



# B. Pharmacy 1st Semester - Pharmaceutical Analysis Notes



## UNIT – 2



### Acid Base Titration

Theories of acid base indicators, classification of acid base titrations and theory involved in titrations of strong, weak, and very weak acids and bases, neutralization curves



### Non Aqueous Titration

Solvents, acidimetry and alkalimetry titration and estimation of Sodium benzoate and Ephedrine HCl

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## ACID BASE TITRATION



### Introduction

An acid-base titration, also known as neutralization titration, is based upon the chemical reaction between an acid and a base. This fundamental analytical technique involves the neutralization reaction where hydrogen ions from acids react with hydroxide ions from bases to form water molecules.

The basic neutralization reaction can be represented as:  $\text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^- \leftrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$



### Acidimetry

Acidimetry involves the use of a standard acid solution for the quantitative determination of free bases or those formed from salts of weak acids by hydrolysis. This technique is essential for determining the basic strength of various pharmaceutical compounds.

## **Alkalimetry**

Alkalimetry utilizes a standard base or alkali solution for the quantitative determination of acids or those formed from salts of weak bases by hydrolysis. This method is widely used for analyzing acidic pharmaceutical substances and compounds that exhibit alkaline reactions due to salt hydrolysis.

## **Advantages of Acid Base Titrations**

Acid-base titrations offer several significant advantages that make them highly reliable analytical methods:

- The reaction between acid and base is extremely fast and practically instantaneous, ensuring rapid analysis
  - The reaction proceeds as a single process without interfering side reactions, providing clean analytical results
  - The reaction always reaches completion, ensuring quantitative conversion
  - The reaction follows stoichiometric principles, allowing for precise calculations
  - These titrations are versatile and can be applied to various pharmaceutical determinations
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# THEORIES OF ACID-BASE TITRATION

## 1 Arrhenius Theory ( $\text{H}^+$ and $\text{OH}^-$ )

The Arrhenius theory, introduced in 1894 by Svante Arrhenius, provides the foundational understanding of acids and bases in aqueous solutions.

**Acid Definition:** According to Arrhenius, an acid is any substance that ionizes partially or completely in water to give hydrogen ions, which associate with water molecules to form hydronium ions ( $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+$ ).

**Base Definition:** A base ionizes in water to give hydroxyl ions ( $\text{OH}^-$ ). Weak bases generally ionize partially, while strong bases such as metal hydroxides dissociate completely.

**Nature of Water:** Water acts as a neutral solvent and provides the medium for ionization reactions.

**Neutralization Reaction:** When acids and bases react, they undergo neutralization to form salt and water molecules.

### Advantages:

- Explains the practical behavior of acids and bases in aqueous solutions
- Provides a straightforward approach to understanding neutralization reactions

### Limitations:

- Limited to aqueous medium only, restricting its applicability
- Fails to explain the stability of hydrogen ions in solution

- Cannot explain conjugate acid-base relationships
- Unable to define acids or bases that don't contain  $\text{H}^+$  or  $\text{OH}^-$  ions

## 2 Brønsted-Lowry Theory (Proton Transfer)

The Brønsted-Lowry theory, proposed independently by Johannes Brønsted and Thomas Lowry in 1923, revolutionized the understanding of acid-base chemistry.

**Acid Definition:** An acid is a species that can donate protons ( $\text{H}^+$  ions) to other species.

**Base Definition:** A base is a species that can accept protons from other species.

This theory introduces the concept of conjugate acid-base pairs, where every acid has a corresponding conjugate base, and every base has a corresponding conjugate acid. The theory is solvent-independent and explains acid-base reactions in various solvents.

**Conjugate Acid-Base Systems:** For any acid-base reaction, two conjugate acid-base systems are necessary as the reaction involves proton transfer from one system to another.

**Amphoteric Nature:** Some solvents like water can act as both acids and bases, exhibiting amphoteric properties. This dual behavior allows water to serve as a second conjugate acid-base system for solutes that are either acids or bases.

## 3 Lewis Theory (Electron Pair Transfer)

The Lewis theory, introduced by Gilbert N. Lewis in 1923, provides the most comprehensive definition of acids and bases based on electron pair interactions.

**Base Definition:** Lewis bases are species that have the tendency to donate lone pairs of electrons. These species are also known as nucleophiles due to their electron-rich nature.

**Acid Definition:** Lewis acids are species that have the tendency to accept lone pairs of electrons. These species are also known as electrophiles due to their electron-deficient nature.

**Water's Role:** In the Lewis theory, water functions as a Lewis base due to its ability to donate electron pairs.

#### **Advantages:**

- Defines acids and bases without dependence on any specific solvent
- Explains acid-base behavior of compounds that cannot be defined by other theories
- Useful for describing indicator color changes in acid-base systems



### **Summary of Acid-Base Theories**

Theory	Acid Definition	Base Definition
<b>Arrhenius</b>	Hydrogen ion donor	Hydroxide ion donor
<b>Brønsted-Lowry</b>	Proton donor	Proton acceptor
<b>Lewis</b>	Electron pair acceptor	Electron pair donor
<b>Usanovich</b>	Cation donor and anion acceptor	Cation acceptor and anion donor
<b>Lux-Flood</b>	Oxide-ion acceptor	Oxide-ion donor

## LAW OF MASS ACTION

The Law of Mass Action, first proposed by Goldberg and Waage in 1867, states that the rate of a chemical reaction is proportional to the active masses of the reacting substances. In dilute solutions, active masses can be represented by the concentrations of the reacting substances.

For a reversible reaction at equilibrium:  $aA + bB \rightleftharpoons cC + dD$

The equilibrium constant expression is:  $K = \frac{[C]^c[D]^d}{[A]^a[B]^b}$

This mathematical model explains and predicts the behavior of solutions in dynamic equilibrium, where the forward and reverse reaction rates are equal.

## ROLE OF SOLVENTS

### Water as a Solvent

Water serves as the primary solvent in aqueous acid-base titrations and exhibits amphiprotic properties, meaning it can function as either an acid or a base depending on experimental conditions.

## **Solvent Selection Criteria**

The selection of appropriate solvents for acidimetric titrations follows specific guidelines:

**Neutral Solvents:** These solvents do not significantly enhance dissociation and include acetonitrile, alcohols, chloroform, benzene, dioxane, and ethyl acetate.

**Acidic Solvents:** Protogenic solvents that can be utilized for weak bases include formic acid, acetic acid, propionic acid, acetic anhydrides, and sulfonyl chloride.

## **Solvent Properties**

### **A. Self Dissociation**

Solvents can be classified based on their dissociation behavior:

**Dissociating Solvents:** Solvents like ethanol dissociate to give ethoxide ions, while acetic acid produces acetate ions. The extent of dissociation varies with different solvents and affects the solvated proton range.

### **B. Dielectric Constant**

The dielectric constant determines the energy required to separate ions in solution. Higher dielectric constant values facilitate easier dissolution of

ionic solutes and promote complete dissociation of polar ionic compounds.

### Dielectric Constants:

- Cyclohexane: 2.02
- Chloroform: 4.81
- Methanol: 32.6
- Water: 78.5

### C. Acid-Base Character of Solvents

Non-aqueous solvents are classified into four categories based on their proton donor-acceptor properties:

**1. Protogenic Solvents:** These acidic solvents have relatively high dielectric constants and are ionized. They enhance the basicity of weak bases.

**2. Protophilic Solvents:** These basic solvents react with acids to form solvated protons. They have high dielectric constants and enhance the acidity of weak acids.

**3. Aprotic Solvents:** These solvents cannot donate hydrogen ions and lack both acidic and basic properties.

**4. Amphiprotic Solvents:** These solvents possess both protogenic and protophilic properties, allowing them to act as either acids or bases.

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## RELATIVE STRENGTH OF ACIDS AND BASES



According to the Brønsted-Lowry theory, free protons cannot exist in measurable concentrations in solution at equilibrium. Acid-base reactions require the presence of a base to accept protons from the acid.

The strength of acids and bases is determined by their dissociation constants, which depend on temperature and solvent nature. For dilute solutions, the dissociation constant provides a quantitative measure of acid or base strength.

### **Common Ion Effect**

When a weak electrolyte is dissolved in water, it dissociates to a small extent. If a strong electrolyte containing a common ion is added to this solution, the dissociation of the weak electrolyte becomes suppressed according to the Law of Mass Action. This phenomenon is known as the common ion effect and significantly impacts the behavior of buffer solutions and acid-base equilibria.

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## **pH AND pOH CONCEPTS**

### **pH Scale**

pH represents the negative logarithm of hydrogen ion activity in solution. It provides a convenient numeric scale to indicate the acidity or alkalinity of solutions. Solutions with pH values below 7 are acidic, while those above 7 are alkaline. Pure water has a pH of 7 and is considered neutral.

### **pOH Scale**

pOH measures the concentration of hydroxide ions and basicity of solutions. The relationship between pH and pOH is governed by the ionic

product of water.

## **Ionic Product of Water**

Water undergoes autoionization to produce hydronium and hydroxide ions, albeit to a very small extent. The equilibrium constant for this reaction is called the ionic product of water ( $K_w = 1.0 \times 10^{-14}$  at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ ).

For pure water:  $[\text{H}_3\text{O}^+] = [\text{OH}^-] = 1.0 \times 10^{-7} \text{ M}$

This gives a pH of 7 for neutral water at  $25^\circ\text{C}$ .

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## **HYDROLYSIS OF SALTS**

Salt hydrolysis occurs when salts react with water to produce acidic, basic, or neutral solutions depending on the nature of the parent acid and base.

### ◆ **Neutral Salts**

Salts formed from strong acids and strong bases produce neutral solutions. These salts do not undergo significant hydrolysis.

### ◆ **Acidic Salt Hydrolysis**

Salts formed between strong acids and weak bases undergo hydrolysis to produce acidic solutions. The cation from the weak base accepts hydroxide ions from water, leaving excess hydrogen ions in solution.

### ◆ **Basic Salt Hydrolysis**

Salts formed between weak acids and strong bases produce basic solutions through hydrolysis. The anion from the weak acid accepts protons from water, leaving excess hydroxide ions in solution.

## HENDERSON-HASSELBALCH EQUATION

The Henderson-Hasselbalch equation provides a mathematical relationship between pH, pKa, and the ratio of conjugate base to acid concentrations:

$$\text{pH} = \text{pKa} + \log\left(\frac{[\text{A}^-]}{[\text{HA}]}\right)$$

This equation is fundamental for buffer calculations and understanding acid-base equilibria.

### Specific Conditions

Condition	Result	Interpretation
$\text{pH} = \text{pKa}$	$[\text{A}^-] = [\text{HA}]$	Acid is 50% dissociated
$\text{pH} < \text{pKa}$	$[\text{A}^-]/[\text{HA}] < 1$	Predominantly undissociated form
$\text{pH} > \text{pKa}$	$[\text{A}^-]/[\text{HA}] > 1$	Predominantly dissociated form

## BUFFER SOLUTIONS

### Introduction

Buffer solutions resist changes in pH when small amounts of acid, base, or water are added. These solutions are crucial for maintaining stable pH conditions in analytical procedures and biological systems.

### Types of Buffers

**Acidic Buffers:** Formed by mixing a weak acid with its conjugate base salt. These buffers maintain pH values below 7.

**Basic Buffers:** Created by combining a weak base with its conjugate acid salt. These buffers maintain pH values above 7.

## **Buffer Mechanism**

Buffers work through the equilibrium between weak acids/bases and their conjugate pairs. When acid is added, the conjugate base neutralizes the excess hydrogen ions. When base is added, the weak acid provides hydrogen ions to neutralize the excess hydroxide ions.

## **Buffer Calculations**

The pH of buffer solutions can be calculated using the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation. The buffer capacity depends on the concentrations of the buffer components and is optimal when the concentrations of acid and conjugate base are equal.

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## **TYPES OF ACID-BASE TITRATIONS**

Acid-base titrations are classified into four main categories based on the strength of acids and bases involved:

### **1 Strong Acid vs Strong Base Titrations**

These titrations involve completely dissociated acids and bases in dilute aqueous solutions. The reaction can be represented as:  $\text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$

#### **Characteristics:**

- Initial pH depends on the strong acid concentration
- pH changes gradually until near the equivalence point

- Sharp pH change occurs at the equivalence point ( $\text{pH} = 7$ )
- Wide range of indicators can be used ( $\text{pH } 3\text{-}10.5$ )

## **2 Weak Acid vs Strong Base Titrations**

These titrations involve partially dissociated acids with completely dissociated bases.

### **Key Differences:**

- Initial pH is higher than strong acid titrations due to incomplete dissociation
- Common ion effect suppresses weak acid dissociation as base is added
- Equivalence point pH is greater than 7 due to salt hydrolysis
- Steeper pH increase during titration compared to strong acid-strong base

## **3 Strong Acid vs Weak Base Titrations**

These involve completely dissociated acids with partially dissociated bases.

### **Characteristics:**

- Salt formed undergoes hydrolysis producing acidic solutions
- Equivalence point pH is less than 7
- pH changes are less sharp compared to strong acid-strong base titrations

## **4 Weak Acid vs Weak Base Titrations**

These titrations present the greatest analytical challenges due to small pH changes at the equivalence point.

### Disadvantages:

- Very small inflection in pH neutralization curve near equivalence point
  - pH change smaller than 2 units makes accurate endpoint detection difficult
  - Mixed indicators are typically required for endpoint detection
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## THEORIES OF INDICATORS

Indicators are substances that exhibit distinct color changes at specific pH ranges, making them essential for endpoint detection in acid-base titrations.

### Ostwald Theory

The Ostwald theory explains indicator behavior based on the different colors of ionized and unionized forms. For an acid indicator:



The color depends on the ratio of ionized to unionized forms, which is directly related to pH and the indicator's dissociation constant.

### Resonance Theory

This theory explains color changes in terms of electronic structure differences between acid and base forms of organic indicators. Color

changes result from altered light absorption capabilities due to changes in resonance structures and electronic features.

## INDICATORS FOR ACID-BASE TITRATIONS

### Indicator Selection by Titration Type

Titration Type	Suitable Indicators
Strong Acid - Strong Base	Methyl orange, Methyl red, Phenolphthalein, Bromothymol blue
Weak Acid - Strong Base	Phenolphthalein, Thymolphthalein, Thymol blue
Strong Acid - Weak Base	Methyl orange, Methyl red, Bromophenol, Bromocresol green
Weak Acid - Weak Base	Mixed indicators

### Common Indicators Properties

Indicator	pH Range	Acidic Color	Alkaline Color
Quinaldine Red	1.4 - 3.2	Colorless	Red
Methyl Orange	2.9 - 4.6	Red	Orange
Bromocresol Green	3.6 - 5.2	Yellow	Blue
Methyl Red	4.2 - 6.3	Red	Yellow
Bromothymol Blue	6.0 - 7.6	Yellow	Blue
Phenolphthalein	8.3 - 10.0	Colorless	Pink

## **Mixed Indicators**

Mixed indicators combine two or more indicators with close  $pK_a$  values to provide sharp color changes for weak acid-weak base titrations where pH changes are minimal. These indicators show complementary colors after overlapping different colors at various pH ranges.

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## **NON-AQUEOUS TITRATIONS**

### **Introduction to Solvents**

Most titrations are traditionally performed in aqueous media using water as the solvent. However, non-aqueous titrations become necessary when reactants are insoluble in water, reactive with water, or when the analyte is too weak an acid or base to be accurately titrated in aqueous solution.

### **Reasons for Non-Aqueous Titrations**

**Reactant Insolubility:** When compounds are insoluble in water, non-aqueous solvents are mandatory for dissolution and subsequent analysis.

**Water Reactivity:** If reactants undergo chemical changes when dissolved in water, non-aqueous methods prevent unwanted side reactions.

**Weak Acid/Base Analysis:** Water's amphoteric behavior competes with very weak acids or bases, making accurate titration impossible in aqueous media.

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## **TYPES OF NON-AQUEOUS SOLVENTS**

### **Protogenic Solvents**



These acidic solvents enhance the basicity of weak bases through their proton-donating ability. Glacial acetic acid is the most commonly used protogenic solvent, being anhydrous acetic acid that solidifies at 16.7°C.

### ◆ **Protophilic Solvents**

Basic solvents that enhance the acidity of weak acids by accepting protons. Common examples include pyridine, ethylenediamine, and dimethylformamide (DMF).

### ◆ **Amphiprotic Solvents**

These versatile solvents can accept or donate protons depending on the dissolved substance. Alcohols such as ethanol and methanol are typical examples.

### ◆ **Aprotic Solvents**

These solvents neither accept nor donate protons and are primarily used for dissolving water-insoluble drugs. Examples include benzene and carbon tetrachloride.

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## **SELECTION OF NON-AQUEOUS SOLVENTS**

### **Selection Criteria**

**Drug Solubility:** The weak acidic or basic drug must be soluble in the chosen solvent, which should also be miscible with the titrant.

**Drug Nature:** Solvent selection depends on whether the drug is a weak acid or weak base, requiring appropriate enhancement of its strength.

**Chemical Compatibility:** The solvent must not react with the drug or interfere with the titration process.

### **Commonly Used Non-Aqueous Solvents**

- 1. Glacial Acetic Acid ( $\text{CH}_3\text{COOH}$ ):** The most widely used non-aqueous solvent, requiring water content between 0.1% and 1.0%.
  - 2. Acetonitrile ( $\text{CH}_3\text{CN}$ ):** Used in combination with other solvents to achieve sharp endpoints in metal ethanoate titrations.
  - 3. Alcohols:** Various alcohols serve as versatile solvents for both polar and non-polar reactants, provided they are anhydrous.
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### **LEVELING EFFECT**

The leveling effect occurs when weak acids or bases are dissolved in appropriate solvents that enhance their strength. Basic solvents have higher proton affinity, making weak acids behave as strong acids. Similarly, acidic solvents enhance the basicity of weak bases.

### **Leveling Effect Reactions**

In the presence of suitable solvents, weak acids become completely dissociated and act as strong acids. This effect allows for accurate titration of otherwise non-titratable weak substances.

### **Differentiating Solvents**

Unlike leveling solvents, differentiating solvents do not cause complete dissociation, allowing different acids or bases to maintain their relative

strength differences. This selectivity is useful for analyzing mixtures of acids or bases with different strengths.

## ACIDIMETRY AND ALKALIMETRY IN NON-AQUEOUS MEDIA

### Comparison of Non-Aqueous Titration Methods

Parameter	Acidimetry	Alkalimetry
Purpose	Determination of weak bases	Determination of weak acids
Sample Types	Basic drugs (Ephedrine, Caffeine)	Acidic drugs (Nalidixic acid)
Solvent	Protogenic (Glacial acetic acid)	Protophilic (DMF)
Titrant	Perchloric acid (HClO <sub>4</sub> )	Sodium methoxide
Indicator	Crystal violet	Thymol blue
Color Change	Violet to yellowish green	Pink to blue

## NON-AQUEOUS TITRATION INDICATORS

### Commonly Used Indicators

Indicator	Color Change	Application
Crystal Violet	Violet → Greenish yellow	Perchloric acid titrations
Methyl Red	Yellow → Red	General acid-base titrations
Naphthol Benzein	Yellow → Green	Weak base titrations
Quinaldine Red	Purple-red → Pale green	Ethanol-based titrations
Thymol Blue	Pink → Blue	Alkalimetric determinations

## **Specific Indicator Applications**

**Crystal Violet (0.5% w/v in glacial acetic acid):** Primary indicator for acidimetric titrations of basic drugs, showing distinct color transitions from violet through blue to greenish yellow.

**Thymol Blue (0.2% w/v in methanol):** Essential for alkalimetric titrations, providing clear pink to blue color changes at the endpoint.

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## **PHARMACEUTICAL APPLICATIONS**

### **Acidimetric Applications**

Non-aqueous acidimetry is extensively used for analyzing basic pharmaceutical compounds including:

- Amantadine hydrochloride
- Ephedrine hydrochloride
- Morphine salts
- Local anesthetics
- Antihistamines

### **Alkalimetric Applications**

Non-aqueous alkalimetry serves for determining acidic pharmaceutical substances such as:

- Bendrofluazide
- Barbiturates
- Nalidixic acid

- Mercaptopurine
  - Various diuretics
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## ESTIMATION PROCEDURES

### General Principles

Both sodium benzoate and ephedrine HCl estimations follow non-aqueous acid-base titration principles, utilizing glacial acetic acid as the solvent and perchloric acid as the titrant. Crystal violet serves as the indicator, providing distinct color changes at the endpoints.

### Reagent Preparation

Standard perchloric acid preparation involves careful mixing of perchloric acid with glacial acetic acid, followed by acetic anhydride addition. The solution requires 24-hour equilibration before use and must be standardized against potassium hydrogen phthalate.

### Calculation Methods

Percentage purity calculations utilize standard titrimetric formulas, incorporating normality, volume relationships, and molecular weights. The accuracy depends on proper standardization and careful endpoint detection using appropriate indicators.

### Quality Control

Successful non-aqueous titrations require moisture exclusion, constant temperature maintenance, and proper indicator selection. The sharpness of

endpoints depends on eliminating interfering substances and maintaining anhydrous conditions throughout the procedure.

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## **CONCLUSION**

This comprehensive unit covers the fundamental principles and practical applications of acid-base titrations in pharmaceutical analysis. The understanding of various theories, solvent effects, and indicator mechanisms provides the foundation for accurate quantitative analysis of pharmaceutical compounds. Non-aqueous titrations extend the analytical capabilities to compounds that cannot be effectively analyzed in aqueous media, making them indispensable tools in pharmaceutical quality control and drug development.

