*ChemFactsheet*



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### **Number 85**

# **Salt Hydrolysis**

#### **To succeed in this topic you need to understand:**

- bonding (covered in Factsheet 5);
- the Brønsted-Lowry theory of acids and bases (covered in Factsheet 25);
- the pH scale of acidity and alkalinity (covered in Factsheet 25);
- complex ion formation (covered in Factsheet 38).

#### **After working through this Factsheet you will:**

- know that there are two ways in which ions can become hydrated;
- understand why salts derived from a weak acid and a strong base are alkaline in solution;
- understand why salts derived from a strong acid and a weak base are acidic in solution;
- understand why salts derived from a strong acid and a strong base are neutral in solution;
- understand why salts derived from a weak acid and a weak base are approximately neutral in solution.

#### **Hydration of ions**

Before you can understand the topic of salt hydrolysis, you need to know about the hydration of ions in aqueous solution.

 *Remember -* Hydration *is defined as 'combination with water'.*

When a salt dissolves in water, it *dissociates*, i.e. its ions break away from their regular arrangement in the crystal and become free to move about in the water. For a salt  $A^{n+} B^{n}$ , this is represented by the equation:

 $AB(s)$  + aq  $\Rightarrow$   $A^{n+}(aq)$  +  $B^{n-}(aq)$ 

The equation is written with two half-arrows because the change is reversible. The reverse change, i.e. the joining together of ions from solution to give the crystalline solid, occurs during crystallisation.

**Exam Hint -** Do not refer to dissociation in this context as 'ionisation'. **Ionisation** means, literally, 'ion formation', but all that happens here is the separation of ions which are already present in the crystal.

Ions exist in solution, not as simple ions, but as *hydrated ions*, i.e. surrounded by shells of water molecules: hence the symbols  $A^{n+}(aq)$  and  $B^{n-}(aq)$  in the above equation.

#### **Why do ions become hdrated?**

There are two causes.

**1.** Common to *all* ions is an effect known as *ion-dipole attraction.* The water molecule is a *dipole*; literally, one with two electrical poles. Because oxygen is more electronegative than hydrogen, the electron pair of each O-H bond is drawn towards the oxygen atom. Consequently, it acquires a slight negative charge, while each hydrogen atom has a slight positive charge:



#### *Remember*

- *•* δ− *represents a small amount of negative charge which is unspecified but less than the charge on an electron. (Conversely for* δ<sup>+</sup> *.)*
- *The molecule* as a whole *is electrically neutral.*

Negatively charged oxygen atoms are attracted to cations, and positively charged hydrogen atoms to anions (Fig 1). There are approximately six water molecules in the primary (i.e. first) hydration shell.





Anions, such as  $CO_3^2$ <sup>-</sup>, Cl<sup>-</sup>, SO<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup> and NO<sub>3</sub><sup>-</sup>, are hydrated by ion-dipole attraction only. The same applies to all cations of the s-block elements, except for Be<sup>2+</sup>.

**2.** For all other cations, notably  $Al^{3+}$  and cations of the transition elements, ion-dipole attraction is reinforced by coordination, i.e. the formation of coordinate bonds (dative covalent bonds) between  $\rm H_2O$ molecules and the cation. The reason is that these cations are relatively small and have a charge of at least 2+. They therefore have a high *surface charge density*, i.e. high density of positive charge on the surface. (Some people say that they have a high charge:radius ratio.)

**Exam Hint -** The term 'surface charge density' refers only to ions. Never apply it to atoms or molecules, because such particles are uncharged and cannot possibly have a charge density.

Any cation with a high surface charge density attracts a lone pair of electrons from the outer shell of the oxygen atom of a water molecule so strongly that the lone pair can be donated from one to the other so that a coordinate bond is formed.

*Remember - A coordinate bond is a special kind of covalent bond, in which* both *electrons of the bond originate from one atom. Once formed, a coordinate bond is identical with a covalent bond.*

Generally, as for  $Al^{3+}$ , six  $H_2O$  molecules are coordinated to a cation so that an octahedral complex is formed.



**1**



Because cations that are hydrated by coordination are complex ions, they can be given formulae and names on the IUPAC system: indeed, to understand the chemistry of salt hydrolysis, this is vital. The hydrated aluminium ion, for example, often represented by the symbol  $Al^{3+}(aq)$ , has the formula  $[A](H_2O)_6]^{3+}$  and is named systematically as the hexaaquaaluminium(III) ion.

 *An important difference betwween ions that are hydrated by ion-dipole attraction only, and those where the attraction is reinforced by coordination, is that the latter are acids on the Brønsted-Lowry theory, i.e. they are proton donors.*

The high surface charge density on the cation causes the electrons of the metal-oxygen bond to be drawn towards the metal. This in turn increases polarisation of the O-H bonds (Fig 2).

#### **Fig 2. Electron shifts in a complex aqua-cation**



This causes weakening of the O-H bonds. You can argue that H atoms become more like protons and hence more easily lost as protons in the presence of a base, i.e. a proton acceptor.

*Remember - On the Brønsted-Lowry theory:*

- *an acid is a species (molecule or ion) that can donate protons.*
- *a base is a species that can accept protons.*
- *neutralisation is a process of proton transfer from acid to base.*
- *every acid is related to a* conjugate base*, i.e. the species formed from it by loss of a proton. For most acids, this is the anion produced on ionisation.*
- *every base is related to a* conjugate acid*, i.e. the species formed from it by gain of a proton.*

#### **Salt hydrolysis**

**Salt hydrolysis is essentially the reverse of neutralisation.** *Neutralisation Acid + Base* → *Salt + Water Salt hydrolysis Salt + Water* → *Acid + Base or Salt + Water* → *Acid + Basic salt*

Both acids and bases can be classed as strong or weak, depending upon their degree of dissociation in water. Salts can therefore be divided into four broad categories.

#### *Salts derived from a weak acid and a strong base*

Such salts undergo partial hydrolysis to give an alkaline solution. An example is sodium ethanoate, which is derived from ethanoic acid (a weak acid) and sodium hydroxide (a strong base).

#### **Practical 1 - Hydrolysis of sodium ethanoate**

Dissolve a few crystals of sodium ethanoate in water at room temperature and measure the pH of the solution with a pH meter, pH paper or universal indicator.

*Note In all Practicals in the Factsheet it is advisable to use freshly deionised water or, failing that, freshly drawn tap water. Water that has been standing is likely to be slightly acidic due to the absorption of CO2 from the air.*

Sodium ethanoate dissociates in solution:

 $CH_3COONa(s) + aq \rightleftharpoons CH_3COO^-(aq) + Na^+(aq)$ 

CH<sub>3</sub>COOH is a weak acid (proton donor); therefore its anion, CH<sub>3</sub>COO<sup>-</sup> , is a strong conjugate base (proton acceptor). This causes ethanoate ions to accept protons from water molecules:

 $CH_3COO^{\circ}(aq) + H_2O(l) \Rightarrow CH_3COOH(aq) + OH^{\circ}(aq)$ 

Consequently,  $[OH^-] > [H_3O^+]$ , i.e. the solution is alkaline.

Ignore Na+ (aq). This cation is hydrated by ion-dipole attraction only and is neither an acid nor a base.

*Remember - Opposites go together.*

- *A strong acid is related to a weak conjugate base, e.g. HCl & Cl*−*.*
- **•** A weak acid is related to a strong conjugate base, e.g.  $CH_{3}COOH$ *& CH3 COO- .*
- *A strong base is related to a weak conjugate acid, e.g. OH*− *& H2 O.*
- A weak base is related to a strong conjugate acid, e.g.  $NH_{_3}$  &  $NH_{_4}^+$ .

#### **Practical 2 - Hydrolysis of sodium carbonate and sodium hydrogencarbonate**

Dissolve small amounts of sodium carbonate and sodium hydrogencarbonate separately in water. Measure the pH value of each solution and try to account for the difference.

Sodium carbonate dissociates:

 $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3(\text{s}) + \text{aq} \Rightarrow 2\text{Na}^+(\text{aq}) + \text{CO}_3^{2-}(\text{aq})$ 

The carbonate ion is the conjugate base of an extremely weak acid (carbonic acid). It strongly attracts protons from  $H_2O$  molecules to give a solution with a pH of ~12:

$$
CO_3^{2-}(aq) + H_2O(l) \Rightarrow HCO_3^-(aq) + OH^-(aq)
$$

In contrast, the hydrogencarbonate ion, with its single negative charge, has a lower surface charge density than the carbonate ion and is a considerably weaker base. It exerts a feeble attraction for protons and the pH of the solution only reaches ~8.5.

*Exam Hint - Beware of questions in which you are asked how, in the* laboratory, you would distinguish between  $Na_{2}CO_{3}$  and  $NaHCO_{3}$ . If *you are allowed to use* any *test, measuring the pH values of their solutions provides a good answer. If, however, you are asked for a* chemical *test, this will not do. For such a question you'd need to suggest a reagent such as magnesium sulphate solution. This would give a white precipitate of MgCO3 with CO3 2-(aq), but no precipitate with HCO3 - (aq) because magnesium hydrogencarbonate is soluble in water.*

#### **Salts derived from a strong acid and a weak base**

All such salts undergo partial hydrolysis to give an acidic solution. However, for study purposes, you must distinguish between two kinds of weak bases.

• Weak covalent bases, e.g. ammonia and amines. Despite being very soluble in water, such compounds give a low concentration of OH<sup>−</sup> ions in solution because of a low degree of ionisation:

 $NH_3(aq) + H_2O(l) \Rightarrow NH_4^+(aq) + OH^-(aq)$ 

• Weak ionic bases, e.g. aluminium hydroxide and transition metal hydroxides. Like ammonia and the amines, these compounds give a low concentration of OH- ions in solution but for a very different reason, namely their low solubility in water.

#### *Salts derived from a strong acid and a weak covalent base*

An example is ammonium chloride, which is derived from hydrochloric acid (a strong acid) and ammonia (a weak base).

#### **Practical 3 - Hydrolysis of ammonium chloride**

Dissolve a few crystals of ammonium chloride in water and measure the pH of the solution.

Ammonium chloride dissociates in solution:

 $NH<sub>4</sub>Cl(s) + aq \Rightarrow NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>(aq) + Cl<sup>-</sup>(aq)$ 

 $NH<sub>3</sub>$  is a weak base; therefore its related cation,  $NH<sub>4</sub>^+$ , is a strong conjugate acid which can donate a proton to a water molecule:

 $NH_4^+(aq) + H_2O(l) \Rightarrow NH_3(aq) + H_3O^+(aq)$ 

Consequently,  $[H_3O^+] > [OH^-]$ , i.e. the solution is acidic. Ignore Cl (aq). This is the conjugate base of an extremely strong acid (HCl) and is therefore an extremely weak base.

**Remember -** For all practical purposes, HCl, HBr, HI, H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> and *HNO3 are almost completely dissociated in aqueous solution.*

#### *Salts derived from a strong acid and a weak ionic base*

An example is aluminium chloride, which is derived from hydrochloric acid and aluminium hydroxide.

#### **Practical 4 Hydrolysis of aluminium chloride**

Dissolve in water a few crystals of aluminium chloride-6-water and measure the pH of the solution.

The salt dissociates in solution:

$$
AICl_{3} \cdot 6H_{2}O(s) + aq \rightleftharpoons [Al(H_{2}O)_{6}]^{3+}(aq) + 3Cl^{2}(aq)
$$

As explained on p 2, the hydrated aluminium ion is an acid on the Brønsted-Lowry theory. One of its coordinated water molecules ionises into H<sup>+</sup> and OH. OH stays where it is, i.e. bonded to aluminium, but H<sup>+</sup> (a proton) is donated to a molecule of solvent water:

$$
[Al(H_2O)_{6}]^{3+}(aq) + H_2O(l) \rightleftharpoons [Al(OH)(H_2O)_{5}]^{2+}(aq) + H_3O^+(aq)
$$

Consequently,  $[H_3O^+] > [OH]$ , i.e. the solution is acidic. Again, Cl (aq) should be disregarded for the reason given above.

*Exam Hint - When writing the formulae of complex ions containing different sorts of ligands, ionic ligands (e.g. OH- ) should be written before molecular ligands, (e.g. H2 O).*

**Practical 5 - Hydrolysis of iron(II) chloride and iron(III) chloride** Dissolve small amounts of iron(II) chloride and iron(III) chloride separately in water. Measure the pH of each solution and try to account for the difference.

Both salts dissociate in solution to give hexaaquacations:

$$
FeCl_2(s) + 6H_2O(l) \Rightarrow [Fe(H_2O)_6]^{2+}(aq) + 2Cl^{-}(aq)
$$

$$
[FeCl3(s) + 6H2O(l) \Rightarrow [Fe(H2O)6]3+(aq) + 3Cl-(aq)
$$

Like  $[A](H_2O)_6]^{3+}$ , both hydrated cations are acidic, e.g.

$$
[Fe(H_2O)_6]^{2*}(aq) + H_2O(l) \Rightarrow [Fe(OH)(H_2O)_5]^{*}(aq) + H_3O^{*}(aq)
$$

Compared with Fe<sup>2+</sup>, however, Fe<sup>3+</sup> has a greater charge and a smaller radius. It therefore has a higher surface charge density than Fe<sup>2+</sup> and causes more polarisation of the O-H bonds of coordinated  $\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O}$  molecules. Proton transfer to solvent  $\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O}$  molecules can therefore occur more readily and the solution has a lower pH.

#### **Salts derived from a strong acid and a strong base**

Such salts do not undergo hydrolysis and their solutions are neutral. An example is sodium chloride, derived from hydrochloric acid and sodium hydroxide.

**Practical 6 - Non-hydrolysis of sodium chloride** Dissolve a little sodium chloride in water and measure the pH of the solution.

Sodium chloride dissociates:

$$
NaCl(s) + aq \rightleftharpoons Na^{+}(aq) + Cl^{-}(aq)
$$

However, Na<sup>+</sup>(aq) is not an acid; neither is Cl<sup>-</sup>(aq) a base. There is therefore no proton transfer of any kind, i.e. no chemical reaction, and the pH of the solution is that of pure water (7.0).

#### **Salts derived from a weak acid and a weak base**

Again, for study purposes, you need to distinguish between weak covalent bases and weak ionic bases.

#### *Salts derived from a weak acid and a weak covalent base*

Such salts undergo extensive hydrolysis to give an approximately neutral solution. An example is ammonium ethanoate, derived from ethanoic acid and ammonia.

#### **Practical 7 - Hydrolysis of ammonium ethanoate**

Dissolve a little ammonium ethanoate in water and measure the pH of the solution.

Ammonium ethanoate dissociates:

**3**

$$
CH_3COONH_4(s) + aq \rightleftharpoons CH_3COO(aq) + NH_4^+(aq)
$$

 $CH<sub>3</sub>COO<sub>3</sub>$  can is a base and accepts protons:

 $CH_3COO^{\dagger}(aq) + H_2O(l) \Rightarrow CH_3COOH(aq) + OH^{\dagger}(aq)$ 

This change *by itself* would make the solution alkaline; but it is not the only reaction.  $NH_4^{\{+}}(aq)$  is an acid and donates protons:

 $NH_4^+(aq) + H_2O(l) \Rightarrow NH_3(aq) + H_3O^+(aq)$ 

This change tends to make the solution acidic. The two effects virtually cancel each other out, with the result that  $[H_3O^+] \approx [OH^+]$ , i.e. the solution is approximately neutral.

#### *Salts derived from a weak acid and a weak ionic base*

An example would be aluminium carbonate, derived from carbonic acid and aluminium hydroxide. Such salts are *completely* hydrolysed in the presence of water and, for this reason, are often said to be 'non-existent'.\*

*\* This statement is debatable. Aluminium oxide is known to absorb carbon dioxide. Is aluminium carbonate formed? Possibly. But it is certain that such salts cannot exist in the presence of water.*

**Answers**

 $\mathfrak{g}$ ) Alkaline

#### *Remember*

- *Salt derived from a weak acid and a strong base* The base is dominant and the solution is alkaline ( $pH > 7.0$ )
- *Salt derived from a strong acid and a weak base*
- The acid is dominant and the solution is acidic ( $pH < 7.0$ )
- *Salt derived from a strong acid and a strong base*
- Neither acid nor base is dominant and the solution is neutral ( $pH = 7.0$ )
- *Salt derived from a weak acid and a weak base* Neither acid nor base is dominant and the solution is more or less neutral ( $pH \approx 7.0$ )

**NOTE** *Although these rules of thumb are useful, they must never be used in an examination to explain salt hydrolysis.*

#### **Questions**

- 1 Explain why the hydrated beryllium ion, unlike other cations of the s-block elements, is a complex ion.
- 2 State whether you would expect each of the following salts to be acidic, alkaline or neutral in aqueous solution.

(a) CuSO<sub>4</sub> (b) NaNO<sub>3</sub> (c) KBr (d) ZnCl<sub>2</sub> (e) 
$$
(NH_4)_2SO_4
$$
 (f)  $C_6H_5NH_3^+Cl^-$  (g) Li<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>

- 3 Unlike many other salts derived from a weak acid and a weak base, ammonium carbonate gives an alkaline solution. Explain this.
- 4 Unlike many other salts derived from a strong acid and a strong base, sodium hydrogensulphate gives a strongly acidic solution. Explain this.
- 5 "Aluminium chloride dissociates in solution to give aluminium ions and chloride ions:

AlCl3 ¾ Al3+ + 3Cl<sup>−</sup> ...(1)

Water ionises to a small extent into hydrogen ions and hydroxide ions:

 $H<sub>2</sub>$ O ¾ H+ + OH<sup>−</sup> ...(2)

Oppositely charged ions attract one another. H<sup>+</sup> and Cl<sup>-</sup> cannot join up to give molecules of HCl because HCl is a very strong acid and completely dissociated in solution, but Al<sup>3+</sup>and OH ions can join together to give solid aluminium hydroxide:

Al3+ + 3OH<sup>−</sup> → Al(OH)3 ..(3)

This disturbs Equilibrium (2) to the right, so that more water ionises to replace the lost OH ions. In this way the solution contains many more

This extract from an old textbook contains one serious error of fact and one serious error of theory. What are they?

hydrogen ions than hydroxide ions and is strongly acidic."

acid NH $_{\star}^{\star}$ , and Reaction 2 occurs to a greater extent than Reaction 1.

Although ammonia is a weak base, carbonic acid is an extremely weak  $\mathfrak s$ cid. Henc $\mathfrak s$ an than than  $\mathfrak c_{\mathfrak s}$  are  $\mathfrak c_{\mathfrak s}$  and  $\mathfrak s_{\mathfrak s}$  are  $\mathfrak s$  and  $\mathfrak s$ 

1 Be<sup>2+</sup> is the smallest of the s-block cations. (Ionic radii decrease from left to right across the Periodic Table and also up the groups.) Be $^{2+}$ therefore has the highest surface charge density and can attract lone pairs of electrons from the oxygen atoms of surrounding water molecules

 $\sum$  (a)  $\Delta$  Acidic (b) Neutral (c)  $\Delta$  Acidic (e)  $\Delta$  Acidic (f)  $\Delta$  Acidic (f)  $\Delta$  Acidic

 $\sup_{\zeta} \left( \mathop{\mathrm{Gal}}\nolimits(\mathrm{b}\mathrm{e})^{-\xi} \mathrm{G} \right)$  but  $(\mathrm{b}\mathrm{e})^{-\xi}$  and  $(\mathrm{b}\mathrm{e})^{-\xi}$  carbonates to  $\mathrm{H}_\zeta$ 

(1 uoi 3 a)  $\mu$  +  $\mu$ <sup>3</sup> (b)  $\mu$  +  $\mu$ <sup>3</sup> (aq)  $\mu$  +  $\mu$ <sup>3</sup> (aq) (keaction 1)

so that coordinate bonds are formed.

in solution. The former is an acid:

and the latter is a base:

(aq) (Reaction 2) − (aq) + OH − 3 HCO <sup>¾</sup> O(l) <sup>2</sup> (aq) + H 2- <sup>3</sup> CO  $\mathcal{S}_{\text{ref}}^{\text{ref}}(O^{\text{c}}H)[V]$  'uoi xəlquoo pəirip $\mathcal{S}_{\text{ref}}$  inq

acid.

**4**

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The aluminium ion in solution is not a simple ion, Al *Error of theory* 3+,

stand.)

inum amount of a small amount of  $N$  stay. (An aluminium hydroxide.  $\mathbb{R}$  in  $\mathbb{R}$  i hydroxide is formed over a period of time if thesolution is allowed to

The process is identical to the second stage in the ionisation of sulphuric

 A solution of aluminium chloride is completely clear (i.e. *Error of fact* 5 transparent). It is not cloudy, as it would be it it contained particles of

 $_4$  Soqin $\mu$  p $\lambda$ porasalphate dissociates to substance  $\mu$ a $\lambda$  is  $\lambda$  $_{2}^{\rm{max}}$  year of  $_{\rm{c}}$  is the conjugate base of  $\rm{H_{200}}$  is  $\rm{m_{100}}$ acid, and is therefore an extremely weak base. However, because of its

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hydrogen atom, it can function as an acid:  $(\text{ba})^* \cdot (\text{ba})^* = (\text{ba})^* \cdot (\text{ba})^* + (\text{ba})^* \cdot (\text{ba})^* + (\text{ba})^* \cdot (\text{ba})^*$