Equilibrium is a state in which there are no observable changes as time goes by. When a chemical reaction has attained the equilibrium state, the concentrations of reactants and products remain constant over time, and there are no visible changes in the system. However, there is much activity at the molecular level because reactant molecules continue to form product molecules while product molecules react to yield reactant molecules. This dynamic situation is the subject of this lesson.

When such stable chemical equilibria are subjected to stress, the equilibria try to readjust and are reestablished. Such effects on equilibrium would be studied under Le-Chatelier's principle.

## **JEE Syllabus**

Law of mass action; Equilibrium constant, Le Chatelier's principle (effect of concentration, temperature and pressure); Significance of  $\Delta G$  and  $\Delta G^{\circ}$  in chemical equilibrium.

### 1. EQUILIBRIUM

The term "equilibrium" in physical sense is defined as the ''no change of state of the body''. The state of the body can be either the state of rest or the state of uniform motion. Such static equilibrium can be further categorized into stable and unstable equilibriums.

A well-known equilibrium is between liquid water and its vapour,  $H_2O(l) \longrightarrow H_2O(g)$ . When  $H_2O(l)$  is taken in a closed container, some water molecules go into the vapour phase (vaporization process) and simultaneously, water molecules return to the liquid phase (condensation process). Initially, the rate of vaporization is greater than the rate of condensation but after some time the rate of evaporation and the rate of condensation becomes equal. Thus, the number of water molecules leaving and the number of water molecules returning to the liquid phase are equal. At this stage, both the processes takes place but it seems that the changes are not occurring, as the composition of the system does not change. Such processes in which forward and backward changes are occurring at the same rate are referred dynamic equilibrium.  $H_2O(l) \longrightarrow H_2O(g)$  equilibrium involving two phases of the same substance is called physical equilibrium because the changes that occur are physical changes.

In this lesson, we will be more concerned with the state of equilibrium attained in chemical reactions. Most of the chemical reactions are reversible in nature (i.e., occurs in both the directions). At the start of a reversible reaction (containing only reactants only), the reaction proceeds toward the formation of products. As soon as some product molecules are formed, theoretically the reverse reaction also begins to take place and reactant molecules are formed from product molecules.

Chemical equilibrium is achieved when the rate of the forward and reverse reactions is equal and the concentrations of the reactants and products remain constant.

The reversible reaction occurs in forward as well as reverse directions. The forward and reverse reactions are occurring in opposite direction. When the rates of two opposing reactions become equal, equilibrium is established. At equilibrium, no further change in the system is observed. This does not mean that the reaction has ceased, but a continuous cyclic situation result in which reactant gives product and products react to give original reactant. Such equilibria are called dynamic equilibria. Chemical equilibria are stable and dynamic in nature.

Most chemical reactions have a tendency to attain equilibrium but there are certain chemical reactions, which remain unidirectional only. Such reactions are called *irreversible reactions*.

#### 2. REVERSIBLE REACTIONS AND CHEMICAL EQUILIBRIUM

#### **Reversible reactions**

If the products of a certain reaction can give back the reactants under the same or different conditions, the reaction is said to be a reversible reaction. For example, when steam is passed over red hot iron, ferrosoferric oxide and hydrogen are formed.

$$3Fe + 4H_2O \longrightarrow Fe_3O_4 + 4H_2$$

On the other hand, when hydrogen is passed over heated ferrosoferric oxide, iron and steam are formed.

$$Fe_3O_4 + 4H_2 \longrightarrow 3Fe + 4H_2O$$

Now suppose, iron and steam are heated to a steady temperature *in a closed vessel*, the reaction will not proceed to completion. To start with, we have only iron and steam and they would react to give  $Fe_3O_4$  and  $H_2$ . As the concentrations of Fe and steam decrease with time, the rate of the reaction between iron and steam would decrease with time. At the same time, the amounts of  $Fe_3O_4$  and  $H_2$  increase with time. They would begin to react and the rate of this reaction would increase with time. After a sufficiently long time, it would be seen that the rate at which iron and steam react becomes equal to the rate at which  $Fe_3O_4$  and  $H_2$  react. Then we say that the system is in equilibrium. This equilibrium reaction is thus represented by

$$3\text{Fe} + 4\text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{Fe}_3\text{O}_4 + 4\text{H}_2$$

#### Characteristics of a chemical equilibrium

- At equilibrium, the rate of the forward reaction is equal to the rate of the reverse reaction.
- Since both reactions take place at the same rate, the relative amounts of the reactants and products present at equilibrium will not change with time.
- The equilibrium is dynamic, i.e., the reactions do not cease. Both the forward and reverse reactions continue to take place, although at equal rates.
- Under the same conditions (temperature, pressure and concentration), the same state of equilibrium is reached. Thus when an equimolar mixture of H<sub>2</sub> and I<sub>2</sub> is heated to 440°C,

80% of the mixture would be converted to HI. If HI is heated at 440°C, only 20% would be converted into H<sub>2</sub> and I<sub>2</sub>. This is an unfailing criterion of a chemical equilibrium.

- If one of the condition (temperature, pressure or concentration) under which an equilibrium exists is altered, the equilibrium shifts and a new state of equilibrium is reached.
- A catalyst does not alter the position of equilibrium. It accelerates both the forward and reverse reactions to the same extent and so the same state of equilibrium is reached but quickly. So a catalyst hastens the attainment of equilibrium.

If the reactants and the products in a system are in the same phase, the equilibrium is said to be homogeneous.

For example,

$$H_2(g) + I_2(g) = 2HI(g)$$

represents a homogeneous equilibrium in gaseous phase and

$$CH_3CO_2H(l) + C_2H_5OH(l) \rightleftharpoons CH_3CO_2C_2H_5(l) + H_2O(l)$$

represents a homogeneous equilibrium in solution phase.

A phase is a homogeneous (same composition and properties throughout) part of a system, separated from other phases (or homogeneous parts) by bounding surfaces.

- Any number of gases constitute only one phase.
- In liquid systems, the number of phases = number of layers in the system. Completely miscible liquids such as ethanol and water constitute a single phase. On the other hand, benzene water system has 2 layers and so two phases.
- Each solid constitutes a separate phase, except in the case of solid solutions. [A solid solution, e.g., lead and silver, forms a homogeneous mixture.]

If more than one phase is present in a chemical equilibrium, it is said to be heterogeneous equilibrium.

For example,

$$CaCO_3(s) \rightleftharpoons CaO(s) + CO_2(g)$$

represents a heterogeneous equilibrium involving two solid phases and a gaseous phase.

#### 3. THE LAW OF MASS ACTION

The law of mass action (given by Guldberg and Waage) states that the rate of a chemical reaction is proportional to the product of effective concentrations (active masses) of the reacting species, each raised to a power that is equal to the corresponding stoichiometric number of the substance appearing in the chemical reaction.

By the rate of a chemical reaction we mean the amount of reactant transformed into products in unit time. It is represented by dx/dt.

Active mass means the molar concentration, i.e., the number of moles in 1 litre. Suppose 3 moles of nitrogen are present in a 4 litre vessel, the active mass of nitrogen = 3/4 = 0.75 mole/litre. Active mass of a substance is represented by writing molar concentration in square brackets.

Active mass of reactant ∞ molarity

Active mass of reactant =  $\gamma \times$  molarity

where  $\gamma$  is the activity coefficient.

$$\therefore$$
 a =  $\gamma \times$  molarity

For very dilute solutions, the value of activity coefficient is unity.

$$\therefore$$
 activity (a) = molarity.

Thus, in place of activity of any reactive species, molarity can be used for dilute solutions. In our Syllabus, only dilute solutions are there, so everywhere we would be using the term molarity in place of activity of a species.

### 4. EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANTS, $K_{EQ}$ , $K_C$ , $K_P$ AND $K_{PC}$

(i) Let us have an equilibrium reaction as  $X(g) + Y(g) \Longrightarrow Z(g)$ 

For this reaction, which is in equilibrium, there exist an equilibrium constant ( $K_{eq}$ ) represented as  $K_{eq} = \frac{[Z]}{[X][Y]}$ 

For the given equilibrium, irrespective of the reacting species (i.e, either X + Y or Z or X + Z or X + Z or X + Y + Z) and their amount we start with, the ratio,  $\frac{[Z]}{[X][Y]}$  is always constant at a given temperature. This really looks amazing. Isn't it? Let us see, how such a thing is possible.

We have learnt that at the equilibrium, rate of forward and reverse reactions are equal and we also know the law of mass action. Using this, we can write

Rate of forward reaction  $\propto$  [X] [Y]

Rate of forward reaction =  $k_f[X][Y]$ 

where  $k_f$  is the rate constant for the forward reaction.

Similarly, rate of reverse reaction  $\propto$  [Z]

Rate of reverse reaction =  $k_r$  [Z]

where  $k_r$  is the rate constant for the reverse reaction.

At equilibrium,

Rate of forward reaction = Rate of reverse reaction.

$$k_{f}[X][Y] = k_{r}[Z]$$

$$\frac{k_f}{k_r} = \frac{[Z]}{[X][Y]}$$

Since,  $k_f$  and  $k_r$  are constants at a given temperature, so their ratio  $\frac{k_f}{k_r}$  would also be a constant, referred as  $K_{eq}$ .

$$\therefore K_{eq} = \frac{[Z]}{[X][Y]}$$

As  $K_{eq}$  is the ratio of rate constants for forward and reverse reaction, so the value of  $K_{eq}$  would always be a constant and will not depend on the species we have started with and their initial concentrations.

The given expression involves all variable terms (variable term means the concentration of the involved species changes from the start of the reaction to the stage when equilibrium is reached), so the ratio  $\frac{[Z]}{[X][Y]}$  can also be referred as  $K_C$ .

$$\therefore K_{C} = \frac{[Z]}{[X][Y]}$$

Thus, for the given equilibrium, it seems that  $K_{eq}$  and  $K_{C}$  are same but in actual practice for some other equilibrium, they are not same.

Assuming that the gases X, Y and Z behave ideally, we can use ideal gas equation for them.

$$PV = nRT$$
 
$$P = \left(\frac{n}{V}\right)RT = cRT$$
 
$$c = \left(\frac{P}{RT}\right)$$
 
$$\therefore [X] = \left(\frac{P_X}{RT}\right), [Y] = \left(\frac{P_Y}{RT}\right) \text{ and } [Z] = \left(\frac{P_Z}{RT}\right)$$

$$\therefore K_{C} = \frac{\left(\frac{P_{Z}}{RT}\right)}{\left(\frac{P_{X}}{RT}\right)\left(\frac{P_{Y}}{RT}\right)} = \frac{P_{Z} \times RT}{P_{X} \times P_{Y}}$$

$$\frac{K_{C}}{RT} = \frac{P_{Z}}{P_{x} \times P_{y}}$$

The LHS of the above expression is a constant since  $K_C$ , R and T, all are constant. This implies that RHS is also a constant, which is represented by  $K_P$ .

$$\therefore \qquad \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{P}} = \frac{\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{Z}}}{\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{X}} \times \mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{Y}}}$$

Thus, expression of  $K_P$  involves partial pressures of all the involved species and represents the ratio of partial pressures of products to reactants of an equilibrium reaction.

(ii) Now, let us change the phase of reactant X from gaseous to pure solid. Then the equilibrium reaction can be shown as

$$X(s) + Y(g) \rightleftharpoons Z(g)$$

Its equilibrium constant  $(K_{eq})$  would be

$$K_{eq} = \frac{[Z]}{[X][Y]}$$

Concentration of Y and Z is their respective number of moles per unit volume of the container (as the volume occupied by the gas is equal to the volume of the container). The concentration of X is the number of moles of X per unit volume of solid. As we know, the concentration of all pure solids (and pure liquids) is a constant as it is represented by d/M (where d and M represents its density and molar mass). This ratio of d/M will be a constant whether X is present initially or at equilibrium. This means that the concentration of X is not varying, but is a constant, which can be merged with  $K_{eq}$  to give another constant, called  $K_C$ .

$$K_{eq}[X] = \frac{[Z]}{[Y]}$$

$$\therefore K_{\rm C} = \frac{[Z]}{[Y]}$$

Thus expression of K<sub>C</sub> involves only those species whose concentration changes during the reaction.

The distinction between  $K_{eq}$  and  $K_C$  is that the expression of  $K_{eq}$  involves all the species (whether they are pure solids, pure liquids, gases, solvents or solutions) while the  $K_C$  expression involves only those species whose concentration is a variable (like gases and solutions). Thus, expression of  $K_C$  is devoid of pure components (like pure solids and pure liquids) and solvents.

$$K_{C} = \frac{\frac{P_{Z}}{RT}}{\frac{P_{Y}}{RT}} = \frac{P_{Z}}{P_{Y}}$$

Since, LHS of the expression is constant, so the ratio  $\frac{P_Z}{P_Y}$  would also be constant, represented by  $K_P$ .

$$\therefore \qquad \mathbf{K}_{\mathbf{P}} = \frac{\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{Z}}}{\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{Y}}}$$

(iii) Now, let us change the phase of reactant X from pure solid to solution and add another gaseous product. The equilibrium reaction can now be represented as

$$X(soln.) + Y(g) \Longrightarrow Z(g) + A(g)$$

$$K_{eq} = \frac{[Z][A]}{[X][Y]}$$

We have seen above that concentration of Y, Z and A is a variable but what about the concentration of X now. Let us see. X in solution phase means some moles of X (solute) are dissolved in a particular solvent. The concentration of X is thus given as the number of moles of X per unit volume of solution(volume of the solution has major contribution from the volume of solvent and the volume of solute hardly contributes to it). Let the number of moles of X taken initially are 'a', which are dissolved in 'V' litre of solvent. So, the initial concentration of X is  $\frac{a}{V}$ . Now at equilibrium, the moles of X reacted with Y be 'x'. Thus the concentration of X now becomes  $\left(\frac{a-x}{V}\right)$ . This shows that the concentration of X changes during the reaction and X is thus a variable.

Thus, given expression of  $K_{\text{eq}}$  involve all variable terms, so the ratio  $\frac{[Z][A]}{[X][Y]}$  can be referred as  $K_{C}$ .

$$\therefore K_{\rm C} = \frac{[Z][A]}{[X][Y]}$$

Now, if we try to express the concentration of X, Y, Z and A in terms of partial pressures, we would be able to do it only for Y, Z and A but not for X, since it is a solution. As the concentration of X cannot be expressed in terms of its pressure or vapour pressure and constants, so it should be kept as concentration term only in the equilibrium constant expression.

$$\therefore \qquad K_{\rm C} = \frac{\left(\frac{P_{\rm Z}}{RT}\right)\left(\frac{P_{\rm A}}{RT}\right)}{[X]\left(\frac{P_{\rm Y}}{RT}\right)} = \frac{P_{\rm Z} \times P_{\rm A}}{[X] P_{\rm Y} \times RT}$$

$$K_{C}(RT) = \frac{P_{Z} \times P_{A}}{[X] P_{Y}}$$

The LHS of the expression is a constant (as  $K_C$ , R and T all are constant), which implies that the RHS will also be a constant. But RHS of the expression can neither be called  $K_P$  (as all are not partial pressure terms) nor  $K_C$  (as all are not concentration terms), so such expression that involves partial pressure and concentration terms both are referred as  $K_{PC}$ .

$$\therefore K_{PC} = \frac{P_Z \times P_A}{[X] P_Y}$$

Thus, K<sub>P</sub> can exist only for that equilibrium which satisfies these two conditions.

- (a) At least one of the reactant or product should be in gaseous phase and
- (b) No component of the equilibrium should be in solution phase (because when solution is present, the equilibrium constant would be called  $K_{PC}$ ).
- (iv) Let us consider a different equilibrium reaction of the type,

$$n_1A(g) + n_2B(g) \Longrightarrow m_1C(g) + m_2D(g)$$

The equilibrium constant,  $K_{eq}$  would be  $K_{eq} = \frac{[C]^{m_1}[D]^{m_2}}{[A]^{n_1}[B]^{n_2}}$ 

Since, in this expression all the terms involved are variables, so the ratio  $\frac{[C]^{m_1}[D]^{m_2}}{[A]^{n_1}[B]^{n_2}}$  would also be a constant called  $K_c$ .

$$\therefore K_{C} = \frac{[C]^{m_{1}}[D]^{m_{2}}}{[A]^{n_{1}}[B]^{n_{2}}}$$

The concentration terms can be replaced by  $\frac{P}{RT}$  for each gaseous species.

Thus, 
$$K_{C} = \frac{\left[\frac{P_{C}}{RT}\right]^{m_{1}} \left[\frac{P_{D}}{RT}\right]^{m_{2}}}{\left[\frac{P_{A}}{RT}\right]^{n_{1}} \left[\frac{P_{B}}{RT}\right]^{n_{2}}}$$

Rearranging the expression gives 
$$K_C(RT)^{(m_1+m_2)-(n_1+n_2)} = \frac{(P_C)^{m_1}(P_D)^{m_2}}{(P_A)^{n_1}(P_B)^{n_2}}$$
 .....(i)

The LHS of the expression is a constant since  $K_C$ , R, T and all stoichiometric coefficients are constant. So, RHS of the expression would also be a constant called as  $K_P$  (as the RHS involved all partial pressure terms).

$$\therefore K_{P} = \frac{(P_{C})^{m_{1}} (P_{D})^{m_{2}}}{(P_{A})^{n_{1}} (P_{B})^{n_{2}}} .....(ii)$$

Using equation (i) and (ii), we can write  $K_P = K_C (RT)^{(m_1+m_2)-(n_1+n_2)}$ 

or 
$$K_P = K_C (RT)^{\Delta n}$$

where  $\Delta n = \text{sum}$  of the number of moles of gaseous products – sum of the number of moles of gaseous reactants. Here, R = gas constant and T = absolute or Kelvin temperature at which equilibrium is established. Since, partial pressures are generally noted in atm and concentrations are measured in  $\left(\frac{\text{moles}}{\text{litre}}\right)$ , so the value of R used in the given expression should be in

#### litre-atm per mole per Kelvin.

- (a) When  $\Delta n = 0$ , then  $K_P = K_C$ . For example,  $H_2(g) + I_2(g) \Longrightarrow 2HI(g)$
- (b) When  $\Delta n > 0$ , then  $K_P > K_C$ . For example,  $PCl_5(g) \Longrightarrow PCl_3(g) + Cl_2(g)$  where  $\Delta n = 2 1 = 1$  and  $N_4O_4(g) \Longrightarrow 2NO_2(g)$  where  $\Delta n = 2 1 = 1$
- (c) When  $\Delta n < 0$ , then  $K_P < K_C$ . For example,  $N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \Longrightarrow 2NH_3(g)$  Where  $\Delta n = 2 - (3 + 1) = -2$

### 5. UNITS OF $K_P$ AND $K_C$

Although it is not customary to mention the units of equilibrium constants  $K_P$  and  $K_C$  but when required, the unit of  $K_C$  would be  $\left(\frac{\text{moles}}{\text{litre}}\right)^{\Delta n}$  as the concentration of a species is generally expressed in moles/litre and the unit of  $K_P$  would be  $(atm)^{\Delta n}$  as the partial pressure is generally measured in atm.

In problems, when the units of  $K_P$  and  $K_C$  for equilibrium are given, do check that the value (magnitude) of equilibrium constant is given for the equilibrium in forward direction or reverse direction.

#### 6. PREDICITING DIRECTION OF NET REACTION

The equilibrium constant,  $K_c$  for the reaction between  $H_2(g)$  and  $I_2(g)$  to form HI(g)

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

is 54.5 at 450°C.

Let the number of moles of  $H_2$ ,  $I_2$  and HI, taken in a 1 litre container at 450°C are 0.243, 0.146 and 1.98 respectively. Will there be a net reaction to form more  $H_2$  and  $I_2$  or more HI? This question can be answered by first calculating reaction quotient.

The reaction quotient is defined as the ratio of concentration of the reacting species at any point of time other than the equilibrium stage. It is represented by Q. Thus, inserting the starting concentrations of  $H_2$ ,  $I_2$  and HI in the equilibrium constant expression gives

$$Q = \frac{[HI]_0^2}{[H_2]_0[I_2]_0} = \frac{(1.98)^2}{(0.243)(0.146)} = 110.5$$

where the subscript 0 indicates initial concentrations (before equilibrium is reached).

As we know that every reaction has a tendency to attain equilibrium, so Q value should approach  $K_c$  value. In the present case, Q value is greater than  $K_c$  value, so value of Q can approach  $K_c$  value only when HI starts converting into  $H_2$  and  $I_2$ . Thus, when  $Q > K_c$ , the net reaction proceeds from right to left to reach equilibrium.

To determine the direction in which the net reaction will proceed to achieve equilibrium, we compare the values of Q and  $K_c$ . The three possible cases are as follows:

- (a)  $Q > K_c$ : For such a system, products must be converted to reactants to reach equilibrium. The system proceeds from right to left (consuming products, forming reactants) to reach equilibrium.
- (b)  $Q = K_c$ : The initial concentrations are the equilibrium concentrations. So, the system is already at equilibrium.
- (c)  $Q_c < K_c$ : For such a system, reactants must be converted to products to reach equilibrium. The system proceeds from left to right (consuming reactants, forming products) to attain equilibrium.

### 7. FACTORS AFFECTING EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANT

#### 7.1 NATURE OF REACTANTS AND/OR PRODUCTS

The value of equilibrium constant depends on the nature of reactants as well as on the products. By changing reactant(s) or product(s) of a reaction, the equilibrium constant of the reaction changes. For example,

$$N_2(g) + O_2(g) \Longrightarrow 2NO(g) ; K_{C_1} = \frac{[NO]^2}{[N_2][O_2]}$$

$$N_2(g) + 2O_2 \Longrightarrow 2NO_2(g) ; K_{C_2} = \frac{[NO_2]^2}{[N_2][O_2]^2}$$

Although the reactants are same in the two reactions but the products being different, the value of equilibrium constant for the two reactions will be different. If we start with 'a' and 'b' moles of  $N_2$  and  $O_2$  respectively in both the reactions, carried out in same vessel (V litre capacity), the extent of two reactions occurring will be different and thus, the  $K_C$  for the two reactions differ.

Similarly for reactions,

$$H_2(g) + I_2(g) = 2HI(g)$$

$$H_2(g) + Cl_2(g) \longrightarrow 2HCl(g)$$

The values of the equilibrium constant for the two reactions will be completely different as one of the reactant in the two reactions is different.

#### 7.2 TEMPERATURE

The variation of equilibrium constant with temperature is given by the relation

$$\log \frac{K_2}{K_1} = \frac{\Delta H}{2.303R} \left( \frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right)$$

This can be obtained by the help of Arrhenius equation.

The Arrhenius equation for the rate constant of forward reaction is

$$k_f = \left. A_f e^{-E_a(f)/RT} \right. \qquad \ldots \ldots (2)$$

where,  $k_f$  = rate constant for forward reaction,  $A_f$  = Arrhenius constant for forward reaction, and  $E_{af}$  = Energy of activation for forward reaction.

Similarly, Arrhenius equation for the rate constant of reverse reaction would be

$$k_r = A_r e^{-E_a(r)/RT} \qquad \dots (3)$$

where,  $k_r$  = rate constant for reverse reaction,  $A_r$  = Arrhenius constant for reverse reaction, and  $E_{a_r}$  = Energy of activation for reverse reaction.

Dividing (2) by (3) we get, 
$$\frac{k_f}{k_r} = \frac{A_f}{A_r} e^{\left(\frac{E_{a(r)} - E_{a(f)}}{RT}\right)}$$

We know that  $\frac{k_f}{k_r} = K$  (equilibrium constant)

$$\therefore K = \frac{k_f}{k_r} = \frac{A_f}{A_r} e^{\left(\frac{E_{a(r)} - E_{a(f)}}{RT}\right)}$$

At temperature  $T_1$ ,

$$K_{T_{I}} = \frac{A_{f}}{A_{r}} e^{\left(\frac{E_{a(r)} - E_{a(f)}}{RT_{I}}\right)} \dots (4)$$

At temperature  $T_2$  (with the change of temperature, the Arrhenius constant and activation energies of the forward and reverse reactions do not change),

$$K_{T_2} = \frac{A_f}{A_r} e^{\left(\frac{E_{a(r)} - E_{a(f)}}{RT_2}\right)}$$
....(5)

Dividing (5) by (4) we get

$$\frac{K_{T_2}}{K_{T_1}} \, = \, e^{\left(\frac{E_{a^{(r)}} - E_{a^{(f)}}}{R}\right) \left(\frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1}\right)}$$

Taking log of both the sides,

$$\log \frac{K_{T_2}}{K_{T_1}} = \frac{E_{a^{(r)}} - E_{a^{(f)}}}{2.303 \, R} \left( \frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1} \right)$$

The enthalpy of a reaction is defined in terms of activation energies of forward and reverse reactions as  $E_{a^{(r)}} - E_{a^{(f)}} = -\Delta H$ 

$$\log \frac{K_{T_2}}{K_{T_1}} = \frac{-\Delta H}{2.303 \, R} \left( \frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1} \right)$$

$$\log \frac{K_{T_2}}{K_T} = \frac{\Delta H}{2.303 R} \left( \frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right) \qquad \dots (6)$$

- (a) When  $\Delta H$  is positive (endothermic reactions), an increase in temperature  $(T_2 > T_1)$  will make  $K_{T_2} > K_{T_1}$ , i.e. the reaction goes more in the forward direction and with decrease in temperature, reaction goes in reverse direction.
- (b) When  $\Delta H$  is negative (exothermic reactions), an increase in temperature  $(T_2 > T_1)$ , will take  $K_{T_2} < K_{T_1}$  i.e., the reaction goes in the reverse direction and with decrease in temperature, reaction goes in the forward direction.
- (c) The calculation of equilibrium constant from kinetic consideration is only one of the many approaches. Since equilibrium constant is a thermodynamic quantity its definition and calculation involve detailed thermodynamical consideration which is beyond the scope of JEE syllabus.

#### 7.3 STOICHIOMETRY OF THE EQUILIBRIUM REACTION

The value of  $K_P$  and  $K_C$  depends upon the stoichiometry of reaction since the law of mass action makes use of the given stoichiometric coefficients of the reaction.

$$N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2NH_3(g)$$

$$K_C = \frac{[NH_3]^2}{[N_2][H_2]^3}$$
 ....(i)

$$\frac{1}{2}N_2(g) + \frac{3}{2}H_2(g) \Longrightarrow NH_3(g)$$

$$K'_{C} = \frac{[NH_{3}]}{[N_{2}]^{1/2}[H_{2}]^{3/2}}$$
 .....(ii)

From equation (i) and (ii), we get  $K_C' = \sqrt{K_C}$ 

Thus, in general if an equilibrium reaction is multiplied by 'n', the equilibrium constant of the new reaction would become  $n^{th}$  power of the equilibrium constant of old reaction.

$$\therefore (K_C)_{\text{new}} = (K_C)_{\text{old}}^n$$

#### 7.4 MODE OF WRITING A CHEMICAL EQUATION

The value of K<sub>P</sub> and K<sub>C</sub> also depend on the method of representing a chemical equation.

For example,

$$N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \Longrightarrow 2NH_3(g)$$
  $K_C = \frac{[NH_3]^2}{[N_2][H_2]^3}$ 

When the equilibrium reaction is reversed,

$$2NH_3(g) \rightleftharpoons N_2(g) + 3H_2(g)$$
  $K_C'' = \frac{[N_2][H_2]^3}{[NH_3]^2} = \frac{1}{K_C}$ 

Now, if we write the equilibrium reaction as,

$$NH_3(g) \rightleftharpoons \frac{1}{2}N_2(g) + \frac{3}{2}H_2(g) \qquad K_C''' = \frac{[N_2]^{1/2}[H_2]^{3/2}}{[NH_3]} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{K_C}}$$

#### 8. DEGREE OF DISSOCIATION

Degree of dissociation is the fraction of a mole of the reactant that underwent dissociation. It is represented by ' $\alpha$ '.

$$\alpha = \frac{\text{no. of moles of the reactant dissociated}}{\text{no. of moles of the reactant present initially}}$$

For example,

Let the equilibrium reaction is the dissociation equilibrium of  $NH_3$  into  $N_2$  and  $H_2$ .

$$NH_3(g) = \frac{1}{2} N_2(g) + \frac{3}{2} H_2(g)$$

Let the initial moles of NH<sub>3</sub> taken be 1 and the moles of NH<sub>3</sub> dissociated at equilibrium be 'x'. Then,

$$NH_3(g) \rightleftharpoons \frac{1}{2} N_2(g) + \frac{3}{2} H_2(g)$$

Moles initially

0

Moles at equilibrium  $1-x \frac{x}{2} \frac{3x}{2}$ 

1

Here, x represents the degree of dissociation ( $\alpha$ ). If we would have started with 'a' moles of NH<sub>3</sub> and the moles of NH<sub>3</sub> dissociated is taken as 'x', then the degree of dissociation of NH<sub>3</sub> will not be 'x' but it would be  $\frac{x}{a}$ .

And if out of 'a' moles of  $NH_3$  taken, moles of  $NH_3$  dissociated would be taken as 2x', then the degree of dissociation of  $NH_3$  would be  $\frac{2x'}{a}$ .

The degree of dissociation is defined only for those equilibrium in which dissociation takes place. For example, the degree of dissociation cannot be defined for the reverse reaction in which  $N_2$  and  $H_2$  combine to give  $NH_3$ .

### 9. EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANTS OF VARIOUS EQUILIBRIA

The term homogeneous equilibrium applies to reactions in which all reacting species are in the same phase.

#### 9.1 HOMOGENEOUS EQUILIBRIA IN GASEOUS PHASE

#### (i) Formation of hydrogen iodide

$$H_2(g) + I_2(g) = 2HI(g)$$

Suppose a mixture of 'a' moles of hydrogen and 'b' moles of iodine be heated at a steady temperature in a V L sealed tube until equilibrium is established. Let 'x' moles of hydrogen react at equilibrium. Then x moles of  $I_2$  would also react in the same time and produce 2x moles of HI.

	$H_2(g) +$	$I_2(g)$	2HI(g)
Moles initially	a	b	0
Moles at equilibrium	a-x	b-x	2x
Molar concentration at equilibrium	$\frac{a-x}{V}$	$\frac{\mathbf{b} - x}{\mathbf{V}}$	$\frac{2x}{V}$

$$K_{C} = \frac{[HI]^{2}}{[H_{2}][I_{2}]} = \frac{\left(\frac{2x}{V}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{a-x}{V}\right)\left(\frac{b-x}{V}\right)} = \frac{4x^{2}}{(a-x)(b-x)}$$

Let  $P_T$  be the total pressure at the equilibrium.

$$K_{P} = \frac{(P_{HI})^{2}}{(P_{H_{2}})(P_{I_{2}})} = \frac{\left(\frac{2x}{a+b} \times P_{T}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{a-x}{a+b} \times P_{T}\right)\left(\frac{b-x}{a+b} \times P_{T}\right)} = \frac{4x^{2}}{(a-x)(b-x)}$$

Thus,  $K_p = K_c$ 

Also from the relation,  $K_p = K_c(RT)^{\Delta n}$ 

Since,  $\Delta n$  for this equilibrium reaction is zero,

$$K_p = K_c$$

#### **Illustration 1**

In an experiment it was found that when 20.55 moles of hydrogen were heated with 31.89 moles of iodine at 440°C, the equilibrium mixture contained 2.06 moles of hydrogen, 13.40 moles of iodine and 36.98 moles of HI. Calculate the equilibrium constant for the reaction  $H_2(g) + I_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2HI(g)$ .

#### **Solution:**

In the problem, initial moles of  $H_2$  and  $I_2$  are given. The moles of  $H_2$ ,  $I_2$  and HI are also given at equilibrium, so the initial moles are not needed in the problem to calculate  $K_c$ . Let the volume of the container be 'V' litre.

$$K_{C} = \frac{[HI]^{2}}{[H_{2}][I_{2}]} = \frac{\left(\frac{36.98}{V}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{2.06}{V}\right)\left(\frac{13.40}{V}\right)} = \frac{\left(36.98\right)^{2}}{\left(2.06\right)\left(13.40\right)} = \mathbf{49.54}$$

#### **Illustration 2**

A sample of HI was found to be 22% dissociated when equilibrium was reached. What will be the degree of dissociation if hydrogen is added in the proportion of 1 mole for every mole of HI originally present, the temperature and volume of the system being kept constant?

#### **Solution:**

The degree of dissociation ( $\alpha$ ) is the fraction of 1 mole of HI that has dissociated under the given conditions. If the % dissociation of HI is 22, the degree of dissociation is  $\frac{22}{100} = 0.22$ .

$$2HI(g) \quad \stackrel{\textstyle \longleftarrow}{\longleftarrow} \quad H_2(g) \quad + \qquad I_2(g)$$

Moles at equilibrium

$$1-\alpha$$
  $\alpha/2$   $\alpha/2$ 

$$1 - 0.22 = 0.78$$
 0.11 0.11

$$K_C = \frac{[H_2][I_2]}{[HI]^2} = \frac{0.11 \times 0.11}{(0.78)^2} = 0.0199$$

Let us now add 1 mole of hydrogen when we start with 1 mole of HI. Let x be the degree of dissociation.

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

Moles at equilibrium 
$$1-x$$
  $\left(\frac{x}{2}+1\right)$   $\frac{x}{2}$ 

$$K_C = \frac{[H_2][I_2]}{[HI]^2} = \frac{\left(\frac{x}{2} + 1\right)\left(\frac{x}{2}\right)}{\left(1 - x\right)^2} = 0.0199$$

x = 0.037 or -2.4 (not admissible)

Degree of dissociation = 0.037

% of dissociation = 3.7 (Introduction of  $H_2$  suppresses the dissociation of HI)

#### (ii) Thermal dissociation of PCl<sub>5</sub>

When PCl<sub>5</sub> is heated in a closed vessel at a steady temperature (above 200°C), the following equilibrium is established.

$$PCl_5(g)$$
  $\Longrightarrow$   $PCl_3(g) + Cl_2(g)$ 

Moles at equilibrium  $1 - \alpha$ 

α α

Let  $\alpha$  be the degree of dissociation. Then at equilibrium we will have  $(1 - \alpha)$  mole of PCl<sub>5</sub>,  $\alpha$  mole of PCl<sub>3</sub> and  $\alpha$  mole of Cl<sub>2</sub>. If 'V' litres is the capacity of the vessel, then molar concentration of various species would be

$$[PCl_5] = \frac{1-\alpha}{V}; \quad [PCl_3] = \frac{\alpha}{V}; \quad [Cl_2] = \frac{\alpha}{V}$$

$$K_{C} = \frac{[PCl_{3}][Cl_{2}]}{[PCl_{5}]} = \frac{\frac{\alpha}{V} \times \frac{\alpha}{V}}{\frac{1-\alpha}{V}} = \frac{\alpha^{2}}{V(1-\alpha)}$$

Let P<sub>T</sub> be the total pressure of the equilibrium system.

$$K_{P} \quad = \frac{P_{PCl_{3}} \times P_{Cl_{2}}}{P_{PCl_{5}}} = \frac{\left(\frac{\alpha}{1+\alpha}\right)P_{T} \times \left(\frac{\alpha}{1+\alpha}\right)P_{T}}{\left(\frac{1-\alpha}{1+\alpha}\right)P_{T}} = \frac{\alpha^{2} \ P_{T}}{1-\alpha^{2}}$$

 $\therefore$   $K_P \neq K_C$  (since  $\Delta n$  is not zero)

#### **Illustration 3**

0.1 mole of PCl<sub>5</sub> is vapourized in a litre vessel at 200°C. What will be the concentration of chlorine at equilibrium if the equilibrium constant  $K_C$  for the dissociation of PCl<sub>5</sub> at this temperature is 0.0414?

#### **Solution**

$$PCl_5(g) \longrightarrow PCl_3(g) + Cl_2(g)$$

Moles at equilibrium

$$0.1 - x$$

Let *x* moles of chlorine be present at equilibrium

$$[PCl_5] = \frac{0.1 - x}{1} = 0.1 - x; \quad [PCl_3] = x; \quad [Cl_2] = x$$

$$K_C = 0.0414 = \frac{[PCl_3][Cl_2]}{[PCl_5]} = \frac{x^2}{0.1 - x}$$

x = 0.0469 moles/litre

$$[Cl_2] = 0.0469$$
 moles/litre

#### **Illustration 4**

What will be the degree of dissociation of  $PCl_5$  when 0.1 mole of  $PCl_5$  is placed in a 3 L vessel containing chlorine at 0.5 atm pressure and 250°C? ( $K_P = 1.78$ )

#### **Solution**

$$K_P = \frac{P_{PCl_3} \times P_{Cl_2}}{P_{PCl_e}} = 1.78$$

Let x be the amount of PCl<sub>5</sub> dissociated at equilibrium.

$$P_{PCl_3} = \frac{xRT}{V}$$
;  $P_{Cl_2} = \frac{xRT}{V} + 0.5$ ;  $P_{PCl_5} = \frac{(0.1 - x)RT}{V}$ 

$$\therefore 1.78 = \frac{\frac{xRT}{V} \times \left(\frac{xRT}{V} + 0.5\right)}{\frac{(0.1 - x)RT}{V}} = \frac{x\left(\frac{x \times 0.082 \times 523}{3} + 0.5\right)}{(0.1 - x)}$$

x = 0.0574 mole

Degree of dissociation ( $\alpha$ ) of PCl<sub>5</sub> is the fraction of 1 mole that has dissociated.

$$\alpha = \frac{0.0574}{0.1} = 0.574.$$

#### (iii) Thermal dissociation of dinitrogen tetroxide

Between 22°C and 150°C,  $N_2O_4$  undergoes thermal dissociation and the gas mixture consists of  $N_2O_4$  and  $NO_2$  in reversible equilibrium.

$$N_2O_4(g) \rightleftharpoons 2NO_2(g)$$
 (endothermic)

 $\label{eq:continuous} If \ 1 \ mol \ of \ N_2O_4 \ is \ enclosed \ in \ a \ vessel \ of \ volume \ `V' \ litre \ and \ at \ equilibrium, \ \alpha \ is \ the \ degree \ of \ dissociation \ of \ N_2O_4, then$ 

$$[N_2O_4] = \frac{1-\alpha}{V}$$
;  $[NO_2] = \frac{2\alpha}{V}$ 

$$K_C = \frac{[NO_2]^2}{[N_2O_4]} = \frac{\left(\frac{2\alpha}{V}\right)^2}{\left(\frac{1-\alpha}{V}\right)} = \frac{4\alpha^2}{V(1-\alpha)}$$

$$K_{P} = \frac{(P_{No_{2}})^{2}}{(P_{N_{2}o_{4}})} = \frac{\left(\frac{2\alpha}{1+\alpha} \times P_{T}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{1-\alpha}{1+\alpha} \times P_{T}\right)} = \frac{4\alpha^{2}P_{T}}{1-\alpha^{2}}$$

where P<sub>T</sub> is the total equilibrium pressure.

 $\therefore$   $K_P \neq K_C$  (since  $\Delta n$  is not zero)

#### **Illustration 5**

The equilibrium constant  $K_P$  for the reaction  $N_2O_4(g)$   $\Longrightarrow$   $2NO_2(g)$  at 497°C is found to be 636 mm Hg. If the pressure of the gas mixture is 182 mm, calculate the percentage dissociation of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>4</sub>. At what pressure will it be half dissociated?

#### **Solution**

$$K_P \!= \frac{4\alpha^2 P_T}{1-\alpha^2}$$

$$636 = \frac{4\alpha^2 \times 182}{1 - \alpha^2}$$

$$636 - 636\alpha^2 = 728\alpha^2$$

$$636 - 636\alpha^2 = 728\alpha^2$$

$$1364\alpha^2 = 636$$

$$1364\alpha^2 = 636$$
  $\alpha^2 = \frac{636}{1364} = 0.4663$ ;  $\alpha = \sqrt{0.4663} = 0.6829$ 

% dissociation of  $N_2O_4 = 0.6829 \times 100 = 68.29$ 

When the gas is half dissociated,  $\alpha = 0.5$ 

Let the pressure be  $P'_{T}$  mm Hg.

$$636 = \frac{4 \times (0.5)^2 \times P_T'}{1 - (0.5)^2}$$

$$P'_{T} = 477 \text{ mm}$$

#### Synthesis of ammonia (Haber's process) (iv)

$$N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ \ ; \Delta H = -46 \ kJ \ mol^{-1}$$

Suppose we start with 1 mole of nitrogen and 3 moles of H<sub>2</sub> in a vessel of capacity 'V' litres and heat the mixture at a steady temperature (250°C) under pressure.

Let x moles of  $N_2$  react. Then

$$N_2(g) \quad + \quad \quad 3H_2(g) \quad \Longrightarrow 2NH_3(g)$$

Molar conc. at equilibrium 
$$\frac{1-x}{V}$$
  $\frac{3(1-x)}{V}$   $\frac{2x}{V}$ 

$$K_{C} = \frac{[NH_{3}]^{2}}{[N_{2}][H_{2}]^{3}} = \frac{\left(\frac{2x}{V}\right)^{2}}{\frac{1-x}{V} \times \left(\frac{3(1-x)}{V}\right)^{3}} = \frac{4x^{2}V^{2}}{27(1-x)^{4}}$$

$$K_{P} = \frac{\left(P_{NH_{3}}\right)^{2}}{\left(P_{N_{2}}\right) \times \left(P_{H_{2}}\right)^{3}} = \frac{\left(\frac{2x}{4 - 2x} \times P_{T}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{(1 - x)}{4 - 2x} \times P_{T}\right) \left(\frac{3(1 - x)}{4 - 2x} \times P_{T}\right)^{3}} = \frac{4x^{2}(4 - 2x)^{2}}{27(1 - x)^{4}(P_{T})^{2}}$$

where P<sub>T</sub> is the total pressure at equilibrium.

$$K_P \neq K_C$$
 (as  $\Delta n$  is non-zero)

#### **Illustration 6**

For the reaction

$$N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \implies 2NH_3(g)$$
;  $\Delta H = -46 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ 

Calculate the value of  $K_P$ . Given  $K_C = 0.5 \text{ lit}^2 \text{ mol}^{-2}$  at  $400^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

#### **Solution**

$$K_P = K_C(RT)^{\Delta n}$$

$$\Delta n = 2 - 4 = -2$$

$$K_P = 0.5(0.082 \times 673)^{-2} = \frac{0.5}{(0.082 \times 673)^2} = 1.641 \times 10^{-4}.$$

#### **Illustration 7**

1 mole of nitrogen is mixed with 3 moles of hydrogen in a 4 L container. If 0.25% of  $N_2$  is converted into ammonia by the following reaction

$$N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) = 2NH_3(g)$$

Calculate the equilibrium constant  $K_C$  in concentration units. What will be the value of  $K_C$  for the following equilibrium?

$$\frac{1}{2}N_2(g) + \frac{3}{2}H_2(g) \rightleftharpoons NH_3(g)$$

#### **Solution**

$$N_2$$
 +  $3H_2$   $\Longrightarrow 2NH_3$ 

Initial moles: 1 3 0

Moles at equilibrium: 1-x 3-3x 2x

$$K_{C} = \frac{\left(\frac{2x}{V}\right)^{2}}{\left(\frac{1-x}{V}\right)\left(\frac{3-3x}{V}\right)^{3}} = \frac{4x^{2}V^{2}}{27(1-x)^{4}} = \frac{4 \times (0.0025)^{2} \times 4^{2}}{27(1-0.0025)^{4}}$$

$$K_C = 1.496 \times 10^{-5} \text{ litre}^2 \text{ mole}^{-2}$$

$$K_C = \frac{[NH_3]^2}{[N_2][H_2]^3}$$

For the equilibrium  $\frac{1}{2}N_2 + \frac{3}{2}H_2 \rightleftharpoons$  NH<sub>3</sub>, the equilibrium constant would be

$$K'_{c} = \frac{[NH_{3}]}{[N_{2}]^{1/2}[H_{2}]^{3/2}} = K'_{c} = \sqrt{K_{c}} = \sqrt{1.496 \times 10^{-5}}$$

$$= 3.86 \times 10^{-3} \text{ litre mol}^{-1}$$

#### 9.2 HOMOGENEOUS EQUILIBRIA IN SOLUTION PHASE

Formation of ethyl acetate

This equilibrium can be represented by the equation

$$C_2H_5OH(l) + CH_3COOH(l) \rightleftharpoons CH_3COOC_2H_5(l) + H_2O(l)$$

Although for each species, we write l in the parenthesis but they are not pure liquids. Once the liquids are mixed, they form a homogeneous solution. Thus, the concentration of each species changes during establishment of equilibrium. If the system behaved ideally,

$$K_c = \frac{[CH_3COOC_2H_5][H_2O]}{[C_2H_5OH][CH_3COOH]}$$

Let the total volume of the solution be 'V' litre and the initial number of moles of acetic acid and that of ethanol be 'a' and 'b' respectively.

Let 'x' moles of acetic acid react at equilibrium. Then 'x' moles of ethyl acetate and 'x' moles of water would be formed. At equilibrium,

$$[CH_3COOH] = \frac{a-x}{V}; [C_2H_5OH] = \frac{b-x}{V}; [CH_3COOC_2H_5] = \frac{x}{V}; [H_2O] = \frac{x}{V}$$

$$K_{C} = \frac{\frac{x}{V} \times \frac{x}{V}}{\frac{(a-x)}{V} \times \frac{(b-x)}{V}} = \frac{x^{2}}{(a-x)(b-x)}$$

#### Illustration 8.

Determine the amount of ester present under equilibrium when 3 moles of ethyl alcohol react with 1 mole of acetic acid, when equilibrium constant of the reaction is 4.

#### **Solution**

CH<sub>3</sub>COOH + C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH 
$$\Longrightarrow$$
 CH<sub>3</sub>COOC<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub> + H<sub>2</sub>O  
1-x 3-x x x  
 $K_C = 4 = \frac{x \times x}{(1-x)(3-x)} = \frac{x^2}{3-4x+x^2}$ 

$$3x^2 - 16x + 12 = 0$$

x = 0.903 or 4.43 (inadmissible)

 $\therefore$  Amount of ester at equilibrium = 0.903 mole.

### 9.3 EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANT FOR VARIOUS

### HETEROGENEOUS EQUILIBRIA

Heterogeneous equilibrium results from a reversible reaction involving reactants and products that are in different phases. The law of mass action applicable to a homogeneous equilibrium is also applicable to a heterogeneous system.

#### (a) Decomposition of solid CaCO3 into solid CaO and gaseous CO2

Let 'a' moles of CaCO<sub>3</sub> are taken in a vessel of volume 'V' litre at temperature 'T' K.

$$CaCO_3(s) \rightleftharpoons CaO(s) + CO_2(g)$$

Moles initially a

0

Moles at equilibrium a - x

x :

$$K_{eq} = \frac{[CaO] \times [CO_2]}{[CaCO_3]}$$

As CaCO<sub>3</sub> and CaO(s) are pure solids, so their d/M is a constant and their concentrations do not change as long as they are present. Thus the equilibrium expression can be rearranged as

$$K_{eq} \frac{[CaCO_3]}{[CaO]} = [CO_2]$$

It can be seen that left hand side of the equation is a constant represented by K<sub>c</sub>.

$$\therefore K_c = [CO_2] = \frac{x}{V} \qquad \dots (i)$$

Assuming  $CO_2$  gas to behave ideally at the temperature & pressure of the reaction, the molar concentration of  $CO_2$  can be written using ideal gas equation as  $\frac{P_{CO_2}}{RT}$ .

$$\therefore K_{c} = \frac{P_{CO_{2}}}{RT}$$

$$K_c(RT) = \, P_{CO_2}$$

Since K<sub>c</sub>, R and T are constants, their product will also be a constant referred as K<sub>p</sub>.

$$\therefore K_p = P_{CO_2} = \frac{xRT}{V} \qquad \qquad .....(ii)$$

From equation (i) and (ii), it is clear that whenever the equilibrium would be attained at 'T' K, in a vessel of volume 'V' litre, the moles of  $CO_2$  present at equilibrium should be x (which can exert a pressure equal to  $P_{CO_2}$ ) If rather than starting with 'a' mole of  $CaCO_3$ , we start with x moles of  $CaCO_3$  in the vessel of volume 'V' at 'T'K, then the entire  $CaCO_3$  would have decomposed to give  $CO_2$  but the equilibrium can not be maintained as there would be no  $CaCO_3$  left. Further if the moles of  $CaCO_3$  taken in the same vessel at same temperature were less than x, the equilibrium would never be attained. Thus, any amount (moles) of  $CaCO_3$  more than x would be sufficient to establish the equilibrium. The minimum moles of  $CaCO_3$  required would be x, as any moles more than this would be sufficient to establish the equilibrium. So the minimum moles of  $CaCO_3$  required to attain equilibrium under given conditions would be x.

The given equilibrium can be made to move in the forward direction by either removing some moles of CO<sub>2</sub> or by increasing the volume of the container or by increasing the temperature of the reaction (as the reaction is endothermic). Addition of solid CaCO<sub>3</sub> or CaO to the equilibrium mixture will not affect the equilibrium at all.

For such equilibria, at any temperature, there will be a fixed value of the pressure of CO<sub>2</sub>, which is called as *dissociation pressure*. The dissociation pressure of heterogeneous equilibria is defined as the total pressure exerted by the gaseous species in equilibrium with the solid species. The relation giving the variation of Kp with temperature is

$$\log \frac{(K_p)_{T_2}}{(K_p)_{T_1}} = \frac{\Delta H}{2.303R} \left[ \frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right]$$

#### **Illustration 9**

Consider the following heterogeneous equilibrium,

$$CaCO_3(s) \rightleftharpoons CaO(s) + CO_2(g).$$

At 800°C, the pressure of CO<sub>2</sub> is 0.236 atm.

Calculate (a)  $K_p$  and (b)  $K_c$  for the equilibrium reaction at this temperature.

#### **Solution**

For the given equilibrium, partial pressure of  $CO_2$  is nothing but equal to  $K_p$ .

:. 
$$K_p = p_{CO_2} = 0.236$$
 atm

For an equilibrium reaction,

$$K_p = K_c (RT)^{\Delta n}$$

As 
$$\Delta n = 1$$
, so  $K_c = \frac{K_p}{RT} = \frac{0.236}{0.0821 \times 1073}$ 

$$\therefore$$
 K<sub>c</sub> = 2.68 × 10<sup>-3</sup> moles/litre

#### (b) Reaction of solid phosphorous with gaseous Cl<sub>2</sub> to form liquid PCl<sub>3</sub>

$$P_4(s) + 6Cl_2(g) \Longrightarrow 4PCl_3(l)$$

The equilibrium constant is given by

$$K_{eq} = \frac{[PCl_3]^4}{[P_4][Cl_2]^6}$$

Since, pure solids and pure liquids do not appear in the equilibrium constant expression, thus expression can be rearranged as

$$K_{eq} \times \frac{[P_4]}{[PCl_3]^4} = \frac{1}{[Cl_2]^6}$$

$$\therefore K_{c} = \frac{1}{[Cl_{2}]^{6}}$$

Alternatively, we can express the equilibrium constant in terms of the pressure of Cl<sub>2</sub>.

$$K_p = \frac{1}{(P_{Cl_2})^6}$$

#### (c) Dissociation of ammonium hydrogen sulfide

Let the moles of  $NH_4HS(s)$  taken in a vessel of volume 'V' litre be 'a' at temperature 'T'K. At equilibrium, x moles of  $NH_4HS$  dissociates to give  $NH_3(g)$  and  $H_2S(g)$ .

$$NH_4HS(s) \rightleftharpoons NH_3(g) + H_2S(g)$$

Moles initially

a

0

0

Moles of equilibrium

a - x

 $\boldsymbol{x}$ 

 $\boldsymbol{x}$ 

$$K_{eq} = \frac{[NH_3][H_2S]}{[NH_4HS]}$$

As the concentration of  $NH_4HS$  is a constant, so it can be merged with  $K_{\text{eq}}$  to get  $K_{\text{C}}$ .

$$K_{eq} [NH_4HS] = [NH_3] [H_2S]$$

$$\therefore K_{C} = [NH_{3}] [H_{2}S] = \left(\frac{x}{V}\right) \times \left(\frac{x}{V}\right) = \left(\frac{x}{V}\right)^{2}$$

Assuming  $H_2S$  and  $NH_3$  to behave ideally at the given temperature and pressure of the reaction, the molar concentration of the gas can be written as  $\frac{P}{RT}$ .

:. 
$$[NH_3] = [H_2S] = \frac{P_{NH_3}}{RT} = \frac{P_{H_2S}}{RT}$$

$$\therefore K_{C} = \left(\frac{P_{NH_{3}}}{RT}\right) \times \left(\frac{P_{H_{2}S}}{RT}\right)$$

$$K_C(RT)^2 = P_{NH_3} \times P_{H_2S}$$

Since, LHS of the expression is constant it can be represented by another constant, K<sub>P</sub>.

$$\therefore K_P = P_{NH_3} \times P_{H_2S}.$$

If the dissociation pressure measured for NH<sub>4</sub>HS be P<sub>T</sub> atm, then

$$P_{NH_3} = P_{H_2S} = \frac{P_T}{2}$$

$$\therefore K_{P} = \left(\frac{P_{T}}{2}\right) \times \left(\frac{P_{T}}{2}\right) = \frac{\left(P_{T}\right)^{2}}{4}$$

### 10. MULTIPLE EQUILIBRIA

We have so far considered relatively simple equilibrium reactions. Let us take a slightly complicated situation, in which the product molecules(s) in one equilibrium system are involved in a second equilibrium process.

$$A(g) + B(g) \rightleftharpoons C(g) + D(g)$$
 ;  $K_{C_1} = \frac{[C][D]}{[A][B]}$ 

$$C(g) + E(g) = F(\underline{g}) + G(g) \qquad ; \qquad K_{C_2} = \frac{[F][G]}{[C][E]}$$

Overall reaction: 
$$A(g) + B(g) + E(g) \Longrightarrow D(g) + F(g) + G(g); \qquad K_{C_3} = \frac{[D][F][G]}{[A][B][E]}$$

In this case, one of the product molecule, C(g) of the first equilibrium reaction combines with E(g) to give F(g) and G(g) in another equilibrium reaction, so in the overall reaction, C(g) will not appear on either side.

The equilibrium constant  $(K_{C_3})$  of the overall reaction can be obtained if we take the product of the expressions of  $(K_{C_1})$  and  $(K_{C_2})$ .

$$K_{C_1} \times K_{C_2} = \frac{[C][D]}{[A][B]} \times \frac{[F][G]}{[C][E]} = \frac{[D][F][G]}{[A][B][E]}$$

$$\therefore K_{C_1} \times K_{C_2} = K_{C_3}$$

Thus, if an equilibrium reaction can be expressed as the sum of two or more equilibrium reactions, then the equilibrium constant for the overall reaction is given by the product of the equilibrium constants of the individual reactions.

### 11. SIMULTANEOUS EQUILIBRIA

When more than one equilibrium are established in a vessel at the same time and any one of the reactant or product is common in more than one equilibrium, then the equilibrium concentration of the common species in all the equilibrium would be same.

For example, if we take  $CaCO_3(s)$  and C(s) together in a vessel of capacity 'V' litre and heat it at temperature 'T' K, then  $CaCO_3$  decomposes to CaO(s) and  $CO_2(g)$ . Further, evolved  $CO_2$  combines with the C(s) to give carbon monoxide. Let the moles of  $CaCO_3$  and carbon taken initially be 'a' and 'b' respectively. Let x moles of  $CaCO_3$  reacts and y moles of carbon till equilibrium.

Moles of Any Substance at Equilibrium = Initial moles + Moles formed – Moles Reacted

Moles of CaCO<sub>3</sub> at Equilibrium = a + 0 - x = a - x

Moles of CaO at Equilibrium = 0 + x - 0 = x

Moles of  $CO_2$  at Equilibrium = 0 + x - y = x - y

Moles of C at Equilibrium = b + 0 - y = b - y

Moles of CO at Equilibrium = 0 + 0 + 2y = 2y

$$CaCO_3(s) \rightleftharpoons CaO(s) + CO_2(g)$$

Moles at equilibrium a - x

$$x = (x - y)$$

$$CO_2(g) + C(s) \implies 2CO(g)$$

Moles at equilibrium (x - y) (b - y) 2y

Thus, as  $CO_2$  is common in both the equilibrium so its concentration is same in both the equilibrium constant expressions.

Equilibrium constant for first equilibrium,  $K_{C_1} = [CO_2] = \frac{x - y}{y}$ 

Equilibrium constant for second equilibrium, 
$$K_{C_2} = \frac{[CO]^2}{[CO_2]} = \frac{(2y)^2 V}{V^2(x-y)} = \frac{4y^2}{V(x-y)}$$

# POINTS TO BE REMEMBERED FOR WRITING EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANT EXPRESSIONS

- The concentration of the reacting species in the solution phase is expressed in mol/litre.
- The concentration of the reacting species in the gaseous phase can be expressed either in mol/litre or in atm.
- The concentration of pure solid, pure liquids (in heterogeneous equilibria) and solvents (in homogeneous equilibria) are constant and do not appear in the equilibrium constant expression of a reaction.
- $K_p$  and  $K_c$  are related as,  $K_p = K_c(RT)^{\Delta n}$  where  $\Delta n =$  number of moles of gaseous product-number of moles of gaseous reactant.
- It is not customary to write units of equilibrium constants  $(K_p \text{ and } K_c)$  but when mentioned, the units of  $K_p$  are  $(atm)^{\Delta n}$  and units of  $K_c$  are  $\left(\frac{moles}{litre}\right)^{\Delta n}$ .
- In quoting the value of equilibrium constant, we must specify the balanced equation and the temperature at which equilibrium is established.
- If a reaction can be expressed as the sum of two or more reactions, the product of the equilibrium constants of the individual reactions gives the equilibrium constant for the overall reaction.
- If two equilibria have been established in a vessel and any reactant or product is common to both the equilibria, then the equilibrium concentration of the common species will be same in both the equilibria.

#### 12. THE LE CHATELIER-BRAUN PRINCIPLE

Chemical equilibrium represents a balance between forward and reverse reactions. In most cases, this balance is quite delicate. Changes in concentration, pressure, volume and temperature may disturb the balance and shift the equilibrium position so that more or less of the desired product is formed. There is a general rule (named Le Chatelier's principle) that helps us to predict the direction in which an equilibrium reaction will move when a change in concentration, pressure, volume or temperature occurs.

Le Chatelier's principle states that if an external stress is applied to a system at equilibrium, the system adjusts in such a way that the stress is partially offset.

The word "stress" here implies a change in concentration, pressure, volume, addition of an inert gas or temperature that removes a system from the equilibrium state.

The Le Chatelier's principle can be explained using the following equilibrium reaction.

$$PCl_5(g) \Longrightarrow PCl_3(g) + Cl_2(g)$$

Let the moles of  $PCl_5$ ,  $PCl_3$  and  $Cl_2$  at equilibrium be a, b and c respectively. Also let the volume of the container in which equilibrium is established be 'V' litre and the total pressure of the system at equilibrium be  $P_T$  atm.

$$K_{P} = \frac{(P_{PCl_{3}})(P_{Cl_{2}})}{(P_{PCl_{5}})} = \frac{\left(\frac{b}{a+b+c} \times P_{T}\right) \left(\frac{c}{a+b+c} \times P_{T}\right)}{\left(\frac{a}{a+b+c} \times P_{T}\right)}$$

$$\therefore K_{P} = \frac{bc \times P_{T}}{a(a+b+c)} \dots (i)$$

The total pressure of the system  $(P_T)$  can be given as (assuming all gases at equilibrium behave ideally under the given conditions)

$$P_{T} = \frac{(a+b+c) RT}{V}$$

$$\therefore \frac{P_{T}}{(a+b+c)} = \frac{RT}{V}$$

Inserting the value of  $\frac{P_T}{(a+b+c)}$  in equation (i), we get

$$K_{P} = \frac{bc \times RT}{a \times V} \qquad \dots (ii)$$

Now, let us examine the effect of change of certain parameters like moles of reactant, moles of product, volume, temperature, addition of inert gas and addition of catalyst on the given equilibrium.

#### 12.1 CHANGE IN NUMBER OF MOLES OF REACTANT

If we add 'd' moles of  $PCl_5$  to the equilibrium mixture, the equilibrium would be disturbed and the expression  $\frac{bc \times RT}{(a+d) \, V}$  becomes  $Q_P$ . As  $Q_P < K_P$ , so the net reaction moves in the forward direction till  $Q_P$  becomes equal to  $K_P$ .

Thus for any equilibrium, when more reactant is added to (or some product is removed from) an equilibrium mixture, net reaction moves in forward direction (as Q < K) to establish a new equilibrium state.

#### 12.2 CHANGE IN NUMBER OF MOLES OF PRODUCT

Let 'd' moles of  $PCl_3$  (or  $Cl_2$ ) are added to the equilibrium. The equilibrium would be under stress and thus the expression  $\frac{(b+d) \ c \times RT}{a \times V}$  would become  $Q_P$ . Since,  $Q_P > K_P$ , so the net reaction moves in the reverse direction till  $Q_P$  becomes same as  $K_P$ .

Thus for any equilibrium, when product is added to (or some reactant is removed from) an equilibrium mixture, net reaction moves in reverse (backward) direction (as Q > K) to establish a new equilibrium state.

#### 12.3 CHANGE IN VOLUME

Let the volume of the container be increased from V to V' litre. The equilibrium would be disturbed and the expression  $\frac{bc \times RT}{a \times V'}$  becomes  $Q_P$ . The value of  $Q_P$  is less than  $K_P$ , so the net reaction moves in the forward direction to establish new equilibrium. But when the volume of the

container is decreased, the reaction moves in the backward direction to again attain the equilibrium state.

Thus for any equilibrium, on increasing the volume of the container, the net reaction shifts in the direction of more moles of the gases while on decreasing the volume of the vessel, the reaction goes in the direction of fewer moles of the gases.

#### 12.4 ADDITION OF AN INERT GAS

The effect of addition of an inert gas can be studied under two conditions i.e., at constant volume and at constant pressure.

Let us first see the effect of addition of an inert gas (gas that does not react with any of the component of the equilibrium mixture under the given conditions of the equilibrium. That's why they are also refereed as non-reacting gases) to the equilibrium system at constant volume and then at constant pressure.

Let 'd' moles of an inert gas are added to the equilibrium mixture at constant volume. The total number of moles of the system increases so too the pressure of the system but the partial pressure of all the species would still be same. Let the total pressure becomes  $P_T'$  then

$$\frac{P_T'}{(a+b+c+d)} = \frac{RT}{V}$$
. As R, T and V are constant, so the expression  $\frac{bc \times RT}{a \times V}$  would still be equal to

 $K_P$ . As,  $Q_P = K_P$ , the net reaction does not move at all.

Thus for any equilibrium, when an inert gas is added at constant volume, the equilibrium remains unaffected whether the equilibrium reaction have  $\Delta n$  equal to zero or non-zero.

Now, let 'd' moles of an inert gas are added to the equilibrium mixture at constant pressure. To keep the pressure constant, volume of the vessel should increase. Let the volume of the vessel increases from V to V' litre. So, the expression  $\frac{bc \times RT}{a \times V'}$  becomes QP. As the value of QP < KP, so the net reaction moves in the forward direction to establish new equilibrium state. Thus, addition of an inert gas at constant pressure has the same effect as produced by the increased volume of the container.

Thus, for equilibrium having  $\Delta n = 0$ , when an inert gas is added at constant pressure, the equilibrium remains unaffected (since V does not appear in the expression of  $K_P$ ) while for equilibrium having  $\Delta n \neq 0$ , the addition of an inert gas at constant pressure causes reaction to move in the direction of more moles of the gases.

#### 12.5 ADDITION OF A CATALYST

We know that a catalyst enhances the rate of a reaction by lowering the reaction's activation energy. Actually a catalyst lowers the activation energy of the forward reaction and the reverse reaction to the same extent. We can thus conclude that the *presence of a catalyst does not alter the equilibrium constant nor does it shift the position of an equilibrium system.* Adding a catalyst to a reaction mixture that is not at equilibrium will simply cause the mixture to reach equilibrium sooner. The same equilibrium mixture could be obtained without the catalyst, but we might have to wait much longer for it to happen.

#### 12.6 CHANGE IN TEMPERATURE

If we increase the temperature of the reaction from T K to T'K, equilibrium would be disturbed and the expression  $\frac{bc \times RT'}{a \times V}$  becomes  $Q_P$ . Therefore, it seems that the reaction moves in the backward direction as  $Q_P > K_P$  but actually it is not so. According to such predictions, no change in the equilibrium reaction would be observed on increasing temperature for reactions having  $\Delta n = 0$ , as T would not appear in the expression of  $K_P$ , but in actual practice such reactions also move in a particular direction (either backward or forward) on increasing the temperature.

Answer to these facts lie in the truth that  $K_P$  is temperature dependent and with the increase of temperature,  $K_P$  either increases or decreases.

For the given equilibrium, with the increase of temperature from T K to T'K, Q<sub>P</sub> increases.

$$\therefore \qquad Q_{P_{T}}' = \frac{bc \times RT'}{a \times V} \text{ and } Q_{P_{T}} = \frac{bc \times RT}{a \times V}$$

$$Q_{P_{T}}' > Q_{P_{T}} \quad (as \ T' > T)$$

With the increase of temperature,  $K_P$  also changes, which can either increase or decrease. If  $K_P$  decreases, then  $K_{P_T}' < Q_{P_T}'$  and net reaction moves in the backward direction but if  $K_P$  increases,

then  $K_{P_T}'$  could either be equal to  $Q_{P_T}'$  or  $Q_{P_T}'$  or  $Q_{P_T}'$ . The magnitude of  $K_{P_T}'$  can be compared with that of  $Q_{P_T}'$  by looking at the dependence of  $K_P$  and  $Q_P$  on temperature. We have seen that  $K_P$  depends on temperature exponentially while Q depends on T raised to the power 1, 2, 3, 4 etc. Thus, variation in  $K_P$  would be more than the variation in  $Q_P$  on increasing temperature. Therefore,  $K_{P_T}'$  would always be greater than  $Q_{P_T}'$  and the net reaction moves in the forward direction.

Thus, to examine the temperature effect, we need to look at the variation at  $K_P$  only and not at  $Q_P$ . If  $K_P$  increases, the net reaction moves forward while if  $K_P$  decreases, the net reaction moves backward.

The variation of K<sub>P</sub> with temperature is given by Von't Hoff equation as

$$\log \frac{K_T'}{K_T} = \frac{\Delta H}{2.303 R} \left[ \frac{1}{T} - \frac{1}{T'} \right] \quad \text{where T'} > T$$

All reactions are either endothermic or exothermic in nature. For an endothermic reaction,  $\Delta H$  is positive and with an increase in temperature of the system to T' K from T K, the RHS of the expression becomes positive. Thus, equilibrium constant at higher temperature ( $K_T'$ ) would be more than the equilibrium constant at lower temperature ( $K_T$ ).

But for an exothermic reaction,  $\Delta H$  is negative and on increasing the temperature of the system from T K to T'K, the RHS of the expression becomes negative. So, the equilibrium constant at higher temperature would be less than the equilibrium constant at lower temperature.

The given equilibrium,  $PCl_5(g) \rightleftharpoons PCl_3(g) + Cl_2(g)$  is endothermic in nature. So, with the increase of temperature from T K to T' K,  $K_P$  and  $Q_P$  both increases. Therefore, equilibrium shifts in the forward direction.

Thus, for an endothermic reaction ( $\Delta H = positive$ ), with the increase of temperature, net reaction moves in the forward direction and the decrease in temperature favours backward reaction white for an exothermic reaction ( $\Delta H = negative$ ), net reaction moves in the backward direction with the increase of temperature and in forward direction with the decrease of temperature.

In general, with the increase of temperature, net reaction moves in that direction where the heat is absorbed and the effect of increasing temperature is nullified.

#### 12.7 CHANGE IN MORE THAN ONE PARAMETER

For the given equilibrium, if the number of moles of  $PCl_3$  is increased four folds and the volume of the vessel is doubled, then the equilibrium would be disturbed. The expression  $\frac{4b\times c\times RT}{a\times 2V}$  would become  $Q_P$ . Since,  $Q_P>K_P$ , so the net reaction moves in reverse direction till  $Q_P$  becomes equal to  $K_P$ .

Thus, when two or more parameters are simultaneously changed for any equilibrium, find the changed value of Q and K and compare them. If Q = K, there will be no effect on the reaction, if Q > K, the net reaction moves in the backward direction while if Q < K, net reaction moves in the forward direction.

#### 12.8 APPLICATION OF LE CHATELIER'S PRINCIPLE

#### **Solubility**

Some solids, on dissolution in water, absorb heat (endothermic process) and  $\Delta H$  is +ve. Solubility of such solids will increase with temperature. If the heat of solution is –ve, the solubility decreases with temperature.

#### **Melting of ice**

In the system, ice water, when ice starts melting, there is absorption of heat and the volume decreases. Thus, the melting is favoured by increase of temperature and increase of pressure.

#### Synthesis of ammonia

$$N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2NH_3(g); \Delta H = -46 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

On going from reactants to products, there is decrease in volume ( $\Delta n = -2$ ) and so application of high pressure will favour forward reaction. Since forward reaction is exothermic low temperature favours forward reactions.

#### Formation of nitric oxide

$$N_2(g) + O_2(g) \implies 2NO(g)$$
;  $\Delta H = 43.2 \text{ kcal mol}^{-1}$ 

Since  $\Delta n = 0$ , there is no effect on changing the pressure. High temperature favours forward reaction.

#### Dissociation of PCl<sub>5</sub>

$$PCl_5(g) \rightleftharpoons PCl_3(g) + Cl_2(g)$$
;  $\Delta H = +ve$ 

Conditions favourable for forward reactions are (i) low pressure, (ii) high temperature. Oxidation of carbon monoxide by steam:

$$CO(g) + H_2O(g) \rightleftharpoons CO_2(g) + H_2(g)$$
;  $\Delta H = -ve$ 

 $\Delta n = 0$  and so pressure has no effect. Low temperature favours forward reaction and so by employing excess of steam.

#### **Illustration 10**

For the gaseous equilibrium at high temperature,

$$PCl_5(g) \rightleftharpoons PCl_3(g) + Cl_2(g); \Delta H = 87.9 \text{ kJ}$$

explain the effect upon the material distribution of (a) increased temperature (b) increased pressure (c) higher concentration of  $\text{Cl}_2$  (d) higher concentration of  $\text{PCl}_5$  and (e) presence of a catalyst.

#### **Solution:**

- (a) When the temperature of a system in equilibrium is raised (by addition of heat), the equilibrium is displaced in the direction which absorbs heat. Hence increasing the temperature will cause more PCl<sub>5</sub> to dissociate.
- (b) When the pressure of a system in equilibrium is increased, the equilibrium is displaced in the direction of the smaller volume. One volume each of PCl<sub>3</sub> and Cl<sub>2</sub>, a total of 2 gas volumes (on the product side) from only 1 volume of PCl<sub>5</sub>. Hence a pressure increase will promote the reaction to form more PCl<sub>5</sub>.
- (c) Increasing the concentration of any component will displace the equilibrium in the direction which tends to lower the concentration of the component added. Increasing the concentration

of Cl<sub>2</sub> will result in the consumption of more PCl<sub>3</sub> and the formation of more PCl<sub>5</sub> and this action will tend to offset the increased concentration of Cl<sub>2</sub>.

- (d) Increasing the concentration of PCl<sub>5</sub> will result in the formation of more PCl<sub>3</sub> and Cl<sub>2</sub> or more dissociation of PCl<sub>5</sub>.
- (e) A catalyst accelerates both forward and backward reactions equally. It speeds up the approach to equilibrium but does not favor reaction in either direction.

# 13. RELATION BETWEEN VAPOUR DENSITY AND DEGREE OF DISSOCIATION

The relation between vapour density and the degree of dissociation can be established only for a gaseous equilibrium whose  $K_P$  exists. For example,

$$A(g) \rightleftharpoons nB(g)$$

Initial conc.

C

0

Conc. at equilibrium

$$c(1-\alpha)$$
  $nc\alpha$ 

Total concentration at equilibrium =  $c - c\alpha + nc\alpha = c [1 - \alpha + n\alpha] = c [1 + \alpha (n-1)]$ 

Assuming that all the gaseous components at equilibrium behave ideally, we can apply ideal gas equation.

$$PV = nRT = \frac{w}{M} \times RT$$

$$M = \frac{w}{V} \times \frac{RT}{P} = \frac{\rho RT}{P}$$

$$\therefore V.D = \frac{\rho RT}{2P} \qquad ....(i) \quad [since molar mass = 2 \times V.D]$$

As pressure of the system is given by,  $P = \frac{nRT}{V}$ , so putting the value of P in equation (i) gives

$$V.D = \frac{\rho RT}{2nRT} \times V = \frac{\rho V}{2n}$$

where  $\rho$  is the density of the gas or gaseous mixture expressed in g/litre.

If the equilibrium reaction is established in a closed vessel, then vapour density will be inversely proportional to the number of moles of the gaseous species as the density of the gaseous mixture  $(\rho)$  is a constant.

$$\therefore \frac{\text{Initial vapour density}}{\text{Vapour density at equilibriu m}} = \frac{\text{Total moles of gases at equilibriu m}}{\text{Initial moles of gaseous reactant}}$$

Let the initial vapour density and vapour density at equilibrium be 'D' and 'd' respectively, then for the given equilibrium

$$\frac{D}{d} = \frac{c[1 + \alpha(n-1)]}{c}$$

or 
$$\frac{D}{d} = [1 + \alpha (n-1)]$$

or 
$$\frac{D}{d}-1=\alpha (n-1)$$

$$\therefore \qquad \alpha = \frac{(D-d)}{(n-1)d}$$

where 'n' represents the number of moles of gaseous product given by 1 mole of the gaseous reactant.

Knowing D, d and n, the degree of dissociation ( $\alpha$ ) can be calculated.

The vapour density measurement is used for the determination of degree of dissociation of only those equilibria in which 1 mole of the gaseous reactant gives more than one mole of gaseous products. Because when one mole of the gaseous reactant gives only one mole of gaseous product, then 'D' and 'd' would be same and ' $\alpha$ ' cannot be determined.

# 14. RELATION BETWEEN FREE ENERGY CHANGE & EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANT

As you might be aware, every process in nature occurs in order to reduce the energy of a system. This is because reduced energy state has fewer tendencies to undergo change thereby it brings stability. When an object falls from a certain height, the process reduces the potential energy of the system. Whereas, if the object is to be taken to a certain height the potential energy increases. That's why the former occurs on its own, while for the latter work has to be done.

Chemical reactions too occur with decrease in energy. One might of course wonder how does an endothermic reaction occur? Well, even endothermic reactions occur with decrease in energy! This statement may contradict the very definition of endothermic reactions. Not so if you read on.

The energy that decreases in a chemical reaction, which brings about stability, is called *Free Energy*. It is the decrease in free energy that causes a reaction to happen. For endothermic reactions also, the free energy decreases, even though the total energy increases. This can be understood by figuring out what is free energy?

Free energy of a system, say for example a molecule like CH<sub>4</sub>, is the *total intrinsic electrostatic potential energy of the system*. In a CH<sub>4</sub> molecule, there are in total 10 protons (6 of C and 1 each of H) and 10 electrons (6 of C and 1 each of H). If we were to calculate the total electrostatic potential energy of the system by calculating the potential energy of all charges due to all other charges and adding the sum, the result would be the free energy of CH<sub>4</sub> molecule. For this, one needs to know the distance between all the charges, which is not practically possible. But the concept of free energy is very useful to understand the direction of reactions. Free energy represents the stability of a system. Lower the value of free energy; more are the attractive forces in the system and consequently more is the stability. If one were to ask why methane is a tetrahedron then a safe answer would be that it is the tetrahedral shape that allows methane to have the least possible free energy. With temperature free energy is likely to change as bond distances and angles may get altered.

Let us consider a reaction,

	A	+	В	C	+	D
Free Energy per mole (in kJ)	3		6	2		5
No. of mole	2		3	4		1

If we look at this reaction we can see that the total Free Energy on the left is  $[2 \times (3)] + [3 \times (6)] = 24$ . On the other hand, the free energy on the right side is  $[4 \times (2)] + [1 \times (5)] = 13$ . This means that the left side of the reaction has greater instability than the right side. So to bring about stability, the free energy lowers itself by moving the reaction to the forward direction. The corollary of this is that the reverse reaction does not occur because this would bring about instability. As the forward reaction occurs the number of mole of A & B decreases while that of

C & D increases. This makes the number on the left side smaller and that of the right side bigger. Finally a stage is reached when the free energy of the left and the right become equal. This is the stage when equilibrium is established. At this juncture the reverse reaction starts to occur (because free energy while going reverse is not taking the reaction to the side of instability) with the same speed as that of the forward reaction.

Therefore, free energy change is zero when the reaction is at equilibrium ( $\Delta G=0$ ). When the concentration of all reactants and products is 1 mole/litre, the change in Free Energy is represented as  $\Delta G^{\circ}$ . For the reaction shown  $\Delta G^{\circ}=-2$ .

Thus,  $\Delta G$  is the free energy change at any given concentration of reactants and products. If all the reactants and products are taken at a concentration of one mol per litre, the free energy change of the reaction is called  $\Delta G^{\circ}$  (standard free energy change). Remember that  $\Delta G^{\circ}$  is not necessarily the free energy change at equilibrium.

$$\Delta G^\circ = \Sigma \ \Delta G_f^\circ \ of \ products - \Sigma \Delta G_f^\circ \ of \ reactants$$
 and 
$$\Delta G = \Sigma \Delta G_f \ of \ products - \Sigma \ \Delta G_f \ of \ reactants.$$
 If 
$$\Delta G = -ve, \qquad reaction \ goes \ in \ the \ forward \ direction$$

 $\Delta G = +ve$ , reaction goes in the backward direction

 $\Delta G = 0$ , reaction is at equilibrium

It has been proved (proof not required) that  $\Delta G^{\circ} = -RT \ln K$ .

where T is always in Kelvin, and if R is in joules,  $\Delta G^{\circ}$  will be in joules, and if R is calories then  $\Delta G^{\circ}$  will be in calories.

[Note: K may either be  $K_C$  or  $K_P$  or any other equilibrium constant. The use of this relation between  $\Delta G^{\circ}$  and equilibrium constant (K) will also be seen in the lesson "Electrochemistry".]