

this reactant take to reduce to 3 g?

- 4.6 Time required to decompose SO_2Cl_2 to half of its initial amount is 60 minutes. If the decomposition is a first order reaction, calculate the rate constant of the reaction.

4.4 Temperature Dependence of the Rate of a Reaction

Most of the chemical reactions are accelerated by increase in temperature. For example, in decomposition of N_2O_5 , the time taken for half of the original amount of material to decompose is 12 min at 50°C , 5 h at 25°C and 10 days at 0°C . You also know that in a mixture of potassium permanganate (KMnO_4) and oxalic acid ($\text{H}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4$), potassium permanganate gets decolourised faster at a higher temperature than that at a lower temperature.

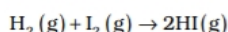
It has been found that for a chemical reaction with rise in temperature by 10° , the rate constant is nearly doubled.

The temperature dependence of the rate of a chemical reaction can be accurately explained by Arrhenius equation (4.18). It was first proposed by Dutch chemist, J.H. van't Hoff but Swedish chemist, Arrhenius provided its physical justification and interpretation.

$$k = A e^{-E_a/RT} \quad (4.18)$$

where A is the Arrhenius factor or the frequency factor. It is also called pre-exponential factor. It is a constant specific to a particular reaction. R is gas constant and E_a is activation energy measured in joules/mole (J mol^{-1}).

It can be understood clearly using the following simple reaction



According to Arrhenius, this reaction can take place only when a molecule of hydrogen and a molecule of iodine collide to form an unstable intermediate (Fig. 4.6). It exists for a very short time and then breaks up to form two molecules of hydrogen iodide.

The energy required to form this intermediate, called **activated complex (C)**, is known as **activation energy (E_a)**. Fig. 4.7 is obtained by plotting potential energy vs reaction coordinate. Reaction coordinate represents the profile of energy change when reactants change into products.

Some energy is released when the complex decomposes to form products. So, the final enthalpy of the reaction depends upon the nature of reactants and products.

All the molecules in the reacting species do not have the same kinetic energy. Since it is difficult to predict the behaviour of any one molecule with precision, Ludwig Boltzmann and James Clark Maxwell used statistics to predict the behaviour of large number of molecules. According to them, the distribution of kinetic energy may be described by plotting the fraction of molecules (N_E/N_T) with a given kinetic energy (E) vs kinetic energy (Fig. 4.8). Here, N_E is the number of molecules with energy E and N_T is total number of molecules.

The peak of the curve corresponds to the **most probable kinetic energy**, i.e., kinetic energy of maximum fraction of molecules. There are decreasing number of molecules with energies higher or lower than this value. When the

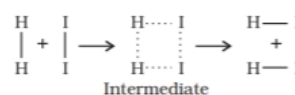


Fig. 4.6: Formation of HI through the intermediate

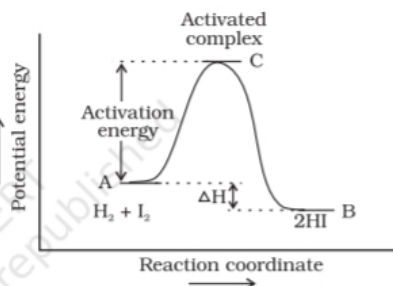


Fig. 4.7: Diagram showing plot of potential energy vs reaction coordinate

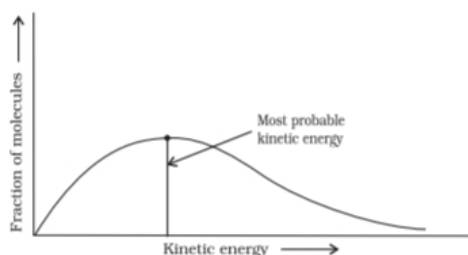


Fig. 4.8: Distribution curve showing energies among gaseous molecules

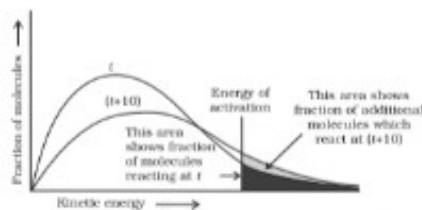


Fig. 4.9: Distribution curve showing temperature dependence of rate of a reaction

temperature is raised, the maximum of the curve moves to the higher energy value (Fig. 4.9) and the curve broadens out, i.e., spreads to the right such that there is a greater proportion of molecules with much higher energies. The area under the curve must be constant since total probability must be one at all times. We can mark the position of E_a on Maxwell Boltzmann distribution curve (Fig. 4.9).

Increasing the temperature of the substance increases the fraction of molecules, which collide with energies greater than E_a . It is clear from the diagram that in the curve at $(t + 10)$, the area showing the fraction of molecules having energy equal to or greater than activation energy gets doubled leading to doubling the rate of a reaction.

In the Arrhenius equation (4.18) the factor $e^{-E_a/RT}$ corresponds to the fraction of molecules that have kinetic energy greater than E_a . Taking natural logarithm of both sides of equation (4.18)

$$\ln k = -\frac{E_a}{RT} + \ln A \quad (4.19)$$

The plot of $\ln k$ vs $1/T$ gives a straight line according to the equation (4.19) as shown in Fig. 4.10.

Thus, it has been found from Arrhenius equation (4.18) that increasing the temperature or decreasing the activation energy will result in an increase in the rate of the reaction and an exponential increase in the rate constant.

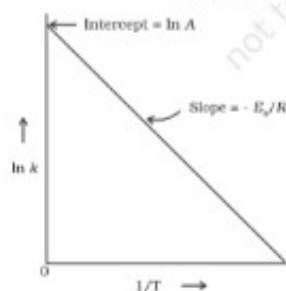


Fig. 4.10: A plot between $\ln k$ and $1/T$

In Fig. 4.10, slope = $-\frac{E_a}{R}$ and intercept = $\ln A$. So we can calculate E_a and A using these values.

At temperature T_1 , equation (4.19) is

$$\ln k_1 = -\frac{E_a}{RT_1} + \ln A \quad (4.20)$$

At temperature T_2 , equation (4.19) is

$$\ln k_2 = -\frac{E_a}{RT_2} + \ln A \quad (4.21)$$

(since A is constant for a given reaction)

k_1 and k_2 are the values of rate constants at temperatures T_1 and T_2 respectively.

Subtracting equation (4.20) from (4.21), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \ln k_2 - \ln k_1 &= -\frac{E_a}{RT_2} + \frac{E_a}{RT_1} \\ \ln \frac{k_2}{k_1} &= \frac{E_a}{R} \left[\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right] \\ \log \frac{k_2}{k_1} &= \frac{E_a}{2.303R} \left[\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right] \quad (4.22) \\ \log \frac{k_2}{k_1} &= \frac{E_a}{2.303R} \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right] \end{aligned}$$

Example 4.9 The rate constants of a reaction at 500K and 700K are 0.02 s^{-1} and 0.07 s^{-1} respectively. Calculate the values of E_a and A .

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} \log \frac{k_2}{k_1} &= \frac{E_a}{2.303R} \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{T_1 T_2} \right] \\ \log \frac{0.07}{0.02} &= \left(\frac{E_a}{2.303 \times 8.314 \text{ JK}^{-1} \text{ mol}^{-1}} \right) \left[\frac{700 - 500}{700 \times 500} \right] \\ 0.544 &= E_a \times 5.714 \times 10^{-4} / 19.15 \\ E_a &= 0.544 \times 19.15 / 5.714 \times 10^{-4} = 18230.8 \text{ J} \end{aligned}$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} k &= Ae^{-E_a/RT} \\ 0.02 &= Ae^{-18230.8/8.314 \times 500} \\ A &= 0.02/0.012 = 1.61 \end{aligned}$$

Example 4.10 The first order rate constant for the decomposition of ethyl iodide by the reaction



at 600K is $1.60 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}^{-1}$. Its energy of activation is 209 kJ/mol. Calculate the rate constant of the reaction at 700K.

Solution

We know that

$$\log k_2 - \log k_1 = \frac{E_a}{2.303R} \left[\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right]$$

$$\log k_2 = \log k_1 + \frac{E_a}{2.303R} \left[\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right]$$

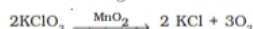
$$= \log(1.60 \times 10^{-5}) + \frac{209000 \text{ J mol}^{-1}}{2.303 \times 8.314 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}} \left[\frac{1}{600 \text{ K}} - \frac{1}{700 \text{ K}} \right]$$

$$\log k_2 = -4.796 + 2.599 = -2.197$$

$$k_2 = 6.36 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

4.4.1 Effect of Catalyst

A catalyst is a substance which increases the rate of a reaction without itself undergoing any permanent chemical change. For example, MnO_2 catalyses the following reaction so as to increase its rate considerably.



The word catalyst should not be used when the added substance reduces the rate of reaction. The substance is then called inhibitor. The action of the catalyst can be explained by intermediate complex theory. According to this theory, a catalyst participates in a chemical reaction by forming temporary bonds with the reactants resulting in an intermediate complex. This has a transitory existence and decomposes to yield products and the catalyst.

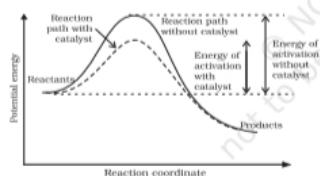


Fig. 4.11: Effect of catalyst on activation energy

It is believed that the catalyst provides an alternate pathway or reaction mechanism by reducing the activation energy between reactants and products and hence lowering the potential energy barrier as shown in Fig. 4.11.

It is clear from Arrhenius equation (4.18) that lower the value of activation energy faster will be the rate of a reaction.

A small amount of the catalyst can catalyse a large amount of reactants. A catalyst does not alter Gibbs energy, ΔG of a reaction. It catalyses the spontaneous reactions but does not catalyse non-spontaneous reactions. It is also found that a catalyst does not change the equilibrium constant of a reaction rather, it helps in attaining the equilibrium faster, that is, it catalyses the forward as well as the backward reactions to the same extent so that the equilibrium state remains same but is reached earlier.

4.5 Collision Theory of Chemical Reactions

Though Arrhenius equation is applicable under a wide range of circumstances, collision theory, which was developed by Max Trautz and William Lewis in 1916-18, provides a greater insight into the energetic and mechanistic aspects of reactions. It is based on kinetic theory of gases. According to this theory, the reactant molecules are

assumed to be hard spheres and reaction is postulated to occur when molecules collide with each other. The number of collisions per second per unit volume of the reaction mixture is known as collision frequency (Z). Another factor which affects the rate of chemical reactions is activation energy (as we have already studied). For a bimolecular elementary reaction



rate of reaction can be expressed as

$$\text{Rate} = Z_{AB} e^{-E_a/RT} \quad (4.23)$$

where Z_{AB} represents the collision frequency of reactants, A and B and $e^{-E_a/RT}$ represents the fraction of molecules with energies equal to or greater than E_a . Comparing (4.23) with Arrhenius equation, we can say that A is related to collision frequency.

Equation (4.23) predicts the value of rate constants fairly accurately for the reactions that involve atomic species or simple molecules but for complex molecules significant deviations are observed. The reason could be that all collisions do not lead to the formation of products. The collisions in which molecules collide with sufficient kinetic energy (called threshold energy*) and proper orientation, so as to facilitate breaking of bonds between reacting species and formation of new bonds to form products are called as effective collisions.

For example, formation of methanol from bromoethane depends upon the orientation of reactant molecules as shown in Fig. 4.12. The proper orientation of reactant molecules lead to bond formation whereas improper orientation makes them simply bounce back and no products are formed.

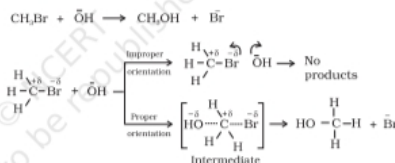


Fig. 4.12: Diagram showing molecules having proper and improper orientation

To account for effective collisions, another factor P , called the probability or steric factor is introduced. It takes into account the fact that in a collision, molecules must be properly oriented i.e.,

$$\text{Rate} = PZ_{AB} e^{-E_a/RT}$$

Thus, in collision theory activation energy and proper orientation of the molecules together determine the criteria for an effective collision and hence the rate of a chemical reaction.

Collision theory also has certain drawbacks as it considers atoms/molecules to be hard spheres and ignores their structural aspect. You will study details about this theory and more on other theories in your higher classes.

* Threshold energy = Activation Energy + energy possessed by reacting species.