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CEE697K Lecture #11 1

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# CEE 697K

## ENVIRONMENTAL REACTION KINETICS

### Lecture #11

**Kinetic Theory:** Encounter Model, Transition State Model & Ionic Strength Effects

Brezonik, pp. 130-158

David A. Reckhow

Introduction

## Structure of Water

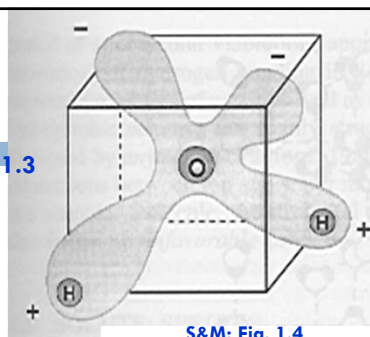
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S&amp;M: Fig. 1.3

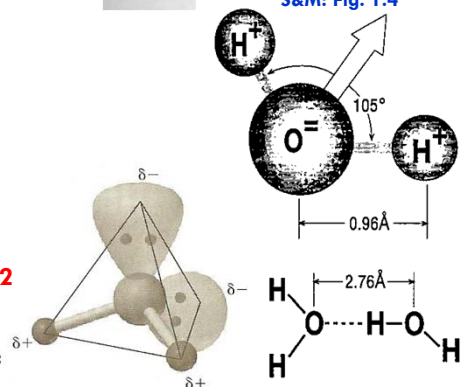
- $sp^3$  hybridization
  - ▣ 2 bonding and 2 non-bonding orbitals
- Dipolar Character
- Origin of Water's Unusual properties
  - ▣ High melting and boiling point
  - ▣ High heat of vaporization
  - ▣ Expands upon freezing
  - ▣ High surface tension
  - ▣ Excellent polar solvent

B: Fig 1.2

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S&amp;M: Fig. 1.4



## Water's intermolecular structure

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- Dominated by Hydrogen Bonds
- Ice
  - Open tetrahedral structure
- Water
  - Flickering cluster model
    - 100 ps lifetime
    - 0.1 ps molecular vibration
  - Avg cluster size
    - 65 molecules @ 0°C
    - 12 molecules @ 100°C

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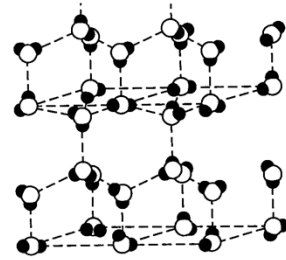


Fig. 1.5a  
Pg. 8

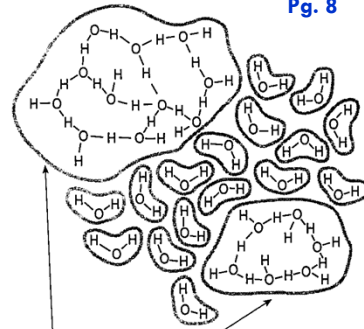


Fig. 1.5b  
Pg. 8

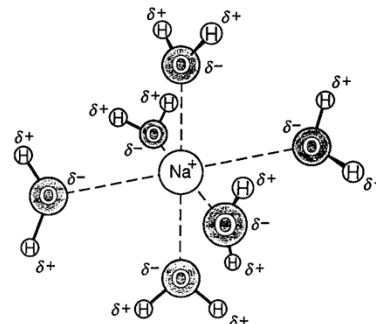
Clusters

## Solutes in Water

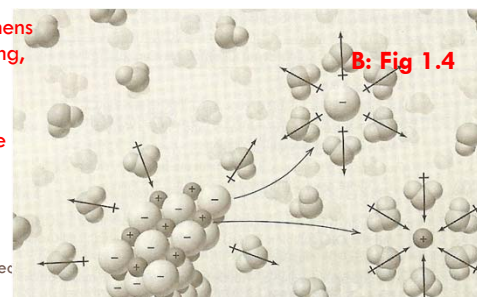
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- Great solvent for ionic or ionizable substances
- Ion-dipole bonds improves stability
  - Energy increases with charge of ion and decreases with size
  - Solvent hole model
    - As solute-water bonding strengthens compared to water-water bonding, solubility goes up
      - Hydrophilic solute
    - Weak solute-water bonds reduce solubility
      - Hydrophobic solutes

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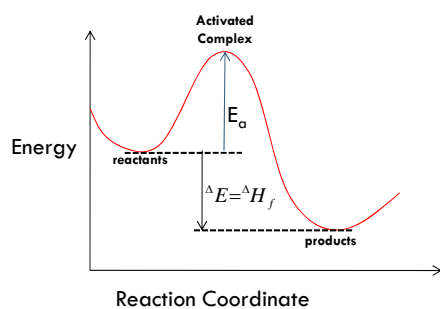
S&M: Fig. 1.6



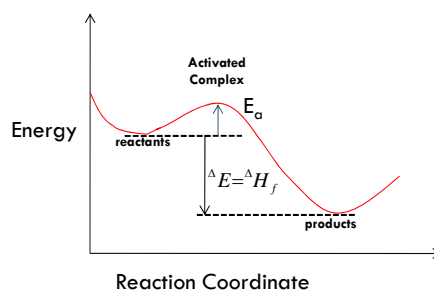
## Activation Energy

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- Activation Energy must always be positive
  - Unlike  $\Delta H$ , which may be positive or negative
- Differing reaction rates



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## Encounter Theory I

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- Uncharged Solutes
  - Nature of diffusion in water
    - Encounter within a solvent cage
    - Random diffusion occurs through elementary jumps of distance

$$\overset{\text{Molecular diameter}}{\lambda} = 2r \quad \overset{\text{Molecular radius}}{r}$$

More appropriate for water →

- For a continuous medium:  $D = \frac{\lambda^2}{2\tau}$  or  $\tau = \frac{\lambda^2}{2D}$
- For a semi-crystalline structure:  $D = \frac{\lambda^2}{6\tau}$  or  $\tau = \frac{\lambda^2}{6D}$

Average time between jumps

For water,  $D \sim 1 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2\text{s}^{-1}$ , and  $\lambda = 4 \times 10^{-8} \text{ cm}$ , so  $\tau \sim 2.5 \times 10^{-11} \text{ s}$

If time between vibrations is  $\sim 1.5 \times 10^{-13} \text{ s}$ , then the average water molecule vibrates 150 times ( $2.5 \times 10^{-11} / 1.5 \times 10^{-13}$ ) in its solvent cage before jumping to the next one.

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## Encounter Theory II

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- Probability of Encounter
  - If A and B are the same size as water
    - They will have 12 nearest neighbors
  - Probability that "A" will encounter "B" in a solvent cage of 12 neighbors is:
    - Proportional to the mole fraction of "B"

$$P_{B/A} = 6X_B \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{With each new jump, "A" has 6 new neighbors}$$

Where:

$$X_B = \frac{n_B}{\left(\frac{1}{\gamma\lambda^3}\right)}$$

← # molecules of "B" per cm<sup>3</sup>  
← # molecules of solvent per cm<sup>3</sup>

← Geometric packing factor     ← Molecular volume (cm<sup>3</sup>)

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## Encounter Theory III

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- And combining the rate of movement with the probability of encountering "B", we get an expression for the rate of encounter with "B"

$$\frac{1}{\tau_{AB}} = \left[ \frac{6D}{\lambda^2} \right] P_{A/B}$$

- Then substituting in for the probability

$$\frac{1}{\tau_{AB}} = \frac{6D(6n_B\gamma\lambda^3)}{\lambda^2}$$

$$= 36\gamma\lambda n_B D$$

- For water,  $\gamma=0.74$ , and the effective diffusion coefficient,  $D_{AB} = D_A + D_B$ , and  $\lambda=r_{AB}$ , the sum of the molecular radii
  - Then we get:

$$\frac{1}{\tau_{AB}} = 25r_{AB} D_{AB} n_B$$

# of encounters/sec for each molecule of "A" →

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## Encounter Theory IV

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- Now the total # of encounters between "A" and "B" per cm<sup>3</sup> per second is:

$$\frac{n_A}{\tau_{AB}} = 25r_{AB}D_{AB}n_A n_B$$

- In terms of moles of encounters (encounter frequency) this becomes:

$$\begin{aligned} Z_{e,AB} &= \frac{1000 \frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{L}}}{N_o \frac{\text{molecules}}{\text{Mole}}} \left( \frac{n_A}{\tau} \right) = 25r_{AB}D_{AB} \left( \frac{1000 \frac{\text{cm}^3}{\text{L}}}{N_o \frac{\text{molecules}}{\text{Mole}}} \right) n_A n_B \\ &= 25r_{AB}D_{AB}[A]n_B \quad \rightarrow \quad n_B = [B]/N_o/1000 \\ &\quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{L/cm}^3 \quad \text{cm} \quad \text{cm}^2\text{s}^{-1} \quad \text{\#/Mole} \end{array} \right\} \text{M}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1} \\ Z_{e,AB} &= 2.5 \times 10^{-2} r_{AB} D_{AB} N_o [A][B] \end{aligned}$$

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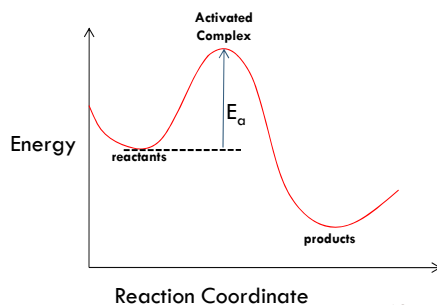
## Encounter Theory V

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- Frequency Factor

$$Z_{e,AB} = 2.5 \times 10^{-2} r_{AB} D_{AB} N_o [A][B]$$

- When  $E_a = 0$ ,  $k = A$



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

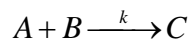
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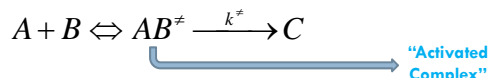
## Transition State Theory I

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- Consider the simple bimolecular reaction



- Even though it is an elementary reaction, we can break it down into two steps



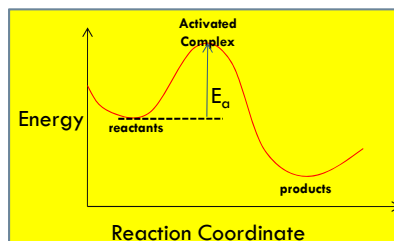
- Where the first "equilibrium" is:

$$K^\ddagger = \frac{[AB^\ddagger]}{[A][B]}$$

$$[AB^\ddagger] = K^\ddagger [A][B]$$

- So the forward rate is:

$$\frac{d[C]}{dt} = k^\ddagger [AB^\ddagger] = \underbrace{k^\ddagger K^\ddagger}_{k} [A][B]$$



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## Transition State Theory II

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- Now the transition state is just one bond vibration away from conversion to products

- Planks Law:  $E_{\text{vib}} = h\nu$ 
  - $E_{\text{vib}}$ : vibrational energy
  - $h$ : Planck's constant ( $6.62 \times 10^{-27}$  ergs·s)
  - $\nu$ : Frequency of vibration ( $\text{s}^{-1}$ )

- Bond energy must be in the thermal region:

$$E_{\text{bond}} \approx kT$$

- $E_{\text{bond}}$ : Bond energy
- $k$ : Boltzman constant ( $1.3807 \times 10^{-16}$  ergs °K<sup>-1</sup>)
- $T$ : Temperature (°K)

- So equating, we get:

$$h\nu = kT \quad \nu = \frac{kT}{h}$$

- And since conversion occurs on the next vibration:

$$k^\ddagger = \nu \quad \text{and} \quad k = k^\ddagger K^\ddagger = \frac{kT}{h} K^\ddagger$$

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## Transition State Theory III

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- Now from basic thermodynamics:

$$\Delta G^\circ = -RT \ln K \quad \text{or} \quad K = e^{-\Delta G^\circ/RT}$$

- And also  $\Delta G^\circ = \Delta H - T\Delta S$

- So:  $K = e^{\Delta S^\circ/R} e^{-\Delta H^\circ/RT}$

- And combining:  $k = \frac{kT}{h} e^{\Delta S^\circ/R} e^{-\Delta H^\circ/RT}$

- Recall:  $\Delta E = \Delta H - P\Delta V \approx \Delta H$

- And substituting back in:  $k = \underbrace{\left( \frac{kT}{h} e^{\Delta S^\circ/R} \right)}_A e^{-E_a/RT}$

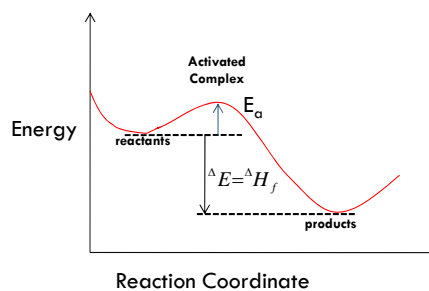
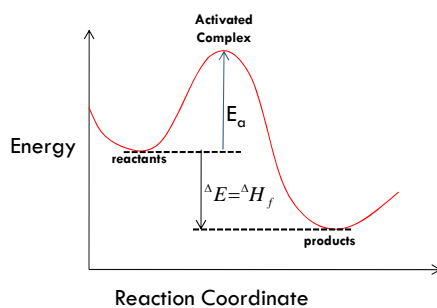
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## Activation Energy

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- Activation Energy must always be positive
  - Unlike  $\Delta H$ , which may be positive or negative
- Differing reaction rates



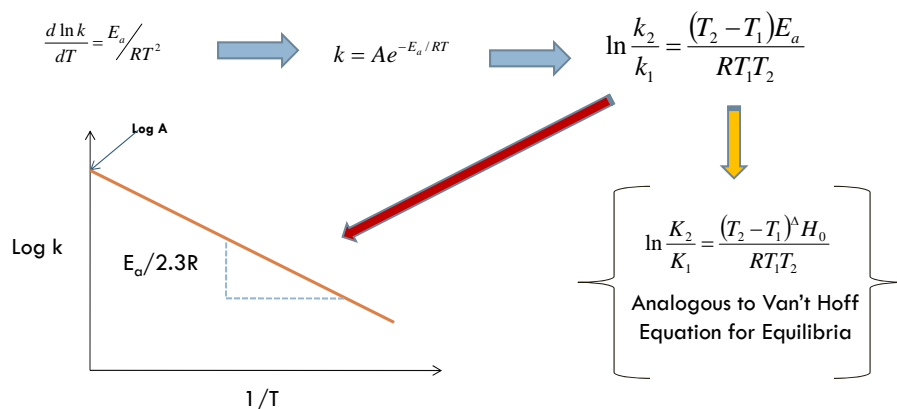
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## Temperature Effects

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### □ Arrhenius Equation



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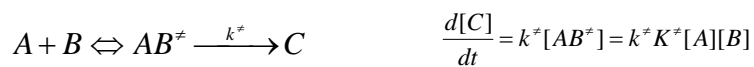
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## Ionic Strength Effects

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### □ Ion-ion Reactions

- Based on activated complex theory



- So let's look at the equilibrium constant

$$K^\ddagger = \frac{\{AB^\ddagger\}}{\{A\}\{B\}} = \frac{[AB^\ddagger]\gamma_{AB^\ddagger}}{[A]\gamma_A [B]\gamma_B} \quad \text{or} \quad [AB^\ddagger] = K^\ddagger [A][B] \left( \frac{\gamma_A \gamma_B}{\gamma_{AB^\ddagger}} \right)$$

- Which means:

$$\frac{d[C]}{dt} = \frac{kT}{h} \underbrace{K^\ddagger}_{K_2^\circ \text{ (for } I=0)} [A][B] \left( \frac{\gamma_A \gamma_B}{\gamma_{AB^\ddagger}} \right)$$

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## Reactions with charged ions

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- Using the Debye-Huckel Equation  $-\log \gamma_i = 0.55 z_i^2 I^{0.5}$

- $I < 0.005$

$$\log k_2 = \log k_2^o + \left\{ -0.51 z_A^2 - 0.51 z_B^2 + 0.51 (z_A + z_B)^2 \right\} I^{0.5}$$

$$= \log k_2^o + 1.02 z_A z_B I^{0.5}$$

$z_A^2 + 2z_A z_B + z_B^2$

- Using the Guntelberg Approximation  $-\log \gamma_i = 0.55 z_i^2 I^{0.5} / (1 + I^{0.5})$

- $I < 0.01$

$$\log k_2 = \log k_2^o + 1.02 z_A z_B \frac{I^{0.5}}{(1 + I^{0.5})}$$

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## I corrections (cont.)

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- Neutral species

$$-\log \gamma_i = b_i I$$

$$\log k_2 = \log k_2^o + \{b_A + b_B - b_{AB^*}\} I$$

- Some case studies:

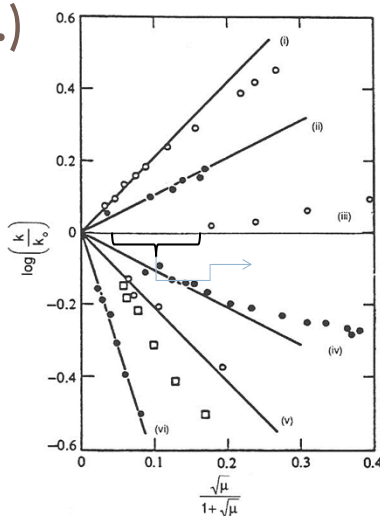


Figure 3-13. Effect of ionic strength on rate constants: (i)  $\text{BrCH}_2\text{COO}^- + \text{S}_2\text{O}_8^{2-}$ ; (ii)  $\text{e}^-_{\text{aq}} + \text{NO}_2^-$ ; (iii)  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+ + \text{C}_{12}\text{H}_{22}\text{O}_{11}$  (inversion of sucrose); (iv)  $\text{H}_3\text{O}^+ + \text{Br}^- + \text{H}_2\text{O}_2$ ; (v)  $\text{OH}^- + \text{Co}(\text{NH}_3)_6^{2+} + \text{Br}^-$  (ionic strength varied with  $\text{NaBr}$  [circles] and  $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4$  [squares]); (vi)  $\text{Fe}(\text{H}_2\text{O})_6^{2+} + \text{Co}(\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)_3^{3-}$ . (From Weston, R. E., Jr. and H. A. Schwarz, *Chemical Kinetics*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, 1972. With permission.)

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## Case Study: TCP

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- Observed loss of 1,1,1-trichloropropanone in distribution systems
  - ▣ Lab studies show that chloroform is the product
  - ▣ Logically presumed to be a simple hydrolysis

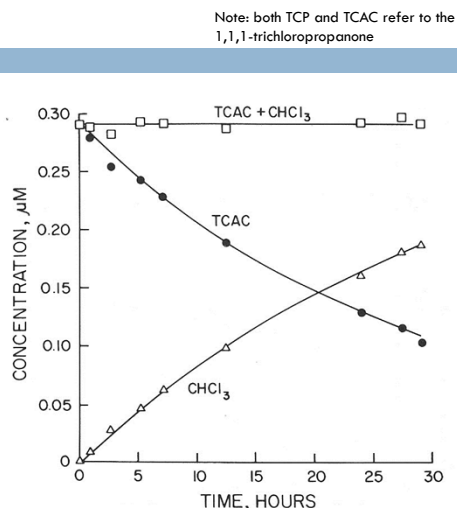


Figure 6. Chlorination of 1,1,1-trichloroacetone (TCAC). Conditions: 20.4 mg/L applied HOCl,  $[PO_4]_T = 0.0145$  M, pH 7.0, 20°C.

Reckhow & Singer, 1985  
 "Mechanisms of Organic Halide Formation During Fulvic Acid Chlorination and Implications With Respect to Preozonation", In Jolley et al., *Water Chlorination: Chemistry, Environmental Impact and Health Effect*, Volume 5, Lewis.

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## TCP (cont.)

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- Ionic strength effects

$$\ln k_H = -4.81 - 1.4\sqrt{I}$$

$$\log k_H = -2.08 - 0.6\sqrt{I}$$

- Rate with chlorine

- ▣ Increases greatly

- ▣ High intercept

$$k_T = 0.024 + 32[HOCl]_T$$

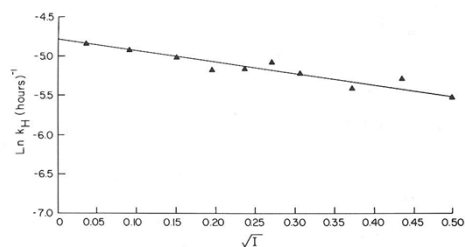


Figure 8. Pseudo first-order reaction rate constants for the hydrolysis of 1,1,1-trichloroacetone as a function of ionic strength. Conditions: pH 7.0, 20°C, no added chlorine.

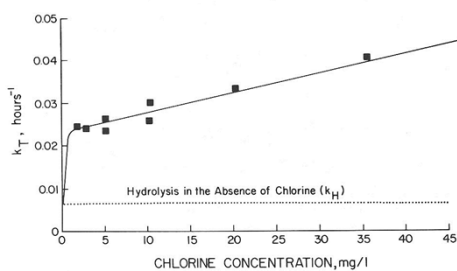


Figure 9. Pseudo first-order reaction rate constants for the disappearance of 1,1,1-trichloroacetone as a function of chlorine dose. Conditions: pH 7.0, 20°C,  $[PO_4]_T = 0.0145$  M.

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## Disagreement with prior study

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- Gurol & Suffet showed 10x higher rate constants
- Phosphate?

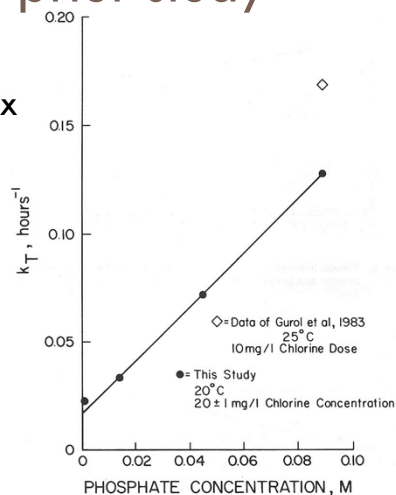


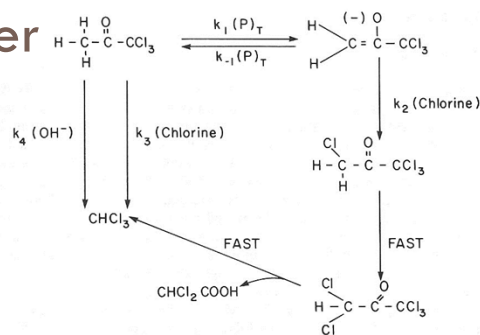
Figure 7. Pseudo first-order reaction rate constants for the chlorination of 1,1,1-trichloroacetone as a function of phosphate concentration at pH 7.0.

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## Putting it together

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$$k_T = \frac{k_1 k_2 (\text{Chlorine}) (P)_T}{k_{-1} (P)_T + k_2 (\text{Chlorine})} + k_3 (\text{Chlorine}) + k_4 (\text{OH}^-)$$

where  $k_1 = 1.25 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ hr}^{-1}$        $k_{-1} = 1.6 \times 10^{-7} / k_{\text{TCAC}}$   
 $k_3 = 32 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ hr}^{-1}$        $k_2 > 10^{10} k_{\text{TCAC}}$   
 $k_4 = 64,000 \text{ M}^{-1} \text{ hr}^{-1}$

$$k_{\text{TCAC}} = \frac{(\text{Enolate}) (\text{H}^+)}{(\text{Keto-enol})}$$

Figure 12. Hypothetical mechanism for the decomposition of trichloroacetone to chloroform in the presence of intermediate concentrations of phosphate at pH 7.

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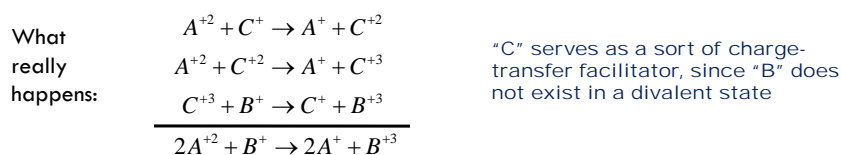
# Catalysis

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## □ Homogeneous Catalysis

### □ Definition

- Liquid-phase substances which react with the main reactants or intermediates thereby providing an alternative pathway to products with a lower activation energy or a higher frequency factor. Catalysts are often regenerated over the course of the reaction.



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## □ Summary

Table 4-1. Mechanisms of Acid-Base Catalysis

Type	Mechanism	Rate expression	Comments
I. Specific H <sup>+</sup>	$S + HA \xrightleftharpoons[k_2]{k_1} SH^+ + A^-$ $SH^+ + H_2O \xrightarrow[\text{slow}]{k_3} P + H_3O^+$	$P = \frac{k_1 k_3 [S][HA]}{(k_2 + k_1 k_3 / K_a)}$ where $K_a = [H^+][A^-]/[HA]$	For protolytic case, expression applies when $k_3 \ll k_2[A^-]$ ; whether initial H <sup>+</sup> transfer is from Bronsted acid (HA) or H <sub>3</sub> O <sup>+</sup> .
II. General acid	$S + HA \xrightleftharpoons[k_2]{k_1} SH^+ + A^-$ $SH^+ + H_2O \xrightarrow[\text{fast}]{k_3} P + H_3O^+$	$P = [S](\sum k_i[HA])$	Expression applies when $k_3 \gg k_2[A^-]$ ; rate-controlling step is formation of intermediate SH <sup>+</sup> . P written for presence of several Bronsted acids in system.
III. General acid	$S + HA \xrightleftharpoons[k_2]{k_1} SH^+ + A^-$ $SH^+ + A^- \xrightarrow{k_3} P + HA$	$P = \frac{k_1 k_3 [S][HA]}{(k_2 + k_3)}$ or $P = k[S][HA]$	Prototropic mechanism yields general acid catalysis regardless of relative sizes of $k_2$ and $k_3$ .
IV. Specific OH <sup>-</sup>	$HS + B \xrightleftharpoons[k_2]{k_1} S^- + BH^+$ $S^- + H_2O \xrightarrow[\text{slow}]{k_3} P + OH^-$	$P = \frac{k_1 k_3 [S^-][B][OH^-]}{(k_2 + k_1 k_3 / K_b)}$	For protolytic case, expression applies when $k_3 \ll k_2[BH^+]$ regardless of nature of proton acceptor in first step.
V. General base	$HS + B \xrightleftharpoons[k_2]{k_1} S^- + BH^+$ $S^- + H_2O \xrightarrow[\text{fast}]{k_3} P + OH^-$	$P = \frac{k_1 k_3 [S^-][B]}{[HS](\sum k_i[B])}$	Expression applies when $k_3 \gg k_2[BH^+]$ ; rate-controlling step is formation of S <sup>-</sup> ; P written for presence of several Bronsted bases.
VI. General base	$HS + B \xrightleftharpoons[k_2]{k_1} S^- + BH^+$ $S^- + BH^+ \xrightarrow{k_3} P + B$	$P = \frac{k_1 k_3 [S^-][HA]}{(k_2 + k_3)}$ or $P = k[S][HA]$	Prototropic case yields general base catalysis regardless of relative sizes of $k_2$ and $k_3$ .

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Adapted from Laidler, K. J., *Chemical Kinetics*, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1965.

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□ To next lecture