



Noteskarts
— Smart Notes, Bright Future —

B.PHARM SEMESTER I

Pharmaceutical Inorganic and Analytical Chemistry

(Course Code: BP106T)



UNIT II

Acid-Base Chemistry, Buffers and Electrolytes

SHORT NOTES

Condensed Study Notes for Quick Revision (PCI Syllabus, NEP 2020)

www.noteskarts.com

Noteskarts
— Smart Notes, Bright Future —



Noteskarts

— Smart Notes, Bright Future —

STUDY SMARTER WITH NOTESKARTS PRIME

Unit-wise notes, mnemonics and practice questions for D.Pharm and B.Pharm, all in one app.



Noteskarts Prime App
Play Store



YouTube Channel
Free video lectures



noteskarts.com
Website & blog

ALSO ON NOTESKARTS

WhatsApp & Telegram communities for daily updates and doubt-solving

Noteskarts Labs — AI-powered practice tools for quick revision

— Smart Notes, Bright Future —

Short notes for Unit II, covering acid-base chemistry, buffers, and electrolytes. Condensed bullets and tables for fast revision.

2.1 Acids, Bases and Buffer Theory

1. Arrhenius Theory

- **Acid:** A substance that releases H^+ ions in water.
- **Base:** A substance that releases OH^- ions in water.
- **Example:**
 - $\text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{H}^+ + \text{Cl}^-$
 - $\text{NaOH} \rightarrow \text{Na}^+ + \text{OH}^-$

2. Brønsted–Lowry Theory

- **Acid:** A proton (H^+) donor.
- **Base:** A proton (H^+) acceptor.
- This theory explains acid–base reactions through the **transfer of protons**.

3. Lewis Theory

- **Lewis acid:** An **electron-pair acceptor**.
- **Lewis base:** An **electron-pair donor**.
- This is the **broadest** of the three acid–base theories.

Easy Trick to Remember

- **Arrhenius:** H^+ / OH^-
- **Brønsted–Lowry:** Proton donor / acceptor
- **Lewis:** Electron-pair acceptor / donor

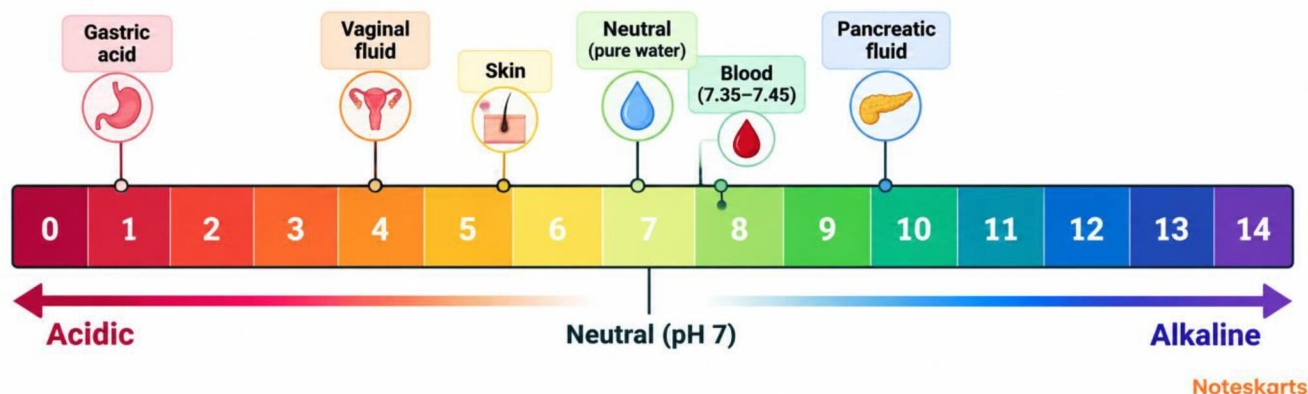
Three Concepts of Acids and Bases		
Arrhenius	Brønsted-Lowry	Lewis
Acid: releases H^+ in water Base: releases OH^- in water	Acid: proton (H^+) donor Base: proton (H^+) acceptor	Acid: electron-pair acceptor Base: electron-pair donor
Example $\text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{H}^+ + \text{Cl}^-$	Example $\text{HA} + \text{B} \rightarrow \text{A}^- + \text{BH}^+$	Example $\text{BF}_3 + \text{:NH}_3 \rightarrow \text{F}_3\text{B-NH}_3$
Each theory widens the definition: Brønsted-Lowry and Lewis also explain reactions with no OH^- or H^+ directly involved, such as many drug-receptor interactions.		

Noteskarts

The three acid-base theories compared

- $\text{pH} = -\log[\text{H}^+]$. $\text{pH} + \text{pOH} = 14$ at 25°C ($K_w = 1 \times 10^{-14}$).

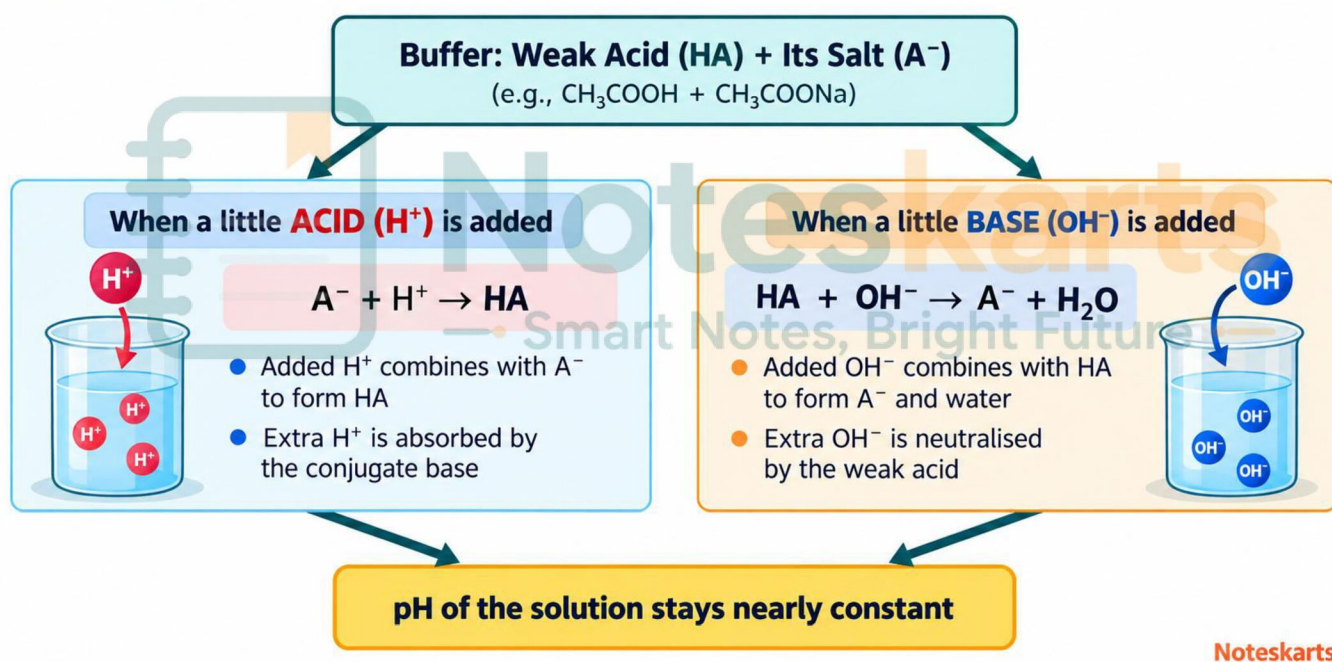
The pH Scale in Pharmacy and Physiology



The pH scale with physiological reference points

- A buffer resists pH change on adding small amounts of acid/base — made of a weak acid + its conjugate base (or weak base + conjugate acid).

How a Buffer Resists Change in pH



How buffer action resists pH change

HENDERSON-HASSELBALCH EQUATION

For Acidic Buffer

- Formula:**

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log\left(\frac{[\text{Salt}]}{[\text{Acid}]}\right)$$
- Used to calculate the **pH of an acidic buffer**.
- $\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a$ when salt : acid = 1 : 1.

For Basic Buffer

- **Formula:**
 $\text{pOH} = \text{pK}_b + \log([\text{Salt}] / [\text{Base}])$
- Then:
 $\text{pH} = 14 - \text{pOH}$
- Used to calculate the **pH of a basic buffer**.

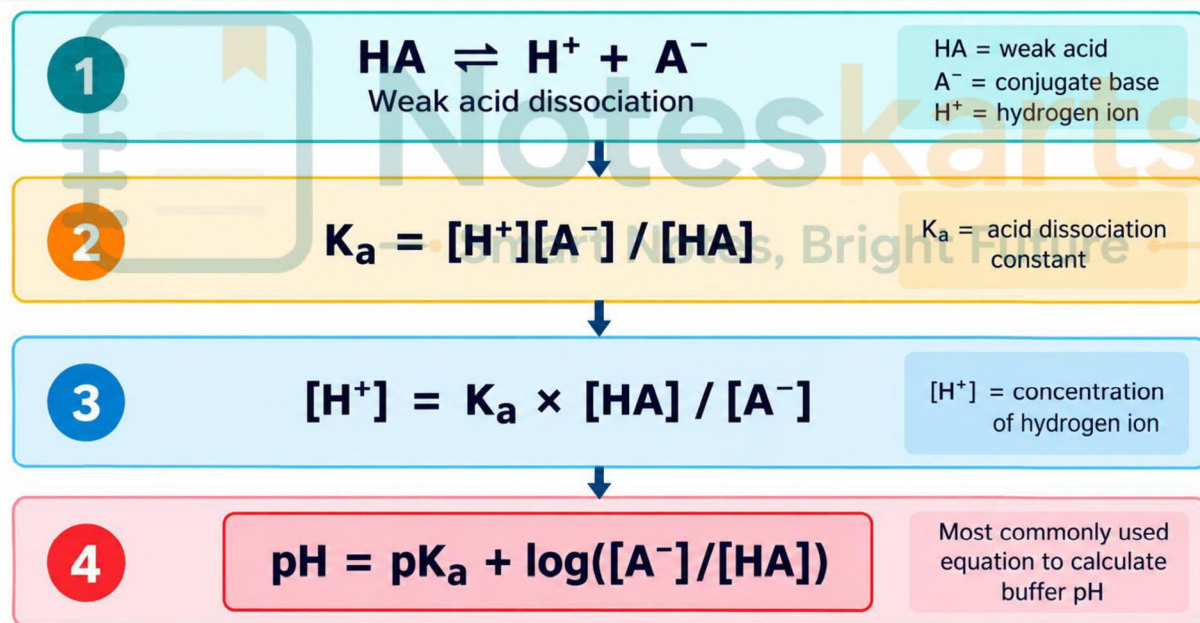
Buffer Capacity

- Buffer capacity means the **ability of a buffer to resist changes in pH**.
- It is **highest when:**
 $\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a$
- At this point:
Salt : Acid = 1 : 1

Easy Point to Remember

$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a \rightarrow \text{Maximum buffer capacity} \rightarrow \text{Salt} = \text{Acid}$

Henderson-Hasselbalch Equation



Noteskarts

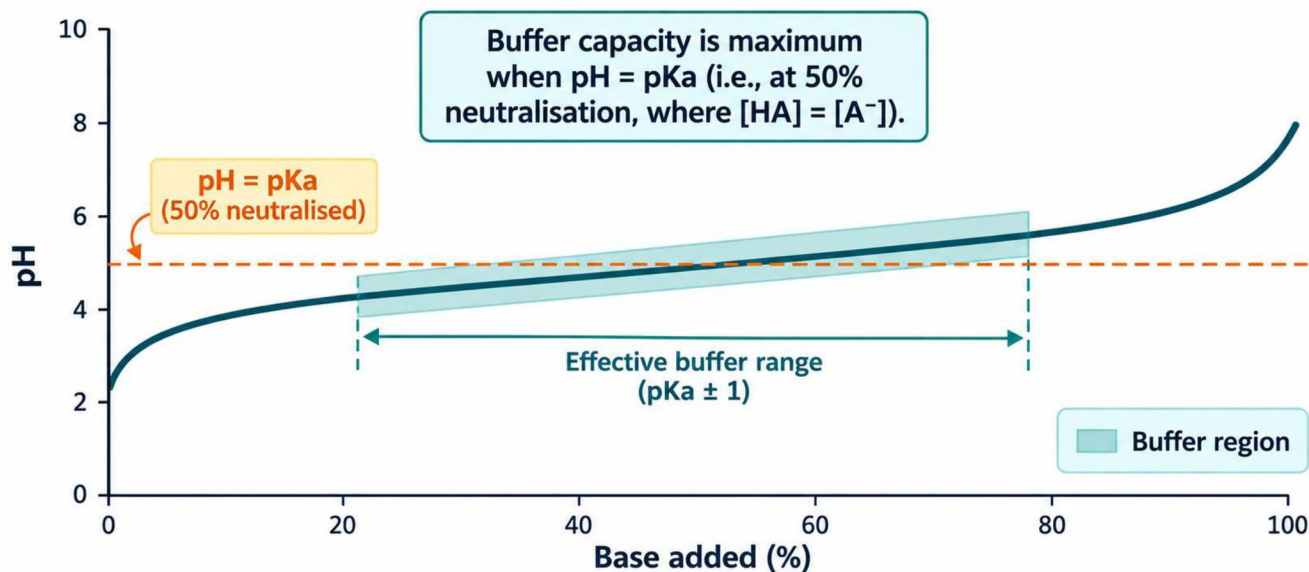
The Henderson-Hasselbalch relationship, visualised

WORKED EXAMPLE — BUFFER PH

Buffer of 0.10 M acetic acid + 0.15 M sodium acetate (pK_a 4.76):

$$\text{pH} = 4.76 + \log(0.15/0.10) = 4.76 + 0.18 = 4.94$$

Buffer Capacity Is Greatest Near $\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a$



The buffer resists change in pH most effectively near $\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a$.

Noteskarts

Buffer capacity peaks at $\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a$

Buffer System	Weak Acid pK_a	Useful pH Range
Acetate	4.76	3.8–5.8
Phosphate	7.21	6.2–8.2
Borate	9.24	8.0–10.0
Carbonate	6.35	5.5–7.0

WORKED EXAMPLE — PREPARING A BUFFER

Given:

- Equal-molar NaH_2PO_4 (acid) and Na_2HPO_4 (salt) stocks are available.
- Required buffer volume = 100 mL
- Required $\text{pH} = 7.4$
- $\text{pK}_{a2} = 7.21$

Step 1: Apply Henderson–Hasselbalch Equation

$$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log\left(\frac{[\text{Salt}]}{[\text{Acid}]}\right)$$

- $7.4 = 7.21 + \log\left(\frac{[\text{Salt}]}{[\text{Acid}]}\right)$
- $\log\left(\frac{[\text{Salt}]}{[\text{Acid}]}\right) = 0.19$
- $\frac{[\text{Salt}]}{[\text{Acid}]} = 10^{0.19} = 1.55$

Step 2: Calculate Fractions

- Total ratio = $1 + 1.55 = 2.55$
- Salt fraction = $1.55 / 2.55 = 0.608 = 60.8\%$

Buffer System	Weak Acid pKa	Useful pH Range
- Acid fraction = $1 / 2.55 = 0.392 = 39.2\%$ Step 3: Prepare 100 mL Buffer Since both stocks have the same molarity: Na_2HPO_4 (salt) = 60.8 mL NaH_2PO_4 (acid) = 39.2 mL - Total = 100 mL Final Answer Mix 60.8 mL of Na_2HPO_4 stock + 39.2 mL of NaH_2PO_4 stock to prepare 100 mL of pH 7.4 buffer. Key idea: Higher pH than pKa $\rightarrow$ more salt (base form) than acid form.		

Buffer Capacity (β)

- Buffer capacity (β)** is the amount of strong acid or strong base required to change the pH of 1 L of buffer by 1 pH unit.
- It indicates the ability of a buffer to resist changes in pH.
- Higher $\beta \rightarrow$ Greater resistance to pH change.

Buffers in Pharmaceutical Dosage Forms

- Injections and ophthalmic solutions:**
 - Buffers are often adjusted close to pH 7.4.
 - This helps improve physiological compatibility.
- Topical creams:**
 - Buffers may be maintained around pH 5.5.
 - This is close to the skin's natural acid mantle.

Easy Point to Remember

Higher β = Stronger buffer = Better resistance to pH change

WORKED EXAMPLE — BUFFER FROM WEIGHED QUANTITIES

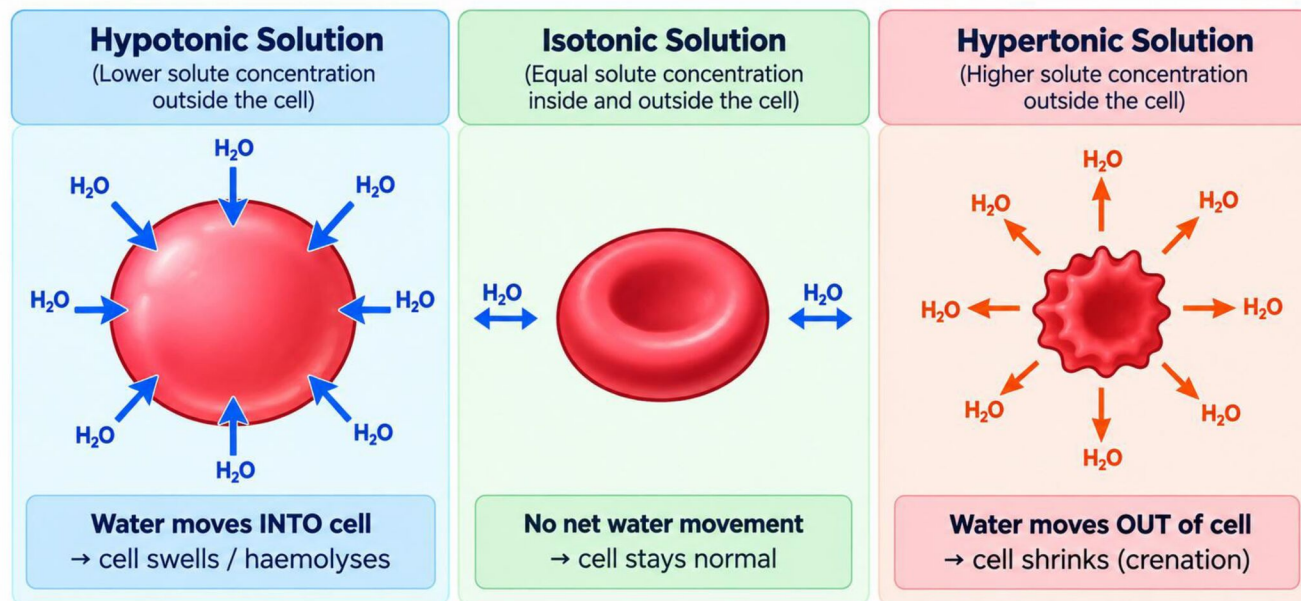
0.410 g sodium acetate (mol. wt. 82) + 0.300 g acetic acid (mol. wt. 60) in 100 mL water. Find pH. (pKa 4.76)

Moles acetate = $0.410/82 = 0.005$ mol; Moles acetic acid = $0.300/60 = 0.005$ mol (equal, so pH = pKa)

pH = $4.76 + \log(1) = 4.76$

2.2 Isotonicity and Its Applications

Effect of Tonicity on a Red Blood Cell



Effect of tonicity on a red blood cell

- **Isotonic solution:** Has approximately the **same osmotic pressure** as body fluids.
 - Example: **0.9% w/v NaCl** is considered isotonic with body fluids.
- **Hypotonic solution:** Has **lower osmotic pressure** than body fluids.
 - Water moves **into the cells**.
 - Cells may **swell and burst (haemolysis)**.
- **Hypertonic solution:** Has **higher osmotic pressure** than body fluids.
 - Water moves **out of the cells**.
 - Cells **shrink (crenation)**.

Van't Hoff Equation

$$\pi = iCRT$$

Where:

- π = osmotic pressure
- i = number of particles produced by the substance
- C = concentration
- R = gas constant
- T = absolute temperature

Example: $\text{NaCl} \rightarrow \text{Na}^+ + \text{Cl}^-$, so $i = 2$.

Methods of Isotonicity Adjustment

1. Freezing Point Depression Method

- The solution is adjusted to have the same freezing point as blood.

- Freezing point of blood is approximately -0.52°C .
- 2. **Sodium Chloride Equivalent (E-value) Method**
 - Uses the **NaCl equivalent value (E-value)** of a drug.
 - Helps calculate the amount of **NaCl needed** to make the solution isotonic.

WORKED EXAMPLE — NaCl EQUIVALENT METHOD

1 g of a drug ($E = 0.18$) made up to 100 mL. Extra NaCl needed for isotonicity?

NaCl already provided = $1 \times 0.18 = 0.18$ g. NaCl needed = 0.9 g. Extra required = $0.9 - 0.18 = 0.72$ g.

Pharmaceutical Importance of Isotonicity

1. Importance of Isotonicity

- **IV fluids:** Proper isotonicity helps prevent:
 - **Haemolysis** – bursting of red blood cells.
 - **Crenation** – shrinking of red blood cells.
- **Ophthalmic solutions:** Appropriate isotonicity helps **reduce eye irritation and discomfort**.
 - The eye can generally tolerate approximately **0.7–1.5% NaCl equivalent**.

2. Osmolarity and Osmolality

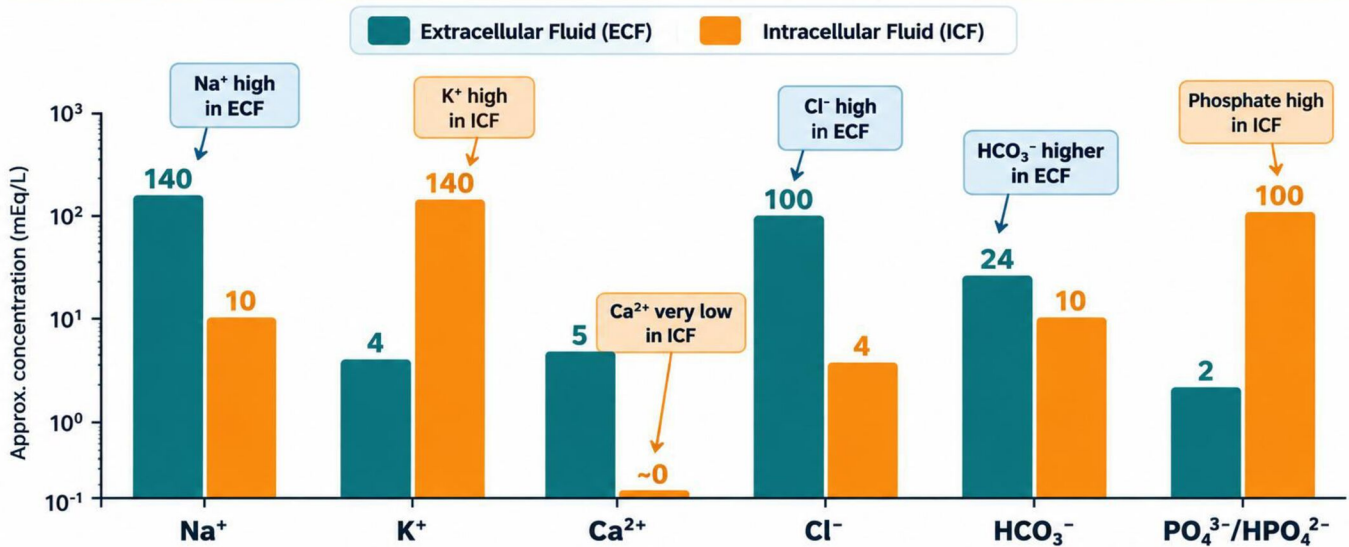
- **Osmolarity:** Number of osmoles per **litre of solution (osmol/L)**.
- **Osmolality:** Number of osmoles per **kilogram of solvent (osmol/kg)**.
- Normal body fluids have an osmolality of approximately **285–295 mOsm/kg**.

3. Effect of Dissociation

- Substances that **dissociate into ions** produce more particles and therefore exert a greater osmotic effect.
- **NaCl:**
 - $\text{NaCl} \rightarrow \text{Na}^+ + \text{Cl}^-$
 - $i \approx 2$
 - Produces approximately **twice the osmotic effect** of a non-dissociating substance at the same molar concentration.
- **Dextrose:**
 - Does not significantly dissociate in solution.
 - $i \approx 1$

2.3 Body Fluid Compartments and Electrolytes

Major Ion Concentrations: ECF vs ICF



Key Takeaways:

- Na^+ and Cl^- are high in ECF
- K^+ and phosphate are high in ICF
- Ca^{2+} is very low in ICF
- HCO_3^- is higher in ECF

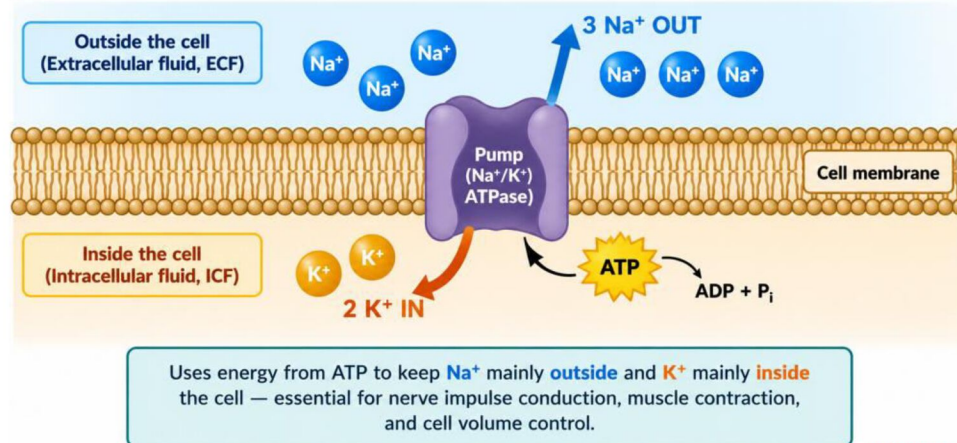
Noteskarts

Extracellular vs intracellular fluid compartments

- Total body water ~60% of body weight: ICF (~2/3) and ECF (~1/3, split into plasma + interstitial fluid).

Ion	Compartment	Key Function	Normal Range
Sodium (Na^+)	ECF (main cation)	Osmolality, nerve conduction	135–145 mEq/L
Potassium (K^+)	ICF (main cation)	Membrane potential, cardiac rhythm	3.5–5.0 mEq/L
Calcium (Ca^{2+})	Bone/ECF	Bone, muscle contraction, clotting	8.5–10.5 mg/dL
Magnesium (Mg^{2+})	ICF	Enzyme cofactor, neuromuscular function	1.5–2.5 mEq/L
Bicarbonate (HCO_3^-)	ECF	Principal acid-base buffer	22–26 mEq/L

The Sodium-Potassium (Na^+/K^+) Pump



Noteskarts

The Na⁺/K⁺ pump maintains the ionic gradient

- Na⁺/K⁺-ATPase pump: uses ATP to keep Na⁺ mainly outside and K⁺ mainly inside the cell (3 Na⁺ out, 2 K⁺ in per cycle).
- Regulation: Na⁺ by RAAS + ADH; K⁺ by aldosterone + insulin; Ca²⁺ by PTH, calcitonin, and vitamin D.

Replacement Therapy

Replacement Therapy

Replacement therapy is used to **replace fluids or essential electrolytes** that are low in the body.

1. Sodium Chloride (NaCl)

- Used to replace **fluid and sodium**.
- **0.9% NaCl** → isotonic fluid replacement.
- **3% NaCl** → hypertonic solution used in **severe hyponatraemia**.

2. Potassium Chloride (KCl)

- Used to treat **hypokalaemia (low potassium)**.
- **Never give KCl as a rapid or undiluted IV injection.**
- Rapid administration can cause **dangerous heart problems or cardiac arrest**.

3. Calcium Chloride

- Used for:
 - **Hypocalcaemia**
 - **Hyperkalaemia**, where it helps protect the heart.
- It is **irritant to tissues**, so extravasation should be avoided.

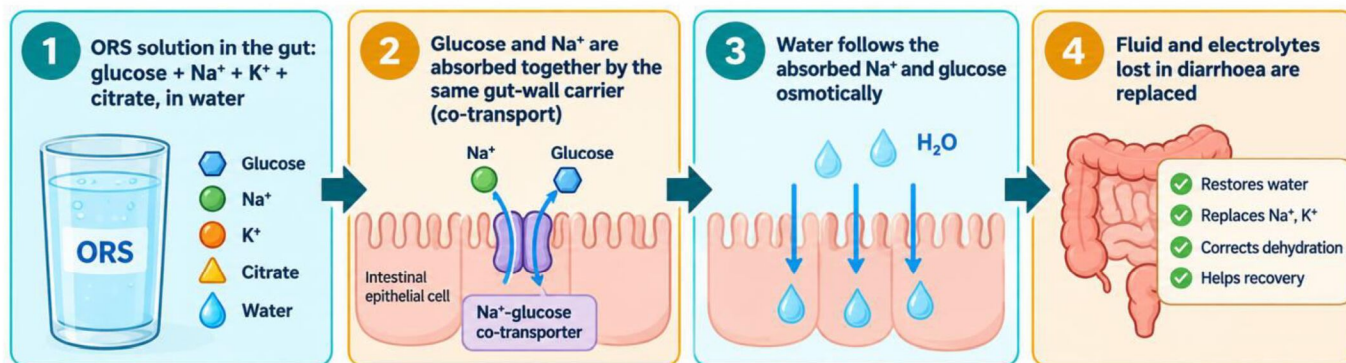
4. Magnesium Sulphate (MgSO₄)

- Used to treat **hypomagnesaemia (low magnesium)**.
- Also used in **pre-eclampsia and eclampsia** to help prevent or control seizures.

5. Compatibility Precaution

- **Calcium salts should not be mixed directly** with solutions containing:
 - **Bicarbonate**
 - **Phosphate**
- They can form **insoluble precipitates**.
- Keep them separate unless **compatibility has been confirmed**.

How Oral Rehydration Salt (ORS) Works



How ORS works: glucose-sodium co-transport

- ORS (WHO reduced-osmolality formula, per litre): NaCl 2.6 g, glucose 13.5 g, KCl 1.5 g, trisodium citrate 2.9 g — works via glucose-Na⁺ co-transport (SGLT1), remains active during diarrhoea.

2.4 Physiological Acid-Base Balance

Bicarbonate Buffer System in Blood



Excess acid is neutralised by HCO₃⁻.
Excess base is neutralised by H₂CO₃.
Lungs remove CO₂; kidneys regulate HCO₃⁻ — keeping blood pH at 7.35–7.45.

The bicarbonate buffer system in blood

Bicarbonate Buffer System

- The **bicarbonate buffer system** is the **main buffer system in blood**.
- It maintains blood pH through the following equilibrium:



- H_2CO_3 = Carbonic acid
- HCO_3^- = Bicarbonate ion

Role in Acid–Base Balance

- **Excess acid** is neutralised by HCO_3^- (bicarbonate).
- **Excess base** is neutralised by H_2CO_3 (carbonic acid).
- **Lungs** regulate CO_2 rapidly, within minutes.
- **Kidneys** regulate HCO_3^- more slowly, over hours to days.
- Normal blood pH is approximately **7.35–7.45**.

Henderson–Hasselbalch Equation for Blood

$$\text{pH} = 6.1 + \log([\text{HCO}_3^-] / (0.03 \times \text{pCO}_2))$$

Where:

- $[\text{HCO}_3^-]$ = bicarbonate concentration in mEq/L
- pCO_2 = partial pressure of carbon dioxide in mmHg
- **6.1** = pKa of the bicarbonate buffer system
- **0.03** = solubility coefficient of CO_2 in blood

Other Buffer Systems

- **Phosphate buffer:** $\text{H}_2\text{PO}_4^- / \text{HPO}_4^{2-}$
- **Protein buffers:** Plasma proteins and haemoglobin
- These are particularly important:
 - **Inside cells**
 - In the **kidney tubules**
 - In **urine**

WORKED EXAMPLE — BLOOD PH

$\text{HCO}_3^- = 24 \text{ mEq/L}$, $\text{pCO}_2 = 40 \text{ mmHg}$. Find blood pH.

$$\text{pH} = 6.1 + \log(24/(0.03 \times 40)) = 6.1 + \log(20) = 6.1 + 1.30 = 7.40 \text{ (normal)}$$

Primary Acid-Base Disorders

Lungs (fast) vs Kidneys (slow) compensate for each other

Respiratory Acidosis

(Primary $\uparrow \text{CO}_2$)



$\uparrow \text{CO}_2$ retention

(e.g. COPD, sedation, respiratory depression)

Due to decreased ventilation $\rightarrow \text{CO}_2$ accumulates $\rightarrow \downarrow \text{pH}$

Respiratory Alkalosis

(Primary $\downarrow \text{CO}_2$)



$\downarrow \text{CO}_2$ (hyperventilation)

(e.g. anxiety, high altitude, pain, fever)

Due to increased ventilation $\rightarrow \text{CO}_2$ decreases $\rightarrow \uparrow \text{pH}$

Metabolic Acidosis

(Primary $\downarrow \text{HCO}_3^-$)



$\downarrow \text{HCO}_3^-$ or acid gain

(e.g. diarrhoea, DKA, renal failure, lactic acidosis)

Due to loss of bicarbonate or gain of acid $\rightarrow \downarrow \text{pH}$

Metabolic Alkalosis

(Primary $\uparrow \text{HCO}_3^-$)



$\uparrow \text{HCO}_3^-$ or acid loss

(e.g. vomiting, diuretics, NG suction)

Due to gain of bicarbonate or loss of acid $\rightarrow \uparrow \text{pH}$

Normal arterial blood values: pH: 7.35 – 7.45 | pCO_2 : 35 – 45 mmHg | HCO_3^- : 22 – 26 mEq/L

The four primary acid-base disorders

Disorder	Primary Change	Common Cause	Compensation
Respiratory acidosis	$\uparrow \text{pCO}_2$	COPD, respiratory depression	Kidneys retain HCO_3^- (slow)
Respiratory alkalosis	$\downarrow \text{pCO}_2$	Hyperventilation	Kidneys excrete HCO_3^- (slow)
Metabolic acidosis	$\downarrow \text{HCO}_3^-$	Diarrhoea, DKA, renal failure	Lungs $\uparrow$ ventilation (fast)
Metabolic alkalosis	$\uparrow \text{HCO}_3^-$	Vomiting, diuretics	Lungs $\downarrow$ ventilation (fast)

- Anion gap = $\text{Na}^+ - (\text{Cl}^- + \text{HCO}_3^-)$; normal $\approx 8-12$ mEq/L. High gap $\rightarrow$ unmeasured acid (lactate/ketones); normal gap $\rightarrow$ direct HCO_3^- loss (e.g. diarrhoea).
- Compensation brings pH back toward normal but rarely restores it completely, and never overshoots into the opposite abnormality — a useful check when interpreting a blood gas result.
- Mixed acid-base disorders (more than one primary process at once) are recognised when the degree of compensation seen doesn't match what would be expected for a single, pure disorder.

WORKED EXAMPLE — ANION GAP

$\text{Na}^+ = 138$, $\text{Cl}^- = 100$, $\text{HCO}_3^- = 14$ mEq/L.

Anion gap = $138 - (100+14) = 24$ mEq/L — high, indicating an unmeasured acid (e.g. lactate or ketones).

COMMON MISTAKES

Assuming buffer capacity is the same at any pH — in fact capacity is sharply peaked around $\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a$ and falls away quickly beyond about one pH unit on either side.

Forgetting that Molarity and Normality differ for polyprotic/multivalent species — always check n before converting.

Giving potassium chloride as a rapid IV push — always dilute and infuse slowly.

► Key Terms — Unit II

Term	Meaning
pKa	pH at which a weak acid is exactly half dissociated
Isotonic	Same effective solute concentration (osmotic effect) as body fluids
E value	Grams of NaCl producing the same osmotic effect as 1 g of a given drug
Anion gap	$\text{Na}^+ - (\text{Cl}^- + \text{HCO}_3^-)$; helps classify metabolic acidosis
Compensation	The body's secondary response that partially corrects a primary acid-base disturbance



Noteskarts
— Smart Notes, Bright Future —



STUDY SMARTER WITH NOTESKARTS PRIME

Unit-wise notes, mnemonics and practice questions for D.Pharm and B.Pharm,
all in one app.



Noteskarts Prime App
Play Store



YouTube Channel
Free video lectures



noteskarts.com
Website & blog

ALSO ON NOTESKARTS

WhatsApp & Telegram communities for daily updates and doubt-solving
Noteskarts Labs — AI-powered practice tools for quick revision