

CHEM 26300 (Chemical Kinetics and Dynamics) Notes

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Week 1

Perspectives on the Maxwell-Boltzmann Distribution

1.1 Background and Ideal Gas Distributions

- 3/28:
- Learning objectives for CHEM 263.
 - The time-dependent phenomena.
 - Reaction rate and rate laws.
 - Reaction mechanisms and reaction dynamics.
 - Surface chemistry and catalysis.
 - Experimental design and instruments.
 - Before we move into the content of CHEM 263, a few important notes from CHEM 262.
 - **Partition function** (for a system with N states): The following function of temperature. *Denoted by $Q(T)$. Given by*

$$Q(T) = \sum_{n=1}^N e^{-E_n/k_B T}$$

- **Observable:** A quantum mechanical operator.
- Consider a system described by the partition function Q . Let $|i\rangle$ denote the state with energy E_i , and let A be an observable. Then the expected value of the observable A is given by

$$\langle A \rangle = \frac{1}{Q} \sum_{|i\rangle} \langle i | A | i \rangle e^{-E_i/k_B T}$$

- “This fundamental law is the summit of statistical mechanics, and the entire subject is either the slide-down from this summit, as the principle is applied to various cases, or the climb-up to where the fundamental law is derived and the concepts of thermal equilibrium and temperature T clarified” Richard Feynman, Statistical Mechanics.
- Now onto the CHEM 263 content.
- Tian duplicates the derivation of the ideal gas law given on Labalme (2021b, pp. 18–19).
 - Note that if M is the molar mass, m is the mass of a single molecule, N_A is Avogadro’s number, N is the number of particles present, and n is the number of moles present, then since $N/N_A = n$ and $M/N_A = m$, we have that

$$M = \frac{Nm}{n}$$

- Important values of molecular speed u .

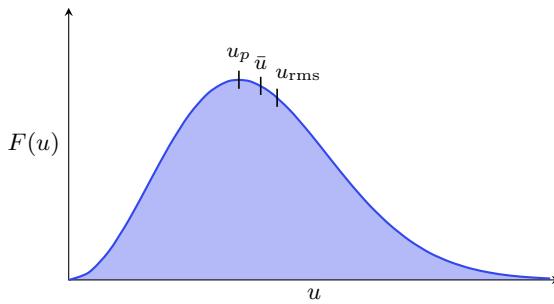


Figure 1.1: Important values of molecular speed.

- Maxwell Speed Distribution Function:** The following normalized function, which gives the probability that a particle in an ideal gas will have a given speed. Denoted by $f(u)$. Given by

$$f(u) = 4\pi \left(\frac{M}{2\pi RT} \right)^{3/2} u^2 \exp \left(-\frac{Mu^2}{2RT} \right)$$

- Most probable speed:** The speed that a particle in an ideal gas is most likely to have. Denoted by u_p . Given by

$$u_p = \sqrt{\frac{2RT}{M}}$$

- Mean speed:** The average speed of all of the particles in an ideal gas. Denoted by \bar{u} . Given by

$$\bar{u} = \sqrt{\frac{8RT}{\pi M}}$$

- Root mean squared speed:** The square root of the average of the speeds squared. Denoted by u_{rms} . Given by

$$u_{\text{rms}} = \langle u^2 \rangle^{1/2} = \sqrt{\frac{3RT}{M}}$$

- The distributions of the molecular speed and velocity components are different.
 - While speed follows the Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution, velocity follows (on each Cartesian axis) a Gaussian distribution centered at zero.
 - At higher temperatures, both distributions “flatten out,” but maintain their shape.
- Deriving the distribution of the velocity component.
 - The velocity components are independent.
 - Let

$$h(u) = h(u_x, u_y, u_z) = f(u_x)f(u_y)f(u_z)$$

be the distribution of speed with velocity components between $u_x, u_x + du_x$, $u_y, u_y + du_y$, and $u_z, u_z + du_z$, where $f(u_i)$ is the probability distribution of components i .

- Note that $h(u)$ is *not* the speed distribution with velocity components between $u, u + du$.

- Clever step: Note that the logarithmic form of the above equation leads to

$$\begin{aligned}\ln h(u) &= \ln f(u_x) + \ln f(u_y) + \ln f(u_z) \\ \left(\frac{\partial \ln h}{\partial u_x}\right)_{u_y, u_z} &= \frac{d \ln h}{du} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial u_x}\right)_{u_y, u_z} \\ &= \frac{u_x}{u} \frac{d \ln h}{du}\end{aligned}$$

where we evaluate $\partial u / \partial u_x$ by using the generalized Pythagorean theorem definition of u .

- Additionally, we have that

$$\left(\frac{\partial \ln h}{\partial u_x}\right)_{u_y, u_z} = \frac{d \ln f(u_x)}{d u_x}$$

since the $\ln f(u_i)$ ($i \neq x$) terms are constant with respect to changes in u_x .

- Thus, combining the last two results, we have that

$$\frac{d \ln h(u)}{u du} = \frac{d \ln f(u_x)}{u_x du_x}$$

- It follows since the gas is isotropic that

$$\frac{d \ln h(u)}{u du} = \frac{d \ln f(u_x)}{u_x du_x} = \frac{d \ln f(u_y)}{u_y du_y} = \frac{d \ln f(u_z)}{u_z du_z}$$

- But since the three speed components are independent of each other, the above term is constant.

- It follows if we call the constant -2γ , then

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d \ln f(u_i)}{u_i du_i} &= -2\gamma \\ f(u_i) &= A e^{-\gamma u_i^2}\end{aligned}$$

for $i = x, y, z$.

- We will pick up with solving for A and γ in the next lecture.

1.2 Velocity vs. Speed

3/30:

- Exam preferences.
 - Asks for midterm preferences. People prefer a take-home exam.
 - Asks for final preferences. Probably a 2-hour test?
- Continuing with the derivation for the distribution of the velocity component.
 - Note that we choose -2γ because we know we're gonna have to integrate and we want the final form to be as simple as possible. For instance,

$$\frac{d \ln f(u_i)}{u_i du_i} = \frac{d \ln f(u_i)}{\frac{1}{2} du_i^2}$$

should help rationalize the 2.

- Solving for A .

- We apply the normalization requirement.

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(u_i) du_i \\ &= A \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\gamma u_i^2} du_i \\ &= 2A \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\gamma u_i^2} du_i \\ &= 2A \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4\gamma}} \\ A &= \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\pi}} \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, for $i = x, y, z$, we have

$$f(u_i) = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\pi}} e^{-\gamma u_i^2}$$

– Solving for γ .

- We know from the previous lecture that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{3}m \langle u^2 \rangle &= RT \\ \langle u^2 \rangle &= \frac{3RT}{M} = \frac{3k_B T}{m} \\ \langle u_x^2 \rangle &= \frac{RT}{M} \end{aligned}$$

- But we also have by definition that (taking u_x in particular because γ is the same in the equations for u_x, u_y, u_z)

$$\langle u_x^2 \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u_x^2 f(u_x) du_x$$

- Thus, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{RT}{M} &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u_x^2 f(u_x) du_x \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u_x^2 e^{-\gamma u_x^2} du_x \\ &= 2\sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} u_x^2 e^{-\gamma u_x^2} du_x \\ &= 2\sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{1}{4\gamma} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\gamma}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\gamma} \\ \gamma &= \frac{M}{2RT} \end{aligned}$$

– It follows that

$$f(u_i) = \sqrt{\frac{M}{2\pi RT}} e^{-Mu_i^2/2RT} = \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T}} e^{-mu_i^2/2k_B T}$$

- Now we can compute other speeds, such as the average velocity $\langle u_x \rangle$.

– Evaluating the odd integrand gives us $\langle u_x \rangle = 0$, as expected.

- As per the Gaussian distribution, if the temperature increases or mass decreases, the distribution of speeds broadens and flattens.
- Doppler effect:** The change in frequency of a wave in relation to an observer who is moving relative to the wave source. *Also known as Doppler shift.*

- Example: The change of pitch heard when a vehicle sounding a horn approaches and recedes from an observer. Compared to the emitted frequency, the received frequency is higher during the approach, identical at the instant of passing by, and lower during the recession.
- An application of the velocity distribution: The Doppler effect and spectral line broadening.

- Radiation emitted from a gas will be spread out due to the motion of the molecules.
- The frequency ν detected by the observer and the frequency ν_0 emitted by the emitter are related by

$$\nu \approx \nu_0 \left(1 + \frac{u_x}{c}\right)$$

- Algebraic rearrangement gives us

$$u_x = \frac{c(\nu - \nu_0)}{\nu_0}$$

- Doppler-broadened spectral lineshape.

$$I(\nu) \propto e^{-mc^2(\nu - \nu_0)^2 / 2\nu_0 k_B T}$$

- Thus, the variance of the spectral line is

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{\nu_0^2 k_B T}{mc^2} = \frac{\nu_0^2 RT}{Mc^2}$$

- The result is that if gas particles are at rest, the emission line spectrum will have very narrow lines. If the gas particles are moving, the lines are broadened.
 - This is why so much spectroscopy is done at super-low temperatures and with heavier molecules! In particular, because Doppler broadening blurs results.
- We know that the average velocity is zero. But we can also consider the average velocity in the positive direction.

- We calculate

$$\begin{aligned} \langle u_x \rangle &= \int_0^\infty u_x f(u_x) du_x \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T}} \int_0^\infty u_x e^{-mu_x^2/2k_B T} du_x \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T}} \cdot \frac{2k_B T}{2m} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T}} \end{aligned}$$

- This will be one-fourth the average speed from Figure 1.1, though.

- Moving from velocity to speed: Deriving the Maxwell-Boltzmann Speed Distribution.

- Define

$$F(u) du \approx f(u_x) du_x f(u_y) du_y f(u_z) du_z$$

- This function gives us the velocity of each particle in the velocity space. But the speed of each particle is just its distance from the origin.

- We have that

$$F(u) du \approx \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} e^{-m(u_x^2 + u_y^2 + u_z^2)/2k_B T} du_x du_y du_z$$

from where we can convert to spherical coordinates using $u^2 = u_x^2 + u_y^2 + u_z^2$ and $4\pi u^2 du = du_x du_y du_z$ to get our final result.

$$F(u) du = 4\pi \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} u^2 e^{-mu^2/2k_B T} du$$

- Note that we invoke the equals sign only at the end because speed is inherently spherical in the velocity space; any use of Cartesian infinitesimals must by definition be an approximation at best.

- Some important differences.

- $h(u) = h(u_x, u_y, u_z) = f(u_x)f(u_y)f(u_z)$ is the distribution of molecular speeds with velocity components (in Cartesian coordinates) between $u_x, u_x + du_x$, $u_y, u_y + du_y$, and $u_z, u_z + du_z$.
- $f(u_x) = \sqrt{M/2\pi RT} e^{-Mu_x^2/2RT}$ is the distribution of molecular speed componentwise in Cartesian coordinates, and has a Gaussian distribution.
- $F(u) = 4\pi \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} u^2 e^{-mu^2/2k_B T}$ is the distribution of molecular speed, and has a Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution as per spherical coordinates.

- Maxwell-Boltzmann speed distribution of noble gases.

- Heavier Noble gases have more “flattened” M-B distributions.

- Different metrics of M-B speed distribution.

- We can, from the above formula, calculate the average speed $\langle u \rangle$, the root mean square speed $\langle u^2 \rangle^{1/2}$, and the most probable speed by taking a derivative and setting it equal to zero.
- We get

$$\langle u \rangle = \sqrt{\frac{8RT}{\pi M}} \quad u_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3RT}{M}} \quad u_{\text{mp}} = \sqrt{\frac{2k_B T}{m}}$$

1.3 Energy Distribution and Collision Frequency

4/1:

- The final exam is 50 minutes on the last day of class.
- We can also express the M-B distribution in terms of kinetic energy.
 - We know that energy $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}mu^2$, so $u = \sqrt{2\varepsilon/m}$ and thus $du = d\varepsilon/\sqrt{2m\varepsilon}$.
 - This allows us to write

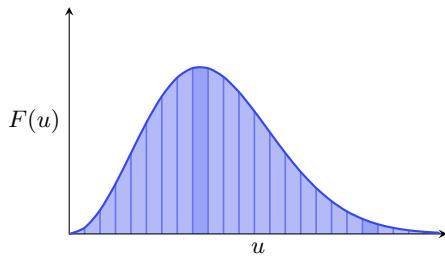
$$\begin{aligned} F(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon &= 4\pi \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \cdot \frac{2\varepsilon}{m} \cdot e^{-\varepsilon/k_B T} \frac{d\varepsilon}{\sqrt{2m\varepsilon}} \\ &= \frac{2\pi}{(\pi k_B T)^{3/2}} \varepsilon^{1/2} e^{-\varepsilon/k_B T} d\varepsilon \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, we can calculate that

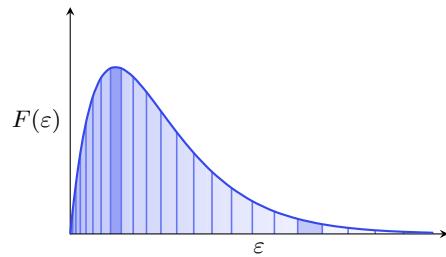
$$\begin{aligned} \langle \varepsilon \rangle &= \int_0^\infty \varepsilon f(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon \\ &= \frac{3}{2} k_B T \end{aligned}$$

as expected.

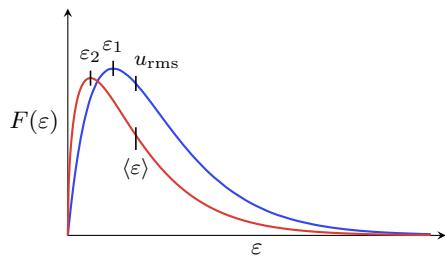
- Aside: Understanding the probability distribution $F(u) du$ and the relation between $F(u) du$ and $F(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon$.



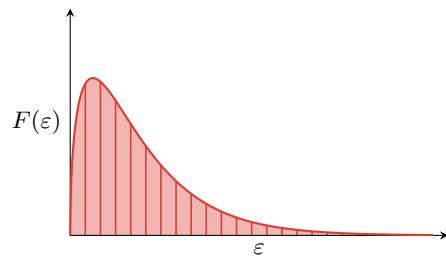
(a) Molecular speed distribution.



(b) Stretching the molecular speed distribution.



(c) Comparing the energy and speed distributions.



(d) Molecular energy distribution.

Figure 1.2: Relating molecular speed and molecular energy.

- $F(u)$ is a probability distribution. Thus, its graph (see Figure 1.2a) indicates the number density of particles we'd expect to find at a given velocity u by the vertical height of the curve. Importantly, if we imagine filling in the area under the curve with each particle at its u -position and evenly spaced in the F direction, eventually we'd get a continuous color under the curve (as in Figure 1.2a; the darkened regions are illustrated as such for the sole purpose of contrast with Figure 1.2b, as discussed below).
- We note that $\varepsilon = \frac{1}{2}mu^2$ is a stretching operation. This means that as u increases, ε increases faster. For example, as u increases 1, 2, 3, 4, ε increases proportionally by 1, 4, 9, 16. Thus, we can approximate $F(\varepsilon)$ by stretching the graph of $F(u)$ horizontally by greater and greater amounts (see Figure 1.2b).
- An important consequence of this is that the particles moving within a certain range of velocities have a larger range of energies (compare the darkly shaded blocks of Figures 1.2a and 1.2b, as well as the general increase in spacing of the vertical lines).
- However, when we approximate by stretching, we ignore some of the other changes in the equation. For instance, when we sketch the actual energy distribution, its most probable energy $\varepsilon_{\text{mp}} = \varepsilon_2$ has a lower value than that predicted by just stretching the graph of the speed distribution (which we denote in Figure 1.2c by $\varepsilon_1 = \frac{1}{2}mu_{\text{mp}}^2$). All in one equation,

$$\varepsilon_{\text{mp}} \neq \frac{1}{2}mu_{\text{mp}}^2$$

- Additionally, note that the actual curve (Figure 1.2d) has even density beneath it.

- Calculating the most probable kinetic energy.

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{dF}{d\varepsilon} &= \frac{2\pi}{(\pi k_B T)^{3/2}} \left[\frac{\varepsilon^{-1/2} e^{-\varepsilon/k_B T}}{2} - \frac{e^{-\varepsilon/k_B T} \cdot \varepsilon^{1/2}}{k_B T} \right] \\ 0 &= \frac{2\pi e^{-\varepsilon/k_B T}}{(\pi k_B T)^{3/2}} \left[\frac{1}{2\sqrt{\varepsilon}} - \frac{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}{k_B T} \right] \\ \varepsilon_{mp} &= \frac{k_B T}{2}\end{aligned}$$

- The most probable energy calculated from the most probable speed via $\frac{1}{2}mu_{mp}^2$ is $k_B T$, so the actual value is one-half the predicted value (notice how $\varepsilon_2 = \frac{1}{2}\varepsilon_1$).
- Since $\langle \varepsilon \rangle = \langle \frac{1}{2}mu^2 \rangle$, $\langle \varepsilon \rangle$ is related to the root mean square speed.
 - This relates $u_{rms}^2 = 3k_B T/m$ to $\langle \varepsilon \rangle = 3k_B T/2$ by a factor of $m/2$.
 - This linear relation appears in Figure 1.2c, where u_{rms} and $\langle \varepsilon \rangle$ occur in the same place and differ only by a vertical stretch factor ($m/2$).
- Calculating the frequency of collisions.

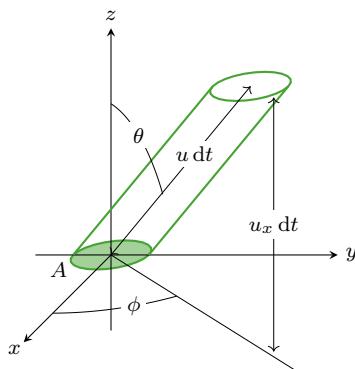


Figure 1.3: Collision frequency cylinder.

- Construct a cylinder to enclose all those molecules that will strike the area A at an angle θ with speed u in the time interval dt .
- Its volume is $V = Au \cos \theta dt$.
- The number of molecules in the cylinder is ρV , where ρ is the number density.
- The fraction of molecules that have a speed between $u, u + du$ is $F(u) du$.
- The fraction travelling within a solid angle bounded by $\theta, \theta + d\theta$ and $\phi, \phi + d\phi$ is $\sin \theta d\theta \cdot d\phi / 4\pi$, where 4π represents a complete solid angle.
- The number dN_{coll} of molecules colliding with the area A from the specified direction in the time interval dt is

$$dN_{coll} = \rho(Au dt) \cos \theta \cdot F(u) du \cdot \frac{\sin \theta d\theta d\phi}{4\pi}$$

- The number of collisions per unit time per unit area with the wall by molecules whose speeds are in the range $u, u + du$ and whose direction lies within the solid angle $\sin \theta d\theta d\phi$ is

$$dz_{coll} = \frac{1}{A} \frac{dN_{coll}}{dt} = \frac{\rho}{4\pi} u F(u) du \cdot \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

- If we integrate over all possible speeds and directions, then we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} z_{\text{coll}} &= \frac{\rho}{4\pi} \int_0^\infty u F(u) du \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \\ &= \frac{\rho \langle u \rangle}{4} \end{aligned}$$

- Deriving the pressure through the collision frequency.

- We have

$$\begin{aligned} dP &= (2mu \cos \theta) dz_{\text{coll}} \\ &= (2mu \cos \theta) \frac{\rho}{4\pi} u F(u) du \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta d\phi \\ &= (2mu \cos \theta) \rho \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} u^3 e^{-mu^2/2k_B T} du \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta d\phi \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, since

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = \frac{2\pi}{3} \quad 4\pi \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty u^4 e^{-mu^2/2k_B T} du = \langle u^2 \rangle$$

we have that

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \rho m \langle u^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{3V} N m \langle u^2 \rangle$$

1.4 Office Hours (Tian)

- Can you explain the whole $F(u) du$ differential notation for probability?
 - $F(u)$ is the probability function. $F(u)$ is the y axis of the individual points. Probability density.
 - $F(u) du$ is the infinitesimal probability at u , but only within an infinitely small range. It's an abbreviation/approximation for the tiny infinitesimal rectangle under the curve that we picture as we integrate.
 - $\int_0^\infty F(u) du = 1$ (summing all of the tiny probabilities) gets you to 1 for a normalized probability distribution.
- What is up with the relation between u_{rms} and $\langle \varepsilon \rangle$?

- We have

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \varepsilon \rangle &= \left\langle \frac{1}{2} mu^2 \right\rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2} m \langle u^2 \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2} mu_{\text{rms}}^2 \\ &= \frac{m}{2} \cdot \frac{3k_B T}{m} \\ &= \frac{3k_B T}{2} \end{aligned}$$

- Post lecture notes before class? Write down what's on the lecture slides or listen?
 - He has been and will continue to post the slides the night before the lecture.
- When will HW 1 be posted?

- No homework this week.
- The first homework will be posted next Monday.
- He will post a homework every Monday that will be due the next Monday.
- When are gases isotropic?
 - A gas is isotropic unless there is a driving force.
 - For example, gas in a closed box is isotropic, but gas in a cylinder with a fan at one end is not isotropic (particles are more likely to move in one direction).
- What is the total solid angle geometrically?
 - Hard to visualize three dimensionally. You get 4π by doing the integrals for the components:
$$4\pi = \int_{-\pi/2}^{\pi/2} \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi$$
- We don't need to memorize most of the derivations, but we do need to know the conclusions and the assumptions we need to get them.
 - We won't be asked to give a derivation unless we're given the full starting point.
 - The final can't have much heavy calculation on it because there's not that much time.
 - The midterm will be a online take-home exam with limited time (probably 2 hours).
- Not every topic in the remainder of McQuarrie and Simon (1997) will be covered; some sections will be skipped.
 - He will focus a lot on the practical applications. Once the student understands the basic principle, he wants us to be able to apply it to research and life.

1.5 Chapter 27: The Kinetic Theory of Gases

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

- 3/28:
- **Kinetic theory of gases:** A simple model of gases in which the molecules (pictured as hard spheres) are assumed to be in constant, incessant motion, colliding with each other and with the walls of the container.
 - McQuarrie and Simon (1997) does the KMT derivation of the ideal gas law from Labalme (2021a). Some important notes follow.
 - McQuarrie and Simon (1997) emphasizes the importance of

$$PV = \frac{1}{3}Nm\langle u^2 \rangle$$

as a fundamental equation of KMT, as it relates a macroscopic property PV to a microscopic property $m\langle u^2 \rangle$.

- In Chapter 17-18, we derived quantum mechanically, and then from the partition function, that the average translational energy $\langle E_{\text{trans}} \rangle$ for a single particle of an ideal gas is $\frac{3}{2}k_B T$. From classical mechanics, we also have that $\langle E_{\text{trans}} \rangle = \frac{1}{2}m\langle u^2 \rangle$. This is why we may let

$$\frac{1}{2}m\langle u^2 \rangle = \frac{3}{2}k_B T$$

recovering that the average translational kinetic energy of the molecules in a gas is directly proportional to the Kelvin temperature.

- **Isotropic** (entity): An object or substance that has the same properties in any direction.
 - For example, a homogeneous gas is isotropic, and this is what allows us to state that $\langle u_x^2 \rangle = \langle u_y^2 \rangle = \langle u_z^2 \rangle$.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) derives

$$u_{\text{rms}} = \sqrt{\frac{3RT}{M}}$$
 - u_{rms} is an estimate of the average speed since $\langle u^2 \rangle \neq \langle u \rangle^2$ in general.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) states without proof that the speed of sound u_{sound} in a monatomic ideal gas is given by

$$u_{\text{sound}} = \sqrt{\frac{5RT}{3M}}$$
- Assumptions of the kinetic theory of gases.
 - Particles collide elastically with the wall.
 - Justified because although each collision will not be elastic (the particles in the wall are moving too), the average collision will be elastic.
 - Particles do not collide with each other.
 - Justified because “if the gas is in equilibrium, on the average, any collision that deflects the path of a molecule... will be balanced by a collision that replaces the molecule” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1015).
- Note that we can do the kinetic derivation at many levels of rigor, but more rigorous derivations offer results that differ only by constant factors on the order of unity.
- Deriving a theoretical equation for the distribution of the *components* of molecular velocities.
 - Let $h(u_x, u_y, u_z) du_x du_y du_z$ be the fraction of molecules with velocity components between u_j and $u_j + du_j$ for $j = x, y, z$.
 - Assume that the each component of the velocity of a molecule is independent of the values of the other two components^[1]. It follows statistically that

$$h(u_x, u_y, u_z) = f(u_x)f(u_y)f(u_z)$$

- Note that we use just one function f for the probability distribution in each direction because the gas is isotropic.
- We can use the isotropic condition to an even greater degree. Indeed, it implies that any information conveyed by u_x is necessarily and sufficiently conveyed by u_y , u_z , and u . Thus, we may take

$$h(u) = h(u_x, u_y, u_z) = f(u_x)f(u_y)f(u_z)$$

- It follows that

$$\frac{\partial \ln h(u)}{\partial u_x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial u_x} (\ln f(u_x) + \text{terms not involving } u_x) = \frac{d \ln f(u_x)}{du_x}$$

¹This can be proven.

- Since

$$\begin{aligned} u^2 &= u_x^2 + u_y^2 + u_z^2 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial u_x}(u^2) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial u_x}(u_x^2 + u_y^2 + u_z^2) \\ 2u \frac{\partial u}{\partial u_x} &= 2u_x \\ \frac{\partial u}{\partial u_x} &= \frac{u_x}{u} \end{aligned}$$

we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \ln h}{\partial u_x} &= \frac{d \ln h}{du} \frac{\partial u}{\partial u_x} = \frac{u_x}{u} \frac{d \ln h}{du} \\ \frac{d \ln h(u)}{u du} &= \frac{d \ln f(u_x)}{u_x du_x} \end{aligned}$$

which generalizes to

$$\frac{d \ln h(u)}{u du} = \frac{d \ln f(u_x)}{u_x du_x} = \frac{d \ln f(u_y)}{u_y du_y} = \frac{d \ln f(u_z)}{u_z du_z}$$

- Since u_x, u_y, u_z are independent, we know that the above equation is equal to a constant, which we may call $-\gamma$. It follows that for any $j = x, y, z$, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d \ln f(u_j)}{u_j du_j} &= -\gamma \\ \frac{1}{f} \frac{df}{du_j} &= -\gamma u_j \\ \int \frac{df}{f} &= \int -\gamma u_j du_j \\ \ln f &= -\frac{\gamma}{2} u_j^2 + C \\ f(u_j) &= A e^{-\gamma u_j^2} \end{aligned}$$

where we have incorporated the $1/2$ into γ .

- To determine A and γ , we let arbitrarily let $j = x$. Since f is a continuous probability distribution, we may apply the normalization requirement.

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(u_x) du_x \\ &= 2A \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\gamma u_x^2} du_x \\ &= 2A \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4\gamma}} \\ A &= \sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\pi}} \end{aligned}$$

- Additionally, since we have that $\langle u_x^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{3} \langle u^2 \rangle$ and $\langle u^2 \rangle = 3RT/M$, we know that $\langle u_x^2 \rangle = RT/M$.

This combined with the definition of $\langle u_x^2 \rangle$ as a continuous probability distribution yields

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{RT}{M} &= \langle u_x^2 \rangle \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u_x^2 f(u_x) du_x \\ &= 2\sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} u_x^2 e^{-\gamma u_x^2} du_x \\ &= 2\sqrt{\frac{\gamma}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{1}{4\gamma} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\gamma}} \\ &= \frac{1}{2\gamma} \\ \gamma &= \frac{M}{2RT}\end{aligned}$$

- Therefore,

$$f(u_x) = \sqrt{\frac{M}{2\pi RT}} e^{-Mu_x^2/2RT}$$

- It is common to rewrite the above in terms of molecular quantities m and k_B .

- It follows that as temperature increases, more molecules are likely to be found with higher component velocity values.
- We can use the above result to show that

$$\langle u_x \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u_x f(u_x) du_x = 0$$

- We can also calculate that $\langle u_x^2 \rangle = RT/M$ and $m\langle u_x \rangle^2/2 = k_B T/2$ from the above result^[2].
 - An important consequence is that the total kinetic energy is divided equally into the x -, y -, and z -components.
- **Doppler broadening:** The broadening of spectral lines due to the distribution of molecular velocities.
 - Ideally, spectral lines will be very narrow.
 - However, due to the Doppler effect, if an atom or molecule emits radiation of frequency ν_0 while moving away or toward the observer with speed u_x , then the observed frequency will be

$$\nu \approx \nu_0 \left(1 + \frac{u_x}{c}\right)$$

- Indeed, “if one observes the radiation emitted from a gas at temperature T , then it is found that the spectral line at ν_0 will be spread out by the Maxwell distribution of u_x of the molecule emitting the radiation” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1021).
- It follows by the definition of $f(u_x)$ and the above that

$$I(\nu) \propto e^{-mc^2(\nu - \nu_0)^2 / 2\nu_0^2 k_B T}$$

i.e., that $I(\nu)$ is of the form of a Gaussian centered at ν_0 with variance $\sigma^2 = \nu_0^2 k_B T / mc^2$.

- Deriving **Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution**.

²See the equipartition of energy theorem from Labalme (2021b).

- Let the probability that a molecule has speed between u and $u + du$ be defined by a continuous probability distribution $F(u) du$. In particular, we have from the above isotropic condition that

$$\begin{aligned} F(u) du &= f(u_x) du_x f(u_y) du_y f(u_z) du_z \\ &= \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} e^{-m(u_x^2 + u_y^2 + u_z^2)/2k_B T} du_x du_y du_z \end{aligned}$$

- Considering F over a **velocity space**, we realize that we may express the probability distribution F as a function of u via $u^2 = u_x^2 + u_y^2 + u_z^2$ and the differential volume element in every direction over the sphere of equal velocities (a sphere by the isotropic condition) by $4\pi u^2 du = du_x du_y du_z$.
- Thus, the Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution in terms of speed is

$$F(u) du = 4\pi \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} u^2 e^{-mu^2/2k_B T} du$$

- **Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution:** The distribution of molecular speeds.
- **Velocity space:** A rectangular coordinate system in which the distances along the axes are u_x, u_y, u_z .
- The above integral as well as some other variations occur commonly in the study of kinetics.

$\int_0^\infty x^{2n} e^{-\alpha x^2} dx = \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2n-1)}{2^{n+1} \alpha^n} \left(\frac{\pi}{\alpha}\right)^{1/2}$	$n \geq 1$
$\int_0^\infty x^{2n+1} e^{-\alpha x^2} dx = \frac{n!}{2\alpha^{n+1}}$	$n \geq 0$
$\int_0^\infty x^{n/2} e^{-\alpha x} dx = \frac{n(n-2)(n-4)\cdots(1)}{(2\alpha)^{(n+1)/2}} \left(\frac{\pi}{\alpha}\right)^{1/2}$	$n \text{ odd}$
$= \frac{(n/2)!}{\alpha^{(n+2)/2}}$	$n \text{ even}$

Table 1.1: Common integrals in the kinetic theory of gases.

- We may use the above result to calculate that

$$\langle u \rangle = \sqrt{\frac{8RT}{\pi m}}$$

which only differs from u_{rms} by a factor of 0.92.

- **Most probable speed:** The most probable speed of a gas molecule in a sample that obeys the Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution. Denoted by u_{mp} . Given by

$$u_{\text{mp}} = \sqrt{\frac{2RT}{M}}$$

- Derived by setting $dF/du = 0$.
- We may also express the Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution in terms of energy via $u = \sqrt{2\varepsilon/m}$ and $du = d\varepsilon / \sqrt{2m\varepsilon}$ to give

$$F(\varepsilon) d\varepsilon = \frac{2\pi}{(\pi k_B T)^{3/2}} \sqrt{\varepsilon} e^{-\varepsilon/k_B T} d\varepsilon$$

- We can also confirm our previously calculated values for $\langle u^2 \rangle$ and $\langle \varepsilon \rangle$.
- Deriving an expression for the frequency of collisions that the molecules of a gas make with the walls of its container (refer to Figure 1.3 throughout the following).

- Note that this quantity is central to the theory of rates of surface reactions.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) gets to the following equation as in class.

$$dz_{\text{coll}} = \frac{1}{A} \frac{dN_{\text{coll}}}{dt} = \frac{\rho}{4\pi} u F(u) du \cdot \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

- Note that the above equation is of the form $u^3 e^{-mu^2/2k_B T}$ whereas M-B distribution is of the form $u^2 e^{-mu^2/2k_B T}$.

- Thus, the above equation peaks at higher values of u .
- This reflects the fact that molecules traveling at a higher speed (than average) are more likely to strike the wall in a given window of time.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) finishes the derivation to obtain the equation for z_{coll} and notes that Problems 27-49 through 27-52 develop its applications to effusion rate theory.

- Note that we can calculate the number density ρ from pressure and temperature data via the ideal gas law as follows.

$$\rho = \frac{N}{V} = \frac{N_A n}{V} = \frac{N_A P}{RT}$$

- (Re)deriving $P = \rho m \langle u^2 \rangle / 3$ from a collision frequency perspective.

- If θ is the angular deviation in the particle's path from the normal to the wall, then the component of momentum of a particle of mass m moving with speed u that lies perpendicular to the wall is $mu \cos \theta$.
- This particle's change in momentum upon colliding elastically with the wall is thus $2mu \cos \theta$.
- Since pressure is the force per unit area and force is the change in momentum per unit time, the pressure is equal to the product of the change in momentum per collision and the frequency (number per unit time) of collisions per unit area. Mathematically, the infinitesimal pressure applied by just the molecules with speeds between u and $u + du$ that lie within the solid angle $\sin \theta d\theta d\phi$ is

$$\begin{aligned} dP &= (2mu \cos \theta) dz_{\text{coll}} \\ &= \rho \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} (2mu \cos \theta) u^3 e^{-mu^2/2k_B T} du \cos \theta \sin \theta d\theta d\phi \end{aligned}$$

- It follows since

$$\int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta d\theta \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = \frac{2\pi}{3} \quad 4\pi \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty u^4 e^{-mu^2/2k_B T} du = \langle u^2 \rangle$$

that

$$P = \rho m \cdot \frac{\langle u^2 \rangle}{2\pi} \cdot \frac{2\pi}{3} = \frac{1}{3} \rho m \langle u^2 \rangle$$

4/10:

- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) discusses Kusch and coworker's experimental verification of the M-B distribution, which used a beam of potassium atoms and a rotating velocity selector.
 - Kusch was awarded the Nobel prize in physics in 1955.
- We now discuss the frequency of collisions between the molecules in a gas.
- We first consider the frequency of collisions of a single gas-phase molecule.
- Assumptions.
 - The molecules are hard spheres of diameter d .

- All molecules other than the one in question are stationary; we will account for their motion at the end of the derivation.
 - The molecule in question will collide with any molecule whose center lies within this cylinder.
 - See Figure 2.1.
- **Collision cross section:** The target of effective radius d presented by each hard sphere molecule. Denoted by σ . Given by

$$\sigma = \pi d^2$$

Gas	d (pm)	σ (nm 2)
He	210	0.140
Ar	370	0.430
Xe	490	0.750
H ₂	270	0.230
N ₂	380	0.450
O ₂	360	0.410
Cl ₂	540	0.920
CH ₄	410	0.530
C ₂ H ₄	430	0.580

Table 1.2: Collision diameters and collision cross sections.

- See Table 1.2 for some example values.
- Calculating the number of collisions dN_{coll} the moving molecule makes in the time dt .
- The volume of the collision cylinder is the product of its cross section σ and its length $\langle u \rangle dt$.
 - Whenever the center of another molecule lies within this cylinder, a collision will occur.
 - Thus, since $\sigma \langle u \rangle dt$ represents a small volume within the overall volume the gas occupies, the expected number of collisions dN_{coll} would be equal to the number of molecules expected to lie in the volume $\sigma \langle u \rangle dt$.
 - If the N molecules can be expected to be evenly distributed throughout the volume V with number density $\rho = N/V$, then we have that

$$dN_{\text{coll}} = N \cdot \frac{\sigma \langle u \rangle dt}{V} = \rho \sigma \langle u \rangle dt$$

- We must now undo the one assumption that cannot stay: That all other molecules are stationary.
 - To do this, we treat the motion of the two bodies by the reduced mass.
- **Collision frequency:** The expected number of collisions per unit time. Denoted by Z_A . Given by

$$\begin{aligned} z_A &= \frac{dN_{\text{coll}}}{dt} = \rho \sigma \langle u_r \rangle = \rho \sigma \sqrt{\frac{8k_B T}{\pi \mu}} \\ &= \sqrt{2} \rho \sigma \langle u \rangle = \sqrt{2} \rho \sigma \sqrt{\frac{8k_B T}{\pi m}} \end{aligned}$$

Week 2

Intermolecular Dynamics and Intro to Rate Laws

2.1 Mean Free Path

4/4:

- The midterm will have some computational problems; the final will be nearly entirely conceptual.
- Reviews the conclusions of the derivation associated with Figure 1.3.
- The Maxwell-Boltzmann Distribution has been verified experimentally.
 - A furnace with a very small hole that allowed a beam of atoms (such as potassium) to emerge into an evacuated chamber. The beam passed through a pair of collimating slits and then through a velocity-selector.
 - In the second method, clocks the time it takes for molecules to travel a fixed distance. A very short pulse of molecules leaves the chopper and then spread out in space as they travel toward the detector.
 - Either way, we observe very good agreement with the M-B distribution.
- **Mean free path:** The average distance a molecule travels between collisions.
- **Collision cylinder:** The cylinder of radius d that encapsulates the trajectory of a particle of diameter d .

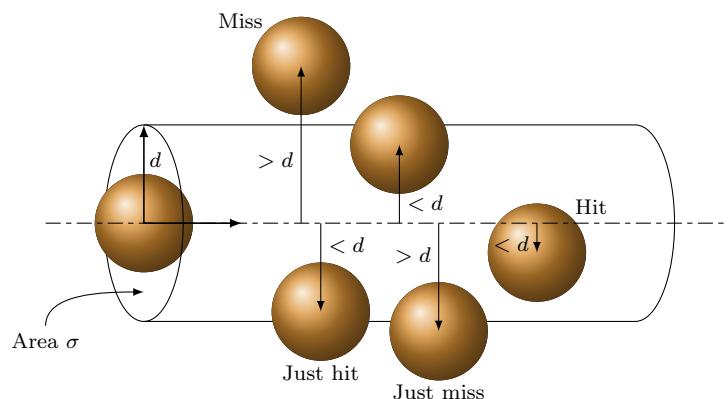


Figure 2.1: Collision cylinder.

- Particles whose center of mass lies within the collision cylinder collide with the original particle, and vice versa for particles whose center of mass lies outside the collision cylinder.
- Hard-sphere collision cross section πd^2 denoted by σ .
- Collision frequency in terms of cylinder parameters.
 - The number of collision in the time interval dt is

$$dN_{\text{coll}} = \rho \sigma \langle u \rangle dt$$
 where $\rho = N/V$.
 - The collision frequency z_A is

$$z_A = \frac{dN_{\text{coll}}}{dt} = \rho \sigma \langle u \rangle = \rho \sigma \sqrt{\frac{8k_B T}{\pi m}}$$
 - Treat the motion of two bodies of masses m_1, m_2 moving with respect to each other by the motion of one body with a reduced mass $\mu = m_1 m_2 / (m_1 + m_2)$ moving with respect to the other one being fixed.
 - If the masses of the two colliding molecules are the same, then $\mu = m/2$.
 - Remember that $\langle u_r \rangle = \sqrt{2} \langle u \rangle$.
 - Thus, the correct expression for z_A is

$$z_A = \rho \sigma \langle u_r \rangle = \sqrt{2} \rho \sigma \langle u \rangle$$
- The mean free path is temperature- and pressure-dependent.
 - The average distance traveled between collisions is given by

$$l = \frac{\langle u \rangle}{z_A} = \frac{\langle u \rangle}{\sqrt{2} \rho \sigma \langle u \rangle} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} \rho \sigma}$$
 - If we replace $\rho = P N_A / RT$ by its ideal gas value, then we have

$$l = \frac{RT}{\sqrt{2} N_A \sigma P} = \frac{k_B T}{\sqrt{2} \sigma \rho}$$
 - Now $k_B T$ has units of thermal energy, and we know from physics that $E = F \cdot l$ (energy is force times distance). Thus, $F \propto \sigma \rho$ by the above since $E = k_B T$ and $l = l$.
- The probability of a molecular collision.
 - The probability that one molecule will suffer a collision is $\sigma \rho dx$.
 - This should make intuitive sense as σ is the area inside which a molecule must be to collide with some particle, ρ is the density (related to the number of particles likely to be within that area), and dx tells us over how much space we're moving.
 - σdx is a volume.
 - Let $n(x)$ be the number of molecules that travel a distance x without a collision.
 - Then the number of molecules that undergo a collision between $x, x + dx$ is

$$\begin{aligned} n(x) - n(x + dx) &= \sigma \rho n(x) dx \\ \frac{n(x + dx) - n(x)}{dx} &= -\sigma \rho n(x) \\ \frac{dn}{dx} &= -\sigma \rho n \end{aligned}$$

2.2 Collision Frequency and Gas-Phase Reaction Rate

4/6: • Submit homework in paper next Monday.

- Picking up with the probability of a molecular collision from last time.
 - Solving the differential equation gives

$$n(x) = n_0 e^{-\sigma \rho x} = n_0 e^{-x/l}$$

where l is the mean free path.

- Note that the $\sqrt{2}$ arises from treating every other molecule as static, so we don't need it in this case?
- The number of molecules that collide in the interval $x, x + dx$ is $n(x) - n(x + dx)$.
- The probability that one of the initial n_0 molecules will collide in this interval is

$$p(x) dx = \frac{n(x) - n(x + dx)}{n_0} = -\frac{1}{n_0} \frac{dn}{dx} dx = \frac{1}{l} e^{-x/l} dx$$

- Discussion of Figure 27.12.
- Figure 27.12 does not graph the above equation.
- Rather, it graphs the accumulated (integrated) probability from 0 to x . We call this function $P(x)$.

$$P(x) = \int_0^x p(x') dx'$$

- Collision frequency of one particular molecule per unit volume.

- z_A is the collision frequency of one particular molecule.
- Z_{AA} is the total collision frequency per unit volume.
- We have

$$Z_{AA} = \frac{1}{2} \rho z_A$$

- Multiplying by the number density should make intuitive sense.
- We divide by two to avoid counting a collision between a pair of similar molecules as two distinct collisions.
- It follows that

$$Z_{AA} = \frac{1}{2} \sigma \langle u_r \rangle \rho^2 = \frac{\sigma \langle u \rangle \rho^2}{\sqrt{2}}$$

- In a gas consisting of two types of molecules, say A and B, then the collision frequency per unit volume is

$$Z_{AB} = \sigma_{AB} \langle u_r \rangle \rho_A \rho_B$$

where

$$\sigma_{AB} = \pi \left(\frac{d_A + d_B}{2} \right)^2 \quad \langle u_r \rangle = \sqrt{\frac{8k_B T}{\pi \mu}} \quad \mu = \frac{m_A m_B}{m_A + m_B}$$

- There is no 1/2 coefficient here because there are also AA and BB collisions.
- Indeed, Z_{AB} is not the *total* collision frequency but just the collision frequency of AB collisions.
- The rate of a gas-phase chemical reaction depends on the rate of collisions.
 - The rate of collisions is not just the total frequency of collisions.

- The relative energy of the two colliding molecules exceeds a certain critical value. This does not show up directly in the equation for Z_{AB} .
- The number of collisions per unit time per unit area with the wall by molecules whose speeds are in the range $u, u + du$ and whose direction lies within the solid angle $\sin \theta d\theta d\phi$ is approximately $u^3 e^{-\mu u^2/2k_B T}$.
- We can account for the fact that the molecules collide with each other rather than with a stationary wall by replacing m with the reduced mass $\mu = m_A m_B / (m_A + m_B)$.
- The collision frequency per unit volume between molecules A and B in which they collide with a relative speed between $u, u + du$.

■ We have that $dZ_{AB} \propto u_r^3 e^{-\mu u_r^2/2k_B T} du_r$. Thus, if A is a proportionality constant, then

$$dZ_{AB} = A u_r^3 e^{-\mu u_r^2/2k_B T} du_r$$

■ It follows since $Z_{AB} = \sigma_{AB} \langle u_r \rangle \rho_A \rho_B$ and $\langle u_r \rangle = \sqrt{8k_B T / \pi \mu}$ that

$$\begin{aligned} \sigma_{AB} \rho_A \rho_B \sqrt{\frac{8k_B T}{\pi \mu}} &= A \int_0^\infty u_r^3 e^{-\mu u_r^2/2k_B T} du_r \\ &= 2A \left(\frac{k_B T}{\mu} \right)^2 \\ A &= \sigma_{AB} \rho_A \rho_B \sqrt{\left(\frac{\mu}{k_B T} \right)^3 \cdot \frac{2}{\pi}} \end{aligned}$$

■ Thus, we know that

$$dZ_{AB} = \sigma_{AB} \rho_A \rho_B \sqrt{\left(\frac{\mu}{k_B T} \right)^3 \cdot \frac{2}{\pi}} e^{-\mu u_r^2/2k_B T} u_r^3 du_r$$

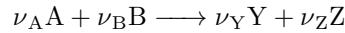
- Integrating the above from the certain critical value to infinity yields the desired rate.

- Key information from this chapter.
 - Pressure from a molecular approach.
 - The distribution for speed components and the speed are different.
 - The speeds u_{mp} , $\langle u \rangle$, and u_{rms} .
 - The frequency of collisions per molecule and the total frequency of collisions per volume.
 - Rate of gas phase reactions.

2.3 Rate Law Definitions and Methods of Determination

4/8:

- Consider a general chemical equation



- The extent of the reaction via the progress variable ξ is

$$n_A(t) = n_A(0) - \nu_A \xi(t) \quad n_Y(t) = n_Y(0) + \nu_Y \xi(t)$$

- The rate of change (moles/second) is

$$\frac{dn_A}{dt} = -\nu_A \frac{d\xi}{dt} \quad \frac{dn_Y}{dt} = \nu_Y \frac{d\xi}{dt}$$

- Deriving the rate of reaction for a gas-based chemical reaction.

- Time-dependent concentration changes

$$\frac{1}{V} \frac{dn_A}{dt} = \frac{d[A]}{dt} = -\frac{\nu_A}{V} \frac{d\xi}{dt} \quad \frac{1}{V} \frac{dn_Y}{dt} = \frac{d[Y]}{dt} = -\frac{\nu_Y}{V} \frac{d\xi}{dt}$$

- The rate (or speed) of reaction, also known as the differential rate law, is

$$v(t) = -\frac{1}{\nu_A} \frac{d[A]}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\nu_B} \frac{d[B]}{dt} = \frac{1}{\nu_Y} \frac{d[Y]}{dt} = \frac{1}{\nu_Z} \frac{d[Z]}{dt} = \frac{1}{V} \frac{d\xi}{dt}$$

- All terms are positive.
 - Rate laws with a constant k are of the form

$$v(t) = k[A]^{m_A} [B]^{m_B}$$

- The exponents are known as **orders**.
 - The overall order reaction is $\sum m_i$.
 - The orders and overall order of the reaction depends on the fundamental reaction steps and the reaction mechanism.

- For example, for the reaction $2 \text{NO}_{(g)} + \text{O}_{2(g)} \longrightarrow 2 \text{NO}_{2(g)}$, we have

$$v(t) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d[\text{NO}]}{dt} = -\frac{d[\text{O}_2]}{dt} = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d[\text{NO}_2]}{dt}$$

- It follows that $v(t) = k[\text{NO}]^2 [\text{O}_2]$.
 - This is a rare elementary reaction that proceeds with the kinetics illustrated by the equation.

- Rate laws must be determined by experiment.

- Multi-step reactions may have more complex rate law expressions.
 - Oftentimes, $1/2$ exponents indicate more complicated mechanisms.
 - For example, even an equation as simple looking as $\text{H}_2 + \text{Br}_2 \longrightarrow 2 \text{HBr}$ has rate law

$$v(t) = \frac{k'[\text{H}_2][\text{Br}_2]^{1/2}}{1 + k''[\text{HBr}][\text{Br}_2]^{-1}}$$

- Determining rate laws.

- Method of isolation.

- Put in a large initial excess of A so that its concentration doesn't change that much; essentially incorporates $[A]^{m_A}$ into k for determination of the order of B.

- We can then do the same thing the other way around.

- Method of initial rates.

- We approximate

$$v = -\frac{d[A]}{\nu_A dt} \approx -\frac{\Delta[A]}{\nu_A \Delta t} = k[A]^{m_A} [B]^{m_B}$$

- Consider two different initial values of [B], which we'll call $[B]_1, [B]_2$. Then

$$v_1 = -\frac{1}{\nu_A} \left(\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t} \right)_1 = k[A]_0^{m_A} [B]_1^{m_B} \quad v_2 = -\frac{1}{\nu_A} \left(\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t} \right)_2 = k[A]_0^{m_A} [B]_2^{m_B}$$

- Take the logarithm and solve for m_B .

$$m_B = \frac{\ln(v_1/v_2)}{\ln([B]_1/[B]_2)}$$

- Does an example problem.

2.4 Chapter 27: The Kinetic Theory of Gases

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

- 4/10: • **Mean free path:** The average distance that a molecule travels between collisions. *Denoted by l .*
Given by

$$l = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}\rho\sigma}$$

- Naturally, the average distance that a molecule travels between collisions is equal to how far it travels per unit time (the average speed) divided by the number of collisions per unit time (the collision frequency). Thus, $l = \langle u \rangle / z_A$, which is how the above is derived.
- Substituting $\rho = N/V = nN_A/V = PN_A/RT$ yields

$$l = \frac{RT}{\sqrt{2}N_A\sigma P}$$

- Example: At room temperature and one bar, the mean free path of nitrogen is about 200 times the effective diameter of a nitrogen molecule.
- An alternate physical interpretation of the probability of a collision.
 - Consider a “collision cylinder” with collision cross section of unit area. Let the thickness of this “cylinder” be dx . It follows that the volume of the “collision cylinder” is $1 \cdot dx = dx$.
 - Consequently, the number of molecules having center within the collision cylinder is equal to the number density times the volume, or ρdx .
 - Thus, if each molecule has target area σ , then the total target area presented by these molecules (neglecting overlap) is $\sigma\rho dx$.
 - Therefore, since the probability of a collision can be thought of as the ratio of the total target area to the total area (which we have defined to be unity), the probability of a collision is $\sigma\rho dx$.
 - Note that this squares with the definition of the probability of a collision as $\rho\sigma \langle u \rangle dt$ with $dx = \langle u \rangle dt$, as we'd expect.
- As we can see, the probability of a collision increases with increasing distance traveled dx .
- If n_0 molecules are emitted from the origin traveling in the x -direction with equal velocity in a volume of unmoving molecules, let $n(x)$ be the number of molecules that travel a distance x without collision.
 - It follows that the number of molecules that undergo a collision between $x, x + dx$ is $n(x)\sigma\rho dx$.
 - Furthermore, said number is naturally equal to $n(x) - n(x + dx)$.
 - Thus, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} n(x) - n(x + dx) &= \sigma\rho n(x) dx \\ \frac{n(x + dx) - n(x)}{dx} &= -\sigma\rho n(x) \\ \frac{dn}{dx} &= -\sigma\rho n \\ \int_{n_0}^n \frac{dn}{n} &= -\sigma\rho \int_0^x dx \\ \ln(n/n_0) &= -\sigma\rho x \\ n(x) &= n_0 e^{-\sigma\rho x} \end{aligned}$$

where no factor of $\sqrt{2}$ appears because of the assumption that the other molecules do not move.

- Therefore, the probability $p(x) dx$ that one of the initial n_0 molecules will collide in the interval $x, x+dx$ is

$$\begin{aligned} p(x) dx &= \frac{n(x) - n(x+dx)}{n_0} \\ &= -\frac{1}{n_0} \frac{dn}{dx} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{l} e^{-x/l} dx \end{aligned}$$

- The above equation is normalized and has $\langle x \rangle = l$, as expected.
- The distance after which half of the molecules will have been scattered from a beam of initially n_0 molecules is $l \cdot \ln 2$, i.e., about 70% of the mean free path.
- **Total collision frequency per unit volume** (for like molecules): The following quantity. *Denoted by Z_{AA} . Given by*

$$Z_{AA} = \frac{1}{2} \rho z_A = \frac{1}{2} \sigma \langle u_r \rangle \rho^2 = \frac{\sigma \langle u \rangle \rho^2}{\sqrt{2}}$$

- Derived by multiplying the collision frequency for *one* molecule z_A by the number of molecules per unit volume ρ , and dividing by 2 in order to avoid counting a collision between a pair of similar molecules as two distinct collisions.
- **Total collision frequency per unit volume** (for dislike molecules): The following quantity. *Denoted by Z_{AB} . Given by*

$$Z_{AB} = \sigma_{AB} \langle u_r \rangle \rho_A \rho_B$$

- The discussion of the rate of gas-phase chemical reactions is nearly identical to that given in class.

2.5 Chapter 28: Chemical Kinetics I — Rate Laws

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

4/15:

- Whereas McQuarrie and Simon (1997) developed Quantum Mechanics from a set of simple postulates and Thermodynamics from the three laws, “the field of chemical kinetics has not yet matured to a point where a set of unifying principles has been identified” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1047).
 - There are many current theoretical models of kinetics, each of which has its merits and drawbacks.
 - Thus, right now, it is necessary to familiarize ourselves with numerous disparate ideas, as is common in developing fields of inquiry.
- **Rate law:** A differential equation describing the time-dependence of the reactant and product concentrations during a chemical reaction.
- Consider the general chemical reaction described by



- Since

$$n_A(t) = n_A(0) - \nu_A \xi(t) \quad n_B(t) = n_B(0) - \nu_B \xi(t) \quad n_Y(t) = n_Y(0) + \nu_Y \xi(t) \quad n_Z(t) = n_Z(0) + \nu_Z \xi(t)$$

we can describe the time-dependent change in the number of moles of each substance by taking a derivative with respect to t , as follows.

$$\frac{dn_A}{dt} = -\nu_A \frac{d\xi}{dt} \qquad \frac{dn_B}{dt} = -\nu_B \frac{d\xi}{dt} \qquad \frac{dn_Y}{dt} = \nu_Y \frac{d\xi}{dt} \qquad \frac{dn_Z}{dt} = \nu_Z \frac{d\xi}{dt}$$

- Since most experimental techniques measure concentration, it is convenient to divide the above equations by the total volume V on both sides to yield the following.

$$\frac{d[A]}{dt} = -\frac{\nu_A}{V} \frac{d\xi}{dt} \quad \frac{d[B]}{dt} = -\frac{\nu_B}{V} \frac{d\xi}{dt} \quad \frac{d[Y]}{dt} = \frac{\nu_Y}{V} \frac{d\xi}{dt} \quad \frac{d[Z]}{dt} = \frac{\nu_Z}{V} \frac{d\xi}{dt}$$

- While each individual quantity above has its purpose, it is useful to define an overall **rate of reaction**.
- Rate of reaction:** The following quantity. *Denoted by $v(t)$. Given by*

$$\begin{aligned} v(t) &= \frac{1}{V} \frac{d\xi}{dt} \\ &= -\frac{1}{\nu_A} \frac{d[A]}{dt} = -\frac{1}{\nu_B} \frac{d[B]}{dt} = \frac{1}{\nu_Y} \frac{d[Y]}{dt} = \frac{1}{\nu_Z} \frac{d[Z]}{dt} \end{aligned}$$

- Note that the rate of reaction is always positive (as long as the reaction proceeds only in the forward direction).
- Rate law:** The relationship between $v(t)$ and the concentrations of the various reactants. *General form*

$$v(t) = k[A]^{m_A} [B]^{m_B} \dots$$

- Some reactions (such as the $\text{H}_2 + \text{Br}_2 \longrightarrow 2 \text{HBr}$ example from class) do not have conventional rate laws.
- Rate constant:** The proportionality constant between the rate of reaction and the function of the concentrations of the chemical species involved in a rate law. *Denoted by k .*
 - The units of the rate constant depend on the form of the rate law.
- Order** (of a reactant A): The power to which the concentration of a reactant is raised in a rate law. *Denoted by m_A .*
- Overall order** (of a chemical reaction that obeys a general-form rate law): The sum of the orders of the reactants.
- We now discuss common methods for the experimental determination of a rate law.
- Method of isolation:** The following procedure, which as described will determine m_B for a chemical reaction of the form introduced at the beginning of this section but can easily be adapted to determine m_A or be generalized to higher-order situations.
 - Introduce a large excess concentration of A into the initial reaction mixture. This excess will guarantee that [A] remains essentially constant over the course of the reaction.
 - Combine $[A]^{m_A}$ and k into a new “rate constant” k' , reducing the rate law to the form

$$v = k' [B]^{m_B}$$

- Determine m_B by measuring v as a function of [B].
- Sometimes it is not possible to have one reactant or the other in excess.
 - As such, we need an alternate way to measure the rate.
 - We cannot directly measure $d[A]/dt$, but we can measure $\Delta[A]/\Delta t$ for small Δt and approximate these measurements as $d[A]/dt$.
 - This forms the basis for the **method of initial rates**.
 - Method of initial rates:** The following procedure, which as described will determine m_B for a chemical reaction of the form introduced at the beginning of this section but can easily be adapted to determine m_A or be generalized to higher-order situations.

1. Take two different measurements of the initial rate (from $t = 0$ to $t = t$). Let the initial concentration of A, $[A]_0$, be the same for each. However, for one, use $[B]_1$ for initial concentration of B, and for the other, use $[B]_2$.
2. Arranging everything into equations, we thus have

$$v_1 = -\frac{1}{\nu_A} \left(\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t} \right)_1 = k[A]_0^{m_A} [B]_1^{m_B} \quad v_2 = -\frac{1}{\nu_A} \left(\frac{\Delta[A]}{\Delta t} \right)_2 = k[A]_0^{m_A} [B]_2^{m_B}$$

where we have used the subscripts 1 and 2 to denote the results of the different experiments and their corresponding initial concentrations of B.

3. We may now solve for m_B by dividing the two equations, taking logarithms, and rearranging to the following.

$$m_B = \frac{\ln(v_1/v_2)}{\ln([B]_1/[B]_2)}$$

- Both the method of isolation and the method of initial rates rely on the assumption that the reactants can be mixed, and then we can measure the rates.
 - However, for some very quick reactions, the time required to mix the reactants is long compared with the reaction itself.
 - For these cases, we need **relaxation methods**.

Week 3

Rate Laws

3.1 Integrated Rate Laws

4/11: • First order reactions have exponential integrated rate laws.

- Suppose A + B → products.
- Suppose the reaction is first order in A.
- If the concentration of A is [A]₀ at t = 0 and [A] at time t, then

$$\begin{aligned} v(t) &= -\frac{d[A]}{dt} = k[A] \\ \int_{[A]_0}^{[A]} \frac{d[A]}{[A]} &= - \int_0^t k dt \\ \ln \frac{[A]}{[A]_0} &= -kt \\ [A] &= [A]_0 e^{-kt} \end{aligned}$$

is the integrated rate law.

- Goes over both the concentration plot and the linear logarithmic plot.
- The half-life of a first-order reaction is independent of the initial amount of reactant.
- The half-life is found from the point

$$[A(t_{1/2})] = \frac{[A(0)]}{2} = \frac{[A]_0}{2}$$

- We have

$$\begin{aligned} \ln \frac{1}{2} &= -kt_{1/2} \\ t_{1/2} &= \frac{\ln 2}{k} \approx \frac{0.693}{k} \end{aligned}$$

- Notice that the above equation does not depend on [A] or [B]!
- Second order reactions have inverse concentration integrated rate laws.
- Suppose A + B → products, as before, and that the reaction is second order in A.

- Then

$$\begin{aligned}-\frac{d[A]}{dt} &= k[A]^2 \\ \int_{[A]_0}^{[A]} -\frac{d[A]}{[A]^2} &= \int_0^t k dt \\ \frac{1}{[A]} &= \frac{1}{[A]_0} + kt\end{aligned}$$

is the integrated rate law.

- The half-life of a second-order reaction is dependent on the initial amount of reaction.

- We have that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{[A]_0/2} &= \frac{1}{[A]_0} + kt_{1/2} \\ \frac{1}{[A]_0} &= kt_{1/2} \\ t_{1/2} &= \frac{1}{k[A]_0}\end{aligned}$$

- If a reaction is n^{th} -order in a reactant for $n \geq 2$, then the integrated rate law is given by

$$\begin{aligned}-\frac{d[A]}{dt} &= k[A]^n \\ \int_{[A]_0}^{[A]} -\frac{d[A]}{[A]^n} &= \int_0^t k dt \\ \frac{1}{n-1} \left(\frac{1}{[A]^{n-1}} - \frac{1}{[A]_0^{n-1}} \right) &= kt\end{aligned}$$

- The associated half life is

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{n-1} \left(\frac{1}{([A]_0/2)^{n-1}} - \frac{1}{[A]_0^{n-1}} \right) &= kt_{1/2} \\ \frac{1}{n-1} \cdot \frac{2^{n-1} - 1}{[A]_0^{n-1}} &= kt_{1/2} \\ t_{1/2} &= \frac{2^{n-1} - 1}{k(n-1)[A]_0^{n-1}}\end{aligned}$$

- Second order reactions that are first order in each reactant.

- We have that

$$\begin{aligned}-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = -\frac{d[B]}{dt} &= k[A][B] \\ kt &= \frac{1}{[A]_0 - [B]_0} \ln \frac{[A][B]_0}{[B][A]_0}\end{aligned}$$

- The actual determination is more complicated (there is a textbook problem that walks us through the derivation, though).
- When $[A]_0 = [B]_0$, the integrated rate law simplifies to the second-order integrated rate laws in $[A]$ and $[B]$.
 - In this limited case, the half-life is that of the second-order integrated rate law, too, i.e., $t_{1/2} = 1/k[A]_0$.

- The reaction paths and mechanism for parallel reactions.
 - Suppose A can become both B and C with respective rate constants k_B and k_C .
 - Then

$$\frac{d[A]}{dt} = -k_B[A] - k_C[A] = -(k_B + k_C)[A] \quad \frac{d[B]}{dt} = k_B[A] \quad \frac{d[C]}{dt} = k_C[A]$$

- The integrated rate laws here are

$$[A] = [A]_0 e^{-(k_B + k_C)t} \quad [B] = \frac{k_B}{k_B + k_C} [A]_0 \left(1 - e^{-(k_B + k_C)t}\right) \quad [C] = \frac{k_C}{k_B + k_C} [A]_0 \left(1 - e^{-(k_B + k_C)t}\right)$$

- The ratio of product concentrations is

$$\frac{[B]}{[C]} = \frac{k_B}{k_C}$$

- The yield Φ_i is the probability that a given product i will be formed from the decay of the reactant

$$\Phi_i = \frac{k_i}{\sum_n k_n} \quad \sum_i \Phi_i = 1$$

- Example: If we have parallel reactions satisfying $k_B = 2k_C$, then

$$\Phi_C = \frac{k_C}{k_B + k_C} = \frac{k_C}{2k_C + k_C} = \frac{1}{3}$$

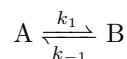
3.2 Office Hours (Tian)

- Why does the reduced mass work in the collision frequency derivation?
 - We need to start with a simpler case, or the problem will be really hard; thus, we begin by assuming that the particles all are static.
 - We use the reduced mass to consider the relative speed u_r of the particles with respect to the moving particle as our reference frame. So all the others are the relative speeds to our particle. But this necessitates using the relative mass of the particles to our particle (which is the reduced mass).

3.3 Reversible Reactions

4/13:

- Let



be a reversible reaction, where k_1 is the rate constant for the forward reaction and k_{-1} is the rate constant for the reverse reaction.

- In this case, we have an equilibrium constant expression

$$K_c = \frac{[B]_{eq}}{[A]_{eq}}$$

- Additionally, the kinetic conditions for equilibrium are

$$-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = \frac{d[B]}{dt} = 0$$

- If the reaction is first order in both [A] and [B], then

$$-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = k_1[A] - k_{-1}[B]$$

- If $[A] = [A]_0$ at $t = 0$, then $[B] = [A]_0 - [A]$ and

$$-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = (k_1 + k_{-1})[A] - k_{-1}[A]_0$$

- Note that $[B] = [A]_0 - [A]$ iff there is no initial concentration of B, the initial equation was balanced (i.e., each unit of A forms one unit of B), and there is not another component C into which A decomposes.

- Integrating yields

$$[A] = ([A]_0 - [A]_{\text{eq}})e^{-(k_1 + k_{-1})t} + [A]_{\text{eq}}$$

- Note that this equation reduces to the irreversible first order equation as $k_{-1} \rightarrow 0$ and hence $[A]_{\text{eq}} \rightarrow 0$ as well.
- Similarly, if only the reverse reaction takes place (and we have no initial concentration of B), then $[A] = [A]_{\text{eq}}$ and the above equation reduces to exactly that statement, as desired.

- Since

$$\ln([A] - [A]_{\text{eq}}) = \ln([A]_0 - [A]_{\text{eq}}) - (k_1 + k_{-1})t$$

we have a straight line that allows us to determine the sum $k_1 + k_{-1}$. However, we cannot determine each term individually from the above.

- One way that we can is by noting that at equilibrium, $d[A]/dt = 0$, so the differential rate law reduces to

$$k_1[A]_{\text{eq}} = k_{-1}[B]_{\text{eq}}$$

- Another way we can resolve each term individually is by noting that

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{[B]_{\text{eq}}}{[A]_{\text{eq}}} = K_c$$

- **Stopped flow method:** Fast mixing of reactants.

- The limit is about 1 microsecond time resolution (mixing rate).
- Lots of issues?

- **Pump-probe method:** An optical/IR method that ranges from femtoseconds to nanoseconds.

- Nobel Prize (1999) to Zewail “for his studies of the transition states of chemical reactions using femtosecond spectroscopy.”

- **Perturbation-Relaxation method:** You perturb a thermodynamic variable (e.g., T , P , pH, etc.) and then follow the kinetics of relaxation of the system to equilibrium.

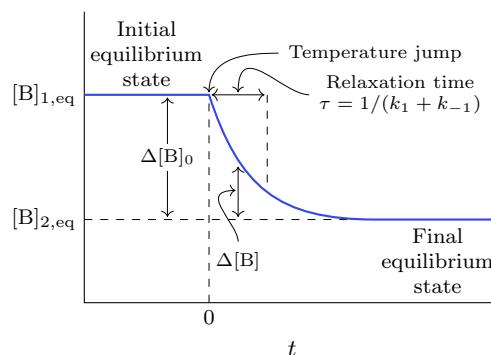


Figure 3.1: Relaxation methods to determine rate constants.

- Nobel Prize (1967) to Porter, Norrish, and Eigen “for their studies of extremely fast chemical reactions, effected by disturbing the equilibrium by means of very short pulses of energy.”
- Example: Consider water autoionization. Here, we’d perturb pH and T .
- Our initial point is the first equilibrium condition; our final point is the second equilibrium condition (i.e., that with the perturbed variables).
- We should have

$$[A] = [A]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[A] \quad [B] = [B]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[B]$$

so that

$$\frac{d\Delta[B]}{dt} = k_1[A]_{2,\text{eq}} + k_1\Delta[A] - k_{-1}[B]_{2,\text{eq}} - k_{-1}\Delta[B]$$

- The sum of the concentrations is constant, so $\Delta([A] + [B]) = \Delta[A] + \Delta[B] = 0$.
- Additionally, detailed balance is satisfied.

$$k_1[A]_{2,\text{eq}} = k_{-1}[B]_{2,\text{eq}}$$

- As a result,

$$\frac{d\Delta[B]}{dt} = -(k_1 + k_{-1})\Delta[B]$$

- Integrating yields

$$\Delta[B] = [B]_{1,\text{eq}} - [B]_{2,\text{eq}} = \Delta[B]_0 e^{-t/\tau}$$

where τ is the **relaxation time**.

- It follows that

$$\Delta[B] = \Delta[B]_0 e^{-(k_1 + k_{-1})t}$$

- Some textbooks use different notation; we should know this, too.

- They denote by ξ or ξ_0 the difference between $[A]$ (the initial equilibrium’s concentration) and $[A]_{\text{eq}}$ (the final equilibrium’s concentration).
- They also use k_A, k_B for the initial equilibrium $A \xrightleftharpoons[k_B]{k_A} B$ and k_A^+, k_B^+ for the final equilibrium $A \xrightleftharpoons[k_B^+]{k_A^+} B$.

- **Relaxation time:** The following quantity. *Denoted by τ . Given by*

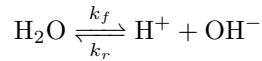
$$\tau = \frac{1}{k_1 + k_{-1}}$$

- We’ll start with water dissociation next lecture.

3.4 Water Dissociation, Temperature Dependence, and TST

4/15:

- **T-jump:** A temperature perturbation.
- Relaxation methods and water dissociation.
 - Consider the equilibrium



- The differential rate laws are

$$\frac{d[\text{H}_2\text{O}]}{dt} = -k_f[\text{H}_2\text{O}] + k_r[\text{H}^+][\text{OH}^-] \quad \frac{d[\text{H}^+]}{dt} = k_f[\text{H}_2\text{O}] - k_r[\text{H}^+][\text{OH}^-]$$

- After the T-jump, the system relaxes to a new equilibrium

$$K_c = \frac{k_f^+}{k_r^+} = \frac{[\text{H}^+]_{\text{eq}}[\text{OH}^-]_{\text{eq}}}{[\text{H}_2\text{O}]_{\text{eq}}}$$

- It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d\xi}{dt} &= -k_f^+[\text{H}_2\text{O}] + k_r^+[\text{H}^+][\text{OH}^-] \\ &= -k_f^+\xi - k_r^+\xi([\text{H}^+]_{\text{eq}} + [\text{OH}^-]_{\text{eq}}) + \mathcal{O}(\xi^2)\end{aligned}$$

- Note that we get from the first line to the second by substituting $[\text{H}^+] = [\text{H}^+]_{\text{eq}} - \xi$ and $[\text{OH}^-] = [\text{OH}^-]_{\text{eq}} - \xi$ and expanding.

- The associated relaxation time is

$$\frac{1}{\tau} = k_f^+ + k_r^+([\text{H}^+]_{\text{eq}} + [\text{OH}^-]_{\text{eq}})$$

- Note that this implies that this relaxation time can be measured experimentally.

- Rates of reaction depend on temperature.
- The empirical temperature dependence of the rate constant k is given by

$$\frac{d \ln k}{dT} = \frac{E_a}{RT^2}$$

- If the activation energy is independent of temperature, then

$$\begin{aligned}\ln k &= \ln A - \frac{E_a}{RT} \\ k &= Ae^{-E_a/RT}\end{aligned}$$

i.e., we get the Arrhenius equation.

- If we obtain two rate constants at two temperatures, we can get

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

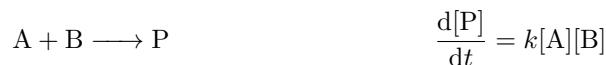
- Note that plots of k vs. $1/T$ can be nonlinear if the prefactor or “encounter frequency” is temperature-dependent, i.e., if we have

$$k = aT^m e^{-E'/RT}$$

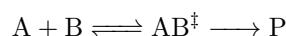
where a , E' , and m are temperature-independent constants.

- Using Transition State Theory (TST) to estimate rate constants.

- Let the following be a chemical reaction and its rate law.



- Suppose that the reaction proceeds by way of a special intermediate species, the activated complex.



- We know that

$$K_c^\ddagger = \frac{[\text{AB}^\ddagger]/c^\circ}{[\text{A}]/c^\circ[\text{B}]/c^\circ} = \frac{[\text{AB}^\ddagger]c^\circ}{[\text{A}][\text{B}]}$$

where c° is the standard-state concentration.

- Write the equilibrium constant expression in terms of the partition functions q_A , q_B , and q^\ddagger for A, B, and AB^\ddagger .

$$K_c^\ddagger = \frac{(q^\ddagger/V)c^\circ}{(q_A/V)(q_B/V)}$$

- If ν_c is the frequency of crossing the barrier top, then

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = k[A][B] = \nu_c[AB^\ddagger] = \nu_c \frac{[A][B]K_c^\ddagger}{c^\circ}$$

- Thus, we can relate

$$k = \frac{\nu_c K_c^\ddagger}{c^\circ}$$

- 2 hour midterm at the end of this month (April) taken at home.

3.5 Office Hours (Tian)

- Stopped flow method?
 - Two syringes have substances that get mixed and then become a homogeneous mixture where they start to do all of the interesting chemistry. Before the substances enter the chamber, though, they pass by a detector that monitors the concentration of the initial species. Concentration is measured after good mixing.
 - It is called *stopped* flow because we want to fix the initial concentration of A and B. Inject them, let them mix, stop the flow, measure the concentration, and then let the chemistry proceed.
 - Only used if mixing is much faster than reaction.
 - This is the experimental set-up for the method of initial rates or the method of exhaustion.
 - Caveats/issues: Approximating Δt as dt .
- TST diagram lines?
 - The quantized states lines refer to the energy levels of the reactants and products summarized by the partition function.
 - The reactants reach the activated complex just at some higher quantized energy state!
- Physical interpretation of τ beyond the time it takes the initial reactants to reach $1/e$ of their initial concentration.
 - You wanna see how fast the transition/relaxation would be, and τ is just a measure of how fast the transition goes.
 - Also relates to k_1 and k_{-1} .
 - Think in terms of adaptability (biological systems). Relation to how fast you can adapt to things like new temperature changes. We want to adapt to environmental changes as fast as possible.
 - A measure of adaptability, response time, and smart materials that labs are developing to respond to changes very quickly. Also instrumentation response time (which you want to be very fast).
 - Sometimes, you don't want to adapt to changes too quickly (such as cold-blooded animals).
- Importance of Chapter 24 (or 26, depending on edition)?
 - Good to know general stuff/big picture ideas as a prerequisite.
 - Don't worry about specific things tho.
- Pump-probe method?

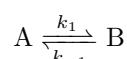
- No further discussion of it in this chapter; Tian might talk about it more in later chapters, tho.
- Mostly for intra-molecular reactions, like accessing excited states and seeing how they decay.
- Optical pumping (form IChem I, PSet 8) is one way to do a pump-probe experiment.
- Parallel reactions?
 - Behave much the same kinetically as others; only difference is there is a yield.

3.6 Chapter 28: Chemical Kinetics I — Rate Laws

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

4/17:

- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) derives the first-order integrated rate law.
- To determine the rate constant of a first-order reaction from concentration vs. time data, plot the log of the concentration vs. time and perform a linear regression.
- **Half-life:** The length of time required for half of the reactant to disappear. *Denoted by $t_{1/2}$.*
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) derives the half-life of a first-order reaction.
- “A particular rate law does not provide any information on the magnitude of the rate constant” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1057).
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) derives the second-order integrated rate law.
- Similarly to first-order reactions, a plot of $1/[A]$ vs. time will yield a straight line with slope k and intercept $1/[A]_0$.
- To determine if a reaction is first- or second-order, we can make plots of $\ln[A]$ and $1/[A]$ vs. t and see which one is a straight line.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) derives the half-life of a second-order reaction.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) gives the integrated rate law for a reaction that is first-order in each reactant, and second-order overall.
- **Reversible** (reaction): A reaction that occurs in both directions.
- Consider the reversible reaction



- The kinetic condition for the above reversible reaction to be at equilibrium is

$$-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = \frac{d[B]}{dt} = 0$$

- **Dynamic equilibrium:** An equilibrium in which individual molecules of reactants and products continue interconverting but in such a way that there is no *net* change in either concentration.
- The rate law for the above reversible reaction is

$$-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = k_1[A] - k_{-1}[B]$$

- The first term accounts for the rate at which A reacts to form B.
- The second term accounts for the rate at which B reacts to form A.

- “The difference in sign of these two terms reflects that the forward reaction depletes the concentration of A and the back reaction increases the concentration of A with time” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1063).
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) derives the integrated rate law corresponding to the above differential rate law and the case that $[B] = 0$.
- **Relaxation method:** A method of determining the rate law for a chemical reaction with half-life shorter than the mixing time, involving perturbing a chemical system at one equilibrium to a state that will require a new equilibrium by suddenly changing a condition.
 - Examples of conditions that can be changed are temperature, pressure, pH, and pOH.
- **Temperature-jump relaxation technique:** A relaxation method in which the temperature of the equilibrium reaction mixture is suddenly changed at constant pressure.
 - The change in temperature causes the chemical system to relax to a new equilibrium state that corresponds to the new temperature.
 - The rate constants for the forward and reverse reactions are related to the time required for the system to relax to its new equilibrium state.
- “Experimentally, the temperature of a solution can be increased by about 5 K in one microsecond by discharging a high-voltage capacitor through the reaction solution” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1067).
 - Since equilibrium constants depend exponentially on the inverse of the temperature ($\ln K_P = -\Delta_r G^\circ / RT$), such a perturbation can cause a large change in equilibrium conditions.
- As per the Van't Hoff equation, the equilibrium concentration of B increases following the temperature jump if $\Delta_r H^\circ$ is positive and decreases if $\Delta_r H^\circ$ is negative.
 - If $\Delta_r H^\circ = 0$, then a temperature-jump relaxation experiment will not yield any useful data.
- Temperature-jump relaxation technique rate law derivation.
 - Suppose the initial temperature is T_1 and we increase the temperature to T_2 . Suppose furthermore that $\Delta_r H^\circ < 0$ so that the concentration of B decreases following the perturbation.
 - Let $[A]_{1,\text{eq}}$, $[B]_{1,\text{eq}}$ be the equilibrium concentrations of A and B, respectively, at T_1 . Let $[A]_{2,\text{eq}}$, $[B]_{2,\text{eq}}$ be the equilibrium concentrations of A and B, respectively, at T_2 . Let k_1 , k_{-1} be the rate constants of the forward and reverse reactions, respectively, at T_2 . Let $[A]$, $[B]$ be the concentrations of A and B, respectively, at some time T after the temperature jump. Let $\Delta[A]$, $\Delta[B]$ be the differences in the concentrations of A and B, respectively, from equilibrium at time t .
 - As before, we begin from the fact that

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} = k_1[A] - k_{-1}[B]$$

- Notice how the sign convention follows from our hypothesis that $\Delta_r H^\circ < 0$.
- It follows by substituting

$$\Delta[A] = [A] - [A]_{2,\text{eq}}$$

$$\Delta[B] = [B] - [B]_{2,\text{eq}}$$

into the above that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt}([B]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[B]) &= k_1([A]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[A]) - k_{-1}([B]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[B]) \\ \frac{d\Delta[B]}{dt} &= k_1[A]_{2,\text{eq}} + k_1\Delta[A] - k_{-1}[B]_{2,\text{eq}} - k_{-1}\Delta[B] \end{aligned}$$

- The fact that $k_1[A]_{2,\text{eq}} = k_{-1}[B]_{2,\text{eq}}$ gives us

$$\frac{d\Delta[B]}{dt} = k_1\Delta[A] - k_{-1}\Delta[B]$$

- The fact that $\Delta[A] + \Delta[B] = 0$ gives us

$$\frac{d\Delta[B]}{dt} = -(k_1 + k_{-1})\Delta[B]$$

- If $\Delta[B]_0 = [B]_{1,\text{eq}} - [B]_{2,\text{eq}}$, then it follows by integration that

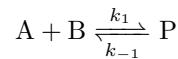
$$\int_{\Delta[B]_0}^{\Delta[B]} \frac{d\Delta[B]}{\Delta[B]} = \int_0^t -(k_1 + k_{-1}) dt$$

$$\Delta[B] = \Delta[B]_0 e^{-(k_1 + k_{-1})t}$$

- **Relaxation time:** The reciprocal of the sum of the forward and reverse rate constants. *Denoted by τ . Units s. Given by*

$$\tau = \frac{1}{k_1 + k_{-1}}$$

- A measure of how long it takes for $\Delta[B]$ to decay to $1/e$ of its initial value.
- Temperature-jump relaxation technique rate law derivation for



- We have that

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = k_1[A][B] - k_{-1}[P]$$

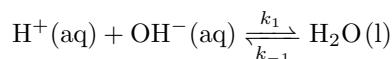
- If we define $\Delta[P]$ and the related relevant terms as in the above derivation, then we get

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{dt}([P]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[P]) &= k_1([A]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[A])([B]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[B]) - k_{-1}([P]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[P]) \\ \frac{d\Delta[P]}{dt} &= k_1([A]_{2,\text{eq}}[B]_{2,\text{eq}} + [A]_{2,\text{eq}}\Delta[B] + \Delta[A][B]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[A]\Delta[B]) - k_{-1}([P]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[P]) \\ &= k_1([A]_{2,\text{eq}}\Delta[B] + \Delta[A][B]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[A]\Delta[B]) - k_{-1}\Delta[P] \\ &= k_1(-[A]_{2,\text{eq}}\Delta[P] - \Delta[P][B]_{2,\text{eq}} + \Delta[P]^2) - k_{-1}\Delta[P] \\ &= -[k_1([A]_{2,\text{eq}} + [B]_{2,\text{eq}}) + k_{-1}]\Delta[P] + O(\Delta[P]^2) \\ \Delta[P] &\approx \Delta[P]_0 e^{-t/\tau} \end{aligned}$$

where

$$\tau = \frac{1}{k_1([A]_{2,\text{eq}} + [B]_{2,\text{eq}}) + k_{-1}}$$

- Water dissociation, as per



- Time-dependent conductivity measurements following a temperature jump in water paired with the known equilibrium constant and the above derivation revealed a relaxation time that corresponds to one of the fastest second-order rate constants ever measured.
- Common temperature dependencies of chemical reactions.
 - As the temperature increases, the rate of reaction increases exponentially.

- The temperature dependence is exponential until a threshold temperature, and then increases extremely rapidly (i.e., the substance becomes explosive).
- The temperature dependence increases up until a threshold temperature, and then falls off rapidly (i.e., an enzyme-controlled reaction where the enzyme denatures at a certain temperature).
- In the first case (the most common), the temperature dependence of the rate constant is described approximately by the empirical equation

$$\frac{d \ln k}{dT} = \frac{E_a}{RT^2}$$

- Integrating yields the **Arrhenius equation**.
- **Arrhenius equation:** The following equation. *Given by*

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

- **Pre-exponential factor:** The constant A in the Arrhenius equation. *Denoted by A .*
- **Activation energy:** The constant E_a in the Arrhenius equation. *Denoted by E_a .*
- The magnitude of the temperature effect on reaction rates is much too large to be explained in terms of only a change in the translational energy of the reactions. Thus, a chemical reaction require more than just a collision between reactants.
- **Reaction coordinate:** The unit along which a chemical reaction proceeds from reactant to product.
 - “Generally multidimensional, representing the bond lengths and bond angles associated with the chemical process” in question (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1073).
 - A simple example, though, is that the I–I bond length serves as the reaction coordinate for the thermal dissociation of I_2 .
- The Arrhenius equation is imperfect, and many reactions obey equations of the form

$$k = aT^m e^{-E'/RT}$$

where a , E' , and m are temperature-independent constants.

- Note that

$$E_a = E' + mRT \quad A = aT^m e^m$$

Week 4

Reaction Mechanisms

4.1 TST and Overview of Mechanisms

4/18: • More TST theory.

- We can intuitively rationalize concentration as q/V by thinking of the partition function in some way giving some information about the number of particles. When we divide this by V , we thus get *some* information about concentration.
- δ is the finite window in which the activated complex is loosely defined to exist.
- ν_c is the frequency of crossing the δ region in the energy diagram.
- We substitute $[AB^\ddagger] = [A][B]K_c^\ddagger/c^\circ$ from the equilibrium constant expression.
- The translational partition function plays a role. Note that m^\ddagger is the mass of the activated complex.

$$q_{\text{trans}} = \frac{\sqrt{2\pi m^\ddagger k_B T}}{h} \delta$$

- Dimensional analysis (as an analysis of units to help appreciate the term): $k_B T$ is energy ($E \propto mv^2/2$) and m^\ddagger is mass, so their product is momentum squared ($p^2 \propto mv^2$).
- Thus, the top of the expression gives momentum, and h/δ also gives momentum.
- Remember that the momentum is rather like that of the particle in a box.

- We have that

$$q^\ddagger = q_{\text{trans}}^\ddagger \cdot q_{\text{int}}^\ddagger$$

- where q^\ddagger is the partition function for the whole species, which we can split.

- This permits

$$\begin{aligned} K_c^\ddagger &= \frac{(q^\ddagger/V)c^\circ}{(q_A/V)(q_B/V)} \\ &= \frac{\sqrt{2\pi m^\ddagger k_B T}}{h} \delta \frac{(q_{\text{int}}^\ddagger/V)c^\circ}{(q_A/V)(q_B/V)} \end{aligned}$$

and the following

$$k = \nu_c \frac{\sqrt{2\pi m^\ddagger k_B T}}{h c^\circ} \delta \frac{(q_{\text{int}}^\ddagger/V)c^\circ}{(q_A/V)(q_B/V)}$$

- We now define the speed of the activated complex crossing the barrier top (gas collision). This is $\langle u_{\text{ac}} \rangle$, where $\langle u_{\text{ac}} \rangle = \nu_c \delta$ (the frequency \times distance).

- We have that

$$\langle u_{ac} \rangle = \int_0^\infty uf(u) du = \sqrt{\frac{m^\ddagger}{2\pi k_B T}} \int_0^\infty ue^{-m^\ddagger u^2/2k_B T} du = \sqrt{\frac{k_B T}{2\pi m^\ddagger}}$$

and the following

$$k = \frac{k_B T}{hc^\circ} \frac{(q_{int}^\ddagger/V)c^\circ}{(q_A/V)(q_B/V)} = \frac{k_B T}{hc^\circ} K^\ddagger$$

- We start at zero instead of $-\infty$ because we're only considering the forward direction of the reaction. If we did $-\infty$, we'd be accounting for the reverse reaction as well.
- Introducing $\Delta^\ddagger G^\circ = -RT \ln K^\ddagger = \Delta^\ddagger H^\circ - T\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ$ yields the **Eyring equation**

$$k(T) = \frac{k_B T}{hc^\circ} e^{-\Delta^\ddagger G^\circ / RT} = \frac{k_B T}{hc^\circ} e^{\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ / R} e^{-\Delta^\ddagger H^\circ / RT}$$

- We can relate the Eyring equation to the Arrhenius equation by differentiating the logarithm.

$$\frac{d \ln k}{dT} = \frac{1}{T} + \frac{d \ln K^\ddagger}{dT} \quad \frac{d \ln K_c}{dT} = \frac{\Delta U^\circ}{RT^2}$$

gives

$$\frac{d \ln k}{dT} = \frac{1}{T} + \frac{\Delta^\ddagger U^\circ}{RT^2}$$

- This all serves to relate thermodynamics and kinetics.
- Additionally, since $\Delta^\ddagger H^\circ = \Delta^\ddagger U^\circ + \Delta^\ddagger PV = \Delta^\ddagger U^\circ + \Delta^\ddagger nRT$, we have that

$$\frac{d \ln k}{dT} = \frac{\Delta^\ddagger H^\circ + 2RT}{RT^2}$$

- Note that $\Delta n = -1$ for bimolecular gas phase reactions.
- $\Delta(PV)^\ddagger$ is the difference in the number of moles of gaseous products and reactants.
- $\Delta n^\ddagger = 0$: Unimolecular.
- $\Delta n^\ddagger = -1$: Bimolecular.
- $\Delta n^\ddagger = -2$: Trimolecular.
- Comparing with the Arrhenius $d \ln k / dT = E_a / RT^2$ gives

$$E_a = \Delta^\ddagger H^\circ + 2RT$$

- Substituting into the Eyring equation yields

$$k(T) = \frac{e^2 k_B T}{hc^\circ} e^{\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ / R} e^{-E_a / RT}$$

- Gas, uni: $E_a = \Delta H^\ddagger + RT$, $A = e k_B T / h \cdot e^{\Delta S^\ddagger / R}$.
- Gas, bi: $E_a = \Delta H^\ddagger + 2RT$, $A = e^2 k_B T / hc^\circ \cdot e^{\Delta S^\ddagger / R}$.
- Gas, tri: $E_a = \Delta H^\ddagger + 3RT$, $A = e^3 k_B T / h(c^\circ)^2 \cdot e^{\Delta S^\ddagger / R}$.

- Important things to memorize from TST.
 - The Eyring equation.
 - Don't worry about the partition function mathematics, but understand the dimensional analysis.
 - Know that we collapse two $k_B T$ terms together; one from q_{trans} and one from $\langle u_{ac} \rangle$.
- Consider cyclohexane conformations.

- We have that

$$\Delta^\ddagger H^\circ = 31.38 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \quad \Delta^\ddagger S^\circ = 16.74 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1} \quad T = 325 \text{ K}$$

- We want to know $\Delta^\ddagger G^\circ$.

- But by the definition of the Gibbs energy,

$$\Delta^\ddagger G^\circ = \Delta^\ddagger H^\circ - T\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ = 25.94 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

- It follows that

$$k = \frac{k_B T}{h} e^{-\Delta^\ddagger G^\circ / RT} = 4.59 \times 10^8 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

- Overview of key mechanism concepts.

- Reaction mechanisms can involve more than one elementary step.
- Reactions can be sequential (single- or multi-step).
- To establish a mechanism, we use several techniques, approaches, assumptions, and approximations.
- Establish rate determining steps: The rate law and rate constants associated with these steps tend to dominate the kinetics of the overall reaction.
- Invoke the steady-state approximation to help solve the complicated mathematics of reaction kinetics.
- Enzyme kinetics, Michaelis-Menten mechanism involves an SS approximation.

- Oftentimes, reactions are of the form



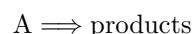
- Note that this form is very much analogous to the form analyzed in TST.

- **Elementary reaction:** A reaction that does not involve the formation of a reaction intermediate; the products must be formed directly from the reactants.

- Denoted by the double arrow.
- An elementary reaction can still be reversible.

- **Molecularity** (of an elementary reaction): The number of reactant molecules involved in the chemical reaction.

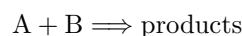
- **Unimolecular** (reaction): An elementary reaction with molecularity one. *General form*



Rate law

$$v = k[A]$$

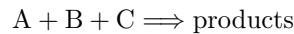
- **Bimolecular** (reaction): An elementary reaction with molecularity two. *General form*



Rate law

$$v = k[A][B]$$

- **Termolecular** (reaction): An elementary reaction with molecularity three. *General form*

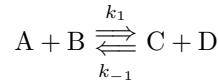


Rate law

$$v = k[A][B][C]$$

- No elementary reaction with molecularity greater than three is known, and the overwhelming majority of elementary reactions are bimolecular.
- When a complex reaction is at equilibrium, the rate of the forward process is equal to the rate of the reverse process for each and every step of the reaction mechanism.

– We denote a reversible elementary reaction as follows.



- A reversible elementary reaction signifies that the reaction occurs in both the forward and reverse directions to a significant extent and that the reaction in each direction is an elementary reaction.
- The rate laws are

$$v_1 = k_1[A][B]$$

$$v_{-1} = k_{-1}[C][D]$$

– At equilibrium,

$$\begin{aligned} k_1[A]_{\text{eq}}[B]_{\text{eq}} &= k_{-1}[C]_{\text{eq}}[D]_{\text{eq}} \\ \frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} &= \frac{[C]_{\text{eq}}[D]_{\text{eq}}}{[A]_{\text{eq}}[B]_{\text{eq}}} = K_c \end{aligned}$$

- **Principle of detailed balance:** The following relationship, which holds for all reversible elementary reactions. *Given by*

$$K_c = \frac{k_1}{k_{-1}}$$

4.2 The Two-Step Consecutive Reaction Mechanism

4/20:

- Consider the general complex reaction



– Suppose that the reaction occurs by the two step mechanism



– Because each step of this mechanism is an elementary reaction, the rate laws for each species are

$$\frac{d[A]}{dt} = -k_1[A] \quad \frac{d[I]}{dt} = k_1[A] - k_2[I] \quad \frac{d[P]}{dt} = k_2[I]$$

– Thus, assuming that the initial concentrations at time $t = 0$ are $[A] = [A]_0$ and $[I]_0 = [P]_0 = 0$, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} [A] &= [A]_0 e^{-k_1 t} \\ [I] &= \frac{k_1 [A]_0}{k_2 - k_1} (e^{-k_1 t} - e^{-k_2 t}) \\ [P] &= [A]_0 - [A] - [I] = [A]_0 \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{k_1 - k_2} (k_2 e^{-k_1 t} - k_1 e^{-k_2 t}) \right\} \end{aligned}$$

- Distinguishing the two-step consecutive reaction mechanism unambiguously from the one-step reaction.

- For a single step reaction,

$$[P] = [A]_0(1 - e^{-k_1 t})$$

- The two-step consecutive reaction mechanism has the following alternate form.

$$[P] = [A]_0 \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{k_1 - k_2} (k_2 e^{-k_1 t} - k_1 e^{-k_2 t}) \right\}$$

- However, if $k_2 \gg k_1$, then

$$\begin{aligned} [P] &= [A]_0 \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{k_1 - k_2} (k_2 e^{-k_1 t} - k_1 e^{-k_2 t}) \right\} \\ &\approx [A]_0 \left\{ 1 + \frac{1}{-k_2} k_2 e^{-k_1 t} \right\} \\ &= [A]_0(1 - e^{-k_1 t}) \end{aligned}$$

- If $k_1 \gg k_2$, the reaction reduces to

$$[P] \approx [A]_0(1 - e^{-k_2 t})$$

- Thus, the only ambiguous situation is $k_2 \gg k_1$.

- The steady-state approximation simplifies rate expressions.

- We assume that $d[I]/dt = 0$, where I is a reaction intermediate.

- Given the above differential equation for $d[I]/dt$, making the above assumption yields

$$[I]_{ss} = \frac{k_1[A]}{k_2}$$

- It follows that

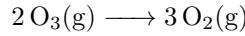
$$[I]_{ss} = \frac{k_1}{k_2} [A]_0 e^{-k_1 t}$$

- Thus,

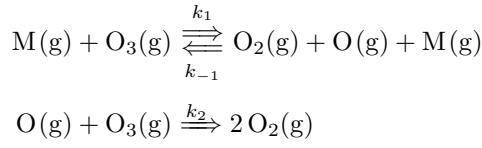
$$\frac{d[I]_{ss}}{dt} = \frac{-k_1^2}{k_2} [A]_0 e^{-k_1 t}$$

- We get $k_2 \gg k_1^2 [A]_0$ and $[P] = [A]_0(1 - e^{-k_1 t})$.

- Example: Decomposition of ozone.



- The reaction mechanism is



where M is a molecule that can exchange energy with the reacting ozone molecule through a collision, but M itself does not react.

- The rate equations for $\text{O}_3(\text{g})$ and $\text{O}(\text{g})$ are

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d[\text{O}_3]}{dt} &= -k_1[\text{O}_3][\text{M}] + k_{-1}[\text{O}_2][\text{O}][\text{M}] - k_2[\text{O}][\text{O}_3] \\ \frac{d[\text{O}]}{dt} &= k_1[\text{O}_3][\text{M}] - k_{-1}[\text{O}_2][\text{O}][\text{M}] - k_2[\text{O}][\text{O}_3] \end{aligned}$$

- Invoking the steady-state approximation for the intermediate O yields

$$[\text{O}] = \frac{k_1[\text{O}_3][\text{M}]}{k_{-1}[\text{O}_2][\text{M}] + k_2[\text{O}_3]}$$

- Substituting this result into the rate equation for O₃ gives

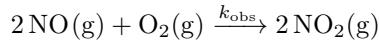
$$\frac{d[\text{O}_3]}{dt} = -\frac{2k_1k_2[\text{O}_3]^2[\text{M}]}{k_{-1}[\text{O}_2][\text{M}] + k_2[\text{O}_3]}$$

4.3 Complex Reactions

4/22:

- Expect the midterm to be 2 hours in length, available all next week, and to incorporate largely HW-like questions but also some open-ended, design-an-experiment questions. Completely open note.
- The rate law for a complex reaction does not imply a unique mechanism.

- Consider the reaction

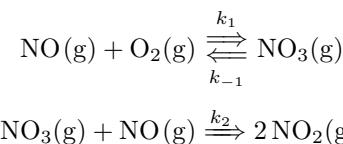


- The rate law is

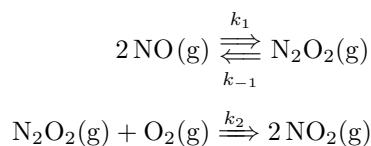
$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d[\text{NO}_2]}{dt} = k_{\text{obs}}[\text{NO}]^2[\text{O}_2]$$

- Experimental studies confirm that the reaction is not an elementary reaction, but we can propose multiple mechanisms that would both yield the same rate law. Here are two examples.

■ Mechanism 1.



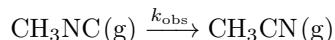
■ Mechanism 2.



- One experiment to design is to capture or otherwise detect the intermediate species.
- Through such an experiment, we can verify Mechanism 2.

- The Lindemann Mechanism explains how unimolecular reactions occur.

- Consider the reaction



- The following rate law is only correct at high [CH₃NC].

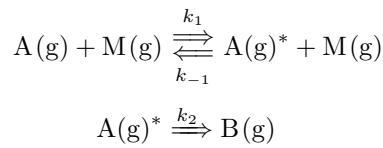
$$\frac{d[\text{CH}_3\text{NC}]}{dt} = -k_{\text{obs}}[\text{CH}_3\text{NC}]$$

- At low [CH₃NC], we have

$$\frac{d[\text{CH}_3\text{NC}]}{dt} = -k_{\text{obs}}[\text{CH}_3\text{NC}]^2$$

which is not the rate law for a unimolecular reaction.

- The Lindemann mechanism for unimolecular reactions of the form $A(g) \longrightarrow B(g)$ is



- The symbol $A(g)^*$ represents an energized reactant molecule. $M(g)$ is the collision partner.
- By the steady-state approximation, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d[A^*]}{dt} &= 0 = k_1[A][M] - k_{-1}[A^*][M] - k_2[A^*] \\ [A^*] &= \frac{k_1[M][A]}{k_2 + k_{-1}[M]} \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d[B]}{dt} &= k_2[A^*] \\ -\frac{d[A]}{dt} &= \frac{d[B]}{dt} = \underbrace{\frac{k_2 k_1 [M]}{k_2 + k_{-1} [M]}}_{k_{\text{obs}}}[A] \end{aligned}$$

- At high $[M]$, we have that $k_{-1}[M][A^*] \gg k_2[A^*]$, or $k_{-1}[M] \gg k_2$. Thus,

$$k_{\text{obs}} = \frac{k_1 k_2}{k_{-1}}$$

- At low $[M]$, we have that $k_2 \gg k_{-1}[M]$ so that

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d[B]}{dt} &= k_1[M][A] \\ &= k_1[A]^2 \end{aligned}$$

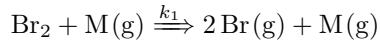
- This mechanism was proposed by the British chemists J. A. Christiansen in 1921 and F. A. Lindemann in 1922. Their work underlies the current theory of unimolecular reaction rates.

- Some reaction mechanisms involve chain reactions.

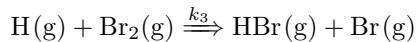
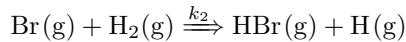
- Chain reactions involve amplification.

- For example, $H_2(g) + Br_2(g) \longrightarrow 2 HBr(g)$ follows the ensuing mechanism.

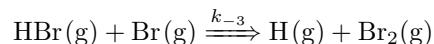
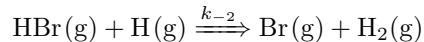
■ Initiation.



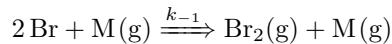
■ Propagation.



■ Inhibition.



■ Termination.



- The fifth step can be ignored.
- Notice that the inhibition and termination reactions are the reverse reactions of the propagation and initiation reaction(s), respectively.
 - Termination does not need to be the reverse of initiation, though. Termination just kills any reactive species.
 - Inhibition is the reverse of propagation, though.
- When you want to design a chain reaction species, make sure you have a reactive species (like bromine) for the initiation step. Notice, for instance, that hydrogen does not initiate.
- This leads to the experimentally determined rate law

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{d[\text{HBr}]}{dt} = \frac{k[\text{H}_2][\text{Br}_2]^{1/2}}{1 + k'[\text{HBr}][\text{Br}_2]^{-1}}$$

- Deriving said rate law.

■ We have that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d[\text{HBr}]}{dt} &= k_2[\text{Br}][\text{H}_2] - k_{-2}[\text{HBr}][\text{H}] + k_3[\text{H}][\text{Br}_2] \\ \frac{d[\text{H}]}{dt} &= k_2[\text{Br}][\text{H}_2] - k_{-2}[\text{HBr}][\text{H}] - k_3[\text{H}][\text{Br}_2] \\ \frac{d[\text{Br}]}{dt} &= 2k_1[\text{Br}_2][\text{M}] - k_{-1}[\text{Br}]^2[\text{M}] - k_2[\text{Br}][\text{H}_2] + k_{-2}[\text{HBr}][\text{H}] + k_3[\text{H}][\text{Br}_2]\end{aligned}$$

■ We can apply the SS approximation to the second and third equations above, which both describe intermediate species.

$$\begin{aligned}0 &= k_2[\text{Br}][\text{H}_2] - k_{-2}[\text{HBr}][\text{H}] - k_3[\text{H}][\text{Br}_2] \\ 0 &= 2k_1[\text{Br}_2][\text{M}] - k_{-1}[\text{Br}]^2[\text{M}] - k_2[\text{Br}][\text{H}_2] + k_{-2}[\text{HBr}][\text{H}] + k_3[\text{H}][\text{Br}_2]\end{aligned}$$

■ Solving the two equations above for $[\text{H}]$ and $[\text{Br}]$, respectively, is made substantially easier by noting that the negative of the first expression appears in its entirety in the second expression. Thus, we may simply substitute the former into the latter and solve to find an expression for $[\text{Br}]$.

$$\begin{aligned}0 &= 2k_1[\text{Br}_2][\text{M}] - k_{-1}[\text{Br}]^2[\text{M}] - 0 \\ [\text{Br}] &= \left(\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} \right)^{1/2} [\text{Br}_2]^{1/2} \\ [\text{Br}] &= (K_{c,1})^{1/2} [\text{Br}_2]^{1/2}\end{aligned}$$

■ Resubstituting yields an expression for $[\text{H}]$.

$$\begin{aligned}0 &= k_2[\text{Br}][\text{H}_2] - k_{-2}[\text{HBr}][\text{H}] - k_3[\text{H}][\text{Br}_2] \\ 0 &= k_2(K_{c,1})^{1/2} [\text{Br}_2]^{1/2} [\text{H}_2] - (k_{-2}[\text{HBr}] + k_3[\text{Br}_2])[\text{H}] \\ [\text{H}] &= \frac{k_2(K_{c,1})^{1/2} [\text{Br}_2]^{1/2} [\text{H}_2]}{k_{-2}[\text{HBr}] + k_3[\text{Br}_2]}\end{aligned}$$

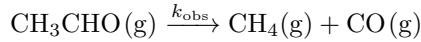
- Substituting these two expressions back into the original differential equation for [HBr] yields

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{d[HBr]}{dt} &= k_2[Br][H_2] - k_{-2}[HBr][H] + k_3[H][Br_2] \\
 &= k_2(K_{c,1})^{1/2}[Br_2]^{1/2}[H_2] - k_{-2}[HBr] \cdot \frac{k_2(K_{c,1})^{1/2}[Br_2]^{1/2}[H_2]}{k_{-2}[HBr] + k_3[Br_2]} \\
 &\quad + k_3 \cdot \frac{k_2(K_{c,1})^{1/2}[Br_2]^{1/2}[H_2]}{k_{-2}[HBr] + k_3[Br_2]} \cdot [Br_2] \\
 &= k_2(K_{c,1})^{1/2}[Br_2]^{1/2}[H_2] - \frac{k_2 k_{-2}(K_{c,1})^{1/2}[HBr][Br_2]^{1/2}[H_2]}{k_{-2}[HBr] + k_3[Br_2]} \\
 &\quad + \frac{k_2 k_3(K_{c,1})^{1/2}[Br_2]^{3/2}[H_2]}{k_{-2}[HBr] + k_3[Br_2]} \\
 &= k_2(K_{c,1})^{1/2}[Br_2]^{1/2}[H_2] \left(1 - \frac{k_{-2}[HBr]}{k_{-2}[HBr] + k_3[Br_2]} + \frac{k_3[Br_2]}{k_{-2}[HBr] + k_3[Br_2]} \right) \\
 &= k_2(K_{c,1})^{1/2}[Br_2]^{1/2}[H_2] \left(\frac{k_{-2}[HBr] + k_3[Br_2]}{k_{-2}[HBr] + k_3[Br_2]} - \frac{k_{-2}[HBr] - k_3[Br_2]}{k_{-2}[HBr] + k_3[Br_2]} \right) \\
 &= k_2(K_{c,1})^{1/2}[Br_2]^{1/2}[H_2] \cdot \frac{2k_3[Br_2]}{k_{-2}[HBr] + k_3[Br_2]} \\
 \frac{1}{2} \frac{d[HBr]}{dt} &= k_2(K_{c,1})^{1/2}[Br_2]^{1/2}[H_2] \cdot \frac{1}{(k_{-2}/k_3)[HBr][Br_2]^{-1} + 1} \\
 &= \frac{k_2(K_{c,1})^{1/2}[H_2][Br_2]^{1/2}}{1 + (k_{-2}/k_3)[HBr][Br_2]^{-1}} \\
 &= \frac{k[H_2][Br_2]^{1/2}}{1 + k'[HBr][Br_2]^{-1}}
 \end{aligned}$$

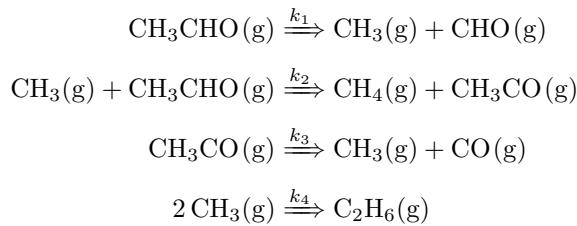
where we have substituted $k = k_2(K_{c,1})^{1/2}$ and $k' = k_{-2}/k_3$ in the last expression.

- Problem 29-24.

- The reaction



proceeds by the mechanism



- The initiation step is the first equation, the propagation steps are the second and third equations, and the termination step is the fourth equation.
- We can write the rate laws

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{d[\text{CH}_4]}{dt} &= k_2[\text{CH}_3][\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] \\
 \frac{d[\text{CH}_3]}{dt} &= k_1[\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] - k_2[\text{CH}_3][\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] + k_3[\text{CH}_3\text{CO}] - 2k_4[\text{CH}_3] \\
 \frac{d[\text{CH}_3\text{CO}]}{dt} &= k_2[\text{CH}_3][\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] - k_3[\text{CH}_3\text{CO}]
 \end{aligned}$$

- Applying the SS approximation to the last second and third equations yields (respectively)

$$[\text{CH}_3] = \frac{k_1[\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] + k_3[\text{CH}_3\text{CO}]}{k_2[\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] + 2k_4} \quad [\text{CH}_3\text{CO}] = \frac{k_2}{k_3}[\text{CH}_3][\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}]$$

- Substituting the right equation above into the left equation above and solving for $[\text{CH}_3]$ yields an expression for $[\text{CH}_3]$ purely in terms of $[\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}]$.

$$\begin{aligned} [\text{CH}_3] &= \frac{k_1[\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] + k_2[\text{CH}_3][\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}]}{k_2[\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] + 2k_4} \\ k_2[\text{CH}_3][\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] + 2k_4[\text{CH}_3] &= k_1[\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] + k_2[\text{CH}_3][\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] \\ 2k_4[\text{CH}_3] &= k_1[\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] \\ [\text{CH}_3] &= \frac{k_1}{2k_4}[\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] \end{aligned}$$

- The final result is

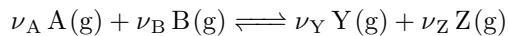
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d[\text{CH}_3]}{dt} &= k_2 \left(\frac{k_1}{2k_4}[\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] \right) [\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}] \\ &= k_2 \left(\frac{k_1}{2k_4} \right)^{1/2} [\text{CH}_3\text{CHO}]^{3/2} \end{aligned}$$

■ What's the issue here?

4.4 Chapter 26: Chemical Equilibrium

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

- 4/28:
- “Thermodynamics enables us to predict with confidence the equilibrium pressures or concentrations of reaction mixtures” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 963).
 - Goal of this chapter: Derive a relationship between the standard Gibbs energy change and the equilibrium constant.
 - We begin by considering the following general gas-phase reaction.



- **Extent of reaction:** A measure of how far along its reaction coordinate a chemical reaction is. Denoted by ξ . Units mol. Given by

$$\begin{aligned} n_A &= n_{A0} - \nu_A \xi & n_Y &= n_{Y0} + \nu_Y \xi \\ n_B &= n_{B0} - \nu_B \xi & n_Z &= n_{Z0} + \nu_Z \xi \end{aligned}$$

where n_j is the number of moles for each species at the time during the reaction corresponding to extent of reaction ξ and n_{j0} is the initial number of moles for each species.

- As the reaction proceeds, ξ varies from zero to some maximum value.
- An example of the units of ξ : If n_{A0} equals ν_A moles and n_{B0} equals ν_B moles, then ξ varies from zero moles to one mole over the course of the reaction.
- Relating the change in Gibbs energy to the change in extent of reaction.

- The Gibbs energy for this multicomponent system depends on T , P , and n_j for the two reactants and the two products. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} dG &= \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial T}\right)_{P,n_j} dT + \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial P}\right)_{T,n_j} dP + \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_A}\right)_{T,P,n_j \neq A} dn_A \\ &\quad + \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_B}\right)_{T,P,n_j \neq B} dn_B + \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_Y}\right)_{T,P,n_j \neq Y} dn_Y + \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial n_Z}\right)_{T,P,n_j \neq Z} dn_Z \\ &= -S dT + V dP + \mu_A dn_A + \mu_B dn_B + \mu_Y dn_Y + \mu_Z dn_Z \end{aligned}$$

- Taking T, P to be constant simplifies the above to

$$dG = \mu_A dn_A + \mu_B dn_B + \mu_Y dn_Y + \mu_Z dn_Z$$

- Differentiating the equations used to define the extent of reaction yields

$$\begin{aligned} dn_A &= -\nu_A d\xi & dn_Y &= \nu_Y d\xi \\ dn_B &= -\nu_B d\xi & dn_Z &= \nu_Z d\xi \end{aligned}$$

so that

$$\begin{aligned} dG &= -\nu_A \mu_A d\xi - \nu_B \mu_B d\xi + \nu_Y \mu_Y d\xi + \nu_Z \mu_Z d\xi \\ &= (\nu_Y \mu_Y + \nu_Z \mu_Z - \nu_A \mu_A - \nu_B \mu_B) d\xi \\ \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial \xi}\right)_{T,P} &= \nu_Y \mu_Y + \nu_Z \mu_Z - \nu_A \mu_A - \nu_B \mu_B \end{aligned}$$

- $\Delta_r G$: The change in Gibbs energy when the extent of reaction changes by one mole. *Units J mol⁻¹.*
Given by

$$\Delta_r G = \left(\frac{\partial G}{\partial \xi}\right)_{T,P} = \nu_Y \mu_Y + \nu_Z \mu_Z - \nu_A \mu_A - \nu_B \mu_B$$

- Relating standard and nonstandard states.

- Let all partial pressures be sufficiently low to assume ideality.
- Then substituting the equation $\mu_j(T, P) = \mu_j^\circ(T) + RT \ln(P_j/P^\circ)$ yields

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_r G &= \nu_Y \mu_Y^\circ(T) + \nu_Z \mu_Z^\circ(T) - \nu_A \mu_A^\circ(T) - \nu_B \mu_B^\circ(T) + RT \left(\nu_Y \ln \frac{P_Y}{P^\circ} + \nu_Z \ln \frac{P_Z}{P^\circ} - \nu_A \ln \frac{P_A}{P^\circ} - \nu_B \ln \frac{P_B}{P^\circ} \right) \\ &= \underbrace{\nu_Y \mu_Y^\circ(T) + \nu_Z \mu_Z^\circ(T) - \nu_A \mu_A^\circ(T) - \nu_B \mu_B^\circ(T)}_{\Delta_r G^\circ} + RT \ln \underbrace{\frac{(P_Y/P^\circ)^{\nu_Y} (P_Z/P^\circ)^{\nu_Z}}{(P_A/P^\circ)^{\nu_A} (P_B/P^\circ)^{\nu_B}}}_Q \end{aligned}$$

- $\Delta_r G^\circ(T)$: The change in standard Gibbs energy for the reaction between unmixed reactants in their standard states at temperature T and a pressure of one bar to form unmixed products in their standard states at the same temperature T and pressure of one bar.

- Note that since P° is taken to be 1 bar, the P° 's are usually dropped in the definition of Q . However, they must be remembered in the sense that they make Q unitless whether shown or not.

- **Equilibrium:** The position of the reaction system at which the Gibbs energy is a minimum with respect to any displacement.

- Mathematically, we have that at equilibrium, $\Delta_r G = 0$.

- It follows that at equilibrium,

$$0 = \Delta_r G^\circ(T) + RT \ln \left(\frac{P_Y^{\nu_Y} P_Z^{\nu_Z}}{P_A^{\nu_A} P_B^{\nu_B}} \right)_{\text{eq}}$$

$$\Delta_r G^\circ(T) = -RT \ln \left(\frac{P_Y^{\nu_Y} P_Z^{\nu_Z}}{P_A^{\nu_A} P_B^{\nu_B}} \right)_{\text{eq}}$$

- **Equilibrium constant:** A constant describing the relative pressures of reactants to products that will result in the reaction system achieving equilibrium. *Denoted by $K_P(T)$. Given by*

$$K_P(T) = \left(\frac{P_Y^{\nu_Y} P_Z^{\nu_Z}}{P_A^{\nu_A} P_B^{\nu_B}} \right)_{\text{eq}}$$

- The value of the equilibrium constant depends on how we write the chemical equation for the reaction at hand. For instance, the equilibrium constant expression for $3 \text{H}_2 + \text{N}_2 \rightleftharpoons 2 \text{NH}_3$ is the square of the equilibrium constant expression for $\frac{3}{2} \text{H}_2 + \frac{1}{2} \text{N}_2 \rightleftharpoons \text{NH}_3$.
- An equilibrium constant is a function of temperature only.
 - This is because in deriving the equilibrium constant expression, we set $\Delta_r G(T, P) = 0$, and pressure appears nowhere else in the equation $\Delta_r G^\circ(T) + RT \ln Q$.
 - In particular, the ratio that defines Q must remain constant at different initial pressures of reactants and products.
- Thinking through some equilibrium concepts in an example.

- Consider the reaction



- The equilibrium constant expression is

$$K_P(T) = \frac{P_{\text{PCl}_3} P_{\text{Cl}_2}}{P_{\text{PCl}_5}}$$

- If we initially have one mole of PCl_5 and no PCl_3 or Cl_2 , then when the reaction occurs to an extent ξ , there will be $1 - \xi$ moles PCl_5 and ξ moles PCl_3 and Cl_2 . This leads to an overall $1 + \xi$ moles of gas.
- It follows that if ξ_{eq} is the extent of reaction at equilibrium, then the partial pressures of each gas at equilibrium are given by

$$P_{\text{PCl}_3} = P_{\text{Cl}_2} = \frac{\xi_{\text{eq}}}{1 + \xi_{\text{eq}}} P \quad P_{\text{PCl}_5} = \frac{1 - \xi_{\text{eq}}}{1 + \xi_{\text{eq}}} P$$

where P is the total pressure.

- Thus, the equilibrium constant expression is

$$K_P(T) = \frac{\xi_{\text{eq}}^2}{1 - \xi_{\text{eq}}^2} P$$

- While the above expression sure makes it seem like $K_P(T)$ depends on P , we know by the above that it can't. Thus, it must be the position of the equilibrium along the extent of reaction that changes as P changes.
- In particular, as per **Le Châtelier's principle**, we can note that for $K_P > 1$, increasing pressure favors lesser extents of reaction (i.e., favors the reactants). This should make intuitive sense harkening back to AP Chemistry since it stands to reason that pressure increases would favor shifting the equilibrium to have fewer moles of gas. Now, however, we have a quantitative rule for how changes in pressure will affect the equilibrium.

- **Le Châtelier's principle:** If a chemical reaction at equilibrium is subjected to a change in conditions that displaces it from equilibrium, then the reaction adjusts toward a new equilibrium state.
- Note that we can also express the equilibrium constant in terms of concentration via the relationship $P = cRT$ where $c = n/V$ is the concentration.

$$K_P = \frac{c_Y^{\nu_Y} c_Z^{\nu_Z}}{c_A^{\nu_A} c_B^{\nu_B}} \left(\frac{RT}{P^\circ} \right)^{\nu_Y + \nu_Z - \nu_A - \nu_B}$$

- c° : The standard concentration. *Given by*

$$c^\circ = 1 \frac{\text{mol}}{\text{L}}$$

- The standard concentration enables the following definitions.

$$K_P = \underbrace{\frac{(c_Y/c^\circ)^{\nu_Y} (c_Z/c^\circ)^{\nu_Z}}{(c_A/c^\circ)^{\nu_A} (c_B/c^\circ)^{\nu_B}}}_{K_c} \left(\frac{c^\circ RT}{P^\circ} \right)^{\nu_Y + \nu_Z - \nu_A - \nu_B}$$

- Note that both K_c and the term by which it is multiplied above are unitless.
- As such, we have to be careful what units we use for R . In the standard situation of $P^\circ = 1 \text{ bar}$ and $c^\circ = 1 \text{ mol L}^{-1}$, we must use $R = 0.083\,145 \text{ L bar mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$.
- By combining the two equations below (both given in derivations above), we can obtain a relation between the equilibrium constant K_p and the standard molar Gibbs energies (i.e., chemical potentials) of the relevant substances.

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta_r G^\circ(T) &= -RT \ln K_P \\ \Delta_r G^\circ(T) &= \nu_Y \mu_Y^\circ(T) + \nu_Z \mu_Z^\circ(T) - \nu_A \mu_A^\circ(T) - \nu_B \mu_B^\circ(T)\end{aligned}$$

- Note that $\mu_j^\circ(T) = \Delta_f G^\circ[j]$ if we choose appropriate standard states.
- Thus, we can use tables of standard molar Gibbs energies of formation to calculate equilibrium constants.
- Example: Deriving a function for the Gibbs energy of a reaction in terms of the extent of reaction.

- Consider the following reaction, which occurs at 298.15 K.



- Let the initial conditions be one mole of N_2O_4 and no NO_2 . Then

$$\begin{aligned}G(\xi) &= n_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4} \bar{G}_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4} + n_{\text{NO}_2} \bar{G}_{\text{NO}_2} \\ &= (1 - \xi) \bar{G}_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4} + 2\xi \bar{G}_{\text{NO}_2} \\ &= (1 - \xi) G_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4}^\circ + 2\xi G_{\text{NO}_2}^\circ + (1 - \xi) RT \ln P_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4} + 2\xi RT \ln P_{\text{NO}_2}\end{aligned}$$

- Let the reaction be carried out at a constant total pressure of one bar. This assumption combined with the fact that the total number of moles in the reaction mixture is $(1 - \xi) + 2\xi = 1 + \xi$ reveals that

$$P_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4} = x_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4} P_{\text{total}} = \frac{1 - \xi}{1 + \xi} \cdot 1 = \frac{1 - \xi}{1 + \xi} \quad P_{\text{NO}_2} = x_{\text{NO}_2} P_{\text{total}} = \frac{2\xi}{1 + \xi} \cdot 1 = \frac{2\xi}{1 + \xi}$$

so that

$$G(\xi) = (1 - \xi) G_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4}^\circ + 2\xi G_{\text{NO}_2}^\circ + (1 - \xi) RT \ln \frac{1 - \xi}{1 + \xi} + 2\xi RT \ln \frac{2\xi}{1 + \xi}$$

- Choosing appropriate standard states, we can obtain the final form

$$G(\xi) = (1 - \xi)\Delta_f G_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4}^\circ + 2\xi\Delta_f G_{\text{NO}_2}^\circ + (1 - \xi)RT \ln \frac{1 - \xi}{1 + \xi} + 2\xi RT \ln \frac{2\xi}{1 + \xi}$$

- Plugging in

$$\Delta_f G_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4}^\circ = 97.787 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \quad \Delta_f G_{\text{NO}_2}^\circ = 51.258 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

we can determine that the minimum of the curve occurs at $\xi_{\text{eq}} = 0.1892 \text{ mol}$.

- Thus,

$$K_P = \frac{P_{\text{NO}_2}^2}{P_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4}} = \frac{[2\xi_{\text{eq}}/(1 + \xi_{\text{eq}})]^2}{(1 - \xi_{\text{eq}})/(1 + \xi_{\text{eq}})} = \frac{4\xi_{\text{eq}}^2}{1 - \xi_{\text{eq}}^2} = 0.148$$

- Note that this value compares exactly with the one obtained via the $-RT \ln K_P = \sum \nu_j \mu_j^\circ(T)$ method.
- Note that differentiating our final form for $G(\xi)$ wrt. ξ yields $\Delta_r G = \Delta_r G^\circ + RT \ln K_P$, as expected.

- **Reaction quotient:** A quantity describing the relative amounts of reactants and products present in the reaction system at a given instant in time. Denoted by Q_P . Given by

$$Q_P = \frac{P_Y^{\nu_Y} P_Z^{\nu_Z}}{P_A^{\nu_A} P_B^{\nu_B}}$$

- We have that

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta_r G &= \Delta_r G^\circ + RT \ln Q_P \\ &= -RT \ln K_P + RT \ln Q_P \\ &= RT \ln \frac{Q_P}{K_P} \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, the ratio of the reaction quotient to the equilibrium constant determines the direction in which a reaction will proceed.
- The sign of $\Delta_r G$ and not that of $\Delta_r G^\circ$ determines the direction of reaction spontaneity.
 - Indeed, the sign of $\Delta_r G^\circ$ determines the direction of reaction spontaneity only when all substances are mixed at one bar partial pressures (i.e., when $\Delta_r G = \Delta_r G^\circ$).
- “The fact that a process will occur spontaneously does not imply that it will necessarily occur at a detectable rate” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 977).
 - For example, the negative $\Delta_r G^\circ$ of water at one bar and 25 °C tells us that the reaction $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightleftharpoons 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ will occur spontaneously. However, experimental evidence reveals that a spark or catalyst is needed to convert hydrogen and oxygen to water; once said activation energy is introduced, the reaction proceeds explosively.
 - Indeed, “the ‘no’ of thermodynamics is emphatic. If thermodynamics says that a certain process will not occur spontaneously, it will not occur. The ‘yes’ of thermodynamics, on the other hand, is actually a ‘maybe’” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 977).
- Deriving a relationship between K_P and T .
 - Recall the Gibbs-Helmholtz equation

$$\left(\frac{\partial \Delta G^\circ / T}{\partial T} \right)_P = -\frac{\Delta H^\circ}{T^2}$$

- Substituting $\Delta G^\circ(T) = -RT \ln K_P(T)$ yields the **Van't Hoff equation**.

$$\left(\frac{\partial \ln K_P(T)}{\partial T} \right)_P = \frac{d \ln K_P}{dT} = \frac{\Delta_r H^\circ}{RT^2}$$

- Qualitatively, the above equation tells us that if $\Delta_r H^\circ > 0$ (i.e., if the reaction is endothermic), then $K_P(T)$ increases with temperature, as expected since more available energy should drive an endothermic reaction, and vice versa if $\Delta_r H^\circ < 0$.

- This is another example of Le Châtelier's principle.
- Quantitatively, the above equation can be integrated to give

$$\ln \frac{K_P(T_2)}{K_P(T_1)} = \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \frac{\Delta_r H^\circ(T)}{RT^2} dT$$

- If the temperature range or the magnitude change of $\Delta_r H^\circ(T)$ is sufficiently small, we may take $\Delta_r H^\circ$ to be constant and write

$$\ln \frac{K_P(T_2)}{K_P(T_1)} = -\frac{\Delta_r H^\circ}{R} \left(\frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1} \right)$$

- One implication of this equation is that over a sufficiently small temperature range, a plot of $\ln K$ vs. $1/T$ is linear with slope $-\Delta_r H^\circ/R$.
- If the temperature range is not sufficiently small, we still have options.
- For example, recall that

$$\Delta_r H^\circ(T_2) = \Delta_r H^\circ(T_1) + \int_{T_1}^{T_2} \Delta C_P^\circ(T) dT$$

where ΔC_P° is the difference between the heat capacities of the products and reactants.

- Alternatively, we may present experimental heat capacity data as a polynomial in temperature of the form

$$\Delta_r H^\circ(T) = \alpha + \beta T + \gamma T^2 + \delta T^3 + \dots$$

so that

$$\ln K_P(T) = -\frac{\alpha}{RT} + \frac{\beta}{R} \ln T + \frac{\gamma}{R} T + \frac{\delta}{2R} T^2 + A$$

where A is a constant of integration.

- It follows from this equation that in reality, a plot of $\ln K_P$ vs. $1/T$ is not linear but has a slight curvature.
- More generally, we may always take

$$\ln K_P(T) = \ln K_P(T_1) + \int_{T_1}^T \frac{\Delta_r H^\circ(T')}{RT'^2} dT'$$

regardless of how $\Delta_r H^\circ$ varies with temperature.

- **Van't Hoff equation:** An ordinary differential equation describing the temperature dependence of the equilibrium constant. *Given by*

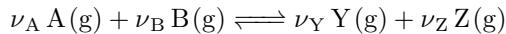
$$\frac{d \ln K_P}{dT} = \frac{\Delta_r H^\circ}{RT^2}$$

- A note on the similarity in form between the integrated Van't Hoff equation at constant $\Delta_r H^\circ$ and the Clausius-Clapeyron equation: “These equations are essentially the same because the vaporization of a liquid can be represented by the ‘chemical equation’ $X(l) \rightleftharpoons X(g)$ ” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 980).

4/30:

- Calculating equilibrium constants in terms of partition functions.

- Consider the general homogeneous gas-phase reaction



in a reaction vessel at fixed volume and temperature.

- It follows that

$$dA = \mu_A dn_A + \mu_B dn_B + \mu_Y dn_Y + \mu_Z dn_Z$$

- As before, this equation gives the condition for chemical equilibrium as

$$\nu_Y \mu_Y + \nu_Z \mu_Z - \nu_A \mu_A - \nu_B \mu_B = 0$$

- We now express the chemical potentials above in terms of partition functions.

- Since the species are independent in an ideal gas, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} Q(N_A, N_B, N_Y, N_Z, V, T) &= Q(N_A, V, T)Q(N_B, V, T)Q(N_Y, V, T)Q(N_Z, V, T) \\ &= \frac{q_A(V, T)^{N_A}}{N_A!} \frac{q_B(V, T)^{N_B}}{N_B!} \frac{q_Y(V, T)^{N_Y}}{N_Y!} \frac{q_Z(V, T)^{N_Z}}{N_Z!} \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, for example,

$$\mu_A = -RT \left(\frac{\partial \ln Q(N_A, N_B, N_Y, N_Z, V, T)}{\partial N_A} \right)_{N_j, V, T} = -RT \ln \frac{q_A(V, T)}{N_A}$$

where we have used Stirling's approximation for $N_A!$.

- Substituting the above equation and its variations for B, Y, and Z into the equilibrium conditions yields

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \nu_Y \left(-RT \ln \frac{q_Y}{N_Y} \right) + \nu_Z \left(-RT \ln \frac{q_Z}{N_Z} \right) - \nu_A \left(-RT \ln \frac{q_A}{N_A} \right) - \nu_B \left(-RT \ln \frac{q_B}{N_B} \right) \\ &= \ln \frac{q_Y^{\nu_Y}}{N_Y^{\nu_Y}} + \ln \frac{q_Z^{\nu_Z}}{N_Z^{\nu_Z}} - \ln \frac{q_A^{\nu_A}}{N_A^{\nu_A}} - \ln \frac{q_B^{\nu_B}}{N_B^{\nu_B}} \\ e^0 &= \frac{\frac{q_Y^{\nu_Y} q_Z^{\nu_Z}}{q_A^{\nu_A} q_B^{\nu_B}}}{\frac{N_Y^{\nu_Y} N_Z^{\nu_Z}}{N_A^{\nu_A} N_B^{\nu_B}}} \\ \frac{N_Y^{\nu_Y} N_Z^{\nu_Z}}{N_A^{\nu_A} N_B^{\nu_B}} &= \frac{q_Y^{\nu_Y} q_Z^{\nu_Z}}{q_A^{\nu_A} q_B^{\nu_B}} \end{aligned}$$

- Now $N_j/V = \rho_j$ is concentration, so dividing every term in the left expression above by V^{ν_j} gives K_c .

$$K_c(T) = \frac{\rho_Y^{\nu_Y} \rho_Z^{\nu_Z}}{\rho_A^{\nu_A} \rho_B^{\nu_B}} = \frac{(q_Y/V)^{\nu_Y} (q_Z/V)^{\nu_Z}}{(q_A/V)^{\nu_A} (q_B/V)^{\nu_B}}$$

■ Recall that q_j/V is a function of temperature only. Thus, the above definition does give $K_c(T)$ in terms of the partition functions and as a function of temperature only, as it should.

- Lastly, recall that we can use the definition of K_P in terms of K_c to calculate K_P in terms of partition functions.

- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) goes through two examples of using the above result to calculate the equilibrium constant from molecular parameters.

- Using the rigid-rotator harmonic oscillator approximation (which we may recall is the basis of all partition functions we've derived thus far) gives results in good (but not great) agreement with experiment.

- 5/1:
- We can achieve better agreement with experimental data using more laborious calculations.
 - Alternatively, we can turn to tabulated data, such as the **JANAF tables**.
 - **JANAF tables:** The joint, army, navy, air force tables (Chase, 1985), which are one of the most extensive tabulations of the thermochemical properties of substances.
 - The JANAF tables use as a reference point for relative data the standard molar enthalpies at 298.15 K.
 - McQuarrie and Simon (1997) works through several examples of how to use the JANAF tables and manipulate the thermodynamic equations we've derived thus far to best suit them.
 - McQuarrie and Simon (1997) discusses equilibrium constants for real gases and solutions.

Problems

26-14. Show that

$$\frac{d \ln K_c}{dT} = \frac{\Delta_r U^\circ}{RT^2}$$

for reactions involving ideal gases.

Answer. Starting from the Van't Hoff equation, we have that

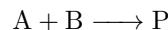
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d \ln K_P}{dT} &= \frac{\Delta_r H^\circ}{RT^2} \\ \frac{d}{dT} \ln \left(K_c \left(\frac{c^\circ RT}{P^\circ} \right)^{\nu_Y + \nu_Z - \nu_A - \nu_B} \right) &= \frac{\Delta_r U^\circ + \Delta_r (PV)}{RT^2} \\ \frac{d \ln K_c}{dT} + \frac{d}{dT} \{[(\nu_Y + \nu_Z) - (\nu_A + \nu_B)] \ln T\} + \frac{d}{dT} \left(\frac{c^\circ R}{P^\circ} \right) &= \frac{\Delta_r U^\circ + \Delta_r (nRT)}{RT^2} \\ \frac{d \ln K_c}{dT} + \frac{n_f - n_i}{T} + 0 &= \frac{\Delta_r U^\circ}{RT^2} + \frac{\Delta_r n}{T} \\ \frac{d \ln K_c}{dT} &= \frac{\Delta_r U^\circ}{RT^2} \end{aligned}$$

as desired. □

4.5 Chapter 28: Chemical Kinetics I — Rate Laws

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

- **Transition state:** The transient species in the vicinity of the top of the activation barrier to reaction. *Also known as activated complex. Denoted by AB^\ddagger .*
- **Transition-state theory:** A theory focusing on the transition states that can be used to estimate reaction rate constants. *Also known as activated-complex theory.*
 - Developed in the 1930s by Henry Eyring.
- We will now develop the fundamental postulates of transition state theory and use them to express the rate constant, activation energy, and Arrhenius pre-exponential factor of the reaction



where P represents one or more products in terms of thermodynamic quantities including partition functions as well as more fundamental variables and constants.

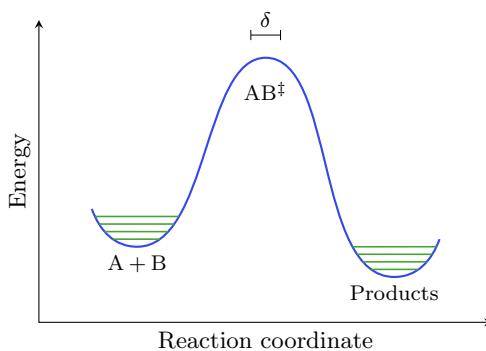
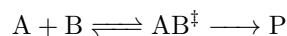


Figure 4.1: Transition state theory energy diagram.

- The first assumption of transition state theory is that the activated complex is in equilibrium with the reactants as per



- It follows from the definition of the concentration equilibrium constant that the transition-state equilibrium is defined by

$$K_c^{\ddagger} = \frac{[AB^{\ddagger}] / c^\circ}{[A] / c^\circ [B] / c^\circ} = \frac{[AB^{\ddagger}] c^\circ}{[A][B]}$$

- We can substitute partition functions into the above expression as follows

$$K_c^{\ddagger} = \frac{(q^{\ddagger}/V) c^\circ}{(q_A/V)(q_B/V)}$$

where q_A , q_B , and q^{\ddagger} are the partition functions of A, B, and AB^{\ddagger} , respectively.

- The second assumption of transition state theory is that the activated complex is stable throughout a small region of width δ centered at the top of the energy barrier (see Figure 4.1).
- It follows from this assumption that we can define the rate of product formation in terms of the concentration of the preceding intermediate (the activated complex), as we have been throughout this chapter. This may be done as follows.

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = \nu_c [AB^{\ddagger}]$$

- ν_c functions as a type of rate constant.
- The form of this expression implies that “the motion of the reacting system over the barrier top is a one-dimensional translational motion” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1166).
- We also have from the original chemical equation that

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = k[A][B]$$

- Thus, solving the expression defining K_c^{\ddagger} for $[AB^{\ddagger}]$ and substituting into the above, we have that

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = \nu_c [AB^{\ddagger}] = \nu_c \frac{[A][B] K_c^{\ddagger}}{c^\circ} = \underbrace{\frac{\nu_c K_c^{\ddagger}}{c^\circ}}_k [A][B]$$

- This expression gives k in units of $M^{-1} s^{-1}$.

- Since the rate law in terms of $[AB^\ddagger]$ implies 1D translational motion and the 1D translational partition function is

$$q_{\text{trans}} = \frac{\sqrt{2\pi m^\ddagger k_B T}}{h} \delta$$

we have that $q^\ddagger = q_{\text{trans}} q_{\text{int}}^\ddagger$.

- Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} k &= \frac{\nu_c}{c^\circ} K_c^\ddagger \\ &= \frac{\nu_c}{c^\circ} \frac{(q^\ddagger/V)c^\circ}{(q_A/V)(q_B/V)} \\ &= \nu_c \frac{\sqrt{2\pi m^\ddagger k_B T}}{hc^\circ} \delta \frac{(q_{\text{int}}^\ddagger/V)c^\circ}{(q_A/V)(q_B/V)} \end{aligned}$$

- This equation is looking pretty good, but it still contains ν_c and δ , both tricky quantities to define and determine. Their product $\langle u_{\text{ac}} \rangle$, however, has a much nicer interpretation.
- Consequently, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} k &= \sqrt{\frac{k_B T}{2\pi m^\ddagger}} \frac{\sqrt{2\pi m^\ddagger k_B T}}{hc^\circ} \frac{(q_{\text{int}}^\ddagger/V)c^\circ}{(q_A/V)(q_B/V)} \\ &= \frac{k_B T}{hc^\circ} K^\ddagger \end{aligned}$$

- Since we can relate K^\ddagger and the **standard Gibbs energy of activation** by

$$\Delta^\ddagger G^\circ = -RT \ln K^\ddagger$$

we have that

$$k(T) = \frac{k_B T}{hc^\circ} e^{-\Delta^\ddagger G^\circ / RT}$$

- Since we can express the standard Gibbs energy of activation in terms of the **standard enthalpy of activation** and the **standard entropy of activation** via

$$\Delta^\ddagger G^\circ = \Delta^\ddagger H^\circ - T\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ$$

we have that

$$k(T) = \frac{k_B T}{hc^\circ} e^{\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ / R} e^{-\Delta^\ddagger H^\circ / RT}$$

- We now look to use the above equation as a launch point to relate the activation energy and Arrhenius pre-exponential factor to molecular quantities.
- Recall that the differential Arrhenius equation is

$$\frac{d \ln k}{dT} = \frac{E_a}{RT^2}$$

- It follows using a previous form of $k(T)$ that

$$\frac{d \ln k}{dT} = \frac{d}{dT} \ln \left(\frac{k_B T}{hc^\circ} \right) + \frac{d \ln T}{dT} + \frac{d \ln K^\ddagger}{dT} = \frac{1}{T} + \frac{d \ln K^\ddagger}{dT}$$

- Invoking the result of Problem 26-14 yields

$$\frac{d \ln k}{dT} = \frac{1}{T} + \frac{\Delta^\ddagger U^\circ}{RT^2}$$

- Additionally, since

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta^\ddagger H^\circ &= \Delta^\ddagger U^\circ + \Delta^\ddagger PV = \Delta^\ddagger U^\circ + RT\Delta^\ddagger n = \Delta^\ddagger U^\circ - RT \\ \Delta^\ddagger H^\circ + RT &= \Delta^\ddagger U^\circ\end{aligned}$$

we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d \ln k}{dT} &= \frac{RT}{RT^2} + \frac{\Delta^\ddagger H^\circ + RT}{RT^2} \\ &= \frac{\Delta^\ddagger H^\circ + 2RT}{RT^2}\end{aligned}$$

- Therefore, we have by direct comparison with the Arrhenius equation that

$$E_a = \Delta^\ddagger H^\circ + 2RT$$

- Substituting this result into the form of $k(T)$ containing $\Delta^\ddagger H^\circ$ yields

$$\begin{aligned}k(T) &= \frac{k_B T}{hc^\circ} e^{\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ / R} e^{-\Delta^\ddagger H^\circ / RT} \\ &= \frac{k_B T}{hc^\circ} e^{\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ / R} e^{-E_a / RT} e^{2RT / RT} \\ &= \frac{e^2 k_B T}{hc^\circ} e^{\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ / R} e^{-E_a / RT}\end{aligned}$$

- Once again, we have by direct comparison with the Arrhenius equation that

$$A = \frac{e^2 k_B T}{hc^\circ} e^{\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ / R}$$

- ν_c : The frequency with which the activated complex crosses over the barrier top.
- m^\ddagger : The mass of the activated complex.
- q_{int}^\ddagger : The partition function accounting for all the remaining degrees of freedom of the activated complex.
- $\langle u_{ac} \rangle$: The average speed with which the activated complex crosses the barrier. *Given by*

$$\langle u_{ac} \rangle = \nu_c \delta = \sqrt{\frac{k_B T}{2\pi m^\ddagger}}$$

- The latter expression is derived using the one-dimensional Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution (a 1D molecular velocity component Gaussian distribution), which applies since “we have assumed that the reactants and activated complex are in equilibrium” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1167).

$$\begin{aligned}\langle u_{ac} \rangle &= \int_0^\infty u f(u) du \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{m^\ddagger}{2\pi k_B T}} \int_0^\infty u e^{-m^\ddagger u^2 / 2k_B T} du \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{k_B T}{2\pi m^\ddagger}}\end{aligned}$$

- We integrate over only the positive values because we are only interested in the particles traveling over the activation barrier in the forward direction.

- **K^\ddagger :** The “equilibrium constant” for the formation of the transition state from the reactants, but the motion along the reaction coordinate excluded in q_{int}^\ddagger . *Given by*

$$K^\ddagger = \frac{(q_{\text{int}}^\ddagger/V)c^\circ}{(q_A/V)(q_B/V)}$$

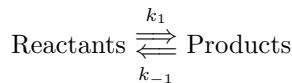
- **Standard Gibbs energy of activation:** The change in Gibbs energy in going from the reactants at a concentration c° to the transition state at a concentration c° . *Denoted by $\Delta^\ddagger G^\circ$.*
- **Standard enthalpy of activation:** The change in enthalpy in going from the reactants at a concentration c° to the transition state at a concentration c° . *Denoted by $\Delta^\ddagger H^\circ$.*
- **Standard entropy of activation:** The change in entropy in going from the reactants at a concentration c° to the transition state at a concentration c° . *Denoted by $\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ$.*
 - Values of $\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ$ give information about the relative structures of the activated complex and the reactants.
 - For example, if the activated complex is less ordered than the reactants, then $\Delta^\ddagger S^\circ = +$, and vice versa if the activated complex is more ordered than the reactants.
- **$\Delta^\ddagger n$:** The change in the number of molecules from the reactants to the transition state.
 - $\Delta^\ddagger n = 0$ for a unimolecular reaction (here both the reactants and transition state consist of one molecule).
 - $\Delta^\ddagger n = -1$ for a bimolecular reaction (here the reactants consist of two molecules while the transition state consists of one molecule).
 - $\Delta^\ddagger n = -2$ for a termolecular reaction (here the reactants consist of three molecules while the transition state consists of one molecule).

4.6 Chapter 29: Chemical Kinetics II — Reaction Mechanisms

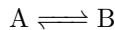
From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

- Goals for this chapter.
 - Consider how reactants are converted to products.
 - Discuss commonly encountered **mechanisms**.
 - Derive the rate law for a **complex reaction** using a mechanism and several approximations.
 - Cover the mechanisms of **unimolecular** reactions and **chain reactions**.
 - Explore chemical and biochemical/enzymatic catalysis.
- **Elementary reaction:** A chemical reaction that occurs in a single step and does not involve any intermediates.
 - The rate law of an elementary reaction can be determined from the reaction stoichiometry.
- **Complex reaction:** A reaction that does not occur in a single step.
- **Mechanism:** The sequence of elementary reactions by which a complex reaction occurs.
- Notation.
 - “The arrows \Rightarrow and \Leftarrow will be used to indicate reactions currently thought to be elementary” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1182).
 - “The arrows \rightarrow and \leftarrow will be used to indicate complex reactions” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1182).

- Note that we commonly convey doubt with respect to whether or not a certain reaction is elementary because only a few have been studied in sufficient depth to confirm that they are elementary.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) defines **molecularity** as well as **unimolecular**, **bimolecular**, and **termolecular** elementary reactions.
- Although we previously learned that rate laws can only be determined experimentally, the rate law of an *elementary* reaction can be deduced from the balanced chemical equation itself.
 - Indeed, because an elementary reaction does not involve the formation of intermediates, the products must be formed directly from the reactants.
 - Thus, the rate law for a unimolecular reaction, for instance, is first order in the reactant.
 - For bimolecular reactions, we may recall that the collision frequency between reactants in an ideal gas Z_{AB} is proportional to their number densities (or concentrations). This combined with the fact that “to have a collision and also not form any reaction intermediates, an elementary reaction must be one in which all the reactants collide simultaneously, with the reaction occurring immediately upon this collision” tells us that a bimolecular reaction is first order in each reactant and second order overall (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1182).
 - Termolecular reactions are similar to bimolecular reactions, with $v = k[A][B][C]$.
- If we are asked to deduce the rate law for a reaction denoted by a single arrow, answer that this is not an elementary reaction and thus we need experimental data.
- **Reversible elementary reaction:** A reaction that occurs in both the forward and reverse directions to a significant extent and that is elementary in each direction. *Denoted by*



- Does the principle of microscopic reversibility imply that all reactions that are elementary in one direction are elementary in the others?
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) derives and defines the **principle of detailed balance**.
- An example of using the principle of detailed balance in the analysis of a complex reaction.
 - Suppose the reaction



proceeds via the following mechanism, which consists of two competing steps.



- Note that although the right step above is of an identical form to the overall complex reaction, the overall reaction is not elementary because there are two pathways (the two above) by which the reaction can occur. In general, an overall reaction may not be elementary even though an elementary reaction equivalent to it can be one of the pathways.
- According to the principle of detailed balance, when the overall reaction is at equilibrium, each step must be, too. Thus, at equilibrium,

$$v_1 = v_{-1}$$

$$v_2 = v_{-2}$$

- Consequently, since

$$\begin{aligned} v_1 &= k_1[A]_{\text{eq}}[C]_{\text{eq}} & v_2 &= k_2[B]_{\text{eq}} \\ v_{-1} &= k_{-1}[B]_{\text{eq}}[C]_{\text{eq}} & v_{-2} &= k_{-2}[B]_{\text{eq}} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$K_c = \frac{([B]_{\text{eq}}/c^\circ)}{([A]_{\text{eq}}/c^\circ)} = \frac{[B]_{\text{eq}}}{[A]_{\text{eq}}}$$

we have that

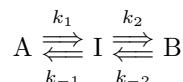
$$\begin{aligned} k_1[A]_{\text{eq}}[C]_{\text{eq}} &= k_{-1}[B]_{\text{eq}}[C]_{\text{eq}} & k_2[A]_{\text{eq}} &= k_{-2}[B]_{\text{eq}} \\ \frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} &= \frac{[B]_{\text{eq}}[C]_{\text{eq}}}{[A]_{\text{eq}}[C]_{\text{eq}}} & \frac{k_2}{k_{-2}} &= \frac{[B]_{\text{eq}}}{[A]_{\text{eq}}} \\ &= \frac{[B]_{\text{eq}}}{[A]_{\text{eq}}} & &= K_c \\ &= K_c \end{aligned}$$

- It follows by transitivity that

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{k_2}{k_{-2}}$$

i.e., that the four rate constants are not independent of one another.

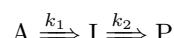
- Note that we can also derive $K_c = k_1/k_{-1}$ via the above relation between the rate constants and the alternate equilibrium condition $v_1 + v_2 = v_{-1} + v_{-2}$.
- When a general reaction is the *sum* of two reversible elementary reactions, its equilibrium constant is the *product* of the equilibrium constants of the elementary reactions.
 - In particular, for a reaction of the form



where K_c describes the overall equilibrium (i.e., that between A and B), $K_{c,1}$ describes the equilibrium between A and I, and $K_{c,2}$ describes the equilibrium between I and B, we have that

$$K_c = K_{c,1}K_{c,2}$$

- The rate laws for the mechanism $A \xrightleftharpoons{k_1} I \xrightleftharpoons{k_2} P$ constitute a system of **coupled differential equations** that can be solved analytically, as in class and in Problem 29-5 of PSet 3.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) discusses distinguishing the two-step consecutive reaction mechanism unambiguously from the one-step reaction.
 - Take-away: “The observation of identical rate constants for the decay of the reactant and the growth of the product does not necessarily mean that no chemical intermediates arise along the reaction path,” as this could simply be a case of $k_2 \gg k_1$ (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1189).
- **Rate-determining step:** The one step in a reaction mechanism, if it exists, that is much slower than any of the other steps. *Also known as RDS.*
 - Acting as a bottleneck, the RDS effectively controls the overall reaction rate.
- Consider the reaction mechanism



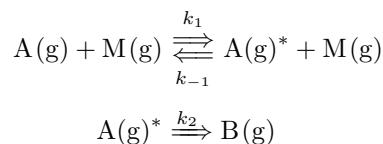
- **Steady-state approximation:** The approximation that $d[I]/dt = 0$ in the above mechanism. *Also known as SS approximation.*
 - The steady-state approximation becomes better as k_2 becomes larger relative to k_1 .
 - This is because when $k_1 \gg k_2$, I builds up really quickly and then decomposes. When $k_2 \gg k_1$, however, I decomposes as fast as it can be produced, keeping I at a relatively steady, low concentration.
- Qualitatively, the SS approximation corresponds to the case that I is so reactive that $[I] \approx 0$.
- A more rigorous bound on when the steady-state approximation is good to use.
 - As in class, we can determine that

$$\frac{d[I]_{ss}}{dt} = -\frac{k_1^2}{k_2}[A]_0 e^{-k_1 t}$$

- But the SS approximation postulates that $d[I]/dt = 0$, not that $d[I]/dt$ is a time-dependent function. Thus, in order to use the steady-state approximation, we must ensure that the above expression is sufficiently close to zero.
- In particular, we want $-k_1^2[A]_0/k_2 \rightarrow 0$, i.e., we want

$$k_2 \gg k_1^2[A]_0$$

- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) goes through the decomposition of ozone example from class.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) goes through the $2\text{NO} + \text{O}_2 \longrightarrow 2\text{NO}_2$ example from class.
 - McQuarrie and Simon (1997) also shows that both mechanisms lead to the experimental rate law.
 - Two ways to capture or detect the intermediate species are by direct observation (somehow show that it exists in the reaction flask) or by introducing reagents to the reaction mixture that would selectively react with NO_3 (for instance) to form a stable product that can be isolated and characterized.
 - Note also that here once again, we have a rate law that would fit if the reaction were elementary overall, but we know that the reaction is *not* elementary overall.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) discusses the $\text{CH}_3\text{NC} \longrightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{CN}$ example as an intro to the **Lindemann mechanism**.
 - Note that another troubling observation is that the activation energies of “unimolecular” reactions can be quite large compared with $k_B T$. Thus, we need to identify the external energy source.
- **Lindemann mechanism:** A “unimolecular” reaction mechanism that predicts first-order kinetics at high concentration and second-order kinetics at low concentration. *Given by*



- The key proposition inherent in this mechanism is that the external energy source is another molecule/collision partner.
- Another postulate is that there must be a time lag between the collision (or energizing step) and the ensuing reaction; during this lag, the energized molecule could undergo a deactivating bimolecular collision.

- **A(g)*:** An energized reactant molecule.
- **M(g):** The collision partner.
 - The collision partner can be a second reactant molecule, a product molecule, or a nonreactive buffer gas such as N₂ or Ar.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) does the Lindemann mechanism analysis.
 - Note that the reason we initially compare $k_1[M][A^*]$ and $k_2[A^*]$ is because at high concentrations, we expect $v_{-1} \gg v_2$.
- Relating the observed activation energy and Arrhenius pre-exponential factor to those for the individual elementary steps involved in the Lindemann mechanism.
 - We have from our Lindemann mechanism analysis that

$$k_{\text{obs}} = \frac{k_1 k_2}{k_{-1}}$$

- We also have that

$$k_{\text{obs}} = A_{\text{obs}} e^{-E_{a,\text{obs}}/RT} \quad k_1 = A_1 e^{-E_{a,1}/RT} \quad k_{-1} = A_{-1} e^{-E_{a,-1}/RT} \quad k_2 = A_2 e^{-E_{a,2}/RT}$$

- It follows by combining substituting the four equations above into the first equation that

$$E_{a,\text{obs}} = E_{a,1} + E_{a,2} - E_{a,-1} \quad A_{\text{obs}} = \frac{A_1 A_2}{A_{-1}}$$

- Thus, the measured values of E_a and A do not correspond to a single step, but rather are influenced by every step.

- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) does the H₂ + Br₂ ⇌ 2 HBr chain reaction analysis.
 - Note that by the experimentally determined rate law, the accumulation of HBr slows the mechanism down.
 - We can ignore the fifth step because it is massively endothermic.

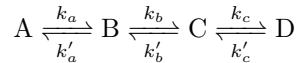
Week 5

Catalysis

5.1 Midterm Review and Intro to Catalysts

- 4/27: • Example problem 1: Steady-state approximation.

– Let



Suppose $[A]$ is maintained at a fixed value and the product D is removed from the reaction as it is formed. Find the rate at which the product is formed in terms of $[A]$.

- By hypothesis, we have that at all times t , $[A] = [A]_0$ and $[D] = 0$.
- The hypotheses also imply that we can apply the steady-state approximation to both B and C .
- Thus, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d[C]}{dt} &= 0 = k_b[B] - k_c[C] - k'_b[C] \\ [B] &= \frac{k'_b + k_c}{k_b}[C]\end{aligned}$$

so that

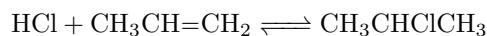
$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d[B]}{dt} &= k_a[A] - k_b[B] - k'_a[B] + k'_b[C] \\ 0 &= k_a[A] - k_b \cdot \frac{k'_b + k_c}{k_b}[C] - k'_a \cdot \frac{k'_b + k_c}{k_b}[C] + k'_b[C] \\ [C] &= \frac{k_a k_b}{k_b k_c + k'_a k'_b + k'_a k_c}[A]\end{aligned}$$

and therefore

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d[D]}{dt} &= k_c[C] - k'_c \cdot 0 \\ &= \frac{k_a k_b k_c}{k_b k_c + k'_a k'_b + k'_a k_c}[A]\end{aligned}$$

- Example problem 2.

– Consider the reaction



which proceeds by the mechanism

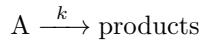
1. $\text{HCl} + \text{HCl} \rightleftharpoons (\text{HCl})_2$ (equilibrium constant K_1).
 2. $\text{HCl} + \text{CH}_3\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2 \rightleftharpoons$ complex (equilibrium constant K_2).
 3. $(\text{HCl})_2 + \text{complex} \rightleftharpoons \text{CH}_3\text{CHClCH}_3 + \text{HCl} + \text{HCl}$ (equilibrium constant K_3).
- The equilibrium constants for the two pre-equilibria are

$$K_1 = \frac{[(\text{HCl})_2]_{\text{eq}} c^\circ}{[\text{HCl}]_{\text{eq}}^2} \quad K_2 = \frac{[\text{complex}]_{\text{eq}} c^\circ}{[\text{HCl}]_{\text{eq}} [\text{CH}_3\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2]_{\text{eq}}}$$

- We can divide the mass-action expression for K_1 by $(c^\circ)^2$ to get each concentration over c° within its exponent.
- The rate of product formation is

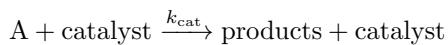
$$\begin{aligned} v &= \frac{d[\text{CH}_3\text{CHClCH}_3]}{dt} \\ &= k_r [(\text{HCl})_2][\text{complex}] \\ &\approx k_r [(\text{HCl})_2]_{\text{eq}} [\text{complex}]_{\text{eq}} \\ &= k_r \cdot \frac{K_1 [\text{HCl}]_{\text{eq}}^2}{c^\circ} \cdot \frac{K_2 [\text{HCl}]_{\text{eq}} [\text{CH}_3\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2]_{\text{eq}}}{c^\circ} \\ &= \frac{k_r K_1 K_2}{(c^\circ)^2} [\text{HCl}]_{\text{eq}}^3 [\text{CH}_3\text{CH}=\text{CH}_2]_{\text{eq}} \end{aligned}$$

- There's a key assumption with the steady state and something about being able to apply the equilibrium concentration of the intermediate as the steady-state quantity.
- This question wants to let you know that an equilibrium constant like K_1 might indicate a steady-state approximation.
- Note: Mind the positive and negative signs when constructing differential rate laws!
- The midterm will be posted this Friday (April 29) and will be available until the following Friday (May 6). There will be a timed 2 hour period to take it.
- **Catalyst:** A substance that participates in the chemical reaction but is not consumed in the process.
 - A catalyst affects the mechanism and activation energy of a chemical reaction.
 - A catalyst can give rise to a reaction path with a negligible activation barrier.
 - The exothermicity or endothermicity of the chemical reaction is not altered by the presence of a catalyst.
- **Homogeneous catalysis:** Catalysis in which the catalyst is in the same phase as the reactants and products.
- **Heterogeneous catalysis:** Catalysis in which the catalyst is in a different phase from the reactants and products.
- Imagine that initially, we have the reaction



where k is the observed rate constant.

- When a catalyst is introduced into solution, this mechanism continues, but we now also have the new reaction pathway

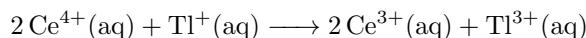


- If each of these competing reactions is an elementary process, then

$$-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = k[A] + k_{\text{cat}}[A][\text{catalyst}]$$

- In most cases, catalysts enhance reaction rates by many orders of magnitude, and therefore only the rate law for the catalyzed reaction need be considered in analyzing experimental data.

- Reviews the Nobel Prizes in 2020 and 2021 (for CRISPR and asymmetric organocatalysis, respectively).
- An example of homogeneous catalysis.
 - Consider the reaction

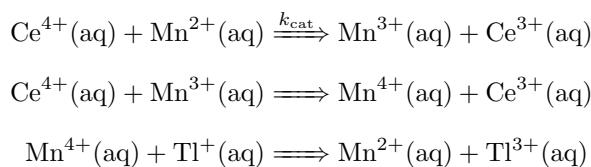


- In the absence of a catalyst,

$$v = k[\text{Tl}^+][\text{Ce}^{4+}]^2$$

and the mechanism is a termolecular elementary reaction.

- However, with Mn^{2+} as the catalyst, we have the mechanism



where the step with k_{cat} is the rate-determining step.

- Thus, for this mechanism, we have that

$$v = k_{\text{cat}}[\text{Ce}^{4+}][\text{Mn}^{2+}]$$

- The overall rate law for this reaction is therefore

$$v = k[\text{Tl}^+][\text{Ce}^{4+}]^2 + k_{\text{cat}}[\text{Ce}^{4+}][\text{Mn}^{2+}]$$

5.2 Enzymatic Catalysis

4/27:

- Midterm questions:
 - First 10 are T/F. He will test key concepts by making statements that are either true or false.
 - We should expect to spend no more than 30 minutes out of our 2 hours on these.
 - 4 calculation problems.
 - First- and second-order reactions.
 - Collisions.
 - A reaction mechanism problem.
 - Use calculators, do online searches, and use the textbook.
 - Do not talk to your classmates.
 - The midterm will become available Friday at noon.
- **Enzyme:** A protein molecule that catalyzes a specific biochemical reaction.
 - For example, hexokinase converts glucose and ATP to glucose 6-phosphate, ADP, and H^+ .
- **Substrate:** The reactant molecule acted upon by an enzyme.

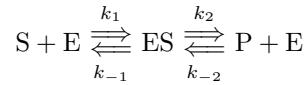
- **Active site:** The region of the enzyme where the substrate reacts.
- **Lock-and-key model:** The active site and substrate have complementary three-dimensional structures and dock without the need for major atomic rearrangements.
- **Induced fit model:** Binding of the substrate induces a conformation change in the active site. The substrate fits well in the active site after the conformational change has taken place.
- The Michaelis-Menten mechanism is a reaction mechanism for enzyme catalysis.
- Intuition.
 - Imagine we have a solution of enzymes and substrate molecules.
 - Limiting factors of an enzymatically catalyzed reaction.
 - The enzyme-substrate affinity.
 - The turnover number.
 - If the substrate concentration is low (i.e., $[S]_0 \ll [E]_0$) and the enzyme-substrate affinity is strong (but not so strong that the enzyme-substrate complex is energetically favorable), then we expect $v_{\text{initial}} \propto [S]_0$ because we'd think that all of the substrate will immediately be absorbed and transformed.
 - If the substrate concentration is large (i.e., $[S]_0 \gg [E]_0$) and the enzyme-substrate affinity is strong, then we expect $v_{\text{initial}} \propto [E]_0$ and, importantly, $v_{\text{initial}} \not\propto [S]_0$.

- Mathematical derivation.

- Experimental studies reveal that the rate law for many enzyme-catalyzed reactions has the form

$$-\frac{d[S]}{dt} = \frac{k[S]}{K_m + [S]}$$

- This is the final goal of the derivation.
- The mechanism is



- Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{d[S]}{dt} &= k_1[E][S] - k_{-1}[ES] \\ -\frac{d[ES]}{dt} &= (k_2 + k_{-1})[ES] - k_1[E][S] - k_{-2}[E][P] \\ \frac{d[P]}{dt} &= k_2[ES] - k_{-1}[E][P] \end{aligned}$$

- Note that

$$[E]_0 = [ES] + [E]$$

- Plugging that equation into the rate law for the enzyme-substrate complex and applying the steady-state approximation yields

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{d[ES]}{dt} &= 0 = [ES](k_1[S] + k_{-1} + k_2 + k_{-2}[P]) - k_1[S][E]_0 - k_{-2}[P][E]_0 \\ [ES] &= \frac{k_1[S] + k_{-2}[P]}{k_1[S] + k_{-2}[P] + k_{-1} + k_2} [E]_0 \end{aligned}$$

- Substituting this and the original expression for $[E]_0$ into the rate law for the substrate yields

$$v = -\frac{d[S]}{dt} = \frac{k_1 k_2 [S] + k_{-1} k_{-2} [P]}{k_1 [S] + k_{-2} [P] + k_{-1} + k_2} [E]_0$$

- If the experimental measurements of the reaction rate are taken during the time period when only a small percentage (1-3%) of the substrate is converted to product, then

$$[S] \approx [S]_0$$

and

$$[P] \approx 0$$

- Using this approximation simplifies the above rate law to

$$v = -\frac{d[S]}{dt} = \frac{k_1 k_2 [S]_0 [E]_0}{k_1 [S]_0 + k_{-1} + k_2} = \frac{k_2 [S]_0 [E]_0}{K_m + [S]_0}$$

where $K_m = (k_{-1} + k_2)/k_1$ is the **Michaelis constant**.

- The Michaelis constant tells you the ratio of dissociation of the enzyme-substrate complex to the formation of the enzyme-substrate complex. In other words, it provides information on the enzyme-substrate affinity.
- Note that k_{-2} is not present in the denominator of the Michaelis constant because for a good enzyme, k_{-2} should be very small.
- The unit of K_m should be concentration.
- When $K_m = [S]_0$, $v = v_{\max}/2$
- An enzyme-catalyzed reaction is first order in the substrate at low substrate concentrations ($K_m \gg [S]_0$) and then becomes zero order in the substrate at high substrate concentrations ($K_m \ll [S]_0$).
- Thus, at low substrate concentrations, the above equation holds, but at high substrate concentrations,

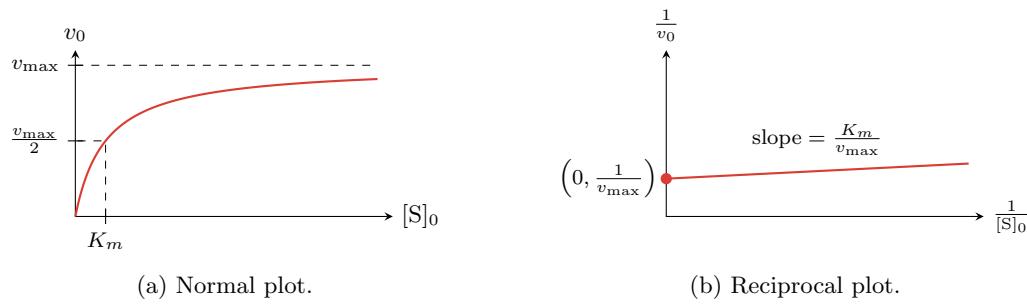
$$-\frac{d[S]}{dt} = k_2 [E]_0 \quad v_{\max} = k_2 [E]_0$$

resulting in the **Lineweaver-Burk plot**, canonically represented by the second of the two equivalent forms below.

$$v = \frac{v_{\max}}{1 + K_m/[S]_0} \quad \frac{1}{v} = \frac{1}{v_{\max}} + \frac{K_m}{v_{\max}} \frac{1}{[S]_0}$$

5.3 Measuring Catalytic Efficiency and Correcting Collision Theory

- 4/29:
- Everything on the midterm comes from Tian's lecture notes. Thus, he recommends we go through them before taking the midterm.
 - The T/F will be 20-30% of the grade.
 - There will be some integration on the calculation problems, but they'll be pretty easy. All formulas that will appear have been covered in class.
 - The midterm will cover up to Monday's class (this week).
 - Consider the substrate concentration $[S]_0$ vs. the initial rate v_0 .
 - Normal plot (Figure 5.1a).
 - As $[S] \rightarrow \infty$, v_0 approaches an asymptote line defined by $v_{\max} = k_2 [E]_0$.

Figure 5.1: Plotting v_0 vs. $[S]_0$.

- At the beginning (low $[S]$), the paradigm is almost linear (thus, the reaction is first order wrt. substrate concentration here).
- Note that we make use of the assumptions that $[P] \approx 0$ and $[S] \approx [S]_0$.
- Where we have $v_{\max}/2$ on the v_0 -axis, we have K_m (the Michaelis constant) on the $[S]_0$ axis.
- Reciprocal plot (Figure 5.1b).
 - Note that a plot of v_0 vs. $[S]_0$ is nonlinear but a plot of $1/v_0$ vs. $1/[S]_0$ is linear.
 - This reciprocal plot (the Lineweaver-Burk plot) gives v_{\max} (via the y -intercept) and K_m via this information and the slope.
 - Note that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{v_0} &\propto \frac{K_m}{v_{\max}} \frac{1}{[S]_0} \\ &= \frac{(k_{-1} + k_2)/k_1}{k_2[E]_0} \frac{1}{[S]_0} \\ &= \frac{k_{-1} + k_2}{k_1 k_2} \frac{1}{[E]_0 [S]_0}\end{aligned}$$

- Evaluating the performance of a catalyst.

$$\frac{k_{-1} + K_2}{k_1 k_2} = \frac{K_m}{v_{\max}} \cdot [E]_0$$

- K_m is relevant to the enzyme-substrate affinity.
- v_{\max} tells us about conversion from the ES with a focus on the second elementary step.
- An alternate form of the Lineweaver-Burk plot is

$$\frac{1}{v_0} = \frac{1}{v_{\max}} + \frac{k_2 + k_{-1}}{k_1 k_2} \frac{1}{[E]_0 [S]_0}$$

– Regrouping the terms, we have

$$\frac{1}{v_0} = \frac{1}{v_{\max}} + \frac{k_2 + k_{-1}}{k_2} \frac{1}{k_1 [S]_0 [E]_0} = \frac{1}{v_{\max}} + \frac{k_2 + k_{-1}}{k_2} \frac{1}{v_{f1}}$$

where v_{f1} is the forward reaction rate for the first elementary step.

- **Turnover number:** The number of catalytic cycles that each active site undergoes per unit time.
Given by

$$\text{TON} = \frac{v_{\max}}{n[E]_0} = \frac{k_2 [E]_0}{n [E]_0} = \frac{k_2}{n}$$

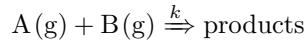
– Indicates how fast the ES complex proceeds to E + P.

– k_2/n is the number of active sites per enzyme.

- **Catalytic efficiency:** The following quantity. *Given by*

$$\frac{\text{TON}}{K_m}$$

- Consider the reaction



– The rate of the general bimolecular elementary gas-phase reaction is

$$v = -\frac{d[\text{A}]}{dt} = k[\text{A}][\text{B}]$$

– Using the naïve assumption that every collision between the hard spheres A and B yields products,

$$v = Z_{\text{AB}} = \sigma_{\text{AB}} \langle u_r \rangle \rho_A \rho_B$$

– Moreover,

$$k = \sigma_{\text{AB}} \langle u_r \rangle$$

– Unfortunately, this is not accurate. We make our first improvement to collision theory by taking into account the dependence of the reaction rate on the relative speed, or energy, of the collision. Thus, we average over all possible collision speeds.

$$k = \int_0^\infty du_r f(u_r) k(u_r) = \int_0^\infty du_r u_r f(u_r) \sigma_r(u_r)$$

– Since $f(u_r)$ is the distribution of relative speeds in the gas sample, we have that

$$u_r f(u_r) du_r = \left(\frac{\mu}{k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{2}{\pi} \right)^{1/2} u_r^3 e^{-\mu u_r^2 / 2k_B T} du_r$$

– To compare this with the traditional Arrhenius form of k , we need to change the dependent variable from u_r to E , which we can do via

$$E_r = \frac{1}{2} \mu u_r^2 \quad u_r = \sqrt{\frac{2E_r}{\mu}} \quad du_r = \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\mu E_r}} dE_r \quad E_a = k_B T^2 \frac{d \ln k}{dT}$$

5.4 Office Hours (Tian)

- Can Problem 28-46 be done purely with integrated forms of the Arrhenius equation?
 - We can use either case depending on how the question was asked, and often it's an instance of which would be easier to use. We should always think both ways.
- Ask about the Problem 29-24 derivation from class final steps as well as molecularity.
 - You have a 2 and a squared. The exponent comes from the fact that it's bimolecular. The coefficient comes from the fact that we're talking about the rate of change of that substance.
 - In particular, if $2 \text{C} \xrightarrow{k_1} \text{D}$, then

$$v = k_1 [\text{C}]^2$$

- But recall that v is the *rate of reaction*, a specifically defined quantity. Indeed, we know that

$$\begin{aligned} v &= -\frac{1}{\nu_C} \frac{d[C]}{dt} = \frac{1}{\nu_D} \frac{d[D]}{dt} \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d[C]}{dt} = \frac{1}{1} \frac{d[D]}{dt} \end{aligned}$$

so that this step's contribution to $d[C]/dt$ is

$$\begin{aligned} -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d[C]}{dt} &= k_1 [C]^2 \\ \frac{d[C]}{dt} &= -2k_1 [C]^2 \end{aligned}$$

- Eyring equation and thermodynamics questions: So what we need to know and be able to work with are the Eyring equation and you said “the dimensional analysis?” I’m still unclear on what $\langle u_{ac} \rangle$ and ν_c are.
 - ν_c is frequency. Its units are reciprocal seconds. It’s 1 over the time it takes to cross the barrier. Length divided by time gives the rate of crossing the barrier. And rate depends on reaction coordinate.
 - This is very hard to visualize along a typical, complicated reaction coordinate. However, if we think about an S_N2 for instance, we can picture δ as some tolerance around the equatorial ligands being perfectly coplanar with the central atom, $1/\nu_c$ as the time from when the molecules begin reacting (nucleophilic attack) to when the leaving group has fully left, and thus $\langle u_{ac} \rangle$ as the average speed with which the activated complex crosses the barrier top, i.e., is formed, moved, and dissociates.
 - The conclusion is more important than the derivation. There’s a lot of assumptions that are not as relevant to the eventual result. The conclusion being that we can express the pre-exponential factor can be expressed in terms of molecular quantities from statistical mechanics.
 - TST is imperfect; some textbooks use P° instead of c° since this is a gas-phase reaction.
 - $\Delta^\ddagger PV = \Delta^\ddagger nRT$ hails from the ideal gas law. $\Delta^\ddagger n$ is the change in the number of molecules from the reactants to the activated complex (which is always unimolecular!). $1 - \Delta n$ = molecularity. We need $\Delta^\ddagger U^\circ$. To get an expression for it, we invoke enthalpy (H) which brings in the change in PV going to the transition state, which is related to the change in the number of moles of gas!
- What does the double vs. single arrow signify?
 - Elementary reactions vs. reactions that might not be.
- The differences between $F(u)$, $f(u_x)$, and $h(u)$.
 - $f(u_x)$ is the Gaussian distribution of velocity components.
 - $F(u)$ is the M-B distribution.
 - $h(u_x, u_y, u_z)$ is the product $f(u_x)f(u_y)f(u_z)$ and describes the fraction of molecules not just moving linearly in one dimension or the other, but in any direction. Graphically, we’d need four dimensions, but we can visualize it either as equipotential 2-spheres or, using the color model in 3D, as intensity getting brighter with a Gaussian distribution cubed as you approach the origin.
- Midterm stuff.
 - The midterm will have two problems on rate laws (one of which might concern the Eyring equation), one mechanism question (how the approximations provided lead into the final rate law), and one collision theory question (the original collision theory stuff, not the more recent stuff).

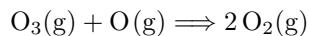
- For each T/F problem, there will be two sentences. You need to identify all of the mistakes in the sentences. Answer if it's true or false, and explain. One point for T/F; two points for your explanation. If the sentence is true, a few words might be helpful, too.
- We'll need to show some decent steps to recreate the work. Clear doubt from the TA's mind.
- If there is a mistake in a problem, just do your best to solve it and flag it for him.
- Fast equilibrium vs. steady state?
 - Detailed balance only applies to elementary steps?

5.5 Chapter 29: Chemical Kinetics II — Reaction Mechanisms

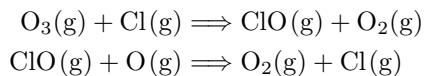
From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

- 5/1:
- Methods of increasing the rate of reaction.
 1. Increase the temperature.
 - Drawback: Reactions in solution are constrained to the temperature range between the melting and boiling point of the solvent.
 2. Enable the reaction to proceed by an alternate mechanism having a lower activation energy.
 - **Catalyst:** A substance that participates in a chemical reaction but is not consumed in the process.
 - By participating, a catalyst provides an alternate mechanism.
 - The trick is to construct this alternate mechanism such that it has a lower activation barrier.
 - McQuarrie and Simon (1997) defines **homogeneous** and **heterogeneous** catalysis.
 - Because a catalyst is not consumed or otherwise chemically altered (in a net sense), the thermodynamics of the reaction do not change when one is present.
 - The exponential form of the Arrhenius equation implies that even small changes in activation energy can lead to substantial changes in reaction rate.
 - Note that since a catalyzed reaction has multiple mechanisms, we say it proceeds along reaction *coordinates*, plural.
 - McQuarrie and Simon (1997) derives the rate law for a unimolecular uncatalyzed, bimolecular catalyzed reaction.
 - McQuarrie and Simon (1997) gives the ionic homogeneous catalysis example.
 - An example of heterogeneous catalysis.
 - Consider the reaction
$$3 \text{H}_2(\text{g}) + \text{N}_2(\text{g}) \longrightarrow 2 \text{NH}_3(\text{g})$$
 - The activation barrier is roughly 940 kJ/mol.
 - In the presence of an iron surface, however, the activation barrier drops over an order of magnitude to 80 kJ/mol.
 - The mechanism will be discussed in depth in Chapter 31, along with other heterogeneous surface-catalyzed gas-phase reactions.
 - An example where both types of catalysis play a role.
 - Consider the destruction of ozone in the stratosphere.

- Naturally, this reaction occurs via



- In the presence of chlorine atoms, however, the following mechanism becomes available.



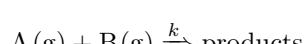
- This is an example of homogeneous catalysis.
 - Over time, however, chlorine atoms get bound up in the reservoir molecules $\text{HCl}(\text{g})$ and $\text{ClONO}_2(\text{g})$.
 - Nevertheless, the surface of polar stratospheric clouds catalyzes the reaction between these two molecules to liberate a molecule of diatomic chlorine gas (which can then be homolytically dissociated by sunlight to regenerate the gaseous monoatomic chlorine catalyst) and a molecule of $\text{HNO}_3(\text{g})$.
 - Since the surface of the clouds are of a different phase from the gas, this is an example of heterogeneous catalysis.
 - McQuarrie and Simon (1997) defines **enzymes**, **substrates**, and **active sites**.
 - **Michaelis-Menten mechanism:** A simple mechanism that accounts for the rate law commonly observed for enzyme-catalyzed reactions. *Given by*
- $$\text{E} + \text{S} \xrightleftharpoons[k_{-1}]{k_1} \text{ES} \xrightleftharpoons[k_{-2}]{k_2} \text{E} + \text{P}$$
- Proposed by Leonor Michaelis and Maude Menten in 1913.
 - This reaction sees an initial buildup period of ES , followed by a period during which $[\text{ES}]$ is relatively constant. Thus, we may apply the SS approximation to it.
 - High substrate concentrations in the Michaelis-Menten mechanism.
 - At high substrate concentrations, essentially all of the enzymes are tied up with substrate, so adding more substrate doesn't do anything and the reaction is zero-order in substrate concentration.
 - Assuming that all enzyme is tied up in substrate means that $[\text{ES}] \approx [\text{E}]_0$ and the rate of SM consumption is essentially equal to the rate of product formation, which is just proportional to the dissociation of the reacted enzyme-substrate complex. Mathematically,
- $$\begin{aligned}-\frac{d[\text{S}]}{dt} &= k_2[\text{E}]_0 \\ v_{\max} &= k_2[\text{E}]_0\end{aligned}$$
- Note that we introduce the v_{\max} terminology because it is under these conditions (excess substrate) that the reaction rate is at its maximum.
 - **Turnover number:** The maximum rate divided by the concentration of enzyme active sites.
 - By definition, the turnover is the maximum number of substrate molecules that can be converted into product molecules per unit time by an enzyme molecule.
 - Note that the concentration of enzyme *active sites* is not necessarily equal to $[\text{E}]$ because some enzymes have more than one active site.
 - For an enzyme having only one active site, the turnover number is given by $v_{\max}/[\text{E}]_0 = k_2$.

5.6 Chapter 30: Gas-Phase Reaction Dynamics

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

5/18:

- Goals of the chapter.
 - Describe bimolecular gas-phase reactions, some of the simplest naturally occurring elementary kinetic processes.
 - Analyze the reaction $\text{F(g)} + \text{D}_2\text{(g)} \Rightarrow \text{DF(g)} + \text{D(g)}$, an exothermic cousin of the hydrogen exchange reaction $\text{H}_A + \text{H}_B - \text{H}_C \Rightarrow \text{H}_A - \text{H}_B + \text{H}_C$.
- Naïve hard-sphere collision theory.
 - Consider the following general bimolecular elementary gas-phase reaction.



- The rate of reaction is given by

$$v = -\frac{d[\text{A}]}{dt} = k[\text{A}][\text{B}]$$

- Recall that when we derived this equation in Chapter 29, we assumed that every collision between molecules of A and B is chemically active and thus related the rate of reaction to the collision frequency per unit volume Z_{AB} via

$$v = Z_{AB} = \sigma_{AB} \langle u_r \rangle \rho_A \rho_B$$

where σ_{AB} is the hard-sphere collision cross section of A and B molecules (see Figure 2.1), $\langle u_r \rangle$ is the average relative speed of a colliding pair of A and B molecules, and ρ_A, ρ_B are the respective number densities.

- Note that $\sigma_{AB} = \pi d_{AB}^2$ where d_{AB} is the sum of the radii of the two colliding spheres.
- Since we are assuming that every collision is successful, we have that every one of the Z_{AB} collisions happening every second in every cubic meter of volume consumes a reactant molecule. In other words, Z_{AB} gives the change in molecular concentration of A per unit time, so the statement $v = -d[\text{A}]/dt = Z_{AB}$ is justified.
- Identifying $[\text{A}] \sim \rho_A$ and $[\text{B}] \sim \rho_B$ gives the rate constant as

$$k = \sigma_{AB} \langle u_r \rangle$$

- To convert k from the standard SI units of $\text{m}^3 \text{molecule}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$ to the more conventional units of $\text{dm}^3 \text{mol}^{-1} \text{s}^{-1}$, we can multiply the above expression by $(1000 \text{ dm}^3 \text{ m}^{-3})(N_A \text{ mol}^{-1})$.
- Problems with naïve hard-sphere collision theory.
 - The calculated rate constants are often significantly larger than experimental rate constants.
 - Since $\langle u_r \rangle \propto T^{1/2}$, it predicts $k \propto T^{1/2}$ instead of the experimental Arrhenius dependence of $k \propto e^{E_a/T}$.
- Two underlying assumptions of naïve hard-sphere collision theory.
 - Each pair of reactants approaches one another with a relative speed of $\langle u_r \rangle$.
 - Reality: Pairs of reactant molecules approach each other with a (M-B) distribution of speeds.
 - Every collision is chemically reactive, regardless of speed or energy.
 - Reality: Since the valence electrons of the two molecules repel one another, a reaction will not occur unless the relative speed is sufficient to overcome this repulsive force.

- Developing a model of collision theory that accounts for differing speeds.
 - We consider each speed u_r with which molecules can collide to give rise to a different rate constant $k(u_r)$ and corresponding **reaction cross section** $\sigma_r(u_r)$. These quantities are related via

$$k(u_r) = u_r \sigma_r(u_r)$$

- It makes sense to continue using this relationship since $k = \sigma_{AB} \langle u_r \rangle$ relies on the assumption that all molecules travel at the same speed $\langle u_r \rangle$, and $k(u_r) = u_r \sigma_r(u_r)$ relies on the assumption that all molecules travel at the same speed u_r .
- To calculate the observed rate constant, we must average all $k(u_r)$'s over the speed distribution. We can do this with

$$k = \int_0^\infty du_r f(u_r) k(u_r) = \int_0^\infty du_r u_r f(u_r) \sigma_r(u_r)$$

- As per Chapter 27,

$$\begin{aligned} u_r f(u_r) du_r &= 4\pi \left(\frac{\mu}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} u_r^3 e^{-\mu u_r^2 / 2k_B T} du_r \\ &= \left(\frac{\mu}{k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{2}{\pi} \right)^{1/2} u_r^3 e^{-\mu u_r^2 / 2k_B T} du_r \end{aligned}$$

- We now encounter the question of what our threshold relative molecular collision speed is. In fact, we have never discussed such a quantity. However, we have spent plenty of time developing a theory of the threshold energy E_a , the Arrhenius activation energy. As such, a change of variables from speed to energy is in order. In particular, since

$$E_r = \frac{1}{2} \mu u_r^2$$

we have that

$$u_r = \left(\frac{2E_r}{\mu} \right)^{1/2} \quad du_r = \left(\frac{1}{2\mu E_r} \right)^{1/2} dE_r$$

- Making these substitutions yields

$$u_r f(u_r) du_r = \left(\frac{2}{k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{1}{\mu \pi} \right)^{1/2} E_r e^{-E_r/k_B T} dE_r$$

- We may now easily define the reaction cross section $\sigma_r(E_r)$ by the following simple model, where E_0 is the threshold energy.

$$\sigma_r(E_r) = \begin{cases} 0 & E_r < E_0 \\ \sigma_{AB} & E_r \geq E_0 \end{cases}$$

- Resubstituting into the original expression for k gives

$$\begin{aligned} k &= \left(\frac{2}{k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{1}{\mu \pi} \right)^{1/2} \int_0^\infty dE_r E_r e^{-E_r/k_B T} \sigma_r(E_r) \\ &= \left(\frac{2}{k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{1}{\mu \pi} \right)^{1/2} \int_{E_0}^\infty dE_r E_r e^{-E_r/k_B T} \sigma_{AB} \\ &= \left(\frac{8k_B T}{\mu \pi} \right)^{1/2} \sigma_{AB} e^{-E_0/k_B T} \left(1 + \frac{E_0}{k_B T} \right) \\ &= \langle u_r \rangle \sigma_{AB} e^{-E_0/k_B T} \left(1 + \frac{E_0}{k_B T} \right) \end{aligned}$$

- Using this model, if we reverse engineer E_0 from experimental data on the other parameters, we can often get an answer on the same order of magnitude as E_a !

Week 6

Enhancing Collision Theory

6.1 Threshold Energy and Line-Of-Centers Model

5/2: • Picking up from the previous lecture...

– It follows by plugging in the energy substitutions from last time that

$$u_r f(u_r) du_r = \left(\frac{2}{k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{1}{\mu \pi} \right)^{1/2} E_r e^{-E_r/k_B T} dE_r$$

– Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} k &= \int_0^\infty du_r f(u_r) k(u_r) \\ &= \left(\frac{2}{k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{1}{\mu \pi} \right)^{1/2} \int_0^\infty dE_r E_r e^{-E_r/k_B T} \sigma_r(E_r) \end{aligned}$$

– Now assume that only those collisions for which the relative kinetic energy exceeds a threshold energy E_0 result in a collision. Thus, define

$$\sigma_r(E_r) = \begin{cases} 0 & E_r < E_0 \\ \pi d_{AB}^2 & E_r \geq E_0 \end{cases}$$

– Consequently,

$$\begin{aligned} k &= \left(\frac{2}{k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{1}{\mu \pi} \right)^{1/2} \int_{E_0}^\infty dE_r E_r e^{-E_r/k_B T} \pi d_{AB}^2 \\ &= \left(\frac{8k_B T}{\mu \pi} \right)^{1/2} \pi d_{AB}^2 e^{-E_0/k_B T} \left(1 + \frac{E_0}{k_B T} \right) \\ &= \langle u_r \rangle \sigma_{AB} e^{-E_0/k_B T} \left(1 + \frac{E_0}{k_B T} \right) \end{aligned}$$

– We can use

$$E_a = k_B T^2 \frac{d \ln k}{dT}$$

to relate the above to the activation energy.

- Another simplification we've made is that the reaction cross section is not constant, but actually depends on relative speed.

- Accounting for the collision geometry between the two hard spheres gives rise to the **line-of-centers model**.
- **Line-of-centers model:** A model for $\sigma_r(E_r)$ in which the cross section depends on the component of the relative kinetic energy that lies along the line that joins the centers of the colliding molecules.

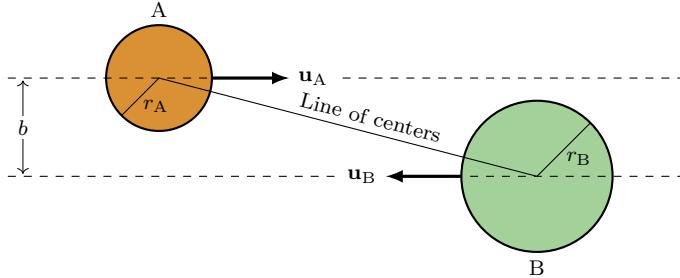


Figure 6.1: Line-of-centers model.

- If we denote the relative kinetic energy along the line of centers by E_{loc} , then we are assuming that a reaction occurs when $E_{\text{loc}} > E_0$.
- The main thrust of this model is that we are redefining E_r instead of $\sigma_r(E_r)$ overall.
- The line-of-centers model asserts that two molecules will collide only if the **impact parameter** is less than the sum of the radii of the colliding molecules.
 - In particular, we (re)define
$$\sigma_r(E_r) = \begin{cases} 0 & E_r < E_0 \\ \pi d_{AB}^2 \left(1 - \frac{E_0}{E_r}\right) & E_r \geq E_0 \end{cases}$$
 - It follows from math similar to the above that
$$\begin{aligned} k &= \left(\frac{2}{k_B T}\right)^{3/2} \left(\frac{1}{\mu \pi}\right)^{1/2} \int_0^\infty dE_r E_r e^{-E_r/k_B T} \sigma_r(E_r) \\ &= \left(\frac{8k_B T}{\mu \pi}\right)^{1/2} \pi d_{AB}^2 e^{-E_0/k_B T} \\ &= \langle u_r \rangle \sigma_{AB} e^{-E_0/k_B T} \end{aligned}$$
- **Impact parameter:** The perpendicular distance between the two dashed lines in Figure 6.1. Denoted by b .
- The cross section exhibits a threshold energy.
 - The dependence of the reaction cross section on the relative kinetic energy of the collision is consistent with the line-of-centers model.
- Relating E_0 to the Arrhenius equation parameters.
 - For the activation energy E_a , we have

$$\begin{aligned} E_a &= k_B T^2 \frac{d \ln k}{dT} \\ &= k_B T^2 \frac{d}{dT} \left\{ \ln \left[\left(\frac{8k_B T}{\mu \pi} \right)^{1/2} \pi d_{AB}^2 \right] - \frac{E_0}{k_B T} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= k_B T^2 \frac{d}{dT} \left\{ \ln T^{1/2} - \frac{E_0}{k_B T} + \text{terms not involving } T \right\} \\
 &= E_0 + \frac{1}{2} k_B T
 \end{aligned}$$

- Tian wants us to memorize the last line above.
- Considering the line-of-centers collision model and the Arrhenius equation yields

$$A = \langle u_r \rangle \sigma_{AB} e^{1/2}$$

- Tian goes through a practice problem.

6.2 Isotropy, Internal Energy, and Center of Mass Assumptions

- 5/4: • Doing away with the assumption that the spheres are isotropic.

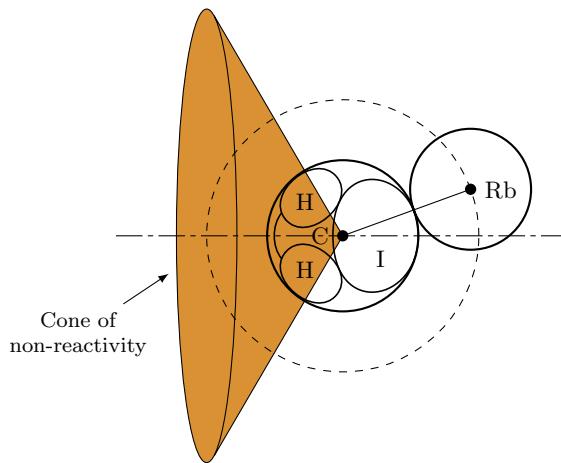
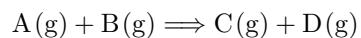


Figure 6.2: Molecules are not isotropic.

- Consider the reaction

$$\text{Rb(g)} + \text{CH}_3\text{I(g)} \rightarrow \text{RbI(g)} + \text{CH}_3\text{(g)}$$
- The rubidium atom must collide with the iodomethane in the vicinity of the iodine atom for a reaction to occur.
- Indeed, many molecules have a **cone of non-reactivity**.
- Additionally, the internal energy of the reactants can affect the cross section of a reaction.
 - Consider the reaction

$$\text{H}_2^+(g) + \text{He(g)} \rightarrow \text{HeH}^+(g) + \text{H(g)}$$
 - As the reactant molecule H_2^+ passes through different vibrational states, its reaction cross section changes.
 - We only need to understand that other types of energy can have an effect qualitatively; we do not need to work with the shape of the curves quantitatively.
- A reactive collision can be described in a center-of-mass coordinate system.
 - Consider the collision and subsequent scattering process for the bimolecular reaction



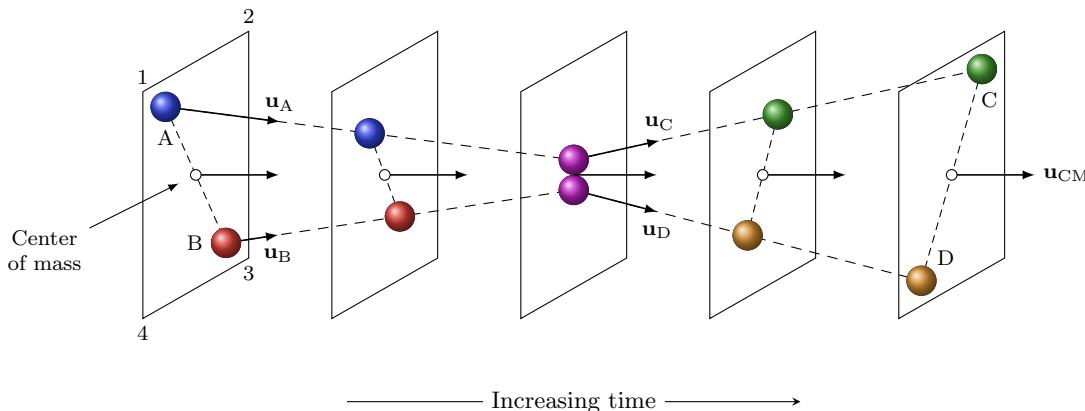


Figure 6.3: Center-of-mass coordinate system.

- Before the collision, A and B are traveling with velocities \mathbf{u}_A and \mathbf{u}_B , respectively.
- The collision generates molecules C and D, which then move away from each other with velocities \mathbf{u}_C and \mathbf{u}_D , respectively.
- \mathbf{R} , the location of the center of mass, is given by

$$\mathbf{R} = \frac{m_A \mathbf{r}_A + m_B \mathbf{r}_B}{M} \quad M = m_A + m_B$$

- The velocity \mathbf{u}_{cm} of the center of mass is the time derivative of the position vector. Therefore, it is given by

$$\mathbf{u}_{cm} = \frac{m_A \mathbf{u}_A + m_B \mathbf{u}_B}{M}$$

- We assume that this is an elastic collision (thus, energy is conserved).
- The total kinetic energy is given by

$$KE_{react} = \frac{1}{2} m_A u_A^2 + \frac{1}{2} m_B u_B^2$$

- Combining the fact that the relative speed of the two molecules^[1] is given by $\mathbf{u}_r = \mathbf{u}_A - \mathbf{u}_B$ with the definition of \mathbf{u}_{cm} yields

$$\mathbf{u}_A = \mathbf{u}_{cm} + \frac{m_B}{M} \mathbf{u}_r \quad \mathbf{u}_B = \mathbf{u}_{cm} - \frac{m_A}{M} \mathbf{u}_r$$

- Note that the change in plus to minus sign between the two above forms hails from our definition of relative speed as A minus B and not the other way around (as we could also very well define it). In other words, it's just a convention thing, and all that matters is that we're consistent.

- It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} KE_{react} &= \frac{m_A}{2} \left(\mathbf{u}_{cm} + \frac{m_B}{M} \mathbf{u}_r \right)^2 + \frac{m_B}{2} \left(\mathbf{u}_{cm} - \frac{m_A}{M} \mathbf{u}_r \right)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} M u_{cm}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \mu u_r^2 \end{aligned}$$

- Thus, the kinetic energy is composed of two contributions: one due to the motion of the center of mass, and one due to the relative motion of the two colliding molecules.

¹In particular, the speed of molecule A relative to molecule B, as it is defined.

- We can do a similar analysis for the products to determine that

$$\text{KE}_{\text{prod}} = \frac{1}{2}Mu_{\text{cm}}^2 + \frac{1}{2}\mu'u'^2$$

- Note that momentum is conserved, i.e.,

$$m_A \mathbf{u}_A + m_B \mathbf{u}_B = m_C \mathbf{u}_C + m_D \mathbf{u}_D$$

- This implies that \mathbf{u}_{cm} does not change from reactants to products.
- The energy associated with the motion of the center of mass is therefore constant, and we will ignore its constant contribution to the total kinetic energy.

$$E_{\text{react,int}} + \frac{1}{2}\mu u_r^2 = E_{\text{prod,int}} + \frac{1}{2}\mu' u'_r^2$$

- $E_{\text{react,int}}$ and $E_{\text{prod,int}}$ are the total internal energies of the reactants and products, respectively.
- This internal energy takes into account all the degrees of freedom other than translation.

6.3 Experimental Techniques and the Simplest Reaction

- 5/6: • Reactive collisions can be studied using crossed molecular beam machines.

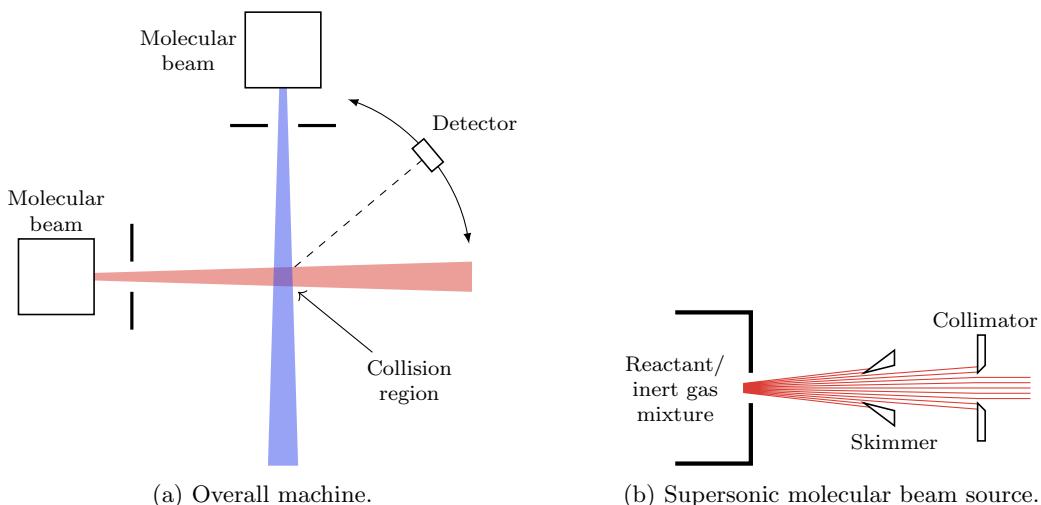


Figure 6.4: Crossed molecular beam machines.

- Figure 6.4a depicts the overall setup in a crossed molecular beam machine. Each reactant is introduced into the vacuum chamber by a molecular beam source. The two molecular beams collide at the collision region.
- Figure 6.4b depicts a supersonic molecular beam source. The reactant is expanded along with an inert gas through a small orifice into the vacuum chamber. A skimmer is used so that a collimated beam of molecules is directed toward the collision region.
- The product molecules are detected using a mass spectrometer.
- A supersonic molecular beam has several important advantages that make it ideal for crossed-beam studies.
 - The supersonic expansion generates a collection of molecules with a high translational energy but a very small spread in molecular speeds.

- In addition, molecules can be prepared with low rotational and vibrational energies.
- If we measure the number of molecules of a particular reaction product that arrive at the detector as a function of time after the collision, we can resolve the velocity distribution of the product molecules.
- If we measure the total number of product molecules as a function of scattering angle, we can determine the angular distribution of the product molecules.
- The reaction

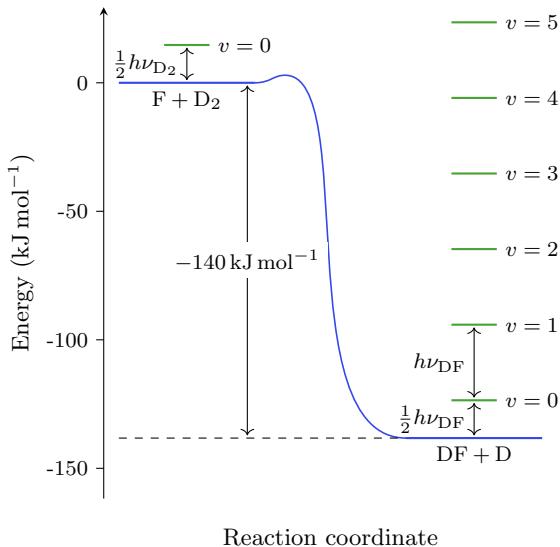
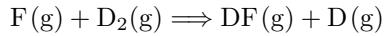


Figure 6.5: Energy diagram for $\text{F} + \text{D}_2$.

- Figure 6.5 depicts the energy of the lowest vibrational state of D_2 and the energies of the first six vibrational states of DF.
 - In drawing these energy states, we have tacitly assumed that the vibrational motion of both D_2 and DF is harmonic.
- The difference between the ground electronic state energies of D_2 and DF is

$$D_e(\text{D}_2) - D_e(\text{DF}) = -140 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

- The reaction has an activation energy barrier of about 7 kJ mol^{-1} .
- Moreover, we have that

$$E_{\text{tot}} = E_{\text{trans}} + E_{\text{int}} = E'_{\text{trans}} + E'_{\text{int}}$$

where E_{int} is the internal energy of the reactants, E_{trans} is the relative translational energy of the reactants, E'_{int} is the internal energy of the products, and E'_{trans} is the relative translational energy of the products.

- Additionally, note that

$$E_{\text{int}} = E_{\text{rot}} + E_{\text{vib}} + E_{\text{elec}}$$

$$E'_{\text{int}} = E'_{\text{rot}} + E'_{\text{vib}} + E'_{\text{elec}}$$

i.e., that $E_{\text{int}}, E'_{\text{int}}$ are the sum of the rotational, vibrational, and electronic energies of the reactants and products, respectively.

- Lastly, note that $E_{\text{elec}} = -D_e(\text{D}_2)$ and $E'_{\text{elec}} = -D_e(\text{DF})$.

6.4 Chapter 30: Gas-Phase Reaction Dynamics

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

- 5/18: • An underlying assumption of the step model for $\sigma_r(E_r)$.

- All molecular collisions with relative energy E_r yield the same reaction cross section.
- Reality: Not all molecular collisions are head-on; some are more grazing. In a head-on collision, the molecules come to a stop and, in principle, all the relative kinetic energy becomes available for reaction. In contrast, a grazing collision provides almost no energy for reaction.

- **Line-of-centers model** (for $\sigma_r(E_r)$): A model in which the reaction cross section depends on the component of the relative kinetic energy that lies along the line that joins the centers of the colliding molecules. *Given by*

$$\sigma_r(E_r) = \begin{cases} 0 & E_r < E_0 \\ \sigma_{AB} \left(1 - \frac{E_0}{E_r}\right) & E_r \geq E_0 \end{cases}$$

- Derivation of the line-of-centers model.

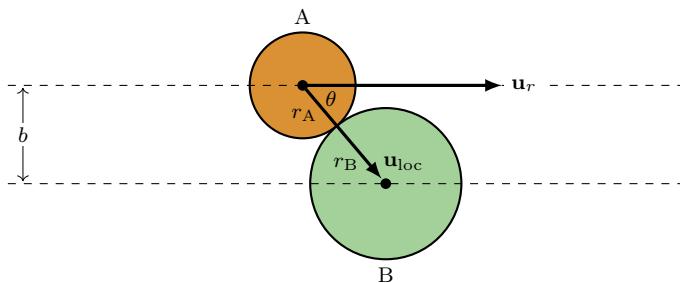


Figure 6.6: Line-of-centers model derivation.

- Qualitative observations and definitions.

- From the reference frame of molecule B, molecule A approaches with relative speed $\mathbf{u}_r = \mathbf{u}_A - \mathbf{u}_B$ and relative kinetic energy $E_r = \mu u_r^2 / 2$.
- Applying the line-of-centers coordinate system, molecule A approaches molecule B along the loc (line of centers) axis with speed \mathbf{u}_{loc} .
- They will collide if the **impact parameter** b is less than the sum of the two radii $r_A + r_B = d_{AB}$.
- The impact parameter determines the energy of the collision on a scale of zero to E_r . In particular, if $b = 0$, then $E_{loc} = E_r$, and if $b \geq d_{AB}$, $E_{loc} = 0$, where E_{loc} denotes the relative kinetic energy along the line of centers.
- Naturally, a reaction will occur iff $E_{loc} \geq E_0$.
- Mathematical derivation (Fogler & Gürmen, 2008).

- We have from basic trigonometry that

$$\cos \theta = \frac{u_{loc}}{u_r} \quad \sin \theta = \frac{b}{d_{AB}}$$

- Thus, we know that

$$u_{loc}^2 = u_r^2 \cos^2 \theta = u_r^2 (1 - \sin^2 \theta) = u_r^2 \left[1 - \left(\frac{b}{d_{AB}} \right)^2 \right]$$

and hence

$$E_{loc} = \frac{1}{2} \mu u_{loc}^2 = \frac{1}{2} \mu u_r^2 \left[1 - \left(\frac{b}{d_{AB}} \right)^2 \right] = E_r \left[1 - \left(\frac{b}{d_{AB}} \right)^2 \right]$$

- Now recall that a chemical reaction only takes place if $E_{\text{loc}} \geq E_0$. By the above, an equivalent requirement for a chemical reaction to take place is that

$$\begin{aligned} E_r \left[1 - \left(\frac{b}{d_{AB}} \right)^2 \right] &\geq E_0 \\ \left(\frac{b}{d_{AB}} \right)^2 &\leq 1 - \frac{E_0}{E_r} \\ \left| \frac{b}{d_{AB}} \right| &\leq \sqrt{1 - \frac{E_0}{E_r}} \\ |b| &\leq d_{AB} \sqrt{1 - \frac{E_0}{E_r}} \end{aligned}$$

i.e., that the impact parameter lie within some range, specifically one whose width is determined by the total energy of the reactants E_r and is at most d_{AB} (in the case of infinite reactant energy).

- It is this observation that motivates our definition of the **reaction diameter**. The physical meaning of this quantity is analogous to that of the collision diameter: Whereas the collision diameter defined a cylinder in which other molecules had to lie to *collide* with one molecule in particular (see Figure 2.1), the reaction diameter defines a cylinder (the **reaction cylinder**) in which other molecules must lie to *react* with one molecule in particular.
- One consequence of this physical interpretation is that $\sigma_r(E_r) = \pi b_{\text{crit}}^2$, i.e., that the reaction cross section is a perpendicular cross section of the reaction cylinder in much the same way that the collision cross section is a perpendicular cross section of the collision cylinder.
- Another consequence is that two molecules with impact parameter equal to b_{crit} will have *just enough* energy to react, and no more. In other words, they will possess exactly E_0 units of energy. Mathematically,

$$E_0 = E_r \left[1 - \left(\frac{b_{\text{crit}}}{d_{AB}} \right)^2 \right]$$

- Solving the above for b_{crit}^2 and substituting into the definition of $\sigma_r(E_r)$ in terms of b_{crit} yields

$$\sigma_r(E_r) = \pi d_{AB}^2 \left(1 - \frac{E_0}{E_r} \right) = \sigma_{AB} \left(1 - \frac{E_0}{E_r} \right)$$

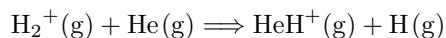
for the case where $E_r \geq E_0$, as desired. We will naturally still take $\sigma_r(E_r) = 0$ when $E_r < E_0$.

- Impact parameter:** The perpendicular distance between the paths along which the two molecules travel. *Denoted by b .*
- Reaction diameter:** The largest value of the impact parameter at which two molecules of combined energy E_r will still react. *Denoted by b_{crit} . Also known as critical impact parameter.*
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) gives an example of a bimolecular gas phase reaction for which the relationship between the reaction cross section and the the collision energy is as described by the line-of-centers model.
- Substituting the reaction cross section as defined by the line-of-centers model into the integral defining k yields

$$k = \langle u_r \rangle \sigma_{AB} e^{-E_0/k_B T}$$

- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) relates E_0 to the Arrhenius equation parameters as in class.
- Upon reviewing experimentally determined collision cross section functions for a number of reactions, we can conclude that even the line-of-centers model is insufficient, and we need to move beyond simple hard-sphere collision theories.

- An underlying assumption of all hard-sphere models.
 - Every collision with sufficient energy is reactive, regardless of orientation.
 - Reality: A specific orientation of components is typically required for molecules that are not spherically symmetric.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) discusses the $\text{Rb(g)} + \text{CH}_3\text{I(g)}$ reaction from class and Figure 6.2.
- An underlying assumption of all hard-sphere models.
 - Only the translational energy of reacting molecules affects the reaction cross section.
 - Reality: The presence or lack thereof of internal energy, as well as how it's distributed between the rotational, vibrational, and electronic states, plays an integral role in determining the reaction cross section. Additionally, internal energy changes can occur during the course of a reaction.
- An analysis of the following reaction with the hydrogen molecular ion in different vibrational states.

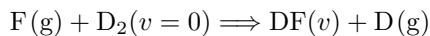


- For the vibrational states $v = 0, \dots, 3$, there is a threshold energy of about 70 kJ mol^{-1} .
- For vibrational states $v = 4, 5$, there is no threshold energy.
- This is because these higher vibrational states can lend more than the threshold energy worth of energy to the reaction, so no supplementary translational motion is needed.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) discusses the center-of-mass coordinate system.
 - The energy and momentum conservation laws allow us to define the velocity of the products.
 - They do not, however, allow us to define the angle at which the products scatter.
 - We will soon see that the scattering angles are often highly **anisotropic**.
- **Anisotropic** (entity): An object or substance the properties of which vary by the direction in which they're measured.
- **Crossed molecular beam method**: An experimental setup designed to cross a beam of A molecules with a beam of B molecules at a specific location inside a large vacuum chamber before detecting the product molecules with a mass spectrometer.
 - “In some crossed molecular beam machines, the detector can be rotated in the plane defined by the two molecular beams, thereby allowing the measurement of the angular distribution of the scattered products” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1244).
 - “A supersonic molecular beam can be generated by taking a high-pressure, dilute mixture of the reactant molecule of interest in an inert carrier gas (He and Ne are commonly used) and pulsing the mixture through a small nozzle into the vacuum chamber” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1244).
- Crossed molecular beam experiments can be used to measure reaction cross sections: We alter the relative velocities (and hence collision energies) of the reactants and record the product yield.

5/19:

- **Potential energy diagram**: A diagram that indicates how the potential energy changes as the reaction proceeds along the reaction coordinate.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) discusses the potential energy diagram for the $\text{F} + \text{D}_2$ reaction (Figure 6.5).
 - Using the conservation of energy, we can calculate that $v \leq 4$ for the product DF.
 - Additionally, we can experimentally measure the vibrational state of DF because molecules with a higher vibrational state must have more of their energy internal instead of as translational, meaning that they move slower.

- Example: Consider the reaction



where the relative translational energy of the reactants is 7.62 kJ mol^{-1} . Assume the reactants and products are in their ground electronic [$D_e(\text{D}_2) - D_e(\text{DF}) = -140 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$] and rotational states. Treat the vibrational motion of D_2 and DF as harmonic with $\tilde{\nu}_{\text{D}_2} = 2990 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $\tilde{\nu}_{\text{DF}} = 2907 \text{ cm}^{-1}$. Determine the range of possible vibrational states of the product.

- We apply conservation of energy.

$$\begin{aligned} E_{\text{reactants}} &= E_{\text{products}} \\ E_{\text{trans}} + E_{\text{vib}} + E_{\text{elec}} &= E'_{\text{trans}} + E'_{\text{vib}} + E'_{\text{elec}} \\ E_{\text{trans}} + E_{\text{vib}} - D_e(\text{D}_2) &= E'_{\text{trans}} + E'_{\text{vib}} - D_e(\text{DF}) \end{aligned}$$

- We are given in the problem statement that $E_{\text{trans}} = 7.62 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$, $E_{\text{vib}} = \frac{1}{2}h\nu_{\text{D}_2}$ ($v = 0$ for D_2), and $D_e(\text{D}_2) - D_e(\text{DF}) = -140 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$. Moreover, since

$$\nu_{\text{D}_2} = \frac{c}{\lambda} = \frac{c}{1/\tilde{\nu}} = \frac{2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1}}{1/2.99 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^{-1}} = 8.96 \times 10^{13} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

we have that

$$E_{\text{vib}} = \frac{1}{2}h\nu_{\text{D}_2} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1 \text{ kJ}}{10^3 \text{ J}} \right) (N_A \text{ mol}^{-1})(6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js})(8.96 \times 10^{13} \text{ s}^{-1}) = 17.9 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

- Thus, we know that

$$\begin{aligned} E'_{\text{vib}} &= E_{\text{trans}} + E_{\text{vib}} - [D_e(\text{D}_2) - D_e(\text{DF})] - E'_{\text{trans}} \\ &= 7.62 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} + 17.9 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} + 140 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} - E'_{\text{trans}} \\ &= 166 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} - E'_{\text{trans}} \end{aligned}$$

- Since $E'_{\text{trans}} \geq 0$, we must have $E'_{\text{vib}} \leq 166 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$. This combined with the fact that

$$E'_{\text{vib}} = \left(v + \frac{1}{2} \right) h\nu_{\text{DF}} = \left(v + \frac{1}{2} \right) (34.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1})$$

reveals that $v \leq 4$, where $h\nu_{\text{DF}}$ is evaluated analogously to how we computed $h\nu_{\text{D}_2}$.

- Note that this result is in agreement with Figure 6.5.

Week 7

Gas-Phase Product Molecule Analysis and Intro to Lattices

7.1 Directional Scattering of the Product Molecule

5/9:

- The velocity and angular distribution of the products of a reactive collision.

– We have that

$$\begin{aligned} E'_{\text{trans}} + E'_{\text{vib}} &= E_{\text{trans}} + E_{\text{vib}} - [D_e(\text{D}_2) - D_e(\text{DF})] \\ &= 7.62 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} + 17.9 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} + 140 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \\ &= 166 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

– Additionally, we know that

$$E'_{\text{trans}} + E'_{\text{vib}} = \frac{1}{2}\mu'u_r'^2 + (34.8 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1})\left(v + \frac{1}{2}\right) = 166 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$$

– The relationship between the vibrational quantum number, the relative speed of the products, and the speed of DF relative to the center of mass has been tabulated.

- A contour map of the angular and speed distributions for the product molecule.

– The contour plot.

- The center of mass is fixed at the origin.
- The dashed circles correspond to the maximum relative speeds a DF molecule can have for the indicated vibrational state.
- The product molecules preferentially scatter back in the direction of the incident fluorine atom, a scattering angle of $\theta = 180^\circ$.
- The arrows at the bottom of the figure show the direction with which each reactant molecule approaches the other.
- Another picture is provided, illustrating the atom-molecule reaction $\text{F} + \text{D}_2$ in which $\theta = 0^\circ$ and $\theta = 180^\circ$.
- The influence of rotation.
 - Large numbers of product molecules have speeds between the dashed circles.
 - The dash circles correspond to the case where there is internal energy only in the vibrational states of the molecule, in which case the rotational energy corresponding to these circles is $E_{\text{rot}} = 0$ with $J = 0$.

- If DF is produced in an excited rotational state, we would expect to observe a speed that has a value intermediate between two fo the dashed circles.
- Not all gas-phase chemical reactions are rebound reactions.
 - Consider the reaction

$$\text{K(g)} + \text{I}_2(\text{g}) \longrightarrow \text{KI(g)} + \text{I(g)}$$
 - The product diatomic molecule in this case (KI) is preferentially scattered in the forward direction along the direction of the incident K atom.
 - Consider the reaction

$$\text{O(g)} + \text{Br}_2(\text{g}) \longrightarrow \text{BrO(g)} + \text{Br(g)}$$
 - The product molecule BrO is forward and back scattered with equal intensity.
 - Both of these observations can be read off of the contour maps of the two reactions.

7.2 Potential Energy Surfaces

- 5/11: • The velocity and angular distribution of the products of a reactive collision.

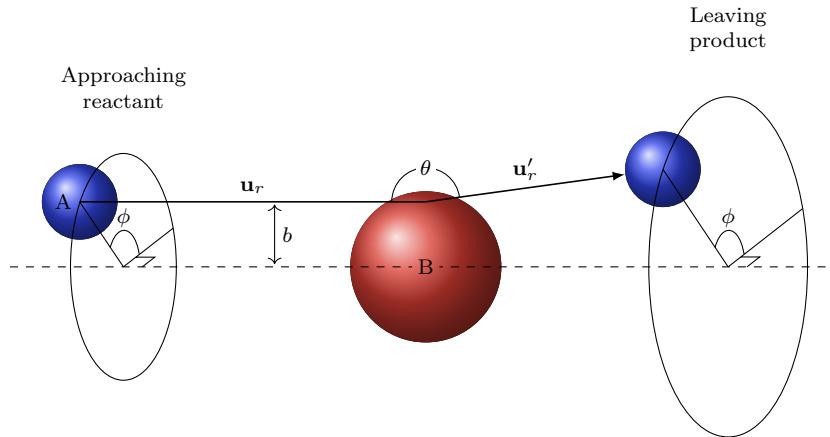


Figure 7.1: Velocity and angular distributions of the products.

- For a fixed value of the impact parameter b , the reactants and products take on all possible angles ϕ with equal probability, thereby forming a cone around the relative velocity vector \mathbf{u}_r .
- The angle θ , however, depends on the dynamics of the reaction and must be determined experimentally.
- The potential energy of a polyatomic molecule depends on more than one variable.
 - D_2 .
 - Consider the potential energy curve of D_2 . The zero of energy is defined to be that of the two separated atoms. The minimum of the potential energy curve corresponds to the equilibrium bond length of the D_2 molecule.
 - H_2O .
 - The potential energy of a water molecule is a function of the three parameters $r_{\text{O}-\text{H}_A}$, $r_{\text{O}-\text{H}_B}$, and α (two bond lengths and the interbond angle). In an equation,

$$V = V(r_{\text{O}-\text{H}_A}, r_{\text{O}-\text{H}_B}, \alpha)$$

- A plot of the complete potential energy surface of a water molecule therefore requires four axes.
 - The potential energy of a chemical reaction depends on more than one variable.

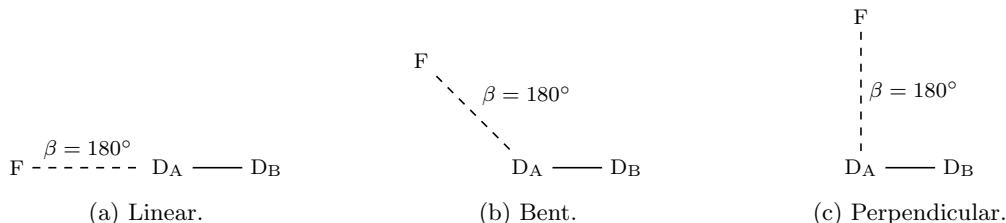
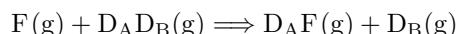


Figure 7.2: Angle of attack in $F + D_2$.

- Consider, once again, the reaction



- When the reactants are at infinite separation, there are no attractive or repulsive forces between the fluorine atom and the D₂ molecule, so the potential energy surface for the reaction is the same as that for an isolated D₂ molecule.
 - Likewise, when the products are at infinite separation, the potential-energy surface for the reaction is the same as the for the isolated DF molecule.
 - As the reaction occurs, however, the distance between the fluoroine atom and D_A decreases and the distance between D_A and D_B increases, and the potential energy depends on both distances.
 - The potential energy also depends on the angle at which the F atom approaches the D₂ molecule.
 - As with the angular and speed distributions, we can draw an energy contour map for the reaction.
 - The zero of energy is defined as the infinitely separated reactants. Point B is the location of the transition state of the reaction.
 - Tian does a brief summary of Chapter 30.

7.3 Lattice Structure

5/13:

- The unit cell is the fundamental building block of a crystal.
 - We can think of a crystal as a two- or three-dimensional lattice.
 - Either way, we can identify blocks in the lattice that form a regularly repeating structure.
 - **Face-centered cubic** (unit cell): The following unit cell. *Also known as FCC, cubic close-packing. Structure*

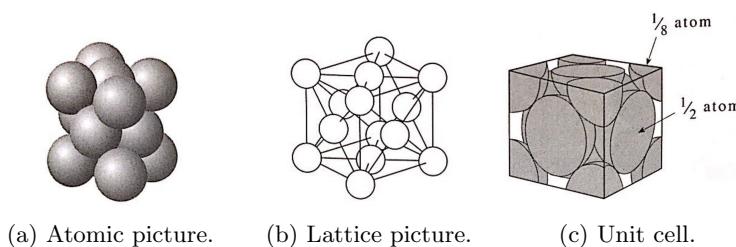


Figure 7.3: Face-centered cubic unit cell.

- Figure 7.3a shows the set of atoms that contribute to a unit cell of the crystal. The unit cell, itself, is a cube however (see Figure 7.3c).
- Figure 7.3b shows the unit cell for a three-dimensional lattice model of copper, where each point of the crystal is associated with a lattice point.
- Figure 7.3c shows the fractions of each copper atom shown in Figure 7.3a that contribute to the unit cell of the crystal.
- There are four atoms per unit cell (six half-atoms and eight eighth-atoms).
- Example: The packing of copper atoms in a copper crystal gives a face-centered cubic unit cell.

• **Body-centered cubic (unit cell):** The following unit cell. *Also known as BCC. Structure*

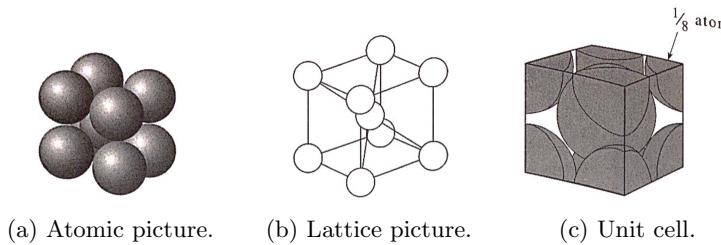


Figure 7.4: Body-centered cubic unit cell.

- There are two atoms per unit cell.
- Example: The packing of potassium atoms in a crystal.

• **Primitive cubic (unit cell):** The following unit cell. *Also known as simple cubic. Structure*

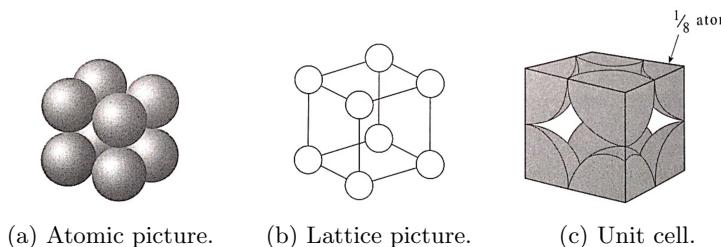


Figure 7.5: Body-centered cubic unit cell.

- There is one atom per unit cell.
- Example: The packing of polonium atoms in a crystal.

• **Unit cell:** The simplest repeating unit in the crystal. *Structure*

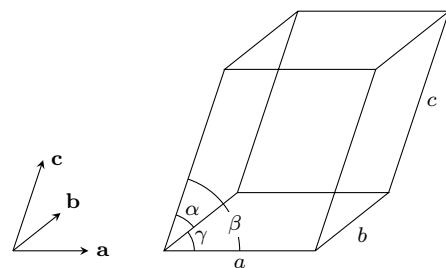


Figure 7.6: Unit cell.

- Opposite faces of a unit cell are parallel.
- The edge of the unit cell connects equivalent points.
- Unit cells all have the same general shape.
 - We take the bottom left corner of the unit cell to be the origin of the **a**, **b**, **c** coordinate system.
 - The unit cell is defined by the distances a , b , and c (which give its length along the **a**, **b**, and **c** axes, respectively) and the angles α , β , and γ (which lie between the three pairs of axes).
- Note that henceforth unless stated otherwise, the **a** axis points to the right, the **b** axis points back, and the **c** axis points up, as in Figure 7.6.
- Tian gives examples of unit cells for crystals containing more than one atom as well as what kinds of crystals take these structures.
- **Bravais lattices:** The fourteen distinct unit cells necessary to generate all possible crystal lattices.
 - The French physicist August Bravais proved that only the Bravais lattices are needed to generate all possible structures.
- We can interpret the points in the unit cell as atoms or molecules. For example, crystalline C_{60} forms a face-centered cubic unit cell.
- **Miller indices:** The three indices that we use to specify parallel planes through a crystal lattice. *Denoted by h , k , l . Given by*

$$h = \frac{a}{a'} \quad k = \frac{b}{b'} \quad l = \frac{c}{c'}$$

where the plane in question intersects the **a**, **b**, and **c** axes of the unit cell at points a' , b' , and c' , respectively.

- Three basic types of planes.

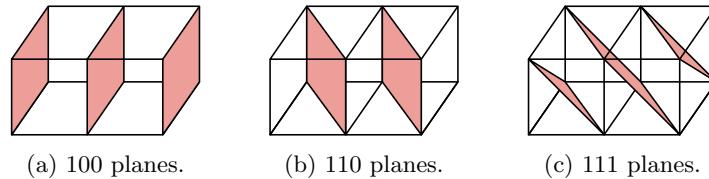


Figure 7.7: Basic lattice planes.

- Why are they called as such? Esp. where are the zeros coming from?
- Denoting more complicated types of planes.

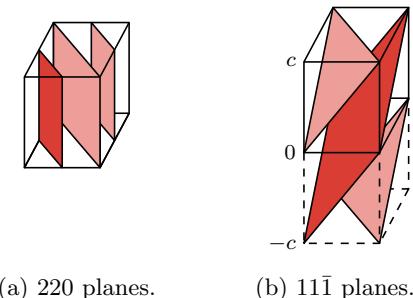


Figure 7.8: More complicated lattice planes.

- In Figure 7.8a, we denote by 220 the darkened plane and implicitly identify planes that are stacked twice as close together as in Figure 7.7b.
 - Note that $h = a/a' = a/(a/2) = 2$ and $k = b/b' = b/(b/2)$ is where the twos are coming from.
- In Figure 7.8b, we denote by 11 $\bar{1}$ the darkened plane. The $\bar{1}$ denotes a Miller index of *negative* one, corresponding to $c' = -c$ (notice how the darkened plane does not intersect the **c** axis within the unit cell, but rather extends down to the axis' negative region).
- The lattice plane spacing can be determined.

- The perpendicular distance between adjacent hkl planes for an orthorhombic unit cell.

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{h^2}{a^2} + \frac{k^2}{b^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$$

- For a cubic unit cell,

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{h^2 + k^2 + l^2}{a^2}$$

- For a tetragonal unit cell,

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{h^2 + k^2}{a^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$$

- For a hexagonal unit cell,

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{4}{3} \left(\frac{h^2 + hk + k^2}{a^2} \right) + \frac{l^2}{c^2}$$

- For a rhombohedral unit cell,

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{(h^2 + k^2 + l^2) \sin^2 \alpha + 2(hk + kl + hl)(\cos^2 \alpha - \cos \alpha)}{a^2(1 - 3 \cos^2 \alpha + 2 \cos^3 \alpha)}$$

- For a monoclinic unit cell,

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{1}{\sin^2 \beta} \left(\frac{h^2}{a^2} + \frac{k^2 \sin^2 \beta}{b^2} + \frac{l^2}{c^2} - \frac{2hl \cos \beta}{ac} \right)$$

- For a triclinic unit cell,

$$\frac{1}{d^2} = \frac{1}{V^2} (S_{11}h^2 + S_{22}k^2 + S_{33}l^2 + 2S_{12}hk + 2S_{23}kl + 2S_{13}hl)$$

where

$$S_{11} = b^2 c^2 \sin^2 \alpha$$

$$S_{12} = abc^2 (\cos \alpha \cos \beta - \cos \gamma)$$

$$S_{22} = a^2 c^2 \sin^2 \beta$$

$$S_{23} = a^2 bc (\cos \beta \cos \gamma - \cos \alpha)$$

$$S_{33} = a^2 b^2 \sin^2 \gamma$$

$$S_{13} = ab^2 c (\cos \gamma \cos \alpha - \cos \beta)$$

7.4 Chapter 30: Gas-Phase Reaction Dynamics

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

- 5/21:
- We will now build a molecular picture of the F + D₂ chemical reaction from the crossed molecular beam data. We take $E_{\text{react}} = 7.62 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ throughout the following, as per the previous example.
 - The *angle* with which the molecules reach the detector.

- As per Figure 6.3 and the associated discussion, \mathbf{u}'_{DF} and \mathbf{u}'_{D} are not independent but are related by the conservation laws for mass, momentum, and energy.
- However, even though this means that DF and D could theoretically part ways in any manner consistent with these three laws, in reality, they will go their separate ways in some directions far more often than others, as dictated by the dynamics of this particular reaction.
- Let's consider these dynamics in greater detail, as facilitated by Figure 7.1.
 - In this picture, we take as our reference frame the perspective of spherically symmetric molecule B and let A approach.
 - For b fixed, the distribution in ϕ will be cylindrically symmetric.
 - However, the angle θ will vary.

5/22:

- The *speed* at which the molecules hit the detector.

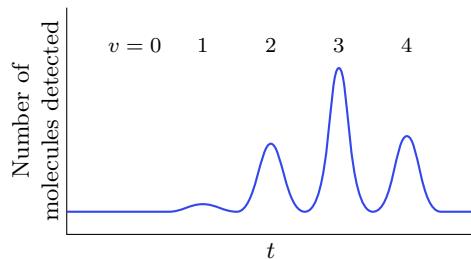
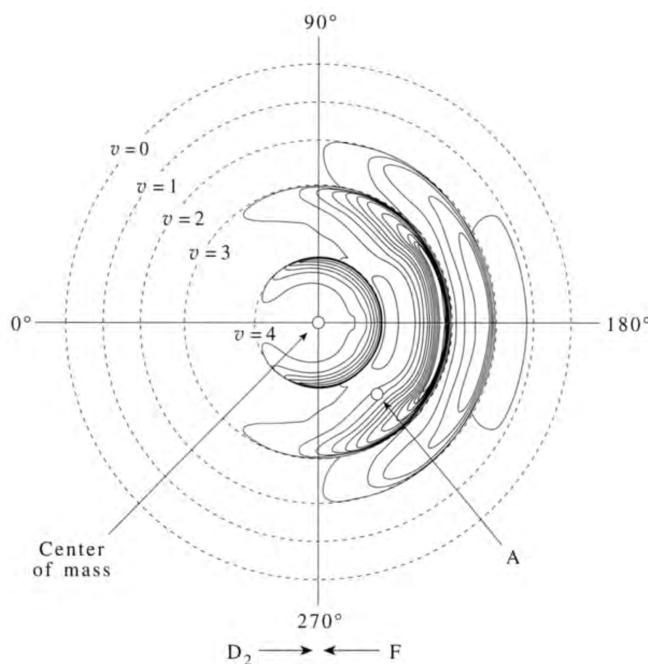


Figure 7.9: DF speed distribution.

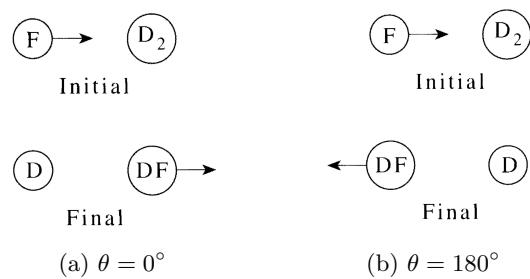
- Additionally, as per the previous example, DF can be produced in vibrational states zero through four.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) does a worked example, showing quantitatively how the speed of the DF molecule depends on its vibrational state.
- Experimentally, these results show up as separate peaks, each corresponding to a vibrational energy level, in Figure 7.9, which gives the collision frequency of DF molecules with the detector over time.
 - Notice that the molecules with the least vibrational energy have the most translational energy, and hence move the fastest and appear first.

5/24:

- We represent the distribution in angle and speed for a given reaction all at once with a 2D polar contour plot.
 - The center of mass (see Figure 6.3) sits at the center of the contour plot.
 - The arrows below the plot indicate the directions with which the reactants approached each other relative to the center of mass. In other words, the horizontal axis lies along the relative velocity vector of the reactants (see Figure 6.3).
 - The indicated angles correspond to the **scattering angle** θ (which is the complement of the angle θ from Figure 7.1).
 - The contour lines represent a constant number of DF molecules.
 - The dashed lines represent the maximum relative speed allowed for a DF molecule in a given vibrational state.
 - An increase in diameter corresponds to greater speed and lower vibration.
 - Note that all circles drawn correspond to rotational energy $E_{\text{rot}} = 0$ with $J = 0$. If a molecule is produced in a rotationally excited state, it must have a slower speed than the maximum allowed by its vibrational state. Consider a molecule located at position A in the diagram, for instance — for the molecule to have such a speed, it must either be rotationally excited, or have had more of the energy in its collision go into the translational energy of the other product (D).

Figure 7.10: Contour plot for $F + D_2$.

- **Scattering angle** (in an atom-molecule reaction): The angle between the relative velocity vector of the atomic reactant and the relative velocity vector of the product containing the formerly lone atom. Denoted by θ .
 - In $F + D_2$, the scattering angle is the change in the direction of the F -containing species. Indeed, since DF leaves the collision region in the same direction in which F entered in general, $\theta \approx 180^\circ$ in general for $F + D_2$, as is readily read from Figure 7.10.
- Further considerations of the scattering angle.

Figure 7.11: Scattering angles in the atom-molecule reaction $F + D_2$.

- Figure 7.11 shows the cases of $\theta = 0^\circ$ and $\theta = 180^\circ$ for $F + D_2$.
- Thus, the fact that DF preferentially scatters with $\theta \approx 180^\circ$ tells us that, in terms of Figure 6.3, we may have $A = F$ and $C = DF$ or vice versa so that the direction at which fluorine enters is the direction at which DF leaves; importantly, we do *not* have a case of $A = F$ and $D = DF$, in which the F -containing product leaves in the same relative direction at which the F -containing reactant entered.
- “In an atom-molecule reaction, we take $\theta = 0^\circ$ to lie along the direction defined by the trajectory of the incident atom” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1252).

- Relating Figure 7.10 to the crossed molecular beam experimental setup in Figure 6.4a.
 - In looking at Figure 7.10, imagine that we are located between the two molecular beam sources in Figure 6.4a and looking at the collision region. Let the blue molecules be D₂ and the red atoms be F (from our vantage point, this would make it look like F is coming in from the right and D₂ from the left, as in Figure 7.10). Additionally, the center of mass would not appear to be moving from our perspective because it would be moving away from us.
 - When two molecules collide, we would see (from our vantage point) molecules of DF exiting the collision region to the right more often than to the left; these molecules account for the preferential 180° scattering observed in Figure 7.10.
- Example: Determining the rotational state of point A in Figure 7.10.
 - It is determined that the DF molecule at point A has total rovibrational energy 11 493.6 cm⁻¹ and vibrational quantum number $v = 3$. Additionally, we find that

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \tilde{\nu}_e \text{ (cm}^{-1}\text{)} & \tilde{\nu}_e \tilde{x}_e \text{ (cm}^{-1}\text{)} & \tilde{B}_e \text{ (cm}^{-1}\text{)} & \tilde{\alpha}_e \text{ (cm}^{-1}\text{)} \\ \hline 2998.3 & 45.71 & 11.007 & 0.293 \end{array}$$

- From Chapter 13 and the above data, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} E_{\text{vib}}(v) &= \tilde{\nu}_e \left(v + \frac{1}{2}\right) - \tilde{\nu}_e \tilde{x}_e \left(v + \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 & E_{\text{rot}}(J, v) &= \left[\tilde{B}_e - \tilde{\alpha}_e \left(v + \frac{1}{2}\right)\right] J(J+1) \\ &= 9934.1 \text{ cm}^{-1} & &= (9.982 \text{ cm}^{-1}) J(J+1) \end{aligned}$$

- Therefore,

$$\begin{aligned} E_{\text{tot}}(J, v) &= E_{\text{vib}}(v) + E_{\text{rot}}(J, v) \\ 11\,493.6 \text{ cm}^{-1} &= 9934.1 \text{ cm}^{-1} + (9.982 \text{ cm}^{-1}) J(J+1) \\ J(J+1) &= 156 \\ J &= 12 \end{aligned}$$

as desired.

- Three important features of the F + D₂ reaction, as determined from Figure 7.10.
 1. The reaction is a **rebound reaction**.
 2. The most probable product of the reaction is DF($v = 3$).
 3. There is considerable population between the dashed circles, indicating that DF molecules are produced in a variety of rotational levels.
- **Rebound reaction:** An atom-molecule reaction in which the atom undergoes a nearly head-on collision with the molecule and then bounces backward after abstracting one of the atoms from the molecule.
- Notice that the vibrational levels are populated in a distribution consistent with Figure 7.9, not the M-B distribution.
 - This is called a **nonequilibrium product distribution**.
 - We can use the Boltzmann factor to calculate the distribution in DF vibrational states at thermal equilibrium as follows.

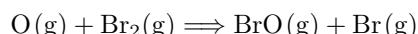
$$\frac{N(v)}{N(3)} = \frac{e^{-(v+1/2)h\nu_{\text{DF}}/k_B T}}{e^{-(3+1/2)h\nu_{\text{DF}}/k_B T}} = e^{-(v-3)h\nu_{\text{DF}}/k_B T}$$

- This reveals that the vibrational state v should be approximately 6(3 – v) orders of magnitude more populated than $v = 3$ at 300 K. In particular, $v = 0$ should be approximately 18 orders of magnitude more populated than $v = 3$ at said temperature, $v = 1$ should be approximately 12 orders of magnitude more populated than $v = 3$, and so on and so forth.

- **Stripping reaction:** An atom-molecule reaction in which the incident atom abstracts part of a molecule and keeps going in the forward direction.
- **Harpoon mechanism:** The mechanism by which a stripping reaction occurs, involving the formation of ions, followed by Coulombic attraction, followed by a reaction.
 - So named because the species which becomes a cation uses its electron as a “harpoon” to draw in (via the Coulomb potential) the species which becomes an anion.
- Evidence for the harpoon mechanism.
 - Consider the stripping reaction
$$\text{K(g)} + \text{I}_2\text{(g)} \longrightarrow \text{KI(g)} + \text{I(g)}$$

in which the relative translational energy between the reactants is $E_{\text{trans}} = 15.13 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$.

 - The contour plot shows a primary scattering angle of $\theta \approx 0^\circ$.
 - Thus, it would appear that electric fields are not repulsing the molecules as we would expect in a head-on collision.
 - The reaction cross section is twice the collision cross section.
 - We can measure the reaction cross section of $\text{K} + \text{I}_2$ to be $1.25 \times 10^6 \text{ pm}^2$.
 - Based on the measured radii of K and I_2 as 205 pm and 250 pm, respectively, we have that $\sigma_{\text{K I}_2} = 6.5 \times 10^5 \text{ pm}^2$.
 - Indeed, this means that if the reactants travel at the maximum impact parameter (see Figure 6.1), they would miss each other entirely but somehow still react.
 - An electron transfer occurs between the two reactants before they collide.
 - If two molecules are to react without touching, they must somehow be attracted to each other in manner strong enough to at least temporarily overcome the bond-dissociation energy (BDE) of the molecule.
 - Research shows that van der Waals interactions would not be strong enough for this, but a Coulomb potential would be.
 - Additionally, we can directly experimentally verify that this pre-reaction electron transfer occurs.
 - Reactions in which the scattering angle is fairly equally distributed.
 - This cannot be either a hit-and-run collision or a drive-by collision.
 - Indeed, the only explanation is that lifetime of the atom-molecule complex is long compared with the rotation period, so that the reactants “forget” their initial orientation while reacting and then break apart in relatively random directions.
 - An example reaction that proceeds in this fashion is



- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) discusses the three variables that determine the potential energy surface of a water molecule and the analogous three variables that determine the potential energy surface of $\text{F} + \text{D}_2$.
- We can't represent these potential energy surfaces with a 2D- or 3D graph (we'd need four axes), so we have to turn to cross sections (i.e., fixing one of the variables and plotting the other two).
- The potential energy surface for a reaction can be computed using the electronic structure techniques of Chapter 11.
- **Collinear geometry:** A reactive collision with $\beta = 180^\circ$ (see Figure 7.2a).

- The potential energy surface for $\text{F} + \text{D}_2$ in a collinear geometry.

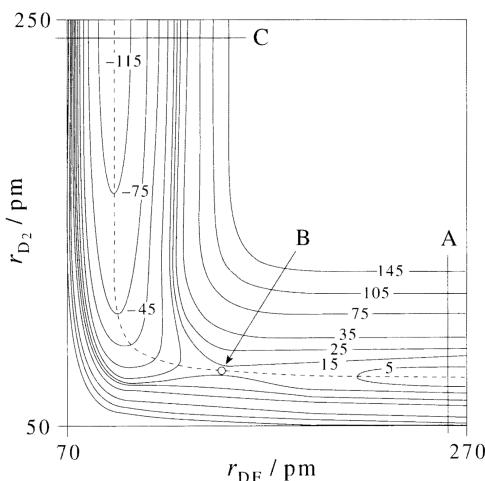


Figure 7.12: The potential energy surface for $\text{F} + \text{D}_2$ where $\beta = 180^\circ$.

- Each line in the contour map corresponds to a constant value of energy.
- The numbers on the lines express the energy of that line in kJ mol^{-1} .
- The zero of energy is taken to be the infinitely separated reactants.
- The cross section of the contour plot at A gives the potential energy curve for D_2 .
- The cross section of the contour plot at C gives the potential energy curve for DF.
- The dashed line proceeds from the bottom right to the top left and traces the reaction coordinate along the lowest-energy path.
- Point B indicates the transition state.
- Notice how as we trace the progress of the reaction, we start at energy near zero, climb the activation energy hill (passing the 5 kJ mol^{-1} contour but not quite reaching the 15 kJ mol^{-1} contour; the true value of the activation energy is approximately 7 kJ mol^{-1}), pass the transition state at a **saddle point**, and rapidly decrease in energy thereafter (this is an exergonic reaction).
- This diagram also gives meaning to the principle of microscopic reversibility, i.e., that a reaction (forwards or backwards) will always follow the lowest energy path.

7.5 Chapter 31: Solids and Surface Chemistry

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

- Goals of the chapter.
 - Solid-state chemistry: Crystal structure and how X-ray diffraction can be used to determine it.
 - Surface chemistry.**
 - Nitrogen fixation on iron catalysts.
- Surface chemistry:** The study of how the surfaces of solids catalyze chemical reactions.
- Looking at a crystal reveals a periodic structure that we should be able to take advantage of to describe its structure in general. To this effect, we define the **unit cell**.
- Unit cell:** The smallest collection of atoms (or molecules) in the crystal such that the replication of the unit cell in three dimensions generates the entire crystal.

- A unit cell cannot have any arbitrary shape.
 - A spherical unit cell would leave gaps, for instance.
 - It is also impossible to generate a crystal lattice by a unit cell that has a five-fold symmetry axis (see Problem 31-43).
 - Indeed, “the unit cell must be a geometric structure that fills all space when replicated” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1272).
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) defines **face-centered cubic**, **body-centered cubic**, and **primitive cubic** unit cells.
- These are the only three types of cubic unit cells!
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) develops a method of describing the most general type of unit cell (a three-dimensional parallelepiped) as in lecture (see the discussion associated with Figure 7.6).
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) defines the **Bravais lattices**.

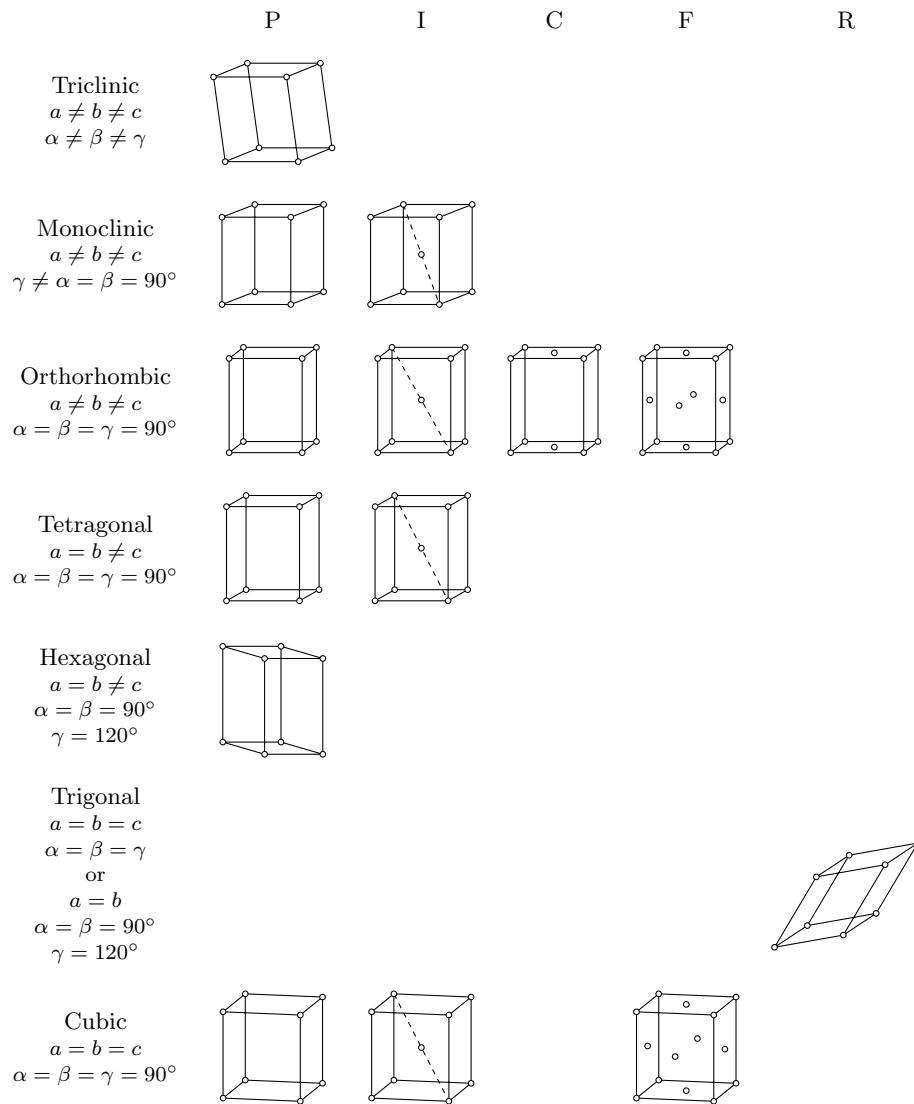


Table 7.1: Bravais lattices.

- What the column headings refer to.
 - P: Primitive unit cells (one lattice point per unit cell).
 - I: Body-centered unit cells.
 - C: End-centered unit cells.
 - F: Face-centered unit cells.
 - R: Rhombohedral unit cells.
- This chapter will focus on the Bravais lattices with orthogonal axes (i.e., for which $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$).
- **Crystallographic radius:** The radius of the atoms of a substance in a crystal.
- Example: Calculating the crystallographic radius of copper, given that the density of copper at 20°C is 8.930 g cm^{-3} .
 - As per the discussion associated with Figure 7.3, there are four copper atoms to a unit cell. Additionally, the molar mass of a copper atom is 63.55 g mol^{-1} . Thus, the mass of a unit cell is
$$\text{mass unit cell} = \frac{(4)(63.55 \text{ g mol}^{-1})}{6.022 \times 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}} = 4.221 \times 10^{-22} \text{ g}$$
 - It follows from the density that the volume of the unit cell is
$$V_{\text{unit cell}} = \frac{4.221 \times 10^{-22} \text{ g}}{8.930 \text{ g cm}^{-3}} = 4.727 \times 10^{-23} \text{ cm}^3$$
 - As per Figure 7.3c, the unit cell is cubic, so its side length is given by
$$a = (V_{\text{unit cell}})^{1/3} = 361.6 \text{ pm}$$
 - Also from Figure 7.3c, we can tell that the crystallographic radius of a copper atom is one-fourth the diameter of the unit cell. Therefore,
$$r = \frac{d}{4} = \frac{a\sqrt{2}}{4} = 127.8 \text{ pm}$$
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) also goes through how to calculate, using simple geometry, the fraction of the volume of a unit cell occupied by atoms.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) discusses how the lattice points in a unit cell are simply mathematical constructs, and may therefore be identified with more than just atoms (e.g., whole molecules like C_{60}).
- We denote points in a unit cell by an ordered triple (a', b', c') where $a', b', c' \in [0, 1]$ describe how far from 0 to a , 0 to b , and 0 to c the point is along the **a**, **b**, and **c** axes, respectively.
 - For example, if we take the bottom-left corner of the body-centered cubic unit cell to be the origin (as in Figure 7.6), then we can read from Figure 7.4b that the coordinates of the nine lattice points are $(0, 0, 0)$, $(1, 0, 0)$, $(0, 1, 0)$, $(0, 0, 1)$, $(1, 1, 0)$, $(1, 0, 1)$, $(0, 1, 1)$, $(1, 1, 1)$, and $(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2})$.
- The periodicity of a given lattice allows us to view it as being comprised of sets of equally spaced parallel planes containing lattice points.
 - We take this perspective in addition to the usual one because it will be advantageous when we get to X-ray diffraction.
- Describing a set of parallel crystallographic planes in terms of where they intersect a unit cell leads to the development of the **Miller indices**.
- The leftmost plane in Figure 7.7b intersects the **a** axis at 1, the **b** axis at 1, and are parallel to the **c** axis (or, from a naïve point of view, intersect the **c**-axis at ∞).

- Thus, we denote the planes by three indices $h = a/1a = 1$, $k = a/1a = 1$, and $l = c/\infty c = 1$.
 - We compress this notationally to 110.
- The Miller indices uniquely specify a set of parallel planes within a crystal, specifically those separated by a distance a/h along the **a** axis, b/k along the **b** axis, and c/l along the **c** axis.
 - McQuarrie and Simon (1997) goes through the examples in Figure 7.8.
 - McQuarrie and Simon (1997) gives the lattice plane spacing formulas for adjacent hkl planes in orthorhombic and cubic unit cells.

Problems

31-43. In this problem, we will prove that a crystal lattice can only have one-, two-, three-, four-, and six-fold axes of symmetry. Consider the following figure, where P_1 , P_2 , and P_3 are three lattice points, each separated by the lattice vector **a**. ...

Week 8

Crystal Structure and Surface Chemistry

8.1 X-Ray Diffraction Fundamentals

- 5/16:
- Final exam next Wednesday in class.
 - 50 minutes.
 - Questions like the midterm.
 - We can bring our notes and textbook, but cannot search online.
 - Can we bring notes on a computer, like mine, or do we have to print?
 - 1 computation problem.
 - We will write answers on paper.
 - Review of last lecture.
 - Tian goes through some examples of naming crystallographic planes from pictures of them intersecting a unit cell.
 - The first example is a 111 plane.
 - If asked to identify a 111 plane, it is enough to identify it as a 111 plane; we do not have to identify it as a possible 222 plane, too.
 - Consider a plane intersecting the **a**, **b**, and **c** axes at $a' = 2a/5$, $b' = b/2$, and $c' = c/5$, respectively.
 - Then $h = \frac{5}{2}$, $k = 2$, and $l = 5$.
 - An easier way to show this, however, is with $h = 5$, $k = 4$, and $l = 10$. Aren't these planes spaced twice as close together, though?
 - Consider a plane intersecting the **a**, **b**, and **c** axes at $a' = a/2$, $b' = b/2$, and $c' = -c/4$, respectively.
 - A convenient point to use as the origin in this case is the upper-left corner.
 - Thus, the plane is $(2, 2, -4)$.
 - The question could we denote the plane by $(1, 1, -2)$: These two sets of planes are parallel, but the spacing of $(1, 1, -2)$ would skip every plane like $(2, 2, -4)$. Thus, we need $(2, 2, -4)$ for the spacing.
 - Rules.
 1. If you see a fraction, convert to integers.
 2. But do not reduce a ratio.

- The fundamentals of X-ray diffraction.

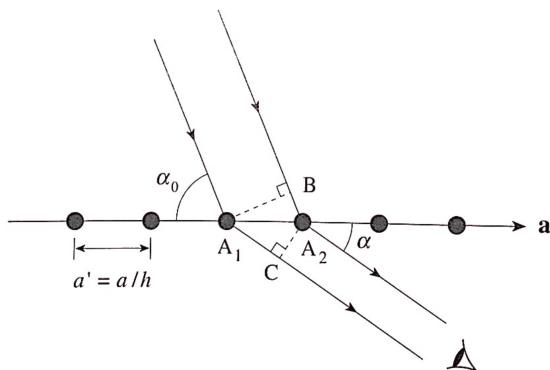


Figure 8.1: Deriving the von Laue equations.

- An X-ray diffraction pattern is a collection of spots of varying intensity.
 - The arrangement of the spots provides a great deal of information on the crystal structure, as we will soon see.
- We define

$$\Delta = \overline{A_1 C} - \overline{A_2 B}$$
 - Imagine two parallel rays of light incident on points A_1 and A_2 in a crystal lattice.
 - $\overline{A_1 C}$ is the distance that the bottom beam travels after being scattered at A_1 and before the top beam is scattered at A_2 .
 - Symmetrically, $\overline{A_2 B}$ is the distance that the top beam travels after the bottom beam is scattered at A_2 and before being scattered at A_1 .
 - Either way, Δ represents a kind of phase offset that occurs upon scattering. Say, for instance, that the two waves are in phase before scattering. Then from the perspective of the top wave, the bottom wave gets offset by Δ relative to it during the scattering process, and vice versa from the perspective of the bottom wave.
- If the distance Δ is equal to an integral multiple of the wavelength of the X-ray radiation, the two diffracted beams will interfere constructively. Mathematically, since

$$\overline{A_1 C} = a' \cos \alpha \quad \overline{A_2 B} = a' \cos \alpha_0$$

as we may readily read from Figure 8.1, we require

$$\begin{aligned} n\lambda &= \Delta \\ &= \overline{A_1 C} - \overline{A_2 B} \\ &= a'(\cos \alpha - \cos \alpha_0) \\ nh\lambda &= a(\cos \alpha - \cos \alpha_0) \end{aligned}$$

- First-order reflection:** A diffraction spot that corresponds to $n = 1$ in the above equation.
- Second-order reflection:** A diffraction spot that corresponds to $n = 2$ in the above equation.
- n^{th} -order reflection:** A diffraction spot that corresponds to n in the above equation.
- von Laue equations:** The following three equations, which relate the quantities involved in a first-order reflection. Given by

$$a(\cos \alpha - \cos \alpha_0) = h\lambda \quad b(\cos \beta - \cos \beta_0) = k\lambda \quad c(\cos \gamma - \cos \gamma_0) = l\lambda$$

where $\alpha_0, \beta_0, \gamma_0$ are the angles of incidence of the X-ray radiation with respect to the **a**, **b**, and **c** axes of the crystal, respectively, and α, β , and γ are the corresponding diffraction angles.

- An example of how to use the von Laue equations.
 - Consider the diffraction pattern obtained when an X-ray beam is directed at a crystal whose unit cell is primitive cubic.
 - Orient the crystal such that the incident X-rays are perpendicular to the **a** axis of the crystal.
 - Then the relevant von Laue equation reduces to $a \cos \alpha = h\lambda$.
 - It follows that discrete angles will yield discrete spots?
- A more general situation.
 - For an arbitrary hkl plane, the direction of diffraction with respect to the **a** axis is the same as that for the $h00$ planes. But there is also diffraction with respect to the **b** and **c** axes.
 - The diffraction spots from an hkl plane (with fixed h) will lie along the surface of a cone that makes an angle α with respect to the **a** axis of the crystal.
- The Bragg diffraction.
 - We have

$$\lambda = 2 \left(\frac{d}{n} \right) \sin \theta$$
 where θ is the angle of incidence (and reflection) of the X-rays with respect to the lattice plane, λ is the wavelength of the X-ray radiation, and $n = 1, 2, \dots$ is the order of the reflection.
 - d in terms of the Miller indices for a cubic unit cell gives

$$\sin^2 \theta = \frac{n^2 \lambda^2}{4a^2} (h^2 + k^2 + l^2)$$
 - Tian will not go through the details, but there will be a homework problem in which we will explore this.
- Rotating the sample vs. rotating the incident beam in an X-ray diffraction experiment.
 - In most cases, we fix the incident beam orientation and rotate the sample on the sample stage.
- Midterms back today or tmw.
- The grade distribution in the course.
 - A or A- is typically 65-70%.

8.2 The Scattering Factor and Intensity

5/18:

- Reviews the Bragg diffraction.
 - There is no such thing as a 222 or a 333 lattice plane; rather, there are 111 lattice planes with higher order diffractions.
 - Tian says something about higher order reflections?
- **Scattering factor** (of an atom): The following quantity, where $\rho(r)$ is the spherically symmetric electron density (number of electrons per unit volume) of the atom and $k = 4\pi \sin(\theta)/\lambda$. In turn, θ is the scattering angle and λ is the wavelength of the X-radiation. Denoted by f . Given by

$$f = 4\pi \int_0^\infty \rho(r) \frac{\sin kr}{kr} r^2 dr$$

- The integral $4\pi \int_0^\infty \rho(r)r^2 dr$ gives the total number of electrons in the atom.

- The total scattering intensity is related to the periodic structure of the electron density in the crystal.
 - If the crystal is oriented such that the von Laue equation governing scattering from atoms along the a axis is satisfied, then

$$\Delta_{11} = \Delta_{22} = \frac{a}{\hbar}(\cos \alpha - \cos \alpha_0) = \lambda \quad \Delta_{12} = x(\cos \alpha - \cos \alpha_0)$$

- Combining these two equations, we learn that

$$\Delta_{12} = \frac{\lambda h x}{a}$$

- The difference in path length corresponds to a phase difference between the diffracted beams from successive 1 and 2 atoms of

$$\phi = 2\pi \frac{\Delta_{12}}{\lambda} = 2\pi \frac{\lambda h x / a}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi h x}{a}$$

- The amplitude of the light scattered from successive 1 and 2 atoms is then

$$\begin{aligned} A &= f_1 \cos \omega t + f_2 \cos(\omega t + \phi) \\ &= f_1 e^{i\omega t} + f_2 e^{i(\omega t + \phi)} \end{aligned}$$

- The detected intensity is proportional to the square of the magnitude of the amplitude.

$$\begin{aligned} I \propto |A|^2 &= [f_1 e^{i\omega t} + f_2 e^{i(\omega t + \phi)}][f_1 e^{-i\omega t} + f_2 e^{-i(\omega t + \phi)}] \\ &= f_1^2 + f_1 f_2 e^{i\phi} + f_1 f_2 e^{-i\phi} + f_2^2 \\ &= f_1^2 + f_2^2 + 2f_1 f_2 \cos \phi \end{aligned}$$

- The first two terms reflect the constructive interference of the X-rays scattered from the set of parallel planes through the 1 atoms and 2 atoms, respectively.
- The third term takes into account the interference of the scattering from these two sets of parallel planes.

- We can therefore ignore the $e^{i\omega t}$ term and define

$$F(h) = f_1 + f_2 e^{i\phi} = f_1 + f_2 e^{2\pi i h x / a}$$

- The intensity is then proportional to $|F(h)|^2$.
- Generalizing to three dimensions for a unit cell that contains atoms of type j located at points x_j, y_j, z_j gives

$$F(hkl) = \sum_j f_j e^{2\pi i (hx_j/a + ky_j/b + lz_j/c)} = \sum_j f_j e^{2\pi i (hx'_j + ky'_j + lz'_j)}$$

where $x'_j = x_j/a$, $y'_j = y_j/b$, and $z'_j = z_j/c$.

- An analysis of the CsCl body-centered cubic lattice, where we take the unit cell to have eighth chloride atoms at every corner and one cesium ion in the center.
 - Taking f_+ to be the scattering factor of the Cs^+ cations and f_- to be the scattering factor of the Cl^- anions, we get

$$\begin{aligned} F(hkl) &= 1 \times f_- e^{\pi i (h+k+l)} + \frac{1}{8} \times f_+ \left[e^0 + e^{2\pi i h} + e^{2\pi i k} + e^{2\pi i l} + e^{2\pi i (h+k)} + e^{2\pi i (k+l)} + e^{2\pi i (h+l)} + e^{2\pi i (h+k+l)} \right] \\ &= f_- (-1)^{h+k+l} + \frac{1}{8} f_+ [8] \\ &= \begin{cases} f_+ + f_- & h+k+l \text{ is even} \\ f_+ - f_- & h+k+l \text{ is odd} \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

where we substitute $e^{\pi i} = -1$ and $e^{2\pi i} = 1$ to get from the first line to the second.

8.3 Continuous Structure Factors and Adsorption

5/20:

- More on the CsCl example today.
 - We simplify $e^{i\pi(h+k+l)}$ to $(-1)^{h+k+l}$ by expanding to $\text{cis}[\pi(h+k+l)]$, ignoring the imaginary part to get $\cos[\pi(h+k+l)]$, the sign of which does depend on whether the natural number $h+k+l$ is even or odd exactly like $(-1)^{h+k+l}$.
- CsI example.
 - Cs^+ and I^- are **isoelectronic**.
 - We have that

$$f_+(\text{Cs}^+) = f_-(\text{I}^-)$$

- The structure factor and the electron density are related by a Fourier transform.
 - In both atomic and molecular crystals, the electron density is not localized at individual points within the unit cell.
 - We should consider the unit cell of the crystal to have a continuous electron density distribution $\rho(x, y, z)$.
 - The structure factor is no longer simply a sum over discrete atoms but now becomes an integral over the continuous electron density distribution in the unit cell, as follows.

$$F(hkl) = \int_0^a \int_0^b \int_0^c \rho(x, y, z) e^{2\pi i(hx/a + ky/b + lz/c)} dx dy dz$$

- For the entire crystal, we have the following.

$$F(hkl) \propto \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(x, y, z) e^{2\pi i(hx/a + ky/b + lz/c)} dx dy dz$$

- $F(hkl)$ is related to $\rho(x, y, z)$ by a **Fourier transform**.

$$\rho(x, y, z) = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} F(hkl) e^{-2\pi i(hx/a + ky/b + lz/c)}$$

- If we let $F(hkl) = A(hkl) + iB(hkl)$, then it follows that the intensity is

$$I(hkl) \propto |F(hkl)|^2 = [A(hkl)]^2 + [B(hkl)]^2$$

- An electron-density map of a benzoic acid molecule.

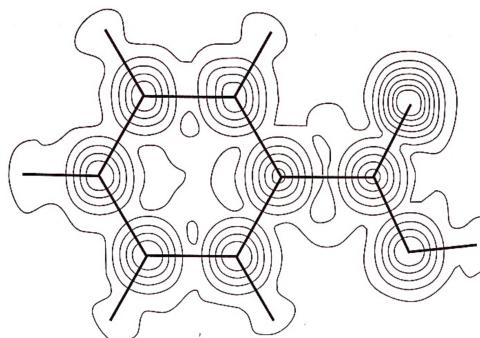


Figure 8.2: The electron density of benzoic acid.

- An electron-density map of a benzoic acid molecule determined from the X-ray diffraction pattern of a benzoic acid crystal.
- Each contour line corresponds to a constant value of the electron density.
- The location of the nuclei are readily deduced from this electron-density map and are represented by the vertices of the solid lines.
- A gas molecule can physisorb or chemisorb to a solid surface.

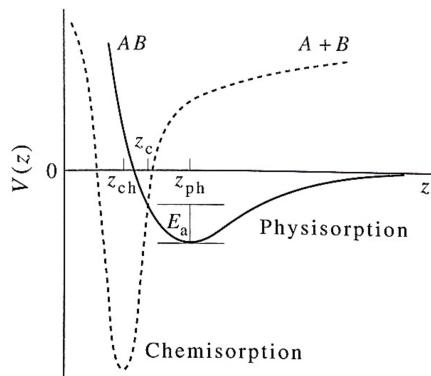
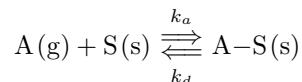


Figure 8.3: Comparing physisorption and chemisorption.

- Figure 8.3 shows one-dimensional potential-energy curves for the physisorption of molecule AB (solid line) and the dissociative chemisorption of AB (dashed line).
- The quantity z is the distance from the surface.
- In the physisorbed state, the molecule AB is bound to the surface by van der Waals forces.
- In the chemisorbed state, the A–B bond is broken, and the individual atoms are bound covalently or ionically on the surface.
 - As such, chemisorbed molecules are bound more strongly, are held closer to the surface.
 - As $z \rightarrow \infty$, V approaches a value greater than zero because AB is dissociated here. The asymptote is the bond dissociation energy (BDE).
 - Additionally, while $A + B$ may be at zero, what we have here is $A^+ + B^-$. As such, we have the Coulomb potential, and the charged ions are unstable to be apart.
- The points z_{ch} and z_{ph} are the surface-molecule bond lengths for a chemisorbed and physisorbed molecule, respectively. The length of the substrate-adsorbate bond is shorter for a chemisorbed molecule than for a physisorbed molecule.
- The two potential curves cross at z_c . The activation energy for the conversion from physisorption to chemisorption is measured from the bottom of the physisorbed potential and is E_a .
- **Adsorption isotherm:** A plot of surface coverage as a function of gas pressure at constant temperature.
- Langmuir's assumptions.
 - The adsorbed molecules do not interact with one another.
 - The enthalpy of adsorption was independent of surface coverage.
 - There are a finite number of surface sites where a molecule can adsorb.

- The process of adsorption and desorption is depicted by the reversible elementary process



with equilibrium constant

$$K_c = \frac{k_a}{k_d} = \frac{[A-S]}{[A][S]}$$

where k_a and k_d are the rate constants for adsorption and desorption, respectively.

- The fact that k_a and k_d are constants independent of the extent of surface coverage implies that adsorbed molecules do not interact with one another.
- An analysis of surface coverage.
 - Let σ_0 be the concentration of surface sites in units of m^{-2} .
 - If the fraction of surface sites occupied by an adsorbate is θ , then σ (the adsorbate concentration on the surface) is $\theta\sigma_0$ and the concentration of empty surface sites is given by $\sigma_0 - \theta\sigma_0 = (1 - \theta)\sigma_0$.
 - We have that

$$v_d = k_d\theta\sigma_0 \quad v_a = k_a(1 - \theta)\sigma_0[A]$$

where v_d is the rate of desorption, v_a is the rate of absorption, and $[A]$ is the number density or the concentration of $A(g)$.

- It follows that at equilibrium,

$$\begin{aligned} k_d\theta &= k_a(1 - \theta)[A] \\ \frac{1}{\theta} &= 1 + \frac{1}{K_c[A]} \end{aligned}$$

- Additionally, since

$$[A] = \frac{P_A}{k_B T}$$

the Langmuir adsorption isotherm is

$$\frac{1}{\theta} = 1 + \frac{1}{bP_A}$$

where we have defined $b = K_c/k_B T$.

- For different materials, the same mass may correspond to orders of magnitude different surface areas (consider MOFs for instance).
- Langmuir adsorption isotherm for the case in which a diatomic molecule dissociates upon adsorption to the surface.

- This reaction can be written as



- Two surface sites are involved in the adsorption and desorption process.

$$v_a = k_a[A_2](1 - \theta)^2\sigma_0^2 \quad v_d = k_d\theta^2\sigma_0^2$$

- At equilibrium, these rates are equal, i.e.,

$$k_a[A_2](1-\theta)^2 = k_d\theta^2$$

$$\theta = \frac{K_c^{1/2}[A_2]^{1/2}}{1 + K_c^{1/2}[A_2]^{1/2}}$$

- Having defined $[A] = P_A/k_B T$ and $b = K_c/k_B T$, we have

$$\theta = \frac{b_{A_2}^{1/2}P_{A_2}^{1/2}}{1 + b_{A_2}^{1/2}P_{A_2}^{1/2}}$$

$$\frac{1}{\theta} = 1 + \frac{1}{b_{A_2}^{1/2}P_{A_2}^{1/2}}$$

8.4 Office Hours (Tian)

- The whole $F \propto \sigma\rho$ thing from Lecture 4.
- The presence or lack thereof of the $1/2$ coefficient in Z_{AA} and Z_{AB} .
- Lecture 13 example problems.
 - Equilibrium constants appear in reversible reactions.
 - Only applicable for reversible elementary steps.
 - If there's a problem that involves equilibrium constants, he will identify it; tell us that a reaction is reversible and equilibrium constants need to be considered.
- Will there be extra office hours before the final?
- Midterm info.
 - The midterm had a bimodal (2 peaks) distribution.
- Miller indices.
 - We define 100 planes by convention.
 - The middle plane in Figure 31.9a intersects the a -axis at $(1, 0, 0)$, and never intersects the b or c axes. However, we can conceptually define an intersection at ∞ , leading to $k = b/\infty = 0$ and similarly for l .
- Final info.
 - Homeworks 5-6 for the computation problem.
 - Rest are true/false and conceptual (like defining the Miller indices, for example).
 - Open note, calculator, but not open internet.
 - We can bring our computer for online notes, but we cannot search anything.
 - Only conceptual problems on X-ray diffraction.
 - No class on Friday Week 9.
- X-ray diffraction info.
 - Some people who have taken Advanced Inorgo will have already seen this, but it's the first time for most people.

8.5 Chapter 31: Solids and Surface Chemistry

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

5/24:

- The experimental setup for X-ray diffraction.
 - Generating X-rays.
 - A metal target (often copper) is bombarded with high-energy electrons inside a vacuum tube.
 - This bombardment generates electronically excited copper cations which relax back to their ground state by emitting a photon.
 - A copper sample generates two types of photons: One with $\lambda = 154.433 \text{ pm}$ and another with $\lambda = 154.051 \text{ pm}$.
 - One of these two wavelengths is directed at a single sample crystal.
 - The crystal is located on a rotatable mount, enabling the scientist to orient the incident X-rays with respect to the three crystallographic axes.
 - Most radiation passes through a given crystal, but a little bit is diffracted, giving rise to the **diffraction pattern**.
- **Diffraction pattern:** The image recorded on the detector, where dark spots correspond to concentrated diffracted X-rays.
- The positions and intensities of the diffraction spots are determined by the spacing between the different sets of parallel hkl planes of the crystal lattice.
- Comments on Figure 8.1.
 - Lattice points A_1, A_2 lie in neighboring hkl planes along the **a** axis of the crystal and are separated by a' .
 - α_0 is the angle of incidence of the X-ray beam.
 - α is the angle of diffraction of the X-ray beam.
 - Δ is the difference in path length of the X-rays diffracted at lattice points A_1, A_2 by the time they reach the observer (or collection sheet).
 - “If we extend [our discussion of constructive and destructive interference] to include diffraction from all the atoms in the row shown in [Figure 8.1], then to observe a diffraction signal, the light diffracted from each atom in the row must interfere constructively. This means that the crystal plane must be oriented with respect to the incident X-rays so that Δ is equal to an integral multiple of the wavelength of the X-ray radiation” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1283).
 - The substitution $a' = a/h$ allows us to write the diffraction equation in terms of the Miller index and the unit cell length.
- Describing the diffraction pattern generated by the first-order reflections of the $h00$ planes in a primitive cubic crystal that is oriented such that the incident X-rays are perpendicular to the **a** axis of the crystal.
 - The perpendicular orientation tells us that $\alpha_0 = 90^\circ$.
 - Thus, the von Laue equations become

$$\begin{aligned} a \cos \alpha &= h\lambda \\ b(\cos \beta - \cos \beta_0) &= k\lambda \\ c(\cos \gamma - \cos \gamma_0) &= l\lambda \end{aligned}$$

- The first equation says that each value of h (i.e., each incremental plane spacing) corresponds to a specific scattering angle α .

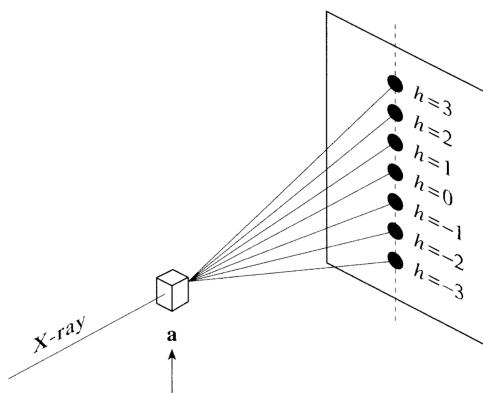


Figure 8.4: The diffraction pattern of the $h00$ planes in a primitive cubic crystal.

- For $h = 0$, we have $\cos \alpha = 0$ and thus $\alpha = 90^\circ$.
- For $h = 1$, we have $\cos \alpha = \lambda/a$.
- For $h = 2$, we have $\cos \alpha = 2\lambda/a$.
- And on and on.
- Since $k, l = 0$ in all of these planes, the second and third equations say, respectively, that $\beta = \beta_0$ and $\gamma = \gamma_0$.
- Thus, we obtain the diffraction pattern in Figure 8.4.
- Example: Calculating the spacing between lattice points along the **a** axis in a primitive cubic crystal from the first-order reflections of the 000 and 100 planes.

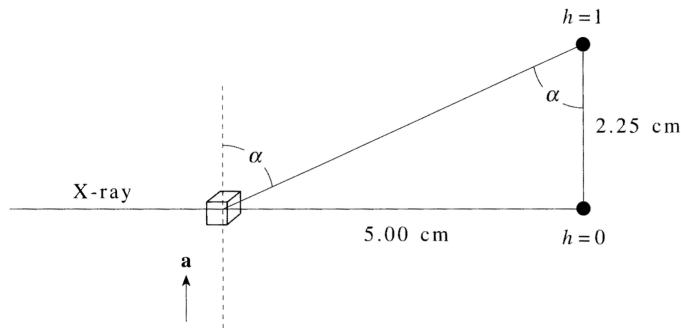
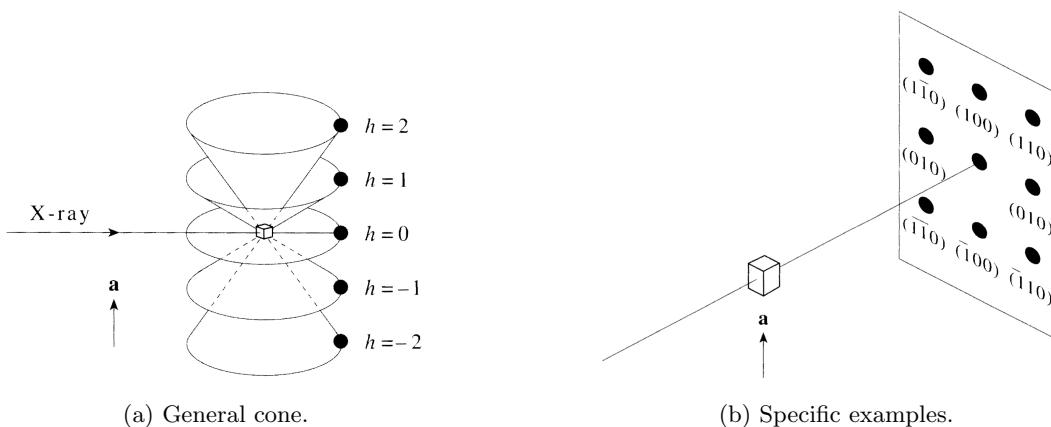


Figure 8.5: Primitive cubic lattice spacing.

- In our experimental setup, we use the $\lambda = 154.433$ pm line of copper as an X-ray source.
 - We want to find a . We know that $a \cos \alpha = \lambda$. We also know that $\tan \alpha = 5.00/2.25$. Therefore,
- $$a = \frac{\lambda}{\cos(\tan^{-1}(5.00/2.5))} = 376.37 \text{ pm}$$
- Arbitrary hkl planes.
 - The direction of diffraction with respect to the **a** axis is the same as that for $h00$ planes, but there is also componentwise diffraction with respect to the **b** and **c** axes.
 - Thus, the diffraction spots lie along the surface of a cone (see Figure 8.6a) that makes an angle α with respect to the incident X-ray beam in the plane defined by the X-ray beam and the **a** axis (i.e., the plane of the page in Figure 8.5).

Figure 8.6: The diffraction pattern of the hkl planes in a primitive cubic crystal.

- Where exactly these spots lie depends on the other two von Laue equations.
- Some examples of spots corresponding to hkl planes are given in Figure 8.6b.
- Bragg's approach to diffraction.
 - William Bragg (an English chemist) “modeled the diffraction of X-rays from crystals as originating from the reflection of X-rays from the various sets of parallel hkl lattice planes” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, pp. 1286–87).
 - The Bragg equation is

$$\lambda = 2 \left(\frac{d}{n} \right) \sin \theta$$
 where θ is the angle of incidence (and reflection) of the X-rays with respect to the lattice plane, λ is the wavelength of the X-rays, $n = 1, 2, \dots$ is the order of the reflection, and d is the lattice plane spacing.
 - For Bragg's derivation, see Problem 31-29.
 - By squaring the above and substituting for d^2 the lattice plane spacing for a cubic unit cell, we obtain

$$\sin^2 \theta = \frac{n^2 \lambda^2}{4a^2} (h^2 + k^2 + l^2)$$
 - Bragg's equation can be derived from the von Laue equations and vice versa (see Problems 31-44 and 31-45), so the two formulations are equivalent.
- In practice, diffraction spots are not observed from all hkl planes and the intensity can vary significantly as well.
 - “For example, an atomic crystal whose unit cell is body-centered cubic shows no diffraction from the hkl planes in which $h + k + l$ is an odd number” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1287).
 - The key to understanding what determines the intensity of a diffraction spot lies in the details of how atoms diffract X-rays.
- X-rays are scattered by the electrons in an atom, but since different atoms have different sized orbitals filled by different numbers of electrons, the scattering efficiency varies atom to atom. Hence we define the **scattering factor**.
 - **Scattering factor** (of an atom): The following quantity, where $\rho(r)$ is the spherically symmetric electron density (number of electrons per unit volume) of the atom and $k = (4\pi/\lambda) \sin(\theta)$. In turn, θ is the scattering angle and λ is the wavelength of the X-radiation. Denoted by f . Given by

$$f = 4\pi \int_0^\infty \rho(r) \frac{\sin kr}{kr} r^2 dr$$

- Wavelengths of X-rays are comparable in size to an atom, so the scatterings from different regions interfere with each other. The integrand accounts for this interference with the $\sin(kr)/kr$ term.
- The scattering factor increases as the number of electrons ($\rho(r)$) increases, and decreases as the angle of diffraction θ increases.
- The scattering factor for the case where $\theta = 0^\circ$ reduces to the total number of electrons in the atom or ion.
- Deriving an expression for the scattering intensity.

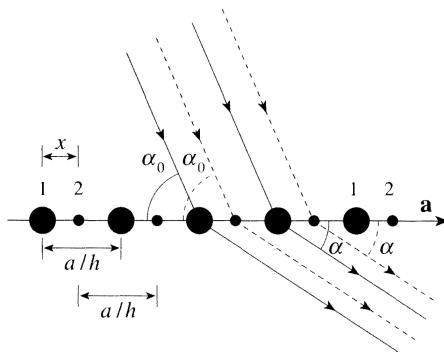


Figure 8.7: The scattering from a lattice consisting of two types of atoms.

- Consider a one-dimensional lattice consisting of two different types of atoms, 1 and 2. Let these atoms have scattering factors f_1, f_2 , respectively.
- The differences Δ_{11} and Δ_{22} in path length traveled by X-rays diffracted by successive 1 atoms and 2 atoms, respectively, and corresponding to first-order reflections are equal and given by the following, as can easily be determined from Figure 8.7 and the von Laue equations.

$$\Delta_{11} = \Delta_{22} = \frac{a}{h}(\cos \alpha - \cos \alpha_0) = \lambda$$

- Similarly, the difference Δ_{12} in path length traveled by X-rays diffracted by consecutive 1 and 2 atoms and corresponding to a first-order reflection is given by the following and is not equal to an integral number of wavelengths.

$$\Delta_{12} = x(\cos \alpha - \cos \alpha_0)$$

- An alternate form for Δ_{12} can be obtained by solving the expression for $\Delta_{11} = \Delta_{22}$ for $\cos \alpha - \cos \alpha_0$ and substituting into the above equation to yield

$$\Delta_{12} = \frac{\lambda h x}{a}$$

- This difference in path length corresponds to a phase offset

$$\phi = 2\pi \frac{\Delta_{12}}{\lambda} = 2\pi \frac{\lambda h x / a}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi h x}{a}$$

- Note that to derive this expression, we first take the difference in path length and divide by λ to determine the phase offset in “number of waves.” We then multiply by 2π to convert to radians.
- For instance, if $\Delta_{12} = 1.5\lambda$, then $\Delta_{12}/\lambda = 1.5$ waves = 3π radians, as should make intuitive sense.

- It follows that the total amplitude of the light scattered from successive 1 and 2 atoms is

$$A = f_1 \cos \omega t + f_2 \cos(\omega t + \phi)$$

- Technically, what's given is a wave function in terms of time t .
- Also note that the left term in the above expression gives the contribution of the light scattered by successive 1 atoms and the right term gives the contribution of the light scattered by successive 2 atoms. By the superposition principle, the total wave function is the sum of the two partial wave functions, as we have above.
- For convenience, we may switch the above expression to exponential notation.

$$A = f_1 e^{i\omega t} + f_2 e^{i(\omega t + \phi)} = (f_1 + f_2 e^{i\phi}) e^{i\omega t}$$

- Since the intensity of electromagnetic waves is proportional to the square of the magnitude of the amplitude^[1], we have that

$$\begin{aligned} I \propto |A|^2 &= [(f_1 + f_2 e^{i\phi}) e^{i\omega t}] [(f_1 + f_2 e^{-i\phi}) e^{-i\omega t}] \\ &= f_1^2 + f_1 f_2 e^{i\phi} + f_1 f_2 e^{-i\phi} + f_2^2 \\ &= f_1^2 + f_2^2 + 2 f_1 f_2 \cos \phi \end{aligned}$$

- The first two terms above reflect the constructive interference of the X-rays scattered from the set of parallel planes through the 1 atoms and 2 atoms, respectively.
- The third term accounts for the interference between these two sets.
- The intensity does not depend on the frequency ω of the radiation or the time t but only on the phase offset ϕ (this is because the $e^{i\omega t}$ terms canceled upon complex multiplication). As such, we may define the **structure factor** as the like amplitude but without the $e^{i\omega t}$ term. Naturally, $I \propto |F(h)|^2$.
- **Structure factor (1D):** The following expression, the magnitude squared of which is proportional to the intensity of diffracted radiation between planes spaced h apart. *Denoted by $F(h)$. Given by*

$$F(h) = f_1 + f_2 e^{i\phi} = f_1 + f_2 e^{2\pi i h x / a}$$

- We may generalize the 1D structure factor to three dimensions.
- **Structure factor:** The following expression, the magnitude squared of which is proportional to the intensity of diffracted radiation between hkl planes. *Denoted by $F(hkl)$. Given by*

$$F(hkl) = \sum_j f_j e^{2\pi i (hx_j/a + ky_j/b + lz_j/c)}$$

where the unit cell contains atoms of type j located at points x_j, y_j, z_j , a, b, c are the side lengths of the unit cell, f_j is the scattering factor of atom j , and hkl are the Miller indices of the diffracting planes.

- If we express x_j, y_j, z_j in terms of a, b, c , then

$$F(hkl) = \sum_j f_j e^{2\pi i (hx'_j + ky'_j + lz'_j)}$$

- Since $I \propto |F(hkl)|^2$, if $F(hkl) = 0$ for any set of Miller indices h, k, l , then those planes will not give rise to an observable diffraction spot.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) computes the structure factor for NaCl and CsCl lattices, the former as in PSet 6 and the latter as in class.

¹See the definitions of power and intensity on pages 6 and 13, respectively, of Labalme (2021b)

- Improving the scattering factor's realism.
 - In our previous definition of the 3D scattering factor, we model the electron density within a crystal as localized at the atoms.
 - However, in reality, there is a continuous electron distribution throughout the unit cell and the crystal overall.
 - We may account for this distribution in the unit cell with the following analogous integral over the 3D electron density function ρ .

$$F(hkl) = \int_0^a \int_0^b \int_0^c \rho(x, y, z) e^{2\pi i(hx/a + ky/b + lz/c)} dx dy dz$$

- For a crystal of dimensions A, B, C along the **a**, **b**, and **c** axes, we get

$$F(hkl) = \int_0^A \int_0^B \int_0^C \rho(x, y, z) e^{2\pi i(hx/a + ky/b + lz/c)} dx dy dz$$

or, accounting for the fact that $\rho(x, y, z) = 0$ outside of the crystal, we may take the bounds to be the equivalent

$$F(hkl) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \rho(x, y, z) e^{2\pi i(hx/a + ky/b + lz/c)} dx dy dz$$

- The above equation shows that F and ρ are related by a Fourier transform (see Chapter 10 in Labalme (2020)). Thus,

$$\rho(x, y, z) = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{k=-\infty}^{\infty} \sum_{l=-\infty}^{\infty} F(hkl) e^{-2\pi i(hx/a + ky/b + lz/c)}$$

- Experimental diffraction patterns give $|F(hkl)|^2$, not $F(hkl)$, presenting a problem in determining ρ from the above equation.
- One first step is to let $F(hkl) = A(hkl) + iB(hkl)$ so that $I(hkl) \propto [A(hkl)]^2 + [B(hkl)]^2$ as we showed in class.
- However, this still does not determine A and B entirely, and the problem of determining said quantities is known as the **phase problem**.
- There are, however, several methods of circumventing the phase problem, which allows us to construct electron density maps as in Figure 8.2.
- Michael Faraday proposed in 1834 that the first step of a surface-catalyzed reaction was sticking the reactant to the surface. This proved to be correct, but surfaces are now known to play a much more important role than simply increasing the apparent concentration of the reactants.
- **Adsorption:** The process of trapping molecules or atoms that are incident on a surface.
 - “A molecule approaching a surface experiences an attractive potential” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1295).
 - Always exothermic ($\Delta_{\text{ads}}H < 0$).
- **Adsorbate:** The adsorbed molecule or atom.
- **Substrate:** The surface to which the adsorbate adsorbs.
- **Physisorption:** Physical adsorption, wherein the attractive forces arise from van der Waals interactions.
 - Weak interaction; the strength of the bond is typically less than 20 kJ mol^{-1} ; long bond length.

- **Chemisorption:** Chemical adsorption, wherein the attractive forces are covalent or ionic in nature.
 - Strong interaction; the strength of the bond is typically between $250\text{-}500 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$; short bond length.
 - First proposed by American chemist Irving Langmuir in 1916.
 - Herein, a molecular bond is broken and new chemical bonds are formed between the substrate and the molecular fragments of the adsorbate.
 - Because bond formation to the atoms at the surface of the substrate is important here, only a monolayer of molecules can chemisorb to the surface.
- **Monolayer:** A single layer of molecules.
- We can model the physisorbed and chemisorbed states in terms of a one-dimensional Lennard-Jones potential as in Figure 8.3, assuming that...
 - The substrate has only one type of binding site;
 - The angle at which the adsorbate approaches the substrate is not important;
 - The orientation of the adsorbate with respect to the substrate is not important.
- We take the zero of energy in Figure 8.3 to be the infinite separation of the substrate and the diatomic molecule AB.
- **Dissociative chemisorption:** The chemisorption of a diatomic molecule, which involves breaking the molecular bond between the two atoms and then forming bonds between the atomic fragments and the substrate.
- **Precursor:** A physisorbed molecule that will later become chemisorbed.
 - The energy at z_c (Figure 8.3) is typically less than the strength of the AB–S bond. However, there are cases (e.g., H₂ on the 110 surface of copper) for which the energy of the curve crossing is greater than the AB–S bond.
- **Adsorption isotherm:** A plot of surface coverage as a function of gas pressure at constant temperature.
 - “Adsorption isotherms can be used to determine the equilibrium constant for the adsorption-desorption reaction, the concentration of surface sites available for adsorption, and the enthalpy of adsorption” (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1297).
 - Langmuir derived in 1918 the simplest expression for an adsorption isotherm.
 - Comments on Langmuir’s derivation, as covered in class.
 - We assume that the pressure of A is sufficiently low that the ideal gas law can be used. This is how we get

$$\begin{aligned} P_A V &= n k_B T \\ \frac{P_A}{k_B T} &= \frac{n}{V} \\ [A] &= \frac{P_A}{k_B T} \end{aligned}$$

- **Langmuir adsorption isotherm:** The following equation. *Given by*

$$\frac{1}{\theta} = 1 + \frac{1}{b P_A}$$

- “Experimental adsorption data are often tabulated as the equivalent volume of gas V that will adsorb onto the surface at a particular temperature and pressure,” often STP (1 atm and 273.15 K = 0 °C) (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, p. 1299).
- Example: From pressure vs. adsorbed volume data for nitrogen on a mica surface, calculate the values of b , V_m (the volume of gas that corresponds to a monolayer coverage), and the total number of surface sites.

– A monolayer coverage corresponds to $\theta = 1$.

– The value of θ is related to V_m by

$$\theta = \frac{V}{V_m}$$

– Substituting this into the Langmuir adsorption isotherm and rearranging gives

$$\frac{1}{V} = \frac{1}{PbV_m} + \frac{1}{V_m}$$

– It follows that a plot of $1/V$ vs. $1/P$ will have slope $1/bV_m$ and y -intercept $1/V_m$.

– From a line of best fit, we can thus determine that $V_m = 3.96 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3$ and $b = 2.14 \times 10^{12} \text{ torr}^{-1}$.

– Since 1 mol of gas occupies $22.4 \text{ L} = 2.24 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^3$ at STP, the number of moles of gas in V_m is

$$\frac{3.96 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3}{2.24 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}^3 \text{ mol}^{-1}} = 1.77 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol}$$

which corresponds to

$$(1.77 \times 10^{-6} \text{ mol})N_A = 1.06 \times 10^{18} \text{ molecule}$$

– Since each molecule of gas occupies a single surface site, it follows that there are 1.06×10^{18} total surface sites.

- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) derives the Langmuir adsorption isotherm for the case in which a diatomic molecule dissociates upon adsorption to the surface, as in class.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) discusses a physical interpretation of k_d .

Problems

31-29. ...

31-44. ...

31-45. ...

Week 9

Surface Structure and Catalysis

9.1 Surface Structure and Catalysis

5/23:

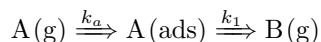
- Final exam:
 - Single sheet with problems on both sides and a blank piece of paper to write answers on.
 - Total time: 50 minutes.
 - We only need to look into the specific subchapters in the final exam outline.
 - The computation problem will be from either PSet 5 or 6.
 - 7 true/false problems on concepts from the chapters specified in the outline.
 - 2 true/false problems relative to plots that have been drawn in class or otherwhere.
 - Relatively easy compared to the midterm.
- Review of last lecture.
- The Langmuir adsorption isotherm implies rate laws for surface-catalyzed gas-phase reactions.
 - Consider the surface catalysis of the first-order gas-phase reaction



- The observed rate law is given by

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} = k_{\text{obs}} P_A$$

- Assume that this reaction occurs by the following two-step mechanism.



- The rate law for this mechanism is

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} = k_1[A(\text{ads})] = k_1 \sigma_A$$

where $\sigma_A = \sigma_0 \theta$.

- Derivation.

- We have that

$$\frac{1}{\theta} = 1 + \frac{1}{K_c[A]}$$

so

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} = k_1 \frac{\sigma_0 K_c[A]}{1 + K_c[A]} = k_1 \frac{\sigma_0 b P_A}{1 + b P_A}$$

where we have defined $b = K_c/k_B T$.

- At low gas pressures, $bP_A \ll 1$. Here, the rate law becomes first order in reactant pressure.

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} = k_1 \sigma_0 b P_A = k_{\text{obs}} P_A$$

- At high pressure, $bP_A \gg 1$. Here, the rate law becomes zero order in reactant pressure.

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} = k_1 \sigma_0 = k_{\text{obs}}$$

- Most reactions are studied at low pressure and the observed rate constant is equal to the product $k_1 \sigma_0 b$.
- Relation to enzyme catalysis.
 - There, we formed an enzyme-substrate complex, which then decomposed.
 - Here, we form a substrate-adsorption complex that then decomposes.
 - In surface catalysis, we refer to our surface as the substrate. It's a lattice on which our reaction happens.
 - For enzyme catalysis, we learned that the rate has a linear dependence on substrate concentration for small [S] and no dependence for big [S].
 - Recall that the Michaelis-Menten mechanism is a reaction mechanism for enzyme catalysis.
 - It predicts our first \rightarrow zero order substrate concentration dependence change.
 - It also comes packaged with the Lineweaver-Burk plot.
- The surface structure is different from that of the bulk.
- Surface characterization tools.
 - Scanning electron microscopy (SEM).
 - A scanning electron microscope (SEM) is a type of electron microscope that produces images of a sample by scanning the surface with a focused beam of electrons. The electrons interact with atoms in the sample, producing various signals that contain information about the surface topography and composition of the sample.
 - There's also transmission, that detects electrons which pass through the surface.
 - Low-energy electron diffraction (LEED).
 - Electrons with kinetic energies in the range of $5000\text{-}10\,000\text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ are commonly called low-energy electrons and penetrate the surface of a metal to only about 500 pm.
- The surfaces have many types of defects.

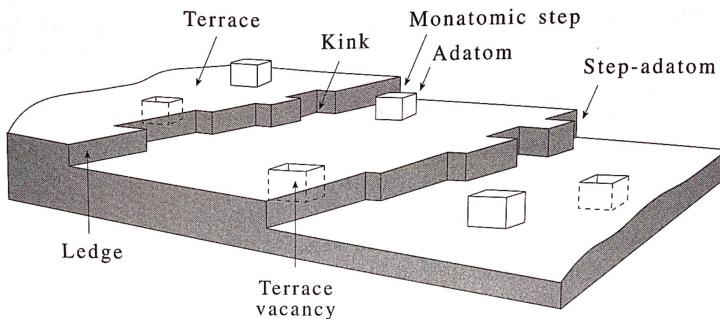
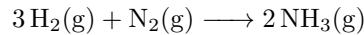
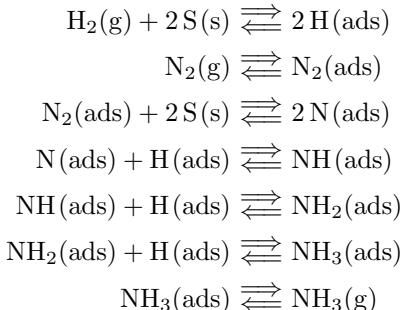


Figure 9.1: Surface features and defects.

- An illustration of some of the possible structural defects that occur on a surface. The surface is characterized by ledges, steps, and terraces.
 - The steps can be one or many rows of atoms. The steps also need not be straight, which gives rise to kinks.
 - Single atoms (or **adatoms**) may sit anywhere on a terrace.
 - There can also be vacancies on the terrace, leaving small holes in the surface. These holes are indicated by dotted cubes.
 - The defects are often some of the active sites.
 - The locations of the defects are locations where the surface energy is high. These high energy spots become sweet spots for reactions. Molecules will come in, bind to that high energy site, and use the energy to form a product.
 - Doping.
 - *p*-type doping of semiconductors can introduce holes. *n*-type doping of semiconductors introduces electrons.
 - Defect types.
 - We can have hole defects, line defects, and plane defects.
 - Some defects can be bad, degrading the whole material, but in catalysis, they're good.
- The reaction between H₂ and N₂ to produce NH₃ can be surface catalyzed.



- Mechanism.



- Splitting nitrogen is the hardest part.
- The second step is physisorption.
- The third step is dissociative chemisorption.
- The relative rates of ammonia synthesis for different transition metal catalysts can be plotted.
 - The shape of the plotted data is influenced by the opposing effects of the strength of the surface nitrogen bond and the activation energy of the dissociative chemisorption of N₂.
- Summary of what's essential in Chapter 31.
 - Miller indices and drawing the planes to which they correspond.
 - If we only need to draw one on the exam, skip the one through the origin and draw the next one.
 - The total scattering intensity (e.g., from the homework).
 - Isotherms.
 - We need to be clear about the information that the Langmuir plot can give us.
- Tian leaves the door open for us to reach out to him in the future.
- Also don't worry about the midterm too much; Tian will try to adjust in the best possible way.

9.2 Chapter 31: Solids and Surface Chemistry

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

5/24:

- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) covers the derivation of rate laws for surface-catalyzed reactions from class.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) derives rate laws for bimolecular gas-phase reactions occurring via the **Langmuir-Hinshelwood mechanism** and **Eley-Rideal mechanism**.
- McQuarrie and Simon (1997) covers surface structure, including SEM and LEED.
- The activation barrier in nitrogen fixation is so high (owing to the BDE of N₂) that even though the reaction is exothermic, the reactant molecules can be stored together forever with no reaction ever taking place.
 - On an iron surface, however, the BDE of N₂ is approximately 10 kJ mol⁻¹.
- **Volcano curve:** A plot with a linear ascent and descent.
- An example is the plot of the relative rates of ammonia synthesis for different transition metal catalysts, which peaks in the middle.
 - The two forces at play in this particular plot are an increase in *d* electrons decreasing the strength of the metal-nitrogen bond in adsorbed NH₃ molecules, and an increase in *d* electrons increasing the N₂ BDE.
- Surface orientation also affects reaction rate: A smooth 110 surface gives rise to a negligible yield of ammonia, while a rough 111 surface has the highest yield.
 - This particular result steps from changes in the BDE of N₂ across the types of surfaces.

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