## Acid Strength and Structure

Te The tendency of an acid to lose a proton to solvent water, as indicated by its $K_{a}$ value, depends upon two principal factors:

1. The strength of the $\mathrm{H}-\mathrm{A}$ bond.
$\checkmark$ The weaker the bond, the greater is the tendency to lose protons, and the larger $K_{a}$ will be.
2. The stability of the conjugate base in solution.
$\checkmark$ The more stable the conjugate base $\mathrm{A}^{-}$, the greater is the tendency to lose protons, and the larger $K_{a}$ will be.

## Binary Acid Strengths

Acid strengths of binary acids, $\mathrm{H}_{n} \mathrm{X}$, increase as the $\mathrm{H}-\mathrm{X}$ bond weakens. This results in the following trends:

1. The larger the X atom, the weaker the $\mathrm{H}-\mathrm{X}$ bond is and the stronger the acid is.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{HF}<\mathrm{HCl}<\mathrm{HBr}<\mathrm{HI} \\
& \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}<\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{~S}<\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{Se}<\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{Te}
\end{aligned}
$$

2. Among acids with similar $\mathrm{H}-\mathrm{X}$ bond strengths, the more electronegative the X atom, the more polar the $\mathrm{H}-\mathrm{X}$ bond will be.
$\checkmark$ This makes the H atom more positive, facilitating its removal by solvent water.
$\checkmark$ Thus, across a period,

$$
\mathrm{NH}_{3}<\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}<\mathrm{HF}
$$

## Oxoacids, $\mathrm{HOXO}_{n}$

1. Among acids of the same structure type, acid strength increases with the electronegativity of the central X atom.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{HOI}<\mathrm{HOBr}<\mathrm{HOCl} \\
\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{SeO}_{4}<\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{SO}_{4}
\end{gathered}
$$

$\checkmark$ The acidic H atom is always part of an -OH group.
$\checkmark$ As electronegativity of X increases, the polarity of the $-\mathrm{O}-\mathrm{H}$ bond increases, making removal of $\mathrm{H}^{+}$by solvent water more favorable.

## Oxoacids, $\mathrm{HOXO}_{n}$

2. Acidity increases as the number of terminal (or nonhydroxy) oxygen atoms attached to X increases.

$$
\mathrm{HOCl}<\mathrm{HOClO}<\mathrm{HOClO}_{2}<\mathrm{HOClO}_{3}
$$


$K_{a}=3.2 \times 10^{-8}$

$K_{a} \gg 1$

$K_{a}=1.1 \times 10^{-2}$

$K_{a} \gg 1$
$\checkmark$ The electron withdrawing ability of the terminal -O atoms increases the formal charge on the central X atom, decreasing electron density in the $-\mathrm{O}-\mathrm{H}$ bond, thereby weakening it. This is an example of an inductive effect.

## Oxoacids, $\mathrm{HOXO}_{n}$

The number of terminal (non-hydroxy) oxygen atoms in the oxoacids bears a strong correlation to $K_{a}$.

| -O atoms | $K_{a}$ range | Strength |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0 | $10^{-7}-10^{-10}$ | very weak |
| 1 | $10^{-1}-10^{-4}$ | weak |
| 2 | $>10^{-1}$ | strong |
| 3 | $\gg 1$ | very strong |

## Oxoacids, $\mathrm{HOXO}_{n}$

Some care must be used in predicting acid strengths from formulas, because the actual structure may not be apparent.
$\checkmark$ For example, $\mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{PO}_{4}, \mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{PO}_{3}$, and $\mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{PO}_{2}$ all have only one terminal -O in their structures and therefore have similar strengths.


$K_{a}=7.6 \times 10^{-3}$
$K_{a}=1.6 \times 10^{-2}$
$K_{a}=1 \times 10^{-2}$

## Carboxylic Acids, $\mathrm{RCO}_{2} \mathbf{H}$

Carboxylic acids, an important class of organic acids, contain the carboxyl group, $-\mathrm{CO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$.

## $\mathrm{HCO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$

formic acid
$\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{CH}_{2} \mathrm{CO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$ propionic acid
$\mathrm{C}_{6} \mathrm{H}_{5} \mathrm{CO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$
benzoic acid
$\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{CO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$
acetic acid
$\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{CH}_{2} \mathrm{CH}_{2} \mathrm{CO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$
butyric acid
$\mathrm{HO}_{2} \mathrm{CCO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$
oxalic acid
(diprotic)

## Acidity of the Carboxyl Group

- The acidity of the carboxyl group is partly due to the electronegativity of the double-bonded oxygen, which withdraws electron density from the $-\mathrm{O}-\mathrm{H}$ bond, thereby facilitating the loss of $\mathrm{H}^{+}$to solvent water.


When a carboxyl group loses $\mathrm{H}^{+}$, it forms a resonance stabilized anion, called a carboxylate ion:


## Enhancing Carboxylic Acid Strength

The acidity of a carboxylic acid can be enhanced by adding electronegative atoms to the rest of the molecule.
$\checkmark$ The electron-withdrawing ability of electronegative atoms weakens the $-\mathrm{O}-\mathrm{H}$ bond (inductive effect), thereby enhancing the ability of solvent water to remove $\mathrm{H}^{+}$.

| Acid | $K_{a}$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{CO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$ | $1.77 \times 10^{-5}$ |
| $\mathrm{BrCH}_{2} \mathrm{CO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$ | $2.05 \times 10^{-3}$ |
| $\mathrm{ClCH}_{2} \mathrm{CO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$ | $1.40 \times 10^{-3}$ |
| $\mathrm{Cl}_{2} \mathrm{CHCO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$ | $3.32 \times 10^{-2}$ |
| $\mathrm{Cl}_{3} \mathrm{CCO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$ | $2 \times 10^{-1}$ |
| $\mathrm{~F}_{3} \mathrm{CCO}_{2} \mathrm{H}$ | $5 \times 10^{-1}$ |

## Hydrated Cations

The total hydration sphere is the total number of water molecules associated with an ion in solution.
$\checkmark$ The number of water molecules in the total hydration sphere is determined by the charge density of the ion.

Crystallographic and Hydrated Radii of Alkali Metal Ions

| Ion | Crystal <br> radii, <br> $\AA$ | Approx. <br> hydrated <br> radii, $\AA$ | Approx. <br> Hydration <br> Number |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\mathrm{Li}^{+}$ | 0.60 | 3.40 | 25 |
| $\mathrm{Na}^{+}$ | 0.95 | 2.76 | 17 |
| $\mathrm{~K}^{+}$ | 1.33 | 2.32 | 11 |
| $\mathrm{Rb}^{+}$ | 1.48 | 2.28 | 10 |
| $\mathrm{Cs}^{+}$ | 1.69 | 2.28 | 10 |

## First Hydration Sphere

The first hydration sphere is defined as the number of water molecules in direct contact with the ion.
$\checkmark$ The number of water molecules in the first hydration sphere depends only on the size of the ion.
$\checkmark$ Typical cations have first hydration spheres with four to six water molecules; e.g.,

$$
\begin{gathered}
\mathrm{Be}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{4}^{2+} \quad \mathrm{Mg}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{6}^{2+} \quad \mathrm{Al}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{6}^{3+} \\
\mathrm{Hg}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{6}{ }^{2+} \quad \mathrm{Cr}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{6}{ }^{3+}
\end{gathered}
$$

## Acidic Hydrated Cations

Ion-dipole attractions have an inductive effect on the $\mathrm{O}-\mathrm{H}$ bonds of the water molecules in the first hydration sphere, which weakens the bond and may allow $\mathrm{H}^{+}$to be lost to solvent water.

water of hydration

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\mathrm{Be}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{4}{ }^{2+}+\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O} \rightleftharpoons \mathrm{Be}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{3} \mathrm{OH}^{+}+\mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{O}^{+} & K_{a}=\sim 1 \times 10^{-5} \\
\mathrm{Cr}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{6}{ }^{3+}+\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O} \rightleftharpoons \mathrm{Cr}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{5} \mathrm{OH}^{2+}+\mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{O}^{+} & K_{a}=1.6 \times 10^{-4}
\end{array}
$$

$\checkmark$ This means that when we dissolve an ionic compound in water, the cation may affect the acid-base character of the solution.

## Acidic and Non-Acidic Hydrated Cations

As the charge density experienced by water molecules in the first hydration sphere increases the acidity increases.
$\checkmark$ Smaller and more highly charged cations tend to be acidic.
$\checkmark$ The alkali and alkaline earth cations (with the exceptions of $\mathrm{Be}^{2+}$ and $\mathrm{Mg}^{2+}$ ) are too large and too lowly charged to have any appreciable acidity.
$\checkmark$ Transition metal cations tend to be more acidic than nontransition metal ions of comparable charge and size, because the poorer shielding $d$-subshell allows more of the nuclear charge to be experienced by the attached water molecules; i.e., they have higher effective nuclear charges, $Z^{*}$.

## Hydrated Cations as Polyprotic Acids

Hydrated cations with appreciable acidity often act as polyprotic acids.
$\checkmark$ Hydrated $\mathrm{Al}^{3+}$ can act as a tetraprotic acid:
$\mathrm{Al}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{6}{ }^{3+}+\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O} \rightleftharpoons \mathrm{Al}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{5} \mathrm{OH}^{2+}+\mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{O}^{+}$
$\mathrm{Al}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{5} \mathrm{OH}^{2+}+\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O} \rightleftharpoons \mathrm{Al}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{4}(\mathrm{OH})_{2}{ }^{+}+\mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{O}^{+}$
$\mathrm{Al}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{4}(\mathrm{OH})_{2}^{+}+\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O} \rightleftharpoons \mathrm{Al}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{3}(\mathrm{OH})_{3}(s)+\mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{O}^{+}$
$\mathrm{Al}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{3}(\mathrm{OH})_{3}(s)+\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O} \rightleftharpoons \mathrm{Al}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{2}(\mathrm{OH})_{4}{ }^{-}+\mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{O}^{+}$
$\checkmark$ The addition of a strong base, such as $\mathrm{OH}^{-}$, is necessary to drive the equilibria to the right by removal of the $\mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{O}^{+}$by neutralization.

# Lewis Acid-Base Theory <br> G. N. Lewis 

Lewis acid - an electron-pair acceptor
Lewis base - an electron-pair donor
$\checkmark$ Lewis acids are "seeking" an electron-pair, and so are called electrophiles.
$\checkmark$ Lewis bases are "seeking" a nucleus to give an electronpair, and so are called nucleophiles.
(Gk. philos, beloved, dear)
$\checkmark$ The product of a Lewis acid-base reaction is often called an adduct.

## Comparison of Theories

$\checkmark$ Acids and bases in Arrhenius and Brønsted-Lowry theories are also acids and bases in Lewis theory: hydronium ion ammonia water ammonium ion

$\begin{array}{ll}e \text {-pair acceptor } & e \text {-pair donor } \\ =\text { acid }=\text { electrophile } & =\text { base }=\text { nucleophile }\end{array}$
$\checkmark$ Some acid-base reactions in Lewis theory are not seen as such by the other theories:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& : \mathrm{NH}_{3} \\
& \text { base }
\end{aligned}+\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{BF}_{3} \\
& \text { acid }
\end{aligned} \rightarrow \quad \begin{gathered}
\mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{~N}: \mathrm{BF}_{3} \\
\text { adduct }
\end{gathered}
$$

## Examples of Lewis Acid-Base Reactions

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{Co}^{3+}+6 \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O} \rightarrow\left[\mathrm{Co}\left(\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)_{6}\right]^{3+} \\
& \text { acid base adduct } \\
& \mathrm{SbF}_{5}+\mathrm{F}^{-} \rightarrow\left[\mathrm{SbF}_{6}\right]^{-} \\
& \text {acid base adduct } \\
& \mathrm{CO}_{2}+\mathrm{OH}^{-} \rightarrow \mathrm{HCO}_{3}^{-} \\
& \text {base adduct }
\end{aligned}
$$

