At the end of this unit the student is expected to be able to :



- 2- Calculate the volume of titrant at the equivalent point .
- 3- Understand the methods that are used for the detection of the equivalent point .
- 4- Know the requirements for a reaction to be applied in volumetric analysis.
- 5- Answer the questions : what is titration curve ? Why it is important ? How it can be derived ?
- 6- Calculate the concentrations of all species participating in the titration reaction at any point during titration .
- 7- Do all sorts of volumetric calculations .



### Introduction

In volumetric analysis, a chemical called a titrant is added to a solution of unknown concentration called analyte (titrand) together with an indicator that will mark the time at which all of the analyte has been reacted. At this point, the analyst can determine how much analyte is originally present from the amount of titrant added.

It is some times called titrimetric analysis because all experiments under this type of analysis are completed by titration reactions. It is highly precise, easy process, fast result and only Simple apparatus is required.

Volumetric analysis takes place in a wide variety of situations such as in industrial laboratories, hospital laboratories, forensic science laboratories .Titration is important in environmental chemistry, food, beverage and the pharmaceutical industries.



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Volumetric analysis volumetrically measures the amount of reagent (titrant), required to complete a chemical reaction with the analyte. A general chemical reaction for volumetric analysis is

# aA + tT = products

where a moles of analyte A contained in a sample reacts with t moles of the titrant T in the titrant solution.

#### What is Volumetric Analysis ?

The reaction is generally carried out in a conical flask containing the liquid or dissolved sample. Titrant solution is volumetrically delivered slowly with shaking to the reaction flask using a burette. Delivery of the titrant is called a titration. The titration is complete when equivalent titrant has been added to react with all the analyte according to the balanced titration reaction equation . This is called the *equivalence point* 





#### What is Volumetric Analysis ?

An indicator is often added to the reaction flask to signal when all of the analyte has reacted. The titrant volume where the signal is generated is called the *end point volume or titer*. The equivalence and end points are rarely the same (titration error). Volumetric methods have the potential for a precision of up to  $\pm$ 0.1% or less.

Calculating volume of titrant at equivalent point  $(V_{eq.p})$ If the number of moles or mmoles of the analyte in the conical flask is known ( as in



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#### What is Volumetric Analysis ?

the case of correcting for end point error as we will see later) then we can calculate  $V_{eq.p}$  as shown by the following examples .

**Example :** In the case of titrating 10 mL solution of 0.1 M of Cl<sup>-</sup> ( in the conical flask ) by 0.2 M solution of Ag<sup>+</sup> ( in the burette ) , calculate  $V_{eq,p}$  of Ag<sup>+</sup> solution ?

Solution :

 $Ag^+ + Cl^- \rightarrow AgCl$ 

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mmoles  $Cl^{-}$  = mmoles  $Ag^{+}$  X 1/1

 $0.1 \text{ X} 10 = 0.2 \text{ X} \text{V}_{\text{eq.p}} (\text{mL})$ 

 $V_{eq.p.}$  (mL) = 5 mL of Ag<sup>+</sup> soln.

### What is Volumetric Analysis ?

**Example :** In the case of titrating 10 mL of 0.1 M of  $H_2SO_4$  solution by 0.2 M of NaOH solution , calculate  $V_{eq,p}$  of NaOH solution ?

Solution :

$$2 \text{ NaOH} + \text{H}_2 \text{SO}_4 \rightarrow \text{Na}_2 \text{SO}_4 + 2 \text{H}_2 \text{O}_4$$

mmoles  $H_2SO_4$  = mmoles NaOH X 1/2

 $10 \times 0.1 = 0.2 \times V_{eq.p} (mL) \times 1/2$ 

 $V_{eq.p}$  (mL) = 10 ml of NaOH soln.

## **Detection of the equivalent point**

The equivalent point can be detected by observing or measuring a sudden and sharp change in one of the physical properties of the resulting conical flask solution due to sudden and sharp change of the concentration of one of the reactants or product of the titration reaction. There are different methods to detect (determine) the equivalence point include :

#### (a) Color change that can be detect by naked eye :

(1) In some reactions, the solution changes color without any added indicator. This is often seen in redox titrations, for instance, when the different oxidation states of the product and reactant produce different colors as we will see with permanganate  $MnO_4^{-1}$ . This sometimes called auto detection .

 $MnO_{4}^{-} + 5 Fe^{2+} + 8 H^{+} \rightarrow Mn^{2+} + 5 Fe^{3+} + 4 H_{2}O$ (violet) (colorless)

### **Detection of the equivalent point**

This method is limited and less sensitive so it can not be used for dilute solutions. (2) Specific indicators : Each one of these indicators produce a colored product with only one substance e.g starch forms blue complex with iodine and thiocianate SCN<sup>-</sup> forms red complex with iron (III) as we will see later . These indicators are limited so you may say that these the only well known specific indicators .

(3) Equilibrium Indicators : These indicators are found in two forms of different colors and depend only on the change in the physical property of the titration solution ( conical flask soln. ) such as pH(acid - base titration)

 $\begin{array}{rcl} \text{HIn} & \leftrightarrow & \text{H}^+ & + & \text{In}^- \\ \text{(color A)} & & \text{(color B)} \end{array}$ 

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or potential (redox titration).

 $\begin{array}{rcl} In_{ox} &+ ne &\leftrightarrow In_{red} \\ \textbf{(color A)} & \textbf{(color B)} \end{array}$ 

Regardless of the nature of the titration reaction reactants or product . This type of indicators will be discussed in detail in later lectures

## (b) Measured properties :

This method depends on the measurement by an instrument of a physical property (not noticed by the naked eye) of the titration solution during titration such as electrical conductivity of the solution or its voltage or the intensity of electric current passing through the solution or absorbance of electromagnetic radiation by the titration solution ....etc . This method is outside the scope of this course and will be discussed in detail in subsequent courses .

## **Detection of the equivalent point**

#### Endpoint and equivalence point

Though equivalence point and endpoint are used interchangeably, they are different terms. Equivalence point is the theoretical completion of the reaction i.e the point at which equivalent moles of titrant is added to the analyte solution in the conical flask . But at this point no change in the indicator color can be noticed . To notice this color you must add one or two drops of titrant solution . this point is called endpoint . *Endpoint* is what is actually measured when a physical change in the titration solution as determined by an indicator is occured.



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### **Detection of the equivalent point**

There is a slight difference (one or two drops) between the endpoint and the equivalence point of the titration. This error is referred to as an indicator error and can be corrected for. For example in the titration of  $Fe^{3+}$  by  $MnO_4$ <sup>-</sup> ( see above reaction ) at the equivalent point there will be no  $Fe^{3+}$  nor  $MnO_4$  <sup>-</sup> in the conical flask because all coverted to products, Therefore, no color change. But to notice the violet color of  $MnO_4^{-}$  in the flask we must add little (one or two drops) of its solution, this is what we call endpoint.

To correct for the indicator error we use either a blank solution or a standard solution of the analyte as we will see later .



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primary standard is a substance that is 100 % pure or its purity is well known. For example, if the weight required for the preparation of a substance solution is 9.5 g and if the substance powder is 100% pure we weigh 9.5 g and dissolve it in the desired volume to get a standard solution . But if it is let us say 95% pure in this case to get 9.5 g of this substance we have to weigh 10 g of the substance powder. But If it is not pure and its purity is accurately unknown in this case we weigh 9.5 g and dissolve it in the desired volume and then standardize this solution with another standard reagent solution to fined its real concentration. This is what is called standardization. Note that if the substance is pure or its purity is well known there will be no need for standardization.

As mentioned earlier the solution, which is usually placed in the burette is called standard or reagent or titrant solution. Its concentration must be exactly known because any error in the preparation of this solution will be reflected on the result of the analysis and therefore needs to be a 100 % true. Not any substance can be used as a titrant only the substance that has the following requirements :

(1) It should preferably be primary i.e it is pure or its purity is well known in order to avoid the process of standardization .

(2) It's solution should preferably be constant i.e not affected by the components of the air or heat so you do not need to standardize it or prepare it daily .

(3) It should be available at a reasonable price and its solution is easy to prepare

(4) It should meet the titration reaction requirements which we will discuss later

(5) It's molecular weight preferably be high in order to reduce the weighing error . For example to prepare one liter of 1.0 M of NaOH (mw = 40 g) we will weigh 40 g of NaOH, while if we want to prepare one liter of 1.0 M of Ba(OH)2 [mw = 171 g] we will weigh 171 g. Since the balance error is constant, let us say  $\pm 0.001 g$ , its effect on NaOH will be more compared to Ba(OH)<sub>2</sub>.

Not any chemical reaction can be used in the volumetric analysis. There are some conditions to be met in order for a chemical reaction to be used as a basis for a titration :

1- The reaction must proceed according to a definite balanced chemical equation i.e no side reactions .In other word it must be stoichiometric .

2- For volumetric methods to be useful, the reaction must be at least 99% complete (  $K_{eq} \geq 10^8~$  ) .

## **Titration Reaction**

3- There must be some method of detecting the equivalent point ( an indicator or a measured property ) .

4-The reaction should be rapid so that the titration can be completed in a few minutes .

5- The reaction preferably be specific or at least selective to avoid interferences separation .

*Types of reactions used in volumetric analysis :* 

Although any type of chemical reaction that meet the above requirements may be used for titrimetric analysis, the reactions most often used fall under the following four categories :

1. Acid-Base Titrations :

$$HA + B \leftrightarrow HB^+ + A^-$$

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2. Oxidation-Reduction Titrations :

$$A_{Ox} + B_{Red} \leftrightarrow A_{Red} + B_{OX}$$

## **Titration Reaction**

3. Precipitation Titrations :

 $M(aq) + nL(aq) \leftrightarrow ML_n(s)$ 

4. Complex Formation Titrations :

 $M(aq) + nL \leftrightarrow ML_n(aq)$ 

These reactions will be the subjects of the rest of this course.

## **Volumetric Analysis Calculations**

Suppose we transferred mL  $_A$  of the analyte solution whose its molarity  $M_A$  is unknown to the conical flask in order to titrate it by a standard solution of the titrant B whose molarity is well known  $M_B$  ( in the burette ). The general titration reaction is :

#### $aA + bB \rightarrow dD$

After adding the indicator and titrating to the endpoint where the indicator changes its color we record the titrant volume from burette  $ml_B$  Let us assume that equivalent point  $\cong$  endpoint.

## **Volumetric Analysis Calculations**

At equivalent point, b mmoles of B has reacted with a mmoles of A, therefore, the soichiometry (go back to unit 3) shows that :

No.mmoles 
$$A =$$
 No.mmoles  $B X \frac{a}{b}$   
 $mL_A X M_A = mL_B X M_B X \frac{a}{b}$   
 $\frac{Wt_A (mg)}{mw_A} = mL_B X M_B X \frac{a}{b}$ 

From the above equations , we can calculate the molarity of the analyte solution  $M_A$  if it is required :

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## **Volumetric Analysis Calculations**

$$M_{A} = \frac{mL_{B} X M_{B} X \frac{a}{b}}{mL_{A}}$$

and also the weight of A can be calculated if it is required :

$$Wt_{\mathcal{A}} (mg) = (mL_B X M_B X \frac{a}{b}) X mw_A$$

But if we weigh let us say z mg of a sample containing the analyte A and transferred this weight to the conical flask to titrate it after dissolution then the required could be the percentage of A in the sample :

$$\% A = \frac{ml_B X M_B X mw_A X \frac{a}{b} (mg)}{sample \ Wt. \ (Z \ mg)} X 100$$

#### **Volumetric Analysis Calculations**

In almost all cases , a burette is used to meter out the titrant B volume  $(ml_B)$ . When a titrant reacts directly with an analyte A, the procedure is termed a direct titration. The alternative technique is called a back titration. Here, an intermediate reactant E is added in excess of that required to exhaust the analyte A, then the exact degree of excess is determined by subsequent titration of the unreacted intermediate E with the titrant B. Another technique is called replacement as we will see shortly.

#### **Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity**

The followings are solved examples for the volumetric analysis calculations using molarity . Consider, equivalent point  $\cong$  end point

#### 1- Direct Titration :

In this method as mentioned earlier the titrant reacts directly with the analyte usually in the conical flask in the presence of an indicator .

**Example** : 300 mg of a  $Na_2C_2O_4$  (mw = 134) 95 %<sub>w/w</sub> pure reagent was transferred to a titration conical flask . After adding acid solution and a suitable indicator ,  $C_2O_4^{2-}$  was



## **Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity**

titrated with  $KMnO_4$  unknown solution according to the following titration reaction equation :

 $2MnO_4^- + 5C_2O_4^{2-} + 16H^+ \rightarrow 2Mn^{2+} + 10CO_2 + 8H_2O$ 

If the volume of  $KMnO_4$  solution at the equivalent point was 34 mL , calculate the molarity of  $KMnO_4$  solution ?

$$x = \frac{300 \ X \ 95}{100} = 285 \ mg \ pure \ Na_2C_2O_4$$

# Unit 6 INTRODUCTION TO VOLUMETRIC ANALYSIS

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### **Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity**

mmoles KMnO<sub>4</sub> = mmoles 
$$C_2O_4^{2-} X \frac{2}{5}$$
  
=  $\frac{285}{134} X \frac{2}{5} = 0.85$  mmole

$$M_{KMnO_4} = \frac{0.85}{34} = 0.025 M$$

**Example** : 300 mg of a sample containing  $H_3PO_4$  (mw = 98) was transferred to the titration conical flask. After dissolving in water and adding a suitable indicator, the resulting solution was titrated with 0.05 M of NaOH solution according to following titration reaction equation :

 $H_3PO_4 + 2 NaOH \rightarrow Na_2HPO_4 + 2 H_2O$ 

### Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity

At the equivalent point , the volume of the NaOH solution required was 29 mL . Calculate the weight percentage  $\%_{w/w}$  of  $H_3PO_4$  in the sample ?

Solution :  $\% H_3 PO_4 = \frac{0.05 X 29 \frac{1}{2} X 98}{300} X 100 = 23.7$ 

## 2- Back Titration :

Back titration is used when the analyte either does not react with the standard solution B or reacts too slowly.



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#### **Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity**

In this event, a previously known excess of another standard solution E is added to the analyte, and the residue of E after the reaction with the analyte A is complete is titrated with the standard solution B :  $aA + eE \rightarrow \dots$ 

0 excess at eq.p mmoles A = reacted mmoles  $E X \stackrel{a}{-}$  $e E (excss) + b B \rightarrow \dots$ 0 at eq.p excess mmoles  $E = mmoles B X \frac{e}{h}$ mmoles A = (added mmoles E - excess mmoles E) X - aemmoles  $A = (added mmoles E - mmoles B X \frac{e}{r})X^{\frac{a}{r}}$ 

**Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity** 

$$M_A = \frac{mmoles \ A}{V_A}$$

**Example :** 800 mg of a sample containing chromium ore  $(Cr_2O_3)$  was dissolved in a conical flask and Cr was converted to  $CrO_4^{-2}$ . 10 mL of 0.2 M of Ag<sup>+</sup> solution was added to the flask and the following reaction took place :

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \operatorname{CrO_4^{2-}} &+& 2\operatorname{Ag^+} & \rightarrow & \operatorname{Ag_2CrO_4} \\ 0 & \text{excess} \end{array}$$

**Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity** 

0

After separating the  $Ag_2CrO_4$  precipitate, the excess  $Ag^+$  in the filtrate was titrated with 0.12 M of SCN<sup>-</sup> solution according to the following equation :

 $Ag^+ + SCN^- \rightarrow AgSCN$ 0 At eq.p

If the volume of SCN<sup>-</sup> solution was 14.5 mL, calculate the  $\%_{w/w}$  percentage of Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> (mw = 152) in the sample ?



# Unit 6 INTRODUCTION TO VOLUMETRIC ANALYSIS

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## **Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity**

Solution :

mmoles 
$$CrO_4^{2-} = (10X0.2 - 14.5X0.12X_1^{\frac{1}{2}})X_2^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0.13$$
  
 $\therefore 2$  mmoles  $CrO_4^{2-} \equiv$  onemmole  $Cr_2O_3$   $\therefore$  mmoles  $Cr_2O_3 = \frac{0.13}{2} = 0.065$   
 $\%Cr_2O_3 = \frac{0.065 X 152}{800} \times 100 = 1.24$ 

## **Replacement Titration :**

Titration by substitution is used when direct titration of the analyte is difficult, as is the case when no suitable titrant or essential indicator is available. In this event, a reaction with an undetermined excess of a suitable reagent E is used to convert the analyte A into another compound D :

## **Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity**



Using the second reaction we can calculate the produced D and from the first reaction we calculate the amount of A as is shown by the following examples .



### **Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity**

**Example :** 750 mg of a sample containing iron ( aw = 55.85 ) was transferred into a titration conical flask and all iron was converted to Fe<sup>3+</sup>, then unknown excess of KI was added and the following reaction was occurred :

$$2 I^{-} + 2 Fe^{3+} \rightarrow I_2 + 2 Fe^{2+}$$

The iodine  $I_2$  formed was titrated with 0.075 M of  $Na_2S_2O_3$  solution using starch as indicator according to the following reaction equation :

 $l_2 + 2 S_2 O_3^{2-} \rightarrow 2 l^- + S_4 O_6^{2-}$ 

## **Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity**

If the volume of  $Na_2S_2O_3$  solution at the equivalent point was 18.5 mL, calculate the  $\%_{w/w}$  percentage of iron in the sample ?

Solution :

mmoles 
$$Fe^{3+} = (18.5 \ X \ 0.075 \ X \ \frac{1}{2}) \ X \ \frac{2}{1} = 1.388$$
  
%  $Fe^{3+} = \frac{1.388 \ X \ 55.85}{750} \ X100 = 10.34$ 

## **Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity**

**Example** : for the standardization of  $Na_2S_2O_3$  solution, 250 mg of pure copper ( aw = 63.5 ) is dissolved and unknown excess of KI is added to it, the following reaction is occurred :

 $2Cu^{2+} + 4I^{-} \rightarrow 2CuI + I_{2}$ 

The liberated  $I_2$  is titrated with the unknown  $Na_2S_2O_3$  solution using starch as indicator according to the equation :

 $I_2 + 2 S_2 O_3^{2-} \rightarrow 2 I^- + S_4 O_6^{2-}$
#### **Volumetric analysis calculations using molarity**

If the volume of  $Na_2S_2O_3$  solution at the equivalent point is 44.9 mL , calculate the molarity of  $NaS_2O_3$  solution ?

Solution :

mmoles 
$$S_2 O_3^{2-} = \left(\frac{250}{63.5} X \frac{1}{2}\right) X \frac{2}{1} = 3.935$$
  
 $M_{S_2 O_3^{2-}} = \frac{3.935}{44.9} = 0.09 M$ 

# **Volumetric Analysis Calculations Using Normality**

#### Volumetric analysis calculations using normality :

In the present time, normality is rarely used because the molarity overshadowed the normality due to its clarity, however, the old analytical chemistry books used the normality a lot, therefore, it should be addressed but not in detail. In normality we do not use the molar ratio since this has been taken into account when calculating the equivalent weight (see the definition of equivalent weight in unit 2). At the equivalent point, the number of equivalent weights (eq.wts) or milli equivalent weights (meq.wts) of reagent (titrant) B is equal to the number of equivalent

## **Volumetric analysis calculations using Normality**

weights or mlliequivalent weights of an analyte A or product E or any substance participating in the reaction. Note that we prefer to use meq.wts, instead of eq.wts because the volumes used are in mL.For the general reaction equation :

 $a A + b B \rightarrow e E$ 

no. meq.wts E = no. meq.wts B = no. meq.wts A

Volumetric analysis calculations using Normality

$$\begin{split} mL_B \ X \ N_B &= mL_A \ X \ N_A \\ &= \frac{mg_A}{eq.wt_A} \\ mg_A &= mL_B \ X \ N_B \ X \ eq.wt_A \\ \% \ A &= \frac{mL_B \ X \ N_B \ X \ eq.wt_A \ X \ (mg)}{sample \ wt. (mg)} \ X \ 100 \end{split}$$

**Example** : 403.2 mg of a sample containing  $Ti^{3+}$  ( aw = 47.9 ) is transferred into the titration conical flask and dissolved in water. The solution is titrated with 0.02631 N of KMnO<sub>4</sub> that oxidizes  $Ti^{3+}$  to  $Ti^{4+}$ . the volume of KMnO<sub>4</sub> solution at the equivalent point is 27.45 mL. Calculate the %<sub>w/w</sub> percentage of  $Ti^{3+}$  in the sample . If the blank.



# **Volumetric analysis calculations using Normality**

solution ( containing every thing except the sample ) needed 0.08 mL for the color of  $KMnO_4$  to appear in the titration flask solution , calculate the percentage of the indicator error ?

**Solution :** Since  $Ti^{3+}$  was coverted to  $Ti^{4+}$  then the number of active units h = 1 :

$$eq.wt_{Ti} = \frac{aw}{1} = \frac{47.9}{1}$$

At equivalent point :

meq.wts. of Ti = meq.wts. of  $KMnO_4$ 

$$= mL_{MnO4} X N_{MnO4}$$

= 27.45 X 0.02631

# **Volumetric analysis calculations using Normality**

The percentage before the correction :

$$\% Ti = \frac{27.45 \ X \ 0.02631 \ X \ 47.9}{403.2} \ X \ 100 \ = \ 8.58$$

To correct for the indicator error we subtract the blank volume  $V_{blank}$  from the volume at the end point  $V_{end p}$  in order to calculate the volume at the equivalent point  $V_{eq.p}$ :

$$V_{eq.p} = V_{end.p} - V_{blank} = 27.45 - 0.08 = 27.37$$

The percentage after the correction :

**Volumetric analysis calculations using Normality** 

$$\%Ti = \frac{27.37X\ 0.02631\ X\ 47.9}{403.2}\ X100 = 8.55$$

% Error = 8.58 - 8.55 = +0.03 %

**Example :** 1.782 g of a sample containing  $Cr^{6+}$  ( aw = 52 ) is dissolved in a conical flask . An excess of 1.5 g of Fe<sup>2+</sup>( aw = 55.85 ) are added which is oxidized to Fe<sup>3+</sup> during its reduction of Cr<sup>6+</sup> to Cr<sup>3+</sup>. The excess Fe<sup>2+</sup> is titrated with 0.05 M of K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub> and was found to require 10 mL at the equivalent point . Calculate the %<sub>w/w</sub> percentage of Cr<sup>6+</sup> in the sample ?

**Volumetric analysis calculations using Normality** 

**Solution** : This is an example of a back titration :

$$Cr^{6+} \rightarrow Cr^{3+}, then , h = 3$$
  
 $eq.wt._{Cr} = \frac{aw}{3} = \frac{52}{3}$   
 $Fe^{2+} \rightarrow Fe^{3+}, then , h = 1$   
 $eq.wt._{Fe} = \frac{aw}{1} = \frac{55.85}{1}$ 

% $Cr = \frac{(no. meq wts. added Fe^{2+} - excess no. meq wts. Fe^{2+}) X eq. wt. Cr}{sample wt. (mg)} X 100$ 

$$= \frac{\left(\frac{1.5 X 10^3}{55.85} - 10 x 0.05\right) X \frac{52}{3}}{1782(mg)} X 100 = 261$$

Titration curve is very important where it gives an idea of how successful the titration is . It is also useful in the selection of the appropriate indicator for titration. However, it is rarely used to find the volume of reagent solution at the equivalent point because it is easier to use an indicator and read the volume from the burette as we shall see . The titration curve can be obtained usually by drawing a relationship between the volume of the standard solution (titrant) ml<sub>B</sub> (X-axis) and any property of the titration flask solution (y-axis) such as pH (acid – base titration) or voltage E (oxidation reduction titration) or the concentration of the analyte pA or the titrant pB ( complexometric and precipitation titrations) as we will see later.

#### Calculation of concentrations during titration :

The concentration of any reactant or product participating in the titration reaction occurring in the conical flask can be calculated at any point of the titration. As a general example , let us consider , the titration of  $mL_A$  of  $M_A$  of an analyte A by a titrant B of  $M_B$  concentration .

$$aA + bB \leftrightarrow eE$$
,  $K_{eq} = 1x10^{10}$ 

**Before the equivalent point** 

$$[E] = \frac{(no \text{ mmoles } B \text{ added from burett}) X \frac{e}{b}}{(\text{Total Volume in flask})}$$

$$= \frac{(mL_B \cdot M_B) X \frac{e}{b}}{mL_A + mL_B}$$
(no mmoles A added to flask)- (no mmoles B added from burettX  $\frac{a}{b}$ )
$$[A] = \frac{(mL_A \cdot M_A) - (mL_B \cdot M_B X \frac{a}{b})}{mL_A + mL_B}$$

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### **Titration Curve**

Since the value of  $K_{eq}$  is very large, we can assume that :  $[B]^b \cong 0$ However, [B] can be calculated by substituting for  $[E]^e$  and  $[A]^a$  in the  $K_{eq}$  equation thus :

$$K_{eq} = \frac{[E]^{e}}{[A]^{a}[B]^{b}} = 1X10^{10}$$
$$[B]^{b} = \frac{[E]^{e}}{[A]^{a} x 1 x 10^{10}}$$

At the equivalent point :

$$[E] = \frac{(mL_B \cdot M_B) X \frac{e}{b}}{mL_B + mL_A} = \frac{(mL_A \cdot M_A) X \frac{e}{a}}{mL_B + M_A}$$

Also , one can assume that both [A] and [B] are equal to zero , this assumption is true since  $K_{eq}$  is large . However , both can be calculated as follows :

mmoles 
$$B = mmoles A X \frac{b}{a}$$
  
[B]  $X (mL_A + mL_B) = [A] X (mL_A + mL_B) X \frac{b}{a}$   
[B] = [A]  $X \frac{b}{a}$ 

Note :  $[B] = M_B$  and  $[A] = M_A$ 

### **Titration Curve**

Note also that  $(mL_A + mL_B)$  represent the solution in the conical flask . Substituting for [B] from the above equation in the  $K_{eq}$  equation we can calculate [A] :

$$K_{eq} = \frac{[E]^{e}}{\left([A] X \frac{b}{a}\right)^{b} X [A]^{a}}$$

And from the value of [A] we can calculate [B].

$$\begin{bmatrix} B \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} A \end{bmatrix} X \frac{b}{a}$$

#### After equivalent point :

The number of mmoles of E is no longer changes but its concentration is diluted by the addition of B solution .

$$[E] = \frac{(mL_A X M_A) X \frac{e}{a}}{mL_A + mL_B}$$
$$[B] = \frac{(mL_B M_B) - (mL_A M_A X \frac{b}{a})}{mL_B + mL_A}$$

[A] can be considered equal to zero or can be calculated from the K<sub>eq</sub> equation :

$$K_{eq} = \frac{[E]^{e}}{[B]^{b}[A]^{a}}$$

# **Titration Curve**

Example : 10 mL of 0.1 M of analyte A were titrated with 0.2 M of titrant B according to the following titration reaction equation :  $A + 2B \leftrightarrow 3E$ ,  $K_{eq} = 1x10^{10}$ Calculate the molar concentration of each [A], [B] and [E] in the conical flask after the following additions of the titrant B solution

(1)  $5 \text{ mL}_{\text{B}}$  (2) 10 mL<sub>B</sub> (3) 15 mL<sub>B</sub> ?

Solution : First we calculate the volume of the titrant B solution at the equivalent point :

### **Titration Curve**

Unit 6

mmoles B = mmoles A X 2 = 10 X 0.1 X 2 = 2  
M = mmoles / V (mL)  
$$0.2 = 2 / V_{eq.p}$$
 (mL)  $\therefore V_{eq.p}$  (mL) = 10

(1) After addition of 5 mL<sub>B</sub> ( i.e before eq.p )

$$[E] = \frac{(5 X 0.2) X \frac{3}{2}}{10 + 5} = 0.1 M$$
$$[A] = \frac{(10 X 0.1) - (5 X 0.2 X \frac{1}{2})}{10 + 5} = 0.03 M$$

Assume  $[B] \cong 0$  or it can be calculated thus :

# **Titration Curve**

$$K_{eq} = 1 \times 10^{10} = \frac{(0.1)^3}{(0.03)[B]^2} \therefore [B] = 1.8 \times 10^{-6} M$$

Notice that the value of [B] is very small.

(2) After addition of 10 mL<sub>B</sub> ( i.e at equivalent point ) :

$$[E] = \frac{(10 X 0.2)\frac{3}{2}}{10 + 10} = \frac{(10 X 0.1)\frac{3}{1}}{10 + 10} = 0.15 M$$

[B] and [A] are very small and can be assumed to be zero or we can calculate them from  $K_{eq}$  equation thus :

# **INTRODUCTION TO VOLUMETRIC ANALYSIS**

## **Titration Curve**

Unit 6

$$K_{eq} = 1X10^{10} = \frac{(0.15)^3}{([A]\frac{2}{1})^2 ([A])} , \quad [A] = 4.4X10^{-5} M$$

Subjects

Then, [B] can be calculated :

$$[B] = [A] X \frac{2}{1} = 4.4 X 10^{-5} X \frac{2}{1} = 8.8 X 10^{-5} M$$

Notice, [A] and [B] are very small.

(3) After addition of 15 mL<sub>B</sub> (i.e after eq.p):

#### Unit 6

**Subjects** 

# **Titration Curve**

$$[E] = \frac{(10 \times 0.1) \times \frac{3}{1}}{10 + 15} = 0.12 M$$
$$[B] = \frac{(15 \times 0.2) - (10 \times 0.1 \times \frac{2}{1})}{10 + 15} = 0.04 M$$

[A] can be assumed to be equal to zero or can be calculated from the  $K_{eq}$  thus :

$$K_{eq} = 1x10^{10} = \frac{(0.12)^3}{(0.04)^2 [A]}$$
$$[A] = 1.08 X10^{-10} M$$

Notice that [A] is very small .

# **Titration Curve**

If we draw the relationship between the volume of titrant  $mL_B$  (X-axis) and the concentration of each of [E] or [B] or [A] (y-axis) we will obtain for each case two straight lines meet at the equivalent point as shown in the following Figure :



Important notes concerning titration curve :

1- If you continue to derive the curve as in the previous example, you'll notice that the relative changes in the concentration of B are small in the regions far from the equivalent point and great in the regions close to the equivalent point .

 $\frac{\Delta [B]}{[B]} X 100$ 

Where  $\Delta$  [B] is the difference between the concentration of B before the change and after the change . Same thing can be repeated for A .

### **Titration Curve**

**2-** We have noticed in the previous example that [A], [B] and [E] are expressed in small numbers (less than one), so it's best to use the p B, which is equal to -log [B] instead of [B] in order to get positive integers. Note that [B] is inversely proportional to p[B].

The same thing applies to [A] and [E]. In this case, the changes in the p [B], at the equivalent point are very clear. The point at which the slope of the curve  $\Delta p[B] / \Delta m L_B$  is at its maximum is the equivalent point as can be seen from the figure shown on your right.



**Subjects** 

3- This curve is similar in all types of titrations. The changes in the p function at the regions near the equivalent point depend on the concentrations of the reactants and the value of the reaction equilibrium constant  $K_{eq}$ . The higher the concentrations and the larger



### **Titration Curve**

the  $K_{eq}$  value (reaction is more complete), the sharper (i.e not gradual) and the larger the change in p function at the regions near the equivalent point as illustrated by the previous figure. This makes the detection of the equivalence point more accurate and the range of the suitable indicators is wider as we shall see later.



Subjects

# **Titration Curve**

4- Instead of pB or pA , we can use any physical properity of the conical flask solution such as pH ( acid – base titration ) or potential ( redox titration ) ....etc as will be seen later .



**Subjects** 

In this unit we tried to answer the question, what is volumetric analysis. We discussed some important terms such as titration, primary standard, secondary standard, standardization, back titration ...etc. We also investigated the difference between equivalent point and end point, the role of indicators and it's types in titration and the requirements for a reaction to be used as a basis for volumetric analysis. The important of titration curve and how it can be derived have also been discussed as well as the volumetric analysis calculations.

# **Tutorial**

**Exercise 1 :** 0.5 g of an alloy containing copper Cu ( aw = 64 ) is dissolved and an excess of KI is added. The following reaction is occurred :

$$2 \operatorname{Cu}^{2+} + 4 \operatorname{I}^{-} \leftrightarrow 2 \operatorname{CuI} + \operatorname{I}_{2}$$

The liberated  $I_2$  is found to require 20 mL of 0.1 M Na<sub>2</sub>S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub> according to the following titration reaction :

$$I_2 + 2 S_2 O_3^{2-} \leftrightarrow 2 I^- + S_4 O_6^{2-}$$

Our answer next slide

Calculate the percentage of Cu in the alloy?

Your answer :

# **Tutorial**

#### Answer 1 :

mmoles  $I_2$  = mmoles  $S_2 O_3^{2-} X 1/2 = 20 x 0.1 X 1/2 = 2 mmoles$ mmoles  $Cu^{2+}$  = mmoles  $I_2 X 2/1 = 2X 2/1 = 4$  mmoles

% 
$$Cu = \frac{4mmoles \ x \ 64(mg)}{0.5 \ x \ 10^3 \ (mg)} \ x \ 100 = 51.2$$

# **INTRODUCTION TO VOLUMETRIC ANALYSIS**

# **Tutorial**

**Exercise 2 :** When 20 mL of 0.1 M of  $Na_2CO_3$  is titrated with 0.2 M HCl according to the following titration reaction :

$$2HCl + Na_2CO_3 \leftrightarrow 2NaCl + CO_2 + H_2O$$

Calculate the volume of HCl (titrant) at the equivalent point ( eq.p ) ?



# **INTRODUCTION TO VOLUMETRIC ANALYSIS**

# **Tutorial**

#### Your answer :

Our answer next slide

# **Tutorial**

Answer 2 :

At the equivalent point : mmoles HCl = mmoles Na<sub>2</sub> CO<sub>3</sub> X 2/1 = 20 X 0.1 x 2/1 = 4 mnmoles

$$M_{HCl} = 0.2 = \frac{no.\ mmoles}{V_{mLl}} = \frac{4}{V_m}$$

# **Tutorial**

**Exercise 3 :** When 20 mL of 0.1 M of  $Na_2CO_3$  is titrated with 0.2 M HCl according to the following titration reaction :

 $2HCl + Na_2CO_3 \leftrightarrow 2NaCl + CO_2 + H_2O$ 

Our answer next slide

Calculate the molar concentration of  $Na_2CO_3$  in the conical flask solution after adding 5 mL of HCl solution ?

Your answer :

**INTRODUCTION TO VOLUMETRIC ANALYSIS** 

# **Tutorial**

Answer 3: 
$$[Na_{2}CO_{3}] = \frac{(total mmoles Na_{2}CO_{3}) - (reacted mmoles Na_{2}CO_{3})}{(V_{HCl} + V_{Na_{2}CO_{3}})}$$
$$= \frac{[(20 X 0.1) - (5 X 0.2)x\frac{1}{2}]}{5 + 20} = 0.02 M$$

# **Tutorial**

**Exercise 4 :** When 20 mL of 0.1 M of  $Na_2CO_3$  is titrated with 0.2 M HCl according to the following titration reaction :

 $2HCl + Na_2CO_3 \leftrightarrow 2NaCl + CO_2 + H_2O$ 

Our answer next slide

Calculate the molar concentration of HCl in the conical flask solution (titration solution) after adding 50 mL of it's solution to the conical flask ?

Your answer :

**INTRODUCTION TO VOLUMETRIC ANALYSIS** 

# **Tutorial**


**Exercise 5 :** 0.5 g of a sample containing  $Ba(OH)_2$  (mw = 171) is dissolved in water. The volume is completed to 500 mL with water . 10 mL of this solution is titrated with 0.1 M HCl according to the following titration reaction :

 $2 \text{ HCl} + \text{Ba}(\text{OH})_2 \leftrightarrow \text{BaCl}_2 + 2 \text{ H}_2\text{O}$ If the volume of HCl at the equivalent point is 5 mL, calculate the percentage of BaOH<sub>2</sub> in the sample ?

Your answer :

# **Tutorial**

Answer 5:  
mmoles 
$$Ba(OH)_2$$
 in 10 mL =  $(5 \times 0.1) \frac{1}{2} = 0.25$  mmole  
mmoles  $Ba(OH)_2$  in 500 mL =  $\frac{0.25(mmole)}{10(mL)} \times 500(mL)$   
= 12.5 mmoles  
 $\%_{w/w} Ba(OH)_2 = \frac{12.5 \times 171(mg)}{5 \times 10^3 (mg)} \times 100 = 42.75\%$ 

**Exercise 6**: An excess of 20 mL of 0.2 M Fe<sup>2+</sup> solution is added to 10 of unknown solution of  $MnO_4^{-}$  and the following reaction is occurred :

 $MnO_4^- + 5 Fe^{2+} + 8H^+ \leftrightarrow Mn^{2+} + 5 Fe^{3+} + 4 H_2O$ 

The excess  $Fe^{2+}$  is titrated with 0.1 M of  $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$  solution according to the following titration reaction equation :

 $Cr_2O_7^{2-}+6 Fe^{2+}+14 H^+ \leftrightarrow 2 Cr^{3+}+6 Fe^{3+}+7 H_2O$ 

If the volume of  $Cr_2O_7^{2-}$  at the equivalent point is 5 mL, find the molarity of the unknown  $MnO_4^{-}$  solution ?

Your answer :

#### **Tutorial**

Answer 6: 
$$excess mmoles Fe^{2+} = (mmoles Cr_2O_7^{2-}) X \frac{6}{1}$$
  
 $= (5 X 0.1) X \frac{6}{1} = 3 mmoles$   
 $mmoles Fe^{2+}$  reacted with  $MnO_4^-$  = total mmoles  $Fe^{2+}$  added- excess mmoles  $Fe^{2+}$   
 $= 20 X 0.2 - 3 = 1 mmole$   
 $mmoles MnO_4^-$  = mmoles  $Fe^{2+}$  reacted with  $MnO_4^- X \frac{1}{5}$   
 $= 1 X \frac{1}{5} = 0.2 mmole$   
 $M_{MnO_4^-}$   $= \frac{na mmoles}{V_{ml}} = \frac{0.2}{10} = 0.02 M$ 

**Exercise 7 :** A sample of steel containing sulfur has been taken for analysis . The sulfur of the sample is converted to  $H_2S$  which is absorbed in 10 mL of 0.005 M of  $I_2$  where the following reaction is occurred :

$$H_2S + I_2 \rightarrow S + 2I^- + 2H^+$$

The excess I<sub>2</sub> is titrated with 0.002 M of S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> solution according to the following reaction : I<sub>2</sub> + 2S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup>  $\rightarrow$  2I<sup>-</sup> + S<sub>4</sub>O<sub>6</sub><sup>2-</sup>

If the volume of  $S_2O_3^{2-}$  solution at the equivalent point is equal to 2.5 mL, calculate the mg weight of sulfur in the sample ?

Our answe next slide

Your answer :

#### Answer 7 :

mmoles S = total mmoles I<sub>2</sub> - excess mmoles I<sub>2</sub> excess mmoles I<sub>2</sub> = mmoles S<sub>2</sub>O<sub>3</sub><sup>2-</sup> X 1/2 = 2.5 X 0.002 X  $\frac{1}{2}$  = 2.5X10<sup>-3</sup> mmoles S = 10 X 0.005 - 2.5 X 10<sup>-3</sup> = 0.0475

Wt. S in sample = 0.0475 X 32 = 1.52 mg

**Exercise 8 :** List the major species in the conical flask solution at points A, B, C, and D on the following titration curve of the titration of ammonia NH<sub>3</sub> with HCl ?



#### **Tutorial**

#### Your answer :

# **Tutorial**

Answer 8 :  $A = NH_3$ , it has yet to be acidified.  $B = NH_3$  and  $NH_4$  <sup>+</sup> in the buffering region.  $C = NH_4$  <sup>+</sup>. At the equivalence point, all the  $NH_3$  has been converted to  $NH_4$  <sup>+</sup>.  $D = NH_4$  <sup>+</sup> and more HCl in solution .

**Exercise 9 :** Why is it acceptable to use an indicator whose  $pK_a$  is not exactly the pH at the equivalence point ?

Your answer :

Answer 9 : As we can see in the following titration curve, even if the  $pK_a$  of the indicator is several units away from the pH at the equivalence point, there is only a negligible change in volume of titrant added due to the steep slope of the titration curve near the equivalence point ?



Exercise 10 : It takes 26.23 mL of a 1.008 M NaOH solution to neutralize a solution of 5 g of an unknown monoprotic acid in 150.2 mL of solution. What is the molecular weight of the unknown?

Your answer :

Answer 10: This is a standard stoichiometry problem for titration. Calculate the number of moles of base to know the number of moles of the unknown because it is a monoprotic acid. Once you know the number of moles of the unknown, divide the mass of the unknown by the number of moles to obtain the solution: the molecular weight of the unknown is 189.1 g/mol.

**Exercise 11 :** Write a description of how phenolphthalein is able to show when the endpoint is reached in the titration of an acid with a base

Our answer next slide

#### Your answer :

Answer 11 : Phenolphthalein is a complex, organic weak acid. In acidic conditions, it is in the acid form. The symbol HPh represents the acid form of phenolphthalein. In basic conditions, the acidic hydrogen atom is removed forming an anion, symbolized by Ph-. The uncharged acid form of phenolphthalein, HPh, is colorless, and the ionized base form, Ph-, is red. When enough base solution is added to react with all of the H+ ions, the reaction is complete. When a small amount of extra base solution is added, perhaps one drop of NaOH solution, there will be an excess of hydroxide ions, OH-, in solution. These react with the phenolphthalein molecules, HPh, changing them from the acid form to the base form, Ph-. Because the base form is red, the solution turns red, telling us that the reaction is complete (or just slightly beyond complete).

 $\begin{array}{rcl} HPh(aq) + OH^{-}(aq) & \rightarrow & H_2O(l) + Ph^{-}(aq) \\ colorless & & red \end{array}$ 

**Exercise 12 :** Write a description of the general steps for the titration procedure to determine the molarity of a solution of a substance?

**Our** answer

next slide

#### Your answer :

Answer 12 : Typical steps for this process are listed below.

• A specific volume of the solution to be titrated is added to a conical flask.

• A solution of a substance that reacts with the analyte in the solution in the conical flask is added to a burette. This solution in the burette, which has a known concentration, is the titrant. The burette is set up over the conical flask so the titrant can be added to the solution to be titrated.

• An indicator is added to the solution being titrated. The indicator is a substance that changes color when the reaction is complete.

• The titrant is slowly added to the solution being titrated until the indicator changes color, showing that the reaction is complete. This stage in the procedure is called the endpoint.

• The volume of titrant added from the burette is measured .

# Last update : 1/1/2016 INTRODUCTION TO VOLUMETRIC ANALYSIS

#### **Tutorial**

Look at these videos and I am sure that it will clear many things in your mined.





#### Titration Calculation, Dichromate with Iodide

A standard solution is prepared by dissolving 1.185g of potassium dichromate(VI) and making up to 250cm<sup>3</sup> of solution. This solution is used to find the concentration of a sodium thiosuphate solution. A 25.0cm<sup>3</sup> portion of the dichromate was acidified and added to an excess of potassium iodide to liberate iodine.

When the iodine solution was titrated against sodium thiosulphate, 17.5 cm<sup>3</sup> of thiosulphate were required. Find the concentration of the thiosulphate solution.



VIDEO You Tube

على الراغبين الاستماع الى محاضرات الاستاذ الدكتور/ ابراهيم زامل الزامل باللغة العربية عن هذا الموضوع الرجوع الى الروابط التالية :

مقدمة عن التحليل الحجمي مقدمة عن التحليل الحجمي ٣

مقدمة عن التحليل الحجمي ٢

مقدمة عن التحليل الحجمى ٤

مقدمة عن التحليل الحجمى ٥