# **Chemical Kinetics**

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The study of the rates and mechanisms of chemical reactions

# The rate of a chemical reaction

For a chemical reaction like:

$$2NO(g) + O_2(g) \longrightarrow 2NO_2(g)$$

we define the *instantaneous rate* of the reaction as v(t):

$$v(t) = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{d[NO]}{dt} = -\frac{d[O_2]}{dt} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{d[NO_2]}{dt}$$

v(t) is the rate of decrease of reactants or rate of increase in products, and it changes as the reaction proceeds. It can be approximated by finite differences:

v(t) 
$$\approx -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta[NO]}{\Delta t} = -\frac{\Delta[O_2]}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta[NO_2]}{\Delta t}$$

# Chemical Reaction Rates follow a <u>Rate Law</u>

Reaction:

 $2NO(g) + O_{2}(g) \longrightarrow 2 NO_{2}(g)$   $H_{2}(g) + I_{2}(g) \longrightarrow 2HI(g)$   $CH_{3}CHO(g) \longrightarrow CH_{4}(g) + CO(g)$   $NO_{2}(g) + CO(g) \longrightarrow CO_{2}(g) + NO(g)$   $CI_{2}(g) + CO(g) \longrightarrow CI_{2}CO(g)$   $2NO(g) + 2H_{2}(g) \longrightarrow N_{2}(g) + 2H_{2}O(g)$ 

Rate Law:

v(t) = k [NO]<sup>2</sup>[O<sub>2</sub>] v(t) = k [H<sub>2</sub>][I<sub>2</sub>] v(t) = k [CH<sub>3</sub>CHO]<sup>3/2</sup> v(t) = k [NO<sub>2</sub>]<sup>2</sup> v(t) = k [CI<sub>2</sub>]<sup>3/2</sup>[CO] v(t) = k [NO]<sup>2</sup>[H<sub>2</sub>]

k is called the <u>rate constant</u> for the reaction. IN ALL CASES, the rate law must be determined by experiments.

**NOTE:** when v(t) can be written as v(t) =  $k[A]^n[B]^m$ , the superscripts n and m are called the <u>order of the reaction</u> with respect to the reactants A and B, respectively. The <u>overall order of the reaction</u> is m+n.

By systematically varying the reactant concentrations, and measuring the rate of reaction, the rate law and the rate constant can be determined.

Example: $2NO_2(g) + F_2(g) \longrightarrow 2NO_2F(g)$				
Run:	[NO <sub>2</sub> ] <sub>0</sub>	[F <sub>2</sub> ] <sub>0</sub>	v <sub>o</sub> (These are initial values)	
1	1.15 mol/L	1.15 mol/L	6.12 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> M·s <sup>-1</sup>	
2	1.72 mol/L	1.15 mol/L	1.36 × 10⁻³ M⋅s⁻¹	
3	1.15 mol/L	2.30 mol/L	1.22 × 10⁻³ M⋅s⁻¹	

Note that in runs 1 and 2,  $[F_2]_0$  is the same, and in runs 1 and 3,  $[NO_2]_0$  is the same. This helps greatly in the data analysis.

Continuing the example:  $2NO_2(g) + F_2(g) \longrightarrow 2NO_2F(g)$ 

Run:	[NO <sub>2</sub> ] <sub>0</sub>	[F <sub>2</sub> ] <sub>0</sub>	v <sub>o</sub> (These are initial values)
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If we assume a rate law of the form  $v(t) = k[NO_2]^n[F_2]^m$ , we can compare the initial rates of runs 1 and 2 by dividing the rate law expressions for these two cases:

 $\frac{v_0(run\ 1)}{v_0(run\ 2)} = \frac{k[1.15\ M]^n[1.15\ M]^m}{k[1.72\ M]^n[1.15\ M]^m} = \frac{6.12 \times 10^{-4}\ M\cdot s^{-1}}{1.36 \times 10^{-3}\ M\cdot s^{-1}} = 0.450$ 

$$\frac{[1.15 \text{ M}]^{\text{n}}}{[1.72 \text{ M}]^{\text{n}}} = \left(\frac{1.15}{1.72}\right)^{n} = (0.6686)^{n} = 0.450$$

Taking logarithms, n( ln 0.6686) = ln 0.450, or n =  $\frac{\ln 0.450}{\ln 0.6686}$  = 1.984 This is close to 2, so the reaction order with respect to [NO<sub>2</sub>] is 2, within error limits.

Continuing the example:  $2NO_2(g) + F_2(g) \longrightarrow 2NO_2F(g)$ 

Run:	$[NO_2]_0$	[F <sub>2</sub> ] <sub>0</sub>	v <sub>o</sub> (These are initial values)
1	1.15 mol/L	1.15 mol/L	6.12 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> M⋅s <sup>-1</sup>
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Likewise, we can take the ratio of the reaction rates in runs 1 and 3 to deduce the reaction order with respect to  $[F_2]$ :

 $\frac{v_0(run\ 1)}{v_0(run\ 3)} = \frac{k[1.15\ M]^n[1.15\ M]^m}{k[1.15\ M]^n[2.30\ M]^m} = \frac{6.12 \times 10^{-4}\ M\cdot s^{-1}}{1.22 \times 10^{-3}\ M\cdot s^{-1}} = 0.5016$  $\frac{[1.15\ M]^m}{[2.30\ M]^m} = \left(\frac{1.15}{2.30}\right)^m = (0.500)^n = 0.5016$ Taking logarithms, n(ln 0.500) = ln 0.5016, or n =  $\frac{\ln 0.5016}{\ln 0.500} = 0.9954$ 

This is close to 1, so the reaction order with respect to  $[F_2]$  is 1, within the error limits.

Continuing the example:  $2NO_2(g) + F_2(g) \longrightarrow 2NO_2F(g)$ 

Run:	$[NO_2]_0$	$[F_2]_0$	v <sub>0</sub> (These are initial values)
1	1.15 mol/L	1.15 mol/L	6.12 × 10 <sup>-4</sup> M⋅s <sup>-1</sup>
2	1.72 mol/L	1.15 mol/L	1.36 × 10⁻³ M⋅s⁻¹
3	1.15 mol/L	2.30 mol/L	1.22 × 10⁻³ M⋅s⁻¹

Now we know that the rate expression is  $v(t) = k[NO_2]^2[F_2]$ , so we can solve for k in the three runs. First, solving the rate expression for k gives:

$$k = \frac{v}{[\mathsf{NO}_2]^2[\mathsf{F}_2]}$$

Using the initial concentrations and initial rates in the three runs we get:

Run 1: 
$$k = \frac{6.12 \times 10^{-4} \text{ M} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}}{[1.15 \text{ M}]^2 [1.15 \text{ M}]} = 4.02 \times 10^{-4} M^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$$
  
Run 1:  $k = \frac{1.36 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}}{[1.72 \text{ M}]2 [1.15 \text{ M}]} = 4.00 \times 10^{-4} M^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$   
Run 1:  $k = \frac{1.22 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M} \cdot \text{s}^{-1}}{[1.15 \text{ M}]2 [2.30 \text{ M}]} = 4.01 \times 10^{-4} M^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$   
We can report a rate constant of  $k = (4.01 \pm 0.01) \times 10^{-4} M^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$ .

# The units of the rate constant

Because the rate law expression can be different for different reactions, the units of k will vary from one rate law to another as well.

For an overall reaction order of N, the rate expression has units of:  $v(in M \cdot s^{-1}) = k \times (concentration, in M)^N$ Solving for the units of k, we get  $k = v(in M \cdot s^{-1})/(concentration, in M)^N$ or  $k = M \cdot s^{-1}/M^N = M^{(1-N)} \cdot s^{-1}$ 

Here are some examples:

Rate Law	Overall Order	Units of k	
v = k	0	M⋅s⁻¹	
v = k [A]	1	S <sup>-1</sup>	
$v = k [A]^2$	2	M <sup>-1</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>	
v = k [A][B]	2 (1 in A, 1 in B, 2 overall)	M <sup>-1</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>	
$v = k [A]^{1/2}$	1/2	M <sup>1/2</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>	
v = k [A][B] <sup>1/2</sup>	3/2 (1 in A, ½ in B)	M <sup>-1/2</sup> ·s <sup>-1</sup>	
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The units of k are whatever they need to be for the expression to make sense.

### **Integrated Rate Laws**

Instantaneous reaction rates, like  $\frac{d[A]}{dt}$  are hard to measure. To get around this, we need integrated forms of the rate laws.

First order reaction:  $N_2O_5(g) \rightarrow 2NO_2 + \frac{1}{2}O_2$   $v(t) = -\frac{d[N_2O_5]}{dt} = k[N_2O_5]$ We can solve the rate law for  $[N_2O_5]_t$  by first rewriting it as:

 $\frac{d[N_2O_5]}{[N_2O_5]} = -k \, dt , \qquad \text{then integrating both sides from time t=0 to t.}$  $\int_0^t \frac{d[N_2 O_5]}{[N_2 O_5]} = -k \int_0^t dt$  Integration then gives:  $\ln \frac{[N_2 O_5]_t}{[N_2 O_5]_c} = -kt$  Exponentiating both sides and multiplying by  $[N_2 O_5]_0$ 

gives the final form of the solution:  $[N_2O_5]_t = [N_2O_5]_0 e^{-kt}$ 

First order reactions show an exponential decay of the reactant over time. Other examples:

- fluorescence or phosphorescence after excitation  $[A^*]_t = [A^*]_0 e^{-kt} = [A^*]_0 e^{-t/\tau}$ The intensity of emitted light also decays exponentially  $I(t) = I_0 e^{-t/\tau}$
- radioactive decay of a nucleus written to base 2, instead of e, for example

 $\begin{bmatrix} {}^{14}C \end{bmatrix}_t = \begin{bmatrix} {}^{14}C \end{bmatrix}_0 2^{-t/\tau_{1/2}}$ , where  $\tau_{1/2}$  is the half-life, given by

 $\tau_{1/2} = (\ln 2)/k = 0.693/k$  ( $\tau_{1/2} = 5730$  y for <sup>14</sup>C).

### **Integrated Rate Laws**

<u>Second order reaction</u>: NOBr(g)  $\rightarrow$  NO + ½ Br<sub>2</sub>  $v(t) = -\frac{d[NOBr]}{dt} = k[NOBr]^2$ We can solve the rate law for [NOBr]<sub>t</sub> by first rewriting it as:  $\frac{d[\text{NOBr}]}{[\text{NOBr}]^2} = -k \, dt \qquad \text{then integrating from 0 to t}$  $\int_0^t \frac{d[\text{NOBr}]}{[\text{NOBr}]^2} = \int_0^t [\text{NOBr}]^{-2} d[\text{NOBr}] = -k \int_0^t dt \quad \text{Integration then gives:}$  $-\frac{1}{[\text{NOBr}]_t} + \frac{1}{[\text{NOBr}]_0} = -kt \quad \text{or} \quad \left|\frac{1}{[\text{NOBr}]_t} = \frac{1}{[\text{NOBr}]_0} + kt\right|$ 

> Compare first-order reactions with second-order reactions: First order:

 $[N_2 O_5]_t = [N_2 O_5]_0 e^{-kt}$ 

A plot of the  $\ln \frac{[N_2 O_5]_t}{[N_2 O_5]_0}$  vs. t A plot of  $\frac{1}{[\text{NOBr}]_t}$  vs. t is linear, with a slope of -k.

Second order:

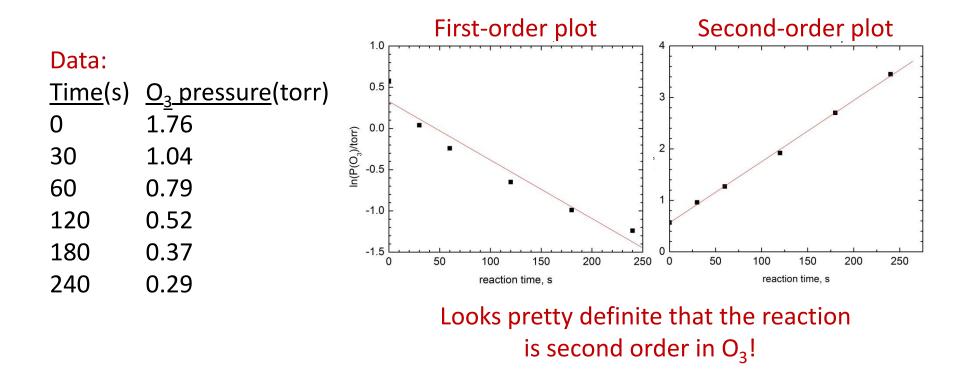
 $\left|\frac{1}{[\text{NOBr}]_t} = \frac{1}{[\text{NOBr}]_0} + kt\right|$ 

is linear, with a slope of +k.

This is a way to distinguish between these two cases, and to determine k.

#### **Determining Rate Laws: The Method of Isolation**

**Example:** The reaction  $CS_2(g) + 2O_3(g) \longrightarrow CO_2(g) + 2SO_2(g)$ Assume a rate law:  $v(t) = -\frac{d[CS_2]}{dt} = k[CS_2]^m[O_3]^n$ With a <u>large excess</u> of  $CS_2$ , we get the data below. But if  $CS_2$  is in large excess, its concentration is nearly constant. We can test for the order with respect to  $O_3$  by plotting the drop in  $O_3$  partial pressure as a function of time, assuming either first order or second order kinetics in  $O_3$ :



### **Reaction Mechanisms**

A <u>reaction mechanism</u> is the sequence of <u>elementary reactions</u> that carry the system from reactants to products.

Each elementary reaction follows a rate law that makes sense from the stoichiometry, so for example the elementary reaction

$$A+B \xrightarrow{k_1} C$$

follows the rate law  $\frac{d[A]}{dt} = -k_1[A][B]$ .

Here I'll use the symbol  $\implies$  to indicate a reaction that is an elementary step, to distinguish it from an overall reaction, which is indicated by  $\rightarrow$ .

#### **The Rate-Determining Step**

For some reactions, one step is much slower than the others, becoming the <u>rate</u> <u>determining step</u>. Subsequent steps need not be considered – products will be formed as fast as the rate-determining step can proceed.

An example:  $NO_2(g) + CO(g) \longrightarrow NO(g) + CO_2(g)$ 

Mechanism:

Step 1: 
$$NO_2(g) + NO_2(g)$$
  $\xrightarrow{k_1}$   $NO_3(g) + NO(g)$   
Step 2:  $NO_3(g) + CO(g)$   $\xrightarrow{k_2}$   $NO_2(g) + CO_2(g)$ 

In this mechanism,  $k_1 >> k_2$ , so step 1 is the rate determining step. The rate law is simply:

$$v = -\frac{1}{2}\frac{d[NO_2]}{dt} = \frac{d[NO]}{dt} = \frac{d[CO_2]}{dt} = k_1[NO_2]^2$$

This breaks down when the CO concentration is so low that the rate of step 2 is slower than step 1, but for a broad range of CO concentrations, the reaction follows this rate law.

### <u>Mechanisms</u>

### A Plausible Mechanism for $2N_2O_5 \rightarrow 4NO_2 + O_2$ : Step 1: $N_2O_5 \xleftarrow{k_1}{k_2} NO_2 + NO_3$ Step 2: $NO_2 + NO_3 \xleftarrow{k_3} NO + O_2 + NO_2$ Step 3: $NO + N_2O_5 \xleftarrow{k_4} NO_2 + NO_2 + NO_2$

Each elementary reaction contributes to the production or destruction of a molecule, so:  $\frac{d[N_2O_5]}{dt} = -k_1[N_2O_5] + k_2[NO_2][NO_3] - k_4[NO][N_2O_5]$   $\frac{d[NO_2]}{dt} = k_1[N_2O_5] - k_2[NO_2][NO_3] + 3k_4[NO][N_2O_5]$   $\frac{d[NO_3]}{dt} = k_1[N_2O_5] - k_2[NO_2][NO_3] - k_3[NO_2][NO_3] = k_1[N_2O_5] - (k_2 + k_3)[NO_2][NO_3]$   $\frac{d[NO]}{dt} = k_3[NO_2][NO_3] - k_4[NO][N_2O_5]$ and  $\frac{d[O_2]}{dt} = k_3[NO_2][NO_3]$ 

### <u>A Plausible Mechanism for $2N_2O_5 \rightarrow 4NO_2 + O_2$ </u>

Looking at all the reactants and product species, we end up with FIVE coupled nonlinear differential equations! **YIKES**!!

$$\frac{d[N_2O_5]}{dt} = -k_1[N_2O_5] + k_2[NO_2][NO_3] - k_4[NO][N_2O_5]$$
  

$$\frac{d[NO_2]}{dt} = k_1[N_2O_5] - k_2[NO_2][NO_3] + 3k_4[NO][N_2O_5]$$
  

$$\frac{d[NO_3]}{dt} = k_1[N_2O_5] - (k_2 + k_3)[NO_2][NO_3]$$
  

$$\frac{d[NO]}{dt} = k_3[NO_2][NO_3] - k_4[NO][N_2O_5]$$
  
and  

$$\frac{d[O_2]}{dt} = k_3[NO_2][NO_3]$$

#### How can we solve this messy problem?

<u>Key simplifying approximation</u>: Reactive intermediates are consumed almost as quickly as they are produced, so their concentration is small and doesn't change much. We can set their time derivatives to zero. [This is the steady-state approximation.] In the environment of the N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> decomposition, the reactive intermediates are NO<sub>3</sub> and NO. Therefore, we can set the rates  $\frac{d[NO_3]}{dt} = 0$  and  $\frac{d[NO]}{dt} = 0$ . This gives

$$k_{1}[N_{2}O_{5}] - (k_{2} + k_{3})[NO_{2}][NO_{3}] = 0 \qquad \text{from} \frac{d[NO_{3}]}{dt} = 0$$
$$k_{3}[NO_{2}][NO_{3}] - k_{4}[NO][N_{2}O_{5}] = 0 \qquad \text{from} \frac{d[NO]}{dt} = 0$$

and  $k_3[NO_2][NO_3] - k_4[NO][N_2O_5] = 0$ 

### The Steady-State Approximation Simplifies Things!

We have the net rate of change in N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> concentration:  $\frac{d[N_2O_5]}{dt} = -k_1[N_2O_5] + k_2[NO_2][NO_3] - k_4[NO][N_2O_5]$ And the steady-state approximations: 1. For [NO\_3]:  $k_1[N_2O_5] - (k_2+k_3)[NO_2][NO_3] = 0$ 2. For [NO]:  $k_3[NO_2][NO_3] - k_4[NO][N_2O_5] = 0$ We can solve these equations for [NO<sub>2</sub>][NO<sub>3</sub>] and [NO][N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>]: From 1: [NO<sub>2</sub>][NO<sub>3</sub>] =  $\frac{k_1}{(k_2+k_3)}[N_2O_5]$  From 2: [NO][N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>] =  $\frac{k_3}{k_4}[NO_2][NO_3]$   $= \frac{k_1k_3}{(k_2+k_3)k_4}[N_2O_5]$ Putting these two expressions into the expression for  $\frac{d[N_2O_5]}{dt}$ , we get a <u>net first-order rate</u>

Putting these two expressions into the expression for  $\frac{d[N_2O_5]}{dt}$ , we get a <u>net first-order rate</u> equation for the decomposition of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub>:

 $\frac{d[N_2O_5]}{dt} = -k_1[N_2O_5] + k_2 \frac{k_1}{(k_2+k_3)}[N_2O_5] - k_4 \frac{k_1k_3}{(k_2+k_3)k_4}[N_2O_5]$ Simplifying, this gives:  $\frac{d[N_2O_5]}{dt} = \left(-k_1 + \frac{k_1k_2}{(k_2+k_3)} - \frac{k_1k_3}{(k_2+k_3)}\right)[N_2O_5] = -\frac{2k_1k_3}{(k_2+k_3)}[N_2O_5]$ The experimental rate law was  $\frac{d[N_2O_5]}{dt} = -k[N_2O_5]$ , so this mechanism is consistent with the measured rate constant, k, which is given in terms of elementary steps by  $k = \frac{2k_1k_3}{(k_2+k_3)}$ 

#### **Important Things to Note:**

1. Elementary steps follow straightforward rate laws given by  $k[A]^n[B]^m$ , etc. where n molecules of A react with m molecules of B. The total number of molecules involved in one elementary step (n+m+...) is called the <u>molecularity</u> of that step.

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- 2. The overall reaction follows a rate law often does not follow the stoichiometry of the reaction. For reactions that proceed by a complicated series of elementary steps, the rate law can be very complicated. For example, in the reaction

 $H_2(g) + Br_2(g) \longrightarrow 2HBr(g)$ 

the rate law would is NOT  $\frac{d[H_2]}{dt} = \frac{d[Br_2]}{dt} = -k[H_2][Br_2]$ , which would be true if the equation written above were an elementary step.

The measured rate law is  $\frac{d[H_2]}{dt} = \frac{d[Br_2]}{dt} = -\frac{k'[H_2][Br_2]^{1/2}}{1+k''[HBr]/[Br_2]}$ , which shows that there is much more to this reaction than just a single elementary step!

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3. Just because a mechanism can be found that gives the proper, experimentally-measured rate law <u>does not mean</u> that mechanism is correct! Often, more than one mechanism can be written that agrees with the overall experimentally-measured rate law.

An example of a chain reaction is the reaction

 $H_2(g) + Br_2(g) \longrightarrow 2HBr(g)$ 

Chain reactions typically involve at least 3 (and sometimes 4) types of elementary steps:  $k_{i}$ 

<u>Initiation:</u>  $Br_2(g) + M(g) \xrightarrow{k_1} 2Br \cdot (g) + M(g)$ 

[Here M is any molecule in the gas, which energizes the Br<sub>2</sub> by colliding with it.]

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Propagation:

Br·(g) + H<sub>2</sub>(g)  $\xrightarrow{k_2}$  HBr(g) + H·(g) H and Br are called the H·(g) + Br<sub>2</sub>(g)  $\xrightarrow{k_3}$  HBr(g) + Br·(g) <u>carriers</u> of the chain reaction

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The propagation steps consume chain carriers just as quickly as they regenerate them. <u>Inhibition:</u> This step is not always present, so some chain reactions are very fast. HBr(g) + H·(g)  $\stackrel{k_4}{\longrightarrow}$  Br·(g) +H<sub>2</sub>(g)

Here, the inhibition reaction re-forms a reactant, so it slows the net rate of reaction.

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Here, the inhibition reaction re-forms a reactant, so it slows the net rate of reaction. <u>Termination:</u>  $2Br \cdot (g) + M(g) \xrightarrow{k_5} Br_2(g) + M(g)$ 

The termination reaction destroys two chain carriers, and forms a reactant molecule. In this system, the Br and H atoms that are the chain carriers are radicals (atoms or molecules with unpaired electrons), which are highly reactive. Chain reactions typically involve radicals as the chain carriers.

An example of a chain reaction is the reaction

 $H_2(g) + Br_2(g) \longrightarrow 2HBr(g)$ 

Chain reactions typically involve at least 3 (and sometimes 4) types of elementary steps:

<u>Initiation:</u>  $Br_2(g) + M(g) \xrightarrow{K_1} 2Br \cdot (g) + M(g)$ 

[Here M is any molecule in the gas, which energizes the Br<sub>2</sub> by colliding with it.]

Propagation:

Br·(g) + H<sub>2</sub>(g)  $\xrightarrow{\kappa_2}$  HBr(g) + H·(g) H and Br are called the H·(g) + Br<sub>2</sub>(g)  $\xrightarrow{k_3}$  HBr(g) + Br·(g) <u>carriers</u> of the chain reaction

The propagation steps consume chain carriers just as quickly as they regenerate them. <u>Inhibition:</u> This step is not always present, so some chain reactions are very fast. HBr(g) + H·(g)  $\stackrel{k_4}{\longrightarrow}$  Br·(g) +H<sub>2</sub>(g)

Here, the inhibition reaction re-forms a reactant, so it slows the net rate of reaction. <u>Termination:</u>  $2Br \cdot (g) + M(g) \xrightarrow{k_5} Br_2(g) + M(g)$ 

The termination reaction destroys two chain carriers, and forms a reactant molecule. In this system, the Br and H atoms that are the chain carriers are radicals (atoms or molecules with unpaired electrons), which are highly reactive. Chain reactions typically involve radicals as the chain carriers.

The steady-state approximation can be used to work out the kinetics of this system, giving the correct, experimentally observed rate law.

#### **Branching Chain Reactions:**

A branching chain reaction has steps that increase the number of chain carriers. These reactions really take off, usually explosively!

Example:

- 5. Termination

 $2H_2 + O_2 \longrightarrow 2H_2O$ , chain carriers are H and OH. **1. Initiation Step:**  $H_2 + O_2 \implies 2OH^2$ **2.** Chain Propagation:  $OH + H_2 \longrightarrow H_2O + H_2$ 3. Chain Branching:  $H \cdot + O_2 \longrightarrow OH \cdot + \cdot O_2$ 4. Chain Branching:  $\cdot O \cdot + H_2 \implies OH \cdot + H \cdot$  $H \cdot + H \cdot \longrightarrow H_2$  (occurs on vessel wall)

Steps 3 and 4 together give  $H_1 + O_2 + H_2 \longrightarrow 2OH_1 + H_2$ 

These two steps multiply the number of chain carriers by a factor of three! BANG!

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- 4. Chain Branching:
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Steps 3 and 4 together give  $H_1 + O_2 + H_2 \longrightarrow 2OH_1 + H_2$ These two steps multiply the number of chain carriers by a factor of three! BANG!

235U Example 2: (SIMPLIFIED) 235U

- 1. Initiation Step:
- 2. Chain Branching:  $n + {}^{235}U \longrightarrow {}^{92}Kr + {}^{141}Ba + 3n$

<sup>92</sup>Kr + <sup>141</sup>Ba + 2n, chain carriers are n <sup>92</sup>Kr + <sup>141</sup>Ba + 2n (spontaneous fission)

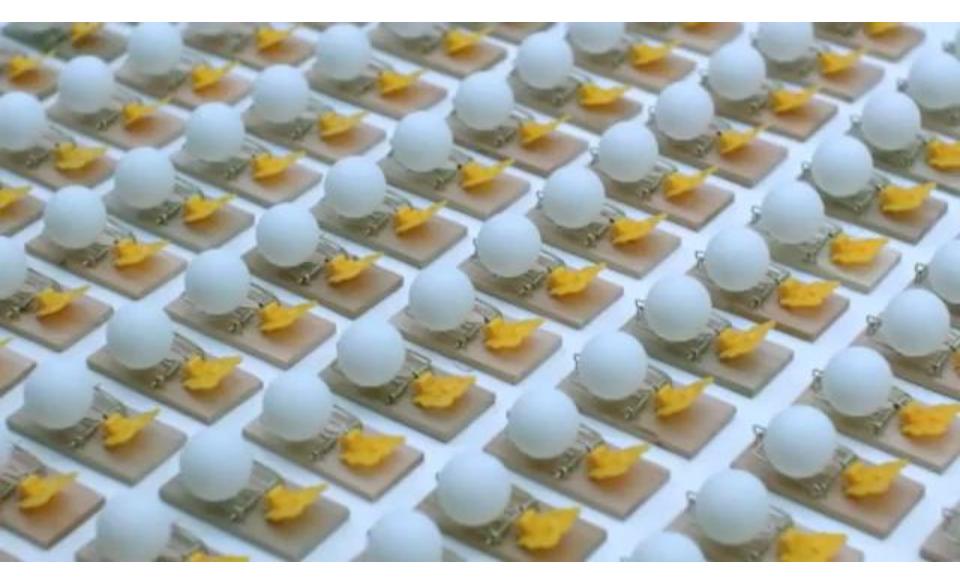
(triples the number of chain carriers)



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=11e8XyUBqRQ



#### **Branching Chain Reactions:**



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=-zX-gz1lRt0

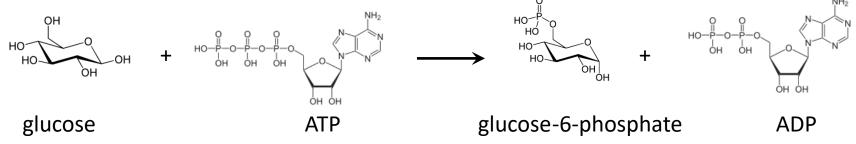
Enzymes - Proteins that convert substrates to products

The overall reaction may be written as

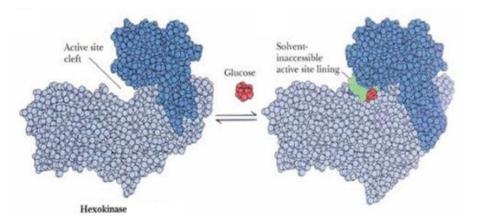
 $E + S \longrightarrow E + P$ 

Example: Phosphorylation of glucose to glucose-6-phosphate, catalyzed by hexokinase.

Glucose is the substrate and glucose-6-phosphate is the product.



Hexokinase accepts glucose into its active site, where the presence of the correct amino acid side groups greatly accelerates the reaction:



Many enzyme-catalyzed reactions (including this one) follow a rate law of the form  $-\frac{d[S]}{dt} = \frac{k[S]}{K + [S]} [E]_0 ,$ 

where [S] is the concentration of the substrate,
 [E]<sub>0</sub> is the total concentration of enzyme, and
 k and K are constants.

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This is explained by the Michaelis-Menten reaction mechanism (1913):

Step 1: E + S 
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$$\begin{array}{c} k_1 \\ k_{-1} \\ k_2 \\ k_2 \\ k_{-2} \end{array}$$
 ES is the enzyme with the substrate bound in the active site.  
Step 2: ES  $\begin{array}{c} k_1 \\ k_{-1} \\ k_2 \\ k_{-2} \end{array}$  E + P

This gives rate expressions for [S], [ES], and [P]<sup>.</sup>

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

Three coupled differential equations: How can we solve them?

1. 
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- 2.  $\frac{d[\text{ES}]}{dt} = k_1[\text{E}][\text{S}] (k_{-1} + k_2)[\text{ES}] + k_{-2}[\text{E}][\text{P}]$
- 3.  $\frac{d[P]}{dt} = k_2[ES] k_{-2}[E][P]$

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The enzyme is not consumed in the reaction, so [E]+[ES] is conserved, defined as [E]<sub>0</sub>:

 $[E]_0 \equiv [ES] + [E]$  or  $[E] = [E]_0 - [ES]$ 

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[E]<sub>0</sub> = [ES] + [E] or [E]=[E]<sub>0</sub>-[ES]  
Then we can rewrite Eq. 2  $\frac{d[ES]}{dt} = k_1[E][S] - (k_{-1} + k_2)[ES] + k_{-2}[E][P]$  as:  
 $\frac{d[ES]}{dt} = k_1([E]_0 - [ES])[S] - (k_{-1} + k_2)[ES] + k_{-2}([E]_0 - [ES])[P]$   
 $= -(k_{-1} + k_2 + k_{-2}[P] + k_1[S])[ES] + k_1([E]_0)[S] + k_{-2}([E]_0)[P]$ 

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 $= -(k_{-1} + k_2 + k_{-2}[P] + k_1[S])[ES] + k_1([E]_0)[S] + k_{-2}([E]_0)[P]$ 

We can apply the steady-state approximation to [ES]:

 $\frac{d[\text{ES}]}{dt} = -(k_{-1}+k_2+k_{-2}[\text{P}]+k_1[\text{S}])[\text{ES}]+k_1([\text{E}]_0)[\text{S}]+k_{-2}([\text{E}]_0)[\text{P}] = 0.$ Solving for [ES] gives:

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

The steady-state expression:

n: 
$$[ES] = \frac{k_1[S] + k_{-2}[P]}{k_1[S] + k_{-2}[P] + k_{-1} + k_2} [E]_0$$

can be substituted into  $\frac{d[S]}{dt} = -k_1[E][S] + k_{-1}[ES]$ , to give the reaction rate:

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

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Again using [E]=[E]<sub>0</sub>-[ES] and the steady-state approximation for [ES] (above), this gives

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

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After a little algebra, this simplifies to:

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

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If the experimental measurements are only made during the initial period, when only 1-3% of substrate is converted to products, we may approximate [S]=[S]<sub>0</sub> and [P]=0, to obtain:

$$-\frac{d[S]}{dt} = \frac{k_1 k_2 [S]_0}{k_1 [S]_0 + k_{-1} + k_2} [E]_0$$
  
or 
$$-\frac{d[S]}{dt} = \frac{k_2 [S]_0}{[S]_0 + (k_{-1} + k_2)/k_1} [E]_0$$

Michaelis-Menten equation



The Michaelis-Menten equation

$$-\frac{d[S]}{dt} = \frac{k_2[S]_0}{[S]_0 + (k_{-1} + k_2)/k_1} [E]_0$$

shows that when  $[S]_0 \gg (k_{-1} + k_2)/k_1$ , the rate becomes  $-\frac{d[S]}{dt} = k_2[E]_0$ 

k<sub>2</sub>[E]<sub>0</sub>, gives the maximum rate of conversion of substrate to product in units of mol·L<sup>-1</sup>·s<sup>-1</sup>, and is denoted as V<sub>max</sub>.

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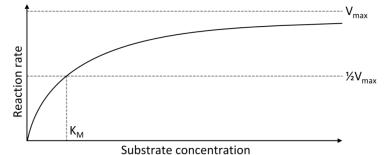
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Studies of enzyme kinetics are performed very frequently in the pharmaceutical industry, where molecules are sought that can block or reduce enzyme activity to treat a particular disease or condition.



By Thomas Shafee - Own work, CC BY-SA 4.0, https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=38914698

The Swedish chemist, Svante Arrhenius, found that a great many reactions exhibited a reaction rate coefficient that depends on temperature according to the formula

 $k = Ae^{-E_a/RT}$ , [Arrhenius equation]

where A and E<sub>a</sub> are constants, and R is the gas constant. Of course, T is measured in Kelvin.

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The activation energy is readily determined by plotting  $\ell n(k)$  vs. 1/T, since

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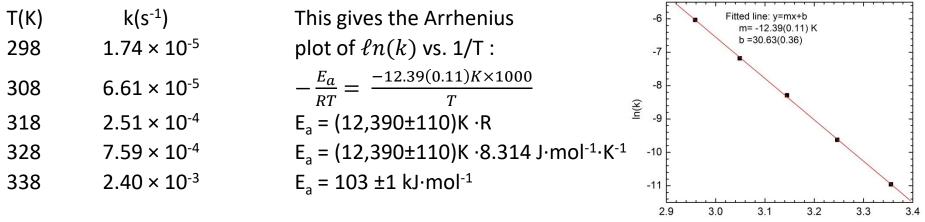
Here's an example: The decomposition of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>5</sub> follows the first-order integrated rate law

$$[N_2O_5]_t = [N_2O_5]_0 e^{-kt}$$

Arrhenius plot for the decomposition of N<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>

1000/T(K)

and k is measured at various temperatures as:

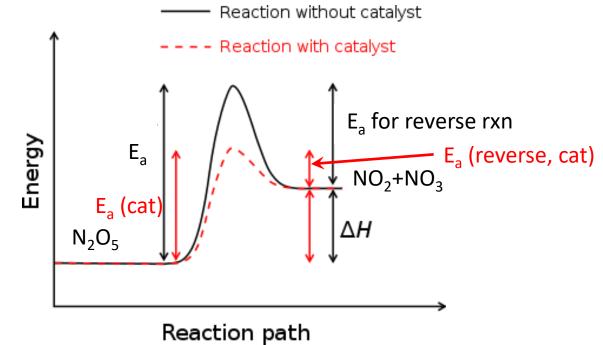


#### **Activation Energy:**

The activation energy is interpreted as the amount of energy needed to initiate the reaction. The idea is that the reaction, energy must be added to the reactants to distort them in a manner that can allow products to form. In reality, there is a separate activation energy for each step in the reaction mechanism, although we often lump these together to get an overall activation energy. For a single fundamental step, such as the reaction

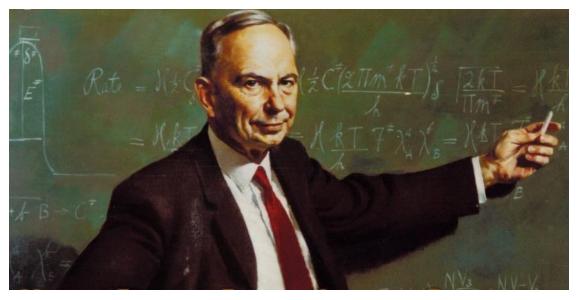
$$N_2O_5 \xrightarrow{k_1} NO_2 + NO_3$$

the  $N_2O_5$  molecule must first be deformed to a point where it is downhill in energy to form products.



## **Transition State Theory:**

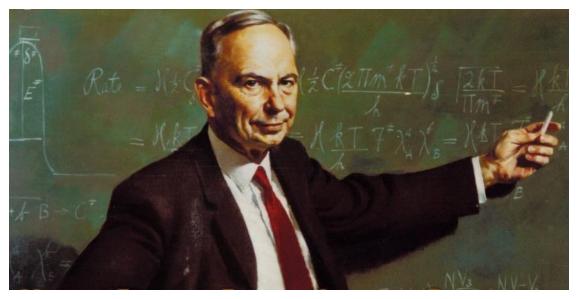
Our own Henry Eyring, who founded the graduate school at the University of Utah,



developed a more fundamental theory of reaction processes that is now known as <u>transition</u> <u>state theory</u>. This theory uses statistics to calculate the probability that the reactants reach the top of the reaction barrier, and then assumes there is an equal probability of dropping back down to starting materials or going forward to products.

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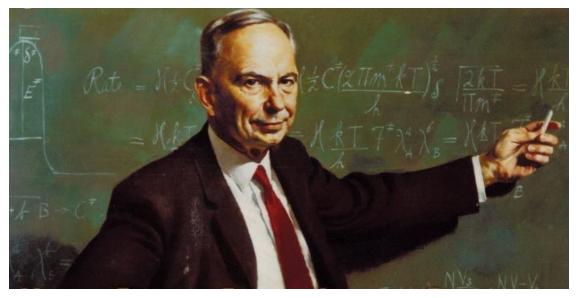
The final expression for the rate constant that is obtained is:

$$k(T) = \frac{k_B T}{hc^o} e^{\Delta S^{\ddagger}/R} e^{-\Delta H^{\ddagger}/RT}$$
 Here  $\Delta H^{\ddagger}$  and  $\Delta S^{\ddagger}$  refer to the enthalpy and entropy change

in forming the transition state,  $k_B$  is Boltzmann's constant, and  $c^o$  is the standard state concentration (using 1 M).

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developed a more fundamental theory of reaction processes that is now known as <u>transition</u> <u>state theory</u>. This theory uses statistics to calculate the probability that the reactants reach the top of the reaction barrier, and then assumes there is an equal probability of dropping back down to starting materials or going forward to products.

The final expression for the rate constant that is obtained is:

 $k(T) = \frac{k_B T}{hc^o} e^{\Delta S^{\ddagger}/R} e^{-\Delta H^{\ddagger}/RT}$  Here  $\Delta H^{\ddagger}$  and  $\Delta S^{\ddagger}$  refer to the enthalpy and entropy change in forming the transition state,  $k_B$  is Boltzmann's constant, and  $c^o$  is the standard state concentration (using 1 M). This provides a meaning for the pre-exponential factor in the Arrhenius expression, given by  $A = \frac{k_B T}{hc^o} e^{\Delta S^{\ddagger}/R}$ . The pre-exponential factor is related to the entropy change required to form the transition state.

# Thanks for your attention!

For your pleasure: A reaction with a really complicated reaction mechanism:



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=weQz8lf55jM

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=WasYuiOk5xQ&ebc=ANyPxKrHgx3dg eQi5IAFukyGwOB7mXDgYkF3Z7OHuSiVbS0EW-UFucUCiVIDzUpFE61nvcsV9NpW1\_6K703\_pmSeXHDfvj6MKw

This example is the Briggs-Rauscher reaction, which has the overall reaction:  $IO_3^- + 2H_2O_2 + CH_2(COOH)_2 + H^+ \longrightarrow ICH(COOH)_2 + 2O_2 + 3H_2O$ There are many steps, some of which produce intermediates that slow down the reaction. The reaction is catalyzed by the Mn<sup>2+</sup> ion. The color change is due to the production of I<sub>2</sub>, which is detected using the blue color of an I<sub>2</sub>-starch complex.