

Reactions in Aqueous Solutions II: Calculations

11





A concentrated NaOH solution added to a CH₃COOH solution that contains a large amount of phenolphthalein indicator.

OUTLINE

Aqueous Acid–Base Reactions

- 11-1 Calculations Involving Molarity
- 11-2 Titrations
- 11-3 The Mole Method and Molarity
- 11-4 Equivalent Weights and Normality

Oxidation–Reduction Reactions

- 11-5 The Half-Reaction Method
- 11-6 Adding H⁺, OH⁻, or H₂O to Balance Oxygen or Hydrogen
- 11-7 Change-in-Oxidation-Number Method
- 11-8 Stoichiometry of Redox Reactions

OBJECTIVES

After you have studied this chapter, you should be able to

- Perform molarity calculations
- Solve acid–base stoichiometry calculations
- Describe titration and standardization
- Use the mole method and molarity in acid–base titration reactions
- Perform calculations involving equivalent weights and normality of acid and base solutions
- Balance oxidation–reduction equations
- Perform calculations associated with redox reactions

AQUEOUS ACID–BASE REACTIONS

Digestive juice is the acidic fluid secreted by glands in the lining of the stomach.

Hydrochloric acid, HCl, is called “stomach acid” because it is the main acid ($\approx 0.10\text{ M}$) in our digestive juices. When the concentration of HCl is too high in humans, problems result. These problems may range from “heartburn” to ulcers that can eat through the lining of the stomach wall. Snakes have very high concentrations of HCl in their digestive juices so that they can digest whole small animals and birds.

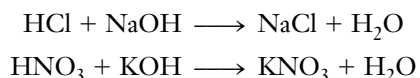
Automobile batteries contain 40% H₂SO₄ by mass. When the battery has “run down,” the concentration of H₂SO₄ is significantly lower than 40%. A technician checks an automobile battery by drawing some battery acid into a hydrometer, which indicates the density of the solution. This density is related to the concentration of H₂SO₄.

There are many practical applications of acid–base chemistry in which we must know the concentration of a solution of an acid or a base.

11-1 CALCULATIONS INVOLVING MOLARITY

In Sections 3-6 through 3-8 we introduced methods for expressing concentrations of solutions and discussed some related calculations. Review of those sections will be helpful as we learn more about acid–base reactions in solutions.

In *some cases*, the neutralization reaction involves one mole of an acid reacting with one mole of a base to effect neutralization.



Because one mole of each acid reacts with one mole of each base in these cases, *one liter of a one-molar solution of either of these acids* reacts with *one liter of a one-molar solution of either of these bases*. These acids have only one acidic hydrogen per formula unit, and these bases have one hydroxide ion per formula unit, so one formula unit of base reacts with one formula unit of acid.

The *reaction ratio* is the relative numbers of moles of reactants and products shown in the balanced equation.

EXAMPLE 11-1 Acid–Base Reactions

If 100. mL of 0.100 M HCl solution and 100. mL of 0.100 M NaOH are mixed, what is the molarity of the salt in the resulting solution? Assume that the volumes are additive.

Plan

We first write the balanced equation for the acid–base reaction and then construct the reaction summary that shows the amounts (moles) of HCl and NaOH. We determine the amount of salt formed from the reaction summary. The final (total) volume is the sum of the volumes mixed. Then we calculate the molarity of the salt.

Solution

The following tabulation shows that equal numbers of moles of HCl and NaOH are mixed and, therefore, all of the HCl and NaOH react. The resulting solution contains only NaCl, the salt formed by the reaction, and water.

	HCl	+	NaOH	→	NaCl	+	H ₂ O
Rxn ratio:	1 mol		1 mol		1 mol		1 mol
Start:	$\left[0.100 \text{ L} \left(\frac{0.100 \text{ mol}}{\text{L}}\right)\right]$		$\left[0.100 \text{ L} \left(\frac{0.100 \text{ mol}}{\text{L}}\right)\right]$		0 mol		
	0.0100 mol HCl		0.0100 mol NaOH				
Change:	−0.0100 mol		−0.0100 mol		+0.0100 mol		
After rxn:	0 mol		0 mol		0.0100 mol		

The HCl and NaOH neutralize each other exactly, and the resulting solution contains 0.0100 mol of NaCl in 0.200 L of solution. Its molarity is

$$\frac{0.0100 \text{ mol NaCl}}{0.200 \text{ L}} = \frac{0.0100 \text{ mol NaCl}}{0.200 \text{ L}} = 0.0500 \text{ M NaCl}$$

Experiments have shown that volumes of dilute aqueous solutions are very nearly additive. No significant error is introduced by making this assumption. 0.100 L of NaOH solution mixed with 0.100 L of HCl solution gives 0.200 L of solution.

The amount of water produced by the reaction is negligible.

We often express the volume of a solution in milliliters rather than in liters. Likewise, we may express the amount of solute in millimoles (mmol) rather than in moles. Because one milliliter is 1/1000 of a liter and one millimole is 1/1000 of a mole, molarity also may be expressed as the number of millimoles of solute per milliliter of solution:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \text{ mol} &= 1000 \text{ mmol} \\ 1 \text{ L} &= 1000 \text{ mL} \\ \text{molarity} &= \frac{\text{no. mol}}{\text{L}} = \frac{\text{no. mmol}}{\text{mL}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Molarity} = \frac{\text{number of millimoles of solute}}{\text{number of milliliters of solution}}$$

For volumes and concentrations that are commonly used in laboratory experiments, solving problems in terms of millimoles and milliliters often involves more convenient numbers than using moles and liters. We should note also that the reaction ratio that we obtain from any balanced chemical equation is exactly the same whether we express all quantities in moles or in millimoles. We will work many problems in this chapter using millimoles and milliliters. Let us see how we might solve Example 11-1 in these terms.

As in Example 11-1 we first write the balanced equation for the acid–base reaction, and then construct the reaction summary that shows the amounts (millimoles) of NaOH and HCl. We determine the amount of salt formed from the reaction summary. The final (total) volume is the sum of the volumes mixed. Then we can calculate the molarity of the salt.

The following tabulation in the solution would become:

	HCl	+	NaOH	→	NaCl	+	H ₂ O
Rxn ratio:	1 mmol		1 mmol		1 mmol		1 mmol
Start:	$\left[100. \text{ mL} \left(\frac{0.100 \text{ mmol}}{\text{mL}} \right) \right]$		$\left[100. \text{ mL} \left(\frac{0.100 \text{ mmol}}{\text{mL}} \right) \right]$		0 mmol		
	= 10.0 mmol HCl		= 10.0 mmol NaOH				
Change:	−10.0 mmol		−10.0 mmol		+10.0 mmol		
After rxn:	0 mmol		0 mmol		10.0 mmol		
	$\frac{? \text{ mmol NaCl}}{\text{mL}} = \frac{10.0 \text{ mmol NaCl}}{200. \text{ mL}} = 0.0500 \text{ M NaCl}$						

EXAMPLE 11-2 Acid–Base Reactions


If 100. mL of 1.00 M HCl and 100. mL of 0.80 M NaOH solutions are mixed, what are the molarities of the solutes in the resulting solution?

Plan

We proceed as we did in Example 11-1. This reaction summary shows that NaOH is the limiting reactant and that we have excess HCl.

Solution

	HCl	+	NaOH	→	NaCl	+	H ₂ O
Rxn ratio:	1 mmol		1 mmol		1 mmol		1 mmol
Start:	100. mmol		80. mmol		0 mmol		
Change:	−80. mmol		−80. mmol		+80. mmol		
After rxn:	20. mmol		0 mmol		80. mmol		

 See the *Saunders Interactive General Chemistry CD-ROM*, Screen 5-10, Solution Concentration—Molarity.

Because two solutes are present in the solution after reaction, we must calculate the concentrations of both.

$$\frac{? \text{ mmol HCl}}{\text{mL}} = \frac{20. \text{ mmol HCl}}{200. \text{ mL}} = 0.10 \text{ M HCl}$$

$$\frac{? \text{ mmol NaCl}}{\text{mL}} = \frac{80. \text{ mmol NaCl}}{200. \text{ mL}} = 0.40 \text{ M NaCl}$$

Both HCl and NaCl are strong electrolytes, so the solution is 0.10 *M* in H⁺(aq), (0.10 + 0.40) *M* = 0.50 *M* in Cl⁻, and 0.40 *M* in Na⁺ ions.

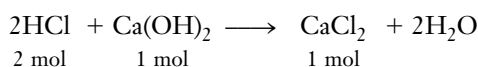
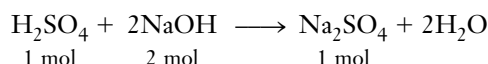
You should now work Exercises 8 and 16.



Problem-Solving Tip: Review Limiting Reactant Calculations

To solve many of the problems in this chapter, you will need to apply the limiting reactant concept (Section 3-3). In Example 11-1, we confirm that the two reactants are initially present in the mole ratio required by the balanced chemical equation; they both react completely, so there is no excess of either one. In Example 11-2, we need to determine which reactant limits the reaction. Before you proceed, be sure you understand how the ideas of Section 3-3 are used in these examples.

In many cases more than one mole of a base will be required to neutralize completely one mole of an acid, or more than one mole of an acid will be required to neutralize completely one mole of a base.



The first equation shows that one mole of H₂SO₄ reacts with two moles of NaOH. Thus, *two* liters of 1 *M* NaOH solution are required to neutralize one liter of 1 *M* H₂SO₄ solution. The second equation shows that two moles of HCl react with one mole of Ca(OH)₂. Thus, *two* liters of HCl solution are required to neutralize one liter of Ca(OH)₂ solution of equal molarity.

EXAMPLE 11-3 Volume of Acid to Neutralize Base

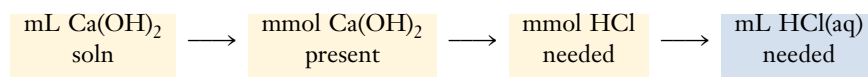
What volume of 0.00300 *M* HCl solution would just neutralize 30.0 mL of 0.00100 *M* Ca(OH)₂ solution?

Plan

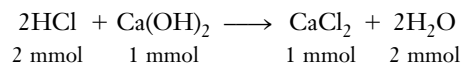
We write the balanced equation for the reaction to determine the reaction ratio. Then we (1) convert milliliters of Ca(OH)₂ solution to millimoles of Ca(OH)₂ using molarity as a unit factor, 0.00100 mmol Ca(OH)₂/1.00 mL Ca(OH)₂ solution; (2) convert millimoles of Ca(OH)₂ to millimoles of HCl using the unit factor, 2 mmol HCl/1 mmol Ca(OH)₂ (the reaction ratio from the balanced equation); and (3) convert millimoles of HCl to milliliters of HCl solution using the unit factor, 1.00 mL HCl/0.00300 mmol HCl, that is, molarity inverted.



See the Saunders Interactive General Chemistry CD-ROM, Screen 5-13, Stoichiometry of Reactions in Solution.

**Solution**

The balanced equation for the reaction is



$\underline{\quad}$ mL HCl =

$$\begin{aligned} 30.0 \text{ mL Ca(OH)}_2 &\times \frac{0.00100 \text{ mmol Ca(OH)}_2}{1.00 \text{ mL Ca(OH)}_2} \times \frac{2 \text{ mmol HCl}}{1 \text{ mmol Ca(OH)}_2} \times \frac{1.00 \text{ mL HCl}}{0.00300 \text{ mmol HCl}} \\ &= 20.0 \text{ mL HCl} \end{aligned}$$

The balanced chemical equation allows us to construct either a mole ratio or a millimole ratio.

$$\frac{2 \text{ mol HCl}}{1 \text{ mol Ca(OH)}_2} \text{ or } \frac{2 \text{ mmol HCl}}{1 \text{ mmol Ca(OH)}_2}$$

You should now work Exercise 18.

In the preceding example we used the unit factor, 2 mol HCl/1 mol Ca(OH)₂, to convert moles of Ca(OH)₂ to moles of HCl because the balanced equation shows that two moles of HCl are required to neutralize one mole of Ca(OH)₂. We must always write the balanced equation and determine the *reaction ratio*.



Problem-Solving Tip: *There Is More Than One Way to Solve Some Problems*

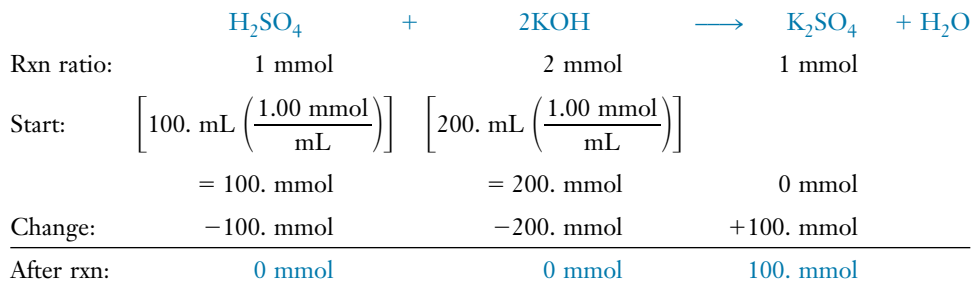
In many problems more than one “plan” can be followed. In Example 11-3 a particular plan was used successfully. Many students can more easily visualize the solution by following a plan like that in Examples 11-1 and 11-4. We suggest that you use the plan that you find most understandable.

EXAMPLE 11-4 Acid–Base Reactions

If 100. mL of 1.00 M H₂SO₄ solution is mixed with 200. mL of 1.00 M KOH, what salt is produced, and what is its molarity?

Plan

We proceed as we did in Example 11-2. We note that the reaction ratio is 1 mmol of H₂SO₄ to 2 mmol of KOH to 1 mmol of K₂SO₄.

Solution

The reaction produces 100. mmol of potassium sulfate. This is contained in 300. mL of solution, and so the concentration is

$$\frac{? \text{ mmol K}_2\text{SO}_4}{\text{mL}} = \frac{100. \text{ mmol K}_2\text{SO}_4}{300. \text{ mL}} = 0.333 \text{ M K}_2\text{SO}_4$$

You should now work Exercises 10 and 14.

Because K_2SO_4 is a strong electrolyte, this corresponds to 0.666 M K^+ and $0.333 \text{ M SO}_4^{2-}$.

11-2 TITRATIONS

In Examples 3-23 and 11-3, we calculated the volume of one solution that is required to react with a given volume of another solution, with the concentrations of *both* solutions given. In the laboratory we often measure the volume of one solution that is required to react with a given volume of another solution of known concentration. Then we calculate the concentration of the first solution. The process is called **titration** (Figure 11-1).

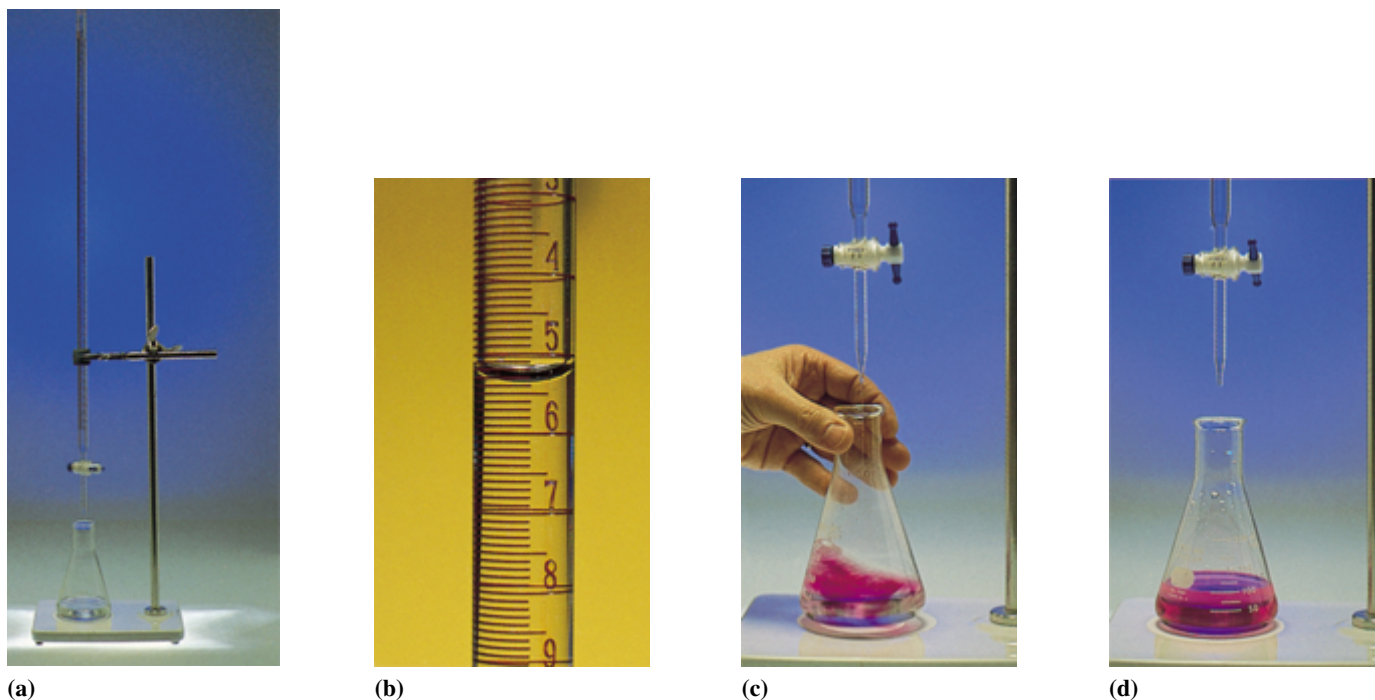


Figure 11-1 The titration process. (a) A typical setup for titration in a teaching laboratory. The solution to be titrated is placed in an Erlenmeyer flask, and a few drops of indicator are added. The buret is filled with a standard solution (or the solution to be standardized). The volume of solution in the buret is read carefully. (b) The meniscus describes the surface of the liquid in the buret. Aqueous solutions wet glass, so the meniscus of an aqueous solution is always concave. The position of the *bottom* of the meniscus is read and recorded. (c) The solution in the buret is added (dropwise near the end point), with stirring, to the Erlenmeyer flask until the end point is reached. (d) The end point is signaled by the appearance (or change) of color *throughout* the solution being titrated. (A very large excess of indicator was used to make this photograph.) The volume of the liquid is read again—the difference between the final and initial buret readings is the volume of the solution used.

Titration is the process in which a solution of one reactant, the titrant, is carefully added to a solution of another reactant, and the volume of titrant required for complete reaction is measured.

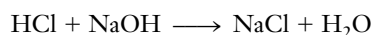
How does one know when to stop a titration—that is, when is the chemical reaction just complete? In one method, a few drops of an *indicator* solution are added to the solution to be titrated. An **indicator** is a substance that can exist in different forms, with different colors that depend on the concentration of H^+ in the solution. At least one of these forms must be very intensely colored so that even very small amounts of it can be seen.

We can titrate an acid solution of unknown concentration by adding a standardized solution of sodium hydroxide dropwise from a **buret** (see Figure 11-1). A common buret is graduated in large intervals of 1 mL and in smaller intervals of 0.1 mL so that it is possible to estimate the volume of a solution dispensed to within at least ± 0.02 mL. (Experienced individuals can often read a buret to ± 0.01 mL.) The analyst tries to choose an indicator that changes color clearly at the point at which stoichiometrically equivalent amounts of acid and base have reacted, the **equivalence point**. The point at which the indicator changes color and the titration is stopped is called the **end point**. Ideally, the end point should coincide with the equivalence point. Phenolphthalein is colorless in acidic solution and reddish violet in basic solution. In a titration in which a base is added to an acid, phenolphthalein is often used as an indicator. The end point is signaled by the first appearance of a faint pink coloration that persists for at least 15 seconds as the solution is swirled.

The choice of indicators will be discussed in Section 19.4.

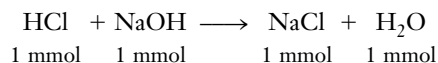
EXAMPLE 11-5 Titration

What is the molarity of a hydrochloric acid solution if 36.7 mL of the HCl solution is required to react with 43.2 mL of 0.236 M sodium hydroxide solution?



Plan

The balanced equation tells us that the reaction ratio is one millimole of HCl to one millimole of NaOH, which gives the unit factor, 1 mmol HCl/1 mmol NaOH.




First we find the number of millimoles of NaOH. The reaction ratio is one millimole of HCl to one millimole of NaOH, so the HCl solution must contain the same number of millimoles of HCl. Then we can calculate the molarity of the HCl solution because we know its volume.

Solution

The volume of a solution (in milliliters) multiplied by its molarity gives the number of millimoles of solute.

$$\underline{\quad} \text{ mmol NaOH} = 43.2 \text{ mL NaOH soln} \times \frac{0.236 \text{ mmol NaOH}}{1 \text{ mL NaOH soln}} = 10.2 \text{ mmol NaOH}$$

Because the reaction ratio is one millimole of NaOH to one millimole of HCl, the HCl solution must contain 10.2 millimoles of HCl.

 See the *Saunders Interactive General Chemistry CD-ROM*, Screen 5-15, Titration Simulation.



$$\underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{ mol HCl} = 10.2 \text{ mmol NaOH} \times \frac{1 \text{ mmol HCl}}{1 \text{ mmol NaOH}} = 10.2 \text{ mmol HCl}$$

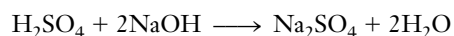
We know the volume of the HCl solution, so we can calculate its molarity.

$$\frac{\underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{ mmol HCl}}{\text{mL HCl soln}} = \frac{10.2 \text{ mmol HCl}}{36.7 \text{ mL HCl soln}} = \boxed{0.278 \text{ M HCl}}$$

The indicator phenolphthalein changes from colorless, its color in acidic solutions, to pink, its color in basic solutions, when the reaction in Example 11-5 reaches completion. Note the first appearance of a faint pink coloration in the middle beaker; this signals that the end point is near.

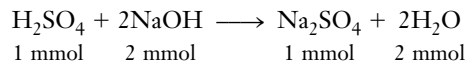
EXAMPLE 11-6 Titration

A 43.2-mL sample of 0.236 M sodium hydroxide solution reacts completely with 36.7 mL of a sulfuric acid solution. What is the molarity of the H₂SO₄ solution?



Plan

The balanced equation tells us that the reaction ratio is one millimole of H₂SO₄ to two millimoles of NaOH, which gives the unit factor, 1 mmol H₂SO₄/2 mmol NaOH.



First we find the number of millimoles of NaOH. The reaction ratio is one millimole of H₂SO₄ to two millimoles of NaOH, so the number of millimoles of H₂SO₄ must be one half of the number of millimoles of NaOH. Then we can calculate the molarity of the H₂SO₄ solution because we know its volume.

Solution

The volume of a solution (in milliliters) multiplied by its molarity gives the number of millimoles of solute.

$$\underline{\hspace{1cm}} \text{ mmol NaOH} = 43.2 \text{ mL NaOH soln} \times \frac{0.236 \text{ mmol NaOH}}{1 \text{ mL NaOH soln}} = 10.2 \text{ mmol NaOH}$$

Because the reaction ratio is two millimoles of NaOH to one millimole of H₂SO₄, the H₂SO₄ solution must contain 5.10 millimoles of H₂SO₄.

$$\underline{\quad} \text{ mmol H}_2\text{SO}_4 = 10.2 \text{ mmol NaOH} \times \frac{1 \text{ mmol H}_2\text{SO}_4}{2 \text{ mmol NaOH}} = 5.10 \text{ mmol H}_2\text{SO}_4$$

We know the volume of the H₂SO₄ solution, so we can calculate its molarity.

$$\frac{\underline{\quad} \text{ mmol H}_2\text{SO}_4}{\text{mL H}_2\text{SO}_4 \text{ soln}} = \frac{5.10 \text{ mmol H}_2\text{SO}_4}{36.7 \text{ mL H}_2\text{SO}_4 \text{ soln}} = 0.139 \text{ M H}_2\text{SO}_4$$

You should now work Exercise 40.

Notice the similarity between Examples 11-5 and 11-6 in which 43.2 mL of 0.236 M NaOH solution is used. In Example 11-5 the reaction ratio is 1 mmol acid/1 mmol base, whereas in Example 11-6 the reaction ratio is 1 mmol acid/2 mmol base, and so the molarity of the HCl solution (0.278 M) is twice the molarity of the H₂SO₄ solution (0.139 M).

CO₂, H₂O, and O₂ are present in the atmosphere. They react with many substances.


Solutions of accurately known concentrations are called **standard solutions**. Often we prepare solutions of such substances and then determine their concentrations by titration with a standard solution.

Standardization is the process by which one determines the concentration of a solution by measuring accurately the volume of the solution required to react with an exactly known amount of a **primary standard**. The standardized solution is then known as a **secondary standard** and is used in the analysis of unknowns.

The properties of an ideal *primary standard* include the following.

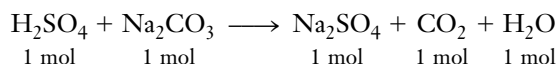
1. It must not react with or absorb the components of the atmosphere, such as water vapor, oxygen, and carbon dioxide.
2. It must react according to one invariable reaction.
3. It must have a high percentage purity.
4. It should have a high formula weight to minimize the effect of error in weighing.
5. It must be soluble in the solvent of interest.
6. It should be nontoxic.
7. It should be readily available (inexpensive).
8. It should be environmentally friendly.

The first five of these characteristics are essential to minimize the errors involved in analytical methods. The last three characteristics are just as important as the first five in most analytical laboratories. Because primary standards are often costly and difficult to prepare, secondary standards are often used in day-to-day work.

 See the *Saunders Interactive General Chemistry CD-ROM*, Screen 5-14, Titrations.

11-3 THE MOLE METHOD AND MOLARITY

Let us now describe the use of a few primary standards for acids and bases. One primary standard for solutions of acids is sodium carbonate, Na₂CO₃, a solid compound.



$$1 \text{ mol Na}_2\text{CO}_3 = 106.0 \text{ g} \quad \text{and} \quad 1 \text{ mmol Na}_2\text{CO}_3 = 0.1060 \text{ g}$$

Refer to the Brønsted–Lowry theory. (Section 10-4).

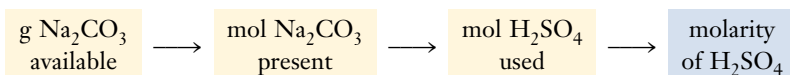
Sodium carbonate is a salt. Because a base can be broadly defined as a substance that reacts with hydrogen ions, in *this* reaction Na₂CO₃ can be thought of as a base.

EXAMPLE 11-7 *Standardization of an Acid Solution*

Calculate the molarity of a solution of H_2SO_4 if 40.0 mL of the solution neutralizes 0.364 gram of Na_2CO_3 .

Plan

We know from the balanced equation that 1 mol of H_2SO_4 reacts with 1 mol of Na_2CO_3 , 106.0 g. This provides the unit factors that convert 0.364 g of Na_2CO_3 to the corresponding number of moles of H_2SO_4 , from which we can calculate molarity.

**Solution**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{? mol H}_2\text{SO}_4 &= 0.364 \text{ g Na}_2\text{CO}_3 \times \frac{1 \text{ mol Na}_2\text{CO}_3}{106.0 \text{ g Na}_2\text{CO}_3} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol H}_2\text{SO}_4}{1 \text{ mol Na}_2\text{CO}_3} \\ &= 0.00343 \text{ mol H}_2\text{SO}_4 \quad (\text{present in 40.0 mL of solution}) \end{aligned}$$

Now we calculate the molarity of the H_2SO_4 solution

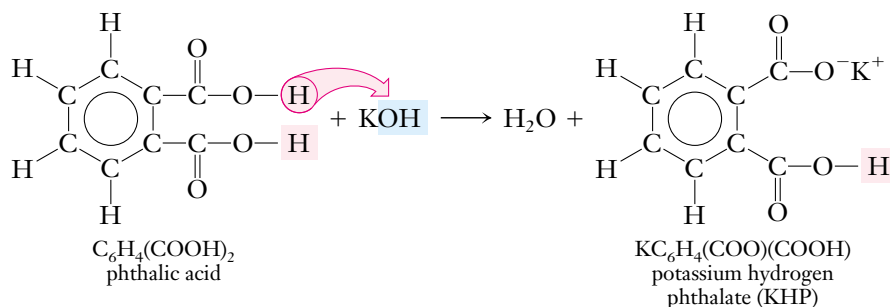
$$\frac{\text{? mol H}_2\text{SO}_4}{\text{L}} = \frac{0.00343 \text{ mol H}_2\text{SO}_4}{0.0400 \text{ L}} = 0.0858 \text{ M H}_2\text{SO}_4$$

You should now work Exercise 28.



Sodium carbonate is often used as a primary standard for acids.

Most inorganic bases are metal hydroxides, all of which are solids. Even in the solid state, however, most inorganic bases react rapidly with CO_2 (an acid anhydride) from the atmosphere. Most metal hydroxides also absorb H_2O from the air. These properties make it *very* difficult to accurately weigh out samples of pure metal hydroxides. Chemists obtain solutions of bases of accurately known concentration by standardizing the solutions against an acidic salt, potassium hydrogen phthalate, $\text{KC}_6\text{H}_4(\text{COO})(\text{COOH})$. This is produced by neutralization of one of the two ionizable hydrogens of an organic acid, phthalic acid.



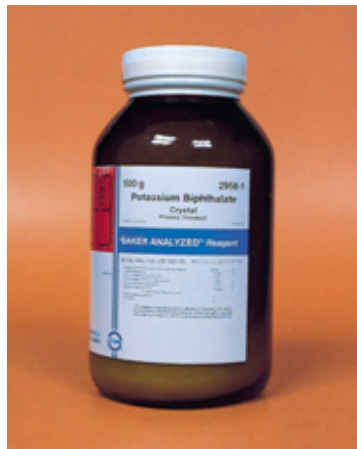
This acidic salt, known simply as KHP, has one acidic hydrogen (highlighted) that reacts with bases. KHP is easily obtained in a high state of purity, and is soluble in water. It is used as a primary standard for bases.

The “ph” in *phthalate* is silent. Phthalate is pronounced “thalate.”

The P in KHP stands for the phthalate ion, $\text{C}_6\text{H}_4(\text{COO})_2^{2-}$, *not* phosphorus.

EXAMPLE 11-8 *Standardization of Base Solution*

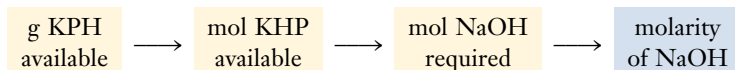
A 20.00-mL sample of a solution of NaOH reacts with 0.3641 gram of KHP. Calculate the molarity of the NaOH solution.



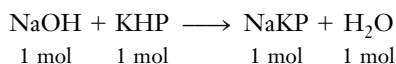
Very pure KHP is readily available.

Plan

We first write the balanced equation for the reaction between NaOH and KHP. We then calculate the number of moles of NaOH in 20.00 mL of solution from the amount of KHP that reacts with it. Then we can calculate the molarity of the NaOH solution.



Solution



We see that NaOH and KHP react in a 1:1 mole ratio. One mole of KHP is 204.2 g.

$$\underline{\quad} \text{ mol NaOH} = 0.3641 \text{ g KHP} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol KHP}}{204.2 \text{ g KHP}} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol NaOH}}{1 \text{ mol KHP}} = 0.001783 \text{ mol NaOH}$$

Then we calculate the molarity of the NaOH solution.

$$\frac{\underline{\quad} \text{ mol NaOH}}{\text{L}} = \frac{0.001783 \text{ mol NaOH}}{0.02000 \text{ L}} = \text{0.08915 M NaOH}$$

You should now work Exercise 30.

Impure samples of acids can be titrated with standard solutions of bases. The results can be used to determine percentage purity of the samples.

EXAMPLE 11-9 Determination of Percent Acid

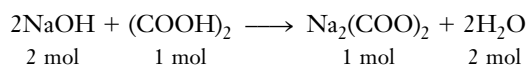
Oxalic acid, $(\text{COOH})_2$, is used to remove rust stains and some ink stains from fabrics. A 0.1743-gram sample of *impure* oxalic acid required 39.82 mL of 0.08915 M NaOH solution for complete neutralization. No acidic impurities were present. Calculate the percentage purity of the $(\text{COOH})_2$.

Plan

We write the balanced equation for the reaction and calculate the number of moles of NaOH in the standard solution. Then we calculate the mass of $(\text{COOH})_2$ in the sample, which gives us the information we need to calculate percentage purity.

Solution

The equation for the complete neutralization of $(\text{COOH})_2$ with NaOH is

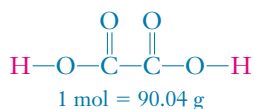


Two moles of NaOH neutralizes completely one mole of $(\text{COOH})_2$. The number of moles of NaOH that react is the volume times the molarity of the solution.

$$\underline{\quad} \text{ mol NaOH} = 0.03982 \text{ L} \times \frac{0.08915 \text{ mol NaOH}}{\text{L}} = 0.003550 \text{ mol NaOH}$$

Now we calculate the mass of $(\text{COOH})_2$ that reacts with 0.003550 mol NaOH.

Each molecule of $(\text{COOH})_2$ contains two acidic H's.



$$\begin{aligned} \text{? g (COOH)}_2 &= 0.003550 \text{ mol NaOH} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol (COOH)}_2}{2 \text{ mol NaOH}} \times \frac{90.04 \text{ g (COOH)}_2}{1 \text{ mol (COOH)}_2} \\ &= 0.1598 \text{ g (COOH)}_2 \end{aligned}$$

The 0.1743-g sample contained 0.1598 g of (COOH)₂, so its percentage purity was

$$\% \text{ purity} = \frac{0.1598 \text{ g (COOH)}_2}{0.1743 \text{ g sample}} \times 100\% = 91.68\% \text{ pure (COOH)}_2$$

You should now work Exercise 36.

11-4 EQUIVALENT WEIGHTS AND NORMALITY

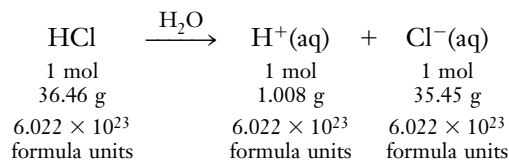
Because one mole of an acid does not necessarily neutralize one mole of a base, some chemists prefer a method of expressing concentration other than molarity to retain a one-to-one relationship. Concentrations of solutions of acids and bases are frequently expressed as *normality* (*N*). The **normality** of a solution is defined as the number of equivalent weights, or simply equivalents (eq), of solute per liter of solution. Normality may be represented symbolically as

$$\text{Normality} = \frac{\text{number of equivalent weights of solute}}{\text{liter of solution}} = \frac{\text{no. eq}}{\text{L}}$$

By definition there are 1000 milliequivalent weights (meq) in one equivalent weight of an acid or base. Normality may also be represented as

$$\text{Normality} = \frac{\text{number of milliequivalent weights of solute}}{\text{milliliter of solution}} = \frac{\text{no. meq}}{\text{mL}}$$

In acid–base reactions, one **equivalent weight**, or **equivalent (eq), of an acid** is defined as the mass of the acid (expressed in grams) that could furnish 6.022×10^{23} hydrogen ions (1 mol) or that could react with 6.022×10^{23} hydroxide ions (1 mol). One mole of an acid contains 6.022×10^{23} formula units of the acid. Consider hydrochloric acid as a typical monoprotic acid.



We see that one mole of HCl can produce 6.022×10^{23} H⁺ ions, and so *one mole of HCl is one equivalent*. The same is true for all monoprotic acids.

Any calculation that can be carried out with equivalent weights and normality can also be done by the mole method using molarity. The methods of this section are widely used, however, in health-related fields and in many industrial laboratories.

An **equivalent weight** is often referred to simply as an **equivalent** (eq).

A **milliequivalent weight** is often referred to simply as a **milliequivalent** (meq).

TABLE 11-1 Equivalent Weights* of Some Acids and Bases

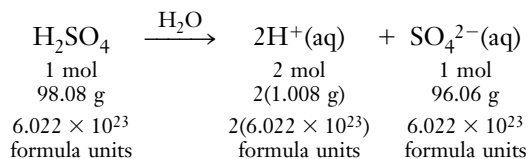
Acids		Bases	
Symbolic representation	One eq	Symbolic representation	One eq
$\frac{\text{HNO}_3}{1}$	$= \frac{63.02 \text{ g}}{1} = 63.02 \text{ g HNO}_3$	$\frac{\text{NaOH}}{1}$	$= \frac{40.00 \text{ g}}{1} = 40.00 \text{ g NaOH}$
$\frac{\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}}{1}$	$= \frac{60.03 \text{ g}}{1} = 60.03 \text{ g CH}_3\text{COOH}$	$\frac{\text{NH}_3}{1}$	$= \frac{17.04 \text{ g}}{1} = 17.04 \text{ g NH}_3$
$\frac{\text{KHP}}{1}$	$= \frac{204.2 \text{ g}}{1} = 204.2 \text{ g KHP}$	$\frac{\text{Ca(OH)}_2}{2}$	$= \frac{74.10 \text{ g}}{2} = 37.05 \text{ g Ca(OH)}_2$
$\frac{\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4}{2}$	$= \frac{98.08 \text{ g}}{2} = 49.04 \text{ g H}_2\text{SO}_4$	$\frac{\text{Ba(OH)}_2}{2}$	$= \frac{171.36 \text{ g}}{2} = 85.68 \text{ g Ba(OH)}_2$

*Complete neutralization is assumed.



One mole of H_2SO_4 is two equivalent weights of H_2SO_4 .

Sulfuric acid is a diprotic acid. One molecule of H_2SO_4 can furnish 2H^+ ions.



This equation shows that one mole of H_2SO_4 can produce $2(6.022 \times 10^{23}) \text{H}^+$; therefore, one mole of H_2SO_4 is *two* equivalent weights in all reactions in which *both* acidic hydrogen atoms react.

One **equivalent weight of a base** is defined as the mass of the base (expressed in grams) that will furnish 6.022×10^{23} hydroxide ions or the mass of the base that will react with 6.022×10^{23} hydrogen ions.

The equivalent weight of an *acid* is obtained by dividing its formula weight in grams either by the number of acidic hydrogens that could be furnished by one formula unit of the acid *or* by the number of hydroxide ions with which one formula unit of the acid reacts. The equivalent weight of a *base* is obtained by dividing its formula weight in grams either by the number of hydroxide ions furnished by one formula unit *or* by the number of hydrogen ions with which one formula unit of the base reacts. Equivalent weights of some common acids and bases are given in Table 11-1.

EXAMPLE 11-10 Concentration of a Solution

Calculate the normality of a solution of 4.202 grams of HNO_3 in 600. mL of solution.

Plan

We convert grams of HNO_3 to moles of HNO_3 and then to equivalents of HNO_3 , which lets us calculate the normality.

$$\frac{\text{g HNO}_3}{\text{L}} \longrightarrow \frac{\text{mol HNO}_3}{\text{L}} \longrightarrow \frac{\text{eq HNO}_3}{\text{L}} = N \text{ HNO}_3$$

Solution

$$N = \frac{\text{no. eq HNO}_3}{L}$$

$$\frac{? \text{ eq HNO}_3}{L} = \frac{4.202 \text{ g HNO}_3}{0.600 \text{ L}} \times \underbrace{\frac{1 \text{ mol HNO}_3}{63.02 \text{ g HNO}_3}}_{M_{\text{HNO}_3}} \times \frac{1 \text{ eq HNO}_3}{\text{mol HNO}_3} = 0.111 \text{ N HNO}_3$$

Because normality is equal to molarity times the number of equivalents per mole of solute, a solution's normality is always equal to or greater than its molarity.

$$\text{Normality} = \text{molarity} \times \frac{\text{no. eq}}{\text{mol}} \quad \text{or} \quad N = M \times \frac{\text{no. eq}}{\text{mol}}$$

EXAMPLE 11-11 Concentration of a Solution

Calculate (a) the molarity and (b) the normality of a solution that contains 9.50 grams of barium hydroxide in 2000. mL of solution.

Plan

(a) We use the same kind of logic we used in Example 11-10.

(b) Because each mole of $\text{Ba}(\text{OH})_2$ produces 2 moles of OH^- ions, 1 mole of $\text{Ba}(\text{OH})_2$ is 2 equivalents. Thus,

$$N = M \times \frac{2 \text{ eq}}{\text{mol}} \quad \text{or} \quad M = \frac{N}{2 \text{ eq/mol}}$$

Solution

$$\text{(a) } \frac{? \text{ mol Ba}(\text{OH})_2}{L} = \frac{9.50 \text{ g Ba}(\text{OH})_2}{2.00 \text{ L}} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol Ba}(\text{OH})_2}{171.36 \text{ g Ba}(\text{OH})_2} = 0.0277 \text{ M Ba}(\text{OH})_2$$

$$\text{(b) } \frac{? \text{ eq Ba}(\text{OH})_2}{L} = \frac{0.0277 \text{ mol Ba}(\text{OH})_2}{L} \times \frac{2 \text{ eq Ba}(\text{OH})_2}{1 \text{ mol Ba}(\text{OH})_2} = 0.0554 \text{ N Ba}(\text{OH})_2$$

You should now work Exercises 42 through 44.

Because each formula unit of $\text{Ba}(\text{OH})_2$ contains two OH^- ions,

$$1 \text{ mol Ba}(\text{OH})_2 = 2 \text{ eq Ba}(\text{OH})_2$$

Thus, molarity is one half of normality for $\text{Ba}(\text{OH})_2$ solutions.

From the definitions of one equivalent of an acid and of a base, we see that *one equivalent of an acid reacts with one equivalent of any base*. It is *not* true that one mole of any acid reacts with one mole of any base in any specific chemical reaction that goes to completion. As a consequence of the definition of equivalents, $1 \text{ eq acid} \cong 1 \text{ eq base}$. We may write the following for *all* acid–base reactions that go to completion.

$$\text{Number of equivalents of acid} = \text{number of equivalents of base}$$

The product of the volume of a solution, in liters, and its normality is equal to the number of equivalents of solute contained in the solution. For a solution of an acid,

$$L_{\text{acid}} \times N_{\text{acid}} = L_{\text{acid}} \times \frac{\text{eq acid}}{L_{\text{acid}}} = \text{eq acid}$$

The notation \cong is read “is equivalent to.”

Remember that the product of volume and concentration equals the amount of solute.

Similar relationships can be written for a solution of a base. Because 1 eq of acid *always* reacts with 1 eq of base, we may write

$$\text{Number of equivalents of acid} = \text{number of equivalents of base}$$

so

$$L_{\text{acid}} \times N_{\text{acid}} = L_{\text{base}} \times N_{\text{base}} \quad \text{or} \quad \text{mL}_{\text{acid}} \times N_{\text{acid}} = \text{mL}_{\text{base}} \times N_{\text{base}}$$

The conversion factors needed to convert liters to milliliters on each side of this equation will cancel.

EXAMPLE 11-12 Volume Required for Neutralization

What volume of 0.100 N HNO₃ solution is required to neutralize completely 50.0 mL of a 0.150 N solution of Ba(OH)₂?

Plan

We know three of the four variables in the relationship

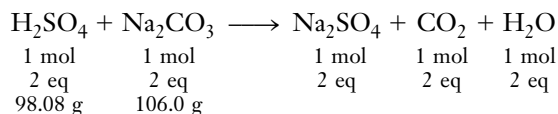
$$\text{mL}_{\text{acid}} \times N_{\text{acid}} = \text{mL}_{\text{base}} \times N_{\text{base}}, \text{ and so we solve for } \text{mL}_{\text{acid}}.$$

Solution

$$\text{? mL}_{\text{acid}} = \frac{\text{mL}_{\text{base}} \times N_{\text{base}}}{N_{\text{acid}}} = \frac{50.0 \text{ mL} \times 0.150 \text{ N}}{0.100 \text{ N}} = 75.0 \text{ mL of HNO}_3 \text{ solution}$$

You should now work Exercise 48.

In Example 11-13 let us again solve Example 11-7, this time using normality rather than molarity. The balanced equation for the reaction of H₂SO₄ with Na₂CO₃, interpreted in terms of equivalent weights, is



So, 1 eq Na₂CO₃ = 53.0 g

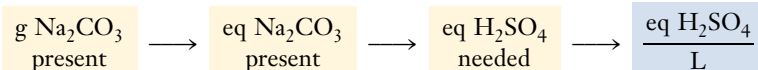
By definition, there must be equal numbers of equivalents of all reactants and products in a balanced chemical equation.

EXAMPLE 11-13 Standardization of Acid Solution

Calculate the normality of a solution of H₂SO₄ if 40.0 mL of the solution reacts completely with 0.364 gram of Na₂CO₃.

Plan

We refer to the balanced equation. We are given the mass of Na₂CO₃, so we convert grams of Na₂CO₃ to equivalents of Na₂CO₃, then to equivalents of H₂SO₄, which lets us calculate the normality of the H₂SO₄ solution.





Automatic titrators are used in modern analytical laboratories. Such titrators rely on electrical properties of the solutions. Methyl red indicator changes from yellow to red at the end point of this titration.

Solution

First we calculate the number of equivalents of Na_2CO_3 in the sample.

$$\text{no. eq Na}_2\text{CO}_3 = 0.364 \text{ g Na}_2\text{CO}_3 \times \frac{1 \text{ eq Na}_2\text{CO}_3}{53.0 \text{ g Na}_2\text{CO}_3} = 6.87 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eq Na}_2\text{CO}_3$$

Because $\text{no. eq H}_2\text{SO}_4 = \text{no. eq Na}_2\text{CO}_3$, we can write

$$L_{\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4} \times N_{\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4} = 6.87 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eq H}_2\text{SO}_4$$

$$N_{\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4} = \frac{6.87 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eq H}_2\text{SO}_4}{L_{\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4}} = \frac{6.87 \times 10^{-3} \text{ eq H}_2\text{SO}_4}{0.040 \text{ L}} = 0.172 \text{ N H}_2\text{SO}_4$$

You should now work Exercise 50.

The starting values in this example are the same as those in Example 11-7. The normality of this H_2SO_4 solution is twice the molarity obtained in Example 11-7 because 1 mol of H_2SO_4 is 2 eq.

OXIDATION-REDUCTION REACTIONS

Our rules for assigning oxidation numbers are constructed so that in all redox reactions

the total increase in oxidation numbers must equal the total decrease in oxidation numbers.

This equivalence provides the basis for balancing redox equations. Although there is no single “best method” for balancing all redox equations, two methods are particularly useful: (1) the half-reaction method, which is used extensively in electrochemistry (Chapter 21)

Most redox equations can be balanced by both methods, but in some instances one may be easier to use than the other.

and (2) the change-in-oxidation-number method. Many redox equations can be balanced by simple inspection, but you should master one of these systematic methods so it can be used to balance difficult equations.

All balanced equations must satisfy two criteria.

1. There must be mass balance. That is, the same number of atoms of each kind must appear in reactants and products.
2. There must be charge balance. The sums of actual charges on the left and right sides of the equation must equal each other. In a balanced *formula unit equation*, the total charge on each side will be equal to zero. In a balanced *net ionic equation*, the total charge on each side might not be zero, but it still must be equal on the two sides of the equation.

For brevity, we will refer to this as the HR method. It is sometimes referred to as the ion–electron method.

11-5 THE HALF-REACTION METHOD

In the half-reaction method we separate and completely balance equations describing oxidation and reduction **half-reactions**. Then we equalize the numbers of electrons gained and lost in each. Finally, we add the resulting half-reactions to give the overall balanced equation. The general procedure follows.

1. Write as much of the overall unbalanced equation as possible, omitting spectator ions.
2. Construct unbalanced oxidation and reduction half-reactions (these are usually incomplete as well as unbalanced). Show complete formulas for polyatomic ions and molecules.
3. Balance by inspection all elements in each half-reaction, except H and O. Then use the chart in Section 11-6 to balance H and O in each half-reaction.
4. Balance the charge in each half-reaction by adding electrons as “products” or “reactants.”
5. Balance the electron transfer by multiplying the balanced half-reactions by appropriate integers.
6. Add the resulting half-reactions and eliminate any common terms.

EXAMPLE 11-14 *Balancing Redox Equations (HR method)*

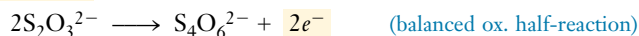
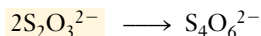
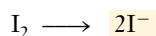
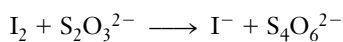
A useful analytical procedure involves the oxidation of iodide ions to free iodine. The free iodine is then titrated with a standard solution of sodium thiosulfate, $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3$. Iodine oxidizes $\text{S}_2\text{O}_3^{2-}$ ions to tetrathionate ions, $\text{S}_4\text{O}_6^{2-}$, and is reduced to I^- ions. Write the balanced net ionic equation for this reaction.

Plan

We are given the formulas for two reactants and two products. We use these to write as much of the equations as possible. We construct and balance the appropriate half-reactions using the rules just described. Then we add the half-reactions and eliminate common terms.



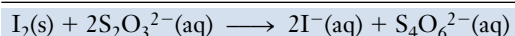
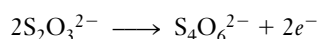
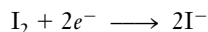
See the *Saunders Interactive General Chemistry CD-ROM*, Screen 21-3, Balancing Equations for Redox Reactions.

Solution

Each I₂ gains 2e⁻. I₂ is reduced; it is the oxidizing agent.

Each S₂O₃²⁻ ion loses an e⁻. S₂O₃²⁻ is oxidized; it is the reducing agent.

Each balanced half-reaction involves a transfer of two electrons. We add these half-reactions and cancel the electrons.



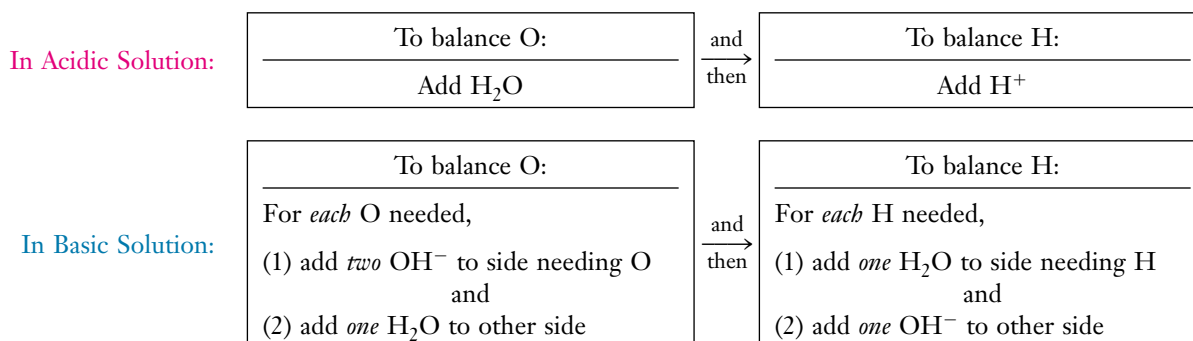
11-6 ADDING H⁺, OH⁻, OR H₂O TO BALANCE OXYGEN OR HYDROGEN

Frequently we need more oxygen or hydrogen to complete the mass balance for a reaction or half-reaction in aqueous solution. We must be careful, however, not to introduce other changes in oxidation number or to use species that could not actually be present in the solution. We cannot add H₂ or O₂ to equations because these species are not present in aqueous solutions. Acidic solutions do not contain significant concentrations of OH⁻ ions. Basic solutions do not contain significant concentrations of H⁺ ions.

In acidic solution: We add only H⁺ or H₂O (*not* OH⁻ in acidic solution).

In basic solution: We add only OH⁻ or H₂O (*not* H⁺ in basic solution).

The following chart shows how to balance hydrogen and oxygen.



In Section 4-3, we first wrote the *formula unit equation*. We separated any ionized or dissociated species into ions to obtain the *total ionic equation*. Then we eliminated the spectator ions to obtain the *net ionic equation*. In Examples 11-15 and 11-16, we reverse the procedure.

When balancing redox equations, we often find it convenient to omit the spectator ions (Section 4-3) so that we can focus on the oxidation and reduction processes. We use the methods presented in this chapter to balance the net ionic equation. If necessary we add the spectator ions and combine species to write the balanced formula unit equation. Examples 11-15 and 11-16 illustrate this approach.

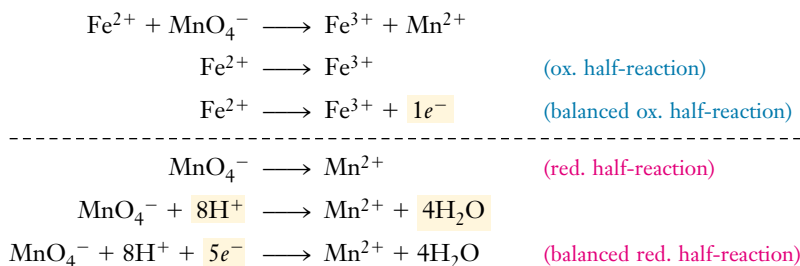
EXAMPLE 11-15 *Net Ionic Equations*

Permanganate ions oxidize iron(II) to iron(III) in sulfuric acid solution. Permanganate ions are reduced to manganese(II) ions. Write the balanced net ionic equation for this reaction.

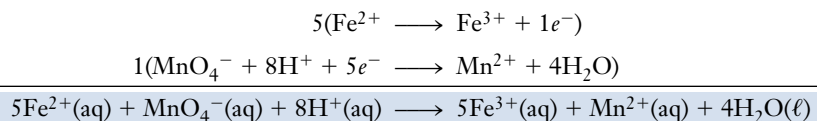
Plan

We use the given information to write as much of the equation as possible. Then we follow steps 2 through 6 in Section 11-5. The reaction occurs in H_2SO_4 solution; we can add H^+ and H_2O as needed to balance H and O in the half-reactions (Step 3).

Solution



The oxidation half-reaction involves one electron, and the reduction half-reaction involves five electrons. Now we balance the electron transfer and then add the two equations term by term. This gives the balanced net ionic equation.

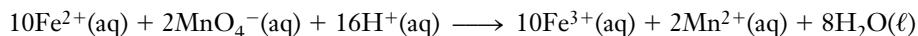


EXAMPLE 11-16 *Total Ionic and Formula Unit Equations*

Write the balanced total ionic and the formula unit equations for the reaction in Example 11-15, given that the reactants were KMnO_4 , FeSO_4 , and H_2SO_4 .

Plan

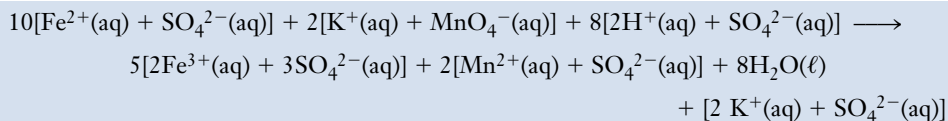
The K^+ is the cationic spectator ion, and the anionic spectator ion is SO_4^{2-} . The Fe^{3+} ion will need to occur twice in the product $\text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$, so there must be an even number of Fe atoms. So the net ionic equation is multiplied by two. It now becomes:



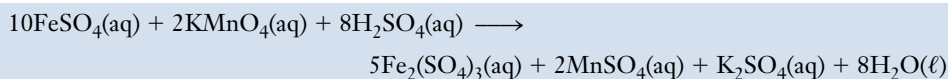
Based on the 10Fe^{2+} and the 16H^+ , we add 18SO_4^{2-} to the reactant side of the equation; we must also add them to the product side to keep the equation balanced. Based on the 2MnO_4^- , we add 2K^+ to each side of the equation.

Solution

Total ionic equation



Balanced formula unit equation

*You should now work Exercise 62.*

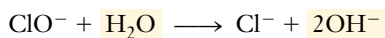
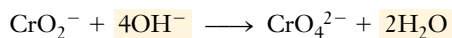
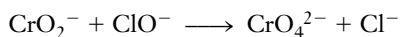
Bleaches sold under trade names such as Clorox and Purex are 5% solutions of sodium hypochlorite. The hypochlorite ion is a very strong oxidizing agent in basic solution. It oxidizes many stains to colorless substances.

EXAMPLE 11-17 *Balancing Redox Equations (HR method)*

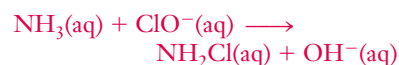
In basic solution, hypochlorite ions, ClO⁻, oxidize chromite ions, CrO₂⁻, to chromate ions, CrO₄²⁻, and are reduced to chloride ions. Write the balanced net ionic equation for this reaction.

Plan

We are given the formulas for two reactants and two products; we write as much of the equations as possible. The reaction occurs in basic solution; we can add OH⁻ and H₂O as needed. We construct and balance the appropriate half-reactions, equalize the electron transfer, add the half-reactions, and eliminate common terms.

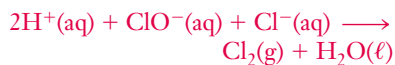
Solution

These common household chemicals, ammonia and bleach, should never be mixed because they react to form chloramine (NH₂Cl), a very poisonous volatile compound.



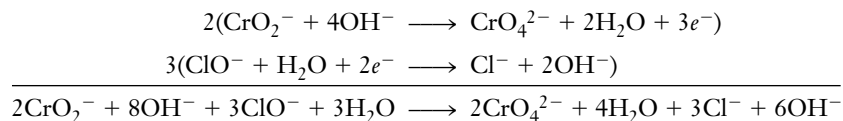


These common household chemicals, vinegar and bleach, should never be mixed because they react to form chlorine, a very poisonous gas.

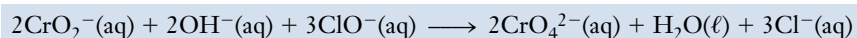


For brevity, we will refer to this as the CON method.

The oxidation half-reaction involves three electrons, and the reduction half-reaction involves two electrons. We balance the electron transfer and add the half-reactions term by term.



We see 6 OH⁻ and 3 H₂O that can be eliminated from both sides to give the balanced net ionic equation.



You should now work Exercise 58.

✓ Problem-Solving Tip: Converting Ionic to Formula Unit Equations


We learned in Section 4-3 how to convert the formula unit equation to the net ionic equation. To do this, we convert the formulas for all *strong electrolytes* into their ions, and then cancel *spectator ions* from both sides of the equation. In Example 11-16 we reverse this procedure. To balance this excess charge, we must add negatively charged spectator ions to combine with the positively charged reactants, and we add positively charged spectator ions to combine with the negatively charged reactants. Any spectator ions added to the reactant side of the equation must also be added to the product side. Then we combine species to give complete formula units. Now we can write total ionic and formula unit equations for Exercise 11-17 if we know what spectator ions are present. Just for practice, consider the spectator ions to be Na⁺.

11-7 CHANGE-IN-OXIDATION-NUMBER METHOD

The next few examples illustrate this method, which is based on *equal total increases and decreases in oxidation numbers*. The general procedure follows.

1. Write as much of the overall *unbalanced* equation as possible.
2. Assign oxidation numbers (Section 4-4) to find the elements that undergo changes in oxidation numbers.
3. a. Draw a bracket to connect atoms of the element that is oxidized. Show the increase in oxidation number *per atom*. Draw a bracket to connect atoms of the element that is reduced. Show the decrease in oxidation number *per atom*.
b. Determine the factors that will make the *total* increase and decrease in oxidation numbers equal.

- Insert coefficients into the equation to make the total increase and decrease in oxidation numbers equal.
- Balance the other atoms by inspection. The chart in Section 11-6 will help with the balancing of H's and O's in aqueous solutions.

 See the *Saunders Interactive General Chemistry CD-ROM*, Screen 21-3, Balancing Equations for Redox Reactions.

EXAMPLE 11-18 *Balancing Redox Equations (CON method)*

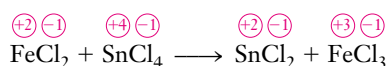
Iron(II) chloride reacts with tin(IV) chloride to form iron(III) chloride and tin(II) chloride. Balance the formula unit equation, and identify the oxidizing and reducing agents.

Plan

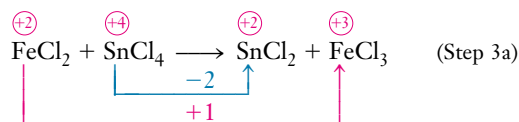
We follow the five-step procedure, one step at a time.

Solution

The unbalanced formula unit equation and oxidation numbers (steps 1 and 2) are



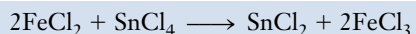
The oxidation number of Fe increases from +2 to +3. Fe^{2+} is the reducing agent; it is oxidized. The oxidation number of Sn decreases from +4 to +2. Sn^{4+} is the oxidizing agent; it is reduced.



We make the *total* increase and decrease in oxidation numbers equal (step 3b).

Oxidation Numbers	Change/Atom	Equalizing Changes Gives
Fe = +2 \longrightarrow Fe = +3	+1	2(+1) = +2
Sn = +4 \longrightarrow Sn = +2	-2	1(-2) = -2
2(+1) = +2 (total increase)		1(-2) = -2 (total decrease)

We need 2 Fe^{2+} on each side of the equation (step 4). All elements are now balanced, so Step 5 is not required.



EXAMPLE 11-19 *Balancing Redox Equations (CON method)*

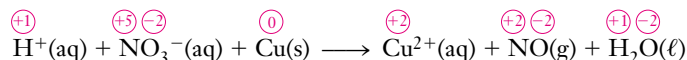
Copper is a widely used metal. Before it is welded (brazed), copper is cleaned by dipping it into nitric acid. HNO_3 oxidizes Cu to Cu^{2+} ions and is reduced to NO. The other product is H_2O . Write the balanced net ionic and formula unit equations for the reaction. Excess HNO_3 is present.

Plan

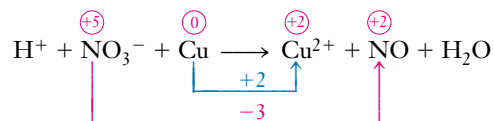
In writing ionic equations, we recall that strong acids, strong bases, and most soluble salts are strong electrolytes. Then we apply our five-step procedure for redox equations.

Solution

We write the unbalanced net ionic equation and assign oxidation numbers. HNO_3 is a strong acid.



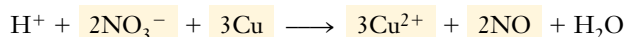
We see that copper is oxidized; it is the reducing agent. Nitrate ions are reduced; they are the oxidizing agent.



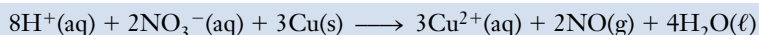
We make the *total* increase and decrease in oxidation numbers equal.

Oxidation Numbers	Change/Atom	Equalizing Changes Gives
Cu = 0 → Cu = +2	+2	3(+2) = +6
N = +5 → N = +2	-3	2(-3) = -6

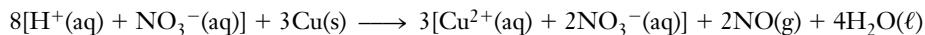
Now we balance the *redox part* of the reaction.



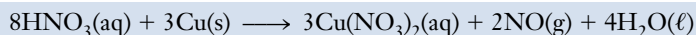
There are 6 O on the left in NO_3^- ions. A coefficient of 4 before H_2O balances O and gives 8 H on the right. So we need 8 H^+ ions on the left to balance the net ionic equation.



This solution contains excess HNO_3 , so NO_3^- is the only anion present in significant concentration. Therefore, we add six more NO_3^- ions to each side to give the total ionic equation.



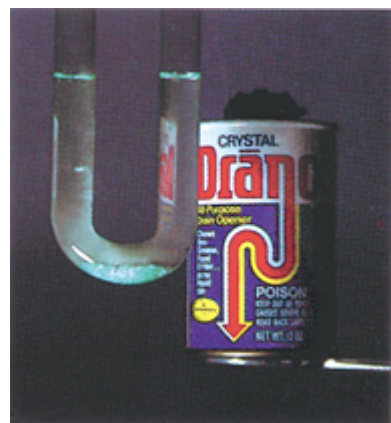
Now we can write the balanced formula unit equation.



You should now work Exercise 52.



Copper is cleaned by dipping it into nitric acid.



The Drano reaction.

EXAMPLE 11-20 Balancing Redox Equations (CON method)

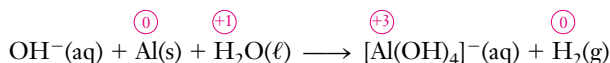
Drano drain cleaner is solid sodium hydroxide that contains some aluminum chips. When Drano is added to water, the NaOH dissolves rapidly with the evolution of a lot of heat. The Al reduces H_2O in the basic solution to produce $[\text{Al}(\text{OH})_4]^-$ ions and H_2 gas, which gives the bubbling action. Write the balanced net ionic and formula unit equations for this reaction.

Plan

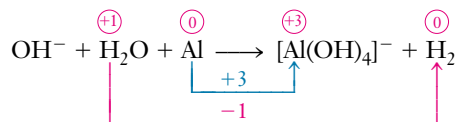
We are given formulas for reactants and products. Recall that NaOH is a strong soluble base (OH^- and H_2O can be added to either side as needed). We apply our five-step procedure.

Solution

We write the unbalanced net ionic equation and assign oxidation numbers.



Aluminum is oxidized; it is the reducing agent. H_2O is reduced; it is the oxidizing agent.



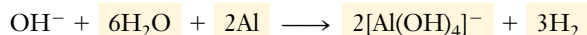
We make the *total* increase and decrease in oxidation numbers equal.

Oxidation Numbers	Change/Atom	Equalizing Changes Gives
Al = 0 \longrightarrow Al = +3	+3	1(+3) = +3
H = +1 \longrightarrow H = 0	-1	3(-1) = -3

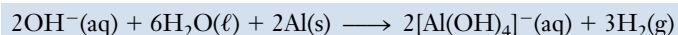
Each change must be multiplied by two because there are 2 H in each H_2 .

$$2(+3) = +6 \text{ (total increase)} \quad 2(-3) = -6 \text{ (total decrease)}$$

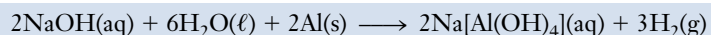
Now we balance the redox part of the equation. We need 2 Al on each side. Because only one H in each H_2O molecule is reduced (the other H is in OH^-), we show 6 H_2O on the left and 3 H_2 on the right.



The net charge on the right is 2-, and so we need 2 OH^- on the left to balance the net ionic equation.



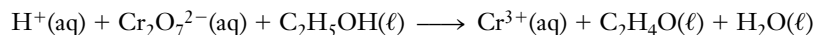
This reaction occurs in excess NaOH solution. We need 2 $\text{Na}^+(\text{aq})$ on each side to balance the negative charges.



You should now work Exercise 58.

EXAMPLE 11-21 Balancing Redox Equations (CON method)

The breathalyzer detects the presence of ethanol (ethyl alcohol) in the breath of persons suspected of drunken driving. It utilizes the oxidation of ethanol to acetaldehyde by dichromate ions in acidic solution. The $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}(\text{aq})$ ion is orange (see Example 11-23). The $\text{Cr}^{3+}(\text{aq})$ ion is green. The appearance of a green color signals alcohol in the breath that exceeds the legal limit. Balance the net ionic equation for this reaction.

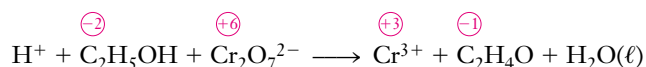


Plan

We are given the unbalanced equation, which includes H^+ . This tells us that the reaction occurs in acidic solution. We apply our five-step procedure.

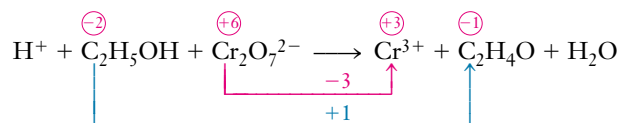
Solution

We first assign oxidation numbers to the elements that change.



Many breathalyzers have been developed over the years. This model has proved to be effective.

We see that ethanol is oxidized; it is the reducing agent. $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ ions are reduced; they are the oxidizing agent.

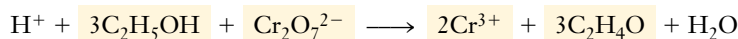


Oxidation Numbers	Change/Atom	Equalizing Changes Gives
Cr = +6 \longrightarrow Cr = +3	-3	1(-3) = -3
C = -2 \longrightarrow C = -1	+1	3(+1) = +3

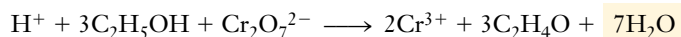
Each change must be multiplied by two because there are 2 Cr in each $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ and 2 C in $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$.

$$2(-3) = -6 \text{ (total decrease)} \quad 2(+3) = +6 \text{ (total increase)}$$

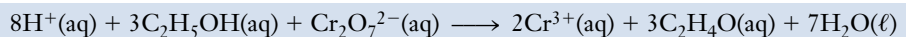
We need 2 Cr and 6 C on each side of the equation to balance the redox part.



Now we balance H and O using our chart. There are 10 O on the left and only 4 O on the right. So we add 6 *more* H_2O molecules on the right.

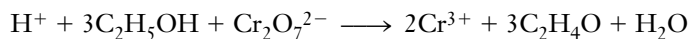


Now there are 26 H on the right and only 19 on the left. So we add 7 *more* H^+ ions on the left to give the balanced net ionic equation.

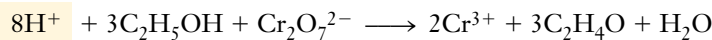


You should now work Exercise 54.

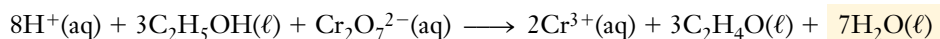
Every balanced equation must have both mass balance and charge balance. Once the redox part of an equation has been balanced, we must next count *either* atoms or charges. After we balanced the redox part in Example 11-21, we had



The net charge on the left side is $(1 + 2-) = 1-$. On the right, it is $2(3+) = 6+$. Because H^+ is the *only charged species whose coefficient isn't known*, we add 7 *more* H^+ to give a net charge of $6+$ on both sides.



Now we have 10 O on the left and only 4 O on the right. We add six *more* H_2O molecules to give the balanced net ionic equation.



How can you tell whether to balance atoms or charges first? Look at the equation *after you have balanced the redox part*. Decide which is simpler, and do that. In the preceding equation, it is easier to balance charges than to balance atoms.

11-8 STOICHIOMETRY OF REDOX REACTIONS

One method of analyzing samples quantitatively for the presence of *oxidizable* or *reducible* substances is by **redox titration**. In such analyses, the concentration of a solution is determined by allowing it to react with a carefully measured amount of a *standard* solution of an oxidizing or reducing agent.

As in other kinds of chemical reactions, we must pay particular attention to the mole ratio in which oxidizing agents and reducing agents react.

Potassium permanganate, KMnO_4 , is a strong oxidizing agent. Through the years it has been the “workhorse” of redox titrations. For example, in acidic solution, KMnO_4 reacts with iron(II) sulfate, FeSO_4 , according to the balanced equation in the following example. A strong acid, such as H_2SO_4 , is used in such titrations (Example 11-15).

A word about terminology. The reaction involves MnO_4^- ions and Fe^{2+} ions in acidic solution. The source of MnO_4^- ions usually is the soluble ionic compound KMnO_4 . We often refer to “permanganate solutions.” Such solutions also contain cations—in this case, K^+ . Likewise, we often refer to “iron(II) solutions” without specifying what the anion is.

Because it has an intense purple color, KMnO_4 acts as its own indicator. One drop of 0.020 *M* KMnO_4 solution imparts a pink color to a liter of pure water. When KMnO_4 solution is added to a solution of a reducing agent, the end point in the titration is taken as the point at which a pale pink color appears in the solution being titrated and persists for at least 30 seconds.

EXAMPLE 11-22 Redox Titration

What volume of 0.0200 *M* KMnO_4 solution is required to oxidize 40.0 mL of 0.100 *M* FeSO_4 in sulfuric acid solution (Figure 11-2)?

Plan

The balanced equation in Example 11-15 gives the reaction ratio, 1 mol $\text{MnO}_4^-/5$ mol Fe^{2+} . Then we calculate the number of moles of Fe^{2+} to be titrated, which lets us find the number of moles of MnO_4^- required *and* the volume in which this number of moles of KMnO_4 is contained.

One mole of KMnO_4 contains one mole of MnO_4^- ions. The number of moles of KMnO_4 is therefore *always* equal to the number of moles of MnO_4^- ions required in a reaction. Similarly, one mole of FeSO_4 contains 1 mole of Fe^{2+} ions.

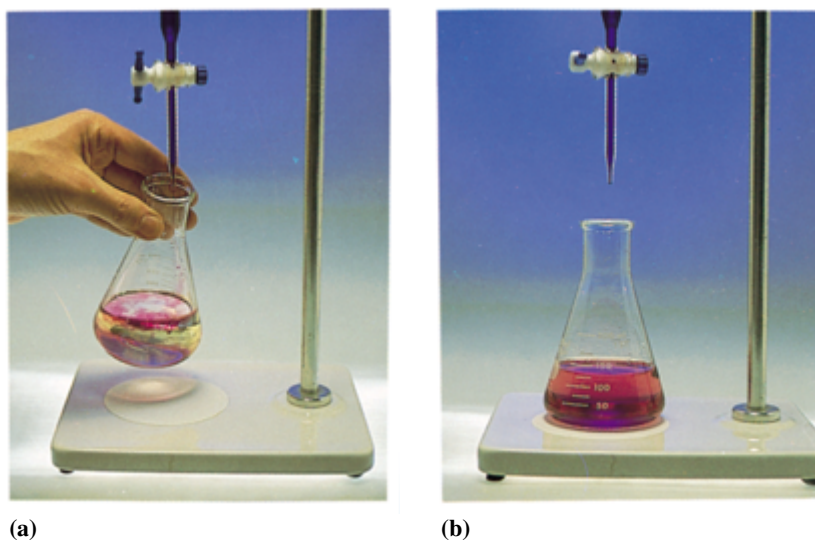


Figure 11-2 (a) Nearly colorless FeSO_4 solution is titrated with deep-purple KMnO_4 . (b) The end point is the point at which the solution becomes pink, owing to a *very small* excess of KMnO_4 . Here a considerable excess of KMnO_4 was added so that the pink color could be reproduced photographically.

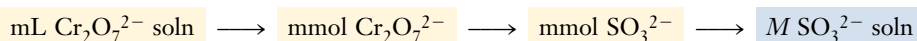
and Na_2SO_3 is the usual source of SO_3^{2-} ions. Thus, the preceding reaction ratio could also be expressed as 1 mol $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7/3$ mol Na_2SO_3 .

EXAMPLE 11-23 Redox Titration

A 20.00-mL sample of Na_2SO_3 was titrated with 36.30 mL of 0.05130 M $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ solution in the presence of H_2SO_4 . Calculate the molarity of the Na_2SO_3 solution.

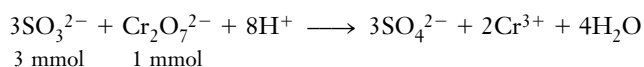
Plan

We can calculate the number of millimoles of $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ in the standard solution. Then we refer to the balanced equation in the preceding discussion, which gives us the reaction ratio, 3 mmol $\text{SO}_3^{2-}/1$ mmol $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$. The reaction ratio lets us calculate the number of millimoles of SO_3^{2-} (Na_2SO_3) that reacted and the molarity of the solution.



Solution

From the preceding discussion we know the balanced equation and the reaction ratio.



The number of millimoles of $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ used is

$$\underline{\quad} \text{ mmol Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-} = 36.30 \text{ mL} \times \frac{0.05130 \text{ mmol Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}}{\text{mL}} = 1.862 \text{ mmol Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$$

The number of millimoles of SO_3^{2-} that reacted with 1.862 mmol of $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ is

$$\underline{\quad} \text{ mmol SO}_3^{2-} = 1.862 \text{ mmol Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-} \times \frac{3 \text{ mmol SO}_3^{2-}}{1 \text{ mmol Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}} = 5.586 \text{ mmol SO}_3^{2-}$$

The Na_2SO_3 solution contained 5.586 mmol of SO_3^{2-} (or 5.586 mmol of Na_2SO_3). Its molarity is

$$\underline{\quad} \frac{\text{mmol Na}_2\text{SO}_3}{\text{mL}} = \frac{5.586 \text{ mmol Na}_2\text{SO}_3}{20.00 \text{ mL}} = 0.2793 M \text{ Na}_2\text{SO}_3$$

You should now work Exercise 70.



$\text{Cr}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$ is green in acidic solution. $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ is orange in acidic solution.

Key Terms

Buret A piece of volumetric glassware, usually graduated in 0.1-mL intervals, that is used in titrations to deliver solutions in a quantitative (dropwise) manner.

End point The point at which an indicator changes color and a titration is stopped.

Equivalence point The point at which chemically equivalent amounts of reactants have reacted.

Equivalent weight in acid–base reactions The mass of an acid or base that furnishes or reacts with 6.022×10^{23} H_3O^+ or OH^- ions.

Half-reaction Either the oxidation part or the reduction part of a redox reaction.

Indicator For acid–base titrations, an organic compound that exhibits its different colors in solutions of different acidities; used to determine the point at which the reaction between two solutes is complete.

Millimole 1/1000 mole.

Molarity (M) The number of moles of solute per liter of solution or the number of millimoles of solute per milliliter of solution.

Normality (N) The number of equivalent weights (equivalents) of solute per liter of solution.

Oxidation An algebraic increase in oxidation number; may correspond to a loss of electrons.

Oxidation–reduction reaction A reaction in which oxidation and reduction occur; also called redox reaction.

Oxidizing agent The substance that oxidizes another substance and is reduced.

Primary standard A substance of a known high degree of purity that undergoes one invariable reaction with the other reactant of interest.

Redox reaction An oxidation–reduction reaction.

Redox titration The quantitative analysis of the amount or concentration of an oxidizing or reducing agent in a sample by observing its reaction with a known amount or concentration of a reducing or oxidizing agent.

Reducing agent The substance that reduces another substance and is oxidized.

Reduction An algebraic decrease in oxidation number; may correspond to a gain of electrons.

Secondary standard A solution that has been titrated against a primary standard. A standard solution in a secondary standard.

Standard solution A solution of accurately known concentration.

Standardization The process by which the concentration of a solution is accurately determined by titrating it against an accurately known amount of a primary standard.

Titration The process by which the volume of a standard solution required to react with a specific amount of a substance is determined.

Exercises

Molarity

- Why can we describe molarity as a “method of convenience” for expressing concentrations of solutions?
- Why is the molarity of a solution the same number whether we describe it in mol/L or in mmol/mL?
- Calculate the molarities of solutions that contain the following masses of solute in the indicated volumes: (a) 45 g of H_3AsO_4 in 500. mL of solution; (b) 8.3 g of $(\text{COOH})_2$ in 600. mL of solution; (c) 8.25 g of $(\text{COOH})_2 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in 750. mL of solution.
- What is the molarity of a solution made by dissolving 132.6 g of magnesium sulfate in sufficient water to produce a total of 3.500 L?
- There is 75.0 g of iron(II) nitrate present in 750. mL of a solution. Calculate the molarity of that solution.
- Calculate the molarity of a solution that is 39.77% H_2SO_4 by mass. The specific gravity of the solution is 1.305.
- Calculate the molarity of a solution that is 19.0% HNO_3 by mass. The specific gravity of the solution is 1.11.
- If 150. mL of 4.32 M HCl solution is added to 300. mL of 2.16 M NaOH solution, the resulting solution will be _____ molar in NaCl .
- What is the molarity of the salt solution produced when 500. mL of 3.00 M HCl and 500. mL of 3.00 M LiOH are mixed? (Assume that the volumes are additive.) Give the name and formula of the salt formed.
- Potassium iodide is sometimes used as a sodium chloride replacement for those people who cannot tolerate table salt. Calculate the molarity of potassium iodide solution produced when 25.0 mL of 9.00 M HI and 25.0 mL of 9.00 M KOH are mixed.
- Calculate the molarity of the salt solution produced when 3.60 mL of 0.00100 M $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$ and 3.60 mL of 0.00100 M H_2SO_4 are mixed. Give the name and formula of the salt formed.
- What is the concentration of the salt solution produced when 32.5 mL of 2.00 M H_2SO_4 and 32.5 mL of 4.00 M NaOH are mixed? Give the name and formula of the salt formed.
- What is the salt concentration produced if we mix 8.00 mL of 3.00 M HCl with 3.00 mL of 4.00 M $\text{Ba}(\text{OH})_2$? Give the name and formula of the salt formed.
- What is the concentration of barium iodide produced by mixing 5.00 mL of 0.125 M $\text{Ba}(\text{OH})_2$ with 12.0 mL of 0.0650 M HI ?
- What is the concentration of the ammonium chloride produced when 44.0 mL of 12.0 M HCl and 37.0 mL of 8.00 M NH_3 are mixed?
- If 225 mL of 3.68 M H_3PO_4 solution is added to 775 mL of 3.68 M NaOH solution, the resulting solution will be _____ molar in Na_3PO_4 and _____ molar in _____.
- If 400 mL of 0.200 M HCl solution is added to 800. mL of 0.0400 M $\text{Ba}(\text{OH})_2$ solution, the resulting solution will be _____ molar in BaCl_2 and _____ molar in _____.
- What volume of 0.0150 M acetic acid solution would completely neutralize 18.7 mL of 0.0105 M $\text{Ba}(\text{OH})_2$ solution?
- What volume of 0.300 M potassium hydroxide solution would completely neutralize 35.0 mL of 0.100 M H_2SO_4 solution?
- A vinegar solution is 5.11% acetic acid. Its density is 1.007 g/mL. What is its molarity?
- A household ammonia solution is 5.03% ammonia. Its density is 0.979 g/mL. What is its molarity?
- (a) What volumes of 1.50 M NaOH and 3.00 M H_3PO_4 solutions would be required to form 1.00 mol of Na_3PO_4 ?
(b) What volumes of the solutions would be required to form 1.00 mol of Na_2HPO_4 ?

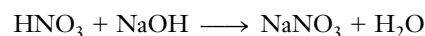
Standardization and Acid–Base Titrations: Mole Method

23. Define and illustrate the following terms clearly and concisely: (a) standard solution; (b) titration; (c) primary standard; (d) secondary standard.
24. Describe the preparation of a standard solution of NaOH, a compound that absorbs both CO₂ and H₂O from the air.
25. Distinguish between the *net ionic equation* and the *formula unit equation*.
26. (a) What is potassium hydrogen phthalate, KHP? (b) For what is it used?
27. Why can sodium carbonate be used as a primary standard for solutions of acids?
28. Calculate the molarity of a solution of HNO₃ if 35.72 mL of the solution neutralizes 0.302 g of Na₂CO₃.
29. If 41.38 mL of a sulfuric acid solution reacts completely with 0.3545 g of Na₂CO₃, what is the molarity of the sulfuric acid solution?
30. A solution of sodium hydroxide is standardized against potassium hydrogen phthalate. From the following data, calculate the molarity of the NaOH solution.

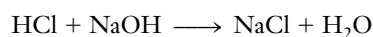
mass of KHP	0.6536
buret reading before titration	0.23 mL
buret reading after titration	31.26 mL
31. Calculate the molarity of a KOH solution if 40.68 mL of the KOH solution reacted with 0.4084 g of potassium hydrogen phthalate, KHP.
32. Calcium carbonate tablets can be used as an antacid and a source of dietary calcium. A bottle of generic antacid tablets states that each tablet contains 500. mg calcium carbonate. What volume of 6.0 M HNO₃ could be neutralized by the calcium carbonate in one tablet?
33. What volume of 18.0 M H₂SO₄ is required to react with 100. mL of 6.00 M NaOH to produce a Na₂SO₄ solution? What volume of water must be added to the resulting solution to obtain a 1.25 M Na₂SO₄ solution?
34. (a) What are the properties of an ideal primary standard? (b) What is the importance of each property?
35. The secondary standard solution of NaOH of Exercise 30 was used to titrate a solution of unknown concentration of HCl. A 30.00-mL sample of the HCl solution required 34.21 mL of the NaOH solution for complete neutralization. What is the molarity of the HCl solution?
- *36. An impure sample of (COOH)₂·2H₂O that had a mass of 2.00 g was dissolved in water and titrated with standard NaOH solution. The titration required 38.32 mL of 0.198 M NaOH solution. Calculate the percent (COOH)₂·2H₂O in the sample. Assume that the sample contains no acidic impurities.
- *37. A 50.0-mL sample of 0.0500 M Ca(OH)₂ is added to 10.0 mL of 0.200 M HNO₃. (a) Is the resulting solution acidic or basic? (b) How many moles of excess acid or base are present? (c) How many additional mL of 0.0500 M

Ca(OH)₂ or 0.200 M HNO₃ would be required to completely neutralize the solution?

- *38. An antacid tablet containing calcium carbonate as an active ingredient required 24.5 mL of 0.0932 M HCl for complete neutralization. What mass of CaCO₃ did the tablet contain?
- *39. Butyric acid, whose empirical formula is C₂H₄O, is the acid responsible for the odor of rancid butter. The acid has one ionizable hydrogen per molecule. A 1.000-g sample of butyric acid is neutralized by 54.42 mL of 0.2088 M NaOH solution. What are (a) the molecular weight and (b) the molecular formula of butyric acid?
40. What is the molarity of a solution of sodium hydroxide, NaOH, if 36.2 mL of this solution is required to react with 25.0 mL of 0.0513 M nitric acid solution according to the following reaction?



41. What is the molarity of a solution of sodium hydroxide, NaOH, if 36.9 mL of this solution is required to react with 35.2 mL of 0.101 M hydrochloric acid solution according to the following reaction?



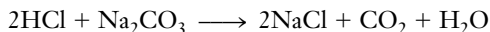
Standardization and Acid–Base Titrations: Equivalent Weight Method

In answering Exercises 42–51, assume that the acids and bases will be completely neutralized.

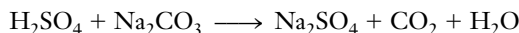
42. What is the normality of each of the following acid or base solutions? (a) 0.35 M HCl; (b) 0.35 M H₂SO₄; (c) 0.35 M H₃PO₄; (d) 0.35 M NaOH.
43. What is the normality of each of the following acid or base solutions? (a) 0.105 M Ca(OH)₂; (b) 0.105 M Al(OH)₃; (c) 0.105 M HNO₃; (d) 0.105 M H₂Se.
44. What is the normality of a solution that contains 7.08 g of H₃PO₄ in 185 mL of solution?
45. Calculate the molarity and the normality of a solution that was prepared by dissolving 24.2 g of barium hydroxide in enough water to make 4000. mL of solution.
46. Calculate the molarity and the normality of a solution that contains 19.6 g of arsenic acid, H₃AsO₄, in enough water to make 500. mL of solution.
47. What are the molarity and normality of a sulfuric acid solution that is 19.6% H₂SO₄ by mass? The density of the solution is 1.14 g/mL.
48. A 25.0-mL sample of 0.206 normal nitric acid solution required 35.2 mL of barium hydroxide solution for neutralization. Calculate the molarity of the barium hydroxide solution.
49. Vinegar is an aqueous solution of acetic acid, CH₃COOH. Suppose you titrate a 25.00-mL sample of vinegar with

17.62 mL of a standardized 0.1060 *N* solution of NaOH.
 (a) What is the normality of acetic acid in this vinegar?
 (b) What is the mass of acetic acid contained in 1.000 L of vinegar?

50. Calculate the normality and molarity of an HCl solution if 43.1 mL of the solution reacts with 0.318 g of Na₂CO₃.



51. Calculate the normality and molarity of an H₂SO₄ solution if 40.0 mL of the solution reacts with 0.424 g of Na₂CO₃.



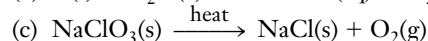
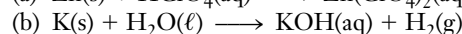
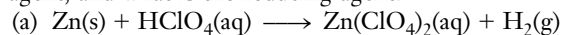
Balancing Redox Equations

In Exercises 52 and 53, write balanced formula unit equations for the reactions described by words.

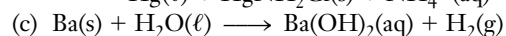
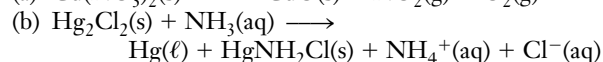
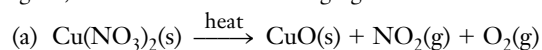
52. (a) Iron reacts with hydrochloric acid to form aqueous iron(II) chloride and gaseous hydrogen. (b) Chromium reacts with sulfuric acid to form aqueous chromium(III) sulfate and gaseous hydrogen. (c) Tin reacts with concentrated nitric acid to form tin(IV) oxide, nitrogen dioxide, and water.

53. (a) Carbon reacts with hot concentrated nitric acid to form carbon dioxide, nitrogen dioxide, and water. (b) Sodium reacts with water to form aqueous sodium hydroxide and gaseous hydrogen. (c) Zinc reacts with sodium hydroxide solution to form aqueous sodium tetrahydroxozincate and gaseous hydrogen. (The tetrahydroxozincate ion is [Zn(OH)₄]²⁻.)

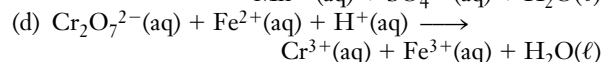
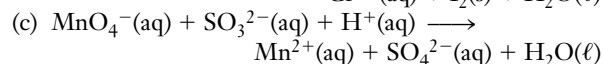
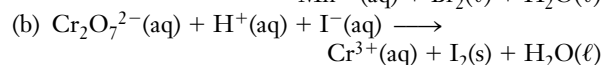
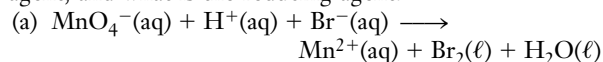
54. Balance the following equations. For each equation tell what is oxidized, what is reduced, what is the oxidizing agent, and what is the reducing agent.



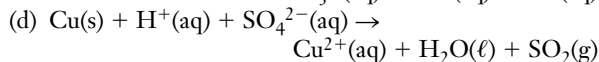
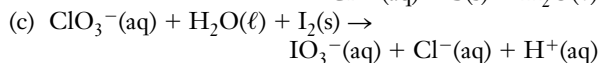
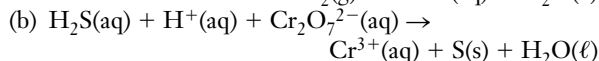
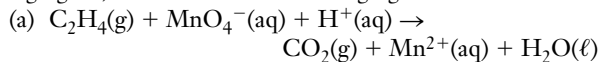
55. Balance the following equations. For each equation tell what is oxidized, what is reduced, what is the oxidizing agent, and what is the reducing agent.



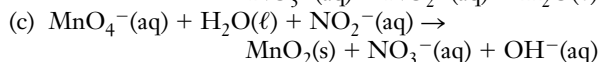
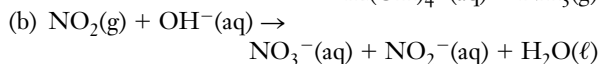
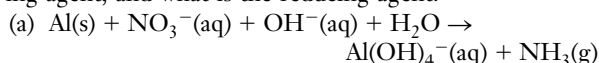
56. Balance the following equations. For each equation tell what is oxidized, what is reduced, what is the oxidizing agent, and what is the reducing agent.



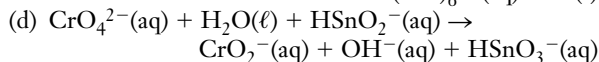
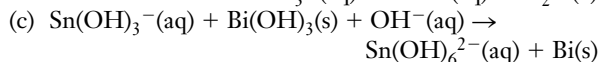
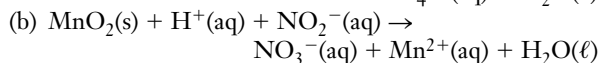
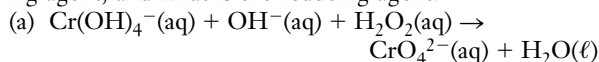
57. Balance the following ionic equations. For each equation tell what is oxidized, what is reduced, what is the oxidizing agent, and what is the reducing agent.



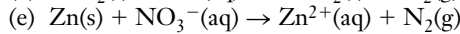
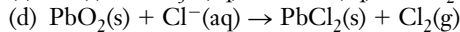
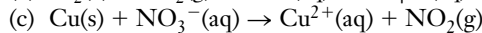
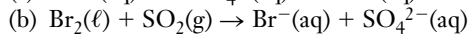
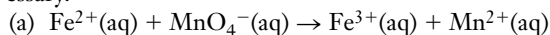
58. Balance the following ionic equations. For each equation tell what is oxidized, what is reduced, what is the oxidizing agent, and what is the reducing agent.



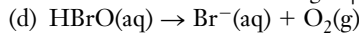
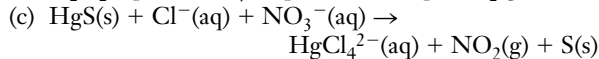
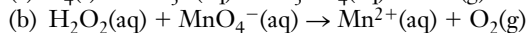
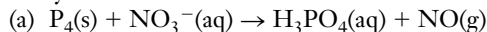
59. Balance the following ionic equations. For each equation tell what is oxidized, what is reduced, what is the oxidizing agent, and what is the reducing agent.



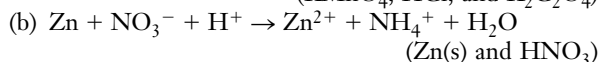
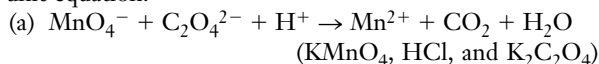
60. Balance the following ionic equations for reactions in acidic solution. H⁺ or H₂O (but not OH⁻) may be added as necessary.



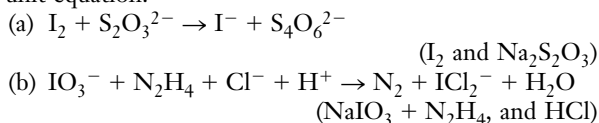
61. Balance the following ionic equations for reactions in acidic solution. H⁺ or H₂O (but not OH⁻) may be added as necessary.



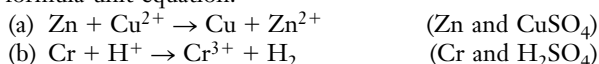
62. Write the balanced net ionic equations for the reactions given. Then, using the reactants shown in parentheses convert each balanced net ionic equation to a balanced formula unit equation.



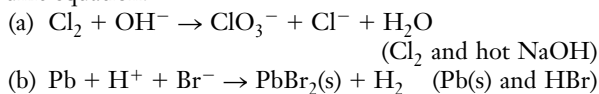
63. Write the balanced net ionic equations for the reactions given. Then, using the reactants shown in parentheses convert each balanced net ionic equation to a balanced formula unit equation.



64. Write the balanced net ionic equations for the reactions given. Then, using the reactants shown in parentheses convert each balanced net ionic equation to a balanced formula unit equation.

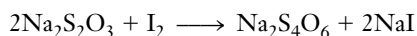


65. Write the balanced net ionic equations for the reactions given. Then, using the reactants shown in parentheses convert each balanced net ionic equation to a balanced formula unit equation.

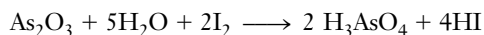


Redox Titrations: Mole Method and Molarity

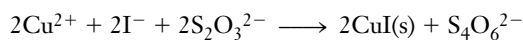
66. What volume of 0.150 M KMnO₄ would be required to oxidize 25.0 mL of 0.100 M FeSO₄ in acidic solution? Refer to Example 11-22.
67. What volume of 0.150 M K₂Cr₂O₇ would be required to oxidize 70.0 mL of 0.100 M Na₂SO₃ in acidic solution? The products include Cr³⁺ and SO₄²⁻ ions. Refer to Example 11-23.
68. What volume of 0.200 M KMnO₄ would be required to oxidize 40.0 mL of 0.100 M KI in acidic solution? Products include Mn²⁺ and I₂.
69. What volume of 0.200 M K₂Cr₂O₇ would be required to oxidize 50.0 mL of 0.150 M KI in acidic solution? Products include Cr³⁺ and I₂.
70. (a) A solution of sodium thiosulfate, Na₂S₂O₃, is 0.1442 M. 40.00 mL of this solution reacts with 26.36 mL of I₂ solution. Calculate the molarity of the I₂ solution.



- (b) 25.32 mL of the I₂ solution is required to titrate a sample containing As₂O₃. Calculate the mass of As₂O₃ (197.8 g/mol) in the sample.



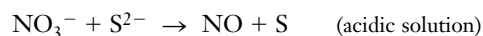
71. Copper(II) ions, Cu²⁺, can be determined by the net reaction



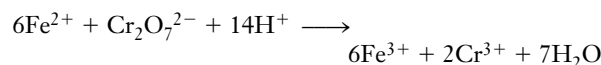
A 2.075-g sample containing CuSO₄ and excess KI is titrated with 32.55 mL of 0.1214 M solution of Na₂S₂O₃. What is the percent CuSO₄ (159.6 g/mol) in the sample?

72. What volume of 3.0 M nitrate ion solution would be

required to react with 25. mL of 0.80 M sulfide ion solution? (*Hint*: The equation is not balanced.)



- *73. The iron in a 5.675-g sample containing some Fe₂O₃ is reduced to Fe²⁺. The Fe²⁺ is titrated with 12.02 mL of 0.1467 M K₂Cr₂O₇ in an acid solution.

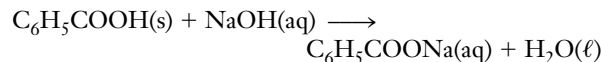


Find (a) the mass of Fe and (b) the percentage of Fe in the sample.

74. Calculate the molarity of a solution that contains 12.6 g of KMnO₄ in 500. mL of solution to be used in the reaction that produces MnO₄²⁻ ions as the reduction product.
- *75. A 0.783-g sample of an ore of iron is dissolved in acid and converted to Fe(II). The sample is oxidized by 38.50 mL of 0.161 M ceric sulfate, Ce(SO₄)₂, solution; the cerium(IV) ion, Ce⁴⁺, is reduced to Ce³⁺ ion. (a) Write a balanced equation for the reaction. (b) What is the percent iron in the ore?

Mixed Exercises

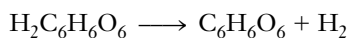
76. Calculate the molarity of a hydrochloric acid solution if 32.75 mL of it reacts with 0.4011 g of sodium carbonate.
77. Calculate the molarity and the normality of a sulfuric acid solution if 32.75 mL of it reacts with 0.4011 g of sodium carbonate.
78. Find the number of mmols of HCl that reacts with 25.5 mL of 0.110 M NaOH. What volume of 0.303 M HCl is needed to furnish this amount of HCl?
79. What is the composition of the final solution when 25.5 mL of 0.110 M NaOH and 25.5 mL of 0.205 M HCl solutions are mixed?
80. What volume of 0.1123 M HCl is needed to neutralize completely 1.58 g of Ca(OH)₂?
81. What mass of NaOH is needed to neutralize 45.50 mL of 0.1036 M HCl? If the NaOH is available as a 0.1333 M aqueous solution, what volume will be required?
82. What volume of 0.246 M H₂SO₄ solution would be required to neutralize completely 39.4 mL of 0.302 M KOH solution?
83. What volume of 0.388 N H₂SO₄ solution would be required to neutralize completely 37.4 mL of 0.302 N KOH solution?
84. What volume of 0.1945 normal sodium hydroxide would be required to neutralize completely 38.38 mL of 0.1023 normal H₂SO₄ solution?
85. Benzoic acid, C₆H₅COOH, is sometimes used as a primary standard for the standardization of solutions of bases. A 1.862-g sample of the acid is neutralized by 33.00 mL of NaOH solution. What is the molarity of the base solution?



86. Find the volume of 0.250 M HI solution required to titrate
- 25.0 mL of 0.100 M NaOH
 - 5.03 g of AgNO_3 ($\text{Ag}^+ + \text{I}^- \rightarrow \text{AgI(s)}$)
 - 0.621 g CuSO_4 ($2\text{Cu}^{2+} + 4\text{I}^- \rightarrow 2\text{CuI(s)} + \text{I}_2\text{(s)}$)

CONCEPTUAL EXERCISES

87. Describe how you could prepare 1.00 L of 1.00×10^{-6} M NaCl solution by using a balance that can only measure masses to 0.01 g.
88. Ascorbic acid (vitamin C), along with many other reputed properties, acts as an antioxidant. The following equation illustrates its antioxidant properties.



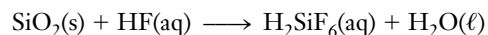
What is an antioxidant? Assign oxidation numbers. Is vitamin C oxidized or reduced in this reaction?

BUILDING YOUR KNOWLEDGE

89. For the formation of 1.00 mol of water, which reaction uses the most nitric acid?
- $3\text{Cu(s)} + 8\text{HNO}_3\text{(aq)} \rightarrow 3\text{Cu(NO}_3)_2\text{(aq)} + 2\text{NO(g)} + 4\text{H}_2\text{O(l)}$
 - $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3\text{(s)} + 6\text{HNO}_3\text{(aq)} \rightarrow 2\text{Al(NO}_3)_3\text{(aq)} + 3\text{H}_2\text{O(l)}$
 - $4\text{Zn(s)} + 10\text{HNO}_3\text{(aq)} \rightarrow 4\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2\text{(aq)} + \text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3\text{(aq)} + 3\text{H}_2\text{O(l)}$
90. Limonite is an ore of iron that contains $2\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 3\text{H}_2\text{O}$. A 0.5166-g sample of limonite is dissolved in acid and treated so that all the iron is converted to ferrous ions, Fe^{2+} . This sample requires 42.96 mL of 0.02130 M sodium dichromate solution, $\text{Na}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$, for titration. Fe^{2+} is oxidized to Fe^{3+} , and $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ is reduced to Cr^{3+} . What is the percent iron in the limonite? If your answer had been over 100% limonite, what conclusion could you make, presuming that the analytical data are correct?
91. One of the troublesome products of a water treatment plant in some areas of the country is Mg(OH)_2 , a gelatinous precipitate formed during water softening. A suggestion was made that instead of shoveling the precipitate out of the pool during cleaning, the Mg(OH)_2 could be neutralized with hydrochloric acid to produce a soluble compound, MgCl_2 . Then the pool could be flushed out with fresh water. Calculate the volume of 12.0 M HCl necessary to

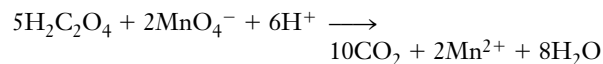
neutralize 4750 L of solution containing 1.50 g of Mg(OH)_2 per liter.

92. Silver nitrate and calcium chloride solutions produce a heavy, white precipitate when mixed. Chemical analysis indicates that the precipitate is silver chloride. What mass of silver chloride would be produced if 45 mL of 6.0 M silver nitrate is mixed with 45 mL of 6.0 M calcium chloride?
93. A 0.500-g sample of a crystalline monoprotic acid was dissolved in sufficient water to produce 100. mL of solution. Neutralization of the resulting solution required 75.0 mL of 0.150 M NaOH. How many moles of the acid were present in the initial acid solution?
94. The typical concentration of HCl in stomach acid (digestive juice) is a concentration of about 8.0×10^{-2} M. One experiences “acid stomach” when the stomach contents reach about 1.0×10^{-1} M HCl. One antacid tablet contains 334 mg of active ingredient, $\text{NaAl(OH)}_2\text{CO}_3$. Assume that you have acid stomach and that your stomach contains 800. mL of 1.0×10^{-1} M HCl. Calculate the number of mmol of HCl in the stomach and the number of mmol of HCl that the tablet can neutralize. Which is greater? (The neutralization reaction produces NaCl, AlCl_3 , CO_2 , and H_2O .)
95. Refer to Exercises 20 and 21. Notice that the percent by mass of solute is nearly the same for both solutions. How many moles of solute are present per liter of each solution? Are the moles of solute per liter also nearly equal? Why or why not?
96. The etching of glass by hydrofluoric acid may be represented by the simplified reaction of silica with HF.



This is an acid–base reaction in which a weak acid is used to produce an even weaker acid. Is it also an oxidation–reduction reaction? Balance the equation.

97. Write a Lewis formula for the anion SiF_6^{2-} that would be produced from the weak acid H_2SiF_6 . Use the VSEPR theory to predict the shape of SiF_6^{2-} .
98. Baking soda, NaHCO_3 , used to be a common remedy for “acid stomach.” What weight of baking soda would be required to neutralize 85 mL of digestive juice, corresponding in acidity to 0.17 M HCl?
99. Oxalic acid, a poisonous compound, is found in certain vegetables such as spinach and rhubarb, but in concentrations well below toxic limits. The manufacturers of a spinach juice concentration routinely test their product using an oxalic acid analysis to avoid any problems from an unexpectedly high concentration of this chemical. A titration with potassium permanganate is used for the oxalic acid assay, according to the following net equation.



Calculate the molarity of an oxalic acid solution requiring 23.2 mL of 0.127 M permanganate for a 25.0 mL portion of the solution.