



Edexcel GCSE Chemistry



Your notes

Acids

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Acids & Bases



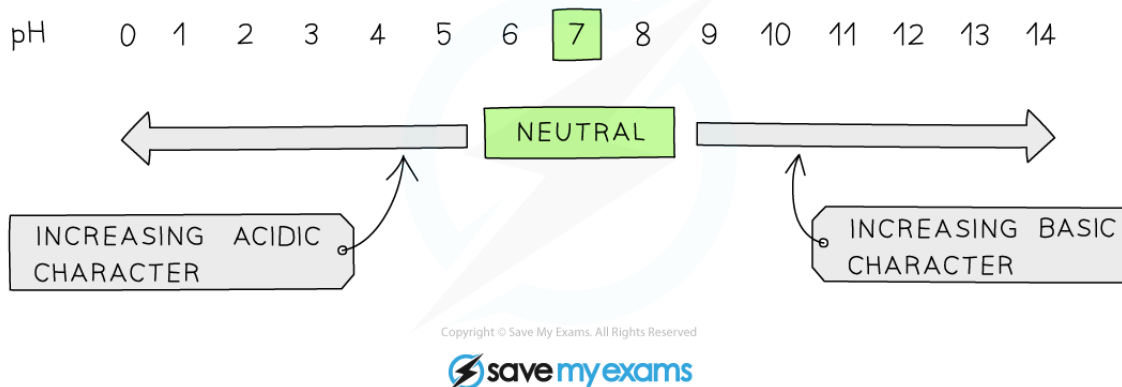
Your notes

Defining Acids & Bases

- When **acids** are added to water, they form positively charged **hydrogen ions** (H^+)
- The presence of H^+ ions is what makes a solution acidic
- When **alkalis** are added to water, they form negative hydroxide ions (OH^-)
- The presence of the OH^- ions is what makes the aqueous solution an alkali
- The pH scale is a numerical scale which is used to show how **acidic** or **alkaline** a solution is, in other words it is a measure of the amount of the ions present in solution

The pH Scale

- The pH scale goes from 0 – 14 (extremely acidic substances can have values of below 0)
- All acids have pH values of **below 7**, all alkalis have pH values of **above 7**
- The **lower** the pH then the **more acidic** the solution is
- The **higher** the pH then the **more alkaline** the solution is
- A solution of pH 7 is described as being **neutral**



The pH scale showing acidity, neutrality and alkalinity

Indicators

- Two colour indicators are used to distinguish between acids and alkalis



Your notes

- Many plants contain substances that can act as indicators and the most common one is **litmus** which is extracted from lichens
- Synthetic indicators are organic compounds that are sensitive to changes in acidity and appear different colours in acids and alkalis
- Phenolphthalein** and **methyl orange** are synthetic indicators frequently used in acid-alkali titrations

Two Colour Indicators Table

Indicator	Colour in acid	Colour in alkali
Litmus	red	blue
Phenolphthalein	colourless	pink
Methyl orange	red	yellow

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- Synthetic indicators are used to show the endpoint in titrations as they have a very sharp change of colour when an acid has been neutralised by an alkali and vice-versa
- Litmus is not suitable for titrations as the colour change is not sharp and it goes through a purple transition colour in neutral solutions making it difficult to determine an endpoint
- Litmus is very useful as an indicator paper and comes in red and blue versions, for dipping into solutions or testing gases

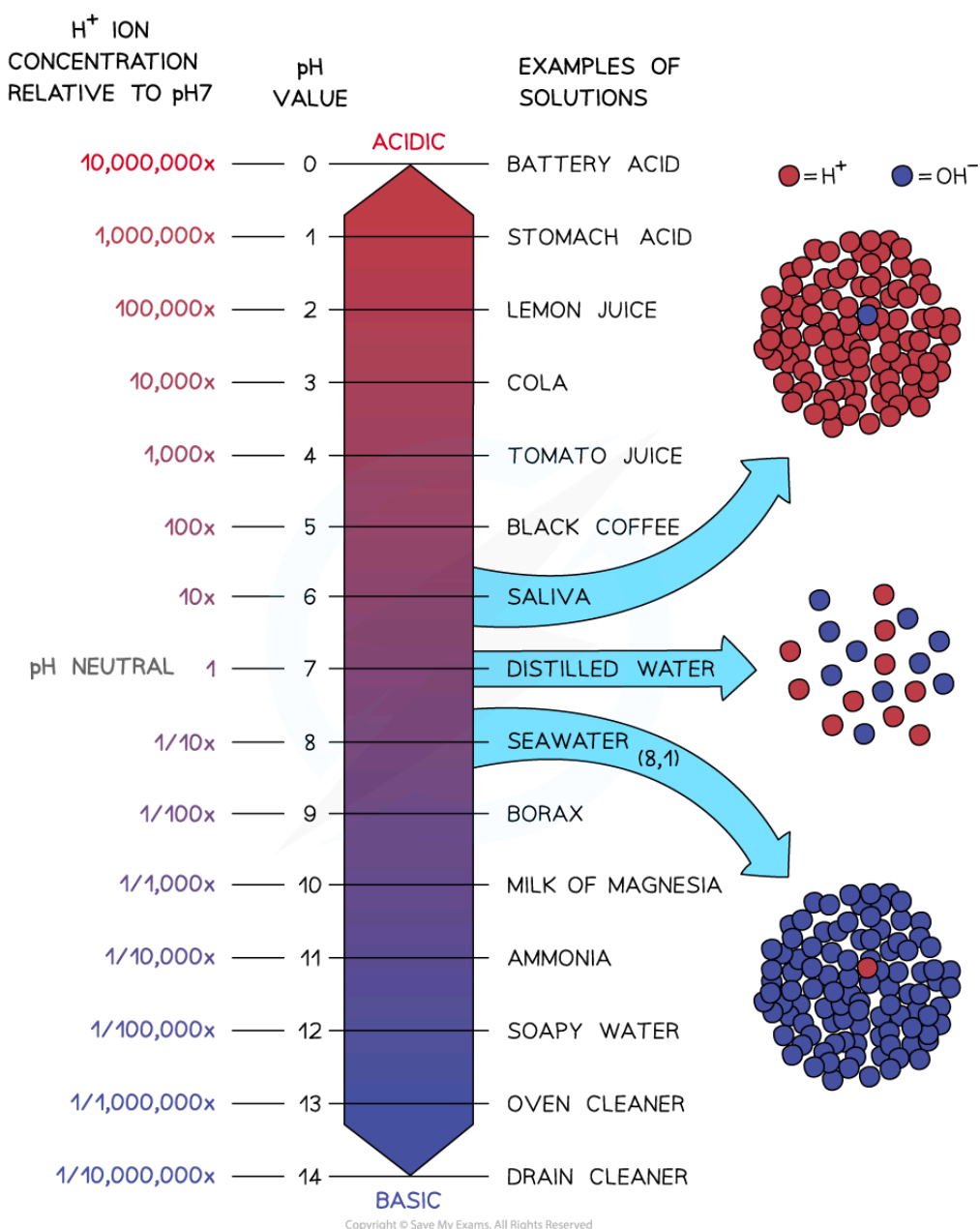
Hydrogen Ions & pH



Your notes

Hydrogen Ions & pH

- We have already seen that acids are substances that contain hydrogen ions in solution
- The more hydrogen ions the stronger the acid, but the lower the pH
- The higher the concentration of hydroxide ions in a solution the higher the pH
- So pH is a measure of the concentration of H^+ ions in solution, but they have an inverse relationship



The pH scale is logarithmic so that each change in pH is a tenfold change in hydrogen ion concentration

- The pH scale is **logarithmic**, meaning that each change of 1 on the scale represents a change in concentration by a **factor** of 10
- Therefore an acid with a pH of 3 has ten times the concentration of H⁺ ions than an acid of pH 4

- An acid with a pH of 2 has $10 \times 10 = 100$ times the concentration of H^+ ions than an acid with a pH of 4
- From this we can summarize that for two acids of **equal concentration**, where one is **strong** and the other is **weak**, then the strong acid will have a lower pH due to its capacity to dissociate more and hence put more H^+ ions into solution than the weak acid



Examiner Tips and Tricks

Acid strength is reflected in how many hydrogen ions are in solution. The more hydrogen ions the lower the pH and vice-versa.



Your notes



Your notes

Core Practical: Investigating pH

Core Practical: Investigating pH

Aim:

- To investigate the changes in pH of a fixed volume of dilute HCl on addition of varying amounts of a solid base

Materials:

- Dilute HCl (0.5M or 1M), solid base such as CaO or Ca(OH)₂
- Conical flask, 25 cm³ or 50 cm³ volumetric pipette, glass rod
- Spatula and weighing boat
- pH probe or Universal Indicator paper

Method:

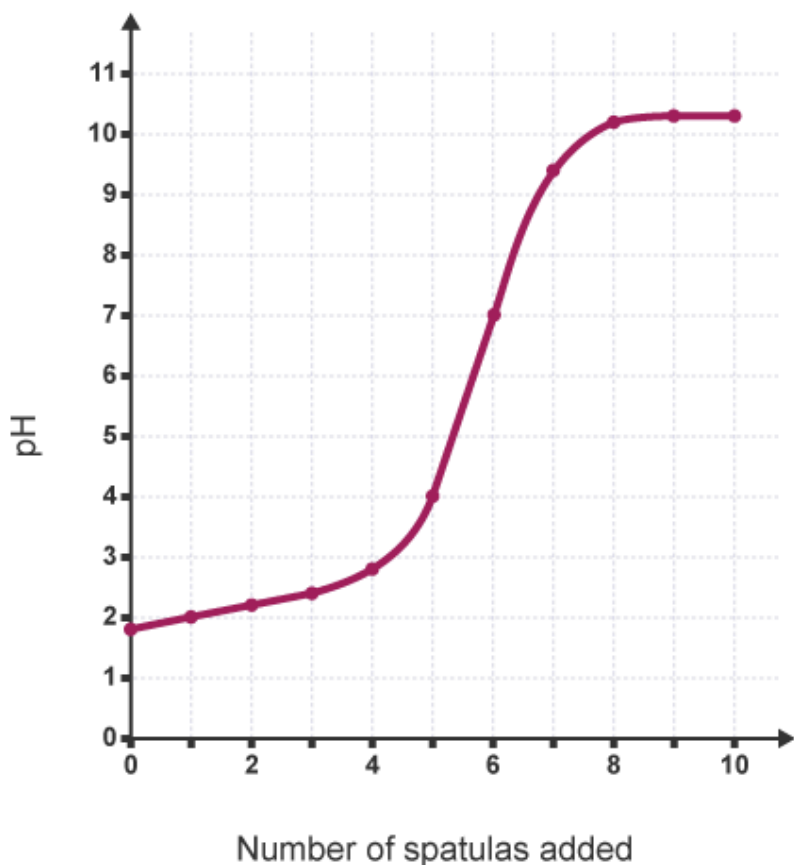
- Use a pipette to measure a fixed volume of dilute HCl into a conical flask
- Add one spatula of calcium oxide or calcium hydroxide to the flask and swirl
- When all the base has reacted record the pH of the solution
- If using U.I. paper use the glass rod to extract a sample from the flask
- Repeat for different numbers of spatula (1–10) of solid but the same volume of HCl
- Record your results neatly in table format

Analysis of results:

- Plot a graph of the amount of the base on the X-axis against the pH recorded on the Y-axis
- The resulting graph should look something like the one below



Your notes



Investigating the change in pH during neutralisation of an acid

Conclusion:

- The graph indicates a sudden change in pH which corresponds to the vertical section of the graph
- This indicates that the more solid base is added the higher the pH, therefore the base is neutralising the acid
- From the sample graph it can be seen that 6 spatulas of the base are required to completely neutralise the acid

Hazards, risks and precautions



CORROSIVE



**HARMFUL TO
HEALTH**



**ENVIRONMENTAL
HAZARD**



Your notes

Hazard symbols to show substances that are corrosive, harmful to health and hazardous to the environment

- Copper(II) oxide can cause serious eye irritation and is a skin irritant. It is harmful if swallowed or inhaled and is toxic to aquatic life
- Dilute hydrochloric acid is not classified as hazardous at the concentrations typically used in this practical, however it may still cause harm to the eyes or the skin
- For both substances, avoid contact with the skin and use safety goggles
- For copper(II) oxide, care should be taken not to inhale the powder



Your notes

Acid Strength & Concentration

Acid Strength & Concentration

Strong & Weak

- Acids can be either **strong** or **weak**, depending on how many ions they produce when they dissolve in water
- When added to water, acids ionise or **dissociate** to produce H^+ ions:



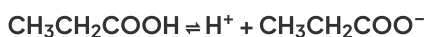
- Strong acids such as HCl and H_2SO_4 dissociate **completely** in water, producing solutions with a high concentration of H^+ ions and thus a very **low pH**
- Weak acids such as ethanoic acid, CH_3COOH and hydrofluoric acid, HF only partially ionize in water, producing solutions of pH values between 4 – 6
- This data is summarized in the table below:

Strong & Weak Acids Table

	High Concentration of H^+	Low Concentration of H^+
pH	Low pH	Higher pH (but still under 7)

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- For weak acids there is an **equilibrium** set-up between the molecules and their ions once they have been added to water
- Propanoic acid for example dissociates as follows:



- The \rightleftharpoons symbol indicates that the process is reversible, as the products can react together forming the original reactants
- The equilibrium lies to the **left**, meaning there is a high concentration of intact acid molecules and therefore a low concentration of ions in solution, hence the pH is that of a weak acid and closer to 7 than a strong acid



Your notes

Concentrated & Dilute

- A solution is formed when a solute is dissolved in a solvent
- A **dilute** solution contains a **small** amount of solute in a given volume of solution
- A **concentrated** solution contains a **large** amount of solute in a given volume of solution
- A concentrated solution of either an acid or a base is one that contains a **high number** of acid or base **molecules** per dm^3 of solution
- A dilute acid or base solution is therefore one that has much fewer acid or base molecules per dm^3 of solution

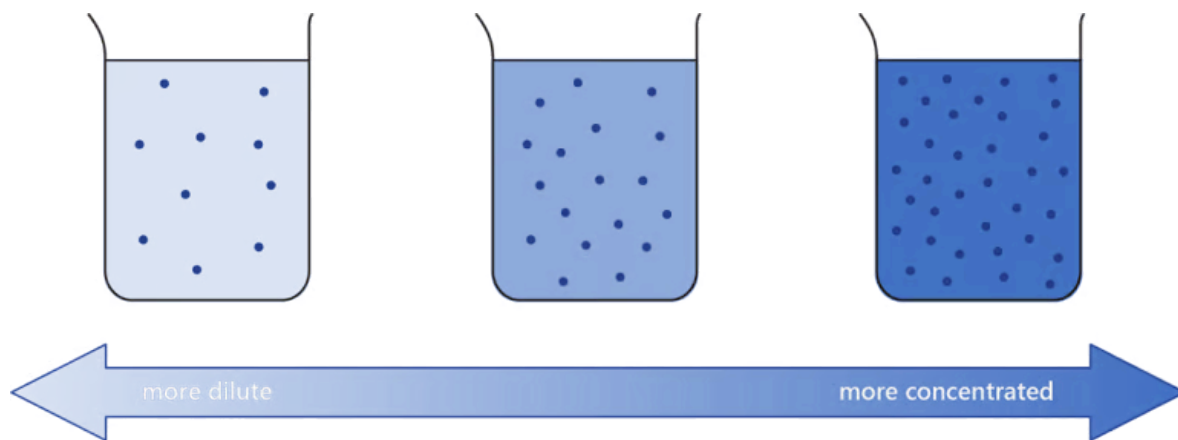


Diagram illustrating how the concentration of a solution increases as more solute is added



Examiner Tips and Tricks

The terms strong and weak refer to the ability to dissociate and not concentration. A dilute solution of a strong acid can have a lower pH than a concentrated solution of a weak acid, due to the stronger acid undergoing complete dissociation.



Your notes

Bases

Bases

What makes a base act like a base?

- Bases are substances which can neutralise an acid, forming a salt and water
- The term **base** and **alkali** are not the same
- A base which is water-soluble is referred to as an **alkali**
 - So, all alkalis are bases, but not all bases are alkalis
- Alkalis have pH values of above 7
- In basic (alkaline) conditions red litmus paper turns **blue**
- Bases are usually **oxides**, **hydroxides** or **carbonates** of metals
- The presence of the OH^- ions is what makes the aqueous solution an alkali
- One unusual base is ammonia solution
 - When ammonia reacts with water it produces hydroxide ions

Some Common Alkalis and the Ions they Contain

Name of alkali	Formula	Ions formed in water
Sodium hydroxide	NaOH	$\text{Na}^+ + \text{OH}^-$
Potassium hydroxide	KOH	$\text{K}^+ + \text{OH}^-$
Aqueous ammonia	$\text{NH}_3 (+ \text{H}_2\text{O})$	$\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{OH}^-$

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Examiner Tips and Tricks

Aqueous ammonia and ammonium hydroxide are the same thing. When ammonia gas dissolves in water it forms ammonium hydroxide. Be careful to use the correct terminology: **ammonia** is the gas, **NH₃**, **ammonium** is the ion present in ammonium compounds, **NH₄⁺**



Your notes



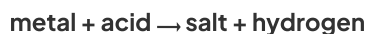
Your notes

Reactions of Acids

Reactions of Acids

Reactions of acids with metals

- Only metals **above hydrogen** in the reactivity series will react with dilute acids
- The more reactive the metal then the more vigorous the reaction will be
- Metals that are placed high on the reactivity series such as potassium and sodium are very dangerous and react **explosively** with acids
- When acids react with metals they form a **salt** and **hydrogen gas**:
- The general equation is:



- Some examples of metal-acid reactions and their equations are given below:

Acid-Metals Reactions Table

Acid	Sulfuric Acid	Hydrochloric Acid
Magnesium	$\text{Mg} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \rightarrow \text{MgSO}_4 + \text{H}_2$	$\text{Mg} + 2\text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{MgCl}_2 + \text{H}_2$
Zinc	$\text{Zn} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \rightarrow \text{ZnSO}_4 + \text{H}_2$	$\text{Zn} + 2\text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{ZnCl}_2 + \text{H}_2$
Iron	$\text{Fe} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \rightarrow \text{FeSO}_4 + \text{H}_2$	$\text{Fe} + 2\text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{FeCl}_2 + \text{H}_2$

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- In general, we can summarise the reaction of a metal that forms a +2 ion as follows:

Acids-Metals Summary Table



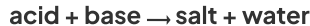
Your notes

Acid	Name of products	Equation for reaction
Hydrochloric acid	Metal chloride and hydrogen	$M + 2HCl \longrightarrow MCl_2 + H_2$
Sulfuric acid	Metal sulfate and hydrogen	$M + H_2SO_4 \longrightarrow MSO_4 + H_2$

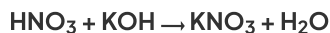
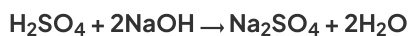
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Reaction of acids with oxides & hydroxides

- When an acid reacts with an oxide or hydroxide, a **neutralisation** reaction occurs
- Metal **oxides** and metal **hydroxides** act as **bases**
- In all acid-base neutralisation reactions, a **salt** and **water** are produced:



- The identity of the salt produced depends on the **acid** used and the **positive ions** in the base
- Hydrochloric acid produces **chlorides**, sulfuric acid produces **sulfate** salts and nitric acid produces **nitrates**
- The following are some specific examples of reactions between acids and metal oxides / hydroxides:



- In general, we can summarise the reaction of metals and bases as follows:

Acids and Metals Oxides or Hydroxides Summary Table



Your notes

Acid	Name of Products	Equation for Reaction
Hydrochloric Acid	Metal Chloride and Water	$\text{MOH} + \text{HCl} \longrightarrow \text{MCl} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
Sulfuric Acid	Metal Sulfate and Water	$\text{MO} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \longrightarrow \text{MSO}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
Nitric Acid	Metal Nitrate and Water	$\text{MO} + \text{HNO}_3 \longrightarrow \text{MNO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$

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Reactions of Acids with Metal Carbonates

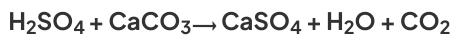
- Acids will react with metal carbonates to form the corresponding metal **salt**, **carbon dioxide** and **water**
- These reactions are easily distinguishable from acid – metal oxide/hydroxide reactions due to the presence of **effervescence** caused by the carbon dioxide gas

Acids & Metal Carbonates Reactions Table

Acid	Name of Products	Equation for Reaction
Hydrochloric Acid	Metal Chloride, Carbon Dioxide and Water	$\text{MCO}_3 + 2\text{HCl} \longrightarrow \text{MCl}_2 + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
Sulfuric Acid	Metal Sulfate, Carbon Dioxide and Water	$\text{MCO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \longrightarrow \text{MSO}_4 + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
Nitric Acid	Metal Nitrate, Carbon Dioxide and Water	$\text{MCO}_3 + 2\text{HNO}_3 \longrightarrow \text{M(NO}_3)_2 + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$

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- The following are some specific examples of reactions between acids and metal carbonates:



Your notes



Examiner Tips and Tricks

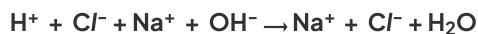
If in an acid-base reaction there is effervescence produced then the base must be a metal carbonate which produces carbon dioxide gas.

Neutralisation

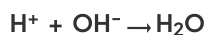
- The chemistry of neutralisation reactions can be explained using ionic equations
- Ionic equations are used to show only the particles that chemically participate in a reaction
- The other ions present are not involved and are called **spectator ions**
- For example the neutralisation reaction between hydrochloric acid and sodium hydroxide:



- If we write out all of the **ions** present in the equation we get:



- The **spectator** ions are thus Na^+ and Cl^- .
- Removing these from the previous equation leaves the overall net ionic equation:



- The H^+ ions come from the acid and the OH^- ions come from the base, both combine to form the product water molecules
- This ionic equation is the same for **all acid-base neutralisation**



Examiner Tips and Tricks

Remember that although acids react with metals to form salts, that reaction is not neutralisation, but it counts as a redox reaction.

Hazards



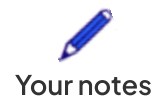
**HARMFUL TO
HEALTH**



CORROSIVE



OXIDISING



Hazard symbols you may see in relation to acids

- The hazards associated with acids depend on the type and concentration of the acid
- Most dilute acids either require no hazard symbol or they are an irritant, so require the symbol to show they are harmful to health
 - Eye protection should be worn when handling
- Moderately concentrated acids are often corrosive
 - In addition to eye protection, gloves should also be worn
- Some concentrated acids, e.g. nitric acid, are oxidising which can cause or intensify a fire in contact with combustible materials
 - Eye protection and gloves are necessary when handling concentrated acids and the use of a fume cupboard is often required



Your notes

Test for Hydrogen & Carbon Dioxide

Test for Hydrogen & Carbon Dioxide

Testing Hydrogen

- The test for hydrogen consists of holding a **burning splint** held at the open end of a test tube of gas
- If the gas is hydrogen it burns with a loud “**squeaky pop**” which is the result of the rapid combustion of hydrogen with oxygen to produce water
- Be sure not to insert the splint right into the tube, just at the mouth, as the gas needs air to burn

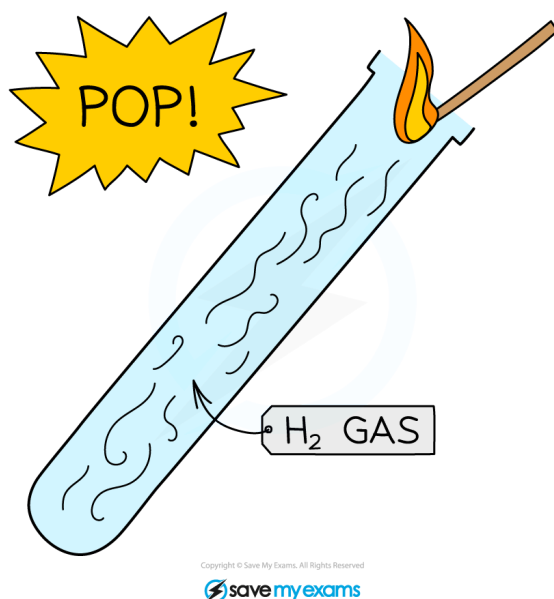


Diagram showing the test for hydrogen gas



Examiner Tips and Tricks

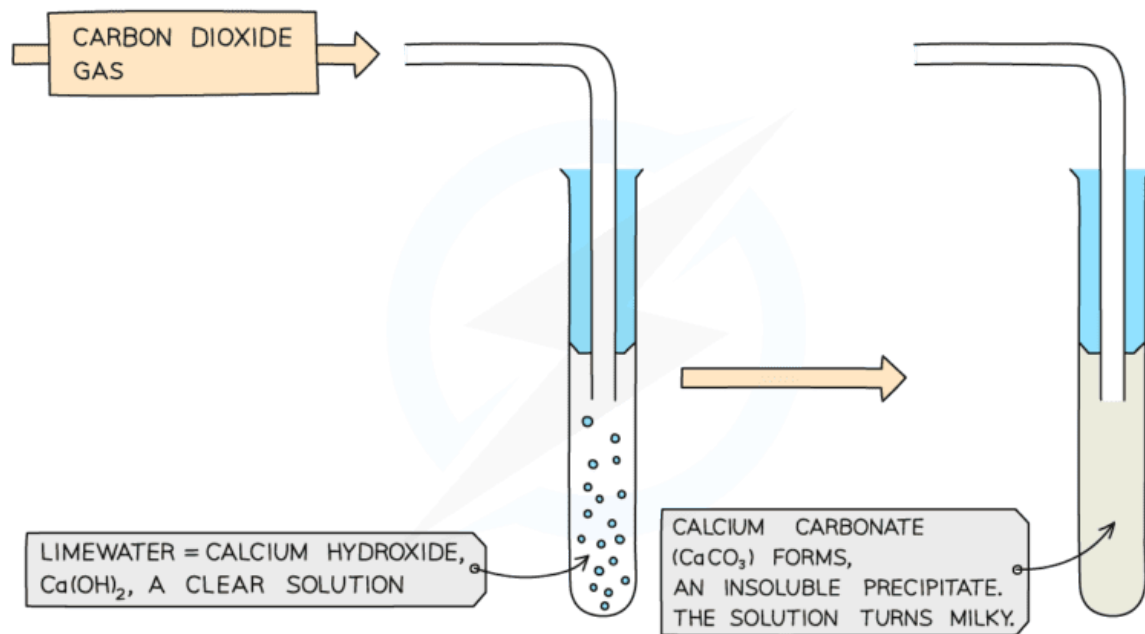
It is easy to confuse the tests for hydrogen and oxygen. Try to remember that a lig**H**ted splint has a **H** for Hydrogen, while a gl**O**wing splint has an **O** for Oxygen.



Your notes

Testing Carbon Dioxide

- The test for carbon dioxide involves bubbling the gas through an aqueous solution of **calcium hydroxide** (limewater)
- If the gas is carbon dioxide, the limewater turns **milky** or **cloudy**



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Diagram showing the test for carbon dioxide gas



Examiner Tips and Tricks

Sometimes students think that extinguishing a burning splint indicates carbon dioxide gas. However, while it is a property of carbon dioxide, other gases, such as nitrogen, will also do this, so the test is not definitive and should not be quoted in an exam answer.



Your notes

Core Practical: Preparing Copper Sulfate

Core Practical: Preparing Copper Sulfate

Aim:

To prepare a pure, dry sample of hydrated copper(II) sulfate crystals

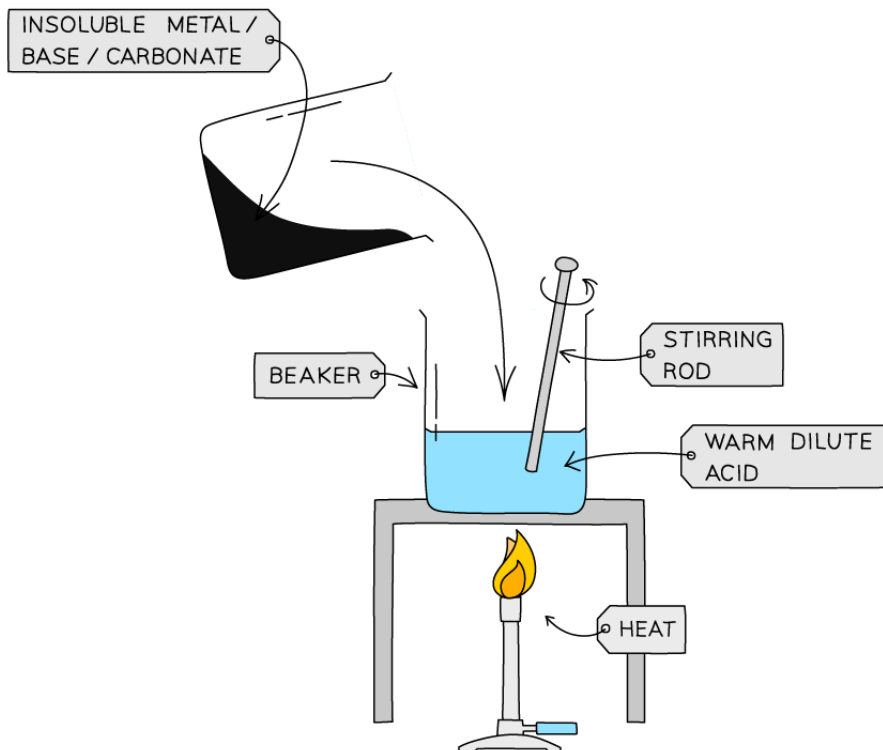
Materials:

- 1.0 mol / dm³ dilute sulfuric acid
- Copper(II) oxide
- Spatula & glass rod
- Measuring cylinder & 100 cm³ beaker
- Bunsen burner
- Tripod, gauze & heatproof mat
- Filter funnel & paper, conical flask
- Evaporating basin and dish.

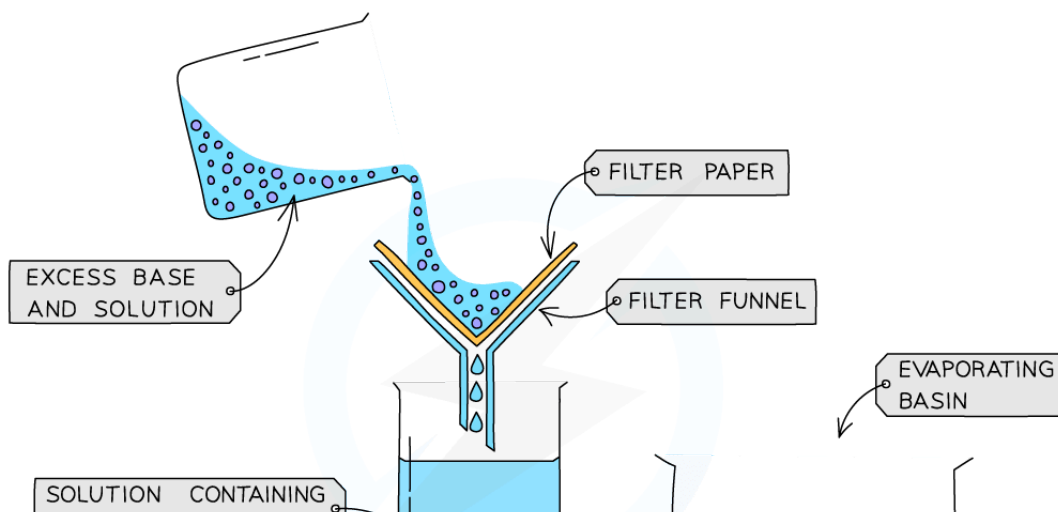


Your notes

- 1 HEAT ACID UNTIL WARM, THEN ADD METAL/BASE/CARBONATE, STIRRING CONSTANTLY UNTIL IT STOPS DISAPPEARING

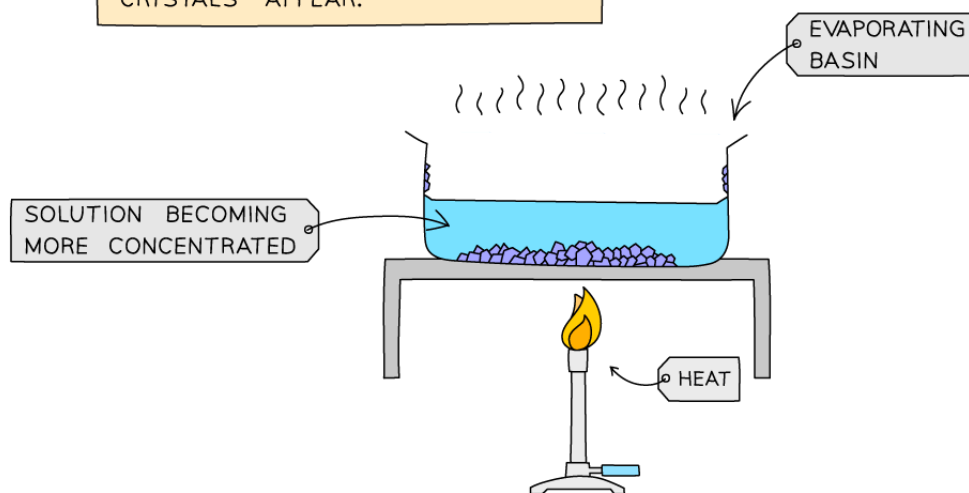


- 2 FILTER MIXTURE TO REMOVE EXCESS BASE, TRANSFER SOLUTION TO EVAPORATING BASIN.

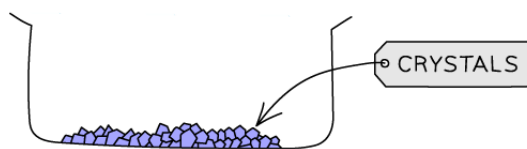




3 EVAPORATE WATER FROM SOLUTION USING A BUNSEN BURNER UNTIL CRYSTALS APPEAR.



4 REMOVE EVAPORATING BASIN FROM HEAT AND ALLOW FILTRATE TO DRY AND CRYSTALLIZE



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The preparation of copper(II) sulfate by the insoluble base method

Practical Tip:

The base is added in excess to use up all of the acid, which would become dangerously concentrated during the evaporation and crystallisation stages

Method:

1. Add 50 cm³ dilute acid into a beaker and warm gently using a Bunsen burner



Your notes

2. Add the copper(II) oxide slowly to the hot dilute acid and stir until the base is in excess (i.e. until the base stops dissolving and a suspension of the base forms in the acid)
3. Filter the mixture into an evaporating basin to remove the excess base
4. Gently heat the solution in a water bath or with an electric heater to evaporate the water and to make the solution saturated
5. Check the solution is saturated by dipping a cold glass rod into the solution and seeing if crystals form on the end
6. Leave the filtrate in a warm place to dry and crystallise
7. Decant excess solution and allow the crystals to dry

Results:

Hydrated copper(II) sulfate crystals should be bright blue and regularly shaped



Examiner Tips and Tricks

Make sure you learn the names of all the laboratory apparatus used in the preparation of salts.



Your notes

Hazards, risks and precautions



CORROSIVE



**HARMFUL TO
HEALTH**



**ENVIRONMENTAL
HAZARD**

Hazard symbols to show substances that are corrosive, harmful to health and hazardous to the environment

- Copper(II) oxide and solid copper(II) sulfate can cause serious eye irritation and is a skin irritant. It is harmful if swallowed or inhaled and is toxic to aquatic life
- For all substances, avoid contact with the skin and use safety goggles
- For copper(II) oxide, care should be taken not to breathe in the powder



Your notes

Prepare a Salt by Titration

Prepare a Salt by Titration

- If salts are prepared from an acid and a soluble reactant then a **titration technique** must be used
- In a titration, the exact volume of acid and soluble reactant are mixed in the correct proportions so that all that remains is the salt and water

Preparing a Salt by Titration

Aim:

To prepare a sample of a dry salt starting from an acid and an alkali

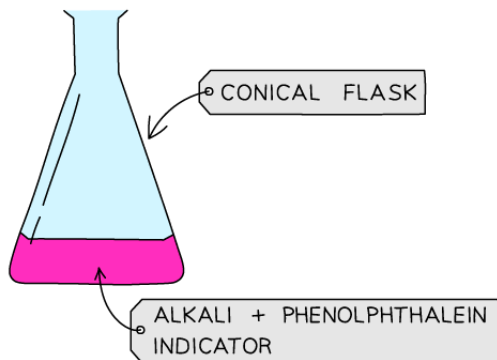
Diagram:



Your notes

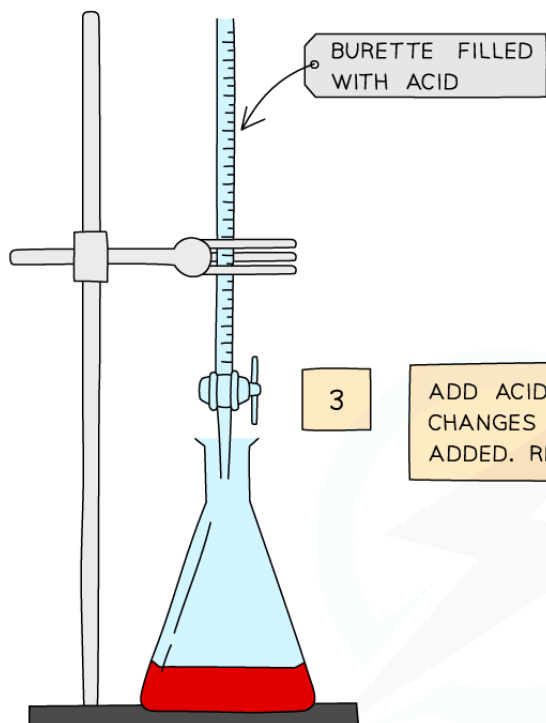
1

ADD ALKALI + INDICATOR TO CONICAL FLASK USING A PIPETTE



2

ADD ACID TO BURETTE, NOTING THE STARTING VOLUME

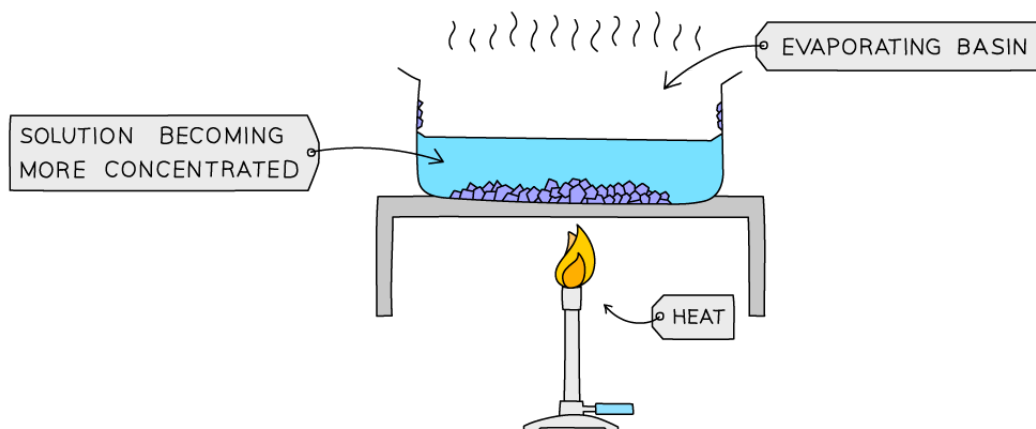


3

ADD ACID TO ALKALI SLOWLY UNTIL INDICATOR CHANGES COLOUR. CALCULATE VOLUME OF ACID ADDED. REPEAT STEPS 1-3 WITHOUT INDICATOR

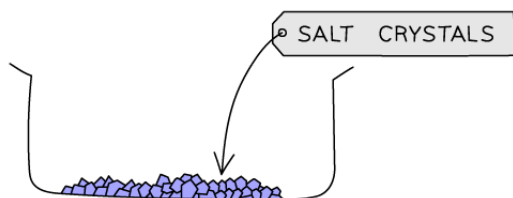
4

TRANSFER SOLUTION TO AN EVAPORATING BASIN,
HEAT TO PARTIALLY EVAPORATE WATER.



5

REMOVE EVAPORATING BASIN FROM HEAT AND
ALLOW FILTRATE TO DRY AND CRYSTALLIZE



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Diagram showing the apparatus needed to prepare a salt by titration

Method:

- Use a pipette to measure the alkali into a conical flask and add a few drops of indicator (phenolphthalein or methyl orange)
- Add the acid into the burette and note the starting volume
- Add the acid very slowly from the burette to the conical flask until the indicator changes to appropriate colour
- Note and record the final volume of acid in burette and calculate the volume of acid added (starting volume of acid - final volume of acid)
- Add this same volume of acid into the same volume of alkali without the indicator



Your notes

- Heat to partially evaporate, leaving a saturated solution
- Leave to crystallise decant excess solution and allow crystals to dry

Results:

A dry sample of a salt is obtained

**Examiner Tips and Tricks**

When evaporating the solution some water is left behind to allow for water of crystallisation in some salts and also to prevent the salt from overheating and decomposing.



Your notes

Solubility Rules

Solubility Rules

- Ionic compounds are generally soluble in water compared to covalent substances, but there are exceptions
- A knowledge of the solubility of ionic compounds helps us to determine the most appropriate method for the preparation of salts
- The solubility of common ionic compounds is shown below:

Solubility of the common salts

Salts	Soluble	Insoluble
Sodium, potassium and ammonium	All	None
Nitrates	All	None
Chlorides	Most are soluble	Silver and lead(II)
Sulfates	Most are soluble	Barium, calcium and lead(II)
Carbonates	Carbonates of sodium, potassium and ammonium	Most are insoluble
Hydroxides	Hydroxides of sodium potassium and ammonium (calcium hydroxide is sparingly soluble)	Most are insoluble

- Note that calcium hydroxide is slightly soluble in water



Examiner Tips and Tricks

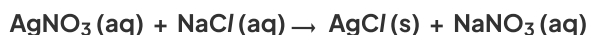
Calcium hydroxide solution is more commonly known as limewater and is used to test for carbon dioxide.



Your notes

Predicting Precipitates

- Some salts can be extracted by mining but others need to be prepared in the laboratory
- How the salt is made in the laboratory depends on whether the salt being formed is **soluble** or **insoluble** in water
- To do this the balanced equation is written down to determine the identify of the salt product
- Then check the solubility of the salt using the **solubility** table
- If it is **soluble** in water, then it can be prepared by **titration**
- If it is **insoluble** then it can be prepared by **precipitation**
- For example a silver nitrate solution is mixed with a sodium chloride solution:



- From the table both AgNO_3 and NaCl are water soluble but AgCl , silver chloride, is not and hence forms a **precipitate**



Examiner Tips and Tricks

The precipitation reaction by combining two soluble salts is also known as a double decomposition or double displacement reaction.

Preparing an Insoluble Salt



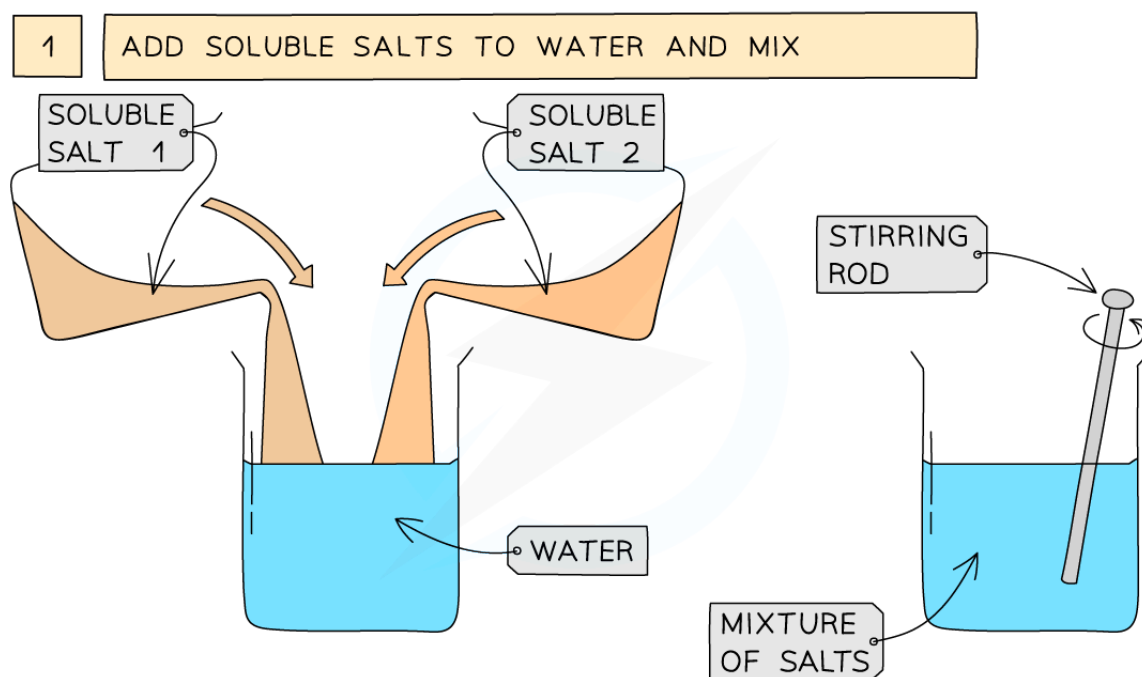
Your notes

Preparing an Insoluble Salt

Aim:

To prepare a dry sample of an insoluble salt, lead(II) sulfate

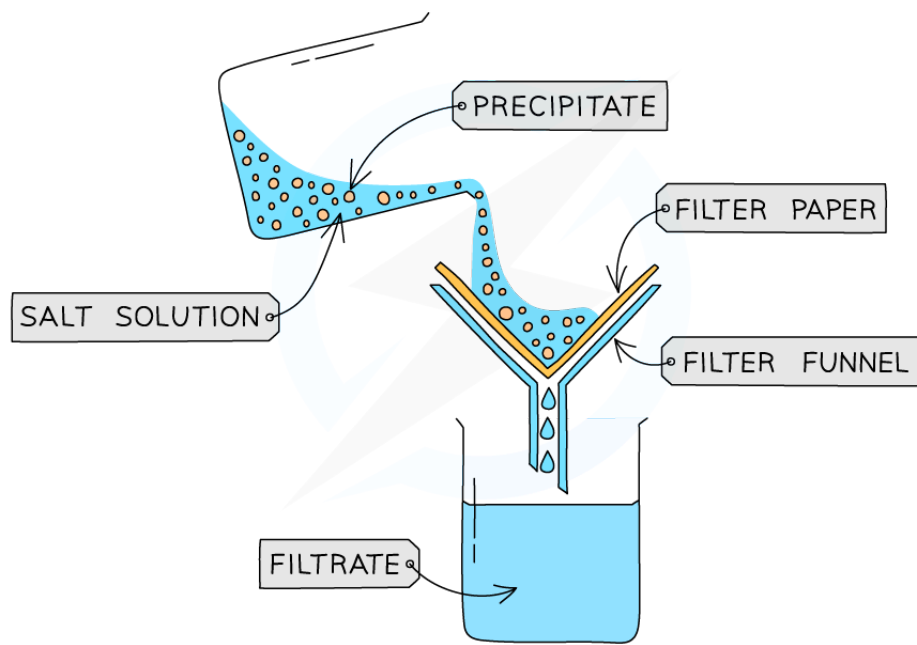
Diagram:



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2

FILTER TO REMOVE PRECIPITATE FROM THE MIXTURE



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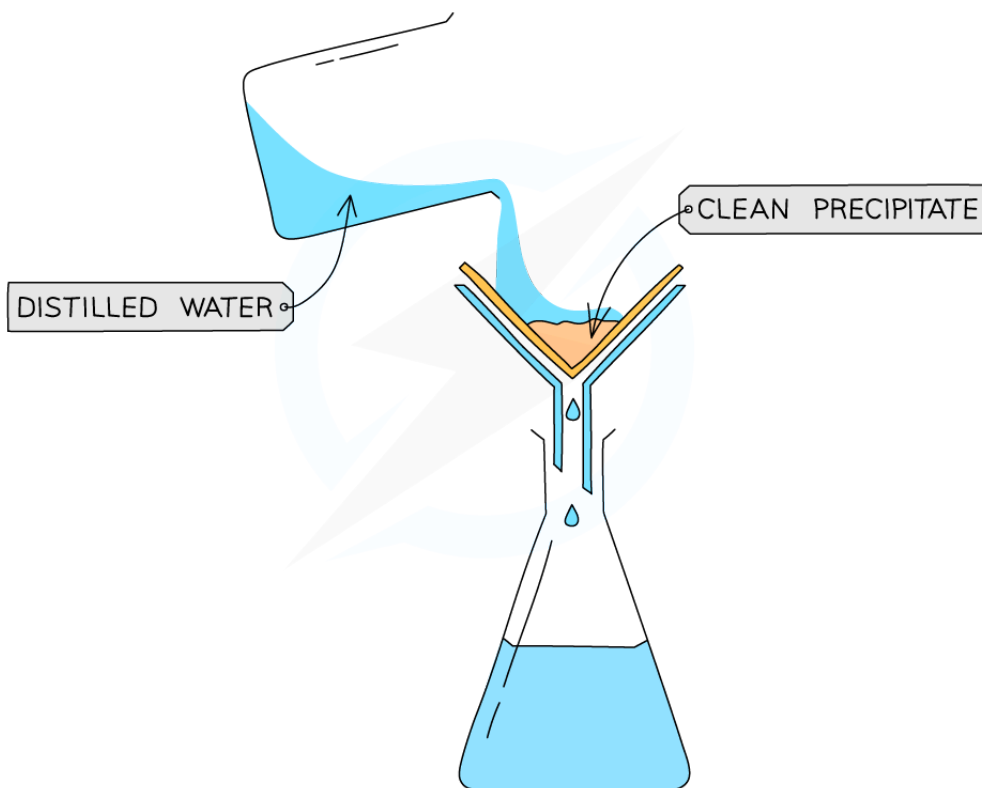
Your notes

3

WASH THE PRECIPITATE WITH DISTILLED WATER TO REMOVE TRACES OF SOLUTION



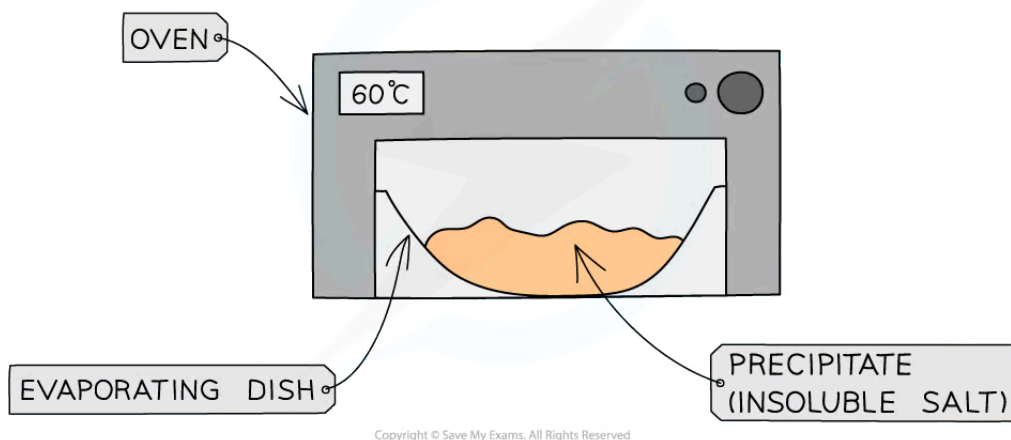
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4

DRY THE PRECIPITATE (INSOLUBLE SALT) IN AN OVEN



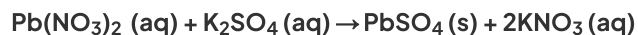
The preparation of lead(II)sulfate by precipitation from two soluble salts

Method:

- Measure out 25 cm³ of 0.5 mol dm⁻³ lead(II) nitrate solution and add it to a small beaker
- Measure out 25 cm³ of 0.5 mol dm⁻³ of potassium sulfate add it to the beaker and mix together using a stirring rod
- Filter to remove the precipitate from mixture
- Wash the filtrate with distilled water to remove traces of other solutions
- Leave in an oven to dry

Soluble salt 1 = lead(II) nitrate **Soluble salt 2** = potassium sulfate

Equation for the reaction:



lead(II) nitrate + potassium sulfate → lead(II) sulfate + potassium nitrate



Examiner Tips and Tricks

Care should be taken with handling lead salts as they are toxic.