## Lecture 3: Acid-Base Equilibria \& Buffers

Reading in Campbell: Chapter 2.3-2.6
Key Terms:

- Acid strength
- Equilibrium constant
- Acid-base properties of $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$
- Acid dissociation constant
- $\mathrm{pH}=-\log \left[\mathrm{H}^{+}\right]$
- $\mathrm{pH}=\mathrm{pKa}+\log \left[\mathrm{A}^{-}\right] /[\mathrm{HA}]$
- Titration: pKa determination
- Equivalence point, Inflection point
- Calculation of degree of protonation


### 3.1 Acids and Bases and Acid Strength

- Acid: can donate protons
- Base: can accept protons

Example:


Acid strength:
A compound is an acid if it loses its proton, and it is a base if it takes up a proton. For a simple acid like $\mathrm{X}-\mathrm{H}$, acid strength depends on the strength of the $\mathrm{X}-\mathrm{H}$ bond and the stability of the charged anion X .
Weaker bonds generally lead to greater acidity.


Consider the following three compounds:

ethanol

acetic acid

trichloroacetic acid

The negative charge on the ionized acid can be further stabilized by resonance structures that distribute the negative charge as well as by nearby electron withdrawing groups. The nearby presence of formal positive and negative charges also affects acidity.

### 3.2 General Equilibrium Reactions:

Consider first a very simple reaction and its equilibrium features:


The following rate equations can be used to describe the reaction:

$$
\frac{d[A]}{d t}=\square k_{1}[A]+k_{2}[B] \quad \frac{d[B]}{d t}=+k_{1}[A] \square k_{2}[B]
$$

At equilibrium there is no change in the concentration of A or B , therefore:

$$
\frac{d[A]}{d t}=\frac{d[B]}{d t}=\mathbf{0}
$$

At equilibrium the reaction has not stopped, but rather, the rates of the forward reaction $\left(\mathrm{k}_{1}[\mathrm{~A}]\right)$ and the reverse reaction ( $\mathrm{k}_{2}[\mathrm{~B}]$ ) are equal. Thus:

$$
K e q=\frac{k_{1}}{k_{2}}=\frac{[B]}{[A]}=\frac{[\text { products }]}{[\text { reac } \tan t s]}
$$

### 3.3 Ionization of $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ and definition of pH :

$$
\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{\square}^{\square} \mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{O}^{+}+\mathrm{OH}^{\square}
$$

The equilibrium constant for the dissociation of $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ can be written:

$$
K_{e q}=\frac{\left[H^{+}\right]\left[\mathrm{OH}^{\square}\right]}{\left[\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right]}
$$

Since the concentration of $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ is high ( 55.5 M ) and practically constant, we can incorporate it into the equilibrium constant and define a dissociation constant for $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ :

$$
K_{w}=K_{e q}(\mathbf{5 5 . 5} \mathrm{M})=\left[H^{+}\right]\left[O H^{\square}\right]=\mathbf{1} \square \mathbf{1 0}^{\square 14} \mathrm{M}^{2}
$$

Pure $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ is neutral. Therefore ionization produces equal concentrations of $\mathrm{H}^{+}$and $\mathrm{OH}^{-}$, and

$$
\left[H^{+}\right]=\left[O H^{\square}\right]=\mathbf{1} \square \mathbf{1 0}^{\square 7} M
$$

There is a reciprocal relationship between $\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}\right]$and $[\mathrm{OH}]$. In solutions that are acidic, $\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}\right]$is high and $\left[\mathrm{OH}^{-}\right]$is low. Conversely, in solutions that are alkaline, $\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}\right]$is low and $\left[\mathrm{OH}^{-}\right]$is high. Note that the ion product is always $\mathbf{1} \sqcap \mathbf{1 0}^{\square 14}$.
pH Definition: pH is measured as the $\square \log _{10}\left[H^{+}\right]$. The lower the pH , the more acidic the solution. Neutral pH is 7.0. At this pH there are an equal number of $\mathrm{H}^{+}$and $\mathrm{OH}^{-}$ions in solution.

| pH | [ $\mathrm{H}^{+}$], M | [ $\mathrm{OH}^{-1}$ ], M |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $10^{\circ}$ | $10^{-14}$ | --- Hydrochloric Acid (1 M) |
| 1 | $10^{-1}$ | $10^{-13}$ |  |
| 2 | $10^{-2}$ | $10^{-12}$ | --- Human gastric contents |
| 3 | $10^{-3}$ | $10^{-11}$ |  |
| 4 | $10^{-4}$ | $10^{-10}$ | --- Tomato juice |
| 5 | $10^{-5}$ | $10^{-9}$ |  |
| 6 | $10^{-6}$ | $10^{-8}$ | --- Cow's milk |
| 7 | $10^{-7}$ | $10^{-7}$ | --- Human blood plasma |
| 8 | $10^{-8}$ | $10^{-6}$ | --- Human pancreatic juice |
| 9 | $10^{-9}$ | $10^{-5}$ |  |
| 10 | $10^{-10}$ | $10^{-4}$ |  |
| 11 | $10^{-11}$ | $10^{-3}$ | --- Ammonia (1 M) |
| 12 | $10^{-12}$ | $10^{-2}$ |  |
| 13 | $10^{-13}$ | $10^{-1}$ |  |
| 14 | $10^{-14}$ | $10^{0}$ | --- Sodium hydroxide (1 M) |

### 3.4 Characterization of Acid Strength using pKa.

When an acid HA is added to $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$,

$$
H A+H_{2} O_{\square}^{\square} A^{\square}+H_{3} O^{+}
$$

The equilibrium constant for its dissociation is defined:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& K_{e q}=\frac{\left[H^{+}\right]\left[A^{\square}\right]}{[H A]\left[H_{2} O\right]} \\
& K_{a}=K_{e q}\left[H_{2} O\right]=\frac{\left[H^{+}\right]\left[A^{\square}\right]}{[H A]}
\end{aligned}
$$

The acidity constant, Ka , is a fundamental property of the acid and does not depend on the pH of the solution. Stronger acids have larger Ka values since they are more fully dissociated.

The Henderson-Hasselbalch Equation: Since the proton concentration is always measured in units of pH , it is useful to modify the above equation by taking the negative log:

$$
p K_{a}=\square \log \frac{\left[H^{+}\right]\left[A^{\square}\right]}{[H A]}=p H \square \log \frac{\left[A^{\square}\right]}{[H A]}
$$

which gives rise to the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation:

$$
p H=p K_{a}+\log \frac{\left[A^{\square}\right]}{[H A]}
$$

[^0]The pKa is the $-\log \mathrm{Ka}$. Therefore strong acids have small pKa values.
Monoprotic acids (release only one proton):

| Acid | pKa | Type |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| HCl | -7 | Very strong |
| Acetic Acid | 4.76 | Weak |
| Ammonium $\left(\mathrm{NH}_{4}{ }^{+}\right)$ | 9.25 | Very weak |
| Methanol | 16 | Extremely weak |

### 3.5 Solving pH Problems:

The H\&H equation has predictive value. Once you know the $\mathrm{pK}_{\mathrm{a}}$ of an acid and the pH , you can predict $\left[\mathrm{A}^{-}\right] /[\mathrm{HA}]$. One particular case is routinely used in biochemistry: Given a pH and $\mathrm{pK}_{\mathrm{a}}$ of an acid, calculate the fraction of the acid that is protonated: $\mathrm{fHA}=\left([\mathrm{HA}] / \mathrm{A}_{T}\right)$ and the fraction that is deprotonated: $f A^{-}=\left(\left[A^{-}\right] / A_{T}\right)$, where $A_{T}$ is the total concentration of acid: $A_{T}=[H A]+\left[A^{-}\right]$.

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Defining R \(=\left[\mathrm{A}^{-}\right] /[\mathrm{HA}]\)
    \(\mathrm{pH}=\mathrm{pKa}+\log \left(\left[\mathrm{A}^{-}\right] /[\mathrm{HA}]\right)\)
    \(\mathrm{pH}=\mathrm{pKa}+\log (\mathrm{R})\)
\(\mathrm{pH}-\mathrm{pKa}=\log (\mathrm{R})\)
\(10^{(\mathrm{pH}-\mathrm{pKa})}=\mathrm{R}\)
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Once $R$ is found, the fraction protonated and deprotonated is obtained as follows:
$\left[A^{-}\right] /[\mathrm{HA}]=\mathrm{R}$
$[\mathrm{A}]=[\mathrm{HA}] \mathrm{R}$
$\left[\mathrm{A}_{\mathrm{T}}\right]=\left[\mathrm{A}^{-}\right]+[\mathrm{HA}]$
$\left[A_{T}\right]=[H A](1+R)$
$f_{H A}=\frac{[H A]}{\left[A_{T}\right]}=\frac{\mathbf{1}}{(\mathbf{1}+R)}$
$f_{A^{\square}}=\frac{\left[A^{\square}\right]}{\left[A_{T}\right]}=\frac{R}{(1+R)}$


Using the ionization of the side chain of the amino acid Histidine as an example ( $\mathrm{pK}_{\mathrm{a}}=6.0$ )

| $\mathbf{p H}$ | (i) $\mathbf{R}$ | $\mathbf{F}_{\mathrm{HA}}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\mathbf{4}$ | $\mathrm{R}=10^{(4-6)}=10^{-2}$ | $\mathrm{~F}_{\mathrm{HA}}=1 /(1+0.01)=0.99$ |
| $\mathbf{5}$ | $\mathrm{R}=10^{(5-6)}=10^{-1}$ | $\mathrm{~F}_{\mathrm{HA}}=1 /(1+0.1)=0.91$ |
| $\mathbf{6}$ | $\mathrm{R}=10^{(6-6)}=10^{0}$ | $\mathrm{~F}_{\mathrm{HA}}=1 /(1+1)=0.5$ |
| $\mathbf{7}$ | $\mathrm{R}=10^{(7-6)}=10^{1}$ | $\mathrm{~F}_{\mathrm{HA}}=1 /(1+10)=0.091$ |
| $\mathbf{8}$ | $\mathrm{R}=10^{(8-6)}=10^{1}$ | $\mathrm{~F}_{\mathrm{HA}}=1 /(1+100)=0.01$ |

There are four general statements that are useful to remember:

1. When the $\mathrm{pH}=\mathrm{pKa},[\mathrm{HA}]=\left[\mathrm{A}^{-}\right]$.
2. When the pH is lower than the $\mathrm{pKa},[\mathrm{HA}]>\left[\mathrm{A}^{-}\right]$.
3. When the pH is higher than the $\mathrm{pKa},[\mathrm{HA}]<\left[\mathrm{A}^{-}\right]$.
4. A pH change of 1 leads to a 10 fold change in the ratio of $\left[A^{-}\right] /[\mathrm{HA}]$.

### 3.6 Titration Curves

Ka values are usually measured by direct experiment, usually with a pH titration. Known amounts of a strong base $(\mathrm{NaOH})$ are added to a solution of a weak acid and the pH is measured as the amount of NaOH is added. As the base is added it removes the proton from the acid, as well as increasing the pH .

Inflection point $(\mathrm{pH}=\mathrm{pKa})$ : You can prove from the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation that the smallest change in pH due to addition of base occurs when the $\mathrm{pH}=\mathrm{pKa}$; at this inflection point, the pH of the solution is the pKa of the acid.

Equivalents: moles of base/moles of acid, the x -axis for titrations. Varies from 0 to 1 for monoprotic acids.

Equivalence point. Complete deprotonation of the weak acid occurs when the molar amount of base is equal to, or equivalent to, the molar amount of weak acid. This point in the titration is referred to as the equivalence point.

Example titration curve:


Facts: Concentration of $\mathrm{NaOH}=1 \mathrm{M}$
Volume of solution that is titrated $=100 \mathrm{ml}$
Possible acids (from Campbell table 2.6)
Pyruvate
$\mathrm{pKa}=2.5$
$\mathrm{pKa}=4.8$
$\mathrm{pKa}=8.3$
Questions:

1. What is the pKa of the acid?
2. Which acid is it?
3. Give the $x$-axis scale in equivalents.

[^0]:    - Remember that pX is the negative $\log$ of X : e.g. $\mathrm{pH}=-\log \left[\mathrm{H}^{+}\right]$.

    Also recall that $\log (a b)=\log a+\log b$ and $\log (a / b)=\log a-\log b$.

