UNIT 2

Acid-Base Titration: Theories of Acid-Base Indicators

Introduction

Acid-base titration is a type of volumetric analysis used to determine the concentration of an acid or base by neutralizing it with a base or acid of known concentration. To detect the endpoint of the titration, **acid-base indicators** are used.

Indicators are **weak organic acids or bases** that change color depending on the pH of the solution. The choice of a suitable indicator depends on the **pH range** over which the color change occurs.

Theories of Acid-Base Indicators

There are two primary theories that explain how acid-base indicators work:

1. Ostwald's Theory (Ionization Theory)

Proposed by: Wilhelm Ostwald

Basic concept:

According to Ostwald, indicators are **weak acids or weak bases**. The color change is due to a shift in the equilibrium between the **ionized and unionized forms** of the indicator, which are **different in color**.

Let the indicator be a weak acid: $HIn \rightleftharpoons H^+ + In^-$

- Hin = one color (e.g., red)
- In = different color (e.g., yellow)

When:

- [H*] is high (acidic medium): Equilibrium shifts to the left \rightarrow more HIn \rightarrow one color
- [H⁺] is low (basic medium): Equilibrium shifts to the right → more In⁻ → another color

pH range of indicator:

The indicator changes color within the pH range:

pH=pKIn±1

Where K_a is the dissociation constant of the indicator.

Example:

- · Methyl orange:
 - o Red in acidic medium (HIn)
 - Yellow in basic medium (In⁻)
 - o pH range: 3.1 to 4.4
 - Phenolphthalein: Colorless in acid (HIn) and Pink in base (In⁻) " pH range: 8.3 to 10.0

2. Quinonoid Theory

Proposed by: F. Koelsch (for phenolphthalein-type indicators)

Basic concept:

This theory is based on **structural changes** in the indicator molecules. Indicators exist in two tautomeric forms:

• Benzenoid form: Colorless or one color

• Quinonoid form: Colored form

The indicator undergoes a structural transformation in response to pH changes.

Example: Phenolphthalein

- In acidic medium → benzenoid structure → colorless
- In basic medium → quinonoid structure → pink

This theory explains color changes better for complex organic indicators like phenolphthalein, which do not fit well under Ostwald's theory alone.

Classification of Acid-Base Titrations

Acid-base titrations are analytical procedures used to determine the concentration of an acidic or basic substance by reacting it with a base or acid of known strength. These are **neutralization reactions**, and they are classified based on the **strength of the acid and base involved**.

1. Strong Acid vs Strong Base

Example: HCl vs NaOH

Reaction:

HCl+NaOH→NaCl+H2O

- Sharp and clear endpoint
- Equivalence point at pH ≈ 7
- Suitable indicators:
 - Phenolphthalein (colorless → pink)
 - Methyl orange (red → yellow)

2. Strong Acid vs Weak Base

Example: HCl vs NH4OH

Reaction:

HCl+NH4OH→NH4Cl+H2OEquivalence point at pH < 7 (acidic)

- Salt formed (ammonium chloride) undergoes hydrolysis
- Suitable indicator:
 - Methyl orange (acidic range)

3. Weak Acid vs Strong Base

Example: CH₃COOH vs NaOH

Reaction:

CH3COOH+NaOH→CH3COONa+H2O

Equivalence point at pH > 7 (alkaline)

- Salt (sodium acetate) hydrolyzes to give basic solution
- Suitable indicator:
 - o Phenolphthalein

4. Weak Acid vs Weak Base

Example: CH₃COOH vs NH₄OH

Reaction:

CH3COOH+NH4OH→CH3COONH4+H2O

No sharp endpoint due to very gradual pH change

- Equivalence point around pH ≈ 7, but transition is not sharp
- No suitable indicator
- Rarely used in titrimetric analysis

Summary Table

Titration Type	Equivalence Point pH	Suitable Indicator
Strong acid vs Strong base	~7	Methyl orange, phenolphthalein
Strong acid vs Weak base	<7	Methyl orange
Weak acid vs Strong base	>7	Phenolphthalein
Weak acid vs Weak base	~7 (no sharp change)	No suitable indicator

Theory Involved in Titrations of Strong, Weak, and Very Weak Acids and Bases

Acid-base titrations are based on the principle of **neutralization**, where an acid reacts with a base to form salt and water. The nature of the acid and base (whether strong or weak) influences the **pH change**, **titration curve**, and **choice of indicator**. Understanding the theoretical basis is essential for accurate endpoint determination.

1. Titration of Strong Acid with Strong Base

Example: HCl vs NaOH

Theory:

- Both acid and base are **completely ionized** in solution.
- The reaction goes to completion:

 $H++OH-\rightarrow H2O \setminus \{H\}^+ + \det\{OH\}^- \setminus \{H\}_2 \setminus \{O\}H++OH-\rightarrow H2O \setminus \{H\}_2 \setminus \{O\}H++OH-\rightarrow H2O \setminus \{H\}_2 \setminus \{G\}H++OH-\rightarrow H2O \setminus \{G\}H$

- The pH at the equivalence point is 7.
- Sharp and steep pH change occurs near equivalence point.
- Any indicator with a pH range between 4 to 10 (like phenolphthalein or methyl orange) can be used.

2. Titration of Strong Acid with Weak Base

Example: HCl vs NH₄OH

Theory:

- Acid is strong and completely dissociated, but the base is weak and partially ionized.
- The reaction:

H++OH-→H2O

However, the OH⁻ comes from a partially ionized weak base.

- The salt formed (NH₄Cl) undergoes hydrolysis, producing H⁺ ions.
- The pH at the equivalence point is < 7 (acidic).
- The titration curve shows a **gradual pH rise**, not very steep.
- **Methyl orange** is suitable due to its acidic transition range (3.1–4.4).

3. Titration of Weak Acid with Strong Base

Example: CH₃COOH vs NaOH

Theory:

- The acid is weak and partially dissociated, while the base is strong and fully ionized.
- Reaction:

CH3COOH+OH-→CH3COO+H2O

The conjugate base (CH₃COO⁻) of the weak acid is formed.

- The solution at equivalence point is **basic (pH > 7)** due to hydrolysis of the acetate ion.
- The titration curve shows a slow initial rise in pH, followed by a steep increase near equivalence.
- **Phenolphthalein** is suitable (pH range: 8.3–10.0).

4. Titration of Weak Acid with Weak Base

Example: CH₃COOH vs NH₄OH

Theory:

- Both acid and base are weak and partially ionized.
- Reaction is incomplete and does not yield a sharp equivalence point.
- The salt (CH₃COONH₄) undergoes hydrolysis, leading to a nearly **neutral or slightly** acidic/basic solution.
- The **pH change around equivalence is very small**, making it hard to detect the endpoint visually.
- No suitable indicator gives a clear endpoint.
- Not preferred for titrimetric analysis unless instrumental methods (e.g., potentiometry) are used.

5. Titration of Very Weak Acid or Very Weak Base

Theory:

- Very weak acids (like boric acid) or very weak bases (like aniline) ionize to a very small
 extent in water.
- They do not react completely with titrants under normal conditions.
- Their titrations require:
 - Use of **non-aqueous solvents** (e.g., glacial acetic acid or ethanol)
 - o Use of modified titration techniques
- **Special indicators** or instrumental methods are essential.

Key Factors Influencing Titration Behavior

- **Dissociation constant (Ka or Kb):** Stronger acid/base → sharper curve
- Salt hydrolysis: Affects pH at equivalence point
- **Buffer formation:** Occurs in weak acid/base titrations
- Titration curve slope: Determines indicator choice
- Indicator selection: Based on expected pH at equivalence point

Neutralization Curves (Titration Curves)

A **neutralization curve** (also called a **titration curve**) is a plot of **pH versus volume of titrant added** during an acid-base titration. It reflects the change in pH as the titration progresses and helps in identifying the **equivalence point**, selecting the **appropriate indicator**, and understanding the acid-base behavior.

Titration curves differ based on the strength of the acid and base involved. Four main types are discussed below.

1. Strong Acid vs Strong Base

Example: HCl titrated with NaOH

Initial pH: Very low (~1), due to complete dissociation of strong acid.

As base is added: pH increases gradually.

Near equivalence point: Rapid and steep rise in pH.

Equivalence point: Occurs at pH = 7.

After equivalence point: pH increases more slowly due to excess OH⁻.

Key characteristics:

• Sharp and vertical curve near equivalence point.

• Suitable indicators: Phenolphthalein, Methyl orange.

2. Weak Acid vs Strong Base

Example: Acetic acid titrated with NaOH

Initial pH: Moderately low (~3–4), because acetic acid is weak and partially ionized.

As base is added: Gradual increase in pH due to buffer formation.

Buffer region: Significant pH stability due to CH₃COOH/CH₃COO⁻ system.

Equivalence point: Occurs at pH > 7 (typically \sim 8.7) due to basic nature of salt.

After equivalence point: pH rises sharply, then levels out.

Key characteristics:

Curved slope before and after equivalence.

Buffering effect visible.

• Suitable indicator: Phenolphthalein.

3. Strong Acid vs Weak Base

Example: HCl titrated with NH₄OH

Initial pH: Low (~1), due to strong acid.

As base is added: pH rises slowly due to weak base.

Equivalence point: Occurs at pH < 7 (typically \sim 5.5) due to acidic salt NH₄Cl.

After equivalence point: pH levels off slowly.

Key characteristics:

Gradual pH rise.

No steep inflection.

• Suitable indicator: Methyl orange.

4. Weak Acid vs Weak Base

Example: Acetic acid titrated with Ammonium hydroxide

Initial pH: ~4.5

As titration proceeds: pH rises slowly.

Equivalence point: Near neutral (pH \sim 6–7), but the change is very gradual.

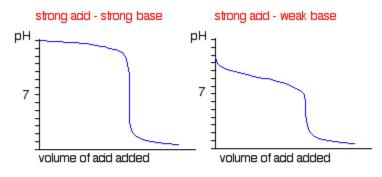
Overall curve: Flat with no sharp vertical region.

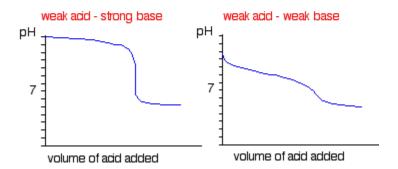
Key characteristics:

No distinct equivalence point.

• Not suitable for manual titration with visual indicators.

• Requires instrumental methods like potentiometric titration.





Non-Aqueous Titration – Solvents

Introduction:

Non-aqueous titration is a titrimetric method in which the titration is carried out in a **solvent other than water**. It is used for analyzing **weakly acidic or basic substances** that do not dissolve well or do not ionize completely in aqueous media. This method improves solubility and enhances the strength of weak acids or bases by using appropriate non-aqueous solvents.

Role of Solvents in Non-Aqueous Titration:

The **solvent system** is the most critical component of non-aqueous titration. Solvents affect the **dissociation** of analytes and the **sharpness** of the end point. Depending on their nature, solvents are classified into four major types:

1. Aprotic Solvents:

- These are neutral and non-ionizing solvents.
- They do not donate or accept protons.
- Often used as diluents in titrations to increase solubility.
- Examples:
 - o Benzene
 - Chloroform
 - Carbon tetrachloride
 - Toluene

These solvents are **inert** and do not interfere with the titration reaction, but they do not enhance ionization either.

2. Protophilic Solvents:

- These are basic solvents that accept protons (H⁺).
- They help in ionizing acidic substances, making them suitable for titration of weak acids.
- Examples:
 - Dimethylformamide (DMF)
 - Ethylenediamine
 - o Pyridine
 - o Triethylamine

These solvents improve the ionization of **weak acids** by stabilizing the proton donated by the acid.

3. Protogenic Solvents:

- These are acidic solvents that donate protons (H⁺).
- They are suitable for **basic substances**, as they help in their ionization by supplying protons.

• Examples:

- o Glacial acetic acid
- o Sulfuric acid
- o Formic acid

These solvents are used to **titrate weak bases** like antihistamines, alkaloids, etc., in the pharmaceutical field.

4. Amphiprotic Solvents:

- These solvents can both **donate and accept protons**, depending on the situation.
- They behave like **water** to some extent in their ability to support both acid and base titrations.

• Examples:

- Alcohols (ethanol, methanol)
- Acetic acid (in some conditions)

These are used for titrations involving compounds of moderate acid-base character.

Key Considerations in Solvent Selection:

- **Solubility** of analyte in the chosen solvent
- **Ionizing power** of the solvent (high for strong titrations)
- Inertness solvent must not react with titrant or analyte
- Solvent's ability to support indicator color change
- Volatility and safety (some are toxic or flammable)

Acidimetry and Alkalimetry in Non-Aqueous Titrations

Introduction

In **non-aqueous titrations**, **acidimetry** and **alkalimetry** involve the estimation of acidic or basic drug substances **in solvents other than water**, especially when these substances are **insoluble** or **weakly ionized** in water. The use of appropriate **non-aqueous solvents** enhances solubility and ionization, allowing accurate titration.

These methods are particularly useful in **pharmaceutical analysis**, where many drug substances are **weak bases (e.g., alkaloids)** or **weak acids (e.g., barbiturates)** and are not titratable in aqueous media.

Non-Aqueous Acidimetry

Definition:

Titration of **basic substances** with a **standard non-aqueous acid solution** (like perchloric acid) in a suitable **non-aqueous solvent**.

Purpose:

To analyze weak bases which do not give a sharp endpoint in aqueous titrations.

Common titrants:

• Perchloric acid in glacial acetic acid

Common solvents:

- Glacial acetic acid (protogenic solvent)
- Acetic anhydride
- Dioxane (co-solvent)

Indicators used:

- Crystal violet
- 1-naphthol benzene
- Quinaldine red

Example:

• Estimation of ephedrine hydrochloride using 0.1 N HClO₄ in glacial acetic acid

Non-Aqueous Alkalimetry

Definition:

Titration of acidic substances with a standard non-aqueous base solution (like sodium methoxide) in a suitable non-aqueous solvent.

Purpose:

To analyze weak acids that do not ionize fully in water.

Common titrants:

- **Sodium methoxide** in methanol
- Potassium methoxide

Common solvents:

- **Dimethylformamide (DMF)** (protophilic solvent)
- Pyridine
- Methanol

Indicators used:

• Thymol blue

- Thymolphthalein
- Azoviolet
- Phenolphthalein (in some systems)

Example:

• Estimation of barbiturates (e.g., phenobarbital) using sodium methoxide in DMF

Key Considerations

- **Solvent selection** is based on the nature of the analyte (acidic or basic).
- Titrants and indicators must be compatible with the solvent and analyte.
- **Dry conditions** are essential to prevent reaction with atmospheric moisture, especially when using titrants like sodium methoxide or perchloric acid in acetic acid.
- Non-aqueous titration provides sharper endpoints and better accuracy for poorly watersoluble or weakly ionizing drugs.

1. Estimation of Sodium Benzoate

Principle:

Sodium benzoate is a weak acid salt that can be titrated in a **non-aqueous medium** using a **standard base** such as **sodium methoxide**. The carboxylic acid group of benzoic acid reacts with methoxide ion to form its salt in an **aprotic solvent** like **dimethylformamide** (**DMF**).

Reaction:

 $C_6H_5COONa + CH_3ONa \rightarrow C_6H_5COO^-Na^+ + CH_3OH$

Solvent:

• Dimethylformamide (DMF)

Titrant:

• 0.1 N Sodium methoxide in methanol

Indicator:

Thymolphthalein or phenolphthalein (color change from colorless to blue)

Procedure:

- 1. Accurately weigh about 0.2 g of sodium benzoate.
- 2. Dissolve in 25 mL of DMF.
- 3. Add 2–3 drops of thymolphthalein indicator.
- 4. Titrate with 0.1 N sodium methoxide until a permanent blue color appears.

Calculation:

1 mL of 0.1 N sodium methoxide \equiv 0.01442 g of C₆H₅COONa

2. Estimation of Ephedrine Hydrochloride

Principle:

Ephedrine hydrochloride is a **weak organic base**, titrated by **non-aqueous acidimetry** using **perchloric acid** in **glacial acetic acid**. The nitrogen atom of ephedrine accepts a proton from perchloric acid in a non-aqueous medium.

Reaction:

 $C_{10}H_{15}ONH \cdot HCI + HCIO_4 \rightarrow C_{10}H_{15}ONH_2^+ + CIO_4^-$

Solvent:

Glacial acetic acid

Titrant:

• 0.1 N Perchloric acid in glacial acetic acid

Indicator:

• Crystal violet (color change from violet to green)

Procedure:

- 1. Accurately weigh about 0.3 g of ephedrine hydrochloride.
- 2. Dissolve in 25 mL of glacial acetic acid.
- 3. Add 1–2 drops of crystal violet.
- 4. Titrate with 0.1 N perchloric acid until the violet color turns to green.

Calculation:

1 mL of 0.1 N perchloric acid \equiv 0.01651 g of ephedrine hydrochloride