same as the formula weight.

➤ Thus, the equivalent weight of sodium carbonate may be equal to either the formula weight divided by 1 (105.99 g per equivalent, Equation (4.6)) or the formula weight divided by 2 (52.995 g per equivalent, Equation (4.7)), depending on which reaction is involved.

Sample problem:

➤ What is the normality of a solution of sodium carbonate if 0.6003 g of it is dissolved in 500.00 mL of solution and it is to be used as in Equation (4.7)?

- ✓ In the case of H₂SO₄ in the above reaction, there are two hydrogen lost per formula—two equivalents per mole when used as in the above reaction; the equivalent weight is half the formula weight.
- ➤ The equivalent weight of a base in an acid-base neutralization reaction is defined as the formula weight divided by the number of hydrogen accepted per formula of the base in the reaction.
- ➤ Bases may accept one or more hydrogen (per formula) when reacting with an acid. For example: sodium carbonate is capable of accepting either one or two hydrogen per formula:

$$Na_2CO_3 + HCl \rightarrow NaCl + NaHCO_3$$
 (one hydrogen accepted by Na_2CO_3) (4.6)

$$Na_2CO_3 + 2HCl \rightarrow 2NaCl + H_2CO_3$$
 (two hydrogens accepted by Na_2CO_3) (4.7)

> For a precipitation reaction, the reaction unit is the charge of the cation or anion involved in the reaction; thus for the reaction.

$$Pb^{2+}(aq) + 2I^{-}(aq) \rightleftharpoons PbI_{2}(s)$$

Where n = 2 for Pb2+ and n = 1 for I-.

➤ In the case of Pb2+ , the equivalent weight is half the formula weight. but for I- the equivalent weight is the same as the formula weight.

For a complexation reaction, the reaction unit is the number of electron pairs that can be accepted by the metal or donated by the ligand.

$$Ag^+(aq) + 2NH_3(aq) \rightleftharpoons Ag(NH_3)_2^+(aq)$$

the value of n for Ag ion is 2 and for NH3 is 1

For a redox reaction, the reaction unit is the number of electrons released by the reducing agent or accepted by the oxidizing agent; thus, for the reaction

$$2Fe^{3+}(aq) + Sn^{2+}(aq) \Rightarrow Sn^{4+}(aq) + 2Fe^{2+}(aq)$$

n=1 for Fe3+ and n=2 for Sn2+.

Other variations on this theme include:

- > ppt parts per thousand (used for common ions in sea water)
- > ppb parts per billion (used for heavy metals and organics)
- > ppt parts per trillion (used for trace metals and trace organics)

The following table summarizes common mass ratios for solutions and solids.

Unit	Solutions		Solids	
ppm	mg/L	μg/mL	mg/kg	μg/g
ppb	μg/L	ng/mL	μg/kg	ng/g
ppt	ng/L	pg/mL	ng/kg	pg/g

Sample problem: A 0.186 mg of zinc per milliliter of blood plasma is considered normal for an adult male. Calculate the ppm of zinc in blood plasma given this data. The density of blood plasma at $37~^{\circ}\text{C}$ is 1.00~g/mL.

Parts per million:

> It is usually applied to very dilute solutions. Many environmental samples contain trace amounts of solute impurities and the concentration of these impurities are reported in *parts per million* (ppm). It is defined as,

Parts per million, ppm = (mass of solute/mass of solution) x 10⁶

➤ Assuming the density of water is 1.00 g/mL, 1 liter of solution = 1 kg and hence, 1 mg/L = 1 ppm. This is generally true for freshwater and other dilute aqueous solutions

 \geq Alternatively, the number of milligrams of solute per kg of solution is equal to 1 ppm, since 1 mg = 10^{-3} g and 1 kg = 10^{3} g

Preparing Solutions

Solid solute and Molarity

To prepare a solution with a desired molarity from a pure solid or liquid, we weigh out the correct mass of reagent and dissolve it in the desired volume in a volumetric flask

➤ The grams of solute that are required can be calculated from the desired molarity and volume of solution

grams to weigh =
$$L_D \times M_D \times FW_{SOL}$$

Where, LD refers to the liters desired,

MD to the desired molarity, and

FW SOL to the formula weight of solute

- > The grams of solute thus calculated is weighed and placed in the container.
- ➤ Water is added to dissolve the solute and to dilute the solution to volume. Following this, the solution is shaken to make it homogeneous.

Sample problem

➤ How would you prepare 500.0 mL of a 0.20 M solution of NaOH from pure, solid NaOH?

Solid solute and Normality

➤ To determine the weight of a solid that is needed to prepare a solution of a given normality, we first calculate the grams of solute that are required using the following equation:

grams to weigh =
$$L_D \times N_D \times EW_{SOL}$$

$$C_B \times V_B = C_A \times V_A$$

Here C refers to concentration

V refers to volume

B refers to before dilution, and A refers to after dilution

>Thus, the analyst can know how much of this more concentrated solution to measure out in order to prepare the less concentrated solution.

Where, Lp is the liters of solution desired

No is the normality desired, and

EWsoL is the equivalent weight of the solute

➤ In order to calculate the equivalent weight of an acid, the balanced equation representing the reaction in which the solution is to be used is needed so that the number of hydrogen lost per formula in the reaction can be determined.

Solution preparation by dilution

>If a solution is prepared by diluting another solution whose concentration is precisely known, the following dilution equation may be used to calculate the volume of the solution to be diluted (the volume before dilution):

Example Preparing a Solution with a Desired Molarity

Copper(II) sulfate pentahydrate, CuSO₄ · 5H₂O, has 5 moles of H₂O for each mole of CuSO₄ in the solid crystal. The formula mass of CuSO₄ · 5H₂O (= CuSO₂H₁₀) is 249.69 g/mol. (Copper(II) sulfate without water in the crystal has the formula CuSO₄ and is said to be anhydrous.) How many grams of CuSO₄ · 5H₂O should be dissolved in a volume of 500.0 mL to make 8.00 mM Cu²-?

Solution An 8.00 mM solution contains 8.00 × 10⁻³ mol/L. We need

$$8.00 \times 10^{-3} \frac{\text{mol}}{\mathcal{U}} \times 0.500 \, 0 \, \mathcal{U} = 4.00 \times 10^{-3} \, \text{mol CuSO}_4 \cdot 5 \text{H}_2 \text{O}$$

The mass of reagent is $(4.00 \times 10^{-3} \text{ med}) \times \left(249.69 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{med}}\right) = 0.999 \text{ g}.$

Example Preparing 0.100 M HCI

The molarity of "concentrated" HCl purchased for laboratory use is approximately 12.1 M. How many milliliters of this reagent should be diluted to 1.000 L to make 0.100 M HCl?

Solution The dilution formula handles this problem directly:

$$M_{conc} \cdot V_{conc} = M_{dil} \cdot V_{dil}$$

$$(12.1 \text{ M}) \cdot (x \text{ mL}) = (0.100 \text{ M}) \cdot (1000 \text{ mL}) \Rightarrow x = 8.26 \text{ mL}$$

To make 0.100 M HCl, we would dilute 8.26 mL of concentrated HCl up to 1.000 L. The concentration will not be exactly 0.100 M, because the reagent is not exactly 12.1 M. A table inside the cover of this book gives volumes of common reagents required to make 1.0 M solutions.

Example A More Complicated Dilution Calculation

A solution of ammonia in water is called "ammonium hydroxide" because of the equilibrium

$$NH_3 + H_2O \rightleftharpoons NH_2^+ + OH^-$$

(1-4)

The density of concentrated ammonium hydroxide, which contains 28.0 wt% NH₃, is 0.899 g/mL. What volume of this reagent should be diluted to 500.0 mL to make 0.250 M NH.?

Solution To use Equation 1-3, we need to know the molarity of the concentrated reagent. The solution contains 0.899 g of solution per milliliter and there is 0.280 g of NH₃ per gram of solution (28.0 wf%), so we can write

Molarity of NH₃ =
$$\frac{899 \frac{g \text{-solution}}{L} \times 0.280 \frac{g \times \text{NH}_3}{g \text{-solution}}}{17.03 \frac{g \times \text{NH}_3}{\text{mol NH}_4}} = 14.8 \text{ M}$$

Now we find the volume of 14.8 M NH3 required to prepare 500.0 mL of 0.250 M NH3:

$$M_{conc} \cdot V_{conc} = M_{dil} \cdot V_{dil}$$

$$14.8~\mathrm{M} \times V_{\mathrm{conc}} = 0.250~\mathrm{M} \times 500.0~\mathrm{mL} \Rightarrow V_{\mathrm{conc}} = 8.45~\mathrm{mL}$$

The procedure is to place 8.45 mL of concentrated reagent in a 500-mL volumetric flask, add about 400 mL of water, and swirl to mix. Then dilute to exactly 500 mL with water and invert the flask many times to mix well.

Interconverting concentration units

Example Converting Weight Percent into Molarity and Molality

Find the molarity and molality of 37.0 wt% HCl. The **density** of a substance is the mass per unit volume. The table inside the back cover of this book tells us that the density of the reagent is 1.19 g/ml.

Solution For molarity, we need to find the moles of HCl per liter of solution. The mass of a liter of solution is $(1.19 \text{ g/miL})(1000 \text{ mL}) = 1.19 \times 10^3 \text{ g}$. The mass of HCl in a liter is

Mass of HCl per liter =
$$\left(1.19 \times 10^3 \frac{\text{g-solution}}{L}\right) \left(0.370 \frac{\text{g HCl}}{\text{g-solution}}\right) = 4.40 \times 10^2 \frac{\text{g HCl}}{L}$$
This is what 13.0 arts. Forms

The molecular mass of HCl is 36.46 g/mol, so the molarity is

$$Molarity = \frac{mol\ HCl}{L\ solution} = \frac{4.40\times10^2\ g\ HCl/L}{36.46\ g\ HCl/mol} = 12.1\frac{mol}{L} = 12.1\ M$$

For molality, we need to find the moles of HCl per kilogram of solvent (which is $\rm H_2O$). The solution is 37.0 wt% HCl, so we know that 100.0 g of solution contains 37.0 g of HCl and 100.0-37.0=63.0 g of $\rm H_2O=0.0630$ kg). But 37.0 g of HCl contains 37.0 $\rm g/(36.46$ g/mol) = 1.01 mol. The molality is therefore

Molality =
$$\frac{\text{mol HCl}}{\text{kg of solvent}}$$
 = $\frac{1.01 \text{ mol HCl}}{0.063 0 \text{ kg H}_2\text{O}}$ = 16.1 m

Sample problems

Sample problem 2:

➤ How many grams of KH₂PO₄ are needed to prepare 500.0 mL of a 0.200 N solution if it is to be used as in the following reaction?

$$KH_2PO_4 + 2KOH \rightarrow K_3PO_4 + 2H_2O$$

Sample problem 1:

➤ How many milliliters of 12 M hydrochloric acid are needed to prepare 500.0 mL of a 0.60 M solution?

Example Converting Parts per Billion into Molarity

Normal alkanes are hydrocarbons with the formula $C_n H_{2n+2}$. Plants selectively synthesize alkanes with an odd number of carbon atoms. The concentration of $C_{29}H_{60}$ in summer rainwater collected in Hannover, Germany, is 34 ppb. Find the molarity of $C_{29}H_{60}$ and express the answer with a prefix from Table 1-3.

Solution A concentration of 34 ppb means there are 34 ng of $C_{29}H_{60}$ per gram of rainwater, a value that we equate to 34 ng/mL. Multiplying nanograms and milliliters by 1 000 gives 34 μg of $C_{29}H_{60}$ per liter of rainwater. Because the molecular mass of $C_{29}H_{60}$ is 408.8 g/mol, the molarity is

Molarity of
$$C_{29}H_{60}$$
 in rainwater = $\frac{34 \times 10^{-6} \text{ g/L}}{408.8 \text{ g/mol}} = 8.3 \times 10^{-8} \text{ M}$

An appropriate prefix from Table 1-3 would be nano (n), which is a multiple of 10-9:

$$8.3 \times 10^{-8} M \left(\frac{1 \text{ nM}}{10^{-9} M} \right) = 83 \text{ nM}$$

What Do We Mean by "Ionic Strength"?

Ionic strength, μ, is a measure of the total concentration of ions in solution. The more highly charged an ion, the more it is counted.

$$\mu = \frac{1}{2}(c_1 z_1^2 + c_2 z_2^2 + \cdots) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i c_i z_i^2$$

where c_i is the concentration of the *i*th species and z_i is its charge. The sum extends over *all* ions in solution.

Example Calculation of Ionic Strength

Find the ionic strength of (a) 0.10 M NaNO₃; (b) 0.010 M Na₂SO₄; and (c) 0.020 M KBr plus 0.010 M Na₂SO₄.

Solution

(a)
$$\mu = \frac{1}{2} \{ [Na^+] \cdot (+1)^2 + [NO_5^-] \cdot (-1)^2 \}$$

 $= \frac{1}{2} \{ 0.10 \cdot 1 + 0.10 \cdot 1 \} = 0.10 \text{ M}$
(b) $\mu = \frac{1}{2} \{ [Na^+] \cdot (+1)^2 + [SO_2^-] \cdot (-2)^2 \}$

 $= \frac{1}{2} \{ (0.020 \cdot 1) + (0.010 \cdot 4) \} = 0.030 \,\mathrm{M}$

Note that [Na+] = 0.020 M because there are two moles of Na+ per mole of Na₂SO₄.

■ ■ 8-2 Activity Coefficients

The equilibrium constant expression in Equation 8-1 does not predict any effect of ionic strength on a chemical reaction. To account for the effect of ionic strength, concentrations are replaced by activities:

The activity of species C is its concentration multiplied by its activity coefficient. The activity coefficient measures the deviation of behavior from ideality. If the activity coefficient were 1, then the behavior would be ideal and the form of the equilibrium constant in Equation 8-1 would be correct.

The correct form of the equilibrium constant is

General form of equilibrium constant:

$$K = \frac{\mathcal{A}_{\xi} \mathcal{A}_{\delta}^{d}}{\mathcal{A}_{\alpha}^{d} \mathcal{A}_{\delta}^{b}} = \frac{[C]^{c} \gamma_{\xi}[D]^{d} \gamma_{\delta}^{d}}{[A]^{a} \gamma_{\alpha}^{d}[B]^{b} \gamma_{\delta}^{b}}$$
(8-5)

Equation 8-5 allows for the effect of ionic strength on a chemical equilibrium because the activity coefficients depend on ionic strength.

(c)
$$\mu = \frac{1}{2} \{ [K^+] \cdot (+1)^2 + [Br^-] \cdot (-1)^2 + [Na^+] \cdot (+1)^2 + [SO_4^{2-}] \cdot (-2)^2 \}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \{ (0.020 \cdot 1) + (0.020 \cdot 1) + (0.020 \cdot 1) + (0.010 \cdot 4) \} = 0.050 \text{ M}$$

 $NaNO_3$ is called a 1:1 electrolyte because the cation and the anion both have a charge of 1. For 1:1 electrolytes, the ionic strength equals the molarity. For other stoichiometries (such as the 2:1 electrolyte Na_2SO_4), the ionic strength is greater than the molarity.

Computing the ionic strength of any but the most dilute solutions is complicated because salts with ions of charge ≥ 2 are not fully dissociated. In Box 8-1 we find that, at a formal concentration of 0.025 M MgSO₄, 35% of Mg²⁺ is bound in the ion pair, MgSO₄(aq). The higher the concentration and the higher the ionic charge, the more the ion pairing. There is no simple way to find the ionic strength of 0.025 M MgSO₄.

For Reaction 8-2, the equilibrium constant is

$$K_{sp} = A_{Ca^{2+}}A_{SO_4^{2-}} = [Ca^{2+}]\gamma_{Ca^{2+}}[SO_4^{2-}]\gamma_{SO_4^{2-}}$$

If the concentrations of Ca²⁺ and SO₄²⁻ are to *increase* when a second salt is added to increase ionic strength, the activity coefficients must *decrease* with increasing ionic strength.

At low ionic strength, activity coefficients approach unity, and the thermodynamic equilibrium constant (8-5) approaches the "concentration" equilibrium constant (6-2). One way to measure a thermodynamic equilibrium constant is to measure the concentration ratio (6-2) at successively lower ionic strengths and extrapolate to zero ionic strength. Commonly, tabulated equilibrium constants are not thermodynamic constants but just the concentration ratio (6-2) measured under a particular set of conditions.

Example Exponents of Activity Coefficients

Write the solubility product expression for La2(SO4)3 with activity coefficients.

Solution Exponents of activity coefficients are the same as exponents of concentrations:

$$K_{\rm sp} = \mathcal{A}_{\rm La^{3+}}^2 \mathcal{A}_{\rm SO_4^{2-}}^3 = [{\rm La^{3+}}]^2 \gamma_{\rm La^{3+}}^2 [{\rm SO_4^{2-}}]^3 \gamma_{\rm SO_4^{2-}}^3$$

Activity Coefficients of Ions

The ionic atmosphere model leads to the extended Debye-Hückel equation, relating activity coefficients to ionic strength:

Extended Debye-Hückel equation:

$$\log \gamma = \frac{-0.51z^2\sqrt{\mu}}{1 + (\alpha\sqrt{\mu}/305)} \text{ (at 25°C)}$$

In Equation 8-6, γ is the activity coefficient of an ion of charge $\pm z$ and size α (picometers, pm) in an aqueous solution of ionic strength μ . The equation works fairly well for $\mu \leq 0.1$ M. To find activity coefficients for ionic strengths above 0.1 M (up to molalities of 2–6 mol/kg for many salts), more complicated *Pitzer equations* are usually used.⁷

Table 8-1 lists sizes (α) and activity coefficients of many ions. All ions of the same size and charge appear in the same group and have the same activity coefficients. For example, Ba²⁺ and succinate ion [$-O_2CCH_2CH_2CO_2$, listed as $(CH_2CO_3^-)_2$] each have a size of 500 pm and are listed among the charge = ± 2 ions. At an ionic strength of 0.001 M, both of these ions have an activity coefficient of 0.868.

Activity Coefficients of Nonionic Compounds

Neutral molecules, such as benzene and acetic acid, have no ionic atmosphere because they have no charge. To a good approximation, their activity coefficients are unity when the ionic strength is less than 0.1 M. In this book, we set $\gamma=1$ for neutral molecules. That is, the activity of a neutral molecule will be assumed to be equal to its concentration.

For gases such as H2, the activity is written

$$A_{H_a} = P_{H_a} \gamma_{H_a}$$

where $P_{\rm H_2}$ is pressure in bars. The activity of a gas is called its *fugacity*, and the activity coefficient is called the *fugacity coefficient*. Deviation of gas behavior from the ideal gas law results in deviation of the fugacity coefficient from unity. For gases at or below 1 bar, $\gamma \approx 1$. Therefore, for all gases, we will set $\mathcal{A} = P(bar)$.

High Ionic Strengths

Above an ionic strength of approximately 1 M, activity coefficients of most ions increase, as shown for H^+ in NaClO $_4$ solutions in Figure 8-5. We should not be too surprised that activity coefficients in concentrated salt solutions are not the same as those in dilute aqueous solution. The "solvent" is no longer H_2O but, rather, a mixture of H_2O and NaClO $_4$. Hereafter, we limit our attention to dilute aqueous solutions.

Example Using Table 8-1

Find the activity coefficient of Ca2+ in a solution of 3.3 mM CaCl2.

Solution The ionic strength is

$$\begin{split} \mu &= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ [Ca^{2+}] \cdot 2^2 + [CI^-] \cdot (-1)^2 \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ (0.003\ 3) \cdot 4 + (0.006\ 6) \cdot 1 \right\} = 0.010\ M \end{split}$$

In Table 8-1, Ca²⁺ is listed under the charge ± 2 and has a size of 600 pm. Thus $\gamma = 0.675$ when $\mu = 0.010$ M.

Another Solution A better and slightly more tedious calculation uses Equation 8-6, with the ion size $\alpha = 900$ pm listed for H⁺ in Table 8-1:

$$\log \gamma_{H^*} = \frac{(-0.51)(1^2)\sqrt{0.025}}{1 + (900\sqrt{0.025} / 305)} = -0.054_{98}$$

$$\gamma_{H^*} = 10^{-0.054_{98}} = 0.88_1$$

Practice Exercises

- ➤ How many grams of perchloric acid are contained in 37.6 g of 70.5 % (w/w) aqueous perchloric acid? How many grams of water are in the same solution?
- ➤ Citric acid (molar mass 192.12 g) is a weak acid with three acidic hydrogens. Suppose a solution is prepared by dissolving 2.136 g of citric acid in water to give 1.43 L of solution.
 - a) What is the equivalent weight of citric acid?
 - b) What is the normality of the resulting solution?
- ➤ An aqueous solution containing 20.0 % (w/w) KI has a density of 1.168 g/mL. Find the molality of the KI solution.

