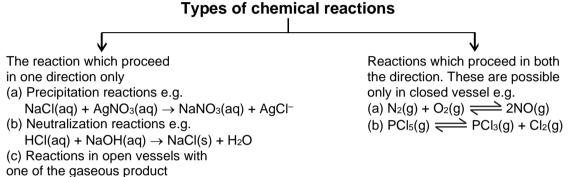
Introduction :

Equilibrium is a state in which there are no observable changes as time goes by. When a chemical reaction has reached the equilibrium state, the concentrations of reactants and products remain constant over time and there are no visible changes in the system. However, there is much activity at the molecular level because reactant molecules continue to from product molecules while product molecules react to yield reactant molecules. This dynamic situation is the subject of this chapter. Here we will discuss different types of equilibrium reactions, the meaning of the equilibrium constant and its relationship to the rate constant and factors that can effect a system at equilibrium.

Section (A) : Properties of equilibrium, active mass



Types of chemical reactions

	Irreversible reaction		Reversible reaction	
1	The reaction which proceeds in one direction	1	The reaction which proceed in both the direction under the	
	(forward direction) only.		same set of experimental conditions.	
2	Reactants are almost completely converted	2	Reactants form products and products also react to form	
	into products. Products do not react to form		reactants in backward direction. These are possible in closed	
	reactants again.		vessels.	
3	Do not attain equilibrium state.	3	Attain the equilibrium state and never go to completion.	
4	Such reactions are represented by single	4	Represented by double arrow (
	arrow {→}			
5	Examples –	5	Examples :-	
(a)	Precipitation reactions e.g.	(a)	Homogeneous reactions- only one phase is present	
	$NaCl(aq) + AgNO_3(aq) \rightarrow NaNO_3(aq) + AgCl \downarrow$		(i) Gaseous phase–	
			$H_2(g) + I_2(g) \Longrightarrow 2HI(g)$	
(b)	Neutralization reactions e.g		$N_2(g) + O_2(g) \implies 2NO(g)$ [Birkland eyde process (HNO ₃)]	
	$HCI(aq) + NaOH(aq) \rightarrow NaCI(aq) + H_2O$		$N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \implies 2NH_3(g)$ (Haber's process)	
			(ii) Liquid phase	
(c)	$2\text{KClO}_3(s) \xrightarrow{\Delta} 2\text{KCl}(s) + 3O_2(g)$		$CH_3COOH(I) + C_2H_5OH(I) \longrightarrow CH_3COOC_2H_5(I) + H_2O(I)$	
<i>(</i>				
(d)	Reactions in open vessel:	(b)	Heterogeneous reactions: More than one phases are	
	Even a reversible reaction will become		present $C_{2}C_{2}(s) \longrightarrow C_{2}C(s) + CO_{2}(a)$	
	irreversible if it is carried out in open vessel.		$CacO_3(s) \leftarrow CaO(s) + CO_2(g)$	
	Ex.		$NH_4HS(s) \longrightarrow NH_3(g) + H_2S(g)$	
	$CaCO_{2}(s) \longrightarrow CaO(s) + CO_{2}(q)$ Open			
	$NH_4HS(s) \longrightarrow NH_3(g) + H_2S(g)$ vessel			
	$N\Pi_4\Pi_3(S)$ \square $N\Pi_3(g) + \Pi_2S(g)$ \square			

State of Chemical equilibrium :

State of equilibrium means the balance of driving forces i.e. the factors taking the reaction in forward direction and the backword direction are balancing each other.

The equilibrium state represents a compromise between two opposing tendencies.

• Tendency to minimise energy.

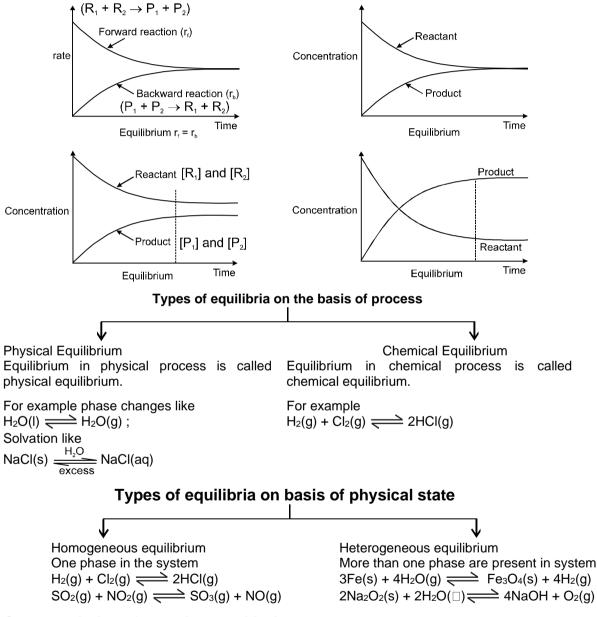
Molecules try to maximise entropy.

In a reversible reaction like :

$$\underbrace{R_1 + R_2}_{\text{Reactants}} \bigoplus \underbrace{P_1 + P_2}_{\text{Products}}$$

Initially only reactants are present. R_1 and R_2 combine to form P_1 and P_2 . As soon as P_1 and P_2 are formed, they start the backward reaction. As concentrations of R_1 and R_2 decrease rate of forward reaction decreases and rate of backward reaction increases. Ultimately a stage is reached when both the rates become equal. Such a state is known as "Chemical Equilibrium" or "state of Equilibrium". **At equilibrium :**

- (i) Rate of forward reaction (r_f) = rate of backward reaction (r_b) (dynamic nature)
- (ii) All measurable parameters become constant with respect to time.



Characteristics of chemical equilibrium :

- The nature and the properties of the equilibrium state are the same regardless of the direction from which it is achieved. It can be achieved in both directions.
- Equilibrium is <u>dynamic in nature.</u>

It means that at microscopic level reaction has not stopped. It appears that no change is occuring but both the opposing reactions are proceeding at the same rate. So there is no net change.Thus equilibrium is not static in nature.

• A catalyst can alter the rate of approach of equilibrium but does not change the state of equilibrium. By using catalyst, the equilibrium can be achieved in different (more/less) time, but the relative

concentrations of reactants and products are same irrespective of the presence or absence of a catalyst.

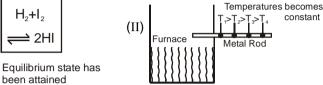
- Equilibrium can be observed by constancy of some observable properties like colour, pressure, concentration, density, temperature, refractive index etc.which may be suitable in a given reaction.
- At equilibrium, free energy change $\Delta G = 0$
- Equilibrium state can be affected by altering factors like pressure, volume, concentration and temperature etc.(Le chateliers Principle).
- System moves toward an equilibrium state spontaneously even if it is disturbed. It will return to original state.

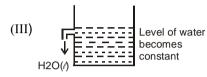
-Solved Examples

(1) Consider the following cases-Ex-1.



(A) II





The nature of flow of energy in case (I) is same as that in-

(B) III

(D) None

(D) None, because in II and III, the flow of energy or matter is taking place only in one direction. While Sol. in equilibrium state, the flow of energy takes place in both directions equally. Thus (I) is a dynamic equilibrium while states in II and III are called steady state (static equilibrium).

(C) II and III

Law of mass action : [By Guldberg and Waage]

Rate at which a substance reacts ∞ [Active Mass of the substance]

Active Mass = Molar concentration i.e. Moles/Litres

Wt of substance (gram)

Molar wt. × Vol.(Litre)

It is represented in square brackets i.e. [] e.g. [A], [N₂] etc.

Note: Active masses are dimensionless quantities but for our purposes we generally take them with dimensions of molarity, partical pressure, etc.

The rate of a chemical reaction at a particular temperature is proportional to the product of active masses of reactants raised to the powers of their stoichiometric coefficients.

Ex. $aA + bB \longrightarrow products$

Rate of reaction α [A]^a [B]^b

Rate = $k [A]^a [B]^b$, where k is the rate constant of the reaction.

Section (B & C) : Homogeneous equilibrium: Kc in gaseous system & KP in gaseous system

Equilibrium constant (K) :

For a general reaction

 $aA + bB \implies cC + dD$, Forward reaction rate $r_f = k_f [A]^a [B]^b$, Backward reaction rate $r_b = k_b [C]^c [D]^d$, At equilibrium $\mathbf{r}_{\rm f} = \mathbf{r}_{\rm b}$ $k_f [A]^a_{eq} [B]^b_{eq} = k_b [C]^c_{eq} [D]^d_{eq}$

The concentrations of reactants & products at equilibrium are related by

$$\frac{k_{f}}{k_{b}} = K_{C} = \frac{[C]_{eq}^{c} \ [D]_{eq}^{d}}{[A]_{eq}^{a} \ [B]_{eq}^{b}}$$

e.g.

Ο K_c is a constant and is called the equilibrium constant in terms of concentration. where all the concentrations are at equilibrium and are expressed in moles/litre.

e.g.
$$PCI_5 (g) \rightleftharpoons PCI_3 (g) + CI_2(g) \Rightarrow K_C = \frac{[PCI_3]_{eq} [CI_2]_{eq}}{[PCI_5]_{eq}}$$

e.g. $N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2NH_3(g) \Rightarrow K_C = \frac{[NH_3]_{eq}^2}{[N_2] [H_2]_{eq}^3}$
e.g. $\frac{1}{2}H_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}I_2(g) \rightleftharpoons HI(g) \Rightarrow K_C = \frac{[HI]'_{eq}}{[H_2]_{eq}^{1/2}[I_2]_{eq}^{1/2}}$

Ο $K_P \rightarrow$ Equilibrium constant in terms of partial pressure. It is defined for the equilibrium reaction which contains at least one gaseous component.

$$\begin{split} &\mathsf{aA}(\mathsf{g}) + \mathsf{bB}(\mathsf{g}) \to \mathsf{cC}(\mathsf{g}) + \mathsf{dD}(\mathsf{g}) \\ &\mathsf{K}_\mathsf{P} = \frac{[\mathsf{P}_\mathsf{C}]^\mathsf{c}_\mathsf{eq}}{[\mathsf{P}_\mathsf{A}]^\mathsf{a}_\mathsf{eq}} \left[\mathsf{P}_\mathsf{B}\right]^\mathsf{d}_\mathsf{eq}} \\ \end{split}$$

Where various pressures are the partial pressures of various gases substances.

Section (D) : Relation between K_P and K_c

or.

0 Relation between K_p & K_c

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{PV} &= \mathsf{n}\mathsf{RT} \qquad \text{or,} \qquad \mathsf{P} = \frac{\mathsf{II}}{\mathsf{V}}\,\mathsf{RT} \\ \mathsf{P} &= \mathsf{C}\mathsf{RT} \text{ where } \mathsf{C} = \frac{\mathsf{n}}{\mathsf{V}} = (\text{moles per litre}) \\ \mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{C}} &= [\mathsf{C}]\,\mathsf{RT} \;; \qquad \mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{D}} = [\mathsf{D}]\,\mathsf{RT} \;; \qquad \mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{A}} = [\mathsf{A}]\,\mathsf{RT} \;; \qquad \mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{B}} = [\mathsf{B}]\,\mathsf{RT} \\ \Rightarrow \qquad \mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{P}} &= \frac{[\mathsf{C}]^{\mathsf{c}}(\mathsf{RT})^{\mathsf{c}}[\mathsf{D}]^{\mathsf{d}}(\mathsf{RT})^{\mathsf{d}}}{[\mathsf{A}]^{\mathsf{a}}(\mathsf{RT})^{\mathsf{a}}[\mathsf{B}]^{\mathsf{b}}(\mathsf{RT})^{\mathsf{b}}} \; = \frac{[\mathsf{C}]^{\mathsf{c}}[\mathsf{D}]^{\mathsf{d}}}{[\mathsf{A}]^{\mathsf{a}}[\mathsf{B}]^{\mathsf{b}}}\,(\mathsf{RT})^{(\mathsf{c}+\mathsf{d})-(\mathsf{a}+\mathsf{b})} \\ \mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{P}} &= \mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{c}}(\mathsf{RT})^{\Delta\mathsf{n}} \end{split}$$

 $P = \frac{n}{m}RT$

Where $\Delta n_q = (c + d) - (a + b)$, calculation of Δn involves only gaseous components.

 Δn_g = sum of the number of moles of gaseous products – sum of the number of moles of gaseous \Rightarrow reactants. Δn_g can be positive, negative, zero or even fraction.

 $CaCO_3(s) \longrightarrow CaO(s) + CO_2(g)$

 $\Delta n_g = 1$ (because there is only one gas component in the products and no gas component in the reaction)

 \Rightarrow K_p = K_c.(RT)

Unit of Equilibrium contants :

- Unit of K_p is (atm)^{Δn}
- Unit of K_c is (mole/Lit)^{Δn} = (conc.)^{Δn}
- Note : O In fact, equilibrium constant does not carry any unit because it is based upon the activities of reactants and products and activities are unitless quantities. Under ordinary circumstances, where activities are not known, above types of equilibrium constant and their units are employed.
 - 0 For pure solids and pure liquids, although they have their own active masses but they remain constant during a chemical change (reaction). Therefore, these are taken to be unity for the sake of convenience.

 $CaCO_3(s) \longrightarrow CaO(s) + CO_2(g)$ e.g. $K_{C} = [CO_{2}],$ $K_P = P_{CO_2}$

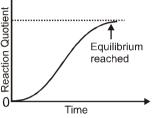
Section (E) : Reaction quotient and Its applications

Predicting the direction of the reaction Reaction Quotient (Q)

At each point in a reaction, we can write a ratio of concentration terms having the same form as the equilibrium constant expression. This ratio is called the reaction quotient denoted by symbol Q. It helps in predicting the direction of a reaction.

The expression $Q = \frac{[C]^{c}[D]^{d}}{[A]^{a}[B]^{b}}$ at any time during reaction is called reaction quotient. The concentrations

[C], [D], [A], [B] are not necessarily at equilibrium.



- The reaction quotient is a variable quantity with time.
 - It helps in predicting the direction of a reaction.
 - 0 if $Q > K_c$ reaction will proceed in backward direction until equilibrium in reached. 0
 - if Q < K_c reaction will proceed in forward direction until equilibrium is established.
 - if $Q = K_c$ Reaction is at equilibrium. 0

 $2A(g) + B(g) \Longrightarrow C(g) + D(g)$ eg.

Q_C = Reaction quotient in terms of concentration

Qc = [C][D] [A]²[B] $K_{C} = \frac{[C]_{eq}[D]_{eq}}{[A]_{eq}^{2}[B]_{eq}}$ [Here all the conc. are at equilibrium]

Solved Examples.

For the reaction NOBr (g) \implies NO(g) + $\frac{1}{2}$ Br₂ (g) Ex-2.

> K_P = 0.15 atm at 90°C. If NOBr, NO and Br₂ are mixed at this temperature having partial pressures 0.5 atm, 0.4 atm and 0.2 atm respectively, will Br₂ be consumed or formed ?

Sol.
$$Q_P = \frac{[P_{Br_2}]^{1/2}[P_{NO}]}{[P_{NOBr}]} = \frac{[0.2]^{1/2}[0.4]}{[0.50]} = 0.36$$

 $K_P = 0.15$
 $\therefore \qquad Q_P > K_P$

Hence, reaction will shift in backward direction *.*..

Br₂ will be consumed

Predicting the extent of the reaction



Case-I: If K is large (K > 10³) then product concentration is very very larger than the reactant ([Product] >>[Reactant]) Hence concentration of reactant can be neglected with respect to the product. In this case, the reaction is product favourable and equilibrium will be more in forward direction than in backward direction.

Case-II : If K is very small ($K < 10^{-3}$)

[Product] << [Reactant]

Hence concentration of Product can be neglected as compared to the reactant. In this case, the reaction is reactant favourable.

Solved Examples

- The K_P values for three reactions are 10^{-5} , 20 and 300 then what will be the correct order of the Ex-3. percentage composition of the products.
- Since K_p order is $10^{-5} < 20 < 300$ so the percentage composition of products will be greatest for Sol. $K_p = 300.$

Section (F) : Properties of equilibrium Constant

- Equilibrium constant does not depend upon concentration of various reactants, presence of catalyst, direction from which equilibrium is reached
- The equilibrium constant does not give any idea about time taken to attain equilibrium.
- K depends on the stoichiometry of the reaction.
 - If two chemical reactions at equilibrium having equilibrium constants K1 and K2 are added then \mathbf{O} the resulting equation has equilibrium constant $K = K_1$. K_2

		Equation constant
	A (g) 🛁 B(g)	K ₁
	B (g) 🗲 C(g)	K ₂
On adding	$A(g) \rightleftharpoons C(g)$	$K = K_1 \cdot K_2$

If the reaction having eq. constant K₁ is reversed then resulting equation has eq. constant 0

$$\begin{array}{c} A(g) + B(g) & \mathchoice{\longleftarrow}{\leftarrow}{\leftarrow} C(g) + D(g) \\ On \ reversing, \quad C(g) + D(g) & \Huge{\leftarrow}{\leftarrow} A(g) + B(g) \ K = \frac{1}{K} \end{array}$$

If a chemical reaction having equilibrium constant K1 is multiplied by a factor n then the Ο resulting equation has equilibrium constant $K = (K_1)^n$, n can be fraction $D_2(g) \Longrightarrow 2A(g)$ K₁

eg.

Multiplying by
$$\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$$
, $\frac{1}{2}D_2 \Longrightarrow A$ $K = (K_1)^{1/2} = \sqrt{K_1}$

Equilibrium constant is dependent only on the temperature.

It means K_p and K_c will remain constant at constant temperature no matter how much changes are made in pressure, concentration, volume or catalyst.

Ο However if temperature is changed,

$$\log \frac{k_2}{k_1} = \frac{\Delta H}{2.303 \text{ R}} \left| \frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right|; \quad \Delta H = \text{Enthalpy of reaction}$$

If $T_2 > T_1$ then $K_2 > K_1$ provided $\Delta H = +ve$ (endothermic reaction) $K_2 < K_1$ if $\Delta H = -ve$ (exothermic reaction)

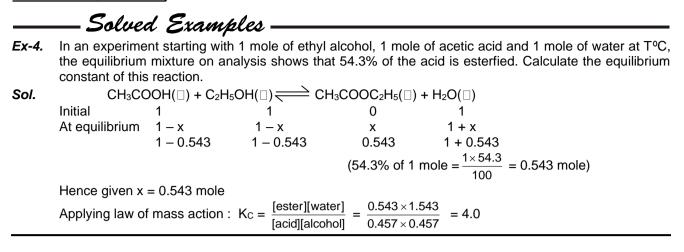
In the above equation, the unit of R and Δ H/T should be same.

Section (G) : Homogenuous Equilibrium (liquid system)

The reaction between alcohol and acid to form ester is an example of homogeneous equilibrium in liquid system.

 $CH_{3}COOH(\Box) + C_{2}H_{5}OH(\Box) \longrightarrow CH_{3}COOC_{2}H_{5}(\Box) + H_{2}O(\Box)$

$$K_{C} = \frac{[CH_{3}COOC_{2}H_{5}][H_{2}O]}{[CH_{3}COOH][C_{2}H_{5}OH]}$$



O EQUATION INVOLVING IONS :

Equilibrium involving ions always take place in aquous medium. In case of expression of K_c concentration of ion is taken.

Ex. Ag⁺(aq.) + Cl⁻(aq.) \implies AgCl(s) K_c = $\frac{1}{[Ag^+][Cl^-]}$

Section (H) : Heterogenuous equilibrium

For pure solid and pure liquid, active mass is taken to be unity i.e. 1 as they remain constant throughout the reaction :

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CaCO}_{3}(s) & \longrightarrow \text{CaO}(s) + \text{CO}_{2}(g) \\ \text{K}_{\text{P}} &= (\text{P}_{\text{CO}_{2}})_{\text{eq}}, \text{K}_{\text{C}} &= [\text{CO}_{2}(g)]_{\text{eq}} \\ \\ & [\text{CaCO}_{3}(s)] &= \frac{\text{moles}}{\text{volume}} &= \frac{W_{\text{CaCO}_{3}}}{\frac{M_{\text{CaCO}_{3}}}{V}} &= \frac{\text{density CaCO}_{3}}{M_{\text{CaCO}_{3}}} &= \text{constant} \\ \text{K} &= \frac{[\text{CaO}(s)]_{\text{eq}} [\text{CO}_{2}(g)]_{\text{eq}}}{[\text{CaCO}_{3}(s)]_{\text{eq}}} \\ & \frac{\text{K}.[\text{CaCO}_{3}(s)]_{\text{eq}}}{[\text{CaO}(s)]_{\text{eq}}} &= [\text{CO}_{2}(g)]_{\text{eq}} \\ \\ \text{K}_{\text{C}} &= [\text{CO}_{2}(g)]_{\text{eq}} \\ \text{K}_{\text{C}} &= [\text{CO}_{2}(g)]_{\text{eq}} \\ \text{H}_{2}\text{O}(\Box) & \longrightarrow \text{H}_{2}\text{O}(g)_{\text{eq}} \\ \\ \text{K}_{\text{P}} &= (\text{P}_{\text{H}_{2}\text{O}(g)})_{\text{eq}}, \text{K}_{\text{C}} &= [\text{H}_{2}\text{O}(g)]_{\text{eq}} \end{aligned}$$

[For pure solid and pure liquid active mass is taken as unity i.e. = 1]

Section (I) : Degree of dissociation (α) and vapour density

It is the fraction of one mole dissociated into the products. (Defined for one mole of substance) So, α = no. of moles dissociated / initial no. of moles taken

= fraction of moles dissociated out of 1 mole.

Note : % dissociation = $\alpha \times 100$

Suppose 5 moles of PCI₅ is taken and if 2 moles of PCI₅ dissociated then $\alpha = \frac{2}{5} = 0.4$

Let a gas An dissociates to give n moles of A as follows-

 $\begin{array}{cccc} A_n(g) & & & nA(g) \\ t = 0 & a & 0 \\ t = t_{eq} & a - x & n.x & \alpha = \frac{x}{a} \Rightarrow & x = a\alpha. \\ & & a - a \alpha = a(1 - \alpha) & n \ a \alpha \\ & & Total no. \ of moles = a - a \ \alpha + n \ a \ \alpha = [1 + (n - 1) \ \alpha] \ a \end{array}$

Significance of n

- sum of coefficient of reactants
- (n = 2)(i) for $PCI_5(g) \Longrightarrow PCI_3(g) + CI_2(g)$ $(n = \frac{3}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 2)$ for $2NH_3(g) \Longrightarrow N_2(g) + 3H_2(g)$ (ii) for $2HI(g) \Longrightarrow H_2(g) + I_2(g)$ (n = 1)(iii)

Calculate the degree of dissociation and K_p for the following reaction. Ex-5.

> $PCI_{5}(g) \implies PCI_{3}(g) +$ $Cl_2(g)$ t = 00 а 0 t = ta –x х Х

Since for a mole, x moles are dissociated

For 1 mole, $\frac{x}{a}$ moles = α are dissociated *.*.. *.*.. $x = a \alpha$ $PCI_{5}(g) \implies PCI_{3}(g) +$ Cl₂(g) • At $t = t_{eq}$ $a - a\alpha$ aα Total no. of moles at equilibrium = $a + a\alpha = a(1 + \alpha)$ $\mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{PCI}_5} = \frac{\mathsf{a}(1-\alpha)\,\mathsf{P}}{\mathsf{a}(1+\alpha)} \quad , \; \mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{PCI}_3} = \frac{\mathsf{a}\,\alpha \, \cdot \mathsf{P}}{\mathsf{a}\,(1+\alpha)} \quad , \qquad \mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{CI}_2} = \frac{\mathsf{a}\,\alpha}{\mathsf{a}\,(1+\alpha)} \, \cdot \mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{CI}_2}$

$$K_{P} = \frac{\left\{ \left(\frac{\alpha P}{1 + \alpha} \right) \right\}^{2}}{\left(\frac{1 - \alpha}{1 + \alpha} \right) P} \qquad \qquad K_{P} = \frac{\alpha^{2} \cdot P}{1 - \alpha^{2}} \text{ (Remember)}$$

Observed molecular weight and Observed Vapour Density of the mixture

Observed molecular weight of A_n(g) = $\frac{\text{molecular weight of A}_n(g)}{\text{total no. of moles at equilibrium}} = \frac{a.M_{th}}{a(1+(n-1)\alpha)}$

 $= \frac{M_{th}}{[1+(n-1)\alpha]}$ *.*.. Mobs

...

where M_{th} = theoritical molecular weight (n = atomicity)

$$M_{mixture} = \frac{M_{A_n}}{[1+(n-1)\alpha]}$$
, M_{A_n} = Molar mass of gas A_n

Vapour density (V.D). : Density of the gas divided by density of hydrogen under same temp & pressure is called vapour density.

aα

D = vapour density without dissociation = $\frac{M_{A_n}}{2}$ Ο

d = vapour density of mixture = observed v.d. =
$$\frac{W_{mix}}{2}$$

$$\frac{D}{d} = 1 + (n - 1) \alpha$$
$$D - d \qquad M_{T}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{D-d}{(n-1) \times d} = \frac{M_{T}-M_{o}}{(n-1)M_{o}}$$

Where M_T = The oritical molecular wt., M_0 = observed molecular wt. or molecular wt. of the mixture at equilibrium.

N /I

Note : It is not applicable for n = 1 eq. Dissociation of HI & NO (as the total number of don't change during the dissociation.)

Sol.

Solved Examples

The vapour density of a mixture containing NO2 and N2O4 is 38.3 at 33°C calculate the no. of moles of Ex-6. NO_2 if 100g of N_2O_4 were taken initially.

 $N_2O_4(g) \implies 2NO_2(g)$ $M_{mix} = 2 \times 38.3 = 76.6$ $M_{mix} = \frac{M_{th}}{1+\alpha} = \frac{92}{1+\alpha}$ $\alpha = 0.2$ $N_2O_4 \implies 2NO_2$ t = 0 а t = t a-aα **2a**α no. of moles of NO₂ = $2a\alpha = \frac{2 \times 100 \times 0.2}{22} = 0.435$ 92

Section (J) : Thermodyanamics of equilibrium

For a general reaction, $mA + nB \implies pC + qD$, ∆G is given by- $\Delta G = \Delta G^{\circ} + 2.303 \text{ RT} \log_{10} Q$ where $\Delta G = Gibb's$ Free energy change ΔG^{o} = Standard Gibb's Free energy change

Q = reaction quotient Since, at equilbrium, $\dot{Q} = K$

Here K is thermodynamic equilibrium constant replacing Kc or Kp

$$K = \frac{(a_{c})^{p} (a_{D})^{q}}{(a_{A})^{m} (a_{B})^{n}}; \qquad \text{Here } a_{X} \text{ denotes the activity of } X.$$

In fact, 'ax' is the ratio of the activity of substance at equilibrium and its activity in standard condition. That is why it is unitless and K is also unitless.

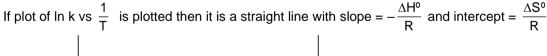
- (i) Themodynamic equilibrium constant is unitless since activity is unitless. Note :
 - (ii) For pure solids & pure liquids, activity is unity.
 - (iii) For gases (ideal behaviour), the activity is its partial pressure (in atm).
 - (iv) For components in solution, activity is molar concentration.

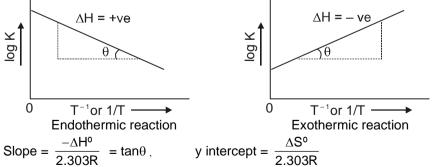
At equilibrium,
$$\Delta G = 0$$
 \Rightarrow $\Delta G^{0} = -2.303 \text{ RT } \log_{10} \text{K}$ Now since, $\Delta G^{0} = \Delta H^{0} - T\Delta S^{0}$ where $\Delta H^{0} = \text{Standard enthalpy change of the reaction}$ $\Delta S^{\circ} = \text{Standard entropy change}$

 \Rightarrow

 $\log_{10}K = -\frac{\Delta H^{0}}{2.303} \cdot \frac{1}{RT} + \frac{\Delta S^{0}}{2.303R}$

 $-2.303 \text{ RT} \log_{10}\text{K} = \Delta H^{o} - T\Delta S^{o}$





If at temperature T_1 , equilibrium constant is K_1 and at T_2 , it is K_2 then ;

$$\log_{10} K_1 = \frac{-\Delta H^0}{2.303 R} \cdot \frac{1}{T_1} + \frac{\Delta S^0}{2.303 R} \qquad(i)$$

$$\log_{10} K_2 = \frac{-\Delta H^0}{2.303 R} \cdot \frac{1}{T_2} + \frac{\Delta S^0}{2.303 R} \qquad(ii)$$

[Assuming ΔH^0 and ΔS^0 remains constant in this temperature range.]

Subtract eq. (ii) from (i) we get Vant Hoff equation-

 $\log\left(\frac{\mathrm{K_{1}}}{\mathrm{K_{2}}}\right) = \frac{\Delta\mathrm{H^{0}}}{2.303\mathrm{R}}\left(\frac{1}{\mathrm{T_{2}}} - \frac{1}{\mathrm{T_{1}}}\right)$

Note : $O \Delta H$ should be substituted with sign.

O Unit of $\Delta H/T$ and gas constant R should be same.

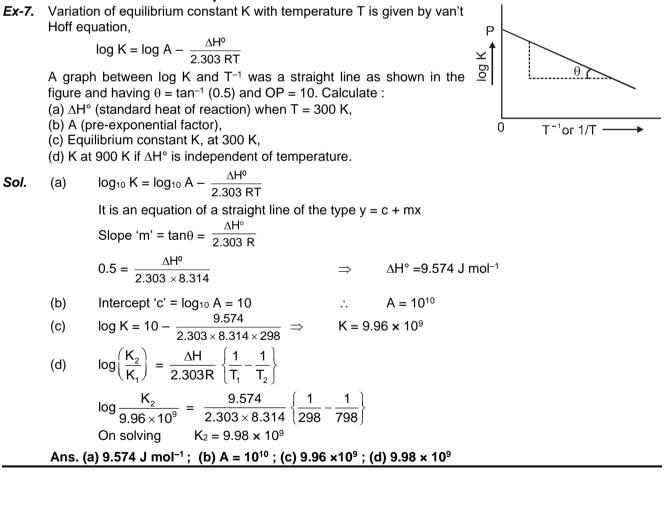
O For endothermic ($\Delta H > 0$) reaction value of the equilibrium constant increases with the rise in temperature

O For exothermic ($\Delta H < 0$) reaction, value of the equilibrium constant decreases with increase in temperature

Condition for spontaneity :
$$\Delta G < 0$$
 for spontaneous process or reaction.

Since, $\Delta G = \Delta H - T \Delta S$

- $\Rightarrow \quad \Delta H T\Delta S < 0 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad T > \Delta H/\Delta S$
- * $\Delta G > 0$ for non-spontaneous process or reaction.
- * $\Delta G = 0$ for equilibrium.



Section (K) : Le-chatelier's principle

Le Chatelier's Principle:

If a change is applied to the system at equilibrium, then equilibrium will be shifted in that direction in which it can minimise the effect of change applied and the equilibrium is established again under new conditions.

• Effect of concentration : If the concentration of a component is increased, reaction shifts in a direction which tends to decrease its concentration. e.g. In the following example.

 $N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \implies 2NH_3(g)$

[reactant] ↑ Forward shift

[Product] ↑ Backward shift

- **O** If concentration of reactant is increased at equilibrium then reaction shifts in the forward direction.
- O If concentration of product is increased then reaction shifts in the backward direction

Note : The addition of any solid component does not affect the equilibrium.

Effect of volume :

- If volume is increased, pressure decreases hence reaction will shift in the direction in which pressure increases that is in the direction in which number of moles of gases increases and vice versa.
- O If volume is increased then, for

 $\Delta n_g > 0$ reaction will shift in the forward direction

 $\Delta n_g < 0$ reaction will shift in the backward direction

 $\Delta n_g = 0$ reaction will not shift. eg. $H_2(g) + I_2(g) \ 2HI(g) \longrightarrow$ (No effect)

Explanation :

$$\Delta n_{g} > 0, \text{ eg.} \qquad \text{PCI}_{5}(g) \implies \text{PCI}_{3}(g) + \text{CI}_{2}(g)$$

$$Q_{C} = \frac{\frac{(n_{Cl_{2}})}{V} \times \frac{(n_{PCl_{3}})}{V}}{\frac{(n_{PCl_{5}})}{V}} \implies Q_{C} \propto \frac{1}{V} \text{ for } \Delta n_{g} > 0 \qquad [(n) = \text{moles}]$$

On incerasing V, Q_c, decreases. Now, for Q_c < K_c reaction will shift in forward direction. Thus, if, Volume \uparrow Q_c \downarrow (Forward shift) Volume \downarrow Q_c \uparrow (Backward shift)

(i)

 $\Delta n_{g} < 0, \text{ eg.} \qquad N_{2}(g) + 3H_{2}(g) \Longrightarrow 2NH_{3}(g)$ $Q_{C} = \begin{cases} \left(\frac{(n_{NH_{3}})}{V}\right)^{2} \\ \left(\frac{(n_{N_{2}})}{V}\right)^{2} \\ \left(\frac{(n_{N_{2}}$

Effect of pressure :

On increasing pressure, equilibrium will shift in the direction in which pressure decreases i.e. no. of moles in the reaction decreases and vice versa.

 $\Box \qquad \mathsf{P} \propto \mathsf{no.} \text{ of moles}$

(i) For $\Delta n_g = 0 \rightarrow No.$ effects

(iii)

For ∆n < 0, eg. $N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \Longrightarrow 2NH_3(g)$ $Q_{P} = \frac{\left[(X_{NH_{3}})P \right]^{2}}{\left[(X_{N_{2}}).P \right] \left[(X_{H_{2}})P \right]^{3}} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad Q_{P} \propto \frac{1}{P^{2}}$ $P\uparrow$; $Q_P\downarrow$; (Forward shift) ; $P\downarrow$; $Q_P\uparrow$; (Backward shift)

Effect of catalyst :

Due to catalyst, the state of equilibrium is not affected i.e. no shift will occur as catalyst lowers the activation energy of both the forward & reverse reaction by same amount, thus altering the forward & reverse rate equally and hence, the equilibrium will be attained faster i.e time taken to reach the equilibrium is less.

Effect of inert gas addition :

- (a) At constant volume : Inert gas addition has no effect at constant volume
- (b) At constant pressure : If inert gas is added then to maintain the pressure constant, volume is increased. Hence equilibrium will shift in the direction in which larger no. of moles of gas is formed
 - $\Delta n_{\alpha} > 0$, reaction will shift in the forward direction (i)
 - $\Delta n_q < 0$, reaction will shift in the backward direction (ii)
 - (iii) $\Delta n_a = 0$, no effect

Effect of temperature :

(ii)

Exothermic reaction : The reaction in which heat is evolved (i)

 $A(g) + B(g) \rightleftharpoons C(g) + D(g) + Heat \Delta H = -ve$

eg.
$$N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2NH_3(g) + Heat$$

 $T^{\uparrow} \Rightarrow K'$ will decrease

$$\begin{split} &\log \ \frac{K_1}{K_2} \ = \ \frac{\Delta H^0}{2.303R} \bigg(\frac{1}{T_2} - \frac{1}{T_1} \bigg) \quad (\text{from vant' hoff equation}) \\ &\log \ \frac{K_1}{K_2} \ < 0 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \log K_1 - \log K_2 > 0 \Rightarrow \quad \log K_1 > \log K_2 \Rightarrow \qquad K_1 > K_2 \end{split}$$

Reaction will shift in backward direction.

$$\mathsf{T} \downarrow \quad \Rightarrow \mathsf{K} \text{ will increases.}$$

Reaction will shift in forward direction.

Endothermic reaction : energy consumed. $A(g) + B(g) \implies C(g) + D(g) - Heat \quad \therefore \Delta H = + ve$

 $\mathsf{T} \downarrow \Rightarrow \mathsf{K} \downarrow$ $T \uparrow \Rightarrow K\uparrow$ \Rightarrow Forward : Backward \Rightarrow

Application of le chatelier's principle : Practical equilibrium situations : Section (L) : Vapour pressure and Relative Humidity

It is the pressure exerted by the vapours over it's liquid when it is in equilibrium with the liquid. Vapour pressure of water is also called aqueous tension.

 $H_2O(\Box) \Longrightarrow H_2O(g)$; $K_P = P_{H_2O} = constant$ at fixed temperature

Hence V.P. of liquid is independent of pressure, volume and concentration change.

e.g. at 25°C, vapour pressure of water \approx 24 mm of Hg

Partial pressure of H₂O vapours **Relative Humidity** = $\frac{\text{Farmar product Strug}}{\text{Vapour pressure of H}_2\text{O at that temp.}}$

Formation of diamond :

C (graphite) \rightleftharpoons C (diamond) – Heat; $\Delta H = + ve$ Density Low **Density High** Volume High Volume Low

Formation of diamond is favourable at high pressure and high temperature

Melting of ice :			
H ₂ O (s)	\rightleftharpoons	H₂O (□);	$\Delta H = + ve$
\downarrow		\downarrow	
Density Low		Density High	
Volume High		Volume Low	

Melting of ice is favourable at high temperature and high pressure.

Boiling of water :

 $\begin{array}{ccc} H_2O(\Box) & \rightleftharpoons & H_2O(g) \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ Density High & Density Low \\ Volume Low & Volume High \end{array}$

On incerasing pressure, equilibrium will shift in the direction in which volume is decreasing i.e. backward.

Hence, on incerasing pressure, the boiling point increases.

• Formation of ammonia by Haber's process :

 $N_2(g) + 3 H_2(g) \implies 2NH_3(g) \Delta H = -22.4 \text{ Kcal/mol.}$

(i) The reaction will shift in the forward direction at low temperature, but at very low temperature the rate of reaction becomes very low; thus moderate temperature is used for this reaction.(ii) At high pressure, reaction will shift in forward direction to form more product.

Manufacturing of SO₃ by contact process $2SO_2(g) + O_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2SO_3(g) + 45.2$ kcal

High pressure (1.5 to 1.7 atm), Low temperature (500°C), higher quantity of SO₂ and O₂ are favourable conditions for the formation of SO₃.

Manufacturing of NO by Birkeland–Eyde process

N₂(g) + O₂(g) ⇒ 2 NO(g) – 43.2 kcal

- O No effect on change of pressure
- High temperature (1200°C to 2000°C), High concentration of N₂ and O₂ are favourable condition for the formation of NO.

Solved Examples.

Ex-8. The equilibrium constant of the reaction at 25°C

 $CuSO_{4.5}H_{2}O(s) \rightleftharpoons CuSO_{4.3}H_{2}O(s) + 2H_{2}O(g)$

is 1.084×10^{-4} atm². Find out under what conditions of relative humidity, CuSO₄.5H₂O will start loosing its water of crystallization according to above reaction. (Vapour pressure of water at 25°C is 24 mm of Hg).

Sol.
$$K_P = (P_{H_2O})^2$$
 so $P_{H_2O} = \sqrt{1.084 \times 10^{-4}} = 1.041 \times 10^{-2}$ atm ≈ 8 mm of Hg

- O If in a room, pressure of water is greater than 8 mm of Hg then CuSO_{4.3}H₂O will absorb water from air and will form CuSO_{4.5}H₂O & will keep absorbing until partial pressure of H₂O becomes 8 mm of Hg.
- O If P_{H_2O} < 8 mm of Hg then CuSO₄.5H₂O will loose water of crystallization and reaction will move in forward direction.

i.e. If relative humidity < $\frac{8}{24}$ < 33.33% then CuSO₄.5H₂O will loose water of crystallization.

Section (M) : Simultaneous equilibria

If in any container there are two or more equilibria existing simultaneously involving one or more than one common species. Then in both/all equilibrium the concentration of common species is the total concentration of that species due to all the equilibria under consideration.

e.g.

 $A(s) \rightleftharpoons X(g) + Y(g)$ t = 00 0 а $t = t_{eq}$ a-t t t + u $B(s) \rightleftharpoons Z(g) + Y(g)$ 0 0 b b – u u u + t $K_{C_1} = t (u + t)$ $K_{C_2} = (u + t) u$

Solved Examples

Ex-9. 102 g of solid NH₄HS is taken in the 2L evacuated flask at 57°C. Following two equilibrium exist simultaneously

$$\mathsf{NH}_4\mathsf{HS}(\mathsf{s}) \Longrightarrow \mathsf{NH}_3(\mathsf{g}) + \mathsf{H}_2\mathsf{S}(\mathsf{g}) \qquad ; \qquad \mathsf{NH}_3(\mathsf{g}) \Longrightarrow \frac{1}{2}\mathsf{N}_2(\mathsf{g}) + \frac{3}{2}\mathsf{H}_2(\mathsf{g})$$

one mole of the solid decomposes to maintain both the equilibrium and 0.75 mole of H_2 was found at the equilibrium then find the equilibrium concentration of all the species and K_C for both the reaction.

Sol. Moles of NH4HS =
$$\frac{102}{51} = 2$$

NH4HS (s) \implies NH3 (g) + H2S (g) K_{C_1}
 2 0 0 1
 $1 - x$ 1
 $NH_3(g) \implies \frac{1}{2}N_2(g) + \frac{3}{2}H_2(g) K_{C_2}$
 $1 - x \frac{x}{2} \frac{3x}{2}$
Given that moles of H2 = $\frac{3x}{2} = 0.75 \implies x = \frac{1}{2}$
 $K_{C_1} = \frac{1}{2}\frac{(1-x)}{2} = \frac{1}{8}$ [Since V = 2 L]
 $K_{C_2} = \frac{\left(\frac{3x}{4}\right)^{3/2}\left(\frac{x}{4}\right)^{1/2}}{\left(\frac{1-x}{2}\right)} = \frac{\left(\frac{3}{8}\right)^{3/2}\left(\frac{1}{8}\right)^{1/2}}{\frac{1}{4}} = (3)^{3/2}\frac{1}{64} \times \frac{4}{1} = \frac{(3)^{3/2}}{16}$

SUMMARY

Chemical equilibrium is a dynamic state in which the concentration of reactants and products remain constant because the rates of the forward and the reverse reaction are equal. For the general reaction

$$a A(g) + b B (g) \rightleftharpoons c C(g) + d D(g)$$

concentrations in the equilibrium mixture are related by the equilibrium equation :

$$\mathsf{K}_{\mathsf{C}} = \frac{[\mathsf{C}]_{\mathsf{eq}}^{\mathsf{c}}[\mathsf{D}]_{\mathsf{eq}}^{\mathsf{d}}}{[\mathsf{A}]_{\mathsf{eq}}^{\mathsf{a}}[\mathsf{B}]_{\mathsf{eq}}^{\mathsf{b}}}$$

The ratio on the right side of the equation is called the equilibrium constant expression. The equilibrium constant K_c is the number obtained when equilibrium concentrations (in mol/L) are substituted into the equilibrium constant expression. The value of K_c varies with temperature and depends upon the form of the balanced chemical equation.

The equilibrium constant K_p can be used for gas phase reactions. It is defined in the same way as K_c except that the equilibrium constant expression contains partial pressures (in atmospheres) instead of molar concentrations. The constants K_p and K_c are related by the equation,

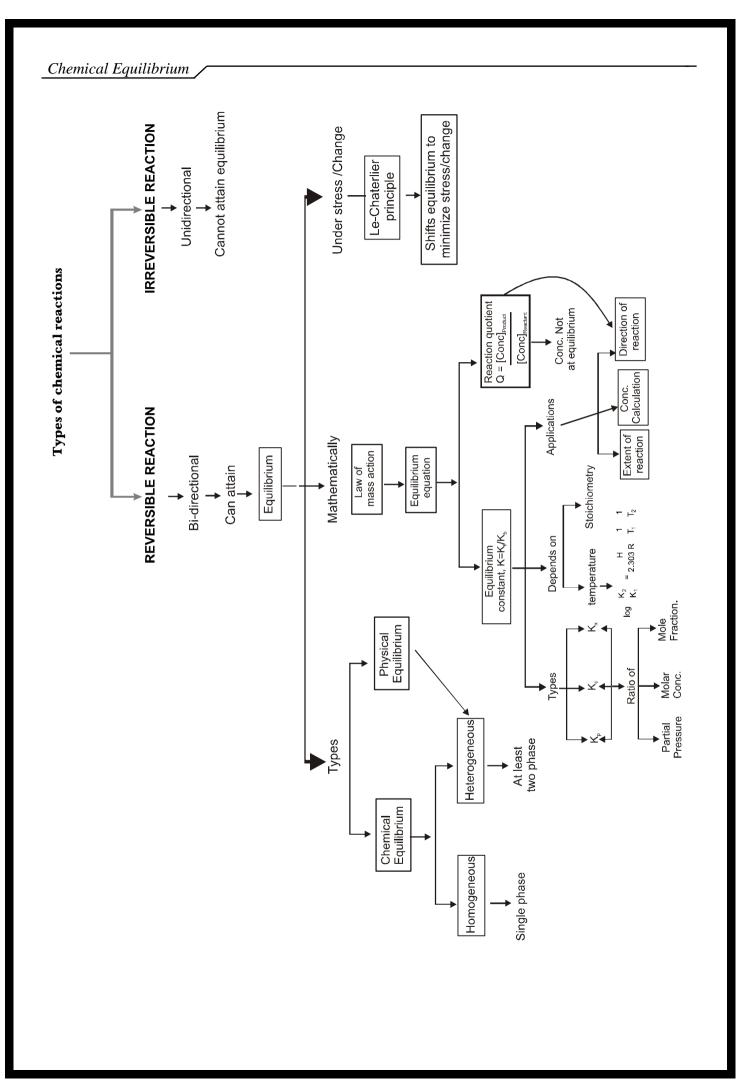
 $K_p = K_c (RT)^{\Delta ng}$, where $\Delta n_g = (c + d) - (a + b)$.

Homogeneous equilibrium are those in which all reactants and products are in a single phase; heterogeneous equilibria are those in which reactants and products for heterogeneous equilibrium does not include concentrations of pure solids or pure liquids.

The value of the equilibrium constant for a reaction makes it possible to judge the extent of reaction, predict the direction of reaction, and calculate equilibrium concentrations (or partial pressures) from initial concentration (or partial pressures) . The farther the reaction proceed towards completion, the larger the value of K_c. The direction of a reaction not at equilibrium depends on the relative values of K_c and the reaction quotient Q_c which is defined in the same way as K_c except that the concentrations in the equilibrium constant expression are not necessarily equilibrium concentrations. If Q_c < K_c, net reaction goes from left to right to attain equilibrium; if Q_c = K_c, the system is at equilibrium.

The composition of an equilibrium mixture can be altered by changes in concentration, pressure (volume), or temperature. The qualitative effect of these changes is predicted by Le Chatelier's principle, which says that if a stress is applied to a reaction mixture at equilibrium, net reaction occurs in the direction that relieves the stress. Temperature changes affect equilibrium concentrations because K_c is temperature-dependent. As the temperature increases, K_c for an exothermic reaction decreases, and K_c for an endothermic reaction increases.

A catalyst increases the rate at which chemical equilibrium is reached, but it does not affect the equilibrium constant or the equilibrium concentration. The equilibrium constant for a single-step reaction equals the ratio of the rate constants for the forward and reverse reactions : $K_c = k_f / k_b$.



MISCELLANEOUS SOLVED PROBLEMS (MSPs)

- 1. An example of a reversible reaction is :
 - (A) $Pb(NO_3)_2(aq) + 2Nal(aq) \implies Pbl_2(s) + 2NaNO_3(aq)$
 - (B) $AgNO_3(aq) + HCI(aq) \implies AgCI(s) + HNO_3(aq)$
 - (C) $2Na(s) + H_2O(\Box) \implies 2NaOH(aq) + H_2(g)$
 - (D) $KNO_3(aq) + NaCl(aq) \implies KCl(aq) + NaNO_3(aq)$

(D) Ans.

- Precipitation reactions, acid base reactions and reactions in which gases are liberated and are taking Sol. place in open container will be irreversible reactions.
- For the reaction, A + B = 3C, if 'a' mol/litre of each 'A' & 'B' are taken initially then at equilibrium the 2. incorrect relation is :
- (A) [A] [B] = 0(B) 3[B] + [C] = 3a (C) 3[A] + [C] = 3a (D) [A] + [B] = 3[C]Ans. (D) At equilibrium : Sol. [A] = [B]

$$[A] + \frac{1}{3}[C] = a$$

The equilibrium constant for the decomposition of water $H_2O(g) \rightarrow H_2(g) + \frac{1}{2}O_2(g)$ is given by : 3.

(α = degree of dissociation of H₂O(g); p = Total equilibrium pressure)

(A)
$$K = \frac{\alpha^2 p^{1/2}}{(1+\alpha)(2-\alpha)^{1/2}}$$

(B) $K = \frac{\alpha^{3/2} p^{1/2}}{(1-\alpha)(2+\alpha)^{1/2}}$
(C) $K = \frac{\alpha^3 p^{1/2}}{\sqrt{2}}$
(D) $K = \frac{\alpha^3 p^{3/2}}{(1-\alpha)(2+\alpha)^{1/2}}$

Ans. (B)

- $\begin{array}{c} H_2O(g) \to H_2(g) \,+\, \frac{1}{2}\,O_2(g) \\ 1 \qquad 0 \qquad 0 \end{array}$ Sol: $\alpha/2$ $1-\alpha$ α Total moles at equilibrium = $1 - \alpha + \alpha + \alpha/2 = 1 + \alpha/2$ Let the total pressure at equilibrium be = p
 - $p_{H_2O} = \frac{1-\alpha}{1+\alpha/2} \times p$ So, $p_{H_2} = \frac{\alpha}{1 + \alpha/2} \times p$ $p_{O_2} = \frac{\alpha/2}{1+\alpha/2} \times p$ $K_{p} = \frac{(p_{O_{2}})^{1/2} (p_{H_{2}})}{(p_{H_{2}O})}$ So
- The reaction quotient Q for N₂(g) + 3H₂(g) \implies 2NH₃(g) is given by Q = $\frac{[NH_3]^2}{[N_2][H_2]^3}$. The reaction will 4. proceed in backward direction, when: (C) $Q > K_c$ (D) Q = 0(A) $Q = K_c$ (B) $Q < K_c$

Ans. (C)

- Sol. When Q > K, reaction will favour backward direction and when Q < K, it will favour forward direction.
- 0.96 g of HI were heated to attain equilibrium $2HI(g) \implies H_2(g) + I_2(g)$. The reaction mixture on titration 5. requires 15.7 mL of N/10 hypo solution. Calculate degree of dissociation of HI. 20.9%

Ans.

meq of $I_2 = \frac{w_{l_2}}{127} \times 1000 = 1.57$ $w_{l_2} = \frac{127 \times 1.57}{1000}$ $n_{l_2} = \frac{1.57}{2000}$ $2HI(g) \Longrightarrow H_2(g) + I_2(g)$ $a - a\alpha \qquad \frac{a\alpha}{2} \qquad \frac{a\alpha}{2} \qquad \frac{0.96}{256} \times \alpha = \frac{1.57}{2000}$ $\alpha = 0.209$ Ans.

6. Would 1% CO₂ by volume in air be sufficient to prevent any loss in weight when M_2CO_3 is heated at 120°C?

 $M_2CO_3(s) \Longrightarrow M_2O(s) + CO_2(g)$

 $K_p = 0.0095$ atm at 120°C. How long would the partial pressure of CO₂ have to be to promote this reaction at 120°C ? (No reactions)

Ans. Sol.

Sol.

For, $M_2CO_3(g)$ (s) \Longrightarrow M_2O (s) + CO_2 (g)

□ CO₂ is 1% in air ; ∴ $P'_{CO_2} = \frac{1}{100} \times P_{air} = \frac{1}{100} \times 1 \text{ atm.} = 0.01 \text{ atm.}$

Also for equilibrium $K_P = P'_{CO_2} = 0.0095$ atm.

 $\Box \qquad \text{Given}, \qquad \mathsf{P}_{\mathsf{CO}_2}' = 0.01 \text{ atm}.$

Since decomposition is carried out in presence of P'_{CO_2} of 0.01 atm and $K_P = 0.0095$ atm, thus, practically no decomposition of M₂CO₃. Thus, 1% CO₂ is sufficient to prevent any loss in weight.

If at all reaction is desired, the P'_{CO_2} must be lesser than 0.0095 atm as P'_{CO_2} at equilibrium cannot be more than 0.0095 atm.

Altrernate solution :

For M_2CO_3 (s) \Longrightarrow M_2O (s) + CO_2 (g)

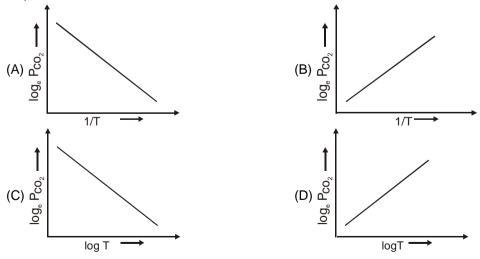
 $\left(\frac{1}{100} + P\right)$

 \Box $K_P = P'_{CO_2}$ and the pressure of CO₂ already present in 1/100 atm. Let the decomposition of M₂CO₃ produces the CO₂ of pressure P, then

: $K_P = \frac{1}{100} + P$ or 0.0095 = P + 001 or P = -0.0005.

The value of pressure comes negative and thus, it may be concluded that M_2CO_3 will not dissociate in pressure of CO_2 of pressure 0.01 atm.

7. For the chemical equilibrium, $CaCO_3(s) \rightleftharpoons CaO(s) + CO_2(g)$ ΔH_f^{o} can be determined from which one of the following plots ?



Sol.

 $CaCO_3(s) \rightleftharpoons CaO(s) + CO_2(g)$

 $K_p = P_{CO_2}$ $\log K_{p} = \log A - \frac{\Delta H_{r}^{0}}{2.303 \text{RT}}$ log P_{CO₂} = log A $-\frac{\Delta H_r^{\circ}}{2.303} \frac{1}{RT}$ (i) Graph (a) represents (i) and its slope will be used to determine the heat of the reaction. So, Ans. (A). In a container of constant volume at a particular temparature N_2 and H_2 are mixed in the molar ratio of 8. 9:13. The following two equilibria are found to be coexisting in the container $N_2(g) + 3H_2(g) \rightleftharpoons 2NH_3(g)$ $N_2(g) + 2H_2(g) \rightleftharpoons N_2H_4(g)$ The total equilibrium pressure is found to be 3.5 atm while partial pressure of $NH_3(g)$ and $H_2(g)$ are 0.5 atm and 1 atm respectively. Calculate of equilibrium constants of the two reactions given above. Let the initial partial pressures of N2 and H2 be 9P and 13 P respectively Sol. $\begin{array}{c} N_2 (g) & + & 3H_2 (g) \\ 9P - y - x & & 13P - 3x - 2y \end{array}$ 2NH₃ (g) 2x $N_{2}(g) + 2H_{2}(g) \xrightarrow{} N_{2}H_{4}(g)$ $9P - y - x \quad 13P - 3x - 2y \quad y$ essure -P + P + P + P = 12P $= P_{N_2} + P_{H_2} + P_{NH_3} + P_{N_2H_4} = 3.5 \text{ atm}$ Total pressure = (9P - x - y) + (13P - 3x - 2y) + 2x + y = 3.5 atm ...(1) $P_{NH_{2}} = 2x = 0.5 \text{ atm}$...(2) $P_{H_{a}} = (13P - 3x - 2y) = 1$ atm ...(3) \Rightarrow (9P - x - y) + 1 atm + 0.5 + y = 3.5 from (1) (9P - x) = 2 atm \rightarrow 9P = 2.25 so P = 0.25 atm from (3) equation 2y = 1.5y = 0.75 atm $P_{N_2} = 9P - x - y = 1.25$ atm so $P_{H_a} = 1 \text{ atm}$ $P_{NH_2} = 0.5 \text{ atm}$ $P_{N_2H_4} = 0.75 \text{ atm}$ $K_{P_1} = \frac{P_{NH_3}^2}{P_{H_2}^3 \cdot P_{N_2}} = \frac{0.5 \times 0.5}{1 \times 1 \times 1 \times 1.25} = 0.2 \text{ atm}^{-2}$ So, $K_{P_2} = \frac{P_{N_2H_4}}{P_{N_2} \cdot P_{H_2}^2} = \frac{0.75}{1 \times 1 \times 1.25} = 0.6 \text{ atm}^{-2}$