## PRINCIPLES of PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY



# PRINCIPLES of PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY

### An Introduction to Their Use in the Biological Sciences

by

WALLACE S. BREY, Jr.

University of Florida



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#### **COMMON LOGARITHMS**

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3 4	2.1 2.8	1.8 2.4	1.5 2.0	1.2 1.6	95	9777	9782	9786	9791	9795	9800	9805	9809	9814	9818
5 6 7 8 9	3.5 4.2 4.9 5.6 6.3	3.0 3.6 4.2 4.8 5.4	2.5 3.0 3.5 4.0 4.5	2.0 2.4 2.8 3.2 3.6	96 97 98 99	9823 9868 9912 9956	9827 9872 9917 9961	9832 9877 9921 9965	9836 9881 9926 9969	9841 9886 9930 9974	9845 9890 9934 9978	9850 9894 9939 9983	9854 9899 9943 9987	9859 9903 9948 9991	9863 9908 9952 9996
	Prop. Parts				n	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

### PRINCIPLES of PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY



#### TEXTS IN CHEMISTRY

Ralph S. Halford, Columbia University
CONSULTING EDITOR

#### **PREFACE**

This book is intended to acquaint the biological scientist with the field of physical chemistry and to indicate how the understanding of physicochemical principles sheds light on the behavior of matter. In addition to the fundamental principles of the subject, there are also presented some illustrations of the application of physical chemistry to the solution of biochemical problems.

The mathematical background required of the reader is limited to simple algebra and the use of logarithms. Although some ideas of the calculus are introduced where appropriate to the development of the subject, these are fully explained as they are employed. A brief mathematical appendix summarizes pertinent mathematical principles.

It is expected that the book will serve as a text for a one-semester course for premedical students, such as the author has taught for a number of years in three different institutions. Enough material has been included, however, so that it will be adequate for a full year's course, while for one semester's work the instructor has the opportunity to make a selection from among the subject matter in the latter chapters.

Experienced workers in the biological and biochemical fields may find the book useful as a review of basic principles and as an introduction to some unfamiliar areas. To this end, the author has endeavored to make the discussions of fundamental ideas sufficiently complete so that they may be of value to the independent reader, and to supply in the bibliographies a guide to helpful supplemental information to be found in the literature at various levels of specialization, from the elementary introduction to the advanced treatment appropriate for someone who wishes to undertake research in a particular field.

Finally, it is a pleasure to express my appreciation for assistance in the preparation of the manuscript to my wife, Mary Louise. Her aid, encouragement, and constructive criticism have contributed materially to the writing of the book.

Gainesville, Florida

W. S. B., Jr.

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### **CONTENTS**

Preface	V
1. STATES OF MATTER	1
2. SOLUTIONS OF NONELECTROLYTES	46
3. THERMODYNAMICS AND ENERGY RELATIONS  3.1, Energy, Work, and Heat 3.2, Thermochemistry 3.3, Availability of Energy 3.4, Chemical Equilibrium 3.5, Energy Relations in Living Systems	89
4. SOLUTIONS OF ELECTROLYTES	132
5.1, Brönsted-Lowry Concept of Acids and Bases 5.2, Aqueous Solutions and the pH Scale 5.3, Weak Electrolyte Equilibria 5.4, Equilibria Involving Several Solutes 5.5, Physiological Applications	163
6. OXIDATION-REDUCTION EQUILIBRIA	196
7. ADSORPTION AND SURFACE EFFECTS	230

viii	CON	TENTS
8. CC	DLLOIDAL DISPERSIONS	259
	8.1, Nature 8.2, Preparation and Stability of Dispersions 8.3, Filtration and Particle Size 8.4, Optical Properties 8.5, Kinetic Properties 8.6, Electrokinetic Properties 8.7, Structural Properties	
9. OS	MOSIS AND MEMBRANE EFFECTS	301
	9.1, Osmosis and Osmotic Pressure 9.2, Selective Permeability 9.3, Donnan Membrane Effects 9.4, Membrane Potentials	
10. KIN	NETICS OF CHEMICAL REACTIONS	319
	10.1, Introduction 10.2, Kinetics of Simple Reactions 10.3, Reaction Orders and Rate Constants 10.4, Complex Reactions 10.5, Effect of Temperature on Rate Constant 10.6, Catalysis 10.7, Enzyme-Catalyzed Reactions	
11. RA	DIATION AND MOLECULAR STRUCTURE	351
	11.1, Electromagnetic Radiation 11.2, The Electronic Structure of the Atom 11.3, Valence 11.4, Polarization of Molecules 11.5, Absorption and Emission of Radiation by Molecules	
12. NU	CLEAR CHEMISTRY	397
	12.1, Structure of the Atom 12.2, Nuclear Reactions 12.3, Nuclear Radiations 12.4, Tracers	
Appendi	X: MATHEMATICAL PRINCIPLES	419
(Notes:		400

1

#### STATES OF MATTER

#### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

#### Molecular picture of matter

The differences that we observe in the characteristics of the three states of matter—gas, liquid, and solid—depend upon variations in the condition of aggregation of the molecules of which matter is composed. In a gas, the molecules are relatively far apart and are free to move almost independently of one another. The kinetic theory describes the molecules of gases as separate particles which are in continuous motion. Each molecule travels in a straight line until it collides with another molecule or strikes the wall of the vessel in which it is confined. When the confining vessel is enlarged, molecular motion causes the gas to spread through all of the newly accessible space, whereas external application of pressure readily compresses the gas into a smaller volume, for the molecules have a relatively large amount of empty space between them.

In a liquid, the molecules are more restricted in their movements; they are able to roll past one another so that the liquid can flow, but they detach themselves from intimate association with other molecules in the bulk of the liquid only with considerable difficulty. In a solid, each molecule has a definitely assigned average position, about which it may vibrate; movement of the molecule out of its own small compartment, formed by neighboring molecules, is a comparatively unusual event.

The state assumed by a particular sample of matter under a given set of conditions depends upon a balance between the kinetic energy of the molecules, on the one hand, and the sum of the intermolecular attractive forces plus the restraining effect, or pressure, imposed by the environment, on the other hand. The average kinetic energy per molecule in a group of molecules increases as the absolute temperature increases. In fact, a rise in temperature is essentially an increase in molecular activity resulting from the addition of energy: for gaseous molecules the velocity of translational motion increases, whereas in a solid the vibratory motion becomes greater in magnitude.

At a sufficiently low temperature any material will be a solid; let us now picture what happens as the temperature of the material is raised. The molecules acquire additional energy, and eventually the amount of this

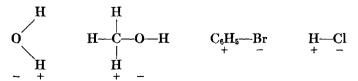
energy is sufficient to disrupt the solid structure and to permit the molecules to leave their localized positions. At this temperature there occurs fusion, or melting, of the solid to form liquid. Further increase in temperature of the liquid decreases its resistance to flow, or viscosity, and there is finally reached a temperature at which another change of state occurs, the formation of a vapor. Vaporization requires energy sufficient both to pull the molecules away from one another against the forces of attraction which hold them together in the liquid, and to do the work of pushing back the atmosphere or the surrounding container to permit the very large volume change associated with conversion of liquid to gas.

#### Intermolecular forces

The nonchemical forces, often referred to as van der Waals forces, by which atoms or molecules attract one another, are primarily electrical in nature, the attraction of positive charges for negative charges. Despite the fact that an atom or molecule when viewed from a distance is electrically neutral, an observer close to the particle may find himself nearer to the charge of one sign than to that of the opposite sign. As a consequence of their origin, van der Waals forces are then very short range forces.

Molecules are composed of atoms, each of which consists of a positive nucleus and negative electrons moving about outside the nucleus. In forming a molecule the constituent atoms share some of their electrons, which are then able to move about in the vicinity of two or more different atoms. If the "center of gravity" of the negative charges carried by the electrons does not, in a certain molecule, coincide with the center of gravity of the positive charges resident on all the atomic nuclei, that molecule is said to have a separation of charge, or a dipole. When two particles having dipoles meet with appropriate orientation, either end-to-end or side-by-side, they attract one another:

In some molecules, a dipole is a permanent feature of the structure as a consequence of differing affinities of unlike atoms for the valence electrons. These unequal forces pull the electrons toward one part of the molecule. There are, for example, permanent dipoles in water, methanol, bromobenzene, and gaseous hydrogen chloride molecules:



INTRODUCTION 3

In other molecules—even in monatomic molecules—which do not themselves have a permanent dipole, a temporary charge-separation or induced dipole may be produced on approach of another molecule which has a permanent dipole. The direction of the *induced dipole* is always that which causes attraction to the inducing dipole. Consider as a nonpolar particle the helium atom, and as the approaching polar molecule a water molecule. If the negative end of the water molecule approaches the helium atom, it repels electrons from the portion of the atom nearest to itself, producing in this region of the helium atom a positive charge which will attract the negative end of the water molecule. If, on the contrary, the positive end of the water molecule happens to be nearest the helium atom, electrons in the latter will be drawn toward the water molecule, placing a negative charge on the part of the helium atom closest to the water molecule; the opposite charges will again attract one another. The two situations may



FIG. 1.1 Attraction between dipole of water molecule and induced dipole in a helium atom.

be represented as in Figure 1.1. The solubility of helium in water is probably due to this effect.

Two molecules which are near together may attract one another in yet a different fashion, despite the fact that neither has a permanent dipole. Because the electrons in a molecule are in constant motion, chance may lead to a momentarily unsymmetrical charge distribution. This in turn may affect the neighboring molecule, inducing a simultaneous and opposite electrical dipole. Thus, two molecules such as two hydrogen molecules, which have on an average over a period of time complete symmetry of negative charge about the nuclei, may experience mutual attractive forces through synchronization of electronic motions. Interactions of this sort, usually referred to as dispersion forces, are responsible for the fact that even the noble gases condense at sufficiently low temperatures.

There may thus exist, under various circumstances, attractions resulting from the orientation of one permanent dipole by another, from the induction of a dipole by a permanent dipole, and from dispersion forces. Except for rather highly polar molecules such as ammonia and water, the van der Waals forces leading to condensation of gas to liquid consist largely of dispersion forces.

#### Phase diagrams

Each of the forms, or states of aggregation, or structures, which a chemical substance can assume is termed a phase. A sample of water may be

found in the vapor phase, in the liquid phase, in that solid phase commonly encountered as ice, or in one of several other solid phases which appear at high pressures and which differ from ordinary ice in the manner in which water molecules are arranged in the crystalline pattern.

More generally, a phase may be described as a homogeneous portion of a material system which, if present along with any other phases, is set off from the other phases by a boundary surface or discontinuity. A quantity of matter which is uniform in composition and structure, or homogeneous, throughout is said to consist of one phase. A one-phase system might be entirely gaseous, or might comprise a single liquid layer, or might be composed of particles of a solid all of which are of the same structural pattern or allotropic form. Another type of system is represented by liquid water with pieces of ice floating on the surface; here two phases, one liquid and one solid, are present. If benzene and water, which do not dissolve very much in one another, are mixed together, two liquid layers separated by a visible boundary surface result; again, two phases are coexisting. If liquid water is mixed with a relatively large amount of sodium chloride so that the latter does not all dissolve, the two phases present after equilibrium is reached are saturated aqueous salt solution and solid sodium chloride.

The behavior of a chemical substance under various conditions of temperature and pressure is often represented by a phase diagram. In this diagram are shown the ranges of conditions under which each of the several phases that the substance can assume may exist as a stable form, as well as the more limited conditions under which equilibrium coexistence of two or more phases is possible.

At this point we shall illustrate the interpretation of a phase diagram for a relatively simple system containing only one substance; later, more complex systems will be considered. Figure 1.2, the phase diagram for the substance water in the lower pressure region, represents schematically the results of experimental determinations of the equilibrium relations of three phases of water in the absence of air or any other foreign material, as in a closed container. In order that the distinctive features may be more clearly seen, the diagram is not drawn to scale.

Suppose that the temperature of a sample of water is  $50^{\circ}$  C. So long as the pressure remains below 92.51 mm. of mercury, the gas phase continues to be stable. If the pressure is momentarily increased to just above 92.51 mm., either by decreasing the container volume or by adding more vapor, the vapor will partially condense to liquid until the loss of gas is sufficient to restore the pressure to its equilibrium value at  $50^{\circ}$ . If the pressure is increased above 92.51 mm. and kept there by external means, the vapor will completely condense; for in these circumstances only liquid can exist. Thus there is only one pressure under which liquid and vapor of a pure substance can coexist permanently at a given temperature. Similar considerations apply to the vapor and solid: at  $-10^{\circ}$  C., for example, vapor

INTRODUCTION 5

can exist by itself at pressures below 1.95 mm. while the solid alone exists at pressures exceeding this. Only at this one particular pressure can the two phases be in equilibrium.

Water is rather unusual in that increasing pressure lowers the melting point of the solid phase; this trend is indicated by the inclination of the line o-b to the left. At about 1000 atmospheres, the solid phase and the liquid phase may be in equilibrium at  $-10^{\circ}$ . For most substances, the solid phase is more dense than the liquid phase and tends to be formed more

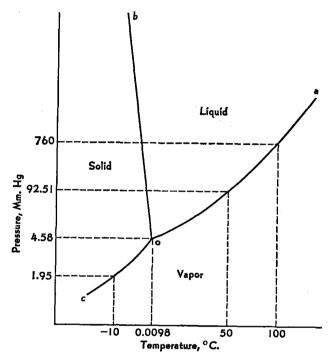


FIG. 1.2 Phase diagram of water. Other forms of ice than ordinary ice exist at high pressures beyond the range of the diagram.

readily at higher pressures, but the structure of ice is such that it is less compact and therefore less dense than liquid water at the same temperature. The phase diagram for the substance carbon dioxide is similar to that for water except for this one feature: the line corresponding to o-b and separating the solid and liquid regions slopes to the right rather than to the left.

A point of particular interest in Figure 1.2 is that designated o and known as the triple point. At this point the temperature is 0.0098° and the pressure is 4.58 mm., and it is only under these conditions that all three phases, gas, liquid, and solid, can be together in equilibrium. If the three phases

are mixed together at any other temperature or pressure, one or two of them will disappear in order to establish equilibrium. The zero of temperature on the centigrade scale is defined as the freezing point of water; this is not the same as the triple point but is the temperature at which ice and air-saturated water are in equilibrium under a total pressure of one atmosphere. Under these conditions, most of the pressure of the vapor phase is contributed by air.

#### 1.2 GASES

#### The ideal gas equation

On the basis of experiment there has been evolved a generalized pattern of behavior which a number of gases closely approach and which most gases at least roughly approximate. The outstanding characteristic of a gas is the sensitivity of its volume to changes in temperature and in external pressure. An *ideal* or *perfect* gas is one for which the volume varies in direct proportion to the absolute temperature under constant pressure (Charles' Law) and in inverse proportion to the applied pressure at constant temperature (Boyle's Law):

$$V \sim T$$
 (1.1)

$$V \sim \frac{1}{P} \tag{1.2}$$

These equations may be combined into one, useful for the prediction of volume change when both temperature and pressure vary at the same time:

$$V \sim \frac{T}{P}$$
 (1.3)

Proportional variation implies that one quantity is equal to a constant numerical multiplier times the second quantity; thus the gas equation may be written with a constant of proportionality, c:

$$V = \frac{cT}{P} \quad \text{or} \quad PV = cT \tag{1.4}$$

A further result of experiment is the conclusion that the numerical value of the constant c varies directly with the number of gram-molecular-weights of gas in the sample being described, and is the same for samples of different gases which contain the same number of moles. If c is accordingly set equal to nR, where n is the number of moles of gas and R is called the gas constant, the ideal gas law becomes:

$$PV = nRT (1.5)$$

This equation, it must be remembered, is a limiting equation, in the