

Chapter 13

Fundamental Equilibrium Concepts

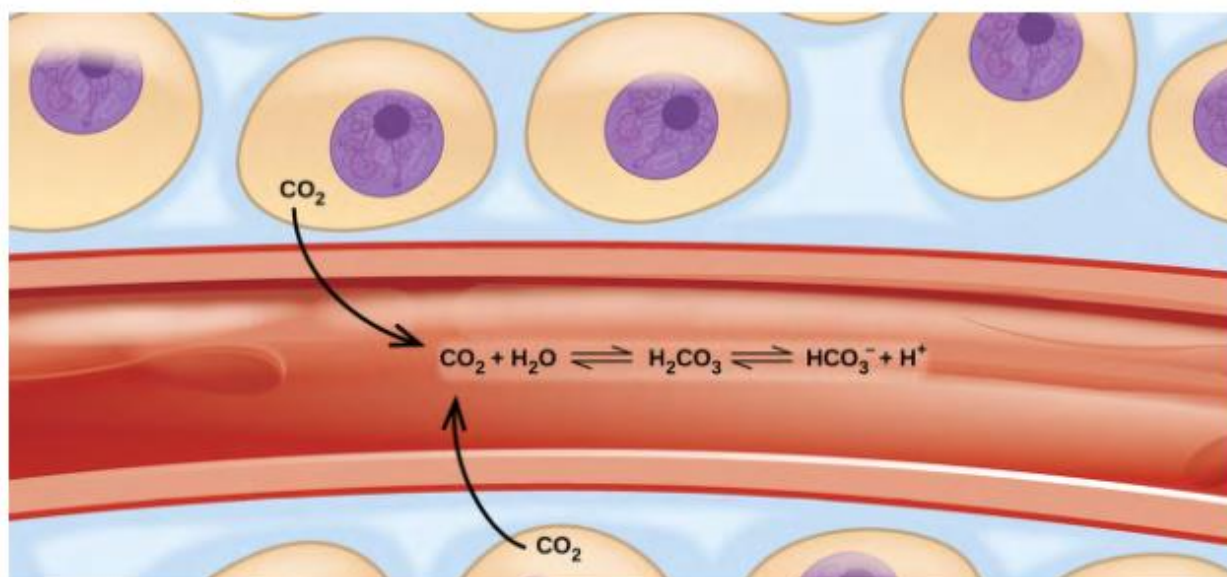


Figure 13.1 Movement of carbon dioxide through tissues and blood cells involves several equilibrium reactions.

Chapter Outline

- 13.1 Chemical Equilibria
- 13.2 Equilibrium Constants
- 13.3 Shifting Equilibria: Le Châtelier's Principle
- 13.4 Equilibrium Calculations

Introduction

Imagine a beach populated with sunbathers and swimmers. As those basking in the sun get too hot and want to cool off, they head into the surf to swim. As the swimmers tire, they head to the beach to rest. If these two rates of transfer (sunbathers entering the water, swimmers leaving the water) are equal, the number of sunbathers and swimmers would be constant, or at equilibrium, although the identities of the people are constantly changing from sunbather to swimmer and back. An analogous situation occurs in chemical reactions. Reactions can occur in both directions simultaneously (reactants to products and products to reactants) and eventually reach a state of balance.

These balanced two-way reactions occur all around and even in us. For example, they occur in our blood, where the reaction between carbon dioxide and water forms carbonic acid (HCO_3^-) (Figure 13.1). Human physiology

is adapted to the amount of ionized products produced by this reaction (HCO_3^- and H^+). In this chapter, you will learn how to predict the position of the balance and the yield of a product of a reaction under specific conditions, how to change a reaction's conditions to increase or reduce yield, and how to evaluate an equilibrium system's reaction to disturbances.

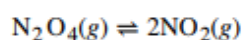
13.1 Chemical Equilibria

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the nature of equilibrium systems
- Explain the dynamic nature of a chemical equilibrium

A chemical reaction is usually written in a way that suggests it proceeds in one direction, the direction in which we read, but all chemical reactions are reversible, and both the forward and reverse reaction occur to one degree or another depending on conditions. In a chemical **equilibrium**, the forward and reverse reactions occur at equal rates, and the concentrations of products and reactants remain constant. If we run a reaction in a closed system so that the products cannot escape, we often find the reaction does not give a 100% yield of products. Instead, some reactants remain after the concentrations stop changing. At this point, when there is no further change in concentrations of reactants and products, we say the reaction is at equilibrium. A mixture of reactants and products is found at equilibrium.

For example, when we place a sample of dinitrogen tetroxide (N_2O_4 , a colorless gas) in a glass tube, it forms nitrogen dioxide (NO_2 , a brown gas) by the reaction



The color becomes darker as N_2O_4 is converted to NO_2 . When the system reaches equilibrium, both N_2O_4 and NO_2 are present (**Figure 13.2**).

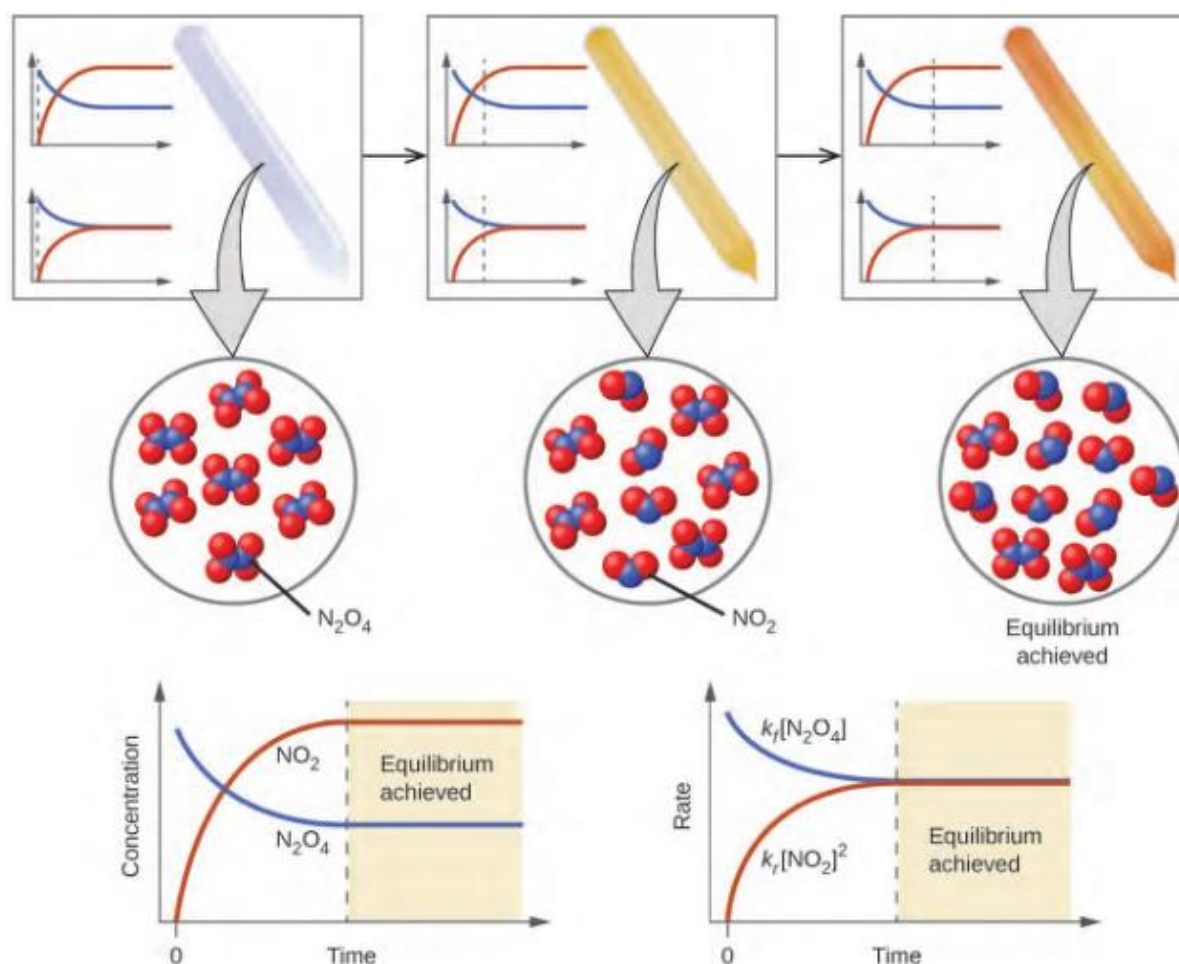


Figure 13.2 A mixture of NO_2 and N_2O_4 moves toward equilibrium. Colorless N_2O_4 reacts to form brown NO_2 . As the reaction proceeds toward equilibrium, the color of the mixture darkens due to the increasing concentration of NO_2 .

The formation of NO_2 from N_2O_4 is a **reversible reaction**, which is identified by the equilibrium arrow (\rightleftharpoons). All reactions are reversible, but many reactions, for all practical purposes, proceed in one direction until the reactants are exhausted and will reverse only under certain conditions. Such reactions are often depicted with a one-way arrow from reactants to products. Many other reactions, such as the formation of NO_2 from N_2O_4 , are reversible under more easily obtainable conditions and, therefore, are named as such. In a reversible reaction, the reactants can combine to form products and the products can react to form the reactants. Thus, not only can N_2O_4 decompose to form NO_2 , but the NO_2 produced can react to form N_2O_4 . As soon as the forward reaction produces any NO_2 , the reverse reaction begins and NO_2 starts to react to form N_2O_4 . At equilibrium, the concentrations of N_2O_4 and NO_2 no longer change because the rate of formation of NO_2 is exactly equal to the rate of consumption of NO_2 , and the rate of formation of N_2O_4 is exactly equal to the rate of consumption of N_2O_4 . *Chemical equilibrium is a dynamic process*: As with the swimmers and the sunbathers, the numbers of each remain constant, yet there is a flux back and forth between them (**Figure 13.3**).

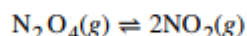


Figure 13.3 These jugglers provide an illustration of dynamic equilibrium. Each throws clubs to the other at the same rate at which he receives clubs from that person. Because clubs are thrown continuously in both directions, the number of clubs moving in each direction is constant, and the number of clubs each juggler has at a given time remains (roughly) constant.

In a chemical equilibrium, the forward and reverse reactions do not stop, rather they continue to occur at the same rate, leading to constant concentrations of the reactants and the products. Plots showing how the reaction rates and concentrations change with respect to time are shown in **Figure 13.2**.

We can detect a state of equilibrium because the concentrations of reactants and products do not appear to change. However, it is important that we verify that the absence of change is due to equilibrium and not to a reaction rate that is so slow that changes in concentration are difficult to detect.

We use a double arrow when writing an equation for a reversible reaction. Such a reaction may or may not be at equilibrium. For example, **Figure 13.2** shows the reaction:



When we wish to speak about one particular component of a reversible reaction, we use a single arrow. For example, in the equilibrium shown in **Figure 13.2**, the rate of the forward reaction



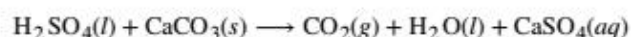
is equal to the rate of the backward reaction



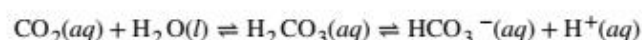
Chemistry in Everyday Life

Equilibrium and Soft Drinks

The connection between chemistry and carbonated soft drinks goes back to 1767, when Joseph Priestley (1733–1804; mostly known today for his role in the discovery and identification of oxygen) discovered a method of infusing water with carbon dioxide to make carbonated water. In 1772, Priestly published a paper entitled “Impregnating Water with Fixed Air.” The paper describes dripping oil of vitriol (today we call this sulfuric acid, but what a great way to describe sulfuric acid: “oil of vitriol” literally means “liquid nastiness”) onto chalk (calcium carbonate). The resulting CO_2 falls into the container of water beneath the vessel in which the initial reaction takes place; agitation helps the gaseous CO_2 mix into the liquid water.



Carbon dioxide is slightly soluble in water. There is an equilibrium reaction that occurs as the carbon dioxide reacts with the water to form carbonic acid (H_2CO_3). Since carbonic acid is a weak acid, it can dissociate into protons (H^+) and hydrogen carbonate ions (HCO_3^-).

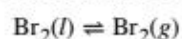


Today, CO_2 can be pressurized into soft drinks, establishing the equilibrium shown above. Once you open the beverage container, however, a cascade of equilibrium shifts occurs. First, the CO_2 gas in the air space on top of the bottle escapes, causing the equilibrium between gas-phase CO_2 and dissolved or aqueous CO_2 to shift, lowering the concentration of CO_2 in the soft drink. Less CO_2 dissolved in the liquid leads to carbonic acid decomposing to dissolved CO_2 and H_2O . The lowered carbonic acid concentration causes a shift of the final equilibrium. As long as the soft drink is in an open container, the CO_2 bubbles up out of the beverage, releasing the gas into the air (Figure 13.4). With the lid off the bottle, the CO_2 reactions are no longer at equilibrium and will continue until no more of the reactants remain. This results in a soft drink with a much lowered CO_2 concentration, often referred to as “flat.”



Figure 13.4 When a soft drink is opened, several equilibrium shifts occur. (credit: modification of work by “D Coetzee”/Flickr)

Let us consider the evaporation of bromine as a second example of a system at equilibrium.



An equilibrium can be established for a physical change—like this liquid to gas transition—as well as for a chemical reaction. Figure 13.5 shows a sample of liquid bromine at equilibrium with bromine vapor in a closed container. When we pour liquid bromine into an empty bottle in which there is no bromine vapor, some liquid evaporates, the amount of liquid decreases, and the amount of vapor increases. If we cap the bottle so no vapor escapes, the amount of liquid and vapor will eventually stop changing and an equilibrium between the liquid and the vapor will be established. If the bottle were not capped, the bromine vapor would escape and no equilibrium would be reached.



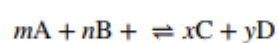
Figure 13.5 An equilibrium is pictured between liquid bromine, Br₂(l), the dark liquid, and bromine vapor, Br₂(g), the orange gas. Because the container is sealed, bromine vapor cannot escape and equilibrium is maintained. (credit: <http://images-of-elements.com/bromine.php>)

13.2 Equilibrium Constants

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Derive reaction quotients from chemical equations representing homogeneous and heterogeneous reactions
- Calculate values of reaction quotients and equilibrium constants, using concentrations and pressures
- Relate the magnitude of an equilibrium constant to properties of the chemical system

Now that we have a symbol (\rightleftharpoons) to designate reversible reactions, we will need a way to express mathematically how the amounts of reactants and products affect the equilibrium of the system. A general equation for a reversible reaction may be written as follows:



We can write the **reaction quotient (Q)** for this equation. When evaluated using concentrations, it is called Q_c . We use brackets to indicate molar concentrations of reactants and products.

$$Q_c = \frac{[C]^x[D]^y}{[A]^m[B]^n}$$

The reaction quotient is equal to the molar concentrations of the products of the chemical equation (multiplied together) over the reactants (also multiplied together), with each concentration raised to the power of the coefficient of that substance in the balanced chemical equation. For example, the reaction quotient for the reversible reaction $2\text{NO}_2(g) \rightleftharpoons \text{N}_2\text{O}_4(g)$ is given by this expression:

$$Q_c = \frac{[\text{N}_2\text{O}_4]}{[\text{NO}_2]^2}$$

Example 13.1

Writing Reaction Quotient Expressions

Write the expression for the reaction quotient for each of the following reactions:

- (a) $3\text{O}_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2\text{O}_3(g)$
- (b) $\text{N}_2(g) + 3\text{H}_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2\text{NH}_3(g)$
- (c) $4\text{NH}_3(g) + 7\text{O}_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 4\text{NO}_2(g) + 6\text{H}_2\text{O}(g)$

Solution

- (a) $Q_c = \frac{[\text{O}_3]^2}{[\text{O}_2]^3}$
- (b) $Q_c = \frac{[\text{NH}_3]^2}{[\text{N}_2][\text{H}_2]^3}$
- (c) $Q_c = \frac{[\text{NO}_2]^4[\text{H}_2\text{O}]^6}{[\text{NH}_3]^4[\text{O}_2]^7}$

Check Your Learning

Write the expression for the reaction quotient for each of the following reactions:

- (a) $2\text{SO}_2(g) + \text{O}_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2\text{SO}_3(g)$
- (b) $\text{C}_4\text{H}_8(g) \rightleftharpoons 2\text{C}_2\text{H}_4(g)$
- (c) $2\text{C}_4\text{H}_{10}(g) + 13\text{O}_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 8\text{CO}_2(g) + 10\text{H}_2\text{O}(g)$

Answer: (a) $Q_c = \frac{[\text{SO}_3]^2}{[\text{SO}_2]^2[\text{O}_2]}$; (b) $Q_c = \frac{[\text{C}_2\text{H}_4]^2}{[\text{C}_4\text{H}_8]}$; (c) $Q_c = \frac{[\text{CO}_2]^8[\text{H}_2\text{O}]^{10}}{[\text{C}_4\text{H}_{10}]^2[\text{O}_2]^{13}}$

The numeric value of Q_c for a given reaction varies; it depends on the concentrations of products and reactants present at the time when Q_c is determined. When pure reactants are mixed, Q_c is initially zero because there are no products present at that point. As the reaction proceeds, the value of Q_c increases as the concentrations of the products increase and the concentrations of the reactants simultaneously decrease (**Figure 13.6**). When the reaction reaches equilibrium, the value of the reaction quotient no longer changes because the concentrations no longer change.

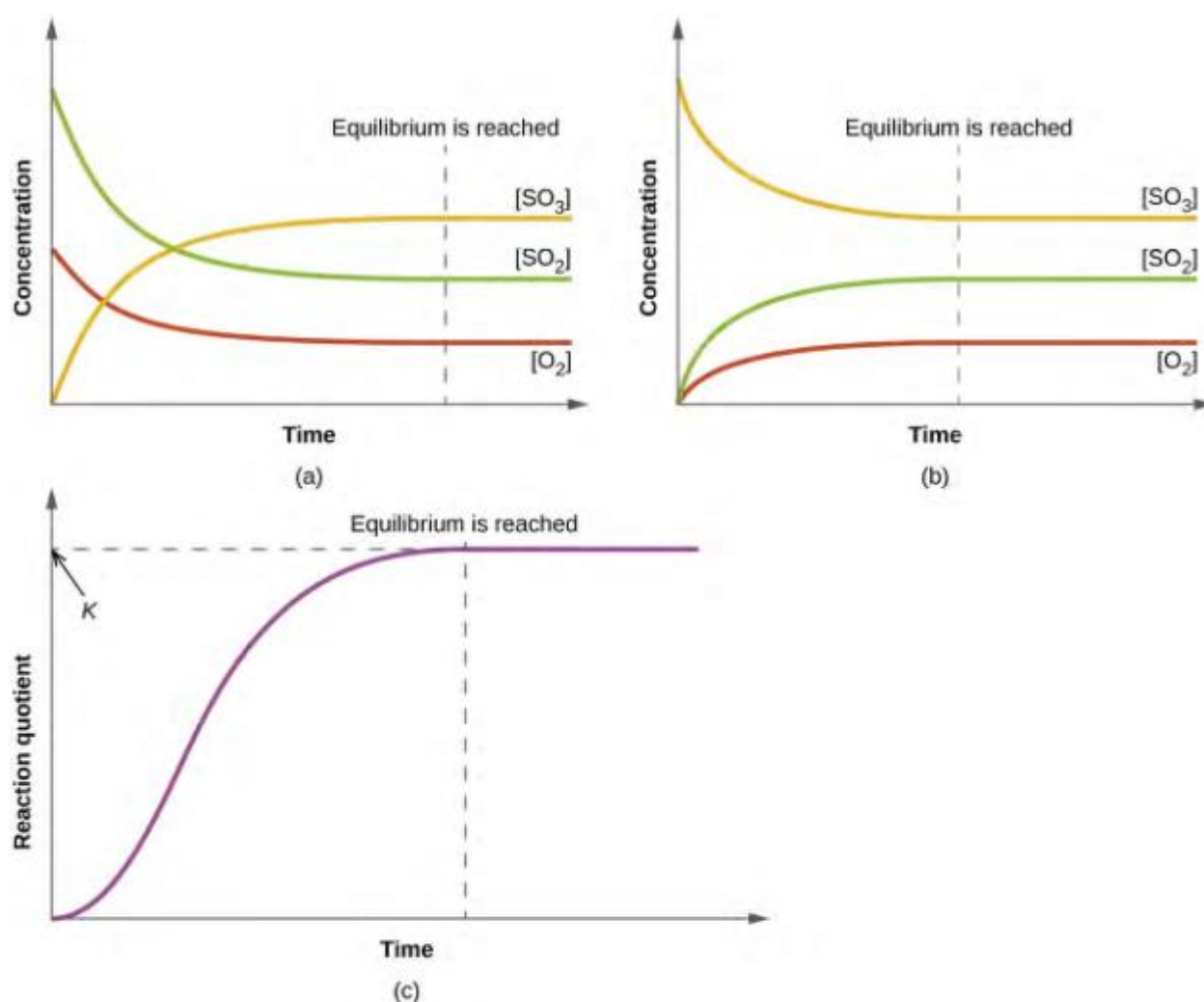


Figure 13.6 (a) The change in the concentrations of reactants and products is depicted as the $2SO_2(g) + O_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2SO_3(g)$ reaction approaches equilibrium. (b) The change in concentrations of reactants and products is depicted as the reaction $2SO_3(g) \rightleftharpoons 2SO_2(g) + O_2(g)$ approaches equilibrium. (c) The graph shows the change in the value of the reaction quotient as the reaction approaches equilibrium.

When a mixture of reactants and products of a reaction reaches equilibrium at a given temperature, its reaction quotient always has the same value. This value is called the **equilibrium constant (K)** of the reaction at that temperature. As for the reaction quotient, when evaluated in terms of concentrations, it is noted as K_c .

That a reaction quotient always assumes the same value at equilibrium can be expressed as:

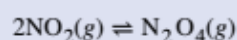
$$Q_c \text{ at equilibrium} = K_c = \frac{[C]^x[D]^y \dots}{[A]^m[B]^n \dots}$$

This equation is a mathematical statement of the **law of mass action**: When a reaction has attained equilibrium at a given temperature, the reaction quotient for the reaction always has the same value.

Example 13.2

Evaluating a Reaction Quotient

Gaseous nitrogen dioxide forms dinitrogen tetroxide according to this equation:



When 0.10 mol NO_2 is added to a 1.0-L flask at 25 °C, the concentration changes so that at equilibrium, $[\text{NO}_2] = 0.016 \text{ M}$ and $[\text{N}_2\text{O}_4] = 0.042 \text{ M}$.

(a) What is the value of the reaction quotient before any reaction occurs?

(b) What is the value of the equilibrium constant for the reaction?

Solution

(a) Before any product is formed, $[\text{NO}_2] = \frac{0.10 \text{ mol}}{1.0 \text{ L}} = 0.10 \text{ M}$, and $[\text{N}_2\text{O}_4] = 0 \text{ M}$. Thus,

$$Q_c = \frac{[\text{N}_2\text{O}_4]}{[\text{NO}_2]^2} = \frac{0}{0.10^2} = 0$$

(b) At equilibrium, the value of the equilibrium constant is equal to the value of the reaction quotient. At equilibrium, $K_c = Q_c = \frac{[\text{N}_2\text{O}_4]}{[\text{NO}_2]^2} = \frac{0.042}{0.016^2} = 1.6 \times 10^2$. The equilibrium constant is 1.6×10^2 .

Note that dimensional analysis would suggest the unit for this K_c value should be M^{-1} . However, it is common practice to omit units for K_c values computed as described here, since it is the magnitude of an equilibrium constant that relays useful information. As will be discussed later in this module, the rigorous approach to computing equilibrium constants uses dimensionless quantities derived from concentrations instead of actual concentrations, and so K_c values are truly unitless.

Check Your Learning

For the reaction $2\text{SO}_2(\text{g}) + \text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightleftharpoons 2\text{SO}_3(\text{g})$, the concentrations at equilibrium are $[\text{SO}_2] = 0.90 \text{ M}$, $[\text{O}_2] = 0.35 \text{ M}$, and $[\text{SO}_3] = 1.1 \text{ M}$. What is the value of the equilibrium constant, K_c ?

Answer: $K_c = 4.3$

The magnitude of an equilibrium constant is a measure of the yield of a reaction when it reaches equilibrium. A large value for K_c indicates that equilibrium is attained only after the reactants have been largely converted into products. A small value of K_c —much less than 1—indicates that equilibrium is attained when only a small proportion of the reactants have been converted into products.

Once a value of K_c is known for a reaction, it can be used to predict directional shifts when compared to the value of Q_c . A system that is not at equilibrium will proceed in the direction that establishes equilibrium. The data in **Figure 13.7** illustrate this. When heated to a consistent temperature, 800 °C, different starting mixtures of CO , H_2O , CO_2 , and H_2 react to reach compositions adhering to the same equilibrium (the value of Q_c changes until it equals the value of K_c). This value is 0.640, the equilibrium constant for the reaction under these conditions.



It is important to recognize that an equilibrium can be established starting either from reactants or from products, or from a mixture of both. For example, equilibrium was established from Mixture 2 in **Figure 13.7** when the products of the reaction were heated in a closed container. In fact, one technique used to determine whether a reaction is truly at equilibrium is to approach equilibrium starting with reactants in one experiment and starting with products in another. If the same value of the reaction quotient is observed when the concentrations stop changing in both experiments, then we may be certain that the system has reached equilibrium.

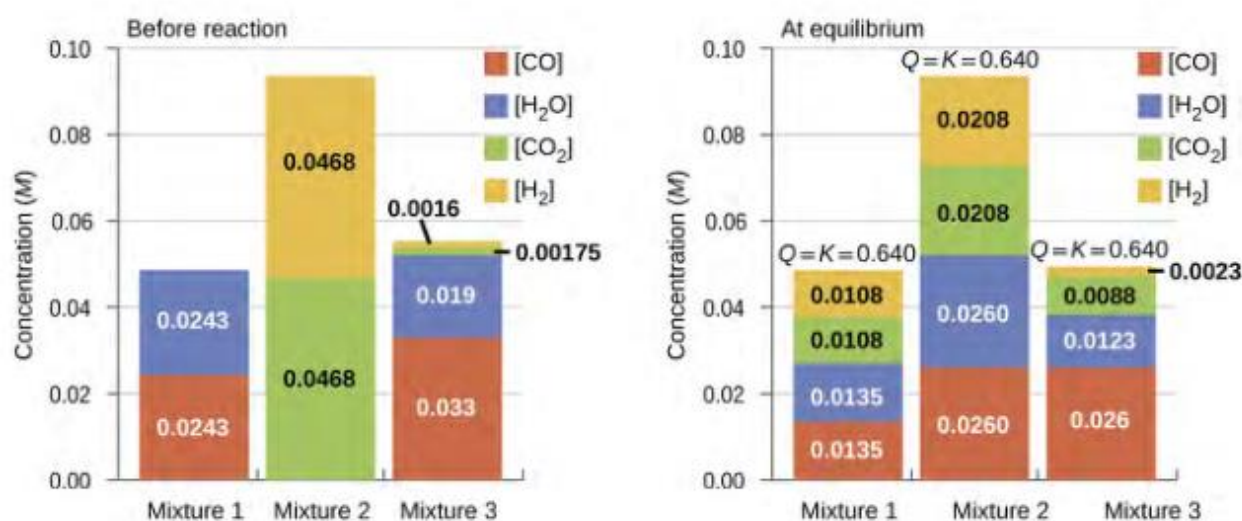
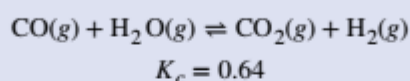


Figure 13.7 Concentrations of three mixtures are shown before and after reaching equilibrium at 800 °C for the so-called water gas shift reaction: $\text{CO}(g) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(g) \rightleftharpoons \text{CO}_2(g) + \text{H}_2(g)$.

Example 13.3

Predicting the Direction of Reaction

Given here are the starting concentrations of reactants and products for three experiments involving this reaction:



Determine in which direction the reaction proceeds as it goes to equilibrium in each of the three experiments shown.

Reactants/Products	Experiment 1	Experiment 2	Experiment 3
[CO] _i	0.0203 M	0.011 M	0.0094 M
[H ₂ O] _i	0.0203 M	0.0011 M	0.0025 M
[CO ₂] _i	0.0040 M	0.037 M	0.0015 M
[H ₂] _i	0.0040 M	0.046 M	0.0076 M

Solution

Experiment 1:

$$Q_c = \frac{[\text{CO}_2][\text{H}_2]}{[\text{CO}][\text{H}_2\text{O}]} = \frac{(0.0040)(0.0040)}{(0.0203)(0.0203)} = 0.039.$$

$$Q_c < K_c \quad (0.039 < 0.64)$$

The reaction will shift to the right.

Experiment 2:

$$Q_c = \frac{[\text{CO}_2][\text{H}_2]}{[\text{CO}][\text{H}_2\text{O}]} = \frac{(0.037)(0.046)}{(0.011)(0.0011)} = 1.4 \times 10^2$$

$$Q_c > K_c \text{ (} 140 > 0.64 \text{)}$$

The reaction will shift to the left.

Experiment 3:

$$Q_c = \frac{[\text{CO}_2][\text{H}_2]}{[\text{CO}][\text{H}_2\text{O}]} = \frac{(0.0015)(0.0076)}{(0.0094)(0.0025)} = 0.48$$

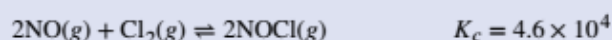
$$Q_c < K_c \text{ (} 0.48 < 0.64 \text{)}$$

The reaction will shift to the right.

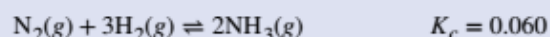
Check Your Learning

Calculate the reaction quotient and determine the direction in which each of the following reactions will proceed to reach equilibrium.

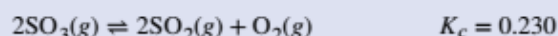
(a) A 1.00-L flask containing 0.0500 mol of NO(g), 0.0155 mol of Cl₂(g), and 0.500 mol of NOCl:



(b) A 5.0-L flask containing 17 g of NH₃, 14 g of N₂, and 12 g of H₂:



(c) A 2.00-L flask containing 230 g of SO₃(g):



Answer: (a) $Q_c = 6.45 \times 10^3$, shifts right. (b) $Q_c = 0.12$, shifts left. (c) $Q_c = 0$, shifts right

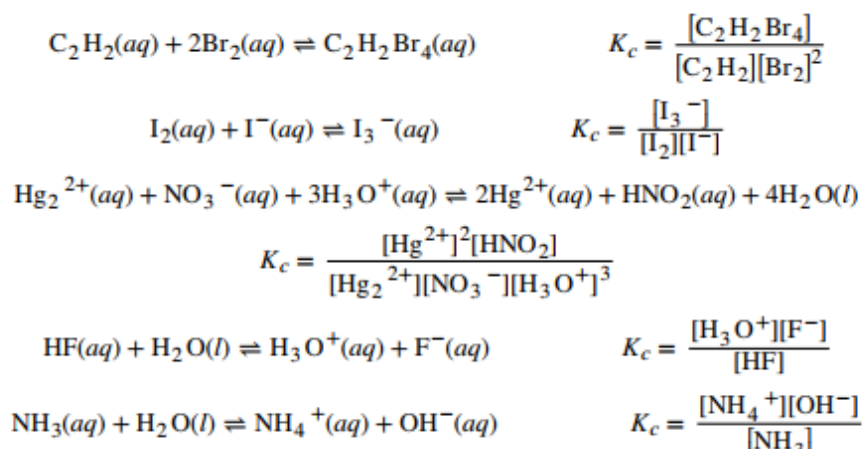
In **Example 13.2**, it was mentioned that the common practice is to omit units when evaluating reaction quotients and equilibrium constants. It should be pointed out that using concentrations in these computations is a convenient but simplified approach that sometimes leads to results that seemingly conflict with the law of mass action. For example, equilibria involving aqueous ions often exhibit equilibrium constants that vary quite significantly (are *not* constant) at high solution concentrations. This may be avoided by computing K_c values using the *activities* of the reactants and products in the equilibrium system instead of their concentrations. The **activity** of a substance is a measure of its effective concentration under specified conditions. While a detailed discussion of this important quantity is beyond the scope of an introductory text, it is necessary to be aware of a few important aspects:

- Activities are dimensionless (unitless) quantities and are in essence “adjusted” concentrations.
- For relatively dilute solutions, a substance's activity and its molar concentration are roughly equal.
- Activities for pure condensed phases (solids and liquids) are equal to 1.

As a consequence of this last consideration, Q_c and K_c expressions do not contain terms for solids or liquids (being numerically equal to 1, these terms have no effect on the expression's value). Several examples of equilibria yielding such expressions will be encountered in this section.

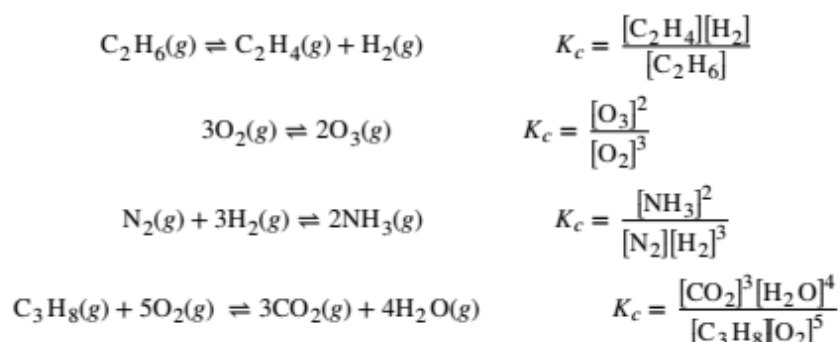
Homogeneous Equilibria

A **homogeneous equilibrium** is one in which all of the reactants and products are present in a single solution (by definition, a homogeneous mixture). In this chapter, we will concentrate on the two most common types of homogeneous equilibria: those occurring in liquid-phase solutions and those involving exclusively gaseous species. Reactions between solutes in liquid solutions belong to one type of homogeneous equilibria. The chemical species involved can be molecules, ions, or a mixture of both. Several examples are provided here.



In each of these examples, the equilibrium system is an aqueous solution, as denoted by the *aq* annotations on the solute formulas. Since $\text{H}_2\text{O}(l)$ is the solvent for these solutions, its concentration does not appear as a term in the K_c expression, as discussed earlier, even though it may also appear as a reactant or product in the chemical equation.

Reactions in which all reactants and products are gases represent a second class of homogeneous equilibria. We use molar concentrations in the following examples, but we will see shortly that partial pressures of the gases may be used as well.



Note that the concentration of $\text{H}_2\text{O}(g)$ has been included in the last example because water is not the solvent in this gas-phase reaction and its concentration (and activity) changes.

Whenever gases are involved in a reaction, the partial pressure of each gas can be used instead of its concentration in the equation for the reaction quotient because the partial pressure of a gas is directly proportional to its concentration at constant temperature. This relationship can be derived from the ideal gas equation, where M is the molar concentration of gas, $\frac{n}{V}$.

$$\begin{aligned} PV &= nRT \\ P &= \left(\frac{n}{V}\right)RT \\ &= MRT \end{aligned}$$

Thus, at constant temperature, the pressure of a gas is directly proportional to its concentration.

Using the partial pressures of the gases, we can write the reaction quotient for the system $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6(g) \rightleftharpoons \text{C}_2\text{H}_4(g) + \text{H}_2(g)$ by following the same guidelines for deriving concentration-based expressions:

$$Q_P = \frac{P_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4} P_{\text{H}_2}}{P_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_6}}$$

In this equation we use Q_P to indicate a reaction quotient written with partial pressures: $P_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_6}$ is the partial pressure of C_2H_6 ; P_{H_2} , the partial pressure of H_2 ; and $P_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4}$, the partial pressure of C_2H_4 . At equilibrium:

$$K_P = Q_P = \frac{P_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_4} P_{\text{H}_2}}{P_{\text{C}_2\text{H}_6}}$$

The subscript P in the symbol K_P designates an equilibrium constant derived using partial pressures instead of concentrations. The equilibrium constant, K_P , is still a constant, but its numeric value may differ from the equilibrium constant found for the same reaction by using concentrations.

Conversion between a value for K_c , an equilibrium constant expressed in terms of concentrations, and a value for K_P , an equilibrium constant expressed in terms of pressures, is straightforward (a K or Q without a subscript could be either concentration or pressure).

The equation relating K_c and K_P is derived as follows. For the gas-phase reaction $m\text{A} + n\text{B} \rightleftharpoons x\text{C} + y\text{D}$:

$$\begin{aligned} K_P &= \frac{(P_C)^x (P_D)^y}{(P_A)^m (P_B)^n} \\ &= \frac{([C] \times RT)^x ([D] \times RT)^y}{([A] \times RT)^m ([B] \times RT)^n} \\ &= \frac{[C]^x [D]^y}{[A]^m [B]^n} \times \frac{(RT)^{x+y}}{(RT)^{m+n}} \\ &= K_c (RT)^{(x+y) - (m+n)} \\ &= K_c (RT)^{\Delta n} \end{aligned}$$

The relationship between K_c and K_P is

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

In this equation, Δn is the difference between the sum of the coefficients of the *gaseous* products and the sum of the coefficients of the *gaseous* reactants in the reaction (the change in moles of gas between the reactants and the products). For the gas-phase reaction $m\text{A} + n\text{B} \rightleftharpoons x\text{C} + y\text{D}$, we have

$$\Delta n = (x+y) - (m+n)$$

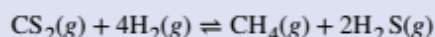
Example 13.4

Calculation of K_P

Write the equations for the conversion of K_c to K_P for each of the following reactions:

- (a) $\text{C}_2\text{H}_6(g) \rightleftharpoons \text{C}_2\text{H}_4(g) + \text{H}_2(g)$
- (b) $\text{CO}(g) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(g) \rightleftharpoons \text{CO}_2(g) + \text{H}_2(g)$
- (c) $\text{N}_2(g) + 3\text{H}_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2\text{NH}_3(g)$

(d) K_c is equal to 0.28 for the following reaction at 900 °C:



What is K_p at this temperature?

Solution

$$(a) \Delta n = (2) - (1) = 1$$

$$K_p = K_c (RT)^{\Delta n} = K_c (RT)^1 = K_c (RT)$$

$$(b) \Delta n = (2) - (2) = 0$$

$$K_p = K_c (RT)^{\Delta n} = K_c (RT)^0 = K_c$$

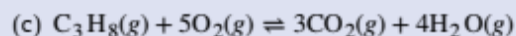
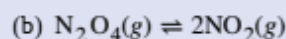
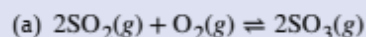
$$(c) \Delta n = (2) - (1 + 3) = -2$$

$$K_p = K_c (RT)^{\Delta n} = K_c (RT)^{-2} = \frac{K_c}{(RT)^2}$$

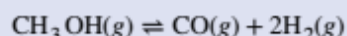
$$(d) K_p = K_c (RT)^{\Delta n} = (0.28)[(0.0821)(1173)]^{-2} = 3.0 \times 10^{-5}$$

Check Your Learning

Write the equations for the conversion of K_c to K_p for each of the following reactions, which occur in the gas phase:



(d) At 227 °C, the following reaction has $K_c = 0.0952$:



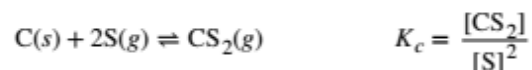
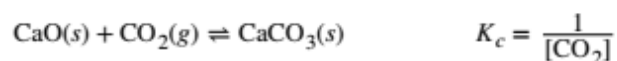
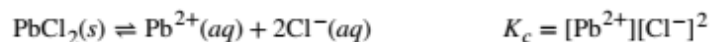
What would be the value of K_p at this temperature?

Answer: (a) $K_p = K_c (RT)^{-1}$; (b) $K_p = K_c (RT)$; (c) $K_p = K_c (RT)$; (d) 160 or 1.6×10^2

Heterogeneous Equilibria

A **heterogeneous equilibrium** is a system in which reactants and products are found in two or more phases. The phases may be any combination of solid, liquid, or gas phases, and solutions. When dealing with these equilibria, remember that solids and pure liquids do not appear in equilibrium constant expressions (the activities of pure solids, pure liquids, and solvents are 1).

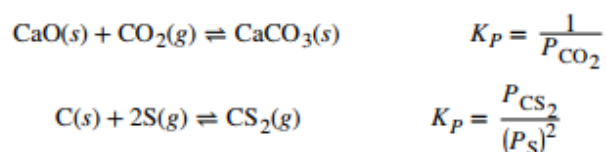
Some heterogeneous equilibria involve chemical changes; for example:



Other heterogeneous equilibria involve phase changes, for example, the evaporation of liquid bromine, as shown in the following equation:



We can write equations for reaction quotients of heterogeneous equilibria that involve gases, using partial pressures instead of concentrations. Two examples are:



13.3 Shifting Equilibria: Le Châtelier's Principle

By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Describe the ways in which an equilibrium system can be stressed
- Predict the response of a stressed equilibrium using Le Châtelier's principle

As we saw in the previous section, reactions proceed in both directions (reactants go to products and products go to reactants). We can tell a reaction is at equilibrium if the reaction quotient (Q) is equal to the equilibrium constant (K). We next address what happens when a system at equilibrium is disturbed so that Q is no longer equal to K . If a system at equilibrium is subjected to a perturbation or **stress** (such as a change in concentration) the **position of equilibrium** changes. Since this stress affects the concentrations of the reactants and the products, the value of Q will no longer equal the value of K . To re-establish equilibrium, the system will either shift toward the products (if $Q < K$) or the reactants (if $Q > K$) until Q returns to the same value as K .

This process is described by **Le Châtelier's principle**: When a chemical system at equilibrium is disturbed, it returns to equilibrium by counteracting the disturbance. As described in the previous paragraph, the disturbance causes a change in Q ; the reaction will shift to re-establish $Q = K$.

Predicting the Direction of a Reversible Reaction

Le Châtelier's principle can be used to predict changes in equilibrium concentrations when a system that is at equilibrium is subjected to a stress. However, if we have a mixture of reactants and products that have not yet reached equilibrium, the changes necessary to reach equilibrium may not be so obvious. In such a case, we can compare the values of Q and K for the system to predict the changes.

Effect of Change in Concentration on Equilibrium

A chemical system at equilibrium can be temporarily shifted out of equilibrium by adding or removing one or more of the reactants or products. The concentrations of both reactants and products then undergo additional changes to return the system to equilibrium.

The stress on the system in **Figure 13.8** is the reduction of the equilibrium concentration of SCN^- (lowering the concentration of one of the reactants would cause Q to be larger than K). As a consequence, Le Châtelier's principle leads us to predict that the concentration of $\text{Fe}(\text{SCN})^{2+}$ should decrease, increasing the concentration of SCN^- part way back to its original concentration, and increasing the concentration of Fe^{3+} above its initial equilibrium concentration.

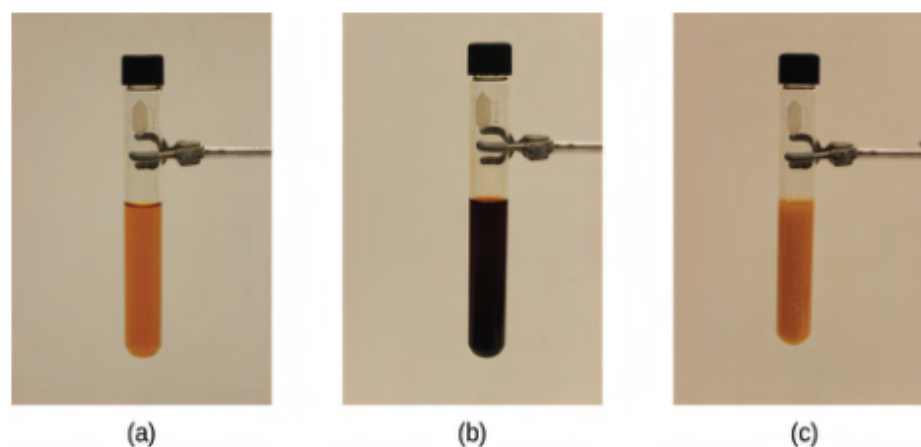


Figure 13.8 (a) The test tube contains 0.1 M Fe^{3+} . (b) Thiocyanate ion has been added to solution in (a), forming the red $\text{Fe}(\text{SCN})^{2+}$ ion. $\text{Fe}^{3+}(\text{aq}) + \text{SCN}^{-}(\text{aq}) \rightleftharpoons \text{Fe}(\text{SCN})^{2+}(\text{aq})$. (c) Silver nitrate has been added to the solution in (b), precipitating some of the SCN^{-} as the white solid AgSCN . $\text{Ag}^{+}(\text{aq}) + \text{SCN}^{-}(\text{aq}) \rightleftharpoons \text{AgSCN}(\text{s})$. The decrease in the SCN^{-} concentration shifts the first equilibrium in the solution to the left, decreasing the concentration (and lightening color) of the $\text{Fe}(\text{SCN})^{2+}$. (credit: modification of work by Mark Ott)

The effect of a change in concentration on a system at equilibrium is illustrated further by the equilibrium of this chemical reaction:



The numeric values for this example have been determined experimentally. A mixture of gases at $400\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ with $[\text{H}_2] = [\text{I}_2] = 0.221\text{ M}$ and $[\text{HI}] = 1.563\text{ M}$ is at equilibrium; for this mixture, $Q_c = K_c = 50.0$. If H_2 is introduced into the system so quickly that its concentration doubles before it begins to react (new $[\text{H}_2] = 0.442\text{ M}$), the reaction will shift so that a new equilibrium is reached, at which $[\text{H}_2] = 0.374\text{ M}$, $[\text{I}_2] = 0.153\text{ M}$, and $[\text{HI}] = 1.692\text{ M}$. This gives:

$$Q_c = \frac{[\text{HI}]^2}{[\text{H}_2][\text{I}_2]} = \frac{(1.692)^2}{(0.374)(0.153)} = 50.0 = K_c$$

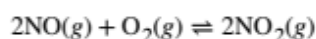
We have stressed this system by introducing additional H_2 . The stress is relieved when the reaction shifts to the right, using up some (but not all) of the excess H_2 , reducing the amount of uncombined I_2 , and forming additional HI .

Effect of Change in Pressure on Equilibrium

Sometimes we can change the position of equilibrium by changing the pressure of a system. However, changes in pressure have a measurable effect only in systems in which gases are involved, and then only when the chemical reaction produces a change in the total number of gas molecules in the system. An easy way to recognize such a system is to look for different numbers of moles of gas on the reactant and product sides of the equilibrium. While evaluating pressure (as well as related factors like volume), it is important to remember that equilibrium constants are defined with regard to concentration (for K_c) or partial pressure (for K_p). Some changes to total pressure, like adding an inert gas that is not part of the equilibrium, will change the total pressure but not the partial pressures of the gases in the equilibrium constant expression. Thus, addition of a gas not involved in the equilibrium will not perturb the equilibrium.

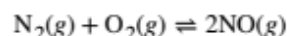
As we increase the pressure of a gaseous system at equilibrium, either by decreasing the volume of the system or by adding more of one of the components of the equilibrium mixture, we introduce a stress by increasing the partial pressures of one or more of the components. In accordance with Le Châtelier's principle, a shift in the equilibrium that reduces the total number of molecules per unit of volume will be favored because this relieves the stress. The reverse reaction would be favored by a decrease in pressure.

Consider what happens when we increase the pressure on a system in which NO, O₂, and NO₂ are at equilibrium:



The formation of additional amounts of NO₂ decreases the total number of molecules in the system because each time two molecules of NO₂ form, a total of three molecules of NO and O₂ are consumed. This reduces the total pressure exerted by the system and reduces, but does not completely relieve, the stress of the increased pressure. On the other hand, a decrease in the pressure on the system favors decomposition of NO₂ into NO and O₂, which tends to restore the pressure.

Now consider this reaction:



Because there is no change in the total number of molecules in the system during reaction, a change in pressure does not favor either formation or decomposition of gaseous nitrogen monoxide.

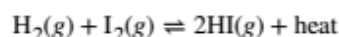
Effect of Change in Temperature on Equilibrium

Changing concentration or pressure perturbs an equilibrium because the reaction quotient is shifted away from the equilibrium value. Changing the temperature of a system at equilibrium has a different effect: A change in temperature actually changes the value of the equilibrium constant. However, we can qualitatively predict the effect of the temperature change by treating it as a stress on the system and applying Le Châtelier's principle.

When hydrogen reacts with gaseous iodine, heat is evolved.



Because this reaction is exothermic, we can write it with heat as a product.



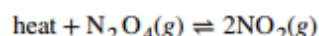
Increasing the temperature of the reaction increases the internal energy of the system. Thus, increasing the temperature has the effect of increasing the amount of one of the products of this reaction. The reaction shifts to the left to relieve the stress, and there is an increase in the concentration of H₂ and I₂ and a reduction in the concentration of HI. Lowering the temperature of this system reduces the amount of energy present, favors the production of heat, and favors the formation of hydrogen iodide.

When we change the temperature of a system at equilibrium, the equilibrium constant for the reaction changes. Lowering the temperature in the HI system increases the equilibrium constant: At the new equilibrium the concentration of HI has increased and the concentrations of H₂ and I₂ decreased. Raising the temperature decreases the value of the equilibrium constant, from 67.5 at 357 °C to 50.0 at 400 °C.

Temperature affects the equilibrium between NO₂ and N₂O₄ in this reaction



The positive ΔH value tells us that the reaction is endothermic and could be written

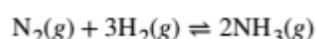


At higher temperatures, the gas mixture has a deep brown color, indicative of a significant amount of brown NO_2 molecules. If, however, we put a stress on the system by cooling the mixture (withdrawing energy), the equilibrium shifts to the left to supply some of the energy lost by cooling. The concentration of colorless N_2O_4 increases, and the concentration of brown NO_2 decreases, causing the brown color to fade.

Catalysts Do Not Affect Equilibrium

As we learned during our study of kinetics, a catalyst can speed up the rate of a reaction. Though this increase in reaction rate may cause a system to reach equilibrium more quickly (by speeding up the forward and reverse reactions), a catalyst has no effect on the value of an equilibrium constant nor on equilibrium concentrations.

The interplay of changes in concentration or pressure, temperature, and the lack of an influence of a catalyst on a chemical equilibrium is illustrated in the industrial synthesis of ammonia from nitrogen and hydrogen according to the equation



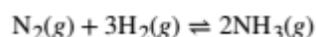
A large quantity of ammonia is manufactured by this reaction. Each year, ammonia is among the top 10 chemicals, by mass, manufactured in the world. About 2 billion pounds are manufactured in the United States each year.

Ammonia plays a vital role in our global economy. It is used in the production of fertilizers and is, itself, an important fertilizer for the growth of corn, cotton, and other crops. Large quantities of ammonia are converted to nitric acid, which plays an important role in the production of fertilizers, explosives, plastics, dyes, and fibers, and is also used in the steel industry.

Portrait of a Chemist

Fritz Haber

In the early 20th century, German chemist Fritz Haber ([Figure 13.9](#)) developed a practical process for converting diatomic nitrogen, which cannot be used by plants as a nutrient, to ammonia, a form of nitrogen that is easiest for plants to absorb.



The availability of nitrogen is a strong limiting factor to the growth of plants. Despite accounting for 78% of air, diatomic nitrogen (N_2) is nutritionally unavailable due the tremendous stability of the nitrogen-nitrogen triple bond. For plants to use atmospheric nitrogen, the nitrogen must be converted to a more bioavailable form (this conversion is called nitrogen fixation).

Haber was born in Breslau, Prussia (presently Wrocław, Poland) in December 1868. He went on to study chemistry and, while at the University of Karlsruhe, he developed what would later be known as the Haber process: the catalytic formation of ammonia from hydrogen and atmospheric nitrogen under high temperatures and pressures. For this work, Haber was awarded the 1918 Nobel Prize in Chemistry for synthesis of ammonia from its elements. The Haber process was a boon to agriculture, as it allowed the production of fertilizers to no longer be dependent on mined feed stocks such as sodium nitrate. Currently, the annual production of synthetic nitrogen fertilizers exceeds 100 million tons and synthetic fertilizer production has increased the number of humans that arable land can support from 1.9 persons per hectare in 1908 to 4.3 in 2008.



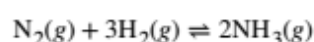
Figure 13.9 The work of Nobel Prize recipient Fritz Haber revolutionized agricultural practices in the early 20th century. His work also affected wartime strategies, adding chemical weapons to the artillery.

In addition to his work in ammonia production, Haber is also remembered by history as one of the fathers of chemical warfare. During World War I, he played a major role in the development of poisonous gases used for trench warfare. Regarding his role in these developments, Haber said, "During peace time a scientist belongs to the World, but during war time he belongs to his country."^[1] Haber defended the use of gas warfare against accusations that it was inhumane, saying that death was death, by whatever means it was inflicted. He stands as an example of the ethical dilemmas that face scientists in times of war and the double-edged nature of the sword of science.

Like Haber, the products made from ammonia can be multifaceted. In addition to their value for agriculture, nitrogen compounds can also be used to achieve destructive ends. Ammonium nitrate has also been used in explosives, including improvised explosive devices. Ammonium nitrate was one of the components of the bomb used in the attack on the Alfred P. Murrah Federal Building in downtown Oklahoma City on April 19, 1995.

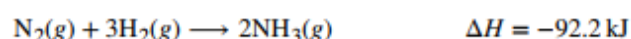
It has long been known that nitrogen and hydrogen react to form ammonia. However, it became possible to manufacture ammonia in useful quantities by the reaction of nitrogen and hydrogen only in the early 20th century after the factors that influence its equilibrium were understood.

To be practical, an industrial process must give a large yield of product relatively quickly. One way to increase the yield of ammonia is to increase the pressure on the system in which N_2 , H_2 , and NH_3 are at equilibrium or are coming to equilibrium.



The formation of additional amounts of ammonia reduces the total pressure exerted by the system and somewhat reduces the stress of the increased pressure.

Although increasing the pressure of a mixture of N_2 , H_2 , and NH_3 will increase the yield of ammonia, at low temperatures, the rate of formation of ammonia is slow. At room temperature, for example, the reaction is so slow that if we prepared a mixture of N_2 and H_2 , no detectable amount of ammonia would form during our lifetime. The formation of ammonia from hydrogen and nitrogen is an exothermic process:



Thus, increasing the temperature to increase the rate lowers the yield. If we lower the temperature to shift the equilibrium to favor the formation of more ammonia, equilibrium is reached more slowly because of the large decrease of reaction rate with decreasing temperature.

Part of the rate of formation lost by operating at lower temperatures can be recovered by using a catalyst. The net effect of the catalyst on the reaction is to cause equilibrium to be reached more rapidly.

In the commercial production of ammonia, conditions of about 500°C , 150–900 atm, and the presence of a catalyst are used to give the best compromise among rate, yield, and the cost of the equipment necessary to produce and contain high-pressure gases at high temperatures (Figure 13.10).

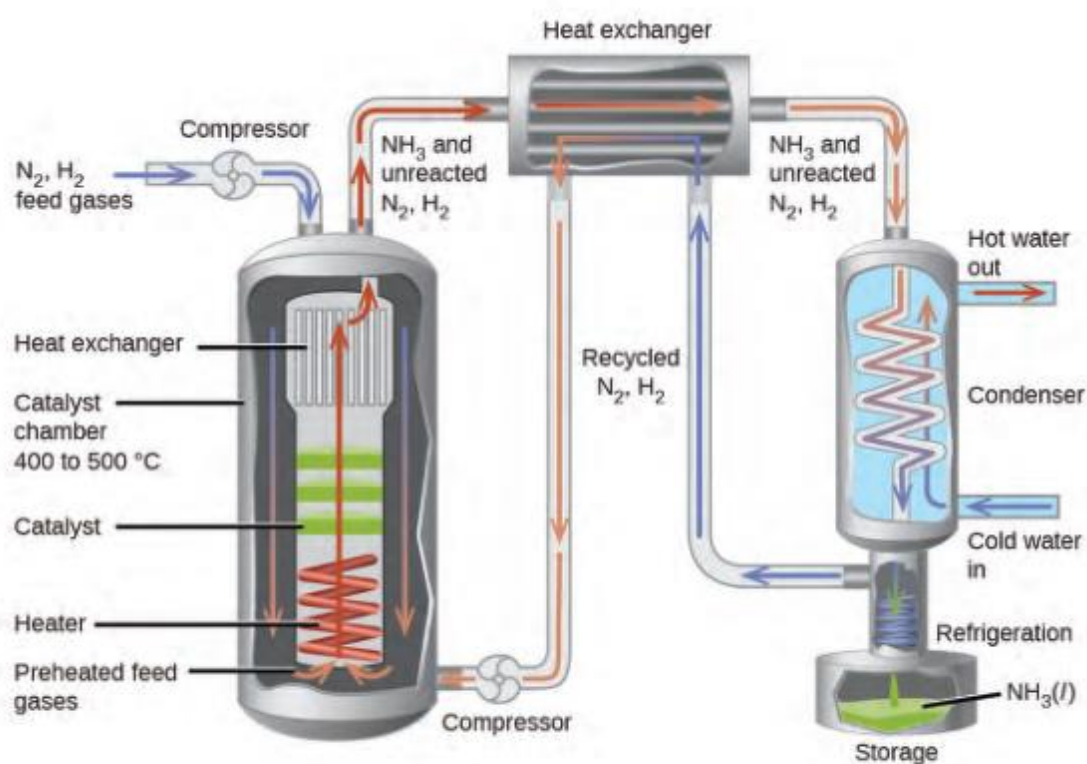


Figure 13.10 Commercial production of ammonia requires heavy equipment to handle the high temperatures and pressures required. This schematic outlines the design of an ammonia plant.

13.4 Equilibrium Calculations

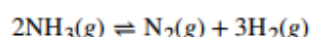
By the end of this section, you will be able to:

- Write equations representing changes in concentration and pressure for chemical species in equilibrium systems
- Use algebra to perform various types of equilibrium calculations

We know that at equilibrium, the value of the reaction quotient of any reaction is equal to its equilibrium constant. Thus, we can use the mathematical expression for Q to determine a number of quantities associated with a reaction at equilibrium or approaching equilibrium. While we have learned to identify in which direction a reaction will shift to reach equilibrium, we want to extend that understanding to quantitative calculations. We do so by evaluating the ways that the concentrations of products and reactants change as a reaction approaches equilibrium, keeping in mind the stoichiometric ratios of the reaction. This algebraic approach to equilibrium calculations will be explored in this section.

Changes in concentrations or pressures of reactants and products occur as a reaction system approaches equilibrium. In this section we will see that we can relate these changes to each other using the coefficients in the balanced chemical equation describing the system. We use the decomposition of ammonia as an example.

On heating, ammonia reversibly decomposes into nitrogen and hydrogen according to this equation:



If a sample of ammonia decomposes in a closed system and the concentration of N_2 increases by 0.11 M , the change in the N_2 concentration, $\Delta[\text{N}_2]$, the final concentration minus the initial concentration, is 0.11 M . The change is positive because the concentration of N_2 increases.

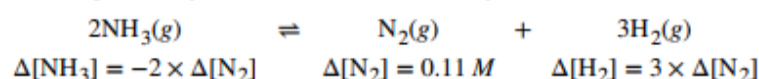
The change in the H_2 concentration, $\Delta[\text{H}_2]$, is also positive—the concentration of H_2 increases as ammonia decomposes. The chemical equation tells us that the change in the concentration of H_2 is three times the change in the concentration of N_2 because for each mole of N_2 produced, 3 moles of H_2 are produced.

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta[\text{H}_2] &= 3 \times \Delta[\text{N}_2] \\ &= 3 \times (0.11\text{ M}) = 0.33\text{ M}\end{aligned}$$

The change in concentration of NH_3 , $\Delta[\text{NH}_3]$, is twice that of $\Delta[\text{N}_2]$; the equation indicates that 2 moles of NH_3 must decompose for each mole of N_2 formed. However, the change in the NH_3 concentration is negative because the concentration of ammonia *decreases* as it decomposes.

$$\Delta[\text{NH}_3] = -2 \times \Delta[\text{N}_2] = -2 \times (0.11\text{ M}) = -0.22\text{ M}$$

We can relate these relationships directly to the coefficients in the equation



Note that all the changes on one side of the arrows are of the same sign and that all the changes on the other side of the arrows are of the opposite sign.

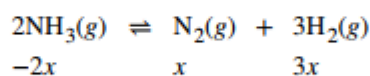
If we did not know the magnitude of the change in the concentration of N_2 , we could represent it by the symbol x .

$$\Delta[\text{N}_2] = x$$

The changes in the other concentrations would then be represented as:

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta[\text{H}_2] &= 3 \times \Delta[\text{N}_2] = 3x \\ \Delta[\text{NH}_3] &= -2 \times \Delta[\text{N}_2] = -2x\end{aligned}$$

The coefficients in the Δ terms are identical to those in the balanced equation for the reaction.

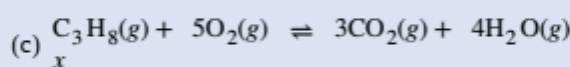
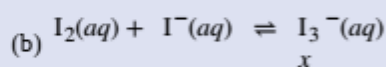
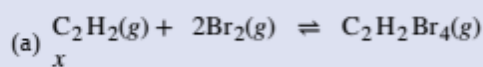


The simplest way for us to find the coefficients for the concentration changes in any reaction is to use the coefficients in the balanced chemical equation. The sign of the coefficient is positive when the concentration increases; it is negative when the concentration decreases.

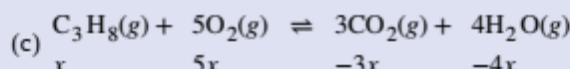
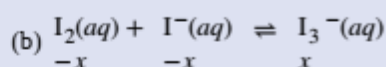
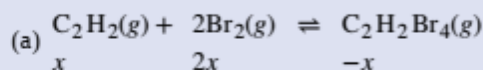
Example 13.5

Determining Relative Changes in Concentration

Complete the changes in concentrations for each of the following reactions.

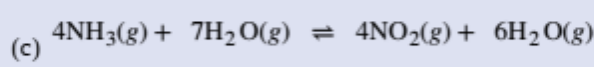
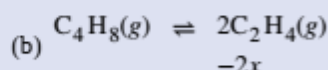
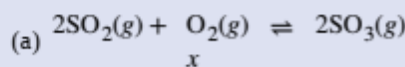


Solution



Check Your Learning

Complete the changes in concentrations for each of the following reactions:



Answer: (a) $2x, x, -2x$; (b) $x, -2x$; (c) $4x, 7x, -4x, -6x$ or $-4x, -7x, 4x, 6x$

Calculations Involving Equilibrium Concentrations

Because the value of the reaction quotient of any reaction at equilibrium is equal to its equilibrium constant, we can use the mathematical expression for Q_c (i.e., *the law of mass action*) to determine a number of quantities associated with a reaction at equilibrium. It may help if we keep in mind that $Q_c = K_c$ (at equilibrium) in all of these situations and that there are only three basic types of calculations:

1. **Calculation of an equilibrium constant.** If concentrations of reactants and products at equilibrium are known, the value of the equilibrium constant for the reaction can be calculated.

2. **Calculation of missing equilibrium concentrations.** If the value of the equilibrium constant and all of the equilibrium concentrations, except one, are known, the remaining concentration can be calculated.
3. **Calculation of equilibrium concentrations from initial concentrations.** If the value of the equilibrium constant and a set of concentrations of reactants and products that are not at equilibrium are known, the concentrations at equilibrium can be calculated.

A similar list could be generated using Q_P , K_P , and partial pressure. We will look at solving each of these cases in sequence.

Calculation of an Equilibrium Constant

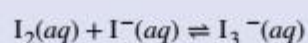
Since the law of mass action is the only equation we have to describe the relationship between K_c and the concentrations of reactants and products, any problem that requires us to solve for K_c must provide enough information to determine the reactant and product concentrations at equilibrium. Armed with the concentrations, we can solve the equation for K_c , as it will be the only unknown.

Example 13.6 showed us how to determine the equilibrium constant of a reaction if we know the concentrations of reactants and products at equilibrium. The following example shows how to use the stoichiometry of the reaction and a combination of initial concentrations and equilibrium concentrations to determine an equilibrium constant. This technique, commonly called an ICE chart—for Initial, Change, and Equilibrium—will be helpful in solving many equilibrium problems. A chart is generated beginning with the equilibrium reaction in question. Underneath the reaction the initial concentrations of the reactants and products are listed—these conditions are usually provided in the problem and we consider no shift toward equilibrium to have happened. The next row of data is the change that occurs as the system shifts toward equilibrium—do not forget to consider the reaction stoichiometry as described in a previous section of this chapter. The last row contains the concentrations once equilibrium has been reached.

Example 13.6

Calculation of an Equilibrium Constant

Iodine molecules react reversibly with iodide ions to produce triiodide ions.



If a solution with the concentrations of I_2 and I^- both equal to $1.000 \times 10^{-3} M$ before reaction gives an equilibrium concentration of I_2 of $6.61 \times 10^{-4} M$, what is the equilibrium constant for the reaction?

Solution

We will begin this problem by calculating the changes in concentration as the system goes to equilibrium. Then we determine the equilibrium concentrations and, finally, the equilibrium constant. First, we set up a table with the initial concentrations, the changes in concentrations, and the equilibrium concentrations using $-x$ as the change in concentration of I_2 .

	I_2	+	I^-	\rightleftharpoons	I_3^-
Initial concentration (M)	1.000×10^{-3}		1.000×10^{-3}		0
Change (M)	$-x$		$-x$		$+x$
Equilibrium concentration (M)	$[1.000 \times 10^{-3}] - x$		$[1.000 \times 10^{-3}] - x$		$[1.000 \times 10^{-3}] + x$

Since the equilibrium concentration of I_2 is given, we can solve for x . At equilibrium the concentration of I_2 is $6.61 \times 10^{-4} M$ so that

$$\begin{aligned} 1.000 \times 10^{-3} - x &= 6.61 \times 10^{-4} \\ x &= 1.000 \times 10^{-3} - 6.61 \times 10^{-4} \\ &= 3.39 \times 10^{-4} M \end{aligned}$$

Now we can fill in the table with the concentrations at equilibrium.

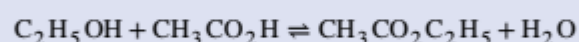
	I_2	+	I^-	\rightleftharpoons	I_3^-
Initial concentration (M)	1.000×10^{-3}		1.000×10^{-3}		0
Change (M)	$-x = -3.39 \times 10^{-4}$		$-x$		$+x$
Equilibrium concentration (M)	6.61×10^{-4}		6.61×10^{-4}		3.39×10^{-4}

We now calculate the value of the equilibrium constant.

$$\begin{aligned} K_c &= Q_c = \frac{[I_3^-]}{[I_2][I^-]} \\ &= \frac{3.39 \times 10^{-4} M}{(6.61 \times 10^{-4} M)(6.61 \times 10^{-4} M)} = 776 \end{aligned}$$

Check Your Learning

Ethanol and acetic acid react and form water and ethyl acetate, the solvent responsible for the odor of some nail polish removers.



When 1 mol each of C_2H_5OH and CH_3CO_2H are allowed to react in 1 L of the solvent dioxane, equilibrium is established when $\frac{1}{3}$ mol of each of the reactants remains. Calculate the equilibrium constant for the reaction. (Note: Water is not a solvent in this reaction.)

Answer: $K_c = 4$

Calculation of a Missing Equilibrium Concentration

If we know the equilibrium constant for a reaction and know the concentrations at equilibrium of all reactants and products except one, we can calculate the missing concentration.

Example 13.7

Calculation of a Missing Equilibrium Concentration

Nitrogen oxides are air pollutants produced by the reaction of nitrogen and oxygen at high temperatures. At $2000^\circ C$, the value of the equilibrium constant for the reaction, $N_2(g) + O_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2NO(g)$, is 4.1×10^{-4} .

Find the concentration of $NO(g)$ in an equilibrium mixture with air at 1 atm pressure at this temperature. In air, $[N_2] = 0.036 \text{ mol/L}$ and $[O_2] = 0.0089 \text{ mol/L}$.

Solution

We are given all of the equilibrium concentrations except that of NO. Thus, we can solve for the missing equilibrium concentration by rearranging the equation for the equilibrium constant.

$$\begin{aligned}K_c &= Q_c = \frac{[\text{NO}]^2}{[\text{N}_2][\text{O}_2]} \\[\text{NO}]^2 &= K_c[\text{N}_2][\text{O}_2] \\[\text{NO}] &= \sqrt{K_c[\text{N}_2][\text{O}_2]} \\&= \sqrt{(4.1 \times 10^{-4})(0.036)(0.0089)} \\&= \sqrt{1.31 \times 10^{-7}} \\&= 3.6 \times 10^{-4}\end{aligned}$$

Thus [NO] is 3.6×10^{-4} mol/L at equilibrium under these conditions.

We can check our answer by substituting all equilibrium concentrations into the expression for the reaction quotient to see whether it is equal to the equilibrium constant.

$$\begin{aligned}Q_c &= \frac{[\text{NO}]^2}{[\text{N}_2][\text{O}_2]} \\&= \frac{(3.6 \times 10^{-4})^2}{(0.036)(0.0089)} \\Q_c &= 4.0 \times 10^{-4} = K_c\end{aligned}$$

The answer checks; our calculated value gives the equilibrium constant within the error associated with the significant figures in the problem.

Check Your Learning

The equilibrium constant for the reaction of nitrogen and hydrogen to produce ammonia at a certain temperature is 6.00×10^{-2} . Calculate the equilibrium concentration of ammonia if the equilibrium concentrations of nitrogen and hydrogen are 4.26 M and 2.09 M, respectively.

Answer: 1.53 mol/L

Calculation of Changes in Concentration

If we know the equilibrium constant for a reaction and a set of concentrations of reactants and products that are *not at equilibrium*, we can calculate the changes in concentrations as the system comes to equilibrium, as well as the new concentrations at equilibrium. The typical procedure can be summarized in four steps.

- Determine the direction the reaction proceeds to come to equilibrium.
 - Write a balanced chemical equation for the reaction.
 - If the direction in which the reaction must proceed to reach equilibrium is not obvious, calculate Q_c from the initial concentrations and compare to K_c to determine the direction of change.
- Determine the relative changes needed to reach equilibrium, then write the equilibrium concentrations in terms of these changes.
 - Define the changes in the initial concentrations that are needed for the reaction to reach equilibrium. Generally, we represent the smallest change with the symbol x and express the other changes in terms of the smallest change.
 - Define missing equilibrium concentrations in terms of the initial concentrations and the changes in concentration determined in (a).

3. Solve for the change and the equilibrium concentrations.
 - a. Substitute the equilibrium concentrations into the expression for the equilibrium constant, solve for x , and check any assumptions used to find x .
 - b. Calculate the equilibrium concentrations.
4. Check the arithmetic.
 - a. Check the calculated equilibrium concentrations by substituting them into the equilibrium expression and determining whether they give the equilibrium constant.

Sometimes a particular step may differ from problem to problem—it may be more complex in some problems and less complex in others. However, every calculation of equilibrium concentrations from a set of initial concentrations will involve these steps.

In solving equilibrium problems that involve changes in concentration, sometimes it is convenient to set up an ICE table, as described in the previous section.

Example 13.8

Calculation of Concentration Changes as a Reaction Goes to Equilibrium

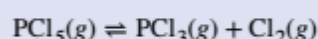
Under certain conditions, the equilibrium constant for the decomposition of $\text{PCl}_5(g)$ into $\text{PCl}_3(g)$ and $\text{Cl}_2(g)$ is 0.0211. What are the equilibrium concentrations of PCl_5 , PCl_3 , and Cl_2 if the initial concentration of PCl_5 was 1.00 M?

Solution

Use the stepwise process described earlier.

Step 1. Determine the direction the reaction proceeds.

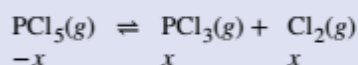
The balanced equation for the decomposition of PCl_5 is



Because we have no products initially, $Q_c = 0$ and the reaction will proceed to the right.

Step 2. Determine the relative changes needed to reach equilibrium, then write the equilibrium concentrations in terms of these changes.

Let us represent the increase in concentration of PCl_3 by the symbol x . The other changes may be written in terms of x by considering the coefficients in the chemical equation.



The changes in concentration and the expressions for the equilibrium concentrations are:

	PCl_5	\rightleftharpoons	PCl_3	+	Cl_2
Initial concentration (M)	1.00		0		0
Change (M)	$-x$		$+x$		$+x$
Equilibrium concentration (M)	$1.00 - x$		$0 + x = x$		$0 + x = x$

Step 3. Solve for the change and the equilibrium concentrations.

Substituting the equilibrium concentrations into the equilibrium constant equation gives

$$K_c = \frac{[\text{PCl}_3][\text{Cl}_2]}{[\text{PCl}_5]} = 0.0211$$

$$= \frac{(x)(x)}{(1.00 - x)}$$

This equation contains only one variable, x , the change in concentration. We can write the equation as a quadratic equation and solve for x using the quadratic formula.

$$0.0211 = \frac{(x)(x)}{(1.00 - x)}$$

$$0.0211(1.00 - x) = x^2$$

$$x^2 + 0.0211x - 0.0211 = 0$$

Appendix B shows us an equation of the form $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$ can be rearranged to solve for x :

$$x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

In this case, $a = 1$, $b = 0.0211$, and $c = -0.0211$. Substituting the appropriate values for a , b , and c yields:

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \frac{-0.0211 \pm \sqrt{(0.0211)^2 - 4(1)(-0.0211)}}{2(1)} \\ &= \frac{-0.0211 \pm \sqrt{(4.45 \times 10^{-4}) + (8.44 \times 10^{-2})}}{2} \\ &= \frac{-0.0211 \pm 0.291}{2} \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$x = \frac{-0.0211 + 0.291}{2} = 0.135$$

or

$$x = \frac{-0.0211 - 0.291}{2} = -0.156$$

Quadratic equations often have two different solutions, one that is physically possible and one that is physically impossible (an extraneous root). In this case, the second solution (-0.156) is physically impossible because we know the change must be a positive number (otherwise we would end up with negative values for concentrations of the products). Thus, $x = 0.135 \text{ M}$.

The equilibrium concentrations are

$$[\text{PCl}_5] = 1.00 - 0.135 = 0.87 \text{ M}$$

$$[\text{PCl}_3] = x = 0.135 \text{ M}$$

$$[\text{Cl}_2] = x = 0.135 \text{ M}$$

Step 4. Check the arithmetic.

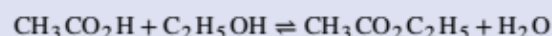
Substitution into the expression for K_c (to check the calculation) gives

$$K_c = \frac{[\text{PCl}_3][\text{Cl}_2]}{[\text{PCl}_5]} = \frac{(0.135)(0.135)}{0.87} = 0.021$$

The equilibrium constant calculated from the equilibrium concentrations is equal to the value of K_c given in the problem (when rounded to the proper number of significant figures). Thus, the calculated equilibrium concentrations check.

Check Your Learning

Acetic acid, $\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}$, reacts with ethanol, $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$, to form water and ethyl acetate, $\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{C}_2\text{H}_5$.

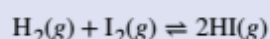


The equilibrium constant for this reaction with dioxane as a solvent is 4.0. What are the equilibrium concentrations when a mixture that is 0.15 M in $\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}$, 0.15 M in $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$, 0.40 M in $\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{C}_2\text{H}_5$, and 0.40 M in H_2O are mixed in enough dioxane to make 1.0 L of solution?

Answer: $[\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{H}] = 0.36 \text{ M}$, $[\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}] = 0.36 \text{ M}$, $[\text{CH}_3\text{CO}_2\text{C}_2\text{H}_5] = 0.17 \text{ M}$, $[\text{H}_2\text{O}] = 0.17 \text{ M}$

Check Your Learning

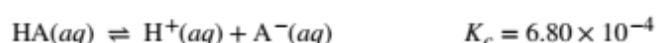
A 1.00-L flask is filled with 1.00 moles of H_2 and 2.00 moles of I_2 . The value of the equilibrium constant for the reaction of hydrogen and iodine reacting to form hydrogen iodide is 50.5 under the given conditions. What are the equilibrium concentrations of H_2 , I_2 , and HI in moles/L?



Answer: $[\text{H}_2] = 0.06 \text{ M}$, $[\text{I}_2] = 1.06 \text{ M}$, $[\text{HI}] = 1.88 \text{ M}$

Sometimes it is possible to use chemical insight to find solutions to equilibrium problems without actually solving a quadratic (or more complicated) equation. First, however, it is useful to verify that equilibrium can be obtained starting from two extremes: all (or mostly) reactants and all (or mostly) products (similar to what was shown in Figure 13.7).

Consider the ionization of 0.150 M HA, a weak acid.



The most obvious way to determine the equilibrium concentrations would be to start with only reactants. This could be called the “all reactant” starting point. Using x for the amount of acid ionized at equilibrium, this is the ICE table and solution.

	$\text{HA}(\text{aq}) \rightleftharpoons \text{H}^+(\text{aq}) + \text{A}^-(\text{aq})$		
Initial concentration (M)	0.150	0	0
Change (M)	$-x$	x	x
Equilibrium concentration (M)	$0.150 - x$	x	x

Setting up and solving the quadratic equation gives

$$K_c = \frac{[\text{H}^+][\text{A}^-]}{[\text{HA}]} = \frac{(x)(x)}{(0.150 - x)} = 6.80 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$x^2 + 6.80 \times 10^{-4}x - 1.02 \times 10^{-4} = 0$$

$$x = \frac{-6.80 \times 10^{-4} \pm \sqrt{(6.80 \times 10^{-4})^2 - (4)(1)(-1.02 \times 10^{-4})}}{(2)(1)}$$

$$x = 0.00977 \text{ M or } -0.0104 \text{ M}$$

Using the positive (physical) root, the equilibrium concentrations are

$$[\text{HA}] = 0.150 - x = 0.140 \text{ M}$$

$$[\text{H}^+] = [\text{A}^-] = x = 0.00977 \text{ M}$$

A less obvious way to solve the problem would be to assume all the HA ionizes first, then the system comes to equilibrium. This could be called the “all product” starting point. Assuming all of the HA ionizes gives

$$[\text{HA}] = 0.150 - 0.150 = 0 \text{ M}$$

$$[\text{H}^+] = 0 + 0.150 = 0.150 \text{ M}$$

$$[\text{A}^-] = 0 + 0.150 = 0.150 \text{ M}$$

Using these as initial concentrations and “y” to represent the concentration of HA at equilibrium, this is the ICE table for this starting point.

	$\text{HA}(aq) \rightleftharpoons \text{H}^+(aq) + \text{A}^-(aq)$		
Initial concentration (M)	0	0.150	0.150
Change (M)	+y	-y	-y
Equilibrium concentration (M)	y	0.150 - y	0.150 - y

Setting up and solving the quadratic equation gives

$$K_c = \frac{[\text{H}^+][\text{A}^-]}{[\text{HA}]} = \frac{(0.150 - y)(0.150 - y)}{(y)} = 6.80 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$6.80 \times 10^{-4}y = 0.0225 - 0.300y + y^2$$

Retain a few extra significant figures to minimize rounding problems.

$$y^2 - 0.30068y + 0.022500 = 0$$

$$y = \frac{0.30068 \pm \sqrt{(0.30068)^2 - (4)(1)(0.022500)}}{(2)(1)}$$

$$y = \frac{0.30068 \pm 0.020210}{2}$$

Rounding each solution to three significant figures gives

$$y = 0.160 \text{ M} \quad \text{or} \quad y = 0.140 \text{ M}$$

Using the physically significant root (0.140 M) gives the equilibrium concentrations as

$$[\text{HA}] = y = 0.140 \text{ M}$$

$$[\text{H}^+] = 0.150 - y = 0.010 \text{ M}$$

$$[\text{A}^-] = 0.150 - y = 0.010 \text{ M}$$

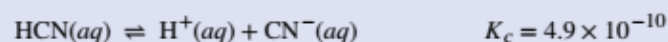
Thus, the two approaches give the same results (to three *decimal places*), and show that *both* starting points lead to the same equilibrium conditions. The “all reactant” starting point resulted in a relatively small change (x) because the system was close to equilibrium, while the “all product” starting point had a relatively large change (y) that was nearly the size of the initial concentrations. It can be said that a system that starts “close” to equilibrium will require only a “small” change in conditions (x) to reach equilibrium.

Recall that a small K_c means that very little of the reactants form products and a large K_c means that most of the reactants form products. If the system can be arranged so it starts “close” to equilibrium, then if the change (x) is small compared to any initial concentrations, it can be neglected. Small is usually defined as resulting in an error of less than 5%. The following two examples demonstrate this.

Example 13.9

Approximate Solution Starting Close to Equilibrium

What are the concentrations at equilibrium of a 0.15 M solution of HCN?



Solution

Using “x” to represent the concentration of each product at equilibrium gives this ICE table.

	$\text{HCN}(aq) \rightleftharpoons \text{H}^+(aq) + \text{CN}^-(aq)$		
Initial concentration (M)	0.15	0	0
Change (M)	$-x$	x	x
Equilibrium concentration (M)	$0.15 - x$	x	x

The exact solution may be obtained using the quadratic formula with

$$K_c = \frac{(x)(x)}{0.15 - x}$$

solving

$$x^2 + 4.9 \times 10^{-10} - 7.35 \times 10^{-11} = 0$$

$$x = 8.56 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M (3 sig. figs)} = 8.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M (2 sig. figs)}$$

Thus $[\text{H}^+] = [\text{CN}^-] = x = 8.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M}$ and $[\text{HCN}] = 0.15 - x = 0.15 \text{ M}$.

In this case, chemical intuition can provide a simpler solution. From the equilibrium constant and the initial conditions, x must be small compared to 0.15 M . More formally, if $x \ll 0.15$, then $0.15 - x \approx 0.15$. If this assumption is true, then it simplifies obtaining x

$$K_c = \frac{(x)(x)}{0.15 - x} \approx \frac{x^2}{0.15}$$

$$4.9 \times 10^{-10} = \frac{x^2}{0.15}$$

$$x^2 = (0.15)(4.9 \times 10^{-10}) = 7.4 \times 10^{-11}$$

$$x = \sqrt{7.4 \times 10^{-11}} = 8.6 \times 10^{-6} \text{ M}$$

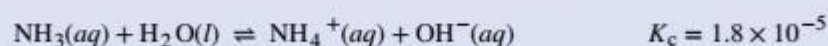
In this example, solving the exact (quadratic) equation and using approximations gave the same result to two significant figures. While most of the time the approximation is a bit different from the exact solution, as long as the error is less than 5%, the approximate solution is considered valid. In this problem, the 5% applies to IF $(0.15 - x) \approx 0.15 \text{ M}$, so if

$$\frac{x}{0.15} \times 100\% = \frac{8.6 \times 10^{-6}}{0.15} \times 100\% = 0.006\%$$

is less than 5%, as it is in this case, the assumption is valid. The approximate solution is thus a valid solution.

Check Your Learning

What are the equilibrium concentrations in a 0.25 M NH_3 solution?



Assume that x is much less than 0.25 M and calculate the error in your assumption.

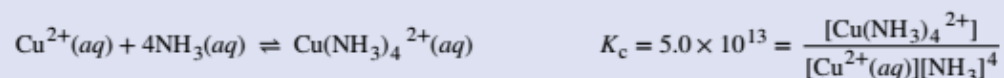
Answer: $[\text{OH}^-] = [\text{NH}_4^+] = 0.0021 \text{ M}$; $[\text{NH}_3] = 0.25 \text{ M}$, error = 0.84%

The second example requires that the original information be processed a bit, but it still can be solved using a small x approximation.

Example 13.10

Approximate Solution After Shifting Starting Concentration

Copper(II) ions form a complex ion in the presence of ammonia



If 0.010 mol Cu^{2+} is added to 1.00 L of a solution that is 1.00 M NH_3 what are the concentrations when the system comes to equilibrium?

Solution

The initial concentration of copper(II) is 0.010 M. The equilibrium constant is very large so it would be better to start with as much product as possible because “all products” is much closer to equilibrium than “all reactants.” Note that Cu^{2+} is the limiting reactant; if all 0.010 M of it reacts to form product the concentrations would be

$$[\text{Cu}^{2+}] = 0.010 - 0.010 = 0 \text{ M}$$

$$[\text{Cu}(\text{NH}_3)_4^{2+}] = 0.010 \text{ M}$$

$$[\text{NH}_3] = 1.00 - 4 \times 0.010 = 0.96 \text{ M}$$

Using these “shifted” values as initial concentrations with x as the free copper(II) ion concentration at equilibrium gives this ICE table.

	$\text{Cu}^{2+}(\text{aq}) + 4\text{NH}_3(\text{aq}) \rightleftharpoons \text{Cu}(\text{NH}_3)_4^{2+}(\text{aq})$		
Initial concentration (M)	0	0.96	0.010
Change (M)	+ x	+ $4x$	− x
Equilibrium concentration (M)	x	$0.96 + 4x$	$0.010 - x$

Since we are starting close to equilibrium, x should be small so that

$$0.96 + 4x \approx 0.96 \text{ M}$$

$$0.010 - x \approx 0.010 \text{ M}$$

$$K_c = \frac{(0.010 - x)}{x(0.96 - 4x)^4} \approx \frac{(0.010)}{x(0.96)^4} = 5.0 \times 10^{13}$$

$$x = \frac{(0.010)}{K_c (0.96)^4} = 2.4 \times 10^{-16} \text{ M}$$

Select the smallest concentration for the 5% rule.

$$\frac{2.4 \times 10^{-16}}{0.010} \times 100\% = 2 \times 10^{-12}\%$$

This is much less than 5%, so the assumptions are valid. The concentrations at equilibrium are

$$[\text{Cu}^{2+}] = x = 2.4 \times 10^{-16} \text{ M}$$

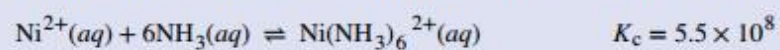
$$[\text{NH}_3] = 0.96 - 4x = 0.96 \text{ M}$$

$$[\text{Cu}(\text{NH}_3)_4^{2+}] = 0.010 - x = 0.010 \text{ M}$$

By starting with the maximum amount of product, this system was near equilibrium and the change (x) was very small. With only a small change required to get to equilibrium, the equation for x was greatly simplified and gave a valid result well within the 5% error maximum.

Check Your Learning

What are the equilibrium concentrations when 0.25 mol Ni^{2+} is added to 1.00 L of 2.00 M NH_3 solution?



With such a large equilibrium constant, first form as much product as possible, then assume that only a small amount (x) of the product shifts left. Calculate the error in your assumption.

Answer: $[\text{Ni}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{2+}] = 0.25 \text{ M}$, $[\text{NH}_3] = 0.50 \text{ M}$, $[\text{Ni}^{2+}] = 2.9 \times 10^{-8} \text{ M}$, error = $1.2 \times 10^{-5}\%$

Key Terms

equilibrium in chemical reactions, the state in which the conversion of reactants into products and the conversion of products back into reactants occur simultaneously at the same rate; state of balance

equilibrium constant (K) value of the reaction quotient for a system at equilibrium

heterogeneous equilibria equilibria between reactants and products in different phases

homogeneous equilibria equilibria within a single phase

K_c equilibrium constant for reactions based on concentrations of reactants and products

K_P equilibrium constant for gas-phase reactions based on partial pressures of reactants and products

law of mass action when a reversible reaction has attained equilibrium at a given temperature, the reaction quotient remains constant

Le Châtelier's principle when a chemical system at equilibrium is disturbed, it returns to equilibrium by counteracting the disturbance

position of equilibrium concentrations or partial pressures of components of a reaction at equilibrium (commonly used to describe conditions before a disturbance)

reaction quotient (Q) ratio of the product of molar concentrations (or pressures) of the products to that of the reactants, each concentration (or pressure) being raised to the power equal to the coefficient in the equation

reversible reaction chemical reaction that can proceed in both the forward and reverse directions under given conditions

stress change to a reaction's conditions that may cause a shift in the equilibrium

Key Equations

- $Q = \frac{[C]^x[D]^y}{[A]^m[B]^n}$ where $mA + nB \rightleftharpoons xC + yD$
- $Q_P = \frac{(P_C)^x(P_D)^y}{(P_A)^m(P_B)^n}$ where $mA + nB \rightleftharpoons xC + yD$
- $P = MRT$
- $K_P = K_c (RT)^{\Delta n}$

Summary

13.1 Chemical Equilibria

A reaction is at equilibrium when the amounts of reactants or products no longer change. Chemical equilibrium is a dynamic process, meaning the rate of formation of products by the forward reaction is equal to the rate at which the products re-form reactants by the reverse reaction.

13.2 Equilibrium Constants

For any reaction that is at equilibrium, the reaction quotient Q is equal to the equilibrium constant K for the reaction. If a reactant or product is a pure solid, a pure liquid, or the solvent in a dilute solution, the concentration of this component does not appear in the expression for the equilibrium constant. At equilibrium, the values of the concentrations of the reactants and products are constant. Their particular values may vary depending on conditions,

but the value of the reaction quotient will always equal K (K_c when using concentrations or K_p when using partial pressures).

A homogeneous equilibrium is an equilibrium in which all components are in the same phase. A heterogeneous equilibrium is an equilibrium in which components are in two or more phases. We can decide whether a reaction is at equilibrium by comparing the reaction quotient with the equilibrium constant for the reaction.

13.3 Shifting Equilibria: Le Châtelier's Principle

Systems at equilibrium can be disturbed by changes to temperature, concentration, and, in some cases, volume and pressure; volume and pressure changes will disturb equilibrium if the number of moles of gas is different on the reactant and product sides of the reaction. The system's response to these disturbances is described by Le Châtelier's principle: The system will respond in a way that counteracts the disturbance. Not all changes to the system result in a disturbance of the equilibrium. Adding a catalyst affects the rates of the reactions but does not alter the equilibrium, and changing pressure or volume will not significantly disturb systems with no gases or with equal numbers of moles of gas on the reactant and product side.

Effects of Disturbances of Equilibrium and K

Disturbance	Observed Change as Equilibrium is Restored	Direction of Shift	Effect on K
reactant added	added reactant is partially consumed	toward products	none
product added	added product is partially consumed	toward reactants	none
decrease in volume/ increase in gas pressure	pressure decreases	toward side with fewer moles of gas	none
increase in volume/ decrease in gas pressure	pressure increases	toward side with fewer moles of gas	none
temperature increase	heat is absorbed	toward products for endothermic, toward reactants for exothermic	changes
temperature decrease	heat is given off	toward reactants for endothermic, toward products for exothermic	changes

Table 13.1

13.4 Equilibrium Calculations

The ratios of the rate of change in concentrations of a reaction are equal to the ratios of the coefficients in the balanced chemical equation. The sign of the coefficient of X is positive when the concentration increases and negative when it decreases. We learned to approach three basic types of equilibrium problems. When given the concentrations of the reactants and products at equilibrium, we can solve for the equilibrium constant; when given the equilibrium constant and some of the concentrations involved, we can solve for the missing concentrations; and when given the equilibrium constant and the initial concentrations, we can solve for the concentrations at equilibrium.

Exercises

13.1 Chemical Equilibria

1. What does it mean to describe a reaction as “reversible”?
2. When writing an equation, how is a reversible reaction distinguished from a nonreversible reaction?
3. If a reaction is reversible, when can it be said to have reached equilibrium?
4. Is a system at equilibrium if the rate constants of the forward and reverse reactions are equal?
5. If the concentrations of products and reactants are equal, is the system at equilibrium?

13.2 Equilibrium Constants

6. Explain why there may be an infinite number of values for the reaction quotient of a reaction at a given temperature but there can be only one value for the equilibrium constant at that temperature.
7. Explain why an equilibrium between $\text{Br}_2(l)$ and $\text{Br}_2(g)$ would not be established if the container were not a closed vessel shown in **Figure 13.5**.
8. If you observe the following reaction at equilibrium, is it possible to tell whether the reaction started with pure NO_2 or with pure N_2O_4 ?
$$2\text{NO}_2(g) \rightleftharpoons \text{N}_2\text{O}_4(g)$$
9. Among the solubility rules previously discussed is the statement: All chlorides are soluble except Hg_2Cl_2 , AgCl , PbCl_2 , and CuCl .
 - (a) Write the expression for the equilibrium constant for the reaction represented by the equation $\text{AgCl}(s) \rightleftharpoons \text{Ag}^+(aq) + \text{Cl}^-(aq)$. Is $K_c > 1$, < 1 , or ≈ 1 ? Explain your answer.
 - (b) Write the expression for the equilibrium constant for the reaction represented by the equation $\text{Pb}^{2+}(aq) + 2\text{Cl}^-(aq) \rightleftharpoons \text{PbCl}_2(s)$. Is $K_c > 1$, < 1 , or ≈ 1 ? Explain your answer.
10. Among the solubility rules previously discussed is the statement: Carbonates, phosphates, borates, and arsenates—except those of the ammonium ion and the alkali metals—are insoluble.
 - (a) Write the expression for the equilibrium constant for the reaction represented by the equation $\text{CaCO}_3(s) \rightleftharpoons \text{Ca}^{2+}(aq) + \text{CO}_3^{2-}(aq)$. Is $K_c > 1$, < 1 , or ≈ 1 ? Explain your answer.
 - (b) Write the expression for the equilibrium constant for the reaction represented by the equation $3\text{Ba}^{2+}(aq) + 2\text{PO}_4^{3-}(aq) \rightleftharpoons \text{Ba}_3(\text{PO}_4)_2(s)$. Is $K_c > 1$, < 1 , or ≈ 1 ? Explain your answer.
11. Benzene is one of the compounds used as octane enhancers in unleaded gasoline. It is manufactured by the catalytic conversion of acetylene to benzene: $3\text{C}_2\text{H}_2(g) \longrightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_6(g)$. Which value of K_c would make this reaction most useful commercially? $K_c \approx 0.01$, $K_c \approx 1$, or $K_c \approx 10$. Explain your answer.
12. Show that the complete chemical equation, the total ionic equation, and the net ionic equation for the reaction represented by the equation $\text{KI}(aq) + \text{I}_2(aq) \rightleftharpoons \text{KI}_3(aq)$ give the same expression for the reaction quotient. KI_3 is composed of the ions K^+ and I_3^- .
13. For a titration to be effective, the reaction must be rapid and the yield of the reaction must essentially be 100%. Is $K_c > 1$, < 1 , or ≈ 1 for a titration reaction?
14. For a precipitation reaction to be useful in a gravimetric analysis, the product of the reaction must be insoluble. Is $K_c > 1$, < 1 , or ≈ 1 for a useful precipitation reaction?
15. Write the mathematical expression for the reaction quotient, Q_c , for each of the following reactions:
 - (a) $\text{CH}_4(g) + \text{Cl}_2(g) \rightleftharpoons \text{CH}_3\text{Cl}(g) + \text{HCl}(g)$
 - (b) $\text{N}_2(g) + \text{O}_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2\text{NO}(g)$