

Course Summary.

- Dependence of rate on concentration.
- Experimental methods in reaction kinetics.
- Kinetics of multistep reactions.
- Dependence of rate on temperature.

Recommended reading.

1. P.W. Atkins, Kimia Fisika (terjemahan), jilid 2, edisi keempat, Jakarta: Erlangga, 1999.

- 2. P.W. Atkins, Physical Chemistry, 5th ed., Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1994
- 3. Gordon M. Barrow, Physical Chemistry
- 4. Arthur M. Lesk, Introduction to Physical Chemistry



Chemical Kinetics.

Lecture 1. Review of Basic concepts.



Reaction Rate: The Central Focus of Chemical Kinetics





Chemical reaction kinetics.

- Chemical reactions involve the forming and breaking of chemical bonds.
- Reactant molecules (H₂, I₂) approach one another and collide and interact with appropriate energy and orientation. Bonds are stretched, broken and formed and finally product molecules (HI) move away from one another.
- How can we describe the rate at which such a chemical transformation takes place?

products

$$H_2(g) + I_2(g) \rightarrow 2HI(g)$$

• Thermodynamics tells us all about the energetic feasibility of a reaction : we measure the Gibbs energy ΔG for the chemical Reaction.

• Thermodynamics does not tell us how quickly the reaction will proceed : it does not provide kinetic information.

Basic ideas in reaction kinetics.

- Chemical reaction kinetics deals with the rate of velocity of chemical reactions.
- We wish to quantify
 - The velocity at which reactants are transformed to products
 - The detailed molecular pathway by which a reaction proceeds (the reaction mechanism).
- These objectives are accomplished using experimental measurements.
- Chemical reactions are said to be activated processes : energy (usually thermal (heat) energy) must be introduced into the system so that chemical transformation can occur. Hence chemical reactions occur more rapidly when the temperature of the system is increased.
- In simple terms an activation energy barrier must be overcome before reactants can be transformed into products.

Reaction Rate.

- What do we mean by the term reaction rate?
 - The term rate implies that something changes with respect to something else.
 - How may reaction rates be determined ?

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- The reaction rate is quantified in terms of the change in concentration of a reactant or product species with respect to time.
- This requires an experimental measurement of the manner in which the concentration changes with time of reaction. We can monitor either the concentration change directly, or monitor changes in some physical quantity which is directly proportional to the concentration.
- The reactant concentration decreases with increasing time, and the product concentration increases with increasing time.
- The rate of a chemical reaction depends on the concentration of each of the participating reactant species.
- The manner in which the rate changes in magnitude with changes in the magnitude of each of the participating reactants is termed the reaction order.



Net reaction rate Units : mol dm⁻³ s⁻¹



Rate, rate equation and reaction order : formal definitions.

• The reaction rate (reaction velocity) R is quantified in terms of changes in concentration [J] of reactant or product species J with respect to changes in time. The magnitude of the reaction rate changes as the reaction proceeds.

$$R_{J} = \frac{1}{\upsilon_{J}} \lim_{\Delta t \to 0} \frac{\Delta[J]}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{\upsilon_{J}} \frac{d[J]}{dt}$$

$$R_{J} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d[H_{2}]}{dt} = -\frac{d[O_{2}]}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d[H_{2}O]}{dt}$$

$$R_{J} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d[H_{2}]}{dt} = -\frac{d[O_{2}]}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d[H_{2}O]}{dt}$$

• Note : Units of rate :- concentration/time , hence R_J has units mol dm⁻³s⁻¹. υ_J denotes the *stoichiometric coefficient* of species J. If J is a reactant υ_J is negative and it will be positive if J is a product species.

• Rate of reaction is often found to be proportional to the molar concentration of the reactants raised to a simple power (which need not be integral). This relationship is called the *rate equation*. The manner in which the reaction rate changes in magnitude with changes in the magnitude of the concentration of each participating reactant species is called the *reaction order*.

Problem Example:

The rate formation of NO in the reaction:

2NOBr(g) ----> 2NO(g) + Br2(g)

was reported as $1.6 \times 10-4 \text{ mol/(L s)}$.

What is the rate of reaction and the rate of consumption of NOBr ?

Measuring Rate Laws: Isolation

F'r instance: $A + B \rightarrow Products$

$$R = \frac{1}{v_A} \frac{d[A]}{dt} = \frac{1}{v_B} \frac{d[B]}{dt} = \frac{1}{v_Z} \frac{d[Z]}{dt}$$

form of rate law : $v(t) = k[A]^{\alpha}[B]^{\beta}$

Choose conditions : [A] >> [B]

 $\therefore [A] - d[A] \approx [A] \qquad (Method of isolation)$ $R = k[A]^{\alpha}[B]^{\beta} \approx k'[B]^{\beta} \qquad k' = k[A]^{\alpha}$ $if [A] << [B]: R \approx k''[A]^{\alpha} \qquad k'' = k[B]^{\beta}$

Measuring Rate Laws: Initial Rates

F'r instance: A + B \rightarrow Products $R = k[A]^{\alpha}[B]^{\beta}$

$$R = \frac{1}{\nu_A} \frac{d[A]}{dt} = k[A]^{\alpha} [B]^{\beta} \approx \frac{1}{\nu_A} \frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t} \qquad \Delta t \to dt$$

measure $R_1 @ [B]_1, R_2 @ [B]_2$, etc. $[A]_0 - d[A] \approx [A]_0; \quad [B]_j - d[B] \approx [B]_j \quad (\Delta t \to dt)$

$$R_{1} = k[A]_{0}^{\alpha}[B]_{1}^{\beta} \approx \frac{1}{\nu_{A}} \left(\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t}\right)_{1} \quad 1 \text{ st measurement}$$
$$R_{2} = k[A]_{0}^{\alpha}[B]_{2}^{\beta} \approx \frac{1}{\nu_{A}} \left(\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t}\right)_{2} \quad 2 \text{ nd measurement}$$

Measuring Rate Laws: Initial Rates

$$R_{1} = k[A]_{0}^{\alpha}[B]_{1}^{\beta} \approx \frac{1}{\nu_{A}} \left(\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t}\right)_{1} \quad \text{1st measuremen } t$$

$$R_{2} = k[A]_{0}^{\alpha}[B]_{2}^{\beta} \approx \frac{1}{\nu_{A}} \left(\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t}\right)_{2} \quad \text{2nd measuremen } t$$

$$\frac{R_{1}}{R_{2}} = \frac{k[A]_{0}^{\alpha}[B]_{1}^{\beta}}{k[A]_{0}^{\alpha}[B]_{2}^{\beta}} = \left(\frac{[B]_{1}}{[B]_{2}}\right)^{\beta} \quad \therefore \beta = \frac{\ln(R_{1}/R_{2})}{\ln([B]_{1}/[B]_{2})}$$

$$\frac{R_{3}}{R_{4}} = \frac{k[A]_{3}^{\alpha}[B]_{0}^{\beta}}{k[A]_{4}^{\alpha}[B]_{0}^{\beta}} = \left(\frac{[A]_{3}}{[A]_{4}}\right)^{\alpha} \quad \therefore \alpha = \frac{\ln(R_{3}/R_{4})}{\ln([A]_{3}/[A]_{4})}$$



for the reaction.

Limits to methods of isolation and initial rates

- Assumed reactants can be mixed in any proportion desired
- Reaction rate can be measured
- Mixing time (~1ms) vs. reaction time

Other approaches:

- Relaxation methods (e.g. temperature jump)
- Time resolved methods

Different rate equations imply different mechanisms.

$$H_2 + X_2 \rightarrow 2HX$$
$$X = I, Br, Cl$$

$$H_{2} + I_{2} \rightarrow 2HI$$

$$R = \frac{d[HI]}{dt} = k[H_{2}][I_{2}]$$

$$H_{2} + Br_{2} \rightarrow 2HBr$$

$$R = \frac{d[HBr]}{dt} = \frac{k[H_{2}][Br_{2}]^{1/2}}{1 + \frac{k'[HBr]}{[Br_{2}]}}$$

$$H_{2} + Cl_{2} \rightarrow 2HCl$$

$$R = \frac{d[HCl]}{dt} = k[H_{2}][Cl_{2}]^{1/2}$$

• The rate law provides an important guide to reaction mechanism, since any proposed mechanism must be consistent with the observed rate law.

- A complex rate equation will imply a complex multistep reaction mechanism.
- Once we know the rate law and the rate constant for a reaction, we can predict the rate of the reaction for any given composition of the reaction mixture.
- We can also use a rate law to predict the concentrations of reactants and products at any time after the start of the reaction.

Zero order kinetics. The reaction proceeds at the same rate R regardless of concentration.





 $(rate)_{t} \propto [A]_{t}$ $(rate)_{t} = k[A]_{t}$

is valid generally for any time t. k is the first order rate constant, units: s⁻¹

Reactant concentration

as function of time.











n th order kinetics: equal reactant concentrations.









 $n = 0, 2, 3, \dots$

rate constant k obtained from slope



Half life

 $\tau_{1/2} \propto a_0^{1-n}$

n > 1 $\tau_{1/2} \downarrow as a_0$

$$\tau_{1/2} = \frac{2^{n-1} - 1}{(n-1)ka_0^{n-1}}$$

$$\ln \tau_{1/2} = \ln \left\{ \frac{2^{n-1} - 1}{(n-1)k} \right\} - (n-1) \ln a_0$$

$$\tau_{1/2} \propto a_0^{1-n}$$

$$n > 1 \quad \tau_{1/2} \downarrow as a_0 \uparrow$$

$$n < 1 \quad \tau_{1/2} \uparrow as a_0 \uparrow$$

$$reaction order n determined$$

$$from slope$$



Summary of kinetic results.

$$nA \xrightarrow{k} P$$

$$t = 0 \quad a = a_0$$
$$t = \tau_{1/2} \quad a = \frac{a_0}{2}$$

| Ra | te equation | | | <u></u> |
|-------------------|----------------------|---|---|---|
| Reaction Order | $R = -\frac{da}{dt}$ | Integrated expression | Units of k | Half life $\tau_{1/2}$ |
| 0 | k | $a(t) = -kt + a_0$ | mol dm ⁻³ s ⁻¹ | $\frac{a_0}{2k}$ |
| 1 | ka | $\ln\left\{\frac{a_0}{a(t)}\right\} = kt$ | s ⁻¹ | $\frac{\ln 2}{k}$ |
| 2 | ka^2 | $\frac{1}{a(t)} = kt + \frac{1}{a_0}$ | dm ³ mol ⁻¹ s ⁻¹ | $\frac{1}{ka_0}$ |
| 3 | ka^3 | $\frac{1}{a(t)^2} = 2kt + \frac{1}{a_0^2}$ | dm ⁶ mol ⁻² s ⁻¹ | $\frac{3}{2ka_0^2}$ |
| n | ka " | $\frac{1}{a^{n-1}} = (n-1)kt + \frac{1}{a_0^{n-1}}$ | | $\frac{1}{n-1} \left\{ \frac{2^{n-1}-1}{ka_0^{n-1}} \right\}$ |

Problem Examples:

- A first order reaction is 40% complete at the end of 1 h. What is the value of the rate constant? In how long will the reaction be 80 % complete ?
- 2. The half-life of the radioactive disintegration of radium is 1590 years. Calculate the decay constant. In how many years will three-quarters of the radium have undergone decay ?
- Derive the rate equation for reaction whose orders are:
 (a). one-half, (b). three and a-half, (c). 4, and (d). n !



Tujuan Perkuliahan:

- 1. Menurunkan Rate Law dari Kinetika Reaksi yang lebih Kompleks,
- 2. Menjelaskan Consecutive Reactions:
 - a. Rate Determining Steps,
 - b. Steady State Approximation.

Reference:

- 1. P.W. Atkins, Physical Chemistry, 5th ed, Oxford: 1994
- 2. Ira N. Levine, Physical Chemistry

Second order kinetics: Unequal reactant concentrations.

$$A + B \xrightarrow{k} P$$

rate equation

$$R = -\frac{da}{dt} = -\frac{db}{dt} = \frac{dp}{dt} = kab$$

initial conditions

$$t = 0 \quad a = a_0 \quad b = b_0 \quad a_0 \neq b_0$$

integrate using
partial fractions
$$F(a,b) = \frac{1}{b_0 - a_0} \left\{ \ln\left(\frac{b/b_0}{a/a_0}\right) \right\} = kt$$

Consecutive Reactions .

•Mother / daughter radioactive decay.

 $^{218}Po \rightarrow^{214}Pb \rightarrow^{214}Bi$ $k_1 = 5 \times 10^{-3} s^{-1}$ $k_2 = 6 \times 10^{-4} s^{-1}$

3 coupled LDE's define system :

$$\frac{da}{dt} = -k_1 a$$
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k_1 a - k_2 x$$
$$\frac{dp}{dt} = k_2 x$$

$$A \xrightarrow{k_1} X \xrightarrow{k_2} P$$

Mass balance requirement:

$$p = a_0 - a - x$$

The solutions to the coupled equations are :

$$a(t) = a_0 \exp[-k_1 t]$$

$$x(t) = \frac{k_1 a_0}{k_2 - k_1} \{ \exp[-k_1 t] - \exp[-k_2 t] \}$$

$$p(t) = a_0 - a_0 \exp[-k_1 t] - \frac{k_1 a_0}{k_2 - k_1} \{ \exp[-k_1 t] - \exp[-k_2 t] \}$$

We get different kinetic behaviour depending on the ratio of the rate constants k_1 and k_2

Consecutive reaction : Case I. Intermediate formation fast, intermediate decomposition slow.



Step II is rate determining since it has the highest activation energy barrier. reaction co-ordinate

The reactant species A will be more reactive than the intermediate X.



Initial reactant A more reactive than intermediate X.

Concentration of intermediate significant over time course of reaction.



reaction co-ordinate



Intermediate X is fairly reactive. Concentration of intermediate X will be small at all times.

normalised concentration

1.0

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

0.0

τ = k₁t





 Reactant A decays rapidly, concentration of intermediate species X is high for much of the reaction and product P concentration rises gradually since X--> P transformation is slow.



 Reactant A decays slowly, concentration of intermediate species X will be low for the duration of the reaction and to a good approximation the net rate of change of intermediate concentration with time is zero. Hence the intermediate will be formed as quickly as it is removed. This is the *quasi steady state approximation* (QSSA).

Parallel reaction mechanism.

• We consider the kinetic analysis of a concurrent or parallel reaction scheme which is often met in real situations.

• A single reactant species can form two distinct products.

We assume that each reaction exhibits 1st order kinetics.

- Initial condition : t= 0, a = a₀ ; x = 0, y = 0
- Rate equation:

$$R = -\frac{da}{dt} = k_1 a + k_2 a = (k_1 + k_2)a = k_{\Sigma} a$$

$$a(t) = a_0 \exp[-k_{\Sigma} t] = a_0 \exp[-(k_1 + k_2)t]$$

• Half life:
$$\tau_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{k_{\Sigma}} = \frac{\ln 2}{k_1 + k_2}$$



 k_1 , $k_2 = 1^{st}$ order rate constants

We can also obtain expressions for the product concentrations x(t) and y(t).

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = k_1 a = k_1 a_0 \exp\left[-(k_1 + k_2)t\right]$$
$$x(t) = k_1 a_0 \int_0^t \exp\left[-(k_1 + k_2)t\right] dt$$
$$x(t) = \frac{k_1 a_0}{k_1 + k_2} \left\{1 - \exp\left[-(k_1 + k_2)t\right]\right\}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dt} = k_2 a = k_2 a_0 \exp\left[-(k_1 + k_2)t\right]$$
$$y(t) = k_2 a_0 \int_0^t \exp\left[-(k_1 + k_2)t\right] dt$$
$$y(t) = \frac{k_2 a_0}{k_1 + k_2} \left\{1 - \exp\left[-(k_1 + k_2)t\right]\right\}$$

• All of this is just an extension of simple Final product analysis 1st order kinetics.

$$\lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{x(t)}{y(t)} = \frac{k_1}{k_2}$$
Parallel Mechanism: $k_1 >> k_2$



Parallel Mechanism: $k_2 \gg k_1$



Reaching Equilibrium on the Macroscopic and Molecular Level



Chemical Equilibrium : a kinetic definition.

- Countless experiments with chemical systems have shown that in a state of equilibrium, the concentrations of reactants and products no longer change with time.
- This apparent cessation of activity occurs because under such conditions, all reactions are microscopically reversible.
- We look at the dinitrogen tetraoxide/ nitrogen oxide equilibrium which occurs in the gas phase.



N₂O_{4 (g) 2 NO_{2 (g)} colourless brown Kinetic analysis. $\vec{R} = k[N_2O_4]$ $\vec{R} = k'[NO_2]^2$ Valid for any time t k = k = k = k = k = k}

First order reversible reactions : understanding the approach to chemical equilibrium.



Rate equation
$$\frac{da}{dt} = -ka + k'b$$

Initial condition t = 0 $a = a_0$ b = 0

Mass balance condition
$$\forall t \quad a+b=a_0$$

Introduce normalised variables.

$$u = \frac{a}{a_0} \quad v = \frac{b}{a_0} \quad \tau = (k + k')t \quad \theta = \frac{k}{k'}$$

$$u + v = 1$$

$$\tau = 0 \quad u = 1 \quad v = 0$$

Rate equation in normalised form



Solution produces the concentration expressions

$$u(\tau) = \frac{1}{1+\theta} \{1 + \theta \exp[-\tau]\}$$
$$v(\tau) = \frac{\theta}{1+\theta} \{1 - \exp[-\tau]\}$$

$$Q(\tau) = \frac{v(\tau)}{u(\tau)} = \theta \left\{ \frac{1 - \exp[-\tau]}{1 + \theta \exp[-\tau]} \right\}$$

Reaction quotient Q

First order reversible reactions: approach to equilibrium.



Understanding the difference between reaction quotient Q and Equilibrium constant K.







Chemical Kinetics.

Lecture 3/4.

Application of the Steady State Approximation: Macromolecules and Enzymes.



Consecutive reaction mechanisms.

$$A \xrightarrow{k_1} X \xrightarrow{k_2} P$$

 $\frac{du}{du} = -u + \kappa v$

 $\frac{dw}{dw} = \phi v$

 $\forall \tau \quad u + v + w = 1$

 $u = \frac{a}{a_0} \quad v = \frac{x}{a_0} \quad w = \frac{p}{a_0}$

 $\tau = 0$ u = 1 v = w = 0

 $\kappa = \frac{k_{-1}}{k_1} \quad \phi = \frac{k_2}{k_1} \quad \tau = k_1 t$

 $d\tau$

 $d\tau$

Rate

equations

Step I is reversible, step II is Irreversible.

Coupled LDE's can be solved via Laplace Transform or other methods.

$$u(\tau) = \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} \{ (\kappa + \phi - \alpha) \exp[-\alpha \tau] - (\kappa + \phi - \beta) \exp[-\beta \tau] \}$$
$$v(\tau) = \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} \{ \exp[-\alpha \tau] - \exp[-\beta \tau] \}$$
$$w(\tau) = 1 - \frac{1}{\beta - \alpha} \{ \beta \exp[-\alpha \tau] - \alpha \exp[-\beta \tau] \}$$

Note that α and β are composite quantities containing the individual rate constants.

$$\alpha\beta = \phi$$
$$\alpha + \beta = 1 + \kappa + \phi$$

Definition of normalised variables and initial condition.

QSSA assumes that



Using the QSSA we can develop more simple rate equations which may be integrated to produce approximate expressions for the pertinent concentration profiles as a function of time. The QSSA will only hold provided that:

- the concentration of intermediate is small and effectively constant, and so :
- the net rate of change in intermediate concentration wrt time can be set equal to zero.

$$\frac{dw_{ss}}{d\tau} \cong \phi v_{ss} = \frac{\phi}{\kappa + \phi} \exp\left[-\left(\frac{\phi}{\kappa + \phi}\right)\tau\right]$$
$$w_{ss} \cong \frac{\phi}{\kappa + \phi} \int_{0}^{\tau} \exp\left[-\left(\frac{\phi}{\kappa + \phi}\right)\tau\right] d\tau$$
$$= 1 - \exp\left[-\left(\frac{\phi}{\kappa + \phi}\right)\tau\right]$$





Concentration versus log time curves for reactant A, intermediate X and product P when full set of coupled rate equations are solved without any approximation.

 $k_{-1} \gg k_1, k_2 \gg k_1$ and $k_{-1} = k_2 = 50$. The concentration of intermediate X is very small and approximately constant throughout the time course of the experiment.

Concentration versus log time curves for reactant A, intermediate X, and product P when the rate equations are solved using the QSSA. Values used for the rate constants are the same as those used above. QSSA reproduces the concentration profiles well and is valid.

QSSA will hold when concentration of intermediate is **small** and **constant**. Hence the rate constants for getting rid of the intermediate $(k_{-1} \text{ and } k_2)$ must be much larger than that for intermediate generation (k_1) .





Concentration versus log time curves for reactant A, intermediate X and product P when full set of coupled rate equations are solved without any approximation. $k_{1} \ll k_{1}, k_{2}, k_{1}$ and $k_{1} = k_{2} = 0.1$ The concentration of intermediate is high and it is present throughout much

of the duration of the experiment.



normalised concentration 0.0 0.01 0.1 10 1 log τ Concentration versus log time curves for reactant A, intermediate X and product P when the Coupled rate equations are solved using the quasi steady state approximation. The same values for the rate constants were adopted as above. The QSSA is not good in predicting how the intermediate concentration

Ρ

100

u(τ)

ν(τ) w(τ)

1.2

1.0

0.8

0.6

0.4

0.2

varies with time, and so it does not apply under the condition where the concentration of intermediate will be high and the intermediate is long lived.

Macromolecule Formation : Polymerization.



X = Cl, vinyl chloride

Polymerization of vinyl halides occurs via a chain growth addition polymerization mechanism.

3 step process :

- initiation
- propagation
- termination

Polymer = large molar mass molecule (Macromolecule).

Chain initiation : highly reactive transient molecules or active centers (such as free radicals formed. Chain propagation : addition of monomer molecules to active chain end accompanied by regeneration of terminal active site. Chain termination : reaction in which active chain centers are destroyed.

We focus on radical addition polymerization . Kinetics of polymerization quantified via $\ensuremath{\mathsf{QSSA}}$.

Free Radical Addition Polymerization.



Free Radical Addition Polymerization. Analysis of the steady state kinetics.



Propagating macroradical

concentration will be small

Application of QSSA. Kinetics of enzyme reactions.

Enzymes are very specific biological catalysts. A catalyst is a substance that increases the rate of a reaction without itself being consumed by the process.

A catalyst lowers the Gibbs energy of activation ΔG[†] by providing a different mechanistic pathway by which the reaction may proceed. This alternative mechanistic path enhances the rate of both the forward and reverse directions of the reaction.
The catalyst forms an intermediate with the reactants in the initial step of the reaction (a binding reaction), and is released during the product forming step.
Regardless of the mechanism and reaction energetics a catalyst does not effect ΔH or ΔG of the reactants and products. Hence catalysts increase the rate of approach to equilibrium, but cannot alter the value of the thermodynamic equilibrium constant.



A reactant molecule acted upon by an enzyme is termed a substrate. The region of the enzyme where the substrate reacts is called the active site. Enzyme specificity depends on the geometry of the active site and the spatial constraints imposed on this region by the overall structure of the enzyme molecule.



Enzyme lock/key mechanism : natural molecular recognition.



Mechanism of enzyme action.







Classification of enzymes.



| Oxidoreductases | Transfer electrons | | |
|-----------------|---|--|--|
| Transferases | Transfer functional groups | | |
| Hydrolases | Transfer functional groups to water | | |
| Lyases | Transfer groups to or from double bonds | | |
| Isomerases | Transfer groups within molecules | | |
| Ligases | Transfer by joining groups | | |



 K_M = Michaelis constant (mol dm⁻³) k_c = catalytic rate constant (s⁻¹) c = substrate concentration (mol dm⁻³) e_{Σ} = total enzyme concentration (mol dm⁻³). $u=c/K_M$ This is an example of a complex rate equation, where the reaction rate varies with reactant concentration in a non linear way.



What forms does the enzyme take?

• free enzyme E• bound enzyme ES• $e_{\Sigma} = x + e$

total initial enzyme concentration Usually $e_{\Sigma} \ll s$. Subsequent to mixing one has an initial period during which x = [ES] builds up. We then assume that the equilibrium concentration of ES is rapidly attained and reaches a constant low value during the course of the reaction. This requirement satisfies the QSSA.

QSSA

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \{k_1 s + k_{-1} + k_2 + k_{-2} p\} x_{SS} - k_1 s e_{\Sigma} - k_{-2} p e_{\Sigma} \cong 0$$

Let's assume that measurement of the reaction rate occurs during a time period when only a small percentage (1-3%) of substrate is transformed to product.

 $p \cong 0$ *initial substrate* $s \cong s_0 \leftarrow concentration$



Fundamental kinetic parameters : K_M and k_C .

 K_M : enzyme/substrate binding k_C : decomposition of enzyme/substrate complex.



Michaelis

constant

How can we evaluate K_M and k_C ?

initial rate

s-1

mol dm⁻³

- Non linear least squares fitting to MM equation.
- Suitable linearization of MM equation.



Lineweaver-Burk Plot.

 $R_{\Sigma,0} = \frac{k_C e_{\Sigma} s_0}{K_M + s_0}$

Michaelis-Menten (MM)

equation for steady

 $R_{\Sigma} \cong R_{\Sigma,0} \cong \frac{k_1 k_2 e_{\Sigma} s_0}{k_{-1} + k_2 + k_1 s_0} = \frac{k_2 e_{\Sigma} s_0}{k_{-1} + k_2 + k_1 s_0}$





We consider two limiting behaviours.

• $s_0 \ll K_M$ unsaturated enzyme kinetics ; not all active sites bound with substrate • $s_0 \gg K_M$ saturated enzyme kinetics ; all active sites bound with substrate.





RDS

• k

E + S

$$1 + \theta \cong \theta = \frac{k_2}{k_{-1}}$$
$$k_U \cong K_1 k_2 \left(\frac{k_{-1}}{k_2}\right) = k_{-1} K_1 = k_1$$

k₂

 $\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{P}$

ES

When $k_2 >> k_{-1}$, ES complex
decomposition to form
products is faster than ES
decomposition back to
reactants. The rds will
involve the rate of ombination
of E and S to form the ES
complex. The ES complex
will be short lived since it
does not accumulate to form
products.When $k_2 >> k_{-1}$, ES complex
will be short lived since it
form
products.

k_1

ES

k

E + S

 k_{2}

 $\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{P}$

$\theta \ll 1$ scenario.



Have a fast pre-equilibrium followed by a slow rate determining decomposition of the ES complex to form products.



Catalysis at solid surfaces.



Processes Based on Catalysis

| Table 16.7 Some Modern Processes Based on Catalysis | | | | |
|---|---|------------------------------|--|--|
| Reactants | Catalyst | Product | Use | |
| Homogeneous | | | | |
| Propylene, oxidizer | Mo(VI) complexes | Propylene oxide | Polyurethane foams; polyesters | |
| Methanol, CO | [Rh(CO) ₂ I ₂] ⁻ | Acetic acid | Poly (vinyl acetate) coatings; poly(vinyl alcohol) | |
| Butadiene, HCN | Ni/P compounds | Adiponitrile | Nylons (fibers, plastics) | |
| α -Olefins, CO, H ₂ | Rh/P compounds | Aldehydes | Plasticizers, lubricants | |
| Heterogeneous | | | | |
| Ethylene, O ₂ | Silver, cesium chloride on alumina | Ethylene oxide | Polyesters, ethylene glycol, lubricants | |
| Propylene, NH ₃ , O ₂ | Bismuth molybdates | Acrylonitrile | Plastics, fibers, resins | |
| Ethylene | Organochromium and titanium halides on silica | High-density polyethylene | Molded products | |

The Metal-Catalyzed Hydrogenation of Ethylene $H_{1}C = CH_{2}(\alpha) + H_{2}(\alpha) = ---$



Adsorption at gas/solid interface.

Adsorption. Term used to describe the process whereby a molecule (the *adsorbate*) forms a bond to a solid surface (an *adsorbent*).

Fractional surface coverage θ

 $\theta = \frac{N_s}{N_s}$

 $\frac{N_s}{N_{\varsigma}} \leftarrow number \text{ of sites occupied by adsorbate} \\ \leftarrow total number \text{ of adsorption sites}$

When $\theta = 1$, $N_S = N_{\Sigma}$ and an adsorbed monolayer is formed. The fractional coverage θ depends on pressure of adsorbing gas phase species. This $\theta = \theta(p)$ relationship is called an adsorption isotherm.

Langmuir Adsorption Isotherm.



Simple approach to quantitatively describe an adsorption process at the gas/solid interface.

Assumptions :

• solid surface is homogeneous and contains a number of equivalent sites, each of which is occupied by a single adsorbate molecule

- a dynamic equilibrium exists between gas phase reactant and adsorbed species
- no interactions between adsorbed species
- adsorbed species localised, ΔH_{ads} is independent of coverage θ

associative adsorption



A similar analysis can be done for dissociative adsorption.

Adsorption ~ rate $R_A = k_A p (1-\theta)^2$ Desorption $R_D = k_D \theta^2$ $\frac{1}{\theta}$ rate At equilibrium : S = - $R_A = R_D$ \sqrt{K} $k_{A} p (1-\theta)^2 = k_D \theta^2$ θ^2 $\frac{k_A}{i} p = Kp$ Adsorption isotherm for dissociative adsorption.



Kinetics of surface reactions.

Assume that gaseous reactant decomposes when it is adsorbed.



Surface coverage related to gas pressure p via Langmuir adsorption isotherm

We can consider two limits.

High pressures.



Rate independent of Gas pressure p Zero order kinetics.

Adsorption rate very large when p is high. Decomposition step rds.

Low pressures.



Rate depends linearly on gas Pressure p First order kinetics. Adsorption process is rate determining when p is low. Decomposition is fast.
Adsorption energetics.

Adsorption of a gas on a solid is an exothermic process : ΔH_{ads} is negative.

Both adsorption and desorption processes follow the Arrhenius equation.



adsorption pre-exponential factor



desorption pre-exponential factor

 $R = gas \ constant = 8.314 \ J \ mol^{-1} \ K^{-1}$

 A_{ads}

$$K = \frac{k_A}{k_D} = \frac{A_A}{A_D} \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta H_{ads}}{RT}\right]$$
$$\Delta H_{ads} = E_A - E_D$$



Chemical Kinetics.

Lectures 5-6. Microscopic theory of chemical reaction kinetics.

Temperature effects in chemical kinetics.

- Chemical reactions are activated processes : they require an energy input in order to occur.
- Many chemical reactions are activated via thermal means.
- The relationship between rate constant k and temperature T is given by the empirical Arrhenius equation.

$$E_A = -R\left(\frac{d\ln k}{d(1/T)}\right) = RT^2\left(\frac{d\ln k}{dT}\right)$$

$$\ln k \qquad Slope = -\frac{E_A}{R}$$

$$\frac{1}{T}$$

Microscopic theories of chemical reaction kinetics.

- A basic aim is to calculate the rate constant for a chemical reaction from first principles using fundamental physics.
- Any microscopic level theory of chemical reaction kinetics must result in the derivation of an expression for the rate constant that is consistent with the empirical Arrhenius equation.
- A microscopic model should furthermore provide a reasonable interpretation of the pre-exponential factor A and the activation energy E_A in the Arrhenius equation.
- We will examine two microscopic models for chemical reactions :
 - The collision theory.
 - The activated complex theory.
- The main emphasis will be on **gas phase bimolecular reactions** since reactions in the gas phase are the most simple reaction types.

References for Microscopic Theory of Reaction Rates.

- Collision Theory.
 - Atkins, de Paula, Physical Chemistry 7th edition, Chapter 27, Section. 27.1, pp.944-951.
- Activated Complex Theory.
 - Atkins, de Paula, Physical Chemistry 7th edition, Chapter 27, Section.27.4-27.5, pp. 956-961.

Collision theory of bimolecular gas phase reactions.

- We focus attention on gas phase reactions and assume that chemical reactivity is due to collisions between molecules.
- The theoretical approach is based on the kinetic theory of gases.
- Molecules are assumed to be hard structureless spheres. Hence the model neglects the discrete chemical structure of an individual molecule. This assumption is unrealistic.
- We also assume that no interaction between molecules until contact.
- Molecular spheres maintain size and shape on collision. Hence the centres cannot come closer than a distance δ given by the sum of the molecular radii.
- The reaction rate will depend on two factors :
 - the number of collisions per unit time (the collision frequency)
 - the fraction of collisions having an energy greater than a certain threshold energy E*.

Simple collision theory : quantitative aspects.



Two basic requirements dictate a collision event.

- One must have an A,B encounter over a sufficiently short distance to allow reaction to occur.
- Colliding molecules must have sufficient energy of the correct type to overcome the energy barrier for reaction. A threshold energy E* is required.

Two basic quantities are evaluated using the Kinetic Theory of gases : the collision frequency and the fraction of collisions that activate molecules for reaction.

To evaluate the collision frequency we need a mathematical way to define whether or not a collision occurs.



Collision cross section

The *collision cross section* for two molecules can be regarded to be the area within which the center of the projectile molecule A must enter around the target molecule B in order for a collision to occur.

Hit or miss: the impact parameter b.

Cross sectional Area of disc



Collision impossible



Maxwell-Boltzmann velocity

Distribution function

$$F(v) = 4\pi v^2 \left\{ \frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right\}^{3/2}$$



- The velocity distribution curve has a very characteristic shape.
- A small fraction of molecules move with very low speeds, a small fraction move with very high speeds, and the vast majority of molecules move at intermediate speeds.
- The bell shaped curve is called a Gaussian curve and the molecular speeds in an ideal gas sample are Gaussian distributed
- The shape of the Gaussian distribution curve changes as the temperature is raised.
- The maximum of the curve shifts to higher speeds with increasing temperature, and the curve becomes

Intermediate broader as the temperature temperature increases.

A greater proportion of the gas molecules have high speeds at high temperature than at low temperature.

The collision frequency is computed via the kinetic Theory of gases.

We define a collision number (units: $m^{-3}s^{-1}$) Z_{AB} .

 $n_j =$ number density of molecule j (units : m⁻³)

$$\delta = r_A + r_B$$

Mean relative velocity evaluated via kinetic theory.

Average velocity of a gas molecule

$$\left\langle v \right\rangle = \int_{0}^{\infty} v F(v) dv$$
$$F(v) = 4\pi v^{2} \left\{ \frac{m}{2\pi k_{B}T} \right\}^{3/2} \exp\left[-\frac{mv^{2}}{2k_{B}T} \right]$$

Maxwell-Boltzmann velocity Distribution function MB distribution of velocities enables us to statistically estimate the spread of molecular velocities in a gas

Some maths !

 $\sum Z_{AB} = \pi \, \delta^2 n_A n_B \langle v_r \rangle$ Mean relative velocity Units: m²s⁻¹





Temperature and the Distribution of Collision Energies

Molecular collision is effective only if translational energy of reactants is greater than some threshold value.

Fraction of molecules with kinetic energy greater Than some minimum Threshold value ε^*



Activation Energy

Table 16.5 The Effect of E_a and T on the Fraction (f) of Collisions with Sufficient Energy to Allow Reaction

| E _a (kJ/mol) | f (at T = 298 K) |
|-------------------------|--|
| 50 | 1.70×10 ⁻⁹ |
| 75 | 7.03×10 ⁻¹⁴ |
| 100 | 2.90×10 ⁻¹⁸ |
| Т | $f(\text{at } E_{\text{a}} = 50 \text{ kJ/mol})$ |
| 25°C (298 K) | 1.70×10 ⁻⁹ |
| 35°C (308 K) | 3.29×10 ⁻⁹ |
| 45°C (318 K) | 6.12×10 ⁻⁹ |

The simple collision theory expression for the reaction rate R between unlike molecules

$$R = -\frac{dn_A}{dt} = Zn_A n_B \exp\left[-\frac{\varepsilon^*}{k_B T}\right]$$

$$Z = \sigma \left\{ \frac{8k_B T}{\pi \ \mu} \right\}^{1/2}$$

• The more usual rate expression for a bimolecular reaction between A and B is

B

A

• We introduce molar variables

$$E^* = N_A \varepsilon^*$$

$$a = \frac{n_A}{N_A} \quad b = \frac{n_A}{N_A}$$
Avogadro
constant
$$\frac{dn_A}{dt} = N_A \frac{da}{dt}$$

• Hence the SCT rate expression becomes

$$\mathbf{R} = -\frac{da}{dt} = ZN_A ab \exp\left[-\frac{E^*}{RT}\right]$$

 $R = -\frac{da}{dt} = kab$

dt

- The bimolecular rate constant for collisions between unlike molecules is given by
- Similarly for bimolecular collisions
 between like molecules

Both of these expressions are similar to the Arrhenius equation.

$$\sum k = 2N_A \sigma \left\{ \frac{k_B T}{\pi m} \right\}^{1/2} \exp\left[-\frac{E^*}{RT} \right]$$

$$= z_{AA} \exp\left[-\frac{E^*}{RT} \right]$$
Collision
Frequency
factor
$$k = N_A \sigma \left\{ \frac{8k_B T}{\pi \mu} \right\}^{1/2} \exp\left[-\frac{E^*}{RT} \right]$$

$$= z_{AB} \exp\left[-\frac{E^*}{RT} \right]$$

We compare the results of SCT with the empirical Arrhenius eqn. In order to obtain an interpretation of the activation energy and Pre-exponential factor.



SCT : a summary.

- The major problem with SCT is that the threshold energy E* is very difficult to evaluate from first principles.
- The predictions of the collision theory can be critically evaluated by comparing the experimental pre-exponential factor with that computed using SCT.
- We define the steric factor P as the ratio between the experimental and calculated A factors.
- We can incorporate P into the SCT expression for the rate constant.
- For many gas phase reactions
 P is considerably less than unity.
- Typically SCT will predict that A_{calc} will be in the region 10¹⁰-10¹¹ Lmol⁻¹s⁻¹ regardless of the chemical nature of the reactants and products.

$$P = A_{\rm exp} / A_{\rm calc}$$

$$k = Pz_{AB} \exp\left[-\frac{E^*}{RT}\right]$$
$$k = Pz_{AA} \exp\left[-\frac{E^*}{RT}\right]$$

- What has gone wrong? The SCT assumption of hard sphere collision neglects the important fact that molecules possess an internal structure. It also neglects the fact that the relative orientation of the colliding molecules will be important in determining whether a collision will lead to reaction.
- We need a better theory that takes molecular structure into account. The activated complex theory does just that .

Summary of SCT.



A, A encounters





Steric factor (Orientation requirement)

Weaknesses:

- No way to compute P from molecular parameters
- No way to compute E* from first principles.
- Theory not quantitative or predictive. Strengths:
- •Qualitatively consistent with observation (Arrhenius equation).
- Provides plausible connection between microscopic molecular properties and macroscopic reaction rates.
- Provides useful guide to upper limits for rate constant k.

Potential Energy Surface for a chemical reaction.

$$A + BC \rightarrow \left[ABC\right]^* \rightarrow AB + C$$



Contour diagram illustrating reaction coordinate.



Potential energy/reaction coordinate diagram.



Activated Complex Theory (ACT)

of chemical reaction kinetics.

Progress of a chemical reaction can be expressed in terms of a plot of energy versus reaction co-ordinate. The reaction coordinate may be described in terms of changes in particular bond lengths since these will vary as the reaction progresses.







The *transition state* or *activated complex* is a high energy species of fleeting (ca fs lifetime, $1 \text{ fs} = 10^{-15} \text{ s}$) existence. Its structure has features both of the reactants and the products. 1999 Nobel Prize in Chemistry awarded to **Ahmed Zewail** from Caltech for his studies of transition states of chemical reactions by femtosecond spectroscopy using laser technology. Experimental study of very short timescales is called *femtochemistry*.



Transition states can have different geometries.







Relating Arrhenius parameters and ACT results.



ACT interpretation of the Arrhenius equation.

$$k_{m} = \kappa \left(\frac{k_{B}T}{h(c^{0})^{m-1}}\right) \exp\left[m + \frac{\Delta S^{0*}}{R}\right] \exp\left[-\frac{E_{A}}{RT}\right]$$

m = molecularity

$$\Delta S^{0*} \text{ explained in terms of changes in translational, rotational and vibrational degrees of freedom on going from reactants to TS.
$$A = \kappa \left(\frac{k_B T}{h(c^0)^{m-1}}\right) \exp\left[m + \frac{\Delta S^{0*}}{R}\right]$$

$$Pre-exponential factor related to entropy of activation (difference in entropy between reactants and activated complex)
$$A = PZ = \kappa \left(\frac{k_B T}{h(c^0)^{m-1}}\right) \exp\left[m + \frac{\Delta S^{0*}}{R}\right]$$

$$P \cong 1 \quad \Delta S^{0*} \cong 0$$

$$P < 1 \quad \Delta S^{0*} \text{ negative} \leftarrow TS \text{ more ordered than reactants translations} than reactants translation theory term of active factor than reactants to TS.$$$$$$