

Kinetics & Dynamics of Chemical Reactions

Course CH-310

Prof. Sascha Feldmann

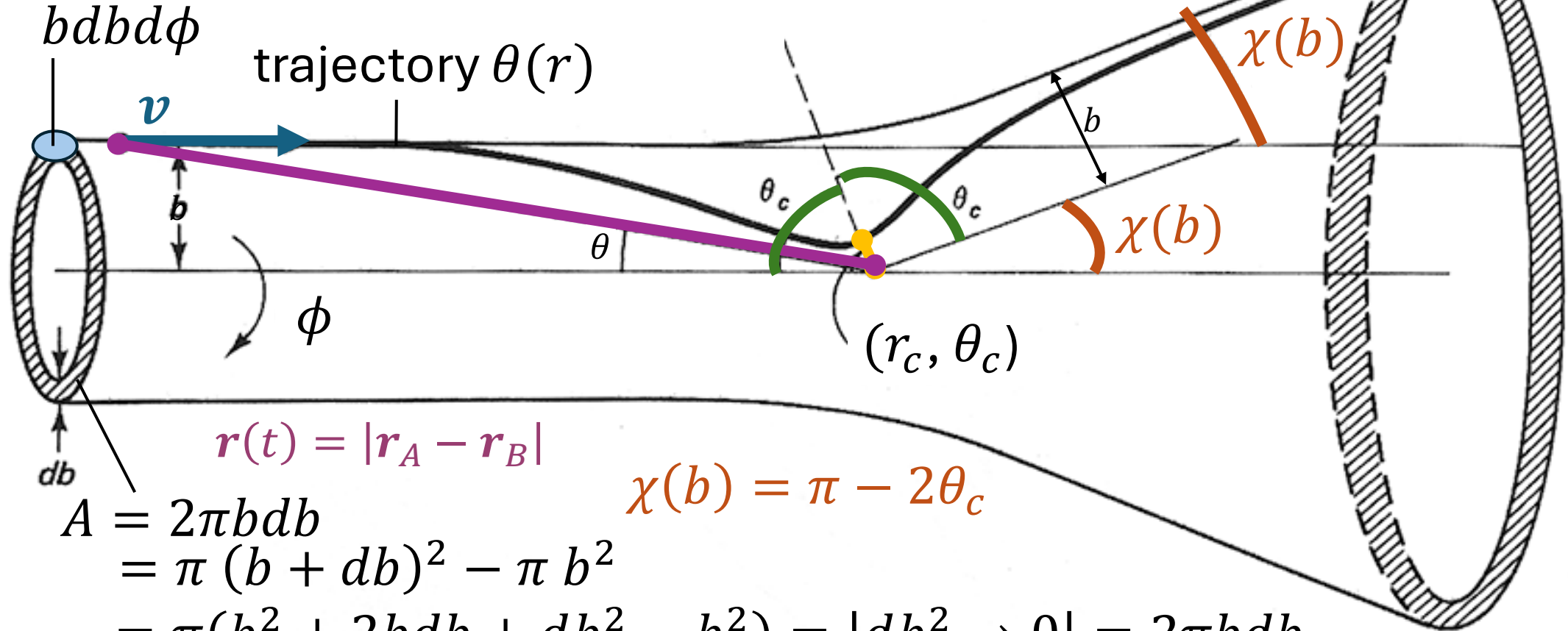
Recap from last session

2-body classical scattering

$$I_R = \frac{d\sigma_R}{d\Omega} = \frac{2\pi b db}{|2\pi \sin\chi(b) d\chi|} = \frac{b}{\left| \frac{d(\cos\chi)}{db} \right|}$$

$$d\Omega = \sin\chi d\chi d\phi$$

$$A' = 2\pi \sin\chi d\chi$$



$$r(t) = |\mathbf{r}_A - \mathbf{r}_B|$$

$$\chi(b) = \pi - 2\theta_c$$

$$A = 2\pi b db$$

$$= \pi (b + db)^2 - \pi b^2$$

$$= \pi (b^2 + 2bdb + db^2 - b^2) = |db^2 \rightarrow 0| = 2\pi b db$$

Recap from last session

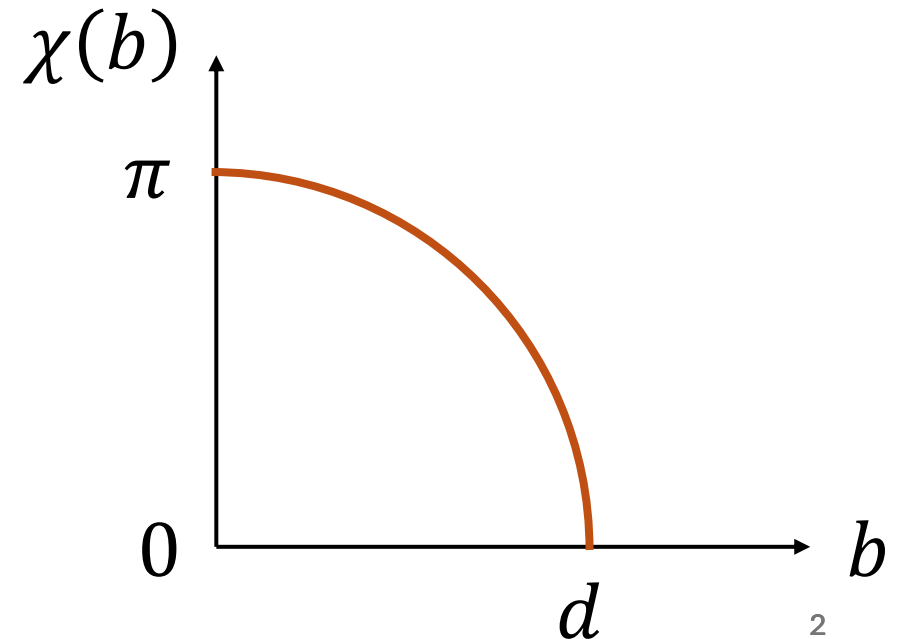
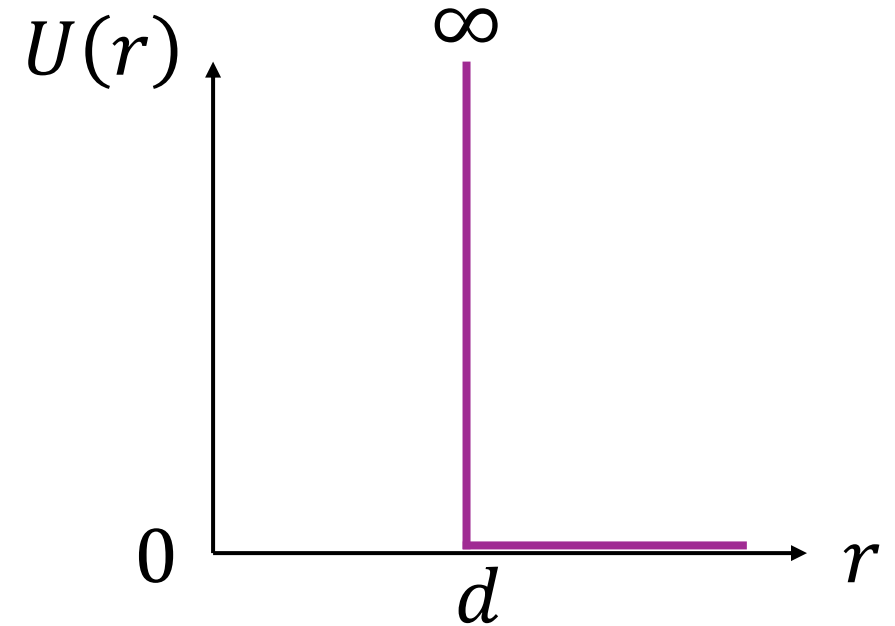
2-body classical scattering

$$I_R = \frac{d\sigma_R}{d\Omega} = \frac{2\pi b db}{|2\pi \sin\chi(b) d\chi|} = \frac{b}{\left| \frac{d(\cos\chi)}{db} \right|}$$

• for hard spheres: $U(r) = \begin{cases} 0 & (r > d) \\ \infty & (r \leq d) \end{cases}$

• $\chi(E, b) = 2 \arccos \frac{b}{d}$

• $I_R(E, \chi) = \frac{d^2}{4}$



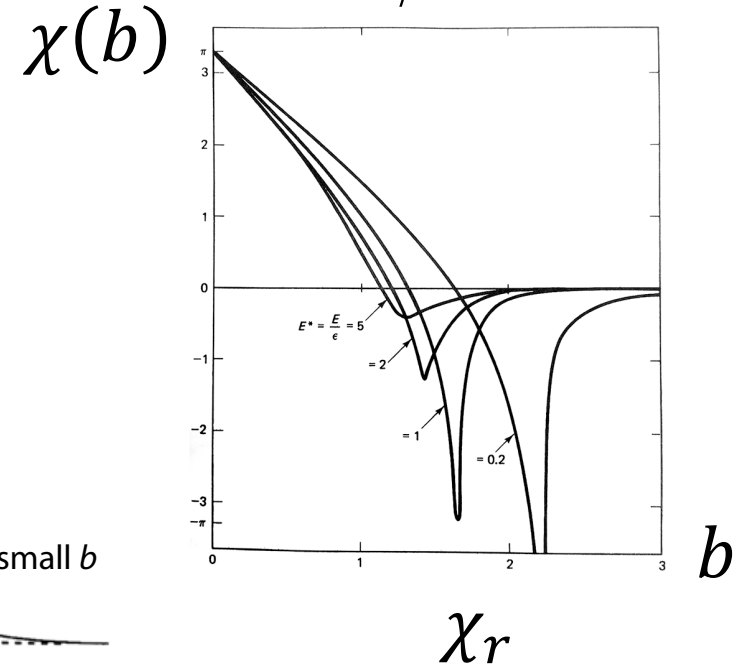
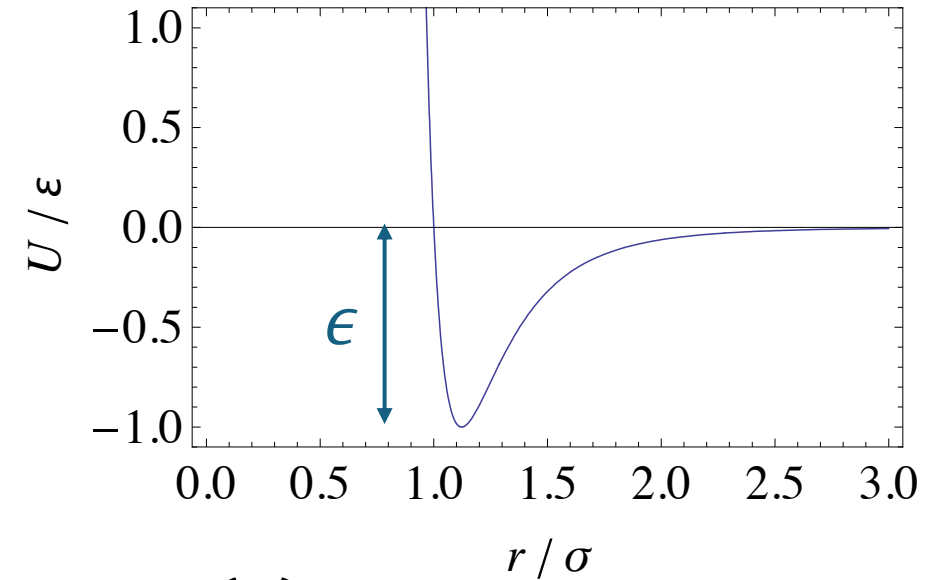
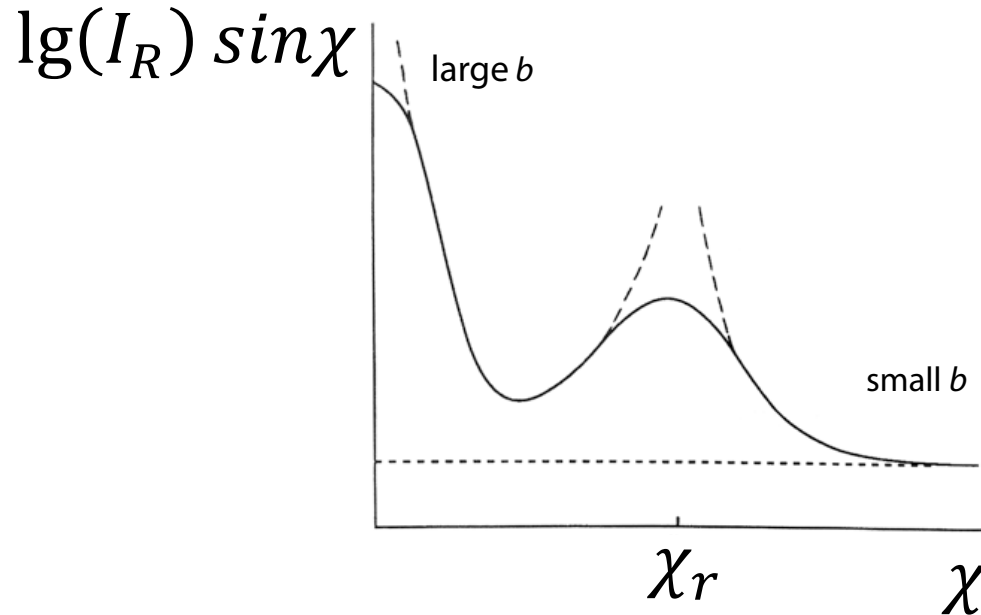
Recap from last session

2-body classical scattering

$$I_R = \frac{d\sigma_R}{d\Omega} = \frac{2\pi b db}{|2\pi \sin\chi(b) d\chi|} = \frac{b}{\left| \frac{d(\cos\chi)}{db} \right|}$$

- for Lennard-Jones: $U(r) = 4\epsilon \left[\left(\frac{\sigma}{r}\right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma}{r}\right)^6 \right]$

- χ_r : rainbow angle



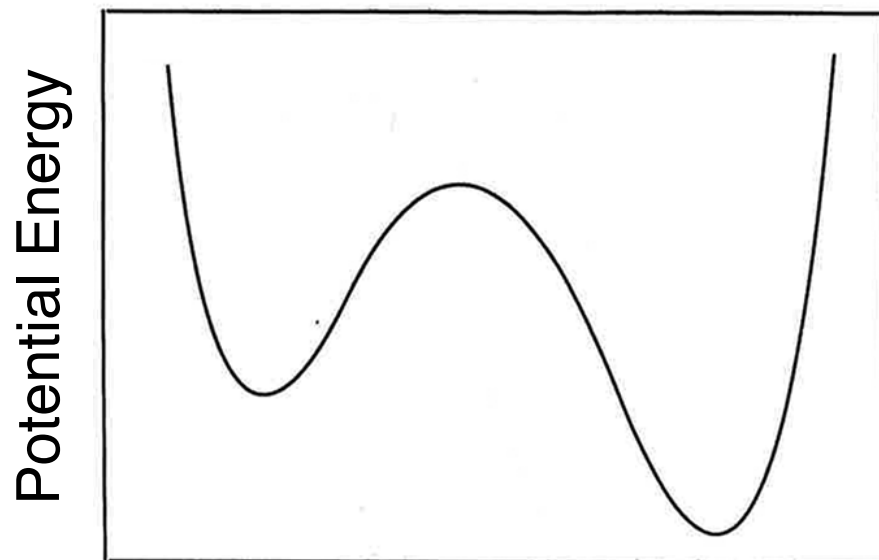
Chapter 6

Unimolecular Reaction Dynamics

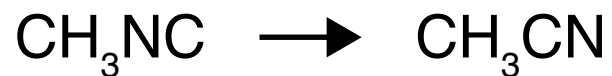
- **Unimolecular** reaction: $A^* \rightarrow \text{products}$
- Why would we want to understand such a “boring” case?
 - because it is *simple enough* to understand the mechanism on a deeper level!
- Asterisk *: particle needs to be in an *excited* state (e.g., sufficiently high vibrational energy) to react – be in a reactive/an activated state
- We can distinguish 3 different types of unimolecular reactions based on features of the respective potential energy surface

Unimolecular reaction: $A^* \rightarrow \text{products}$

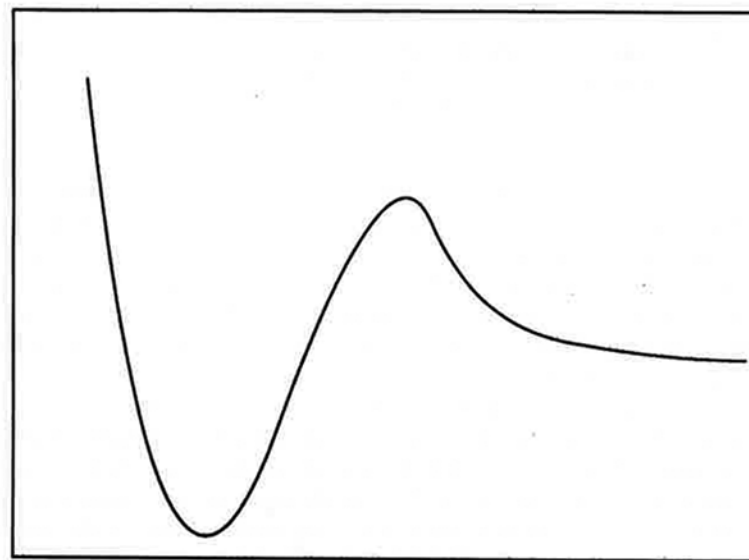
a) Isomerization



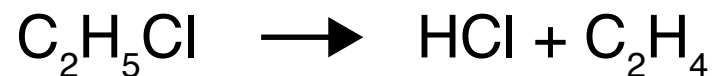
Reaction Coordinate



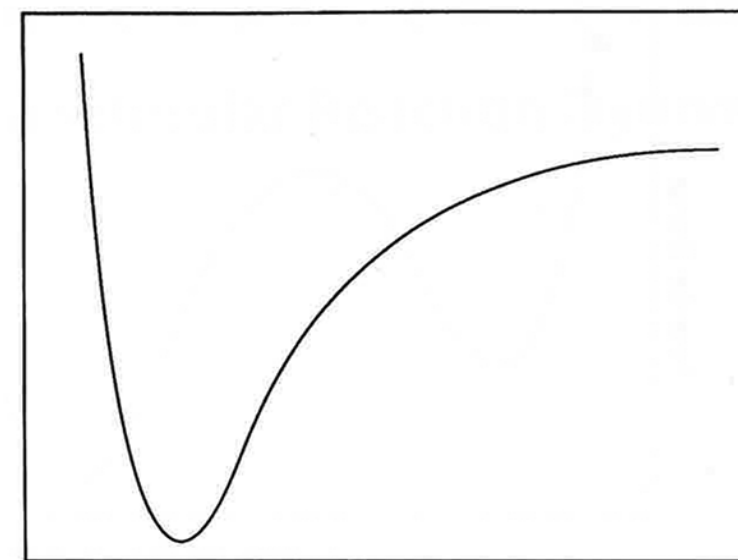
b) Dissociation with barrier for recombination



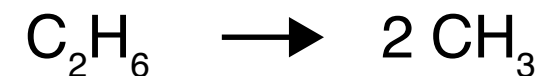
Reaction Coordinate



c) Dissociation without barrier for recombination



Reaction Coordinate

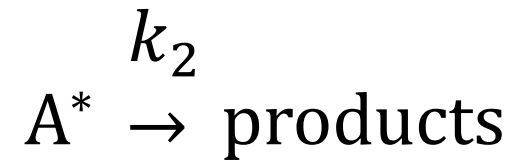
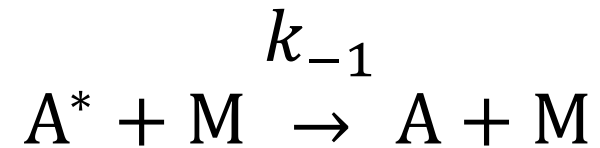
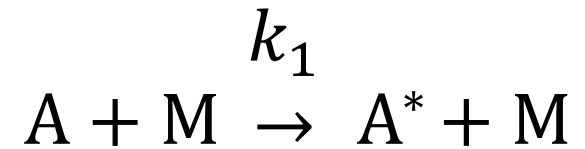


Unimolecular reaction: $A^* \rightarrow \text{products}$

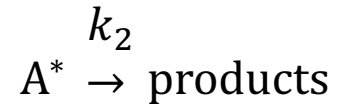
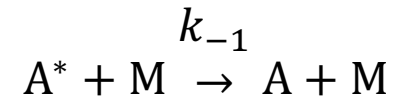
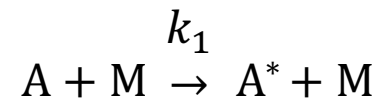
- How does a molecule acquire enough energy to overcome the barrier to react?
 - Absorption of radiation from walls of a reaction vessel (1919, Perrin)?
 - ... only found to be dominant mechanism for gas molecules at very *low* pressures, in absence of collisions:
 - then, predominant dissociation mechanism is indeed absorption of a large number of IR-photons originating from black-body radiation of walls of container
 - But what about at *moderate* pressures?
 - *Dependence* of reaction rate on pressure found (contradicts Perrin!)
 - also, *no dependence* found on surface-to-volume ratio of container or presence of absorbers (contradicts Perrin!)
- instead this suggests that molecules are activated by *collisions*

6.1 Lindemann-Hinshelwood Theory of Unimolecular Reactions

Lindemann proposed in 1922 a collision partner M is needed to activate/deactivate A :



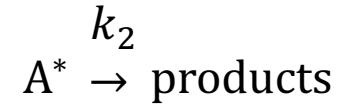
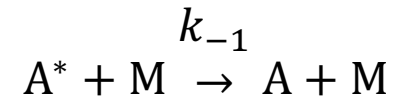
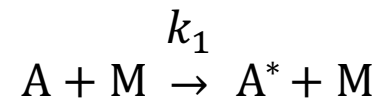
- What does this scheme remind you of?



- scheme reminds of the steady-state approximation for A^*
- We make an additional approximation here:
 - we assume *every collision* of $A^* + M$ *fully deactivates* A^* to A
 - the so called ***strong-collision assumption***
- How to calculate k_{-1} for deactivation step then?
- could use **gas-kinetic collision rate** z_{AM} we derived before:

$$z_{AM} = \sigma_{AM} \langle u_{AM} \rangle \rho_A \rho_M = k_{-1} [A][M]$$

- Now we just need to find also expressions for k_1 and k_2 and we are done – let's gooo!



- Let's apply the steady-state approximation to A^*
- We get for the overall rate R of the reaction:

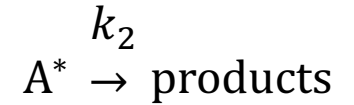
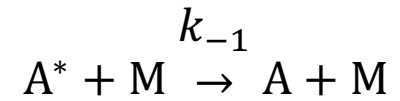
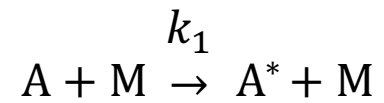
$$R = k_{uni}[A] = k_2[A^*] = \frac{k_1 k_2 [A][M]}{k_{-1}[M] + k_2}$$

We define two limiting cases:

A) **Low-pressure** limit:

- at low pressure: $[M] \rightarrow 0$ and

$$k_{uni} = k_0 = k_1[M]$$
- here, collision activation is rate-limiting step
- k_{uni} grows linearly with pressure



- Let's apply the steady-state approximation to A^*
- We get for the overall rate R of the reaction:

$$R = k_{uni}[A] = k_2[A^*] = \frac{k_1 k_2 [A][M]}{k_{-1}[M] + k_2}$$

We define two limiting cases:

B) **High-pressure** limit:

- at high pressure: $[M] \rightarrow \infty$ and

$$k_{uni} = k_{\infty} = \frac{k_1 k_2}{k_{-1}}$$

- now k_{uni} becomes independent of pressure

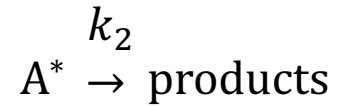
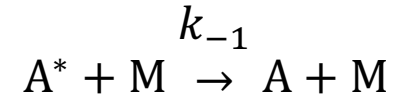
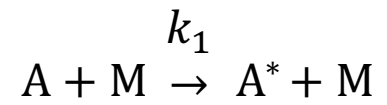
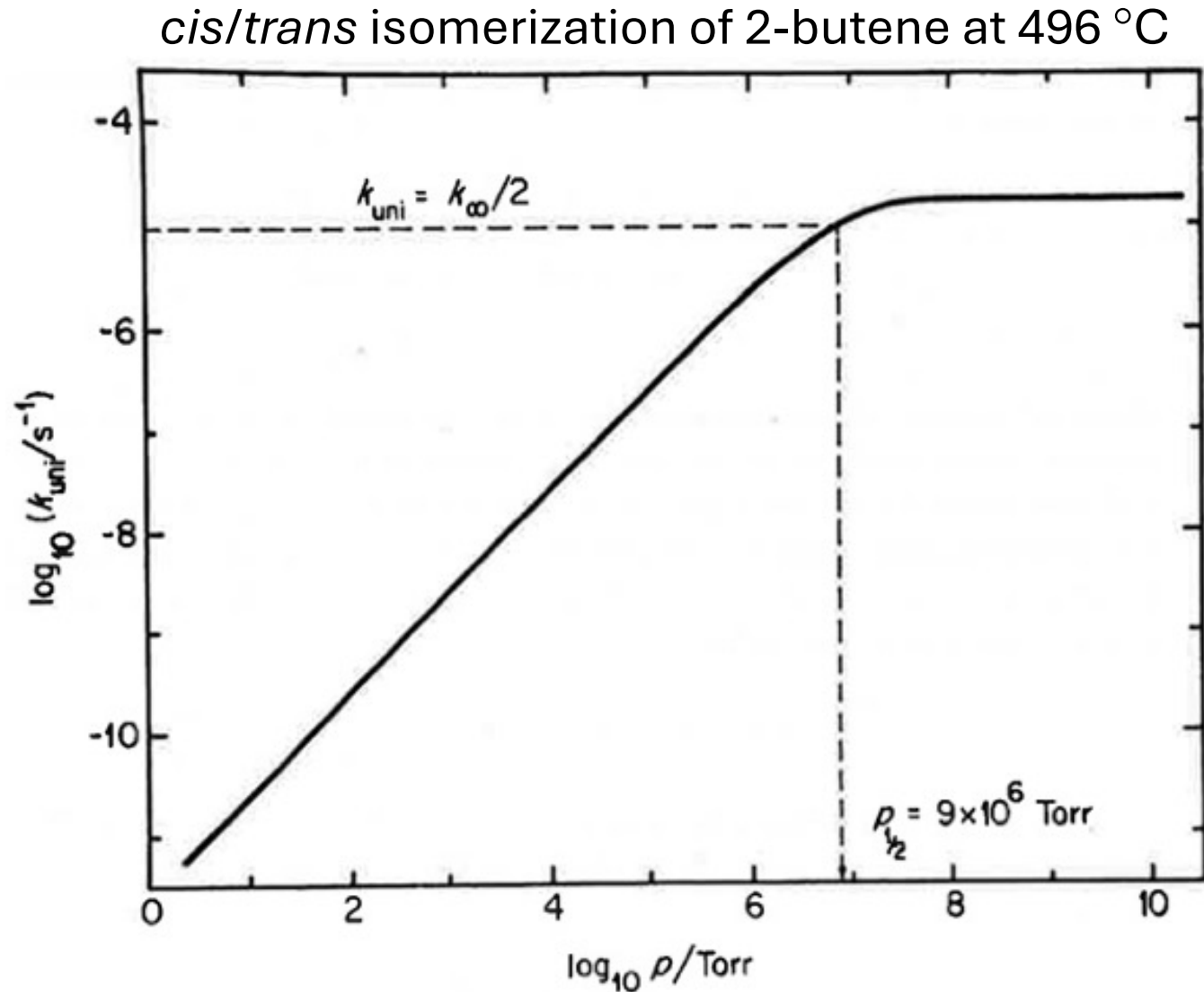
- reversible first step, so here we have a pre-equilibrium: $\frac{[A^*]}{[A]} = \frac{k_1}{k_{-1}}$

- A useful way of plotting is the log-log **Lindemann plot**

using $k_{uni} = \frac{k_{\infty}}{1 + \frac{k_{\infty}}{k_1[M]}}$

- at $p_{\frac{1}{2}} \propto [M]_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{k_{\infty}}{k_1}$

with $\frac{k_{uni}}{k_{\infty}} = \frac{1}{2}$



- What is the best model we got so far to calculate rate constants like k_1 and k_2 ?

→ the reactive-hard-spheres model:

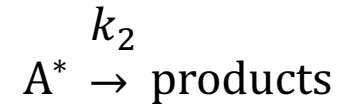
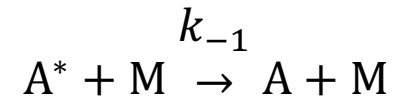
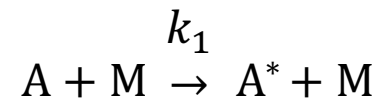
$$k_1 = k(T) = \sigma_{AM} \langle u_{AM} \rangle p e^{-\frac{E^*}{k_B T}}$$

from gas-kinetic collision rate we got $\sigma_{AM} \langle u_{AM} \rangle = k_{-1}$

- So, assuming $p = 1$, we find: $k_1 = k_{-1} e^{-\frac{E^*}{k_B T}}$

- But experimentally we find this *underestimates* the rates measured! *Why?*

→ molecules also have *internal* energy stored, e.g., vibrational, that can be used to drive the reaction, not just E_{kin}



Hinshelwood Theory

- accounts for ***internal energy*** that is stored in **vibrational degrees of freedom**, which should lead to a higher activation rate k_1

- he derived in 1926:
$$k_1 = \frac{k_{-1}}{(s-1)!} \left(\frac{E_0}{k_B T} \right)^{s-1} e^{-\frac{E_0}{k_B T}}$$

- s : number of *vibrational degrees of freedom*
- How many are there for a given molecule?
- $3N - 6$ (or $3N - 5$, if molecule linear)
- What happens if s is increased (*i.e.*, bigger molecule)?
- more energy stored at given temperature, so rate for activation goes up
- but only holds under assumption of $\frac{E_0}{k_B T} \gg s$ (an approximation)

To get an idea of the activation energy and limit for which the approximation holds:

To break C-C bond in ethane: $E_0 \approx 400$ kJ/mol and $k_B T$ at r.t. ≈ 2.5 kJ/mol

$\rightarrow s \ll 160$ here for the above Eq. to work

Hinshelwood Theory

- Ratio $\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{[A^*]}{[A]}$ is fraction of molecules exceeding activation energy E_0 in thermal equilibrium
- Good approximation at *high* pressure $[M] \rightarrow \infty$ where energized molecules in pre-equilibrium with ground-state ones
- We also assume it holds at *low* pressures for now, by making again a *strong-collision assumption* (this time for energizing collisions)
- assumes no step-wise activation; instead one collision instantly excites/de-excited fully (drastic assumption at low pressure!)
- Then we can say: $\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{[A^*]}{[A]} \approx \frac{[A(E > E_0)]}{[A_{total}]}$ How to calculate this fraction?

- We assume everything is in equilibrium and therefore can use *statistical thermodynamics* (quasi-equilibrium, but close enough, at least for high pressures)
- Remember: we are right now historically *before* quantum-mechanics, so continuous rather than discrete energy levels (and not the QM partition function, but classical oscillator one needed)
- So now we look at classical analogues for what you learned before in QM for discrete energy states
- ***Sum of states* $G(E)$** : number of levels with energies smaller than or equal to E
- How did this look for the quantum-mechanical oscillator?

- *Sum of states* $G(E)$: # of levels with energies smaller than or equal to E
- How did this look for the **quantum-mechanical** oscillator?

- discrete energy levels $E = \left(\nu + \frac{1}{2} \right) h\nu_i$

- ν_i : eigenfrequency of oscillator

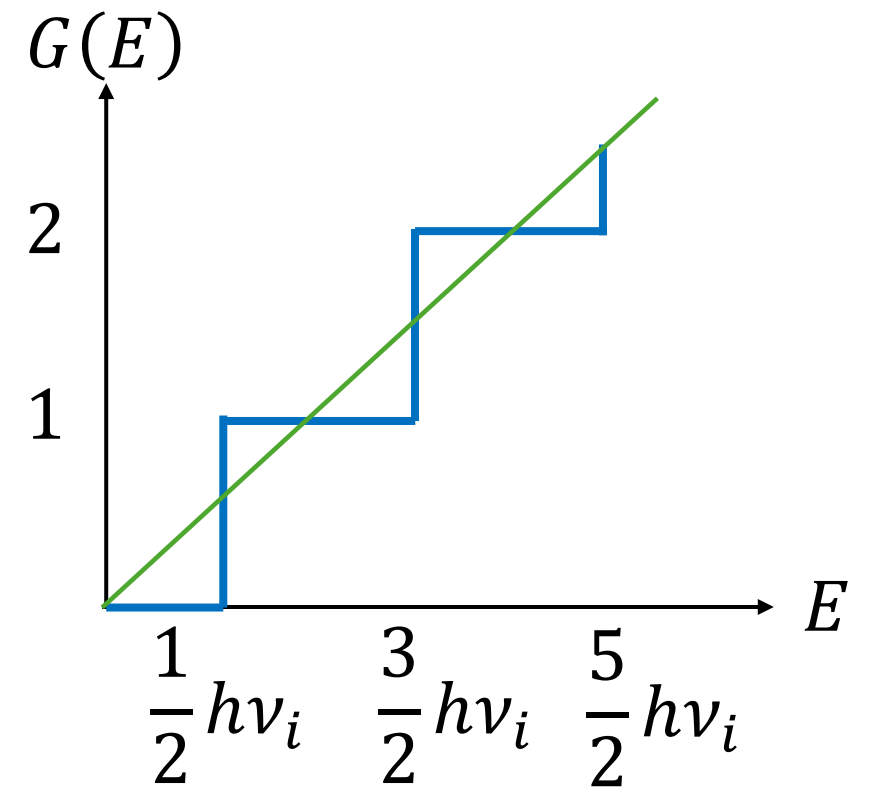
- Sum of states *classically*: $G(E) = \frac{E}{h\nu_i}$

- **Density of states (DoS):** $N(E)$

- number of levels per unit energy:

$$N(E) = \frac{dG(E)}{dE} \quad \text{which is simply}$$

$$N(E) = \frac{1}{h\nu_i}$$



- Probability for such an oscillator to have energy between E and $E + dE$?

Probability for such an oscillator to have energy between E and $E + dE$ follows *Boltzmann statistics* and is thus:

$$\bullet P(E)dE = \frac{N(E)e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}}dE}{\underbrace{\int_0^\infty N(E)e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}}dE}_E} = e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}}dE$$

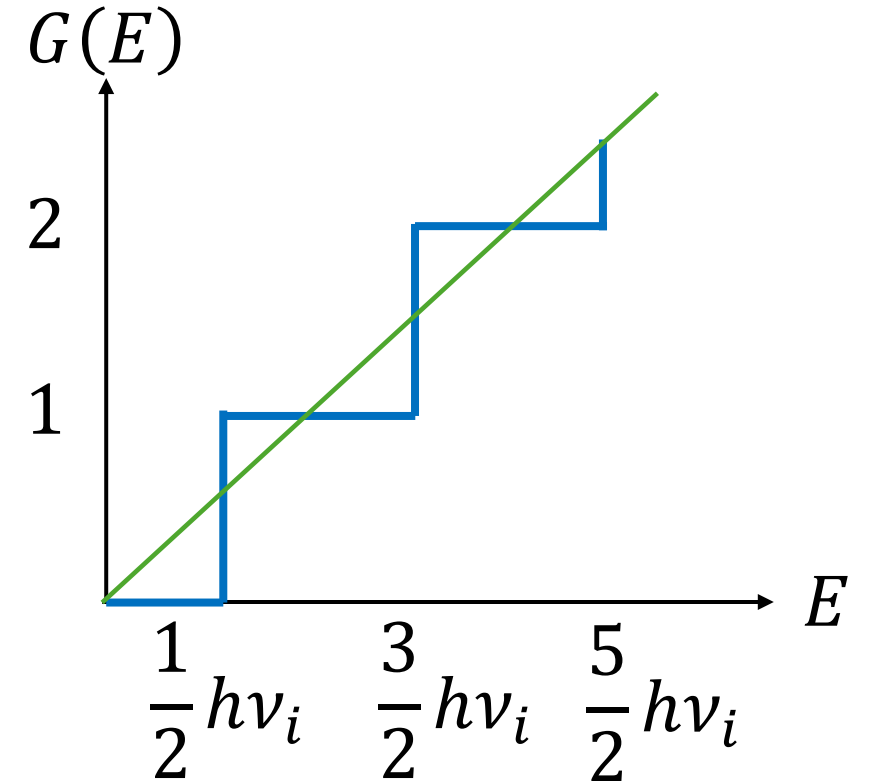
partition function for one classical oscillator

• Now need to generalize to $3N - 6$ (or s) oscillators, that have a total energy E

• For 1 oscillator, we had found $N(E) = \frac{1}{h\nu_1}$

and for the sum of states $G(E) = \frac{E_1}{h\nu_1}$ (i.e., the integral $\int_0^E \frac{dE_1}{h\nu_1}$)

• What is the sum of states for s oscillators then?



- For s oscillators of energies E_i with $\sum_{i=1}^s E_i = E$ we then find for the sum of states:

$$G(E) = \int_0^E \frac{dE_1}{h\nu_1} \int_0^{E-E_1} \frac{dE_2}{h\nu_2} \dots \int_0^{E-E_1-\dots-E_{s-1}} \frac{dE_s}{h\nu_s}$$

- as for more than one oscillator, those oscillators share the available energy between them
- So, if the first oscillator has already energy E_1 , then the second one can only have at most $E - E_1$, and so on
- We can rewrite this into

$$G(E) = \frac{1}{\prod_{i=1}^s h\nu_i} \int_0^E dE_1 \int_0^{E-E_1} dE_2 \dots \int_0^{E-E_1-\dots-E_{s-1}} dE_s$$

- which after some further steps becomes

$$G(E) = \frac{E^s}{s! \prod_{i=1}^s h\nu_i}$$

- For s oscillators of energies E_i with $\sum_{i=1}^s E_i = E$ we found for the sum of states:

$$G(E) = \frac{E^s}{s! \prod_{i=1}^s h\nu_i}$$

- and for the DoS we then find:

$$N(E) = \frac{E^{s-1}}{(s-1)! \prod_{i=1}^s h\nu_i} \quad (\text{which is just the derivative})$$

- With this we can now calculate our probability following Boltzmann statistics, inserting our solution for $N(E)$:

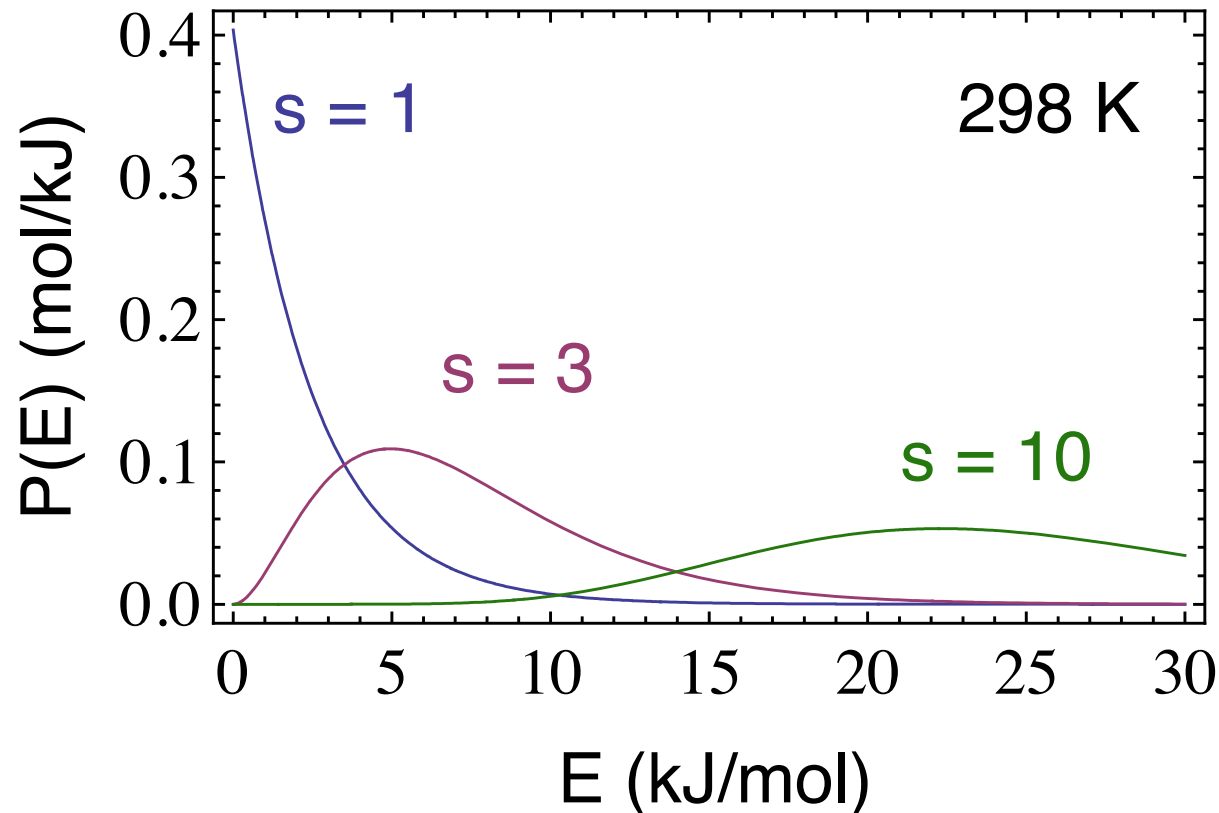
$$P(E)dE = \frac{N(E)e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}} dE}{\int_0^\infty N(E)e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}} dE} = \frac{E^{s-1} e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}} dE}{\int_0^\infty E^{s-1} e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}} dE} = \frac{1}{(s-1)!} \left(\frac{E}{k_B T}\right)^{s-1} e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}} \left(\frac{dE}{k_B T}\right)$$

$$\int_0^\infty x^{s-1} e^{-x} dx = \Gamma(s) = (s-1)!$$

Now we know the probability for a molecule with s classical harmonic oscillations having a certain energy E :

$$P(E)dE = \frac{1}{(s-1)!} \left(\frac{E}{k_B T} \right)^{s-1} e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}} \left(\frac{dE}{k_B T} \right)$$

- Let's plot this for different s at room temperature ($s = 1$ case is easy):



Probability for a molecule with s classical harmonic oscillations having a certain energy E :

$$P(E)dE = \frac{1}{(s-1)!} \left(\frac{E}{k_B T}\right)^{s-1} e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}} \left(\frac{dE}{k_B T}\right)$$

- back to deriving k_1 according to Hinshelwood:
- We derive k_1 from the fraction of molecules with energy exceeding the activation energy E_0 through integration:

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \int_{E_0}^{\infty} P(E)dE = \int_{E_0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(s-1)!} \left(\frac{E}{k_B T}\right)^{s-1} e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}} \left(\frac{dE}{k_B T}\right)$$

- How can we solve this integral?
- by transforming and substituting $x = \frac{E}{k_B T}$

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \int_{E_0}^{\infty} P(E) dE = \int_{E_0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{(s-1)!} \left(\frac{E}{k_B T} \right)^{s-1} e^{-\frac{E}{k_B T}} \left(\frac{dE}{k_B T} \right)$$

- by transforming and substituting $x = \frac{E}{k_B T}$ we get

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{1}{(s-1)!} \int_{x_0 = \frac{E_0}{k_B T}}^{\infty} (x)^{s-1} e^{-x} dx$$

- What does this function remind us of?
- a Γ -function, except for a wrong integral boundary at the bottom!
- So let's further substitute $y = x - x_0$ and $dx = dy$

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{1}{(s-1)!} \int_{x_0 = \frac{E_0}{k_B T}}^{\infty} (x)^{s-1} e^{-x} dx$$

- What does this function remind us of?
- a Γ -function, except for wrong integral boundary at bottom!
- So let's further substitute $y = x - x_0$ and $dx = dy$ to get

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{e^{-x_0}}{(s-1)!} \int_0^{\infty} \underbrace{(y + x_0)^{s-1}} e^{-y} dy$$

- What now?
- We can develop our integral as a **binomial series!**
- each term will then contain a Γ -function that we know how to solve

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{e^{-x_0}}{(s-1)!} \int_0^{\infty} \underbrace{(y+x_0)^{s-1}} e^{-y} dy$$

- We can develop our integral as a **binomial series!**
- each term will then contain a Γ -function that we know how to solve
- Binomial expansion of term $(y+x_0)^{s-1}$ yields

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{e^{-x_0}}{(s-1)!} \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} \binom{s-1}{j} x_0^{s-1-j} \underbrace{\int_0^{\infty} y^j e^{-y} dy}$$

- and we know that $\int_0^{\infty} y^j e^{-y} dy = \Gamma(j+1) = j!$

- k_{-1} we know from gas-kinetic collision theory

and rest we get from here, so mission accomplished for getting k_1 !☺

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{e^{-x_0}}{(s-1)!} \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} \binom{s-1}{j} x_0^{s-1-j} \int_0^{\infty} y^j e^{-y} dy$$

- For $j = 0$ we get:

$$\binom{s-1}{0} = 1 \quad \left(\frac{E_0}{k_B T}\right)^{s-1} \quad 0! = 1$$

- For $j = 1$ we get:

$$\binom{s-1}{1} = s-1 \quad \left(\frac{E_0}{k_B T}\right)^{s-2} \quad 1! = 1$$

- What is the condition for the 2nd term and following terms to be much smaller than the 1st term (i.e., when can we drop them)?
- If $x_0 = \frac{E_0}{k_B T} \gg s-1$, then we can neglect all the terms except for the 1st

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{e^{-x_0}}{(s-1)!} \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} \binom{s-1}{j} x_0^{s-1-j} \int_0^{\infty} y^j e^{-y} dy$$

- If $x_0 = \frac{E_0}{k_B T} \gg s - 1$, we can neglect all terms except for the 1st
- *i.e.*, the activation energy E_0 must be large compared to the thermal energy $k_B T$ multiplied with number of oscillations s
- Meaning large E_0 or small number of oscillators, *i.e.*, small molecules, are well suited to justify our approximation from the start of the derivation
- Then can neglect all subsequent terms of $j \geq 1$
and are only left with the $j = 0$ term overall

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{e^{-x_0}}{(s-1)!} \sum_{j=0}^{s-1} \binom{s-1}{j} x_0^{s-1-j} \int_0^{\infty} y^j e^{-y} dy$$

- Within approximation, we are only left with the $j = 0$ term of the binomial expansion to be relevant, and get:

$$\frac{k_1}{k_{-1}} = \frac{e^{-x_0}}{(s-1)!} x_0^{s-1} = \frac{1}{(s-1)!} \left(\frac{E_0}{k_B T} \right)^{s-1} e^{-\frac{E_0}{k_B T}}$$

- for comparison, in the beginning we wrote

$$k_1 = \frac{k_{-1}}{(s-1)!} \left(\frac{E_0}{k_B T} \right)^{s-1} e^{-\frac{E_0}{k_B T}}$$

- a good approximation for ***small molecules***,
medium to large activation energies, and ***high pressures***