

Lecture PowerPoints

Chapter 13 Physics: Principles with Applications, 7th edition Giancoli

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Chapter 13

Temperature and Kinetic Theory



Contents of Chapter 13

- Atomic Theory of Matter
- Temperature and Thermometers
- Thermal Equilibrium and the Zeroth Law of Thermodynamics
- Thermal Expansion
- The Gas Laws and Absolute Temperature
- The Ideal Gas Law
- Problem Solving with the Ideal Gas Law

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Contents of Chapter 13

- Ideal Gas Law in Terms of Molecules: Avogadro's Number
- Kinetic Theory and the Molecular Interpretation of Temperature
- Distribution of Molecular Speeds
- Real Gases and Changes of Phase
- Vapor Pressure and Humidity
- Diffusion

13.1 Atomic Theory

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- Element, atom
- Compound, molecule
- Macroscopic, microscopic
 - Molecules attract
 - But too close, repel (electron clouds repel)



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13-1 Atomic Theory of Matter

On a microscopic scale, the arrangements of molecules in solids (a), liquids (b), and gases (c) are quite different.

Gas ~ 500 m/s



13-1 Brownian Motio4

- 1827 biologist Robert Brown
 - Tiny pollen grains suspended in water
 - Under microscope, moving erratically
 - Why? Water molecules are moving, jostling
- 1905 Albert Einstein theoretically found diameter of atom ~ 10^{-10} m

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13-1 Atomic Theory of Matter

Atomic and molecular masses are measured in unified atomic mass units (u). This unit is defined so that the carbon-12 atom has a mass of exactly 12.0000 u. Expressed in kilograms:



13-1 Atomic Theory of Matter

• Atomic mass unit (a.m.u.)

 $1 \text{ u} = 1.6605 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$

- Definition: Carbon-12 has 12.0000 amu
 - 6 protons, 6 neutrons = 12 nucleons, (electrons ~ignore)
 - 1 nucleon ~ $\underline{1 \text{ amu}}$ ~ mass of a proton/neutron

• Question:

- 1 Hydrogen atom ~ 1 a.m.u. (1 proton)
- 1 Helium atom ~ 4 a.m.u. (2 protons, 2 neutrons)
- 1 Oxygen atom ~ 16 a.m.u. (8 protons, 8 neutrons)

© 2014 Pearson Education, inc. table in back of book!

<u>13-6, 13-8</u>

• 1 mole = number of atoms in 12 grams of Carbon-12 = N_A particles (Avogadro's Number) = 6.02 x 10²³ particles/mole inde

• 1 dozen roses = 12 roses No • 2 nucleon 5 = 2 roses

1 mole of roses = 6.02 x 10²³ roses
 1 mole of nucleons = 1 gra m
 1 mol = # particles of substance whose mass in grams

is numerically equal to the molecular mass (a.m.u.) of the substance.

- 1 Carbon atom ~ 12 amu, 1 mole of Carbon~12 grams
- 1 mole of $CO_2 = [12 \text{ amu} + 2 * 16 \text{ amu}]$ grams

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6.2 TEMPERATURE

Use a Thermometer to measure temperature.
 0°C = freezing point of pure water
 100°C = boiling point of pure water



13-2 Temperature and Thermometers

Temperature is a measure of how hot or cold something is.

Most materials expand when heated.



13-2 Temperature and Thermometers

Thermometers are instruments designed to measure temperature. In order to do this, they take advantage of some property of matter that changes with temperature.

Early thermometers:



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13-2 Temperature and Thermometers

Common thermometers used today include the liquid-in-glass type and the bimetallic strip.



Constant Volume Gas Thermometer

- bulb of low pressure gas connected to mercury manometer
- keep volume of gas constant at reference mark by raising/lowering right tube
- T increases → Pbulb increases → right column higher to keep V constant
- For all gases, P decreases to 0, T approaches -273.15°C



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Properties that Change with Temperature

- Density decreases, volume increases (except ice water)
 - lakes freeze from top, support life underneath
 - highway expansion joints
- color radiated (iron glows, incandescent tungsten filament, Sun)
- resistance increases

13-3 Thermal Equilibrium and the Zeroth Law of Thermodynamics

Transitive property

Two objects placed in thermal contact will eventually come to the same temperature. When they do, we say they are in thermal equilibrium.

The zeroth law of thermodynamics says that if two objects are each in equilibrium with a third object, they are also in thermal equilibrium with each other.

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13-2 Temperature and Thermometers



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Temperature is generally measured using either the Fahrenheit or the Celsius scale.

The freezing point of water is 0°C, or 32°F; the boiling point of water is 100°C, or 212°F.

$$C = \frac{1}{4}(9-32)$$

 $K = C - 273.15$

6.3 Absolute Zero

• How high can temperature go?

• How low can temperature go?









TEMPERATURE CONVERSIONS

 $^{\circ}F = 9/5 \times ^{\circ}C + 32$

°C = K - 273

13-4 Thermal Expansion



Here, α is the coefficient of linear expansion.

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13-4 Thermal Expansion

Volume expansion is similar, except that it is relevant for liquids and gases as well as solids:

$$\Delta V = \beta V_{\rm U} \Delta T, \qquad (13-2)$$

Here, β is the coefficient of volume expansion.

For uniform solids, $\beta \approx 3^{\alpha}$.

Material	Coefficient of Linear Expansion, α (C°) ⁻¹	Coefficient of Volume Expansion, β (C°) ⁻¹
Solids		
Aluminum	25×10^{-6}	75×10^{-6}
Brass	19×10^{-6}	56×10^{-6}
Copper	17×10^{-6}	50×10^{-6}
Gold	14×10^{-6}	42×10^{-6}
Iron or steel	12×10^{-6}	35×10^{-6}
Lead	29×10^{-6}	87×10^{-6}
Glass (Pyrex [®])	3×10^{-6}	9×10^{-6}
Glass (ordinary)	9×10^{-6}	27×10^{-6}
Quartz	$0.4 imes 10^{-6}$	1×10^{-6}
Concrete and brick	\approx 12 \times 10 ⁻⁶	$\approx 36 \times 10^{-6}$
Marble	$1.4-3.5 \times 10^{-h}$	$4-10 \times 10^{-6}$
Liquids		
Gasoline		950×10^{-6}
Mercury		180×10^{-6}
Ethyl alcohol		1100×10^{-6}
Glycerin		500×10^{-6}
Water		210×10^{-6}
Gases		
Air (and most other gases at atmospheric pressure)		3400×10^{-6}

13-4 Thermal Expansion

13-4 Thermal Expansion

Water behaves differently from most other solids—its minimum volume occurs when its temperature is 4°C. As it cools further, it expands, as anyone who has left a bottle in the freezer to cool and then forgets about it can testify.



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13-4 Thermal Expansion

A material may be fixed at its ends and therefore be unable to expand when the temperature changes. It will then experience large compressive or tensile stress—thermal stress—when its temperature changes.

The force required to keep the material from expanding is given by:

$$\Delta \boldsymbol{\ell} = \frac{1}{E} \frac{F}{A} \boldsymbol{\ell}_0,$$

where E is the Young's modulus of the material. Therefore, the stress is:

$$\frac{F}{A} = \alpha E \, \Delta T.$$

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Thermal Expansion



17.3 (a) We can model atom as being held together by "sprin easier to stretch than to compre graph of the "spring" potentialversus distance x between neig atoms is not symmetrical (com 14.20b). As the energy increase atoms oscillate with greater an average distance increases.

Thermal Expansion

17.10 When an object undergoes thermal expansion, any holes in the object expand as well. (The expansion is exaggerated.)



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Thermal Expansion

17.11 When this SR-71 aircraft is sitting on the ground, its wing panels fit together so loosely that fuel leaks out of the wings onto the ground. But once it is in flight at over three times the speed of sound, air friction heats the panels so much that they expand to make a perfect fit. (Inflight refueling makes up for the lost fuel.)



13.5~13.7: Ideal Gas Law

- Equilibrium State: after changing P, V, or T, wait long enough for P, V, T to be the same everywhere in the gas
- Ideal Gas
 - Not too dense, Pressure < 1 atm
 - Temperature not too close to liquefaction (boiling)
 - No attraction between molecules

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13-5 The Gas Laws and Absolute Temperature

The relationship between the volume, pressure, temperature, and mass of a gas is called an equation of state.



We will deal here with gases that are not too dense.

Boyle's Law: the volume of a given amount of gas is inversely proportional to the pressure as long as the temperature is constant.

 $V \propto 1/P$

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13-5 The Gas Laws and Absolute Temperature

The volume is linearly proportional to the temperature, as long as the temperature is somewhat above the condensation point and the pressure is constant: $V \propto T$.

Extrapolating, the volume becomes zero at -273.15° C; this temperature is called absolute zero.



13-5 The Gas Laws and Absolute Temperature

The concept of absolute zero allows us to define a third temperature scale—the absolute, or Kelvin, scale.

This scale starts with 0 K at absolute zero, but otherwise is the same as the Celsius scale.

Therefore, the freezing point of water is 273.15 K, and the boiling point is 373.15 K.

Finally, when the volume is constant, the pressure is directly proportional to the temperature: $P \propto T$.

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13-6 The Ideal Gas Law

We can combine the three relations just derived into a single relation:

 $PV \propto T$

What about the amount of gas present? If the temperature and pressure are constant, the volume is proportional to the amount of gas:

 $PV \propto mT$



13-6 The Ideal Gas Law

A mole (mol) is defined as the number of grams of a substance that is numerically equal to the molecular mass of the substance:

1 mol H_2 has a mass of 2 g

1 mol Ne has a mass of 20 g

1 mol CO_2 has a mass of 44 g

The number of moles in a certain mass of material:

 $n \text{ (mole)} = \frac{\text{mass (grams)}}{\text{molecular mass (g/mol)}}$

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13-6 The Ideal Gas Law

We can now write the ideal gas law:

$$PV = nRT$$
, (13-3)

where n is the number of moles and R is the universal gas constant.

$$R = 8.314 \text{ J/(mol} \cdot \text{K})$$

$$= 0.0821 (\text{L} \cdot \text{atm})/(\text{mol} \cdot \text{K})$$

$$= 1.99 \text{ calories/(mol} \cdot \text{K}).$$
[SI units]

13-7 Problem Solving with the Ideal Gas Law

Useful facts and definitions:

- Standard temperature and pressure (STP) T = 273 K (0°C) $P = 1.00 \text{ atm} = 1.013 \times 10^5 \text{ N/m}^2 = 101.3 \text{ kPa}$
- Volume of 1 mol of an ideal gas is 22.4 L
- If the amount of gas does not change:

$$\frac{P_1 V_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2 V_2}{T_2} \cdot \qquad \text{[fixed } n\text{]}$$

- Always measure T in kelvins
- *P* must be the absolute pressure

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13-8 Ideal Gas Law in Terms of Molecules: Avogadro's Number

Since the gas constant is universal, the number of molecules in one mole is the same for all gases. That number is called Avogadro's number:

$$N_{\rm A} = 6.02 \times 10^{23}$$

The number of molecules in a gas is the number of moles times Avogadro's number:

$$N = nN_{\rm A}$$

13-8 Ideal Gas Law in Terms of Molecules: Avogadro's Number

Therefore we can write:

or

$$PV = nRT = \frac{N}{N_A}RT,$$

 $PV = NkT,$ (13-4)

where k is called Boltzmann's constant.

$$k = \frac{R}{N_{\rm A}} = \frac{8.314 \,\text{J/mol} \cdot \text{K}}{6.02 \times 10^{23}/\text{mol}} = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \,\text{J/K}.$$

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- Why don't you put a closed glass jar in a campfire?
 - T increasing, V constant, Pressure increases
 - Boom!
- Hot air balloon. Hot air expands, some air comes out.
 - i) T increases
 - ii) P same! P(Vsame) = (ndecreases)R(Tincreases)
 - iii) density (mass decreases/volume) decreases

13-9 Kinetic Theory and the Molecular Interpretation of Temperature

Assumptions of kinetic theory:

- large number of molecules, moving in random directions with a variety of speeds
- molecules are far apart, on average
- molecules obey laws of classical mechanics and interact only when colliding
- collisions are perfectly elastic

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13-9 Kinetic Theory and the Molecular Interpretation of Temperature



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The force exerted on the wall by the collision of one molecule is

$$F = \frac{\Delta(mv)}{\Delta t} = \frac{2mv_x}{2\ell/v_x} = \frac{mv_x^2}{\ell} \cdot \qquad \text{[due to one molecule]}$$

Then the force due to all molecules colliding with that wall is

$$\frac{1}{N}\overline{v_x^2}$$
.

(i)

13-9 Kinetic Theory and the Molecular Interpretation of Temperature

The averages of the squares of the speeds in all three directions are equal:

$$F = \frac{m}{\ell} N \frac{\overline{v^2}}{3}.$$

So the pressure is:

$$P = \frac{F}{A} = \frac{1}{3} \frac{Nmv^2}{A\ell}$$

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \frac{Nmv^2}{V}, \qquad \qquad \begin{bmatrix} \text{pressure in an} \\ \text{ideal gas} \end{bmatrix} (13-6)$$

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13-9 Kinetic Theory and the Molecular Interpretation of Temperature

Rewriting, $PV = \frac{2}{3}N(\frac{1}{2}mv^{2})$. (13-7) so or $\frac{2}{3}(\frac{1}{2}mv^{2}) = kT$, $\overline{KE} = \frac{1}{2}mv^{2} = \frac{1}{2}kT$. [ideal gas] (13-8)

The average translational kinetic energy of the molecules in an ideal gas is directly proportional to the temperature of the gas.

13-9 Kinetic Theory and the Molecular Interpretation of Temperature

We can invert this to find the average speed of molecules in a gas as a function of temperature:

$$v_{\rm rms} = \sqrt{\overline{v^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m}} \cdot$$
 (13-9)

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13-10 Distribution of Molecular Speeds



These two graphs show the distribution of speeds of molecules in a gas, as derived by Maxwell. The most probable speed, $v_{\rm P}$, is not quite the same as the rms speed.

As expected, the curves shift to the right with temperature.

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13-11 Real Gases and Changes of Phase



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The curves here represent the behavior of the gas at different temperatures. The cooler it gets, the farther the gas is from ideal.

> In curve D, the gas becomes liquid; it begins condensing at (b) and is entirely liquid at (a).

The point (c) is called the critical point.

13-11 Real Gases and Changes of Phase

Below the critical temperature, the gas can liquefy if the pressure is sufficient; above it, no amount of pressure will suffice.

TABLE 13- Temperat	13–2 Critical eratures and Pressures			
	Critical Temperature		Critical	
Substance	°C	К	(atm)	
Water	374	647	218	
CO ₂	31	304	72.8	
Oxygen	-118	155	50	
Nitrogen	-147	126	33.5	
Hydrogen	-239.9	33.3	12.8	
Helium	-267.9	5.3	2.3	

13-11 Real Gases and Changes of Phase

A *PT* diagram is called a phase diagram; it shows all three phases of matter. The solid-liquid transition is melting or freezing; the liquid-vapor one is boiling or condensing; and the solid-vapor one is sublimation.



13-11 Real Gases and Changes of Phase

The triple point is the only point where all three phases can coexist in equilibrium.



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18.6 Isotherms, or constant-temperature curves, for a constant amount of an ideal gas. The highest temperature is T_4 ; the lowest is T_1 . This is a graphical representation of the ideal-gas equation of state.

Each curve represents pressure as a function of volume for an ideal gas at a single temperature.



18.7 A *pV*-diagram for a nonideal gas, showing isotherms for temperatures above and below the critical temperature *T_c*. The liquid–vapor equilibrium region is shown as a green shaded area. At still lower temperatures the material might undergo phase transitions from liquid to solid or from gas to solid; these are not shown in this diagram.





pVT-Surfaces

We remarked in Section 18.1 that the equation of state of any material can be represented graphically as a surface in a three-dimensional space with coordinates p, V, and T. Visualizing such a surface can add to our understanding of the behavior of materials at various temperatures and pressures. Figure 18.26 shows a typical pVT-surface. The light lines represent pV-isotherms; projecting them onto the pV-plane gives a diagram similar to Fig. 18.7. The pV-isotherms represent contour lines on the pVT-surface, just as contour lines on a topographic map represent the elevation (the third dimension) at each point. The projections of the edges of the surface onto the pT-plane give the pT phase diagram of Fig. 18.24.

Line abcdef in Fig. 18.26 represents constant-pressure heating, with melting along bc and vaporization along de. Note the volume changes that occur as T increases along this line. Line ghjklm corresponds to an isothermal (constant temperature) compression, with liquefaction along hj and solidification along kl. Between these, segments gh and jk represent isothermal compression with increase in pressure; the pressure increases are much greater in the liquid region jk and the solid region lm than in the vapor region gh. Finally, line nopq represents isothermal solidification directly from vapor, as in the formation of snowflakes or frost.



13-12 Vapor Pressure and Humidity



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An open container of water can evaporate, rather than boil, away. The fastest molecules are escaping from the water's surface, so evaporation is a cooling process as well.

The inverse process is called condensation.

When the evaporation and condensation processes are in equilibrium, the vapor just above the liquid is said to be saturated, and its pressure is the saturated vapor pressure.

13-12 Vapor Pressure and Humidity

Temp- crature (°C)	Saturated Vapor Pressure		
	torr (= mm-Hg)	$Pa = (= N/m^2)$	
-50	0.030	4.0	
-10	8.95	$2.60 \times 10^{\circ}$	
0	4,58	6.11×10	
5	6.54	$8.72 \times 10^{\circ}$	
10	9.21	1.23×10	
15	12.8	1.71×10	
20	17.5	2.33×10	
25	23,8	$3.17 \times 10^{\circ}$	
30	31.8	4.24×10	
-40	55.3	7.37×10^{10}	
50	02.5	1.23×10	
60	149	$1.99 \times 10^{\circ}$	
201	234	$3.12 \times 10^{\circ}$	
80	355	$4.73 \times 10^{\circ}$	
90	526	$7.01 \times 10^{\circ}$	
1001	760	1.01×10^{-1}	
120	1489	$1.99 \times 10^{\circ}$	
150	3570	4.76 × 10	

The saturated vapor pressure increases with temperature.

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13-12 Vapor Pressure and Humidity



A liquid boils when its saturated vapor pressure equals the external pressure.

13-12 Vapor Pressure and Humidity

Partial pressure is the pressure each component of a mixture of gases would exert if it were the only gas present. The partial pressure of water in the air can be as low as zero, and as high as the saturated vapor pressure at that temperature.

Relative humidity is a measure of the saturation of the air.

Relative humidity = $\frac{\text{partial pressure of H}_2\text{O}}{\text{saturated vapor pressure of H}_2\text{O}} \times 100\%$.

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13-12 Vapor Pressure and Humidity



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When the humidity is high, it feels muggy; it is hard for any more water to evaporate.

The dew point is the temperature at which the air would be saturated with water.

If the temperature goes below the dew point, dew, fog, or even rain may occur.

13-13 Diffusion

Even without stirring, a few drops of dye in water will gradually spread throughout. This process is called diffusion.



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(b)



(c)

13-13 Diffusion

Diffusion occurs from a region of high concentration towards a region of lower concentration.



13-13 Diffusion

The rate of diffusion is given by:

Diffusing Molecules	Medium	<i>D</i> (m ² /s)
H ₂	Air	6.3×10^{-5}
O ₂	Air	$1.8 imes 10^{-5}$
O ₂	Water	100×10^{-1}
Glycine (an amino acid)	Water	95×10^{-1}
Blood hemoglobin	Water	6.9×10^{-1}
DNA (mass $6 \times 10^6 \text{ u}$)	Water	0.13×10^{-1}

$$J = DA \frac{C_1 - C_2}{\Delta x} \cdot (13-10)$$

In this equation, *D* is the diffusion constant.

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Summary of Chapter 13

- All matter is made of atoms.
- Atomic and molecular masses are measured in atomic mass units, u.
- Temperature is a measure of how hot or cold something is, and is measured by thermometers.
- There are three temperature scales in use: Celsius, Fahrenheit, and Kelvin.
- When heated, a solid will get longer by a fraction given by the coefficient of linear expansion.

Summary of Chapter 13

- The fractional change in volume of gases, liquids, and solids is given by the coefficient of volume expansion.
- Ideal gas law: PV = nRT
- One mole of a substance is the number of grams equal to the atomic or molecular mass.
- Each mole contains Avogadro's number of atoms or molecules.

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Summary of Chapter 13

• The average kinetic energy of molecules in a gas is proportional to the temperature:

 $\frac{2}{3}\left(\frac{1}{2}mv^2\right) = kT,$

 $\overline{\mathrm{KE}} = \frac{1}{2}m\overline{v^2} = \frac{3}{2}kT.$

[ideal gas] (13-8)

- Below the critical temperature, a gas can liquefy if the pressure is high enough.
- At the triple point, all three phases are in equilibrium.
- Evaporation occurs when the fastest moving molecules escape from the surface of a liquid.

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Summary of Chapter 13

- Saturated vapor pressure occurs when the two phases are in equilibrium.
- Relative humidity is the ratio of the actual vapor pressure to the saturated vapor pressure.
- Diffusion is the process whereby the concentration of a substance becomes uniform.