

Module-3 Kinetics & Catalysis

Chemical kinetics deals with the study of rate of chemical reactions.

Rate of Rxn is defined as change in conc' of reactants or products (or change in physical parameters which depends on conc'n such as conductance, absorbance, current etc) per unit time.

Kinetics also sheds light on rxn mechanism.

Factors affecting Rate of Reaction

(i) Nature of substance

(ii) physical state of substance

(iii) temp.

(iv) conc'n (sol'n)

(v) pressure (gaseous)

(vi) surface area of reactants

(vii) presence of catalyst

(viii) Intensity of radiation etc.

Rate of Reactions (ROR)

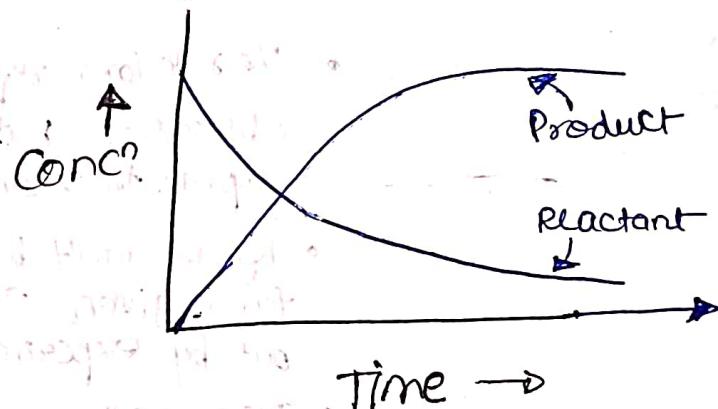
ROR = change in the concⁿ of reactants or prod.
Time.

expressed in mol L⁻¹ s⁻¹

Average rate of reaction

Average rate = Change in concⁿ of reactants (or prod.)
(Δt_{avg}) large interval of time

$$\text{Average rate} = \pm \frac{\Delta C}{\Delta t} = \pm \frac{(C_2 - C_1)}{(t_2 - t_1)}$$



Instantaneous Rate of reaction

↳ reaction rate during a very short interval of time
(or ROR at particular time)

Instantaneous

$$\text{rate} = \pm \lim_{\Delta t \rightarrow 0} \frac{\Delta C}{\Delta t} = \frac{dc}{dt} = \text{slope}$$

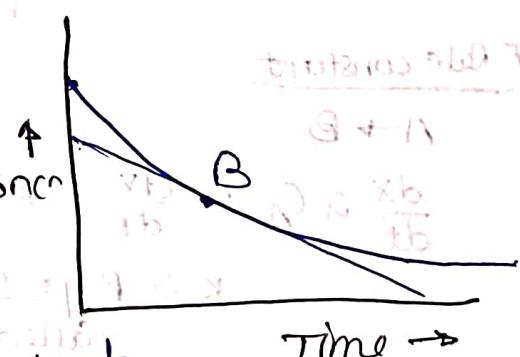


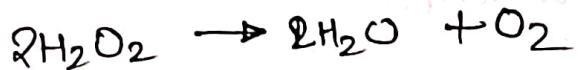
Instantaneous Rate of reaction

$$= \pm \frac{1}{n_1} \frac{\Delta [A]}{\Delta t} \pm \frac{-1}{n_2} \frac{\Delta [B]}{\Delta t} = \pm \frac{1}{m_1} \frac{\Delta [C]}{\Delta t} = \pm \frac{1}{m_2} \frac{\Delta [D]}{\Delta t}$$

Rate of rxn

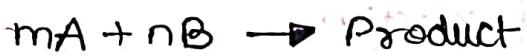
$$= \frac{-1}{n_1} \frac{\Delta [A]}{\Delta t} = \frac{-1}{n_2} \frac{\Delta [B]}{\Delta t} = \frac{+1}{m_1} \frac{\Delta [C]}{\Delta t} = \frac{+1}{m_2} \frac{\Delta [D]}{\Delta t}$$





$$\text{ROR} = \frac{\Delta [\text{O}_2]}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta [\text{H}_2\text{O}_2]}{\Delta t}$$

Rate law



$$\text{Rate, } R \propto [\text{A}]^m [\text{B}]^n$$

- It may not depend upon concn of each reactant or product of the reaction.
- Rate of Rxn \propto concn of reactants.
- The rate law represents the experimentally observed rate of rxn which depends upon the slowest step of the reaction.
- Rate law can't be deduced from the eqn for a given reaction. It can be found out by experiments only.
- The rate law may not bear a simple relationship for the stoichiometric equation.
- It may not depend upon the concn of species, which do not appear in the eqn for overall reaction.

Rate constant



$$\frac{dx}{dt} \propto C_A \Rightarrow \frac{dx}{dt} = kC_A$$

$k \Rightarrow$ Proportionality constant

Called velocity constant

Or rate constant

or specific reaction rate

At a fixed temperature, if $A = 1$, then rate = $\frac{dx}{dt} = k$.

unit of rate constant = $\left[\frac{1}{\text{Unit of Conc}} \right]^{n-1} \times \text{time}^{-1}$

$$= \left[\frac{1}{\text{mol/Ltr}} \right]^{n-1} \times \text{sec}^{-1}$$

$$= \left\{ \left[\frac{\text{lit}}{\text{mol}} \right]^{n-1} \times \text{sec}^{-1} \right\}$$

$n \rightarrow$ Order of $\propto n$

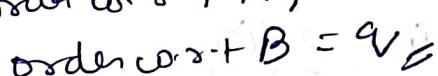
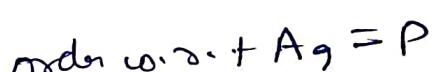
Order of $\propto n$ \rightarrow sum of powers to which conc terms are raised in order to determine rate of $\propto n$.



$$\text{Rate} = k[A]^P[B]^Q$$

$$\text{order of } \propto n \quad \boxed{n = p+q}$$

n can be negative, 0, fraction, integer



the above will have following units of M^{-1}

which will now depend upon nature of reaction (addition, substitution, etc.)

(k depends upon T), etc.

Substituting in eqn. we get



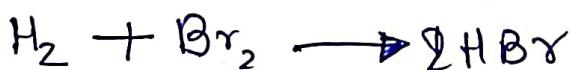
	Zero order	First order	Second order	n^{th} Order
Rate-law (differential)	$-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = k$	$-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = k[A]$	$-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = k[A]^2$	$-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = k[A]^n$
Integrated Rate law	$[A] = [A]_0 e^{-kt}$	$[A] = [A]_0 e^{-kt}$	$\frac{1}{[A]} = \frac{1}{[A]_0} + kt$	$\frac{1}{[A]^{n-1}} = \frac{1}{[A]_0^{n-1}} + (n-1)kt$ (except 1st order)
Units of Rate constant (k)	M/s	1/s	1/M·s	1/M $^{n-1}$ s
Linear plot to determine k :	$[A]$ vs t	$\ln[A]$ vs t	$\frac{1}{[A]}$ vs t	$\frac{1}{[A]^{n-1}}$ vs t (except 1st order)
Half life	$t_{1/2} = \frac{[A]_0}{2k}$	$t_{1/2} = \frac{\ln(2)}{k}$	$t_{1/2} = \frac{1}{k[A]_0}$	$t_{1/2} = \frac{2^{n-1}-1}{(n-1)k[A]_0^{n-1}}$ $n \geq 2$

kinetics of some complex reactions : chain, Parallel / competing
side ; consecutive reactions

1. kinetics of chain reactions

chain reactions usually involve free radicals.

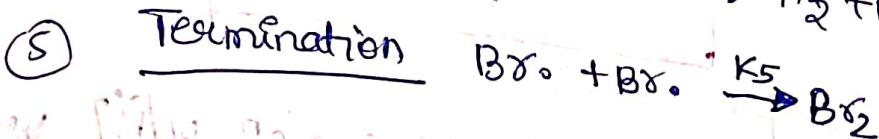
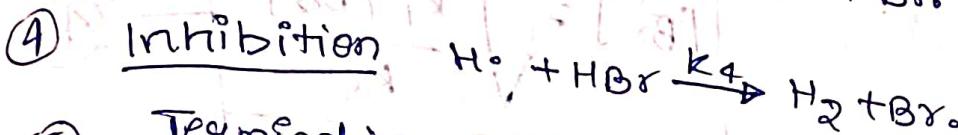
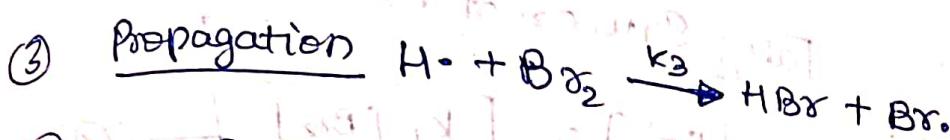
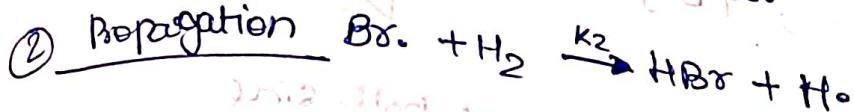
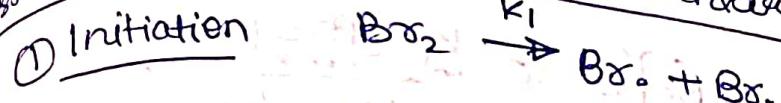
example : gas phase reaction of hydrogen with bromine to give HBr. (T must be high enough that Br is a gas not liquid)



Experimental rate law is obtained by Linde & Bodenstein.

$$\frac{d[HBr]}{dt} = \frac{k' [H_2][Br_2]^{1/2}}{1 + k'' \frac{[HBr]}{[Br_2]}}$$

Assulated mechanism has 5 elementary reaction steps



① Rate of reaction of formation of HBr

$$\frac{d[\text{HBr}]}{dt} = k_2 [\text{Br}\cdot] [\text{H}_2] + k_3 [\text{H}\cdot] [\text{Br}_2] - k_4 [\text{H}\cdot] [\text{HBr}] \quad (1)$$

$\frac{d[\text{Br}\cdot]}{dt}$ = Rate of formation = Rate of disappearance

$$= [k_1 [\text{Br}_2] + k_3 [\text{H}\cdot] [\text{Br}_2] + k_4 [\text{H}\cdot] [\text{HBr}]]$$

$$= k_2 [\text{Br}\cdot] [\text{H}_2] + 2k_5 [\text{Br}\cdot]^2$$

Similarly for $[\text{H}\cdot]$

$$\frac{d[\text{H}\cdot]}{dt} = \text{Rate of formation} = \text{Rate of disappearance}$$

$$= k_3 [\text{H}\cdot] [\text{Br}_2] + k_4 [\text{H}\cdot] [\text{HBr}]$$

$$= k_2 [\text{Br}\cdot] [\text{H}_2] = k_3 [\text{H}\cdot] [\text{Br}_2] + k_4 [\text{H}\cdot] [\text{HBr}] \quad (3)$$

Add eqn. ② & ③

~~$$2k_1 [\text{Br}_2] + k_3 [\text{H}\cdot] [\text{Br}_2] + k_4 [\text{H}\cdot] [\text{HBr}]$$~~

$$= k_2 [\text{Br}\cdot] [\text{H}_2] + 2k_5 [\text{Br}\cdot]^2 \quad (2)$$

$$k_2 [\text{Br}\cdot] [\text{H}_2] = k_3 [\text{H}\cdot] [\text{Br}_2] + k_4 [\text{H}\cdot] [\text{HBr}]$$

~~$$2k_1 [\text{Br}_2] = k_5 [\text{Br}\cdot]^2$$~~

$$k_1 [\text{Br}_2] = k_5 [\text{Br}\cdot]^2$$

$$[\text{Br}^{\circ}]^2 = \frac{k_1 [\text{Br}_2]}{k_5}$$

Taking Square root both side

$$[\text{Br}^{\circ}] = \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [\text{Br}_2]}{k_5}} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

for determination of concn of H° we eqn ④

$$k_2 [\text{Br}^{\circ}] [\text{H}_2] = k_3 [\text{H}^{\circ}] [\text{Br}_2] + k_4 [\text{H}^{\circ}] [\text{HBr}]$$

$$k_2 [\text{Br}^{\circ}] [\text{H}_2] = [\text{H}^{\circ}] \{ k_3 [\text{Br}_2] + k_4 [\text{HBr}] \}$$

$$[\text{H}^{\circ}] = \frac{k_2 [\text{Br}^{\circ}] [\text{H}_2]}{k_3 [\text{Br}_2] + k_4 [\text{HBr}]} \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

Since we are going to determine H° put eqn ④ in eqn ⑤

eqn ⑤ becomes

$$[\text{H}^{\circ}] = k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [\text{Br}_2]}{k_5}} [\text{H}_2]$$

$$\frac{k_2}{\sqrt{k_3 [\text{Br}_2] + k_4 [\text{HBr}]}}$$

--- (6)

Put eqn ④ & ⑥ in eqn ⑤

$$\frac{d[HBr]}{dt} = k_2 [Br_2][H_2] + k_3 [H][Br_2]$$

$$= k_4 [H][HBr]$$

$$\frac{d[HBr]}{dt} = k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [Br_2]}{k_5} [H_2]} + k_3 k_2 \frac{\sqrt{\frac{k_1 [Br_2]}{k_5} [H_2]}}{k_3 [Br_2] + k_4 [HBr]}$$

$$- k_4 k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [Br_2]}{k_5} [H_2] [HBr]}$$

$$= k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [Br_2]}{k_5} [H_2]} + k_4 [HBr]$$

— (7)

Take $k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [Br_2]}{k_5} [H_2]}$

$$\frac{d[HBr]}{dt} = k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [Br_2]}{k_5} [H_2]} \left\{ \frac{1 + k_3 [Br_2]}{k_3 [Br_2] + k_4 [HBr]} - \frac{k_4 [HBr]}{k_3 [Br_2] + k_4 [HBr]} \right\}$$

$$= k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [Br_2]}{k_5} [H_2]} \left\{ \frac{k_3 [Br_2] + k_4 [HBr] + k_3 [Br_2] - k_4 [HBr]}{k_3 [Br_2] + k_4 [HBr]} \right\}$$

$$\frac{d[HBr]}{dt} = k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [Br_2]}{k_5} [H_2]} \left\{ \frac{2 k_3 [Br_2]}{k_3 [Br_2] + k_4 [HBr]} \right\}$$

$$\frac{d[HBr]}{dt} = k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [Br_2]}{k_5}} [H_2] \left\{ \frac{2k_3 [Br_2]}{k_3 [Br_2] + k_4 [HBr]} \right\}$$

Divide Numerator & denominator by
 $k_3 [Br_2]$

$$\frac{d[HBr]}{dt} = k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [Br_2]}{k_5}} [H_2] \left\{ \frac{\frac{2k_3 [Br_2]}{k_3 [Br_2]}}{\frac{k_3 [Br_2]}{k_3 [Br_2]} + \frac{k_4 [HBr]}{k_3 [Br_2]}} \right\}$$

$$\frac{d[HBr]}{dt} = k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [Br_2]}{k_5}} [H_2] \left\{ \frac{2}{1 + \frac{k_4 [HBr]}{k_3 [Br_2]}} \right\}$$

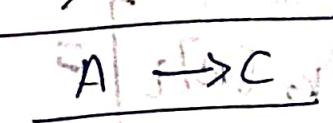
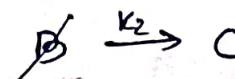
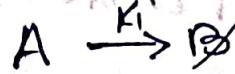
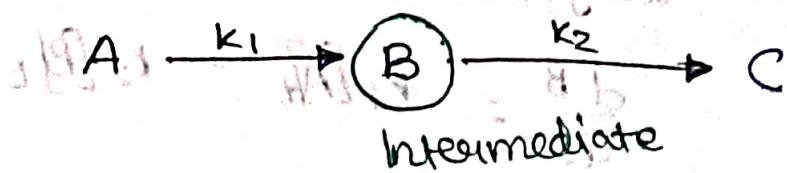
$$\frac{d[HBr]}{dt} = \frac{2k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1 [Br_2]}{k_5}} [H_2]}{1 + \frac{k_4 [HBr]}{k_3 [Br_2]}}$$

$$\text{Put } 2k_2 \sqrt{\frac{k_1}{k_5}} = K$$

$$\text{Put } \frac{k_4}{k_3} = k'$$

$$\frac{d[HBr]}{dt} = \frac{K [H_2] [Br_2]^{1/2}}{1 + k' \frac{[HBr]}{[Br_2]}}$$

Kinetics of reversible reactions



at $t = 0$

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{l} A_0 \neq 0 \\ B_0 = 0 \\ C_0 = 0 \end{array}}$$

**

Also initial condition

$$[A_0] = [A]_t + [B]_t + [C]_t$$

$$\text{Now, } \frac{[A]_t}{[A_0]} = e^{-k_1 t} \Rightarrow \text{From 1st order}$$

$$[A]_t = [A_0] e^{-k_1 t}$$

$$[A]_t = k_1 [A_0] e^{-k_1 t} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$-\frac{d[A]}{dt} = k_1 [A]_t \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} = k_1 [A]_t - k_2 [B]_t \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} = k_2 [B]_t$$

$$[B]_t = ?$$

Using ① & ②

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} = k_1[A]_t - k_2[B]_t$$

$$= k_1 [A]_0 e^{-k_1 t} - k_2 [B]_t$$

$$\left[\frac{d[B]}{dt} + k_2 [B]_t \right] = k_1 [A]_0 e^{-k_1 t}$$

Multiply both sides by $e^{k_2 t}$

$$\left[\frac{d[B]}{dt} + k_2 [B]_t \right] e^{k_2 t} = k_1 [A]_0 e^{-k_1 t} e^{k_2 t}$$

$$\left[\frac{d[B]}{dt} e^{k_2 t} \right] + k_2 [B]_t e^{k_2 t} = k_1 [A]_0 e^{-(k_1 - k_2)t}$$

$$[B]_t = [B]_0 e^{-k_2 t}$$

$$[B]_0 = [B]_t e^{k_2 t}$$

$$0 = [B]_t e^{k_2 t}$$

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} e^{k_2 t} = k_1 [A]_0 e^{-(k_1 - k_2)t}$$

$$d[B] e^{k_2 t} = k_1 [A]_0 e^{-(k_1 - k_2)t} dt$$

$$\int d[B] e^{k_2 t} = k_1 [A]_0 \int e^{-(k_1 - k_2)t} dt$$

$$[B] e^{k_2 t} = [A_0] \times \frac{1}{-(k_1 - k_2)} e^{-(k_1 - k_2)t} + C$$

$$[B] e^{k_2 t} = k_1 [A_0] [-(k_1 - k_2)]^{-1} e^{-(k_1 - k_2)t} + C$$

Now to find

C = integration constant

$$t=0 \quad [B]=0$$

$$C = -k_1 [A_0] [-(k_1 - k_2)]^{-1} e^0$$

$$C = k_1 [A_0] [(k_1 - k_2)^{-1}]$$

Now,

$$[B] e^{k_2 t} = k_1 [A_0] \left[\frac{e^{-(k_1 - k_2)t}}{-(k_1 - k_2)} + \frac{1}{k_1 - k_2} \right]$$

$$[B] e^{k_2 t} = \frac{k_1 [A_0]}{(k_2 - k_1)} \left[e^{-(k_1 - k_2)t} - 1 \right]$$

$$[B] = \frac{k_1 [A_0]}{(k_2 - k_1)} \left[\frac{e^{(k_2 - k_1)t}}{e^{k_2 t}} - \frac{1}{e^{k_2 t}} \right]$$

$$[B] = \frac{k_1 [A_0]}{(k_2 - k_1)} \left[e^{-k_1 t + k_2 t - k_2 t} - e^{-k_2 t} \right]$$

$$\boxed{[B] = [A_0] \frac{k_1}{(k_2 - k_1)} \left[e^{-k_1 t} - e^{-k_2 t} \right]}$$

$$[C] = [A]_0 e^{-k_1 t} + \frac{[A]_0 k_1}{(k_2 - k_1)} [e^{-k_1 t} - e^{-k_2 t}]$$

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

$$[C] = [A]_0 \left\{ 1 - e^{-k_1 t} - \frac{k_1}{k_2 - k_1} [e^{-k_1 t} - e^{-k_2 t}] \right\}$$

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

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

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

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

$$[A]_t = [A]_0 e^{-k_1 t}$$

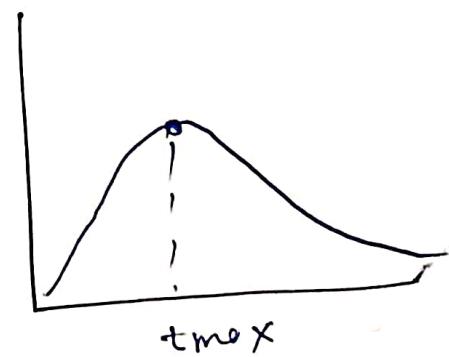
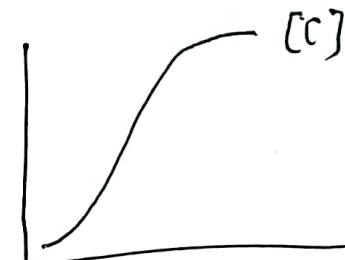
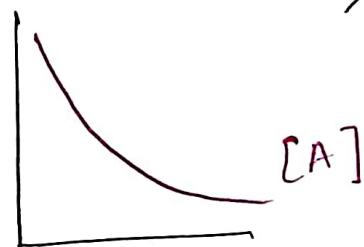
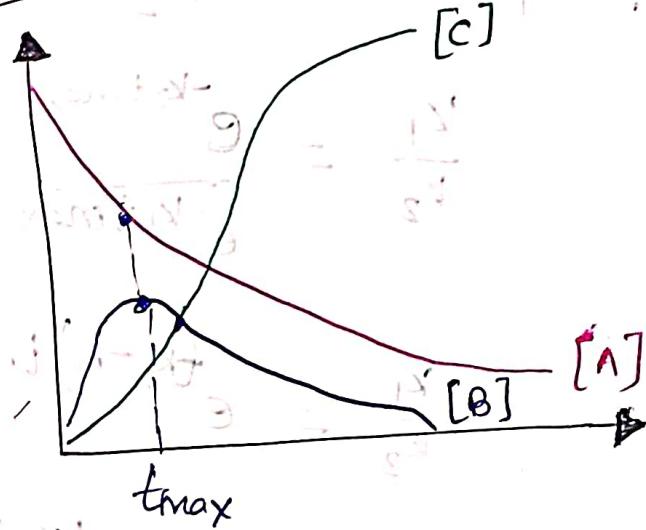
$$[B]_t = [A]_0 \left(\frac{k_1}{k_2 - k_1} \right) \left\{ e^{k_1 t} - e^{-k_2 t} \right\}$$

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

$$[A]_0 = [A]_t + [B]_t + [C]_t$$

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

$$+ 1 - \frac{(k_2 e^{-k_1 t} - k_1 e^{-k_2 t})}{(k_2 - k_1)}$$



Time at which maximum concentration of B

$$[B]_{\max}$$

$$[B]_t = A_0 \frac{k_1}{k_2 - k_1} \left[e^{-k_1 t} - e^{-k_2 t} \right]$$

But at maximum concn of B:

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

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} = \frac{d}{dt} \left[A_0 \frac{k_1}{k_2 - k_1} \left(e^{-k_1 t} - e^{-k_2 t} \right) \right]$$

$$0 = A_0 \frac{k_1}{k_2 - k_1} \left(-k_1 e^{-k_1 t} + k_2 e^{-k_2 t} \right)$$

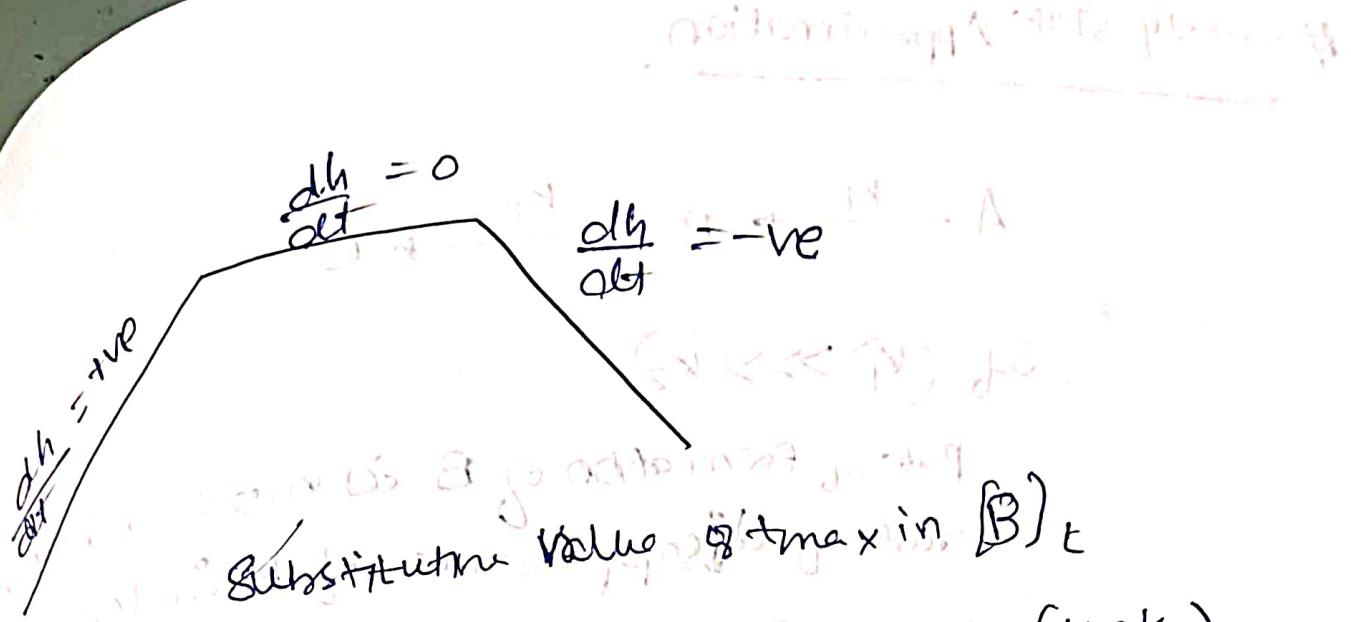
$$\therefore k_1 e^{-k_1 t_{\max}} = k_2 e^{-k_2 t_{\max}}$$

$$\frac{k_1}{k_2} = \frac{e^{-k_2 t_{\max}}}{e^{-k_1 t_{\max}}}$$

$$\frac{k_1}{k_2} \xrightarrow{\text{cancel } e^{-t_{\max}}} e^{(k_1 - k_2)t_{\max}}$$

$$(k_1 - k_2)t_{\max} = \ln \left(\frac{k_1}{k_2} \right)$$

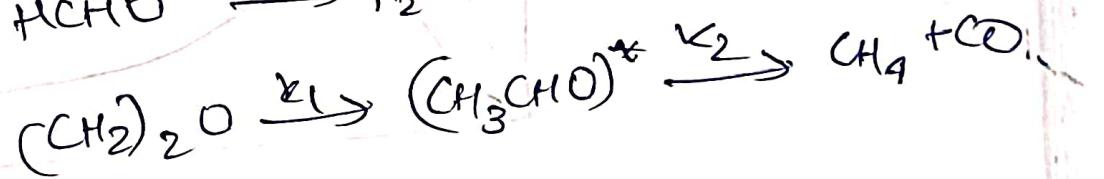
$$\therefore t_{\max} = \frac{1}{(k_1 - k_2)} \ln \left(\frac{k_1}{k_2} \right)$$



$$[B]_{max} = [A]_0 \left(\frac{k_2}{k_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{k_1 - k_2}}$$

eg. 1st order consecutive rxn

- Radioactive decay
- Decomposition of dimethyl ether in gaseous phase & that of ethylene oxide



pick of j- 100

decay rate = $k[A]$ or $k[B]$ or $k[C]$

Rate of disappearance of reactant



Steady State Approximation

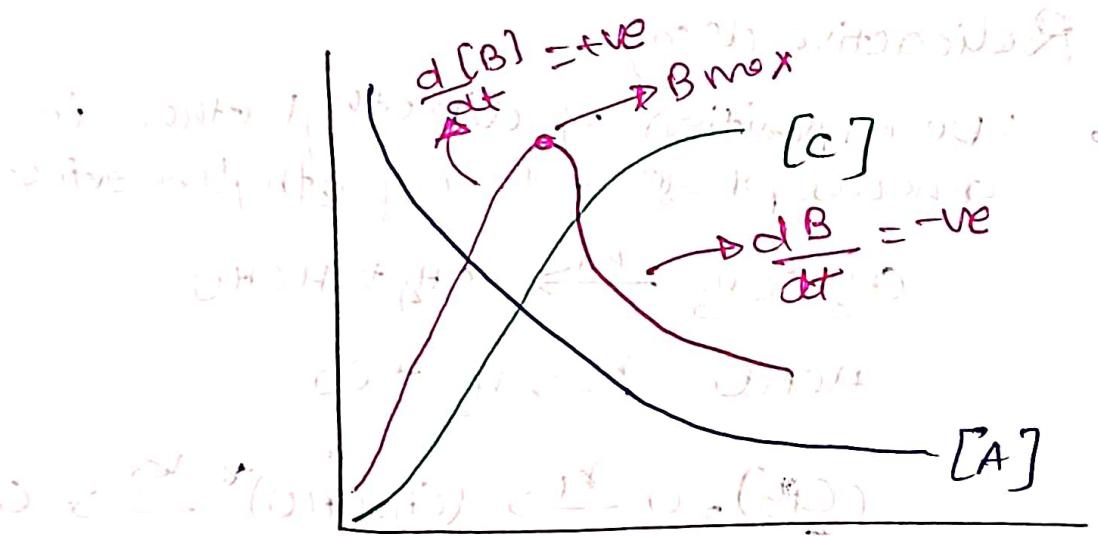


If $k_1 \gg k_2$

Rate of formation of B is more whereas rate of disappearance of B is less.

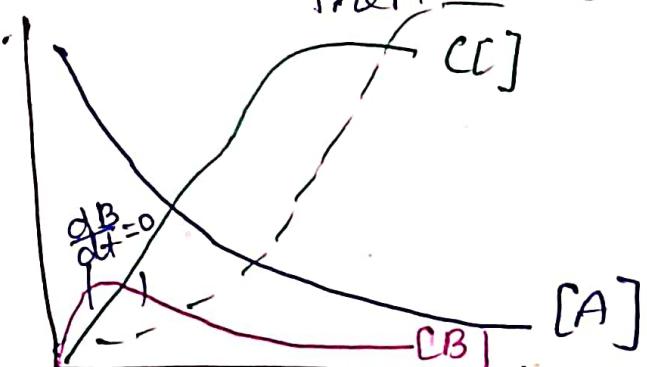
$\text{B formation} > \text{B disappearance}$

Since $k_1 \geq k_2$, the concn of B reaches a maximum value then will decrease.



But if $k_2 \gg k_1$,

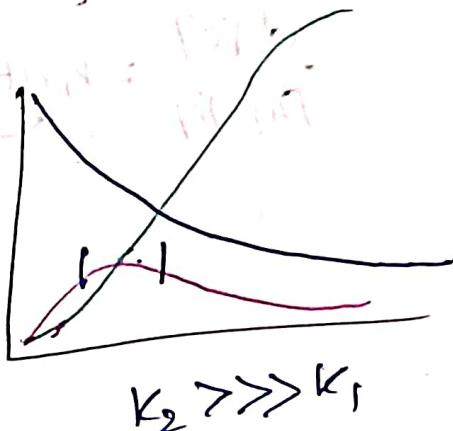
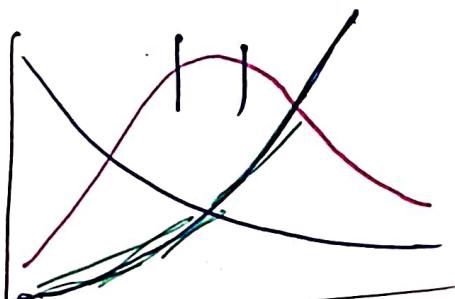
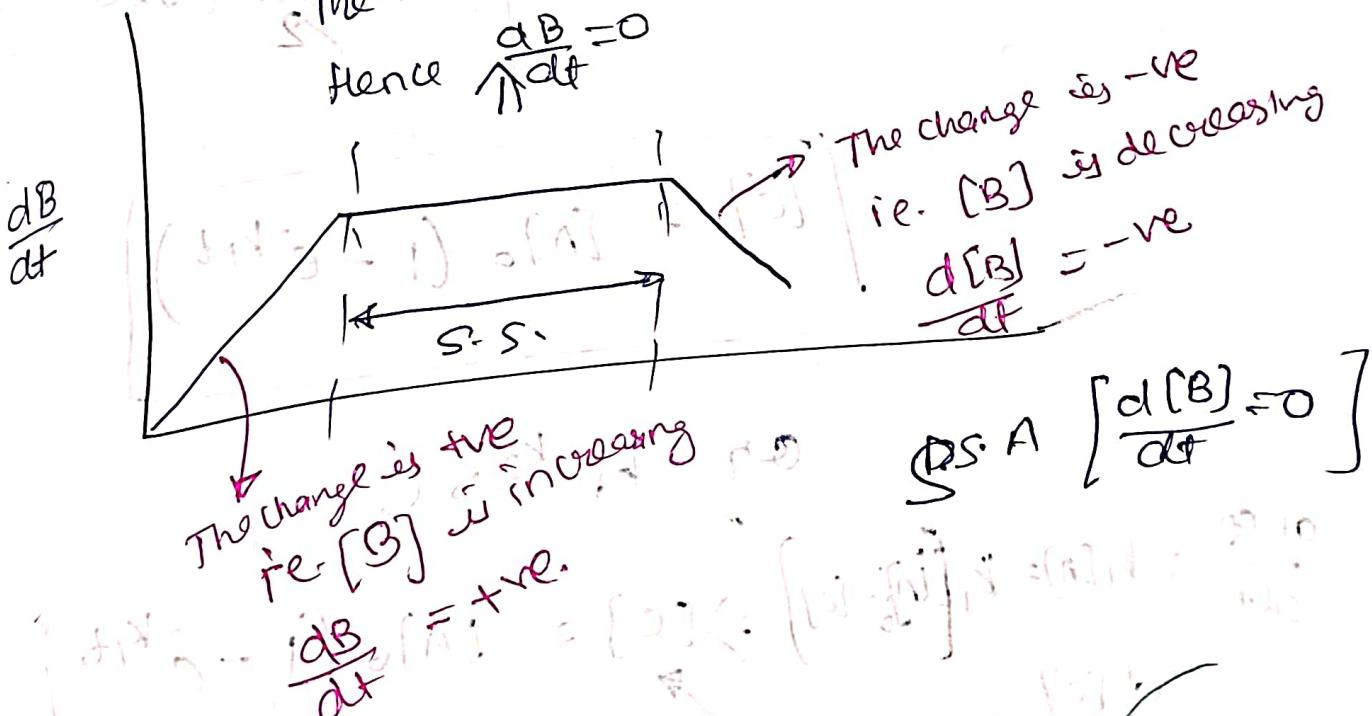
the concn of B will be appreciable. B disappears at a faster rate than it is formed.



Here, concⁿ [B] < [A] Here a condition arises [B] almost remains constant.

"The term steady state is used to describe a situation where some, not all of the state variables of a system are constant."

Note : Steady state approximation does not assume concⁿ of reaction to be zero rather it assumes change in concⁿ of reaction or intermediate to be zero. The concⁿ of [B] is constant not zero.





(1) Rate determining step (slow)

$$k_2 \gg k_1$$

$$e^{-k_2 t} \ll e^{-k_1 t}$$

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

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

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

$$\frac{d[C]}{dt} = k_1 [A] = k_1 [A_0 - [C]] \Rightarrow [C] = [A]_0 (1 - e^{-k_1 t})$$

$$\frac{d[C]}{[A]_0 - [C]} = k_1 dt$$



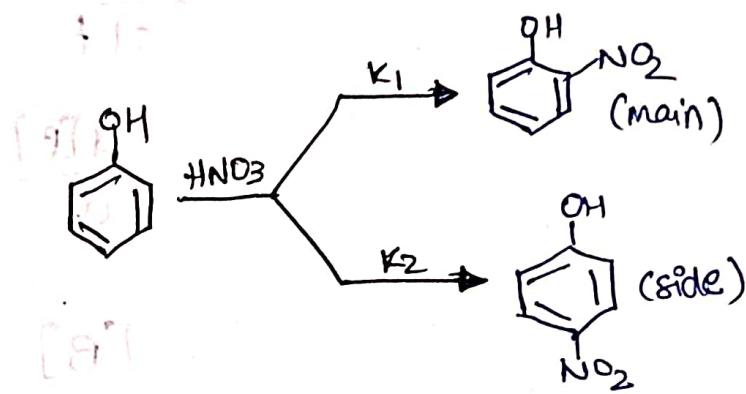
$k_1 \ll k_2$



$k_1 \gg k_2$

Kinetics of Parallel / Side / Competing Reactions :

Consider the reaction.



The differential rate expressions are:

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} = +k_1 [A] \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\frac{d[C]}{dt} = +k_2 [A] \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

The overall reaction rate for the consumption of A
can be written as:

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

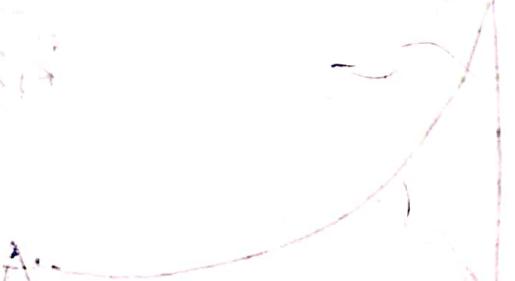
$$-(k_1 + k_2) [A]$$

$$A \int \frac{d[A]}{[A]} = - \int (k_1 + k_2) dt$$

Integrating both sides

$$\ln \frac{[A]}{[A_0]} = -(k_1 + k_2) t$$

$$\Rightarrow [A] = [A_0] e^{-(k_1 + k_2) t} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$



use ③ in ①

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

$$\frac{d[B]}{dt} = k_1 [A]_0 e^{-(k_1+k_2)t}$$

$$[B] = \frac{-k_1}{k_1+k_2} [A]_0 \left[e^{-(k_1+k_2)t} \right] + C_1$$

$$\text{at } t=0, [B]=0,$$

therefore,

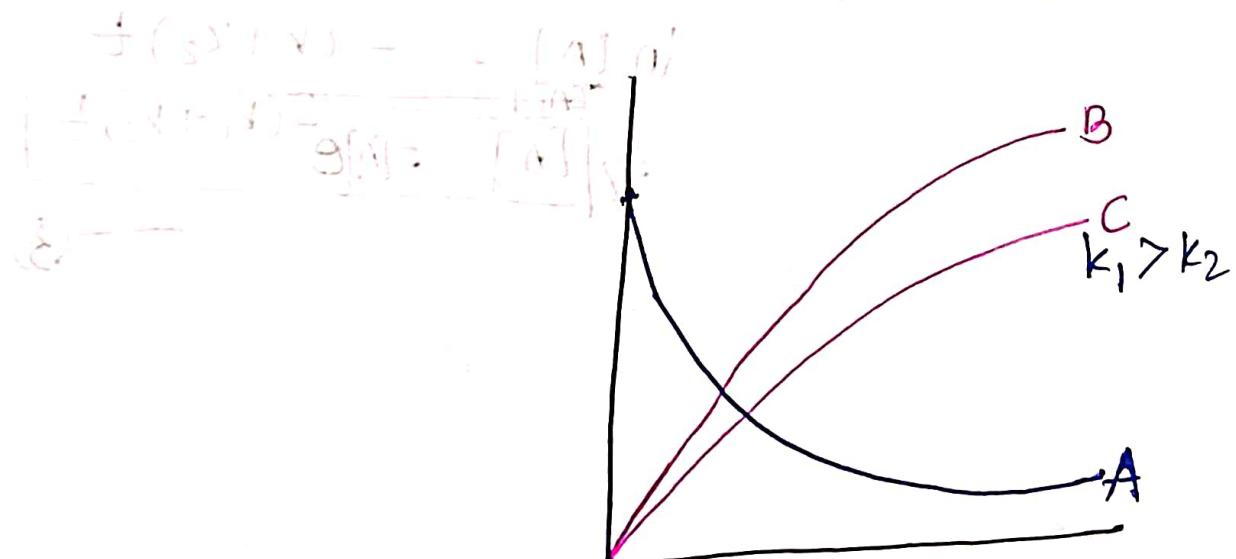
$$C_1 = \frac{k_1 [A]_0}{k_1+k_2}$$

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

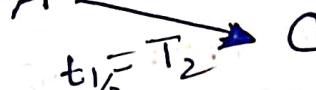
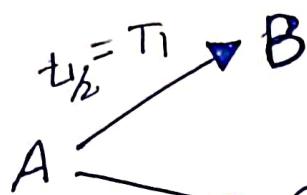
similarly,

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

$$\frac{[B]}{[C]} = \frac{k_1}{k_2}$$



Effective Half-life:



$$\text{For 1st order rxn, } t_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{k}$$

$$T_1 = \frac{\ln 2}{k_1} \text{ making it slow}$$

$$T_2 = \frac{\ln 2}{k_2}$$

Therefore, effective half-life

$$T_{\text{eff}} = \frac{\ln 2}{k_{\text{eff}}}$$

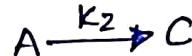
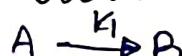
$$k_{\text{eff}} = \frac{\ln 2}{T_{\text{eff}}}$$

$$k_{\text{eff}} = k_1 + k_2$$

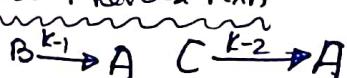
$$\frac{\ln 2}{T_{\text{eff}}} = \frac{\ln 2}{T_1} + \frac{\ln 2}{T_2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{1}{T_{\text{eff}}} = \frac{1}{T_1} + \frac{1}{T_2}}$$

Thermodynamics vs kinetic Control Product:



Consider reverse Rxn



$$\text{at eqm } \frac{k_1}{k_2} = \left\{ \frac{[B]/[A]}{[C]/[A]} \right\} = \frac{[B]}{[C]}$$

Thermodynamic control
 $k = \text{eqm const}$

When any reverse rxn or interconversion of A & B can be neglected

$$\frac{[C]}{[B]} = \frac{k_1}{k_2} \quad \text{Kinetic Control}$$

$k = \text{Rate const.}$

when a reaction produces more than one products the product that is formed more rapidly is called Kinetic Product.

And the product which is most stable is called Thermodynamic Product.

⇒ Reactions that produce the kinetic product as major product, are said to be Kinetically controlled and the reactions that produce the thermodynamic product as major products, are said to be Thermodynamically controlled reactions.

⇒ KCP [Kinetically Controlled Product]

Depends upon the rates at which they are formed

TCP [Thermodynamically Controlled Product]

The relative amount of products depends on their stability.



$$E_{TCP} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{E_A} + \frac{1}{E_B}}$$

Ans to

methods to study kinetics of fast reactions

what is fast reaction?

Ans → The chemical reaction which completes in less than 1 ps (one picosecond) [10^{-12} s] times is known as the fast reactions.

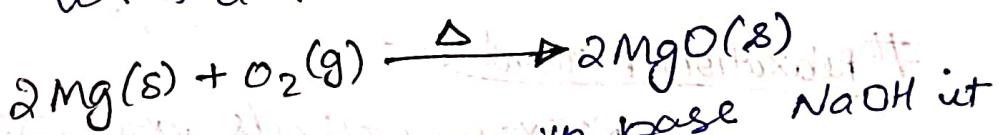
It is practically impossible to measure the speed of such reactions. The reason for a very fast rate of such reaction is that no chemical bonds are to be broken among the reactants.

The fast reaction possesses a high rate of reaction & they possess smaller activation energy.

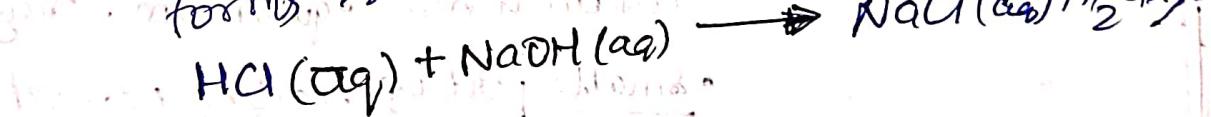
e.g. ionic reaction, organic substitution reaction, neutralization reactions

striking a match, burning of petrol in the car engine

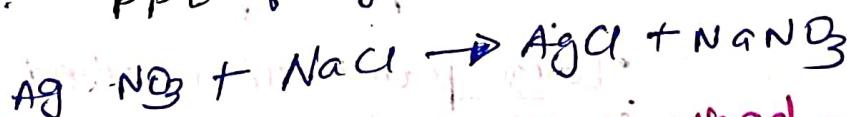
example - Mg ribbon is burnt in the flame of Bunsen burner it quickly gets combusted with a noticeable spark.



example, when HCl reacts with base NaOH it forms salt & water.



e.g. ppt of AgCl formation



These technique includes - Floo method, Relaxation method, Flash Photolysis.

Characteristics of fast reactions:-

- The chemical reactions in which the rate constant lies between 10^1 - 10^{11} s⁻¹ are called fast reactions.
- They have very short half-life 10^{-1} to 10^{-5} s.
- They are so fast that they occur as well as soon as the reactants are brought together.
- ΔH° is high & possess small activation energy.
- It is practically not possible to measure the ROR of such reaction.
- The special experimental techniques used for measuring rate constant of fast reactions include: Relaxation methods, flow and stop flowing, flash methods, ultrasonic and resonance techniques.

Relaxation Method :-

- Relaxation methods are classified into 3 groups based on the extent of perturbation to attain a new equilibrium. They include:
- Small perturbation method
e.g. temp. Jumps method & pressure jump method
 - Large perturbation method
e.g. shock tube method & flash photolysis
 - Periodic perturbation method
e.g. Ultrasonic method

In relax
disturbed (perturbed) by a rapid change in
one of the possible parameters like temperature or
pressure or electric field intensity.

The relaxation is followed by using spectrometer
or conductivity meter techniques.

The time during which the reaction gets relaxed
from equilibrium is called relaxation time

The relaxation time can be determined by T-jump method
or P-jump method.

Relaxation by Temperature Jump Method (T-Jump method):

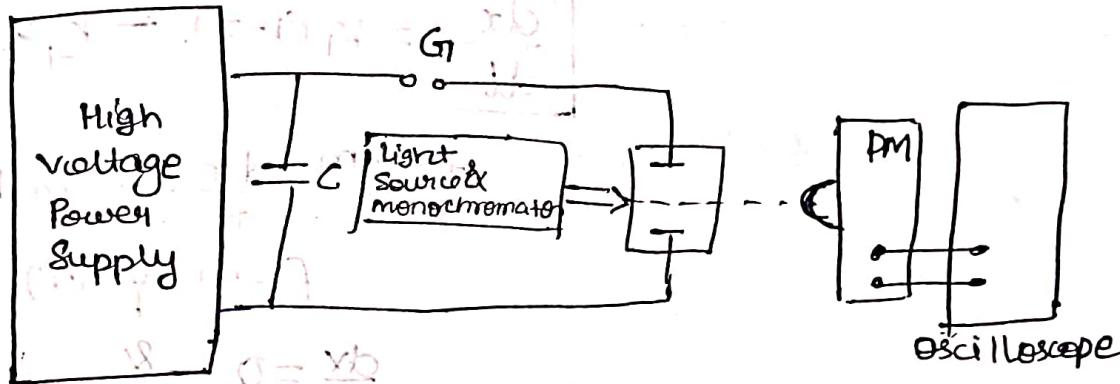


Fig. Apparatus for T-jump method.

- In T-jump method a high voltage power supply charges the capacitor.
- When a certain voltage is reached, the spark gap (G) breaks down & thereby discharging the capacitor & sending a strong current through the cell containing reactive system at equilibrium.
- As the current passes, the temperature of the reactive system rises by about 10°C in few microseconds (μs). This temperature rise perturbs the system in such a way that concn of reactive species adjusts to a new equilibrium value.
- The speed with which the system approaches new equilibrium is monitored through spectrometer, in which the intensity of light leaving the cell is measured by using suitable photodetectors (Photo-Multiplier tube - PMT).
- The output of PMT is displayed as the variation of concentration over time on the oscilloscope screen.

Rate constant expression for Fast Reactions

by T-jump Method

If dep from eqm is very small,
rate of relaxation (restoration of equilibrium)
always follows the 1st order kinetics.



Let concn of A be a

& x be concn of B at any time t

$$\left[\frac{dx}{dt} = k_1(a-x) - k_{-1}x \right] \quad \textcircled{1}$$

At eqm $\frac{dx}{dt} = 0$ and $x = x_0$

from eqn(1) we have

particular solution

$$x = k_1(a-x_0) - k_{-1}x_0 \quad \text{(2)}$$

$$k_1(a-x_0) = k_{-1}x_0 \quad \text{(3)}$$

The deviation from eqm (Δx)

$$\Delta x = x - x_0$$

$$x = \Delta x + x_0 \quad \text{(4)}$$

$$\frac{d\Delta x}{dt} = k_1(a-x) - k_{-1}x$$

with initial condition $\Delta x = 0$ at $t=0$

the particular solution of eqn(4) is

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{But } x &= \Delta x + x_0 \\
 \frac{dx}{dt} &= k_1(a - \Delta x - x_0) - k_{-1}(\Delta x + x_0) \quad \rightarrow (S) \\
 \frac{dx}{dt} &= k_1 a - k_1 \Delta x - k_1 x_0 - k_{-1} \Delta x - k_{-1} x_0 \\
 \frac{dx}{dt} &= k_1(a - x_0) - k_1 \Delta x - k_{-1} \Delta x - k_{-1} x_0 \\
 \frac{dx}{dt} &= k_1(a - x_0) - k_1 \Delta x - k_{-1} \Delta x - k_{-1} x_0 \\
 \frac{dx}{dt} &= k_1(a - x_0) = k_1 x_0 \\
 \frac{d\Delta x}{dt} &= -k_1 x_0 [k_1 + k_{-1}] \\
 \frac{d\Delta x}{\Delta x} &= - (k_1 + k_{-1}) dt
 \end{aligned}$$

where, $k_r = [k_1 + k_{-1}]$ is known as relaxation constant

The reciprocal of relaxation constant is known as relaxation time (τ^*)

$$\tau^* = \frac{1}{k_r} = \frac{1}{[k_1 + k_{-1}]}$$

$$\frac{d(\Delta x)}{\Delta x} = -k_r dt \quad 8$$

Integrating both side

$$\int \frac{d(\Delta x)}{\Delta x} = -k_r \int_{t=0}^t dt$$

$$\Delta x = \Delta x_0 - k_r t$$

$$\ln \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta x_0} = -k_r t$$

$$\ln \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta x_0} = -k_\theta t$$

$$\text{constant, } k_\theta = (k_f + k_{-1}) \text{ s}^{-1} = 2 \times 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta x_0} = e^{-k_\theta t}$$

$$\boxed{\Delta x = \Delta x_0 e^{-k_\theta t}}$$

$$\Delta x = \Delta x_0 e^{-k_\theta t}$$

$$\Delta x = \Delta x_0 e^{-k_\theta t} \quad (k_\theta = k_f + k_{-1})$$

$$\text{Initial eqm } x \Delta x + (k_f - k_{-1}) t = 2 \times 10^5$$

Q. The relaxation time for fast reaction $A \xrightleftharpoons[k_f]{k_1} B$ is $10 \mu\text{s}$ & the eqm constant

$k_f = 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1}$ calculate the rate constant for forward & reversible reaction

$$\text{Initial eqm } \frac{1}{2} \times 10^5$$

$$\frac{x}{x_0} = \frac{1}{k_1 + k_f} = 10 \mu\text{s} = 10 \times 10^{-6} \text{ s}$$

$$k_f = 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

since $k_1 \gg k_f$

$$\text{since } k_1 \gg k_f$$

$$\text{Initial eqm } [A] = \frac{1}{2} \times 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1} = \frac{1}{k_1 + k_f} = \frac{1}{k_f}$$

$$\text{Initial eqm } \frac{1}{2} \times 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1} = \frac{1}{k_f} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$(10^5) \text{ s}^{-1} \text{ initial eqm} \Rightarrow 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$\frac{1}{k_f} = \frac{1}{10^5} = k_f$$

$$k_f = 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

$$K = \frac{k_f}{k_1}$$

$$\text{Initial eqm } \frac{1}{2} \times 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1} = \frac{1}{k_1 + k_f}$$

$$K = \frac{k_f k_1}{k_1 + k_f} = \frac{10^5 \times 10^5}{10^5 + 10^5} = 10^5$$

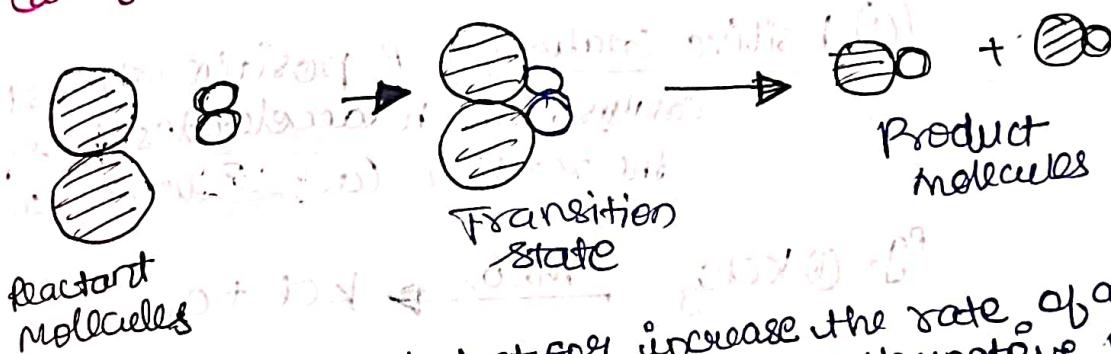
$$k_1 = 10^5 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

Catalysis

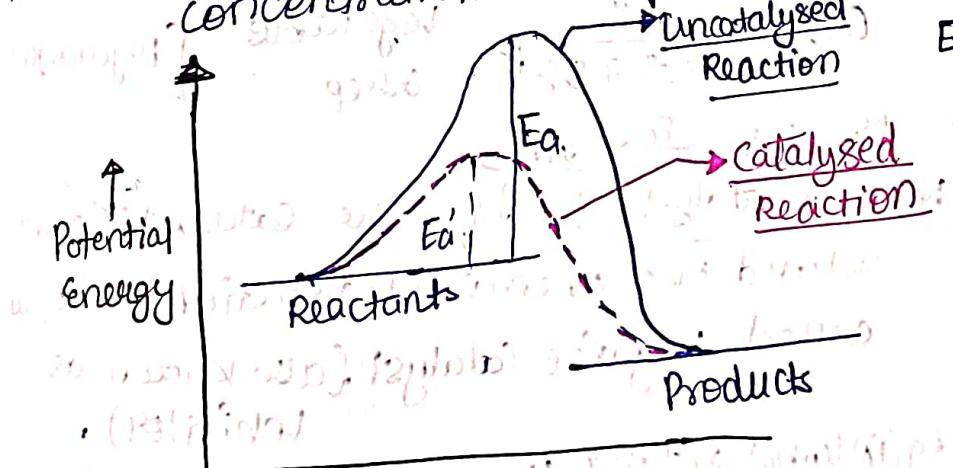
Catalyst

Catalyst is defined as a substance, small quantity of which alters (increase or decrease) the velocity of a chemical reaction by its mere presence, without itself undergoing any change in mass & composition at the end of the reaction.

The phenomenon of altering the velocity of a chemical reaction by the presence of a catalyst is called Catalysis.



We can employ catalyst for increase the rate of a reaction bcoz catalyst can provide alternative pathway with low activation energy, so more reactant molecules can cross the activation energy barrier at given concentration & temperature.



E_T : Threshold energy of the uncatalysed Rxn

$E_{T'}$: Threshold energy of the catalysed Rxn

E_R : Energy of the reactant

E_P : Energy of the product.

Advantages of using catalyst instead of using high temperature to promote a chemical reaction :-

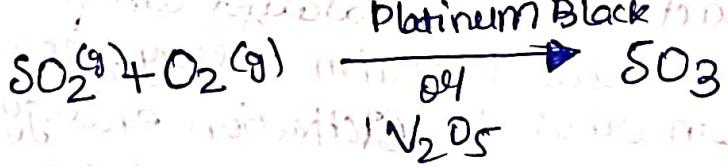
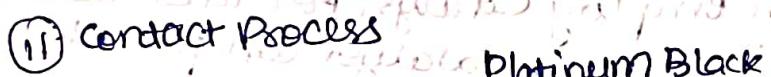
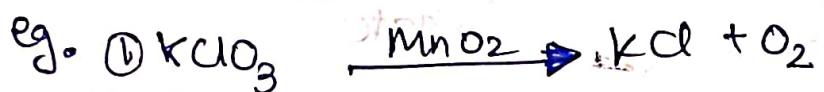
→ a) Better control of the reaction

b) Low energy cost due to lower temperature (more economical).

c) Fewer side reactions, thereby providing higher yield of the desired product.

Types of catalyst :-

(a) Positive catalyst : A positive catalyst is a catalyst which accelerates the speed of the reaction (also known as accelerator).



③



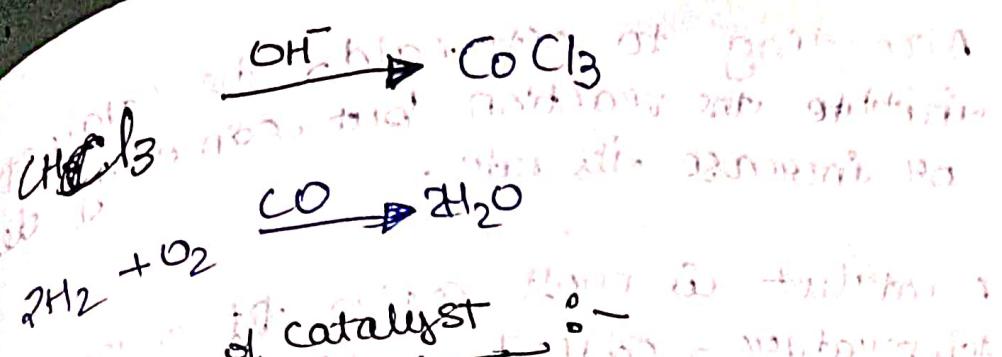
④



(b) Negative catalyst : If the catalytic substance retard the chemical reaction it is called negative catalyst (also known as inhibitor).

e.g. ① Alcohol retard the oxidn of chloroform to poisonous phosgene.

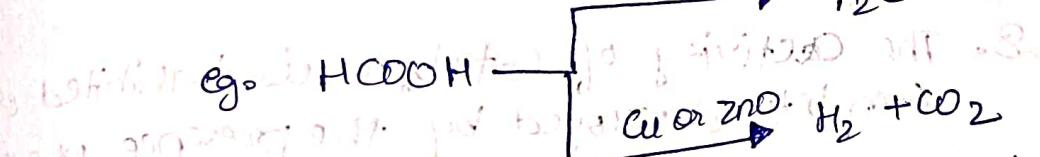
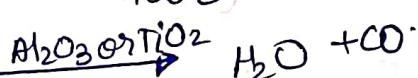
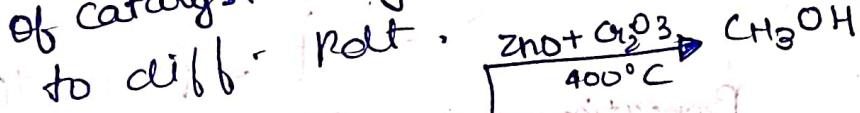
② Tetraethyl lead acts as anti-knock material in internal combustion engine



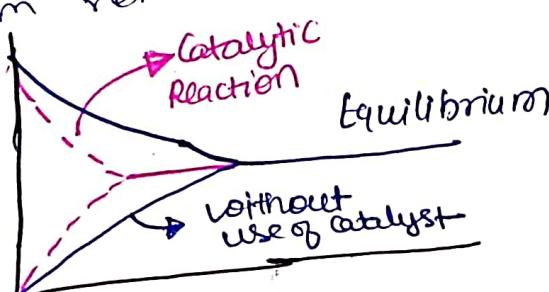
Characteristics of catalyst

- 1. Catalyst remains unchanged in mass & composition at the end of the reaction through a change in physical state, colour may occur.

- 2. A small amount of catalyst is sufficient to bring an appreciable change in the velocity of the reaction. (As in surface area of catalyst & rate of rxn)
- 3. A catalyst can exert a selective action like a key can open a particular lock. Some catalysts are very specific in respect of reaction and change of catalyst may divert the path of same reaction to diff. polt.



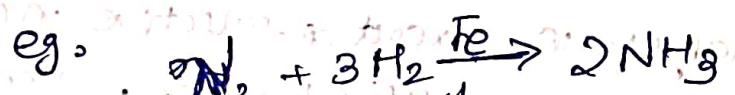
Enzymes also have specific catalytic activity. A catalyst can only alter the speed of the reaction but does not affect the final state of eqm since it alters the rate of the forward as well as backward reaction to the same extent, thereby the composition of eqm remains same.



5. According to Ostwald, the catalyst can not initiate the reaction but can only decrease or increase its rate.

6. A catalyst is most active at a particular temperature & called optimum temperature.

7. The addition of a small amount of foreign substance which are not themselves catalytically active, sometimes increase the catalytic activity of the catalyst. Such substances which catalyze the catalyst are called promoters.



Molybdenum
or mix of alumina, Al_2O_3 & SiO_2

→ Promoter.

Properties of Promoters are

(i) selective enhancement of the reactions

(ii) Increase catalyst lifetime.

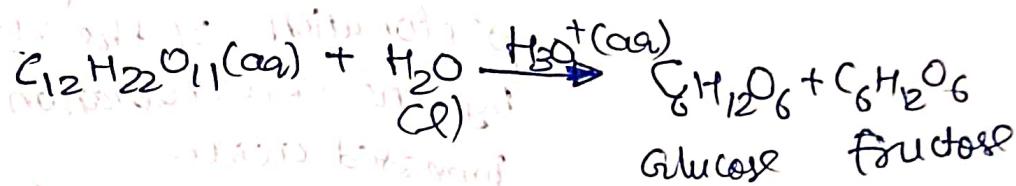
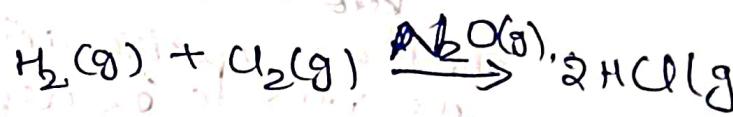
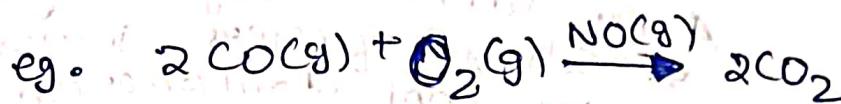
8. The activity of catalyst is inhibited or completely destroyed by the presence of even minute traces of certain substances called catalytic poison or anti-catalyst.

e.g. In manufacture of H_2SO_4 by contact process a trace of As_2O_3 destroys the catalytic activity & efficiency of spongy platinum.

Types of catalysis (homogeneous, heterogeneous & auto catalysis)

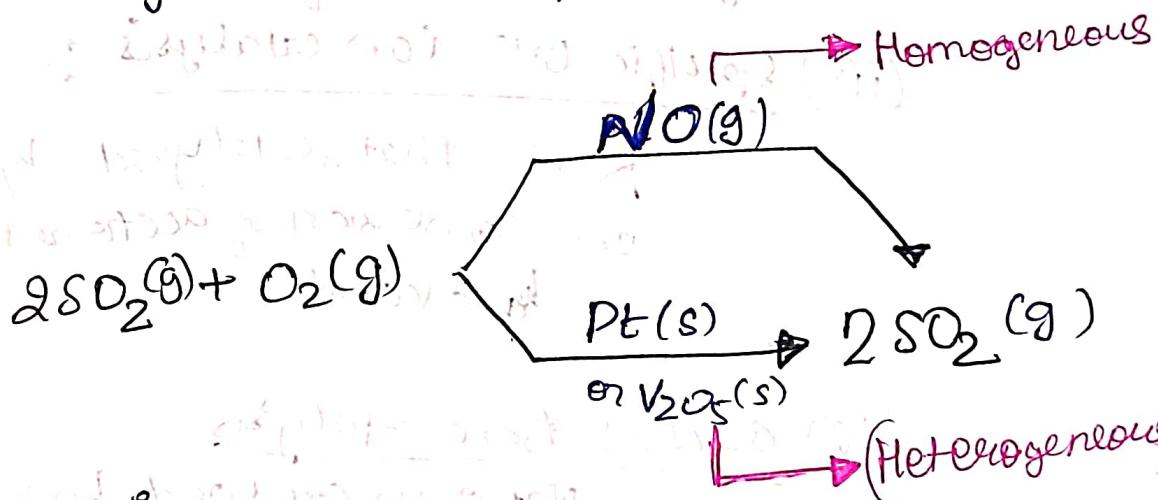
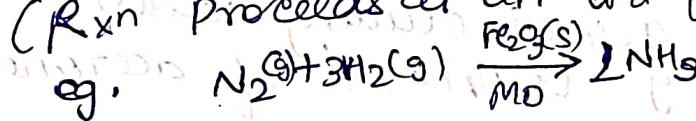
(A) Homogeneous Catalysis

Reactants & catalyst is present in the same phase (i.e. in gas phase or liq phase)



(B) Heterogeneous Catalysis

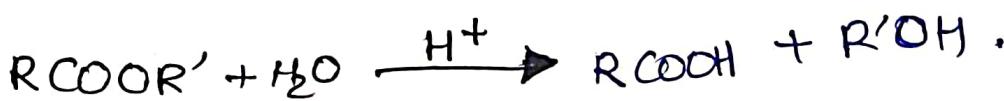
Reactants & catalyst is present in the different phases
(Rxn proceeds at an interface b/w two discrete phases)



Auto-catalysis :-

when a product formed in the course of the reactions enhances the velocity of the reaction (or acts as a catalyst) the phenomenon is called catalysis.

In other words, if one of the products of a reaction is capable of catalyzing the same reaction in which it is produced this is called autocatalysis.



Acid-base catalysis :-

It is an example of homogeneous catalysis which is catalysed by Brønsted acid or base or both.

(i) specific proton catalyzed rxn (H⁺ ion catalysis):

A rxn which is catalyzed by H⁺ or H₃O⁺ ions.
eg. solvolysis of esters, Inversion of cane sugar, keto-enol tautomerism.

The term specific acid catalysis is used when the rxn rate is dependent on the eqm for protonation of the reactant & is governed by the concentration of H⁺ ion, not other Bronsted acids.

(ii) General Acid catalysis:

These are the rxns which are not only catalysed by H⁺ ions but also acids including water.
eg. Iodination of acetone.

(iii) specific OH⁻ ion catalysis:

Rxn that is catalyzed by OH⁻ ion only
eg. conversion of acetone to dicetone



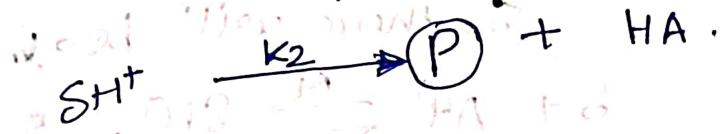
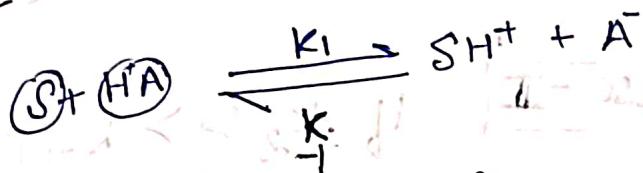
(iv) General Base catalysis:

Not only catalyzed by OH⁻ but also by other bases. eg OAc⁻

(v) Rxns that are catalysed by both H⁺ & OH⁻ ions - hydrolysis of ester.

Kinetics of Acid Catalyzed Reactions:-

organic, Biology
mechanism



$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = K_2 [SH^+] \quad \text{Reaction Intermediate}$$

(applying steady state approximation)
for SH^+

$$\frac{d[SH^+]}{dt} = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Rate of formation of } SH^+ = \text{Rate of consumption of } SH^+$$

$$K_1 [S] [AH^+] = K_{-1} [A^-] [SH^+] + K_2 [SH^+]$$

$$\text{Solving for } [SH^+] \quad [SH^+] \left[K_{-1} [A^-] + K_2 \right] = K_1 [S] [AH^+]$$

$$[SH^+] = \frac{K_1 [S] [AH^+]}{K_{-1} [A^-] + K_2}$$

Rate of formation of product is given by,

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = K_2 [SH^+]$$

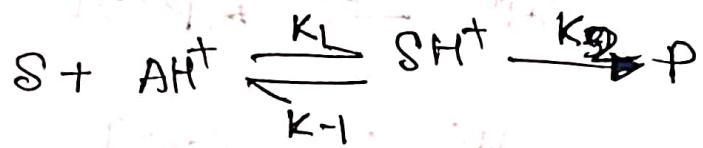
$$\Rightarrow \frac{d[P]}{dt} = \frac{K_1 K_2 [S] [AH^+]}{K_{-1} [A^-] + K_2}$$

$$\frac{dP}{dt} = \frac{k_1 k_2 [S] [AH^+]}{K_{-1}[A] + K_2}$$

Case - I

If $k_2 \gg k_{-1}[A]$

So there will be a small amt of SH^+



$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = \frac{k_1 k_2 [S] [AH^+]}{K_{-1}}$$

** Rate of $[AH^+]$

General acid catalysis

Case - II

If $k_2 \ll k_{-1}[A]$

SH^+ may be considered to be in eqm with reactant

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = \frac{k_1 k_2 [S] [AH^+]}{K_{-1}[A]}$$

$$[A^-]_0 = \frac{K_a [AH^+]}{[H^+]}$$

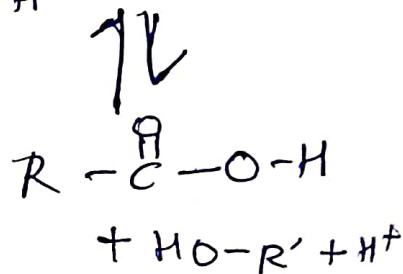
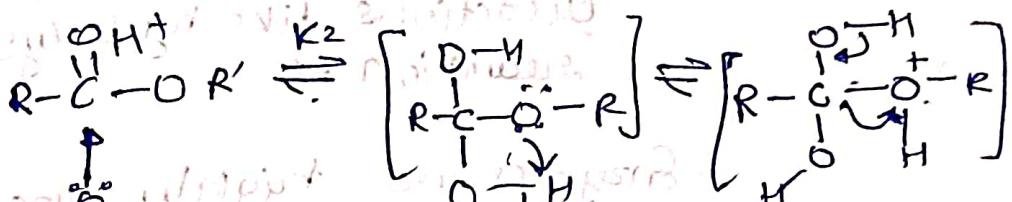
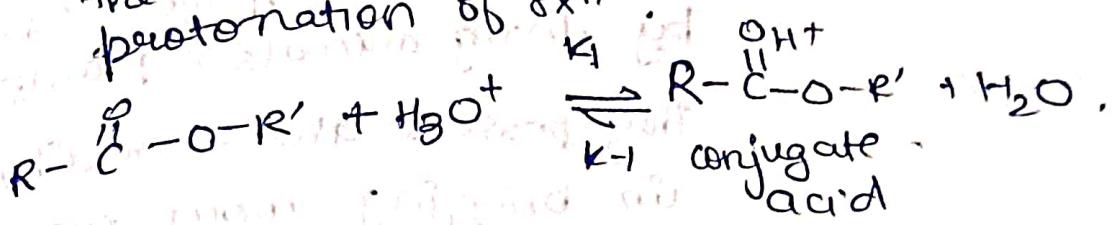
$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = \frac{k_1 k_2 [S] [AH^+] [H^+]}{K_{-1} K_a [A^-]}$$

** Rate of $[H^+]$
specific $[H^+]$
catalysis

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = K' [S] [H^+]$$

Hydrolysis effects (acidic) $\xrightarrow{\text{acid}}$ decomposition

↳ specific acid catalyzed rxn when the rxn rate is dependent on eqm for protonation of rxn.



$$\text{Rate} = K_2 [SH^+]$$

$$[SH^+] = \frac{K_1 K_2 [RCOOH][H^+]}{K_1 + K_2}$$

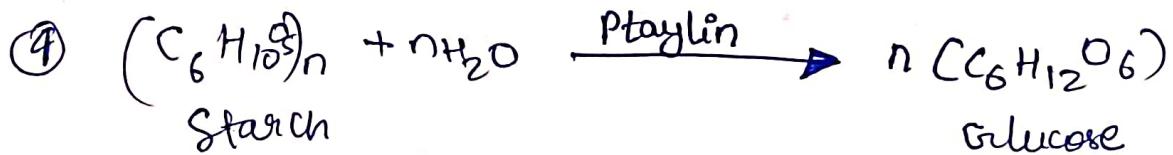
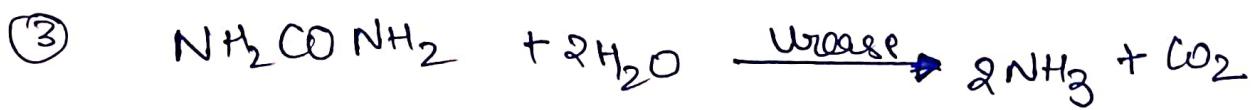
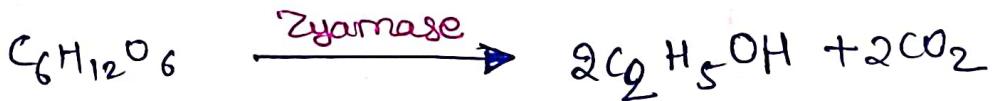
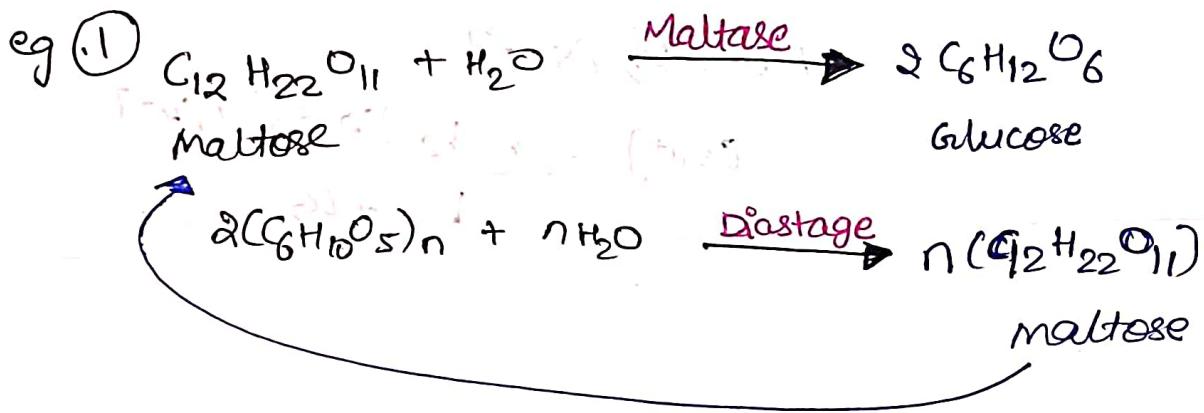
Enzymes (or biological catalyst)

Enzymes are highly complex, non-living nitrogenous organic substances produced by living animals & plants.

they possess the incredible capacity in bringing about many complex reactions like hydrolysis, oxidation, reduction etc.

Enzymes are highly specific & each enzyme can catalyze a specific reaction

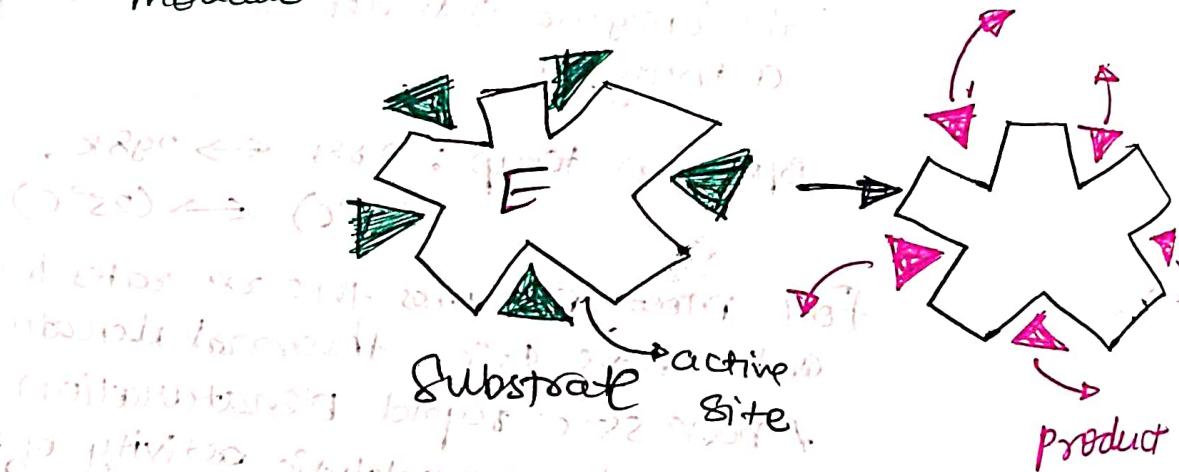
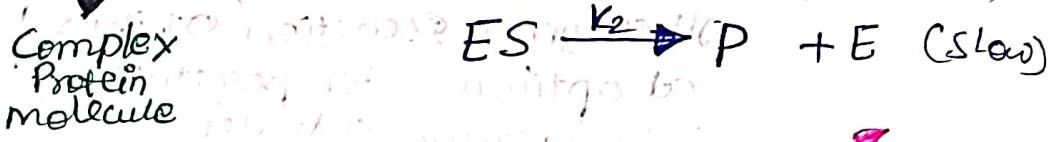
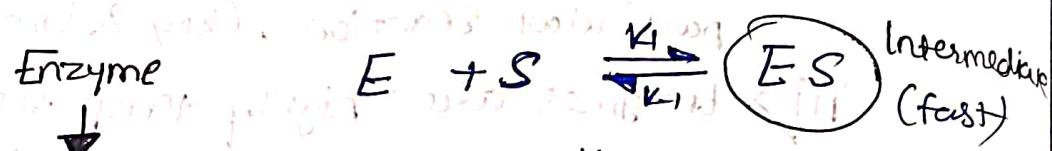
It also lowers the activation energy for a particular reaction. e.g.



- Characteristics of Enzymes :-
- i) Enzymes are protein that can act as enormously effective catalyst & can speed up the reaction by high factors of upto $\pm 10^{12}$.
 - ii) They are highly specific & each enzymes catalyze a particular reaction. (key & lock)
 - iii) Enzymes are highly temp sensitive.
All enzymes reaction exhibits maximum efficiency at optimum temperature. Above this temperature the enzyme gets denatured, thereby losing its activity.
 - Optimum temp : $288K \leftrightarrow 298K$.
 $(15^\circ C) \leftrightarrow (25^\circ C)$
For most enzymes the rxn rates increases upto $45^\circ C$ and above $45^\circ C$ thermal denaturation takes place. Above $55^\circ C$ rapid denaturation destroys completely the catalytic activity of the enzyme protein.
 - iv) Enzyme catalyzed rxns are much more sensitive to catalytic poison such as HCN, CS₂, H₂S etc. the inhibitors (or poisons) interact with the fn gp present on enzyme surface & often reduce or completely destroy the catalytic activity of the enzyme.
 - v) Activity of enzymes depends upon certain non-protein substances called co-enzymes.
 - vi) Enzymes loose their activity when exposed to UV radiation or in the presence of electrolyte
 - vii) The effect of pH on the rate of enzyme catalysed reaction is of complex nature. Usually the rate possess through a maximum as the pH increased (pH 5-7)
 - viii) Enzyme does not disturb the final state of eqm.

Mechanism & Kinetics of enzyme catalysed reaction

L. Michaelis & M. M. Menten proposed a mechanism for the kinetics of enzyme catalysed rxns which involves the following steps:-



$$E_0 = E + ES \Rightarrow E = E_0 - ES$$

↑
free enzyme

(E available at that moment)

$$\frac{d[P]}{dt} = K_2 [ES]$$

$$\frac{d[ES]}{dt} = 0$$

$$\frac{d[ES]}{dt} = 0 \Rightarrow \text{formation of } [ES] \rightarrow \text{Decomposition of } [ES]$$

$$\Rightarrow k_1[E][S] = +k_{-1}[ES] + k_2[ES]$$

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

$$k_1[E_0 - ES][S] = -(k_2 + k_{-1})[ES]$$

$$k_1[E_0][S] - k_1[ES][S] = (k_2 + k_{-1})[ES]$$

$$k_1[ES][S] + (k_{-1} + k_2)[ES] = k_1[E_0][ES]$$

$$(k_1[S] + (k_{-1} + k_2))[ES] = k_1[E_0][S]$$

$$[ES] = \frac{k_1[E_0][S]}{k_1[S] + k_{-1} + k_2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Rate} = \frac{d[P]}{dt} = k_2[ES]$$

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{d[P]}{dt} = \frac{k_1 k_2 [E_0][ES]}{k_1[S] + (k_{-1} + k_2)}$$

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{k_2 [E_0][S]}{[S] + (k_{-1} + k_2) / k_1}$$

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{k_2 [E_0][S]}{K_m + [S]}$$

Michaelis-Menten Eqn

$[S] \rightarrow \text{high}$

$[S] \gg K_m$

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{k_2 [E_0][S]}{[S]}$$

$$\text{Rate} = k_2 [E_0]$$

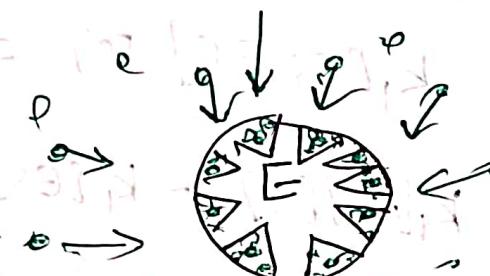
Rate = Constant
zero order

$[S] \rightarrow$ loc

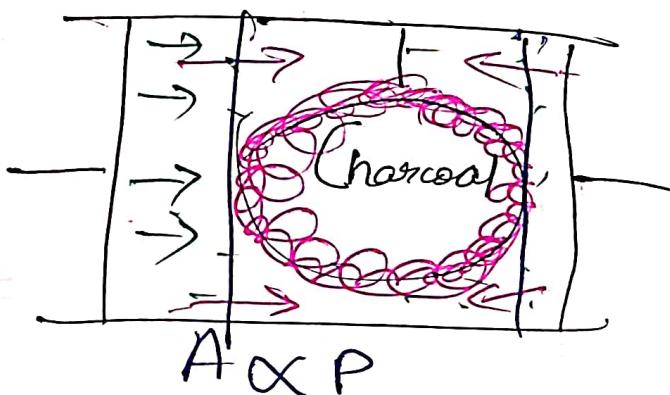
$$\text{Rate} = \frac{k_2 [E_0] [S]}{\text{km}}$$

Rate $\propto [S]^1$

1st order



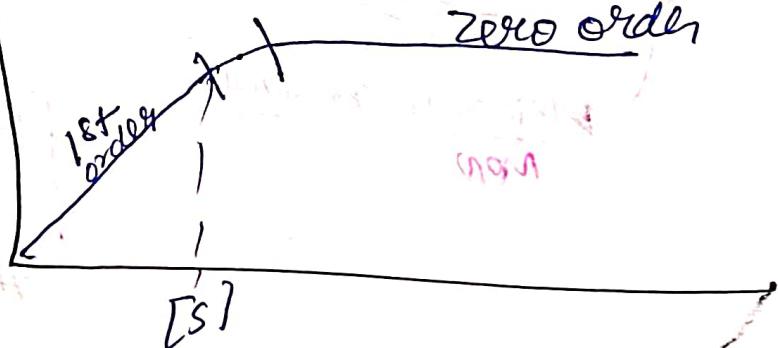
\rightarrow Adsorption



$$A \propto P$$

$$A \propto P^0$$

Rate



High $\rightarrow [S] \rightarrow$

Low $\rightarrow [S]$

Second Order Reactions \rightarrow $k_2 [E_0] [S]^2$

When all the enzymes has reacted with the substrate at high concn, the rate of $\propto n$ will be maxm under this condn, no free enzyme will remain & hence,

$$[E_0] = [ES]$$

$$V_{max} = k_2 [ES] = k_2 [E_0]$$

Max rate = V_{max}

$k_2 \rightarrow$ turn over number of enzyme

\downarrow
No. of molecules converted in unit time by one molecule of enzyme.

Range = $100 - 1000 s^{-1}$ but can be

$10^5 - 10^6 s^{-1}$

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{V_{max} [S]}{K_m + [S]}$$

Case-I

$$\text{if } K_m \gg [S] \quad \text{Rate} = \frac{V_{max} [S]}{K_m} = k' [S]$$

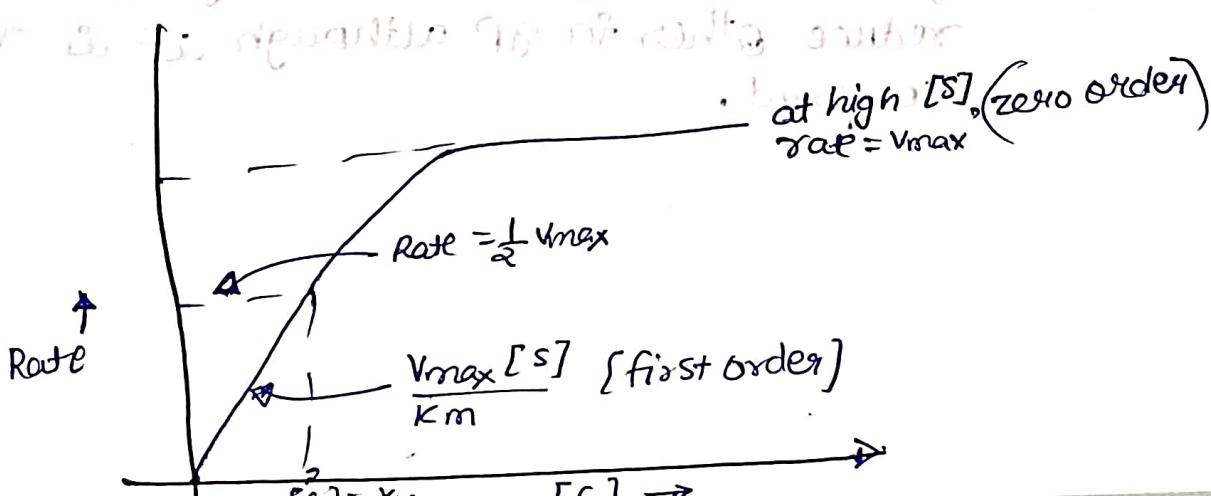
(1st order $\propto n$)

Case-II

$$\text{if } K_m \ll [S] \quad \text{Rate} = \frac{V_{max} [S]}{[S]} = V_{max} = \text{constant}$$

Case-III

$$\text{if } K_m = \frac{[S]}{2} \quad \text{Rate} = \frac{V_{max} [S]}{[S] + [S]} = \frac{V_{max}}{2}$$



Lineweaver-Burk method

It is rather difficult to determine V_{max} & (hence K_m) directly from plot of rate vs $[S]$

It is possible by rearranging Michaelis-Menten eqn

$$\frac{1}{\text{Rate}(s)} = \frac{K_m + [S]}{V_{max}[S]} = \frac{K_m}{V_{max}[S]} + \frac{1}{V_{max}}$$



$$\text{Slope} = \frac{K_m}{V_{max}}$$

$$y \text{ intercept} = \frac{1}{V_{max}}$$

$$x \text{ intercept} = \frac{1}{K_m}$$

Hydrogenation reaction by Wilkinson's Catalyst

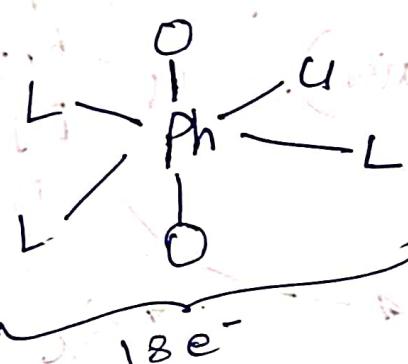


Triphenylphosphine Rhodium Chloride $[(\text{PPh}_3)_3 \text{RhCl}]$
 which is generally known as Wilkinson's catalyst
 acts as a homogeneous catalyst for the hydrogenation
 of alkenes & alkynes. The catalyst is not able to
 reduce other functional groups although it is very reactive
 compound.

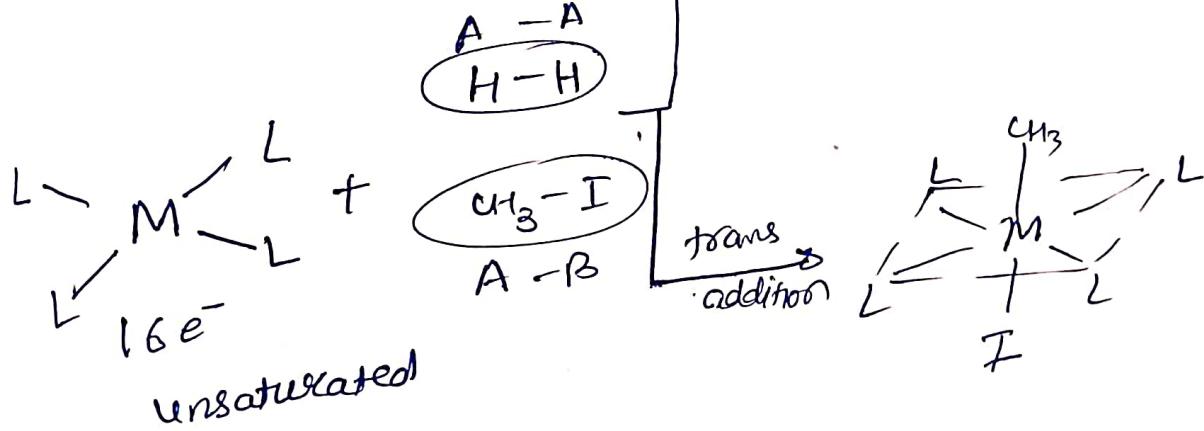
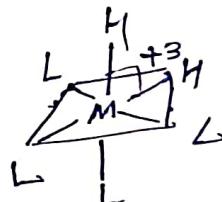
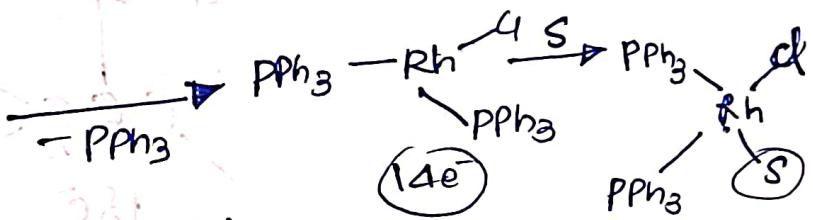
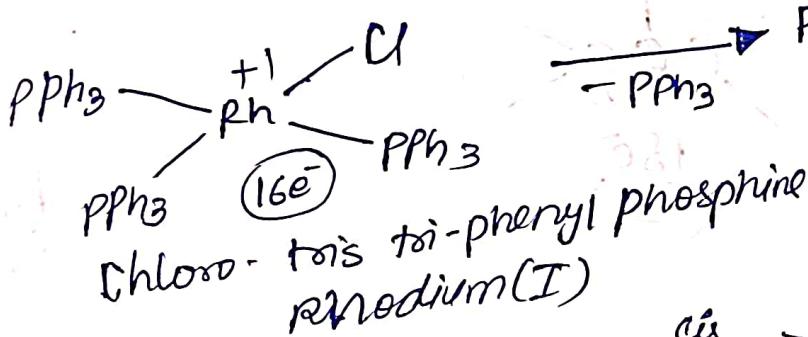


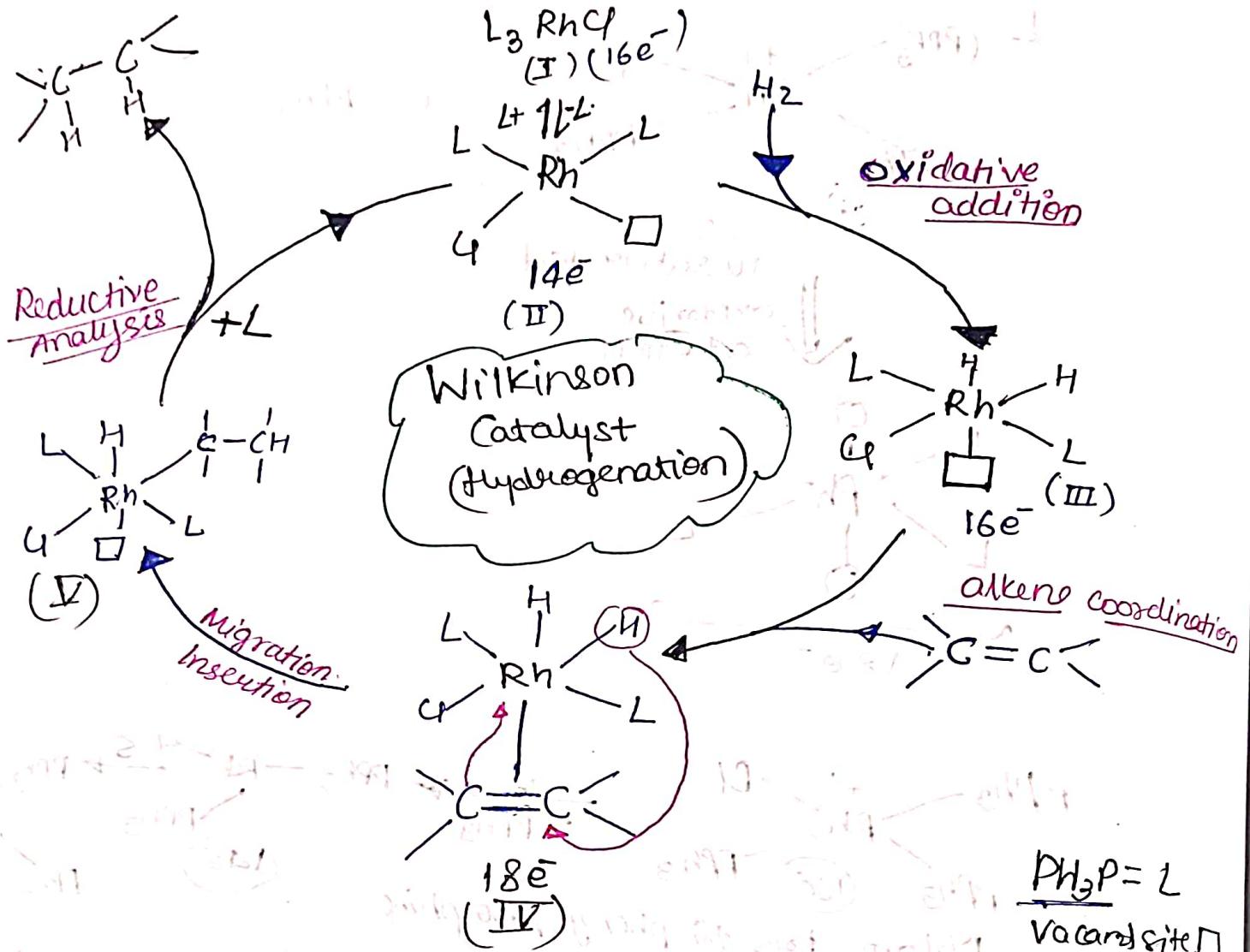
$16e^-$ unsaturated

oxidative addition



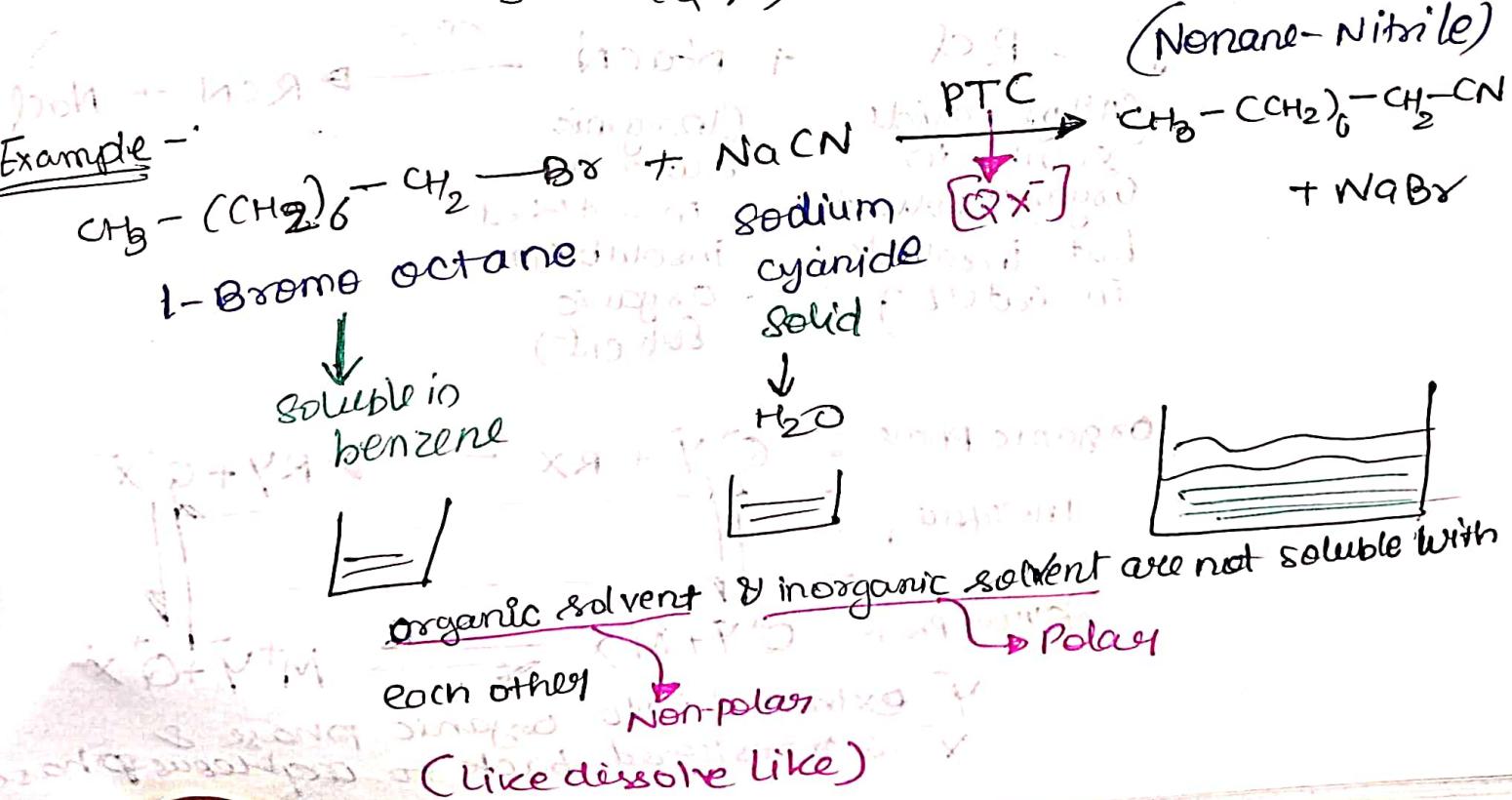
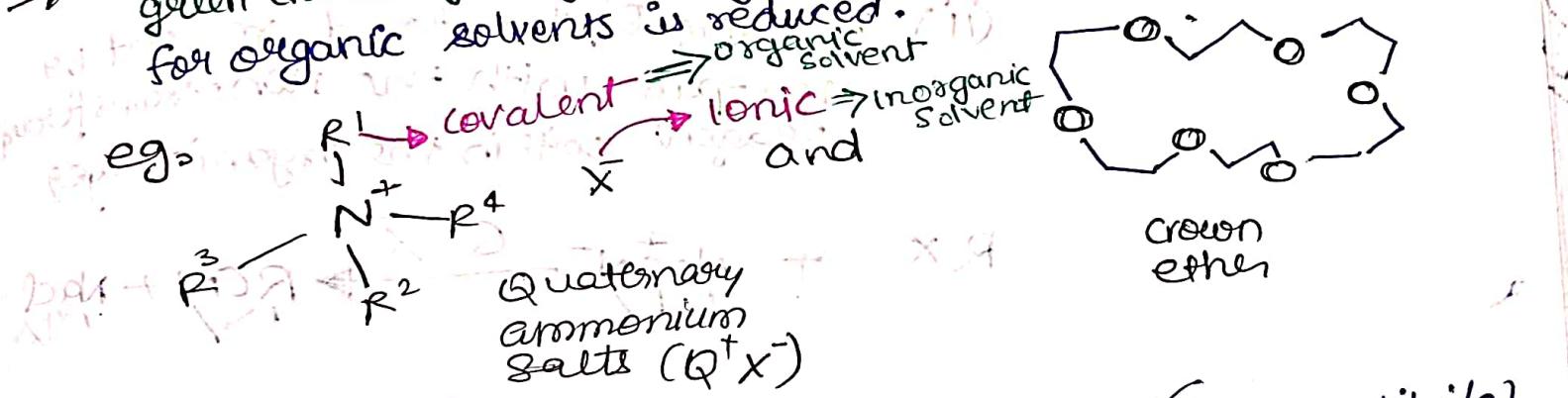
$18e^-$





Phase Transfer Catalyst (PTC)

- It is type of catalyst which is generally used in a reaction in which the substance change their phase or we can say that one substance moves from one phase to another phase.
- The main role of this type of catalyst are to facilitate the migration of reactant from one phase to another.
- The phase transfer catalysis (PTC) is a special form of heterogeneous catalysis.
- Phase transfer catalysts are especially useful in green chemistry - by allowing the use of water, the need for organic solvents is reduced.



(S7A) Transfer Reagents

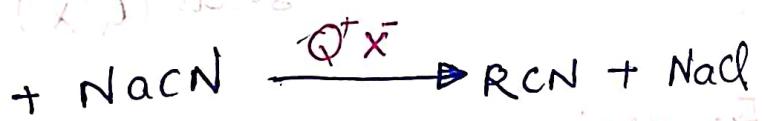
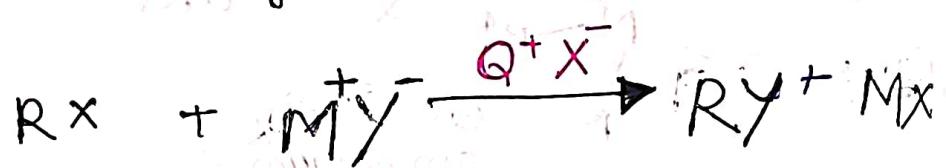
Types of Phase Catalyst

- There are many phase transfer catalysts such as Quaternary ammonium salt, phosphonium salt, crown ether & cryptand.

Mechanism of PTC

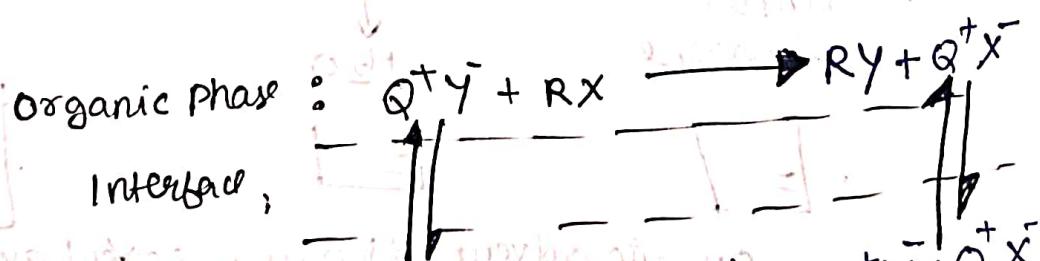
Fundamental processes :-

- Transfer of one reagent from its normal phase to the phase of other reagent.
- reaction of transferred reagent by ion-pair with the non-transferred reagent within the organic layer



(Alkyl halide
soluble in
organic solvent
but insoluble
in water)

(Inorganic
salt soluble
in water but
insoluble in
organic
solvent)



Y^- extracted into organic phase &
 X^- is transferred back to aqueous phase

Applications of phase-Transfer catalyst :-

- ① PTC are not only used in organic chemistry but also a broadly useful tool in several other areas of chemistry . i.e. To c, electrochemistry, photochemistry, heterocyclic chemistry, industrial chemistry, medicinal chemistry & especially polymer chemistry.
- ② PTC can be used for synthesis process for chemicals manufacturing
- ③ PTC have great role in green chemistry.

