General Chemistry



Chapter 7: Chemical Kinetics

Chemical Kinetics

- > Chemical Kinetics
- > Rate of reaction: unit of rate of reaction
- > Types of rate of reaction: Average and Instantaneous
- > Equivalent rate expression
- > Rate Law: rate constant, order of reaction
- > Zero, 1st, 2nd 3rd and fractional order
- ➤ Unit of rate constant for 0, 1, 2, 3 order of reaction
- > Experimental determination of rate law [order of reaction]
- > Types of rate law: Differential and Integrated rate law
- > Elementary and Complex reaction
- > Reaction mechanism: Molecularity

Chemical Kinetics

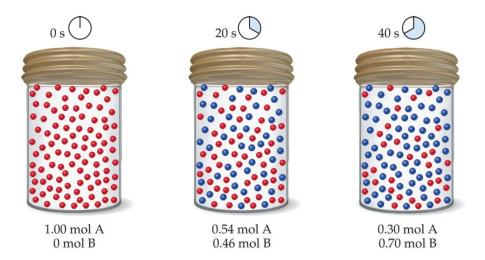
- * Chemical kinetics, also known as reaction kinetics, is the branch of physical chemistry that is concerned with understanding of the rates of chemical reactions.
- * Besides information about the speed at which reactions occur, kinetics also sheds light on the reaction mechanism (exactly how the reaction occurs).

Reaction Rates

Rates of reactions can be determined by monitoring the change in concentration of either reactants or products with a change in time.

$$A \longrightarrow B$$

$$-\frac{\Delta A}{\Delta t} = + \frac{\Delta B}{\Delta t} = rate$$



rate is always expressed as a positive value • Reaction rate is measured in terms of the changes in concentrations of reactants or products per unit time.

Rate with respect to A

Rate =
$$\frac{Change in concentration of A}{change in time} = -\frac{Conc. A_2 - Conc. A_1}{t_2 - t_1} = -\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t}$$

☐ The negative sign is used because the concentration of A is decreasing. This gives the rate a positive value

Rate with respect to B

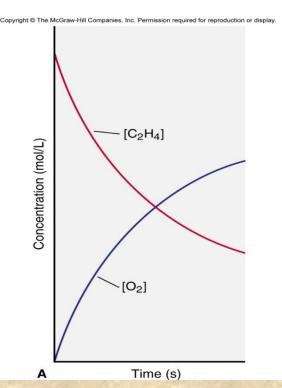
Rate = Change in concentration of B
change in time =
$$\frac{Conc. B_2 - Conc. B_1}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\Delta[B]}{\Delta t}$$

□ Square brackets indicate a concentration in moles per liter and time in second . So the unit of rate of reaction is mole/lit-sec

$$C_2H_4(g) + O_3(g) \longrightarrow C_2H_4O(g) + O_2(g)$$

Time (s)	Concentration of O ₃ (mol/L)	
0.0	3.20x10 ⁻⁵	$\Delta [C_2]$
10.0	2.42x10 ⁻⁵	rate =
20.0	1.95x10 ⁻⁵	_ 4[0
30.0	1.63x10 ⁻⁵	$=-\frac{1}{\Delta t}$
40.0	1.40x10 ⁻⁵	
<i>50.0</i>	1.23x10 ⁻⁵	
60.0	1.10x10 ⁻⁵	

$C_2H_4 + O_3 \rightarrow C_2H_4O + O_2$



 $[O_2]$ increases just as fast as $[C_2H_4]$ decreases.

$$Rate = -\frac{\Delta [C_2 H_4]}{\Delta t} = -\frac{\Delta [O_3]}{\Delta t}$$

$$=\frac{\Delta[C_2H_4O]}{\Delta t}=\frac{\Delta[O_2]}{\Delta t}$$

☐ Equivalent rate expression: For a general reaction

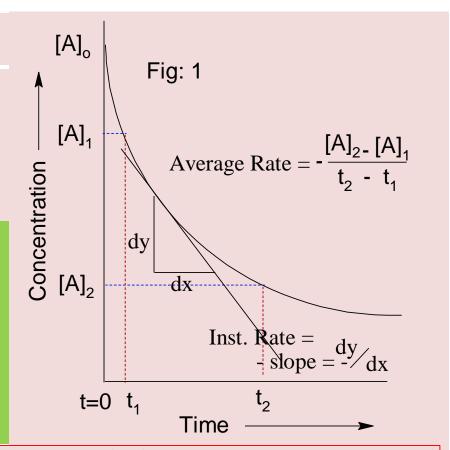
Then, equivalent rate expression is given by;

$$Rate = -\frac{1}{a} \frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t} = -\frac{1}{b} \frac{\Delta[B]}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{c} \frac{\Delta[C]}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{d} \frac{\Delta[D]}{\Delta t}$$

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(a) Average rate of reaction:

- ☐ The rate of change of concentration of reactants or products per unit interval of time is called average rate of reaction.
- □ Note that the average rate
 decreases as the reaction
 proceeds. This is because as the
 reaction goes forward, there are
 fewer collisions between reactant
 molecules.



Average rate of reaction =
$$\frac{\left| change \text{ in concentration of } A \right|}{time \text{ taken}} = \frac{\left| change \text{ in concentration of } B \right|}{time \text{ taken}}$$

= $\frac{-\Delta[A]}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta[B]}{\Delta t}$ where, $\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t}$, represents the decrease of concentration with time

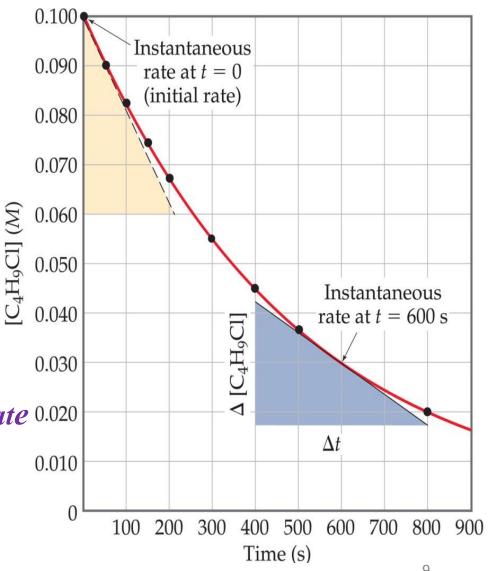
(b) Instantaneous rate of reaction:

A plot of concentration vs. time for this reaction yields a curve like this.

- The rate of a reaction at a particular instant in time is called instantaneous rate.
- The slope of the tangent to the curve at any point is the instantaneous rate at that instant in time.

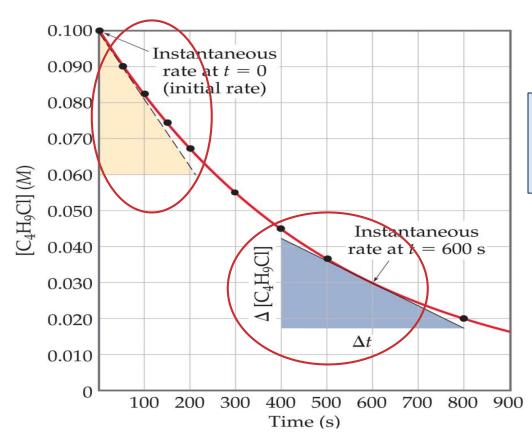
$$-\frac{\Delta A}{\Delta t} = -\frac{d[A]}{dt} = Instantaneous \ rate \ 0.020$$
$$\Delta t \to 0$$

Rate =
$$-\frac{dx}{dt}$$



The reaction slows down with time because the concentration of the reactants decreases.

$$-\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t} = \frac{d[A]}{dt} = Instantaneous \ rate = slope$$
$$\Delta t \to 0$$



Instantaneous rate = $(Average\ rate)\ \Delta t \rightarrow 0$

Factors Influencing Reaction Rates

1. Reactant Concentration: molecular collisions are required for reactions to occur

reaction rate a collision frequency a concentration

2. Physical State: molecules must mix to collide

When reactants are in <u>different phases</u>, the more finely divided a solid or liquid reactant, the greater the surface area per unit volume, the more contact it makes with other reactants, and the faster the reaction.

3. Temperature: molecules must collide with sufficient energy to react

Higher T translates into more collisions per unit time and into higher-energy collisions

reaction rate α collision energy α temperature

4. Catalysts: Speed up reaction by changing mechanism.

The Rate Law

- ☐ The rate law expresses the relationship the rate of reaction and concentration of reactants. It is experimentally determined.
- ☐ The derived rate law for a reaction <u>must be consistent</u> with the postulated chemical mechanism of the reaction!

For a general reaction: $aA + bB \rightarrow cC + dD$

rate law: rate = $k[A]^m$. $[B]^n$

The term k is the *rate constant*, which is specific for a given reaction at a given temperature.

- ☐ The exponents m and n are reaction orders w.r.t A & B, and are determined by experimentally.
- ☐ The values of m and n are not necessarily related in any way to the coefficients a and b.

- □ The overall order of the reaction is the sum of individual orders
 = n + m. Note: In above rate equation n and m are not the stoichiometric coefficients, they are the digits which are experimentally determined, may be 0, 1, 2, 3 or fractional etc.
- □ Order of reaction: Order of reaction can be defined as the number of moles of reactants whose concentration will determine the rate of reaction i.e. (whose concentration will appear in the rate law).
- 1. If n + m is zero the reaction is termed as zero order reaction, i.e. rate is independent on concentration of reactants. Example, $H_2 + Cl_2 -h\upsilon -> 2HCl$ rate= $-dx/dt = k[H_2]^o[Cl_2]^o$.
- 2. If n + m is one the reaction is termed as first order reaction. Example $N_2O_5 \rightarrow 2NO_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2$ rate =-dx/dt =k[N_2O_5].

- 3. If n + m is two the reaction is termed as second order reaction. Example, $H_2 + I_2 \rightarrow 2HI$ rate = -dx/dt = $k[H_2][I_2]$.
- 4. If n + m is three the reaction is termed as third order reaction. Third order reaction (order = 3): Example, $2NO + O_2 -> 2NO_2$ rate = $-dx/dt = k [NO]^2[O_2]$.
- 5. If n + m is fraction the reaction is termed as fractional order reaction. Fractional order: Example,

 $H_2 + Br_2 \rightarrow 2HBr$ rate = $-dx/dt = k[H_2]^1[Br_2]^{1/2}$ overall order = 3/2.

■ Rate constant (k): The rate of reaction when concentration of every reactant is unity. Rate of reaction = \mathcal{K} [A]ⁿ[B]^m = \mathcal{K} ; if both concentrations are unity. Rate constant remains constant for constant temperature and for the given chemical reaction.

Units of the rate constant, k, for several overall reaction orders

overall reaction order	units of k (t in seconds)	
0	mol/L·s (or mol L-1 s-1)	
1	1/s (or s ⁻¹)	
2	L/mol·s (or L mol ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	
3	L^2/mol^2 's (or $L^2 mol^{-2} s^{-1}$)	

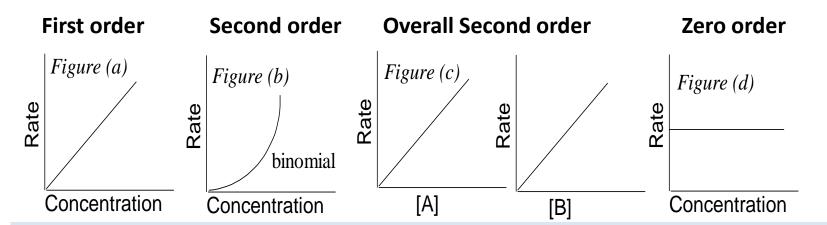
The value of k is easily determined from experimental rate data. The units of k depend on the overall reaction order.

Experimental determination of rate law [order of reaction]:-

For the simple reaction $A \rightarrow products$:

rate law: rate = $k[A]^m$

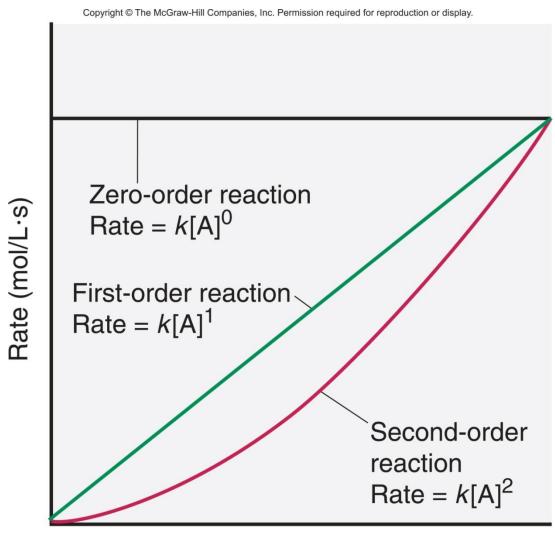
- \Box If the rate doubles when [A] doubles, the rate depends on [A]¹ and the reaction is <u>first order</u> with respect to A.
- □ If the rate quadruples when [A] doubles, the rate depends on $[A]^2$ and the reaction is second order with respect to [A].
- ☐ If the rate does not change when [A] doubles, the rate does not depend on [A], and the reaction is zero order with respect to A.



- ☐ If rate versus concentration graph is plotted we get the curve as in the figure

 (a). When the concentration is doubled it will double the rate of the reaction. So it helps to identify weather given reaction is first order or not.
- ☐ If rate versus concentration graph is plotted we get the curve as in the figure (b). When the concentration is doubled it will increase the rate of the reaction by four times. Rate versus concentration curve will be a parabola. So it helps to identify weather given reaction is second order or not.
- ☐ For the reaction A +B —> products If the Graph of rate versus concentration with respect to [A] and [B] is plotted separately figure (c) and the total order is calculated. Total order= order w.r.t. A + order w.r.t. B = 1 + 1 = 2.
- ☐ If rate versus concentration graph is plotted we get the curve as in the figure (d). There is no effect of concentration on the rate of the reaction.

Plots of rate vs. reactant concentration, [A], for first-, second-, and zero-order reactions.



Experimental determination of rate constant (k):

- Once the order is determined, the rate constant can be calculated from Initial rate of the reaction or the average rate of the reaction is measured from the <u>concentration of</u> <u>particular species at time t</u>.
- It can be measured from spectroscopy, colorimetric measurement or from titration of the quenched solution.

$$k = \frac{\text{measured rate (initial)}}{\text{concentration of reactants with appropriate power}}$$

- It is very difficult to determine initial rate accurately.
- It is better to determine k from the integrated rate law.

Types of Rate Laws

• **Differential Rate Law** (rate law) – shows how the rate of a reaction depends on concentrations.

• Integrated Rate Law – shows how the concentrations of species in the reaction depend on time. It is obtained by taking the integration of differential rate law

Integrated Rate Law

Consider a simple 1^{st} order $rxn: A \Longrightarrow Product$

$$rate = k\left[A
ight]$$
 Differential form: $-rac{d\left[A
ight]}{dt} = k\left[A
ight]$

How much A is left after time t? Integrate: Type equation here.

$$-d[A] = k[A] dt$$

$$\frac{d[A]}{[A]} = -kdt$$

$$\int \frac{d\left[A\right]}{\left[A\right]} = -\int kdt$$

Taking the integration, A_0 at t=0 and A_t at time t.

or,
$$\ln [A]^{At}_{A0} = -k [t]^{At}_{A0}$$
 or, $\ln \frac{A_t}{A_0} = -k t$

or,
$$\ln \frac{A_t}{A_0} = - k t$$

The integrated form of first order rate law:

$$[A]_t = [A]_0 e^{-kt}$$

Can be rearranged to give:

$$ln\frac{\left[A\right]_t}{\left[A\right]_0} = -kt$$

 $[A]_0$ is the initial concentration of A (t=0). $[A]_t$ is the concentration of A at some time, t, during the course of the reaction.

Manipulating this equation produces...

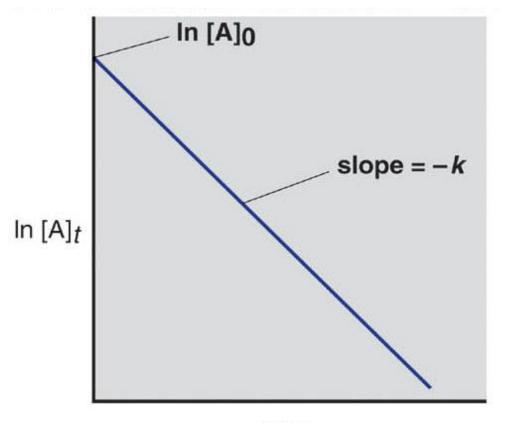
$$ln\frac{\left[A\right]_t}{\left[A\right]_0} = -kt$$

$$ln [A]_t - ln [A]_0 = -kt$$

$$ln\left[A\right]_t = -kt + ln\left[A\right]_0$$

$$y = mx + c$$

Graphical method for finding the reaction order from the integrated rate law.



integrated rate law

$$ln\frac{\left[A\right]_t}{\left[A\right]_0} = -kt$$

straight-line form

$$ln\left[A\right]_t = -kt + ln\left[A\right]_0$$

Time

- If a reaction is first-order, a plot of $\ln [A]_t$ vs. t will yield a straight line with a slope of -k.
- For 1st order reaction, logarithm of reactant concentration decreases linearly as time increases.

Second-Order Processes

Similarly, integrating the rate law for a process that is second-order in reactant A:

$$rate = -rac{d\left[A
ight]}{dt} = k\left[A
ight]^2$$

Note, $\int 1/x$. dx or $\int x^{-n} dx$ or {(x-n+1)/-n+1}

Rearrange, integrate:

$$\frac{1}{[A]} = kt + \frac{1}{[A]_0}$$

also in the form,

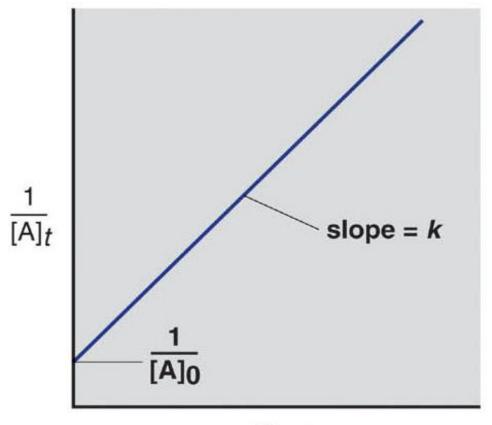
$$y = mx + c$$

$$\frac{1}{[A]} = kt + \frac{1}{[A]_0}$$

[A] = concentration of A at time t $k = rate\ constant$ t = time[A]_o = initial concentration of A

So if a process is second-order in A, a plot of 1/[A] vs. t will yield a straight line with a slope of k.

Second-order reaction



integrated rate law

$$\frac{1}{[A]_t} - \frac{1}{[A]_0} = k t$$

straight-line form,

$$\frac{1}{[A]} = kt + \frac{1}{[A]_0}$$

Time

- > A plot of $\frac{1}{A}$ vs. time gives a straight line for a second-order reaction.
- For 2nd order reaction, reciprocal of reactant concentration is a linear function of time

Reaction Half-life

- The half-life $(t_{1/2})$ for a reaction is the time taken for the concentration of a reactant to drop to half its initial value.
- For a first-order reaction, $t_{1/2}$ does not depend on the starting concentration.

$$t_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{k} = \frac{0.693}{k}$$

The half-life for a first-order reaction is a constant. Radioactive decay is a first-order process. The half-life for a radioactive nucleus is a useful indicator of its stability.

first order reaction: $A \rightarrow B$

Integrated rate equation:
$$ln\frac{[A]_t}{[A]_0} = -kt$$

After one half-life, $t = t_{1/2}$ and $[A]_t = 0.5[A]_0$. Substituting...

$$lnrac{0.5 [A]_0}{[A]_0} = -kt_{rac{1}{2}}$$
 $ln(0.5) = -kt_{rac{1}{2}}$
 $ln(2) = 0.693 = -kt_{rac{1}{2}}$
 $rac{0.693}{k} = t_{rac{1}{2}}$

NOTE: For a first-order process, the half-life does not depend on $[A]_0$

Q. N. A first order reaction is 35% complete at the end of 55 minutes. What is the value of k?

$$k = 7.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ min}^{-1}$$

An overview of zero-order, first-order and simple second-order reactions

zero order	first order	second order
rate = k	rate = k[A]	$rate = k[A]^2$
mol/L·s	1/s	L/mol·s
	$ln[A]_t = -kt + ln[A]_0$	$1/[A]_t = kt + 1/[A]_0$
<i></i>	$ln[A]_t$ vs t	$1/[A]_t VS t$
	$-k$, $ln[A]_0$	$k, 1/[A]_0$
	$(ln \ 2)/k$	
	$rate = k$ $mol/L \cdot s$	$rate = k$ $rate = k[A]$ $mol/L:s$ $ln[A]_t = -kt + ln[A]_0$ $ln[A]_t vs t$ $$

A ---- Products

Reaction Order "n"	Rate variation with Conc.	Differential Rate Law	Integrated Rate Law
1	Rate doubles when [A] doubles	Rate = k [A] ¹	In [A] _t /[A] _o = -kt
2	Rate quadruples as [A] doubles	Rate = k [A] ²	$1/[A]_t = kt + 1/[A]$
0	Rate does not change with [A]	Rate = k [A]o	$[A]_t - [A]_0 = -kt$

$$2NO(g) + 2H_{2}(g) \longrightarrow N_{2}(g) + 2H_{2}O(g)$$

$$Rate \ Law : k[NO]^{2}[H_{2}]$$

$$Order \ of \ reaction = 3$$

$$Stoichiometric \ coefficient \ of \ [H_{2}] = 2$$

$$Order \ with \ respect \ to \ [H_{2}] = 1$$

Reaction orders must be determined from experimental data and cannot be deduced from the balanced equation 32

Elementary reaction	Complex reaction		
Single step reaction	Involves 2 or more steps in the mechanism. Made up of a series of elementary reactions.		
Chemical equation represents the actual changes taking place at a molecular level.	Chemical equation merely summarises the overall change involved.		
Can write the rate equation from the stoichiometric equation for the reaction.	Rate equation must be determined experimentally.		
For the general elementary reaction $aA + bB \rightarrow products$	For the general complex reaction $aA + bB \rightarrow products$		
$rate = k[A]^a[B]^b$	$rate = k[A]^m[B]^n$		
where a and b are the stoichiometric coefficients in the chemical equation and are the orders of the the reaction with respect to A and B, respectively.	where m and n are the orders of the the reaction with respect to A and B, respectively. They often have values 1 or 2, but sometimes take higher values, or even fractional values.		
For a first order reaction, $A \rightarrow \text{products}$ rate = $k[A]$	The order of reaction with respect to a reactant may sometimes be zero $(m = 0)$.		
For a second order reaction, $A + B \rightarrow \text{products}$ rate = $k [A][B]$	A substance that does not appear in the overall chemical equation may sometimes appear in the rate equation.		

Reaction Mechanisms: Complex reaction

• A complete chemical description of how reactant molecules are converted to products-reaction mechanism. An example of a one step conversion of reactants to products

$$NO + O_3 \rightarrow O_2 + NO_2$$

- On the other hand, most chemical reactions do not follow such a simple path from reactants to products.
- Another example;

$$2O_3(g) \longrightarrow 3O_2(g)$$

Mechanism

$$O_3(g) \longrightarrow O_2(g) + O(g)$$
 step 1

$$O_3(g) + O(g) \rightarrow 2O_2(g)$$
 step 2

• An intermediate is formed in one step and used up in a subsequent step and thus is never seen as a product in the overall balanced reaction.

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Reaction Mechanisms

- Reactions may occur all at once or through several discrete steps.
 Each of these processes is known as an elementary reaction or elementary process.
- The sequence of events that describes the actual process by which reactants become products is called the reaction mechanism

Reactions can be divided on the basis of Reaction mechanism

Elementary Reactions

- · Only one step reactions
- No Intermediate
- Only One Transition state
- Further divided in Unimolecular, Bimolecular & Termolecular rxn based on Molecularity

Complex Reactions

- Two or more steps
- With Intermediate formation
- Multiple Transition states
- Rate of over all complex rxn is the rate of slowest rxn step (Rate determining Step)

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Elementary Reactions and Molecularity

- An elementary reaction is a chemical reaction in which one or more chemical species react directly to form products in a single reaction step and with a single transition state.
- So, it is one step process in which all reacting species
 (molecules / atoms) collide simultaneously to give the product.
- The molecularity of the elementary process is the no of molecules coming together once to proceed the reaction.
- The rate of such elementary step directly depends on all the reactant molecules.
- > So, the order of reaction in the elementary process can be predicted from stoichiometric coefficients.
- In this case, *Molecularity = order of reaction* (for elementary process / step).

Rate Laws for General Elementary Steps

Elementary reactions are single step process and are classified according to the number of molecules which they involve.

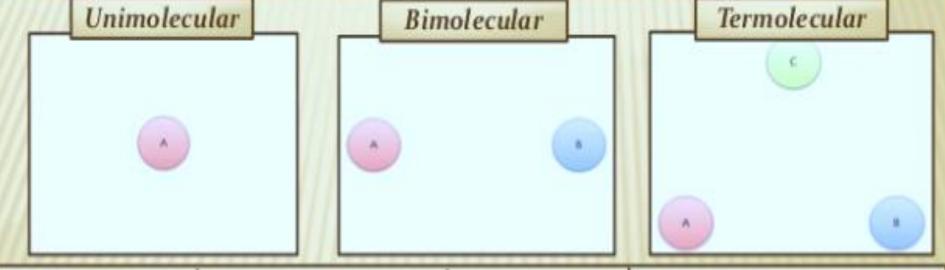
Molecularity	Elementary Reaction	Rate Law
Unimolecular Bimolecular Bimolecular Termolecular Termolecular Termolecular	$A \longrightarrow \text{products}$ $A + A \longrightarrow \text{products}$ $A + B \longrightarrow \text{products}$ $A + A + A \longrightarrow \text{products}$ $A + A + B \longrightarrow \text{products}$ $A + A + B \longrightarrow \text{products}$ $A + B + C \longrightarrow \text{products}$	Rate = $k[A]$ Rate = $k[A]^2$ Rate = $k[A][B]$ Rate = $k[A]^3$ Rate = $k[A]^2[B]$ Rate = $k[A][B][C]$

The molecularity of a process tells how many molecules are involved in the process.

The rate law for an elementary step is written directly from that step.

Molecularity

Number of colliding molecular entities that are involved in a single reaction step Depending on the number of colliding species in elementary step it can be of different types



Molecularity	Elementary Step	Rate law	Examples
Unimolecular	A → Products	rate=k [A]	$N_2O_4(g) \rightarrow_2 NO_2(g)$
Bimolecular	$A + A \longrightarrow Products$ $A + B \longrightarrow Products$	rate=k[A]² rate=k [A][B]	$2NOCl \rightarrow 2NO(g) + CO_2(g)$ $CO(g) + NO_3(g) \rightarrow NO_2(g) + CO_2(g)$
Termolecular	$A + A + A \longrightarrow Products$ $A + A + B \longrightarrow Products$ $A + B + C \longrightarrow Products$	rate=k[A] ³ rate=k [A] ² [B] rate = k [A][B][C]	$2NO(g)+O_2(g)\rightarrow 2NO_2(g)$ $H+O_2(g)+M\rightarrow HO_2(g)+M$

Other examples

Type I: Unimolecular elementary process: Involves only one molecule as reactant in the elementary process. Le may get collide with wall of vessel or with the catalyst.

e.g., dissociation and rearrangement reactions.

II: Bimolecular elementary process: Involves two molecules in the elementary process. For e.g.,

NO + O₃
$$\longrightarrow$$
 NO₂ + O₂
CI + CH₄ \longrightarrow CH₃ + HCI
Ar + O₃ \longrightarrow Ar + O₃

III: Termolecular elementary process: Involves three molecules in the elementary process, which collide together and give the products. e.g.,

$$O + O_2 + N_2 \longrightarrow O_3 + N_2$$

 $O + NO + N_2 \longrightarrow NO_2 + N_2$

The third molecule (N_2) provides only the reaction site and helps to transfer the energy.

Elementary processes with Molecularity above three are very rare

- Simultaneous collision of more than three species with proper orientation and sufficient energy (effective collision) to give the product is not favorable.
- In the elementary process all the species giving the product must collide at once. The probability of collision of these species is directly proportional to their individual concentration. Thus the reaction must be first order w. r. t. all individual species. Hence the total order will be equal to the number of colloding particles.
- **Note I**: if two molecules of same species are colliding order w. r. t. both should be considered.
- Note II: In elementary process, molecularity = order. But for the non elementary process molecularity =/ \neq order.
- For example in $2N_2O_5 \rightarrow 4NO_2 + O_2$ Order = 1 and molecularity = 1 or 2. The molecularity in a complex reaction is generally considered to be equal to the molecularity of the slowest elementary step.

Molecularity

- Number of reacting species which collide to result in reaction
- Only positive integral values e.g 1,2,3
 never-ve
- Theoretical concept & value is derived from mechanism of reaction

Order

- Sum of powers to which concentrations are raised in the rate law expression
- · Zero, fractional or even be-ve
- Experimental fact & derived from rate law

Rate Determining Step

Slowest step of a chemical reaction that determines the speed (rate) at which the overall reaction proceeds

Eg: A complex reaction

$$NO_2(g)+CO(g)\rightarrow NO(g)+CO_2(g)$$

occur in two elementary steps:

$$NO_2+NO_2\rightarrow NO+NO_3$$
 (slow) rate const k_1
 $NO_3+CO\rightarrow NO_2+CO_2$ (fast) rate const k_2

Rate=
$$k_1[NO_2][NO_2] = k_1[NO_2]^2$$

Differences between order and Molecularity:-

Order of reaction	Molecularity of reaction
t is the sum of concentration terms on	1. It is the number of atoms/ molecules
which the rate of reaction actually	present in the reactant side of the
depends or the sum of exponents of	elementary step, or in the rate
concentrations of reactants in the rate	determining step of the complex
aw equation.	reaction.
Cannot be calculated from	2. Can be calculated from the stoichiometric
toichiometric coefficient of the	coefficient.
eactants.	
t is experimentally determined.	3. Determined by simple calculation .
t may or may not be a whole	4. It must be the whole number.
number.[0, and fractional]]	
While writing order of reaction only	5. Molecularity is calculated from no of
molecules are raised to some exponent.	atoms/molecules/ions.
May be changed depending on	6. It is always constant for a given reaction
condition	7. Molecularity of the slowest rate
Should be calculated for a complex	determining step is the molecularity of
eaction	complex reaction.
	tis the sum of concentration terms on which the rate of reaction actually epends or the sum of exponents of concentrations of reactants in the rate aw equation. Cannot be calculated from toichiometric coefficient of the eactants. It is experimentally determined. It may or may not be a whole number. [0, and fractional]] While writing order of reaction only nolecules are raised to some exponent. May be changed depending on condition hould be calculated for a complex

Give resonable explanations:

*Elementary processes with molecularity greater than three are not known.

*The order of a reaction cannot, in general, be predicted from the stoichiometry of the overall reaction. However, the order of an elementary process is predictable.

Reaction Mechanisms and Rate Law

☐ The experimentally observed order and rate of an overall reaction are related to the order and rate of elementary processes which comprise its mechanism.

Consider, a reaction as:

Here the products E and F are the result of a sequence of three elementary steps and can be formed no faster than the rate of slowest step in this sequence. So, if any one of the steps is much slower than all the others, the rate of overall reaction will be limited by, and be exactly equal to the rate of this slow step. Here, the slowest elementary step in a sequence is called the rate-determining step. Suppose, first step in reaction mechanism is slowest one with the rate constant k_1 , then

Rate =
$$-\frac{1}{2} \frac{d[A]}{dt} = k_1 [A]$$
. [B] {Overall order is 2, wrt A=1 and wrt B=1}

Determining molecularity and rate laws for elementary steps

PROBLEM: The following two reactions are proposed as elementary steps in the mechanism of an overall reaction:

(1)
$$NO_2Cl(g) \longrightarrow NO_2(g) + Cl(g)$$

(2)
$$NO_2Cl(g) + Cl(g) \longrightarrow NO_2(g) + Cl_2(g)$$

- (a) Write the overall balanced equation.
- (b) Determine the molecularity of each step.
- (c) Write the rate law for each step.

PLAN:

We find the overall equation from the sum of the elementary steps. The molecularity of each step equals the total number of reactant particles. We write the rate law for each step using the molecularities as reaction orders.

SOLUTION:

(a) Writing the overall balanced equation:

(1)
$$NO_2Cl(g) \rightarrow NO_2(g) + \mathcal{C}l(g)$$

(2) $NO_2Cl(g) + \mathcal{C}l(g) \rightarrow NO_2(g) + \mathcal{C}l_2(g)$
 $2NO_2Cl(g) \rightarrow 2NO_2(g) + \mathcal{C}l_2(g)$

- (b) Step(1) is unimolecular. Step(2) is bimolecular.
- (c) $rate_1 = k_1[NO_2Cl]$ $rate_2 = k_2[NO_2Cl][Cl]$

The Rate-Determining Step of a Reaction Mechanism

All of the elementary steps of a mechanism do not occur at the same rate. Usually one step is much slower than the others. This step is called the rate-determining (or rate-limiting) step.

An example:

The reaction $NO_2(g) + CO(g) \rightarrow NO(g) + CO_2(g)$ has been proposed to occur by a two-step mechanism:

(1)
$$NO_2(g) + NO_2(g) \rightarrow NO_3(g) + NO(g)$$
 [slow; rate-determining]

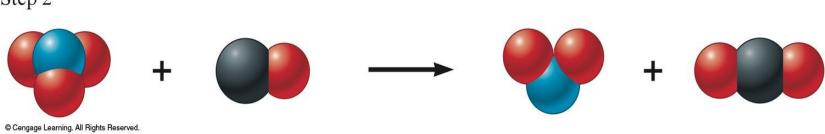
(2)
$$NO_3(g) + CO(g) \rightarrow NO_2(g) + CO_2(g)$$
 [fast]

$NO_2(g) + CO(g) \rightarrow NO(g) + CO_2(g)$

Step 1



Step 2



Experimental rate law: $rate = k [NO_2]^2$

Step 1:
$$NO_2(g) + NO_2(g) \rightarrow NO_3(g) + NO(g)$$
 Rate₁ = $k_1[NO_2]^2$

Step 2:
$$NO_3(g) + CO(g) \rightarrow NO_2(g) + CO_2(g)$$
 | Rate₂ = $k_2[NO_3][CO]$

• In the above mechanism, Step 1 is slow and rate-determining; Step 2 is fast.

NO3 is an intermediate!

- Thus, if $k_1 = k$, the rate law for Step 1 (rate-determining) is the same as the experimental rate law!
- Thus, the rate law for the rate-determining step becomes the rate law for the overall reaction.

Correlating the Mechanism with the Rate Law

☐ A mechanism is a hypothesis —we cannot prove it is correct, but if it is consistent with the data, and can be used to predict results accurately, it is a useful model for the reaction.

A valid mechanism must meet three criteria:

- 1. The elementary steps must add up to the overall equation.
- 2. The elementary steps must be physically reasonable.
- 3. The mechanism must correlate with the observed rate law.

Reaction Energy Diagram for the two-step NO_2 - F_2 reaction

The overall reaction $2NO_2(g) + F_2(g) \rightarrow 2NO_2F(g)$ has an experimental rate law, $Rate = k[NO_2][F_2].$

The accepted mechanism is,

(1)
$$NO_2(g) + F_2(g) \rightarrow NO_2F(g) + F(g)$$
 [slow; rate determining]

(2)
$$NO_2(g) + F(g) \rightarrow NO_2F(g)$$
 [fast]

$$2NO_2(g) + F_2(g) \rightarrow 2NO_2F(g)$$

The elementary steps sum to the overall balanced equation:

Both steps are bimolecular and are therefore reasonable.

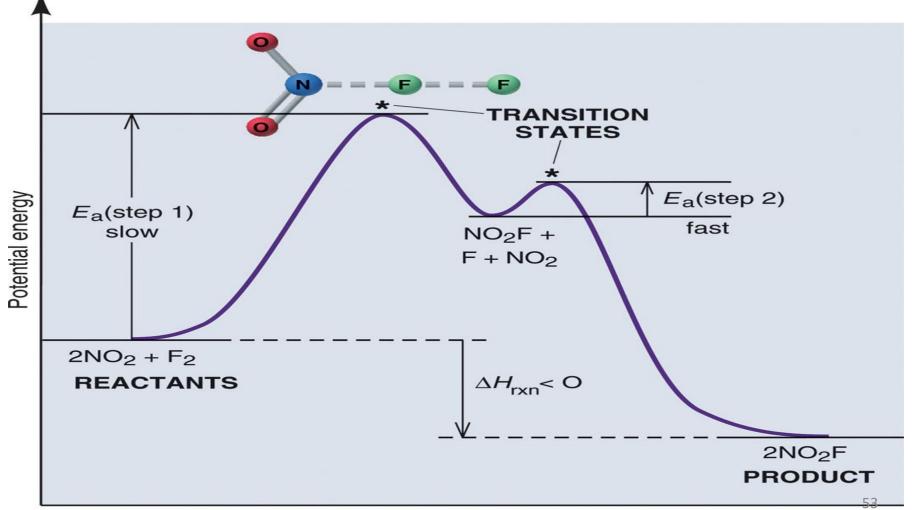
$$rate_1 = k_1[NO_2[F_2]]$$

$$rate_2 = k_2[NO_2][F]$$

Step 1 is the slow step, and rate₁ correlates with the observed rate law.

The mechanism is therefore reasonable.

- ☐ Two transition states and one intermediate are involved.
- ☐ The first step is rate-determining.
- ☐ The reaction is exothermic (thermodynamics).



$$2\ NO(g) + Br_2(g) \rightarrow 2NOBr(g)$$

• The rate law for this reaction is found (experimentally) to be

$$rate = k [NO]^2 [Br_2]$$

• Because termolecular processes are rare, this rate law suggests a two-step mechanism.

A proposed mechanism is

Step 1:
$$NO + Br_2 \stackrel{K_1}{\longrightarrow} NOBr_2$$
 (fast)

$$Step \ 2: \ NOBr_2 + NO \xrightarrow{K_2} 2NOBr \ (slow)$$

Step 1 is an equilibrium- it includes the forward and reverse reactions.

- The rate of the overall reaction depends upon the rate of the slow step.
- The rate law for that step would be

$$rate_2 = k_2 [NOBr_2] [NO]$$

• But how can we find [NOBr₂]?

- NOBr₂ can react two ways:
 - With NO to form NOBr
 - By decomposition to reform NO and Br₂
- The reactants and products of the first step are in equilibrium with each other.
- Therefore, $Rate_f = Rate_r$

$$k_1 [NO] [Br_2] = k_{-1} [NOBr_2]$$

Solving for [NOBr₂] gives us

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}}$$
 [NO] [Br₂] = [NOBr₂]

Substituting this expression for [NOBr₂] in the rate law for the rate-determining step gives

$$rate = \frac{k_2 k_1}{k_{-1}} [NO] [Br_2] [NO]$$

$$= \frac{k_2 k_1}{k_{-1}} [NO]^2 [Br_2]$$

$$rate = k [NO]^2 [Br_2]$$

Steady State Approximation(SSA)

- □ When more than two steps are involved in a mechanism, the rate law equation may be very complicated
- Multiple intermediates may form and their concentrations depend on each other.
- Some time intermediates react with other species (reactants, intermediates)
- □ If the intermediate is fairly reactive then they do not attain an appreciable concentration.
- If an intermediate concentration is always small, then its change in concentration is also small throughout the experiment

i.e.
$$\frac{d[I]}{dt} = 0$$

• Key assumption: production and consumption of the intermediate occur at the same rate, so the rate of change in concentration of the intermediate with respect to time is zero.

i.e.
$$\frac{d[I]}{dt} = 0$$

- The steady state approximation consists of selecting an intermediate in the reaction mechanism and calculating its concentration by assuming that it is destroyed as rapidly as it is formed.
- Therefore, according to the steady state approximation;

"Rate of production of Intermediate = Rate of destruction of Intermediate"

As a practical example of the application of SSA, let us consider the decomposition of gaseous N_2O_5 :

$$2N_2O_5(g) \rightarrow 4NO_2(g) + O_2(g)$$

The experimental rate law is:
The mechanism is:

$$\frac{d[O_2]}{dt} = k[N_2O_5]$$

Step 1:
$$N_2O_5 = \frac{K_1}{k_{-1}}$$
 $NO_2 + NO_3$

Step 2:
$$NO_2 + NO_3 \xrightarrow{k_2} NO + O_2 + NO_2$$

Step 3:
$$NO_3 + NO_{\frac{k_3}{2}}$$
 2NO₂

NO_3 and NO are the intermediates. let us find their steady state concentrations by using SSA.

For NO, we proceed as follows:

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Rate of production of NO = Rate of destruction of NO K_2[NO_2][NO_3] = k_3[NO][NO_3][NO] = k_2/k_3[NO_2]. \tag{1}
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For NO_{3.}

Rate of production of NO_3 = Rate of destruction of NO_3

$$K_1[N_2O_5] = K_{-1}[NO_2][NO_3] + K_2[NO_2][NO_3] + K_3[NO][NO_3]$$

$$K_1[N_2O_5] = (K_{-1}[NO_2] + K_2[NO_2] + K_3[NO])[NO_3].....(2)$$

Substituting the value of [NO] and solving for NO_3 , equation (2) reduces to the form:

$$[NO_3] = \frac{K_1[N_2O_5]}{K_{_1}[NO_2] + 2 K_2[NO_2]}...(3)$$

The rate of reaction is also the rate of formation of oxygen, $\frac{d[O2]}{dt} = K_2[NO_2][NO_3]....(4)$

Using eqn.3 in eqn.4 and solving produces,

$$\frac{d[02]}{dt} = \frac{K_1 K_2 [N_2 O_5]}{K_1 + 2 K_2} \dots (5)$$

This is as the same form as the experimental rate law. The relation between the experimental rate constant K and rate constants for the individual elementary steps is:

$$K = \frac{K_1}{K_1 + 2K_2}$$

Chain reaction:

- ☐ In many of the reactions occurring in gaseous phase (flame, explosion and nuclear) or in liquid phase (like polymerization, natural/synthesis) an reactive intermediate produced in the first step generates one or more intermediates in sequence of subsequent steps, so that the reaction proceeds continuously.
- ☐ The reactions occurring in this process are generally chain reactions.
- □ The reactions proceeding in a series of successive steps once initiated by a suitable primary process is called chain reaction i.e. the reaction is continued after initiation.

☐ The main steps of the chain reaction are:

1. The chain initiating step:

It is the first step in which reactive intermediate species / chain carriers are produced. This reactions are mostly catalyzed by light (photolysis) and heat (thermolysis). It is generally slow step so is the rate determining step. Chain carriers are reactive species like, ions, free radicals, neutrons (in nuclear reaction) etc.

2. The chain propagation step:

Those steps in which reactive intermediate reacts to give product and a new intermediate again. That it produce more and more reactive species successively.

• If two intermediate are produced by the loss of one, the reaction is termed as <u>branching</u>.

$$O + H_2 \overset{\cdot}{O} \longrightarrow \overset{\cdot}{O}H + \overset{\cdot}{O}H , \quad H + O_2 \overset{\longrightarrow}{\longrightarrow} OH + O$$

3. The chain termination step:

Those steps in which two reactive intermediate combine (will decay/die) to give the product or non reactive species and ends the reaction are chain termination steps.

4. Retradation:

• If carrier strikes the product and reduces the rate of formation of product is the retardation step.

$$H \cdot + Br \rightarrow HBr$$

5. Chain inhibition step:

Those steps where radicals are removed by other away chain termination (i.e. with wall/foreign radicals) for example, NO molecule with odd electron is a better inhibitor, can also quench the reaction if present in excess.

Some common examples

1.
$$H_2 + Cl_2$$
 Reaction, $H_2 + Cl_2 \rightarrow 2HCl$
 $Cl_2 \xrightarrow{light} 2Cl$ (Chain initiation)
 $Cl + H_2 \rightarrow HCl + H$
 $H + Cl_2 \rightarrow HCl + Cl$ (Chain propagation)
 $2Cl + M \rightarrow Cl_2 + M$ (Chain inhibition)
 $H + Cl \rightarrow HCl$ (Chain termination)
 $H + HCl \rightarrow H_2 + Cl$ (Chain retardation)

2.
$$H_2 + O_2$$
 Reaction, $H_2 + O_2 \longrightarrow H_2O_2$
 $O_2 + M \longrightarrow 2O'$ (Chain initiation)
 $O' + H_2 \longrightarrow OH + H'$
 $H' + O_2 \longrightarrow OH + O'$
 $OH' + H_2 \longrightarrow H_2O + H$ (Chain propagation)
 $H' + O_2 + M \longrightarrow HO_2 + M$ (Chain propagation)
 $2HO_2 \longrightarrow H_2O_2 + O_2$ (Chain termination)

Polymerization of ethylene or vinyl chloride also follows chain mechanism.

 Polymerization is the process in which monomers (small compounds) combines to give long chain compounds (polymers).

Example; $2n (CH_2CHCI) \rightarrow \{-CH_2-CHCI-CH_2-CHCI-\}_n$ Vinyl chloride Polyvinyl chloride.

1. Chain initiation steps: Organic peroxides are easily spitted into free radicals in presence of light.

Ph-CO-O-CO-Ph \rightarrow Ph-CO-O $^{\circ}$ + Ph $^{\circ}$ + CO $_{2}$ Benzoyl peroxide Consider R $^{\circ}$ = free radical.

2. Chain propagation: Free radicals combines with vinyl chloride and long chain free radical is formed.

 $R^{\circ} + CH_2 = CHCI \rightarrow RCH_2 - C^{\circ}HCI$ $RCH_2 - C^{\circ}HCI + CH_2 = CHCI \rightarrow RCH_2 - CHCI - CH_2 - C^{\circ}HCI \dots continue.$

3. Chain termination: Chain may terminate in any step.

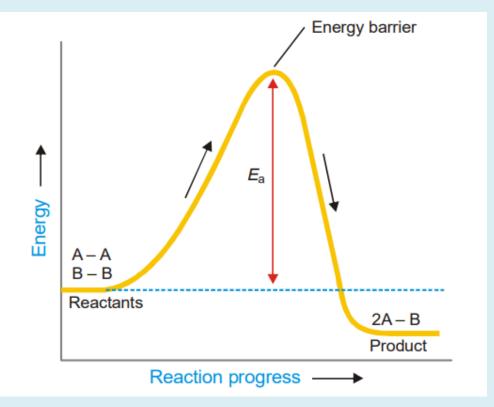
 $2(R-CH_2-CHCl-CH_2-C^{\circ}HCl) \rightarrow RCH_2-CHCl-CH_2-CHCl-CH_2-CHCl-CH_2-R$ and many other

Collision Theory of Gaseous Reactions

- According to this theory, reactant molecules must under go collision to give the products and rate of reaction will depend on the rate of collision.
- But not all collisions are effective. Only a small fraction of the collisions produce a reaction.
- The **two main conditions for a collision** between the reacting molecules **to be productive** are :
 - The colliding molecules must posses sufficient kinetic energy to cause a reaction.
 - The reacting molecules must collide with proper orientation.

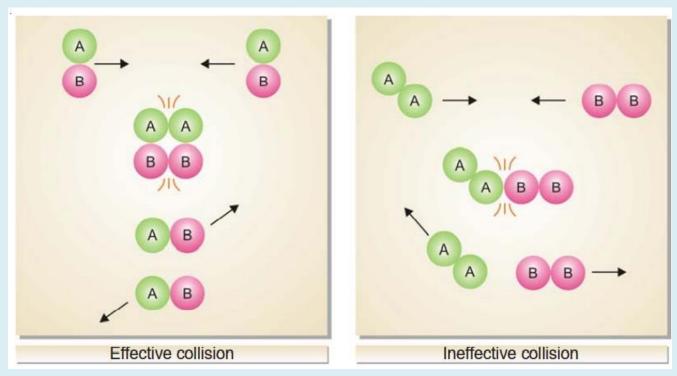
(1) The molecules must collide with sufficient kinetic energy.

- Let us consider a reaction: $A A + B B \longrightarrow 2A B$
- Activation energy,
 (Ea) is the minimum
 energy necessary to
 cause a reaction
 between the colliding
 molecules.
- Only the molecules that collide with a kinetic energy greater than Ea, are able to get over the barrier and react.



The energy of the colliding molecules as the reaction $A_2 + B_2 \rightarrow 2AB$ proceeds. The activation energy Ea provides the energy barrier.

(2) The molecules must collide with correct orientation.



Orientations of reacting molecules A₂ and B₂ which lead to an effective and ineffective collision.

- The reactant molecules must collide with favourable orientation (relative position).
- The correct orientation is that which ensure direct contact between the atoms involved in the breaking and forming of bonds.

Only the molecules colliding with kinetic energy greater that Ea and with correct orientation can cause reaction

Collision Theory and Reaction Rate Expression

- Taking into account the two postulates of the collision theory,
- The reaction rate for the elementary process.

$$A + B \longrightarrow C + D$$

is given by the expression

- rate = $f \times p \times z$
- where

f = fraction of molecules which possess sufficient energy to react;

p = probable fraction of collisions with effective orientations, and

z = collision frequency

Temperature and Reaction Rate

Increased $T \rightarrow Increased$ Average Speed Of Particles \rightarrow Increased Collision Frequency \rightarrow Increased Reaction Rate

But, most collisions fail to yield products!

<u>Significance of activation energy</u>: only those collisions with energy equal to, or greater than, E_a can yield products.

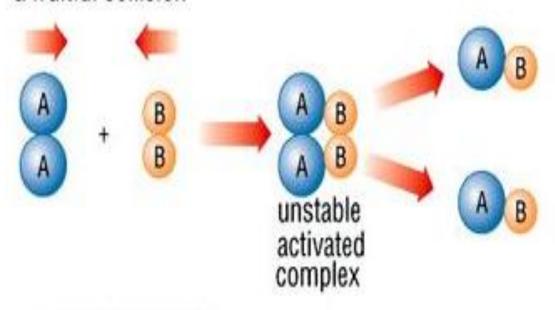
Increasing T enhances the fraction of productive collisions, f.

$$f = e^{-Ea/RT}$$

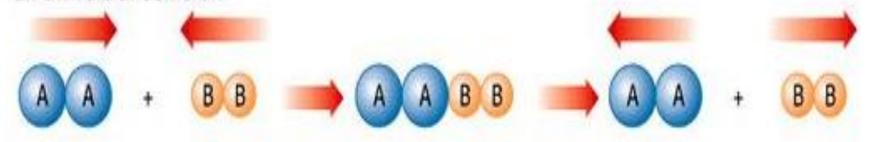
From this equation, we can see that both E_a and T affect f, which in turn influences reaction rate.

Generally an increase of temperature increases the rate of reaction. As a rule, an increase of temperature by 10°C doubles the reaction rate.

a fruitful collision



an unfruitful collision



Effective Collisions

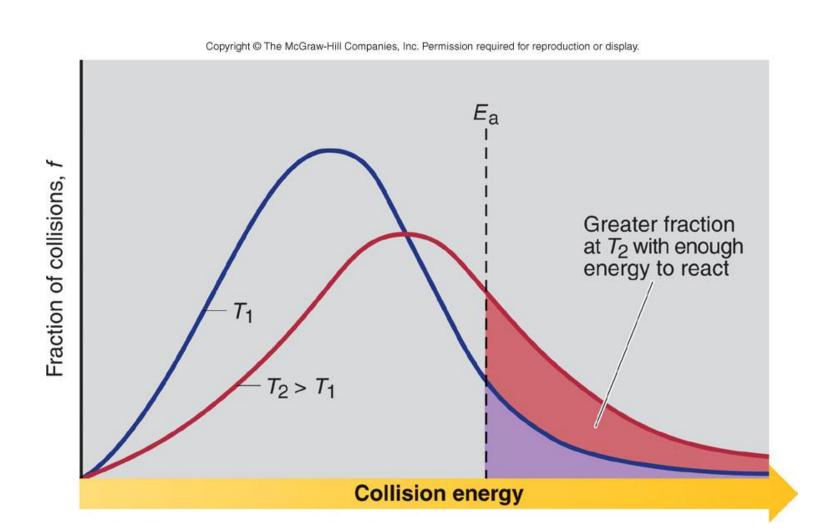
□ Not all collisions that occur with energy equal to, or exceeding, the activation energy lead to products.

Molecular orientation is critical!

$$k = A e^{-E_a/RT}$$

☐ The frequency factor = product of collision frequency Z and an orientation probability factor p(A = Zp)

The effect of temperature on the distribution of collision energies



Dependence of rate constant on temperature

☐ Arrhenius Equation: Svante Arrhenius developed a mathematical relationship between k and Ea.:

$$k = Ae^{-\frac{E_a}{RT}}$$

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A = frequency factor
E_a = activation energy
R = gas constant (8.3145 J/K·mol)
T = temperature (in K)
k = rate constant of the reaction
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Linear Form of Arrhenius Equation:

☐ Taking the natural logarithm of both sides, the equation becomes

$$ln(k) = -\frac{E_a}{RT} + lnA$$

$$y = mx + c$$

 \square When k is determined experimentally at several temperatures, E_a can be calculated from the slope of a plot of $\ln k$ vs. 1/T.

☐ The activation energy = the minimum energy that the molecules must possess in order for reaction to occur

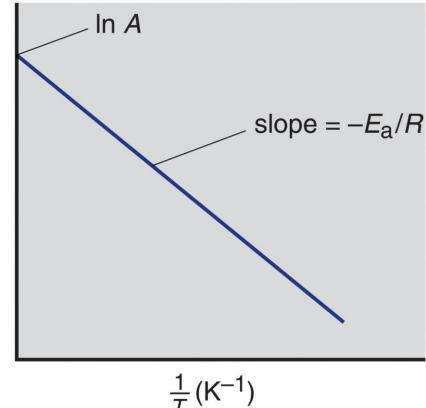
☐ The negative exponent suggests that, as T increases, the negative exponent becomes smaller (less negative), the value of k increases, and thus the reaction rate increases.

 $higher T \implies larger k \implies increased rate$

Graphical determination of the activation energy, E_a

$$ln(k) = -\frac{E_a}{RT} + lnA$$

If the activation energy and value of the rate constant at one temperature are known, then it is possible to calculate the rate constant for any other temperature.



$$\frac{1}{T}(K^{-1})$$

$$\ln k_2 = \ln A - \frac{E_a}{RT_2} \quad (I)$$

$$\ln k_1 = \ln A - \frac{E_a}{RT_1} \quad (II)$$

$$\frac{k_2}{k_1} = -\frac{E_a}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1} \right)_{79}$$

Catalysis: Enhancing Reaction Rates

- □ Catalyst: A substance that speeds up a reaction without being consumed itself.
- ☐ Catalysts provide New faster paths by which reaction can proceed. This can be done in a variety of ways:
- ☐ Provides a new pathway for the reaction with a lower activation energy.
- ☐ The catalyzed reaction proceeds via a different mechanism than the uncatalyzed reaction.

□ Catalysts change the mechanism by which the process occurs.

Energy diagram of an uncatalyzed and catalyzed reaction

Uncatalyzed reaction:

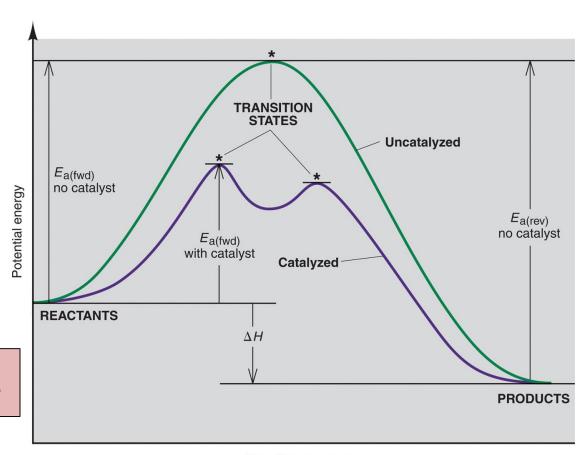
$$A + B \longrightarrow product$$

Catalyzed reaction:

$$A + catalyst \longrightarrow C$$

$$C + B \longrightarrow product + catalyst$$

Note that both reactions exhibit the same thermodynamics!



Reaction progress

A catalyst does not affect either ΔH or the overall yield for a reaction.

The catalyzed and uncatalyzed reactions occur via different pathways.

Types of Catalysts

- · Homogeneous catalysis: Exists in the same phase as the reacting molecules.
- · Heterogeneous catalysis: catalyst and reaction mixture are in different phases

☐ Homogeneous calalysis:

(1) Catalyst can act by modifying the electronic structure of the reactants. For example, the conversion of an alcohol to an organic halide is catalyzed by hydrogen ion. Find the role of hydrogen ion?

$$Br^- + C_2H_5OH \rightarrow C_2H_5Br + OH^-$$

$$H^+ + C_2H_5OH = C_2H_5OH_2^+$$
 (rapid equilibrium)

$$Br^{-} + C_{2}H_{5} - OH_{2}^{+} \rightarrow Br^{-}...C_{2}H_{5}...OH_{2} \rightarrow C_{2}H_{5}Br + H_{2}O$$
 (Slow)

☐ The presence of the proton on the hydroxyl group of the alcohol apparently lowers the activation energy of the second slow step

(2)
$$2Ce^{+4} + Tl^{+} \rightarrow 2Ce^{+3} + Tl^{+3}$$

The above reaction is **slow**. Now the reaction is catalyzed by **Mn** ⁺⁺, which acts in the following ways

$$Ce^{+4} + Mn^{++} \rightarrow Ce^{+3} + Mn^{+3}$$
 $Ce^{+4} + Mn^{+3} \rightarrow Ce^{+3} + Mn^{+4}$

 $Mn^{+4} + Tl^{+} \rightarrow Tl^{+3} + Mn^{++}$

> Mn ⁺⁺ permits a new mechanism whereby the single slow termolecular process is replaced by three Faster bimolecular elementary reactions

Heterogeneous Catalyst

- 1. Most often involves gaseous reactants being adsorbed on the surface of a solid catalyst.
- 2. Adsorption and activation of the reactants.
- 3. Migration of the adsorbed reactants on the surface.
- 4. Reaction of the adsorbed substances.
- 5. Escape, or desorption, of the products.

One of the outstanding example of the heterogeneous catalysis is the hydrogenation of unsaturated organic compounds.

$$H_2 + C_2H_4 \rightarrow C_2H_6$$

The reaction is slow at moderate temperature in the gas phase. The same reaction is fast if carried out at the surface of the metal because these metal can absorb large quantities of hydrogen, apparently by incorporating it in the metallic lattice as hydrogen atoms. The process is represented by:

$$\frac{1}{2}H_2 + M \rightarrow M \cdot H$$

Where M. H represents the pool of atomic hydrogen in the metallic lattice. Thus hydrogenation takes place as:

$$2M \cdot H + C_2H_4$$
 at surface C_2H_6

In effect, the metal provides a new reaction path of low activation energy by dissociating the molecular hydrogen to atoms.

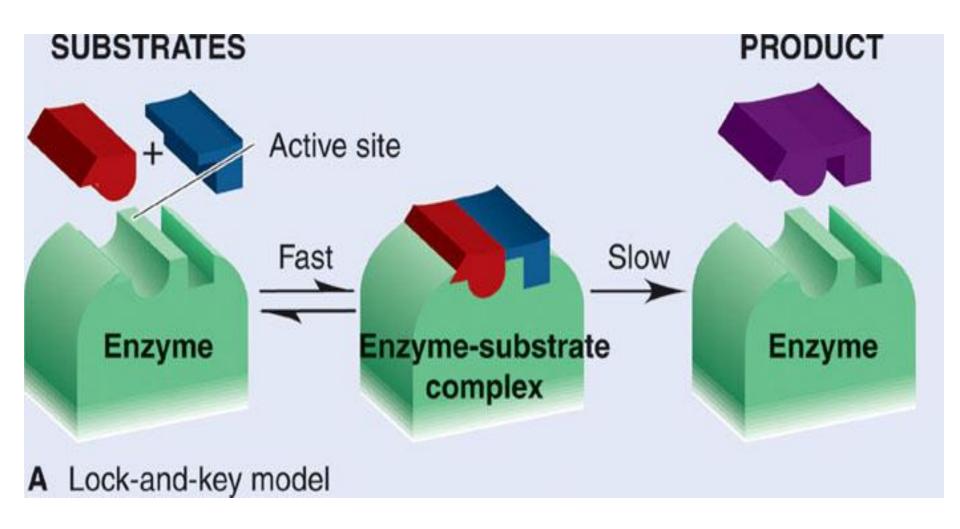
Enzyme Catalysis

- □ Enzymes are biological catalysts. Catalysts are substances that increase the rate of chemical reactions without being used up. Enzymes are also proteins that are folded into complex shapes that allow smaller molecules to fit into them. The place where these substrate molecules fit is called the active site. Examples are lactase, alcohol dehydrogenase and DNA polymerase.
- □ On a molecular level, most catalysts (or most substances really) are not just flat surfaces, they have complex three-dimensional shapes. The substrate often has to bind to the catalyst in a very specific way in order for the catalyzed reaction to take place this is the active centre.

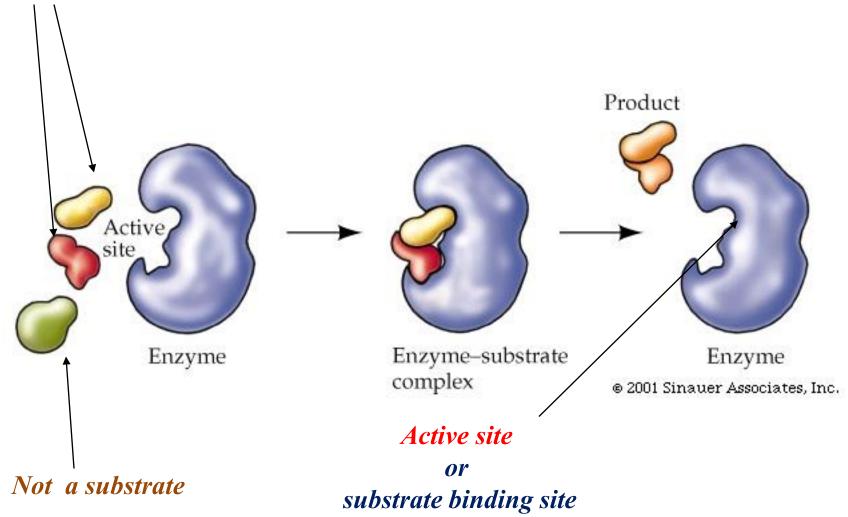
Characteristics of enzymes

- Enzymes possess great catalytic power.
- Enzymes are highly specific.
- Enzymes show varying degree of specificities.
- ☐ Absolute specificity where the enzymes react specifically with only one substrate.
- ☐ The mechanism by which enzymes catalyzed chemical reactions begins with the binding of the substrates to the active site on the enzyme.
- ☐ The substrate fits into the active site of the enzyme much like a key fits into a lock.

Model of Enzyme Action



Reactants: Reactants in an enzyme-catalyzed reaction = "substrates"



substrate binding site (not always exactly synonymous, latter could be just a part of the active site)

Michaelis-Menten equation

□ In1913, Michaelis- Menten proposed a mathematical model of the reaction. It involves an <u>enzyme</u>, E, binding to a <u>substrate</u>, S, to form a <u>complex</u>, ES, which in turn releases a <u>product</u>, P, regenerating the original enzyme. This may be represented schematically as

$$E + S \xrightarrow{k_1} ES \xrightarrow{k_2} E + P$$

□ The double arrows between S (substrate) and ES (enzyme-substrate substrate complex) represent the fact that enzyme-substrate binding is a reversible process, and the single forward arrow represents the formation of P (product).

- Let V be the rate at which product appears $V = k_2$ [ES].....(1)
- To derive the equation for kinetics of enzyme catalyzed reaction, we use steady state approximation for the intermediate, ES.

$$K_1[E][S] = k_{-1}[ES] + k_2[ES]$$

 $K_1[E][S] = (k_{-1} + k_2)[ES]....(2)$

• This equation might be solved for [ES], but it also contains, which is unknown. We can write the enzyme conservation equation.

$$[E_0] = [E] + [ES]....(3)$$

• Where $[E_0]$ is the total concentration of the enzyme material. Solving this equation for [E] and substituting the result in equation(2), yields [ES] as follows:

$$K_{1}[S] \{ [E_{0}-[ES] \} = (k_{-1}+k_{2})[ES] \}$$
 $K_{1}[E_{0}] [S] - K_{1}[S][ES] = (k_{-1}+k_{2})[ES] \}$

$$(k_{-1} + k_2)[ES] + K_1[S][ES] = K_1[E_0][S]$$

$$[ES] \{(k_{-1} + k_2) + K_1[S]\} = K_1[E_0][S]$$

[ES] =
$$\frac{K_1[E_0][S]}{k-1+k_2+K_1[S]}$$
....(4)

Substituting this in equation (1), we find the rate of reaction given by

$$V = \frac{k_2 K_1 [E_0] [S]}{k - 1 + k_2 + K_1 [S]}$$

Divide the numerator and denominator by K_1 , the result is:

$$V = \frac{k_2[E_0][S]}{k_m + [S]}(5)$$

This expression is known as the Michaelis—Menten equation.

Understanding k_m

$$k_m = \frac{k-1+k_2}{k_1}$$

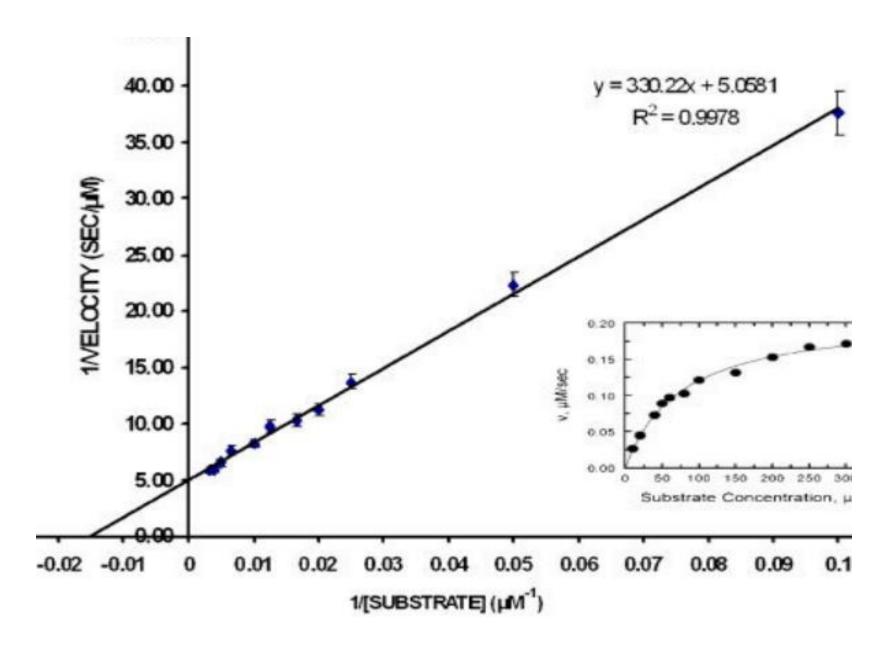
The lower the Km, the more poorly it dissociates. That is, the more TIGHTLY it is held by the enzyme

And the greater the Km, the more readily the substrate dissociates, so the enzyme is binding it poorly

☐ From equation (5), by taking the reciprocal of both sides, we have the another common form of the Michaelis-Menten rate law:

$$\frac{1}{V} = \frac{1}{k_2[E_0]} + \frac{k_m}{k_2[E_0][S]}....(6)$$

☐ Thus the reciprocal of the reaction rate is a linear function of the reciprocal of the substrate concentration when the total amount of the enzyme is held constant.



We have, Michaelis—Menten equation as:

$$V = \frac{k_2[E_0][S]}{km + [S]} \dots (a)$$

Let us analyze the dependence of reaction rate on the concentration of the substrate given by this equation.

□ Condition 1

At sufficiently low substrate concentration: [S] $<< K_m$

Hence the concentration of substrate can be neglected compared to $K_{\rm m}$

And equation(a) reduces to the form as given below:

$$V = \frac{k_2[E_0][S]}{km}$$

• This rate law equation shows that the rate is <u>first</u> order with respect to substrate concentration.

□ Condition 2

At sufficiently high substrate concentration: $K_m \ll [S]$

 Hence K_m is neglected compared to concentration of substrate and equation(a) reduces to the form as given below:

$$V = k_2 [E_0]$$

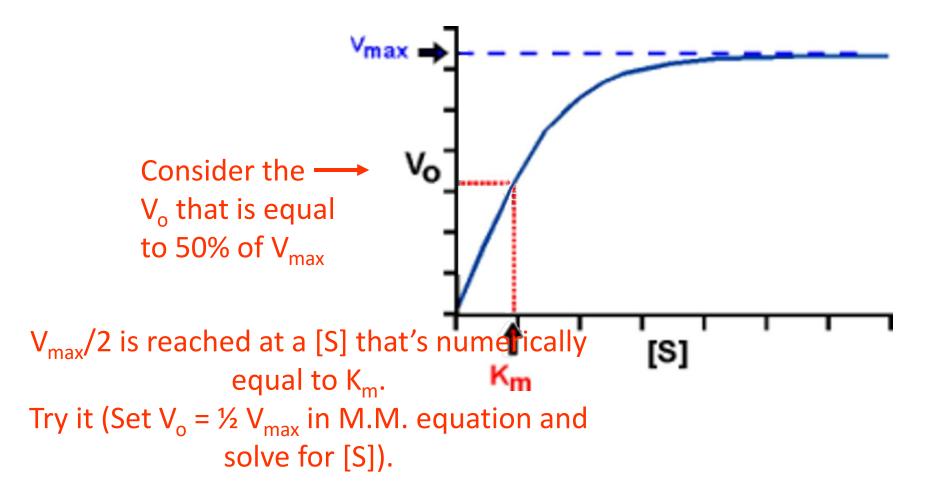
• This rate law equation shows that the rate is <u>zero</u> order with respect to substrate concentration.

Question

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Give the physical reason behind reaction rate which changes from first to zero order with respect to substrate concentration as the substrate concentration is increased.

Understanding K_m



So, K_m is numerically equal to the concentration of substrate required to drive the reaction at $\frac{1}{2}$ the maximal velocity