

Gases and the Kinetic Molecular Theory

- Importance in atmospheric phenomena, gas phase reactions, combustion engines, etc.

5.1 The Physical States of Matter

- The condensed states liquid and solid
- The gaseous state
 - -Gas volume changes greatly with pressure
 - Gas volume changes greatly with temperature
 - -Gases have low viscosity (flow easily)
 - Gases have low density (~1000 times lower than liquids and solids)
 - -Gases are miscible in all proportions

- Molecular model of the gaseous state

 Molecules are in constant, rapid, random motion (explains the absence of definite shape, miscibility, low viscosity)
 - Molecules are widely separated (explains the absence of definite volume, low density, compressibility)

Force

Area

5.2 Pressure

• Gas molecules collide with each other an the walls of the container \rightarrow molecules exert force on the walls $Pressure = P = \frac{F}{A}$



g - acceleration of free fall (9.81 m/s²)
d - density of Hg (13546 kg/m³)
V - volume of Hg column
h - height of Hg column (0.760 m at sea level)
A - area of Hg column base

$$P_{atm} = P_{Hg} = \frac{F}{A}$$
 $F = m_{Hg}g$
 $m_{Hg} = dV = dhA$ \Rightarrow $F = dhAg$
 $\Rightarrow P_{atm} = \frac{dhAg}{A} = dhg$
 $P_{atm} = 13546 \times 0.760 \times 9.81 = 1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ kg} / \text{ m} \cdot \text{s}^2$











• Assume two states of a gas at constant
$$T$$

- state $1 \rightarrow P_1$, V_1
- state $2 \rightarrow P_2$, V_2
 $P_1V_1 = k$ $P_2V_2 = k$
 $P_1V_1 = P_2V_2$
Example: A 2.0 L sample of oxygen at 10 atm
is transferred to a 15.0 L container at constant
temperature. What is the new pressure?
 $V_1 = 2.0$ L $P_1 = 10$ atm $V_2 = 15.0$ L $P_2 = ?$

$$P_2 = \frac{P_1 V_1}{V_2} = \frac{10 \text{ atm} \times 2.0 \text{ L}}{15.0 \text{ L}} = 1.3 \text{ atm}$$

Charles's Law

• At constant pressure (P) the volume (V) of a fixed amount of gas is proportional to its absolute temperature (T)

 \Rightarrow At constant *P* and *n*:

$$V = k'T$$
 $k' \rightarrow \text{constant} (\text{depends on } P \text{ and } n)$

$$\frac{V}{T} = k' \qquad T \uparrow \Leftrightarrow V \uparrow$$

• Charles's law helped devise the absolute temperature scale (Lord Kelvin)



• Assume two states of a gas at constant
$$P$$

- state $1 \rightarrow T_I$, V_I
- state $2 \rightarrow T_2$, V_2
 $\frac{V_1}{T_1} = k'$ $\frac{V_2}{T_2} = k'$ \Rightarrow $\frac{V_1}{T_1} = \frac{V_2}{T_2}$
Example: A balloon is filled with 5.0 L He gas at
15°C. The temperature is changed to 35°C. What is
the new volume of the balloon?
 $T_I = 15°C = 288 \text{ K}$ $V_I = 5.0 \text{ L}$
 $T_2 = 35°C = 308 \text{ K}$ $V_2 = ?$
 $V_2 = \frac{V_1T_2}{T_1} = \frac{5.0 \text{ L} \times 308 \text{ K}}{288 \text{ K}} = 5.3 \text{ L}$

Variations of Charles's law – Amontons's law				
• At constant volume (<i>V</i>) the pressure (<i>P</i>) of a				
fixed amount of gas is proportional to its				
absolute temperature (T)				
\Rightarrow At constant <i>V</i> and <i>n</i> :				
P = k''T				
$k'' \rightarrow \text{constant} (\text{depends on } V \text{ and } n)$				
$\frac{P}{T} = k'' \qquad T \uparrow \Leftrightarrow P \uparrow$				

• Assume two states of a gas at constant V
- state
$$1 \rightarrow T_I$$
, P_I
- state $2 \rightarrow T_2$, P_2
 $\frac{P_1}{T_1} = k''$ $\frac{P_2}{T_2} = k''$ \Rightarrow $\frac{P_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2}{T_2}$
Example: A cylinder containing N₂ gas at 15°C
and 50 atm is moved to a new location at 35°C.
What is the new pressure in the cylinder?
 $T_I = 15^{\circ}C = 288 \text{ K}$ $P_I = 50 \text{ atm}$
 $T_2 = 35^{\circ}C = 308 \text{ K}$ $P_2 = ?$
 $P_2 = \frac{P_1T_2}{T_1} = \frac{50 \text{ atm} \times 308 \text{ K}}{288 \text{ K}} = 53 \text{ atm}$

Avogadro's Law

• At constant temperature (*T*) and pressure (*P*) the volume (*V*) of a gas is proportional to its amount (*n*)

- At constant *T* and *P*:

V = k''' n $k''' \rightarrow \text{constant}$ (depends on T, P)

 $n \uparrow \Leftrightarrow V \uparrow$

$$\frac{V}{n} = k'''$$

• Molar volume (V_m) – the volume of one mole of a substance

 $V_m = V/n$

- Avogadro's principle
 - At constant T and P equal number of moles of different gases occupy equal volumes
 - Molar volumes of gases are very similar (V/n = constant)
- Assume two states of a gas at constant *T* and *P*

$$- \text{ state } 1 \rightarrow V_1, n_1$$
$$- \text{ state } 2 \rightarrow V_2, n_2$$

$$\frac{V_1}{n_1} = k''' \qquad \frac{V_2}{n_2} = k''' \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \frac{V_1}{n_1} = \frac{V_2}{n_2}$$

The Ideal Gas Law $V = k \frac{1}{P}$ Boyle's Law V = k'T Charles's Law V = k'''n Avogadro's Law • Combination of the three laws: $V = R \frac{nT}{P}$ R-proportionality constant $PV = nRT \rightarrow$ ideal gas law $R \rightarrow$ universal gas constant



• Ideal gas – obeys the ideal gas law • R is determined experimentally $R = 0.08206 \text{ L} \cdot \text{atm/mol} \cdot \text{K}$ $R = 8.314 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K}$ • Assume two states of a gas $-\text{state } 1 \rightarrow P_1, V_1, n_1, T_1$ $-\text{state } 2 \rightarrow P_2, V_2, n_2, T_2$ $\frac{P_1V_1}{n_1T_1} = R$ $\frac{P_2V_2}{n_2T_2} = R \implies \frac{P_1V_1}{n_1T_1} = \frac{P_2V_2}{n_2T_2}$ Note: T must always be in Kelvin

Example: A 5.0 L gas sample at 1.0 atm and 10°C is moved to a 2.0 L container and heated to 300°C. What is the new pressure? $P_1 = 1.0 \text{ atm}$ $V_1 = 5.0 \text{ L}$ $T_1 = 10^{\circ}\text{C} = 283 \text{ K}$ $P_2 = ?$ $V_2 = 2.0 \text{ L}$ $T_2 = 300^{\circ}\text{C} = 573 \text{ K}$ $n_1 = n_2$ $\frac{P_1V_1}{n_1T_1} = \frac{P_2V_2}{n_2T_2} \implies P_2 = \frac{P_1V_1}{n_1T_1} \times \frac{n_2T_2}{V_2}$ $P_2 = \frac{P_1V_1T_2}{T_2} = \frac{1.0 \text{ atm} \times 5.0 \text{ L} \times 573 \text{ K}}{283 \text{ K} \times 2.0 \text{ L}} = 5.1 \text{ atm}$

Example: A 3.0 g sample of methane, CH₄, is placed in a 2.0 L container at 22°C. What is the pressure in the container? PV = nRT $V = 2.0 L \qquad T = 22°C = 295 K$ moles of CH₄ (*n*): $n = 3.0 \text{ g CH}_4 \times \left(\frac{1 \text{ mol CH}_4}{16.0 \text{ g CH}_4}\right) = 0.19 \text{ mol CH}_4$ $P = \frac{nRT}{V} = \frac{0.19 \text{ mol} \times 0.08206 \frac{L \cdot \text{ atm}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}} \times 295 \text{ K}}{2.0 L} = 2.3 \text{ atm}$



5.4 Applications of the Ideal Gas Law				
The molar mass and density of gasses				
density = $\frac{\text{mass}}{\text{volume}} \longrightarrow d = \frac{m}{V}$				
molar mass $=$ $\frac{\text{mass}}{\text{moles}} \rightarrow M = \frac{m}{n} \rightarrow m = nM$				
$PV = nRT \qquad \rightarrow n = \frac{PV}{RT}$				
$d = \frac{m}{V} = \frac{nM}{V} = \frac{PVM}{RTV} \rightarrow d = \frac{MP}{RT} \rightarrow M = \frac{dRT}{P}$				

• The density of a gas is proportional to its
molar mass and pressure and inversely
proportional to its temperature
Example: Calculate the density of O₂ at STP.

$$M = 32.00 \text{ g/mol}$$

 $P = 1 \text{ atm}$ $T = 0^{\circ}\text{C} = 273.15 \text{ K}$ (STP)
 $d = \frac{MP}{RT} = \frac{32.00 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{mol}} \times 1 \text{ atm}}{0.08206 \frac{\text{L} \cdot \text{atm}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}} \times 273.15 \text{ K}} = 1.428 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{L}}$



Example: Calculate the molar mass of a
liquid if 0.955 g of its vapors occupy 2.50 L
at 200°C and 45.0 Torr.
$$d = m/V = 0.955 \text{ g/}2.50 \text{ L} = 0.382 \text{ g/L}$$
$$T = 200°C = 473 \text{ K}$$
$$P = 45.0 \text{ Torr} \times [1 \text{ atm}/760 \text{ Torr}] = 0.0592 \text{ atm}$$
$$M = \frac{dRT}{P} = \frac{0.382 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{L}} \times 0.08206 \frac{\text{L} \cdot \text{atm}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}} \times 473 \text{ K}}{0.0592 \text{ atm}} = 250 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{mol}}$$

Mixtures of Gasses

- Mixtures are treated just like pure gases same gas laws apply
- **Partial pressure** of a gas in a mixture the pressure the gas would exert if it occupied the container alone
- Dalton's **law of partial pressures** the total pressure (**P**) of a gaseous mixture is the sum of the partial pressures (**P**_i) of its components

$$P = P_A + P_B + \dots$$
 or $P = \sum P_i$

• Mole fraction (χ_i) of a gas in a mixture – a fraction of the total number of moles that belongs to that gas

$$\chi_i = \frac{n_i}{\sum n_i} = \frac{n_i}{n} \qquad \sum n_i = n \qquad \sum \chi_i = 1$$

• The sum of all mol fractions is equal to one

• The ideal gas law can be written for each gas in a mixture in terms of partial pressures

$$P_i V = n_i RT$$
 $PV = nRT$

$$\frac{P_i V}{PV} = \frac{n_i RT}{nRT} \qquad \frac{P_i}{P} = \frac{n_i}{n} = \chi_i$$
$$P_i = \chi_i P$$

⇒The partial pressure of a gas is proportional to its mol fraction

Example: Calculate the total pressure and the partial pressures of He and Ne in a **2.0** L mixture containing **1.0** g He and **2.0** g Ne at **20°C**.

grams of He and Ne \rightarrow moles of He and Ne \rightarrow mole fractions of He and Ne total pressure \rightarrow partial pressures

1.0 g He×
$$\left(\frac{1 \text{ mol He}}{4.00 \text{ g He}}\right)$$
= 0.25 mol He
2.0 g Ne× $\left(\frac{1 \text{ mol Ne}}{20.18 \text{ g Ne}}\right)$ = 0.099 mol Ne

$$\chi_{He} = \frac{n_{He}}{n_{He} + n_{Ne}} = \frac{0.25}{0.25 + 0.099} = 0.72$$
$$\chi_{Ne} = \frac{n_{Ne}}{n_{He} + n_{Ne}} = \frac{0.099}{0.25 + 0.099} = 0.28$$
$$n = 0.25 + 0.099 = 0.35 \text{ mol}$$
$$PV = nRT \quad \Rightarrow \quad P = \frac{nRT}{V}$$

$$P = \frac{nRT}{V} =$$

$$= \frac{0.35 \text{ mol} \times 0.08206 \frac{\text{L} \cdot \text{atm}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}} \times 293 \text{ K}}{2.0 \text{ L}} =$$

$$= 4.2 \text{ atm}$$

$$P_{He} = \chi_{He}P = 0.72 \times 4.2 \text{ atm} = 3.0 \text{ atm}$$

$$P_{Ne} = \chi_{Ne}P = 0.28 \times 4.2 \text{ atm} = 1.2 \text{ atm}$$



Example: A 2.5 L sample of O₂ gas was collected over water at 26°C and 745 torr atmospheric pressure. What is the mass of O₂ in the sample? (The vapor pressure of water at 26°C is 25 torr.) $P_{\text{oxygen}} = P_{\text{total}} - P_{\text{water}} = 745 - 25 = 720 \text{ torr}$ T = 26 + 273.15 = 299 K $n_{o_2} = \frac{P_{o_2}V}{RT} = \frac{720 \text{ torr} \times \left(\frac{1 \text{ atm}}{760 \text{ torr}}\right) \times 2.5 \text{ L}}{0.08206 \frac{\text{L} \cdot \text{ atm}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}} \times 299 \text{ K}} = 0.097 \text{ mol}$ $0.097 \text{ mol } O_2 \times \left(\frac{32.0 \text{ g } O_2}{1 \text{ mol } O_2}\right) = 3.1 \text{ g } O_2$





Example produced CaCO ₃ at	: Calculate the volume of CO ₂ by the decomposition of 2.0 g t 25°C and 1.0 atm .				
$CaCO_3(s) \rightarrow CaO(s) + CO_2(g)$					
2.0 g CaCO	$_{3} \times \left(\frac{1 \text{ mol CaCO}_{3}}{100.1 \text{ g CaCO}_{3}}\right) \times \left(\frac{1 \text{ mol CO}_{2}}{1 \text{ mol CaCO}_{3}}\right)$				
$= 0.020 \text{ mol CO}_2$					
$V = \frac{nRT}{T} =$	$\frac{0.020 \text{ mol} \times 0.08206 \frac{\text{L} \cdot \text{atm}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}} \times 298 \text{ K}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{K}}$				
P	1.0 atm				
=0.49 L					

Example: Calculate the mass of NaN ₃ needed					
to produce 10 L of N_2 in an air bag at 25° C					
and 1.0 atm by the reaction:					
$6\text{NaN}_3(s) + 2\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3(s) \rightarrow 3\text{Na}_2\text{O}_2(s) + 4\text{Fe}(s) + 9\text{N}_2(g)$					
<i>T</i> = 298 K	P = 1 atm	V = 10 L	<i>n</i> = ?		
$n - \frac{PV}{PV}$	1 atm×1	0 L	0.41 mol		
n = RT	$0.08206 \frac{\text{L} \cdot \text{atr}}{\text{mol} \cdot \text{I}}$	$\frac{n}{K}$ × 298 K	0.41 moi		
$\boxed{0.41 \text{ mol } N_2 \left(\frac{6 \text{ mol } NaN_3}{9 \text{ mol } N_2}\right) \left(\frac{65.02 \text{ g } NaN_3}{1 \text{ mol } NaN_3}\right)}$					
=18 g Na	N ₃				



5.5 The Kinetic Molecular Theory

- Postulates of the Kinetic Molecular Theory
 - The gas particles are negligibly small (their volume can be neglected)
 - The gas particles are in constant, random motion and move in straight lines until they collide
 - The gas particles do not interact except during collisions. The collisions are elastic so there is no loss of energy due to friction
 - The average kinetic energy of gas particles, \overline{E}_k , is proportional to the absolute temperature, T





• Average kinetic energy of the gas particles

$$\overline{E}_k \propto T$$
 $\overline{E}_k = \frac{1}{2}m\overline{u^2}$
 $\Rightarrow \overline{u^2} \propto T$ $\sqrt{\overline{u^2}} \propto \sqrt{T}$
 $m - \text{mass of particles}$
 $\overline{u^2} - \text{average square speed}$
• Root-mean-square speed of the gas particles
 $u_{rms} = \sqrt{\overline{u^2}}$ $u_{rms} \propto \sqrt{T}$
 $u_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{3RT}{M}}$

Example: Calculate the root-mean-square
speed of N₂ at 25°C.
$$T = 25°C = 298 \text{ K}$$
$$M = 28.02 \text{ g/mol} = 0.02802 \text{ kg/mol}$$
$$R = 8.314 \text{ J/mol·K}$$
$$u_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{3RT}{M}} = \sqrt{\frac{3 \times 8.314 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{mol·K}} \times 298 \text{ K}}{0.02802 \frac{\text{kg}}{\text{mol}}}} = 515 \sqrt{\frac{\text{J}}{\text{kg}}}$$
$$515 \sqrt{\frac{\text{kg} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{s}^2}{\text{kg}}} = 515 \sqrt{\frac{\text{m}^2}{\text{s}^2}} = 515 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}$$

The Maxwell Distribution of Speeds

- Gives the fraction of particles moving at each particle speed
- Gas molecules travel with a wide range of speeds with a bell-shaped distribution
- The most probable speed, the average speed and the root-mean-square speed are very close in magnitude





- Lighter gases have higher molecular speeds



Diffusion and Effusion

- **Diffusion** gradual dispersal of one substance through another
 - gases diffuse from places with high to places with low concentration
- Effusion escape of a substance through a small hole into vacuum
 - effusion through porous materials, pin holes, cracks, etc.

• Graham's Law – the effusion rate (*ER*) of a gas is inversely proportional to the square root of its molar mass (same relation is valid in general for the diffusion rate)

$$ER \propto \sqrt{\frac{1}{M}}$$

- Can be explained with $u_{rms} = \sqrt{3RT/M}$
- The time of effusion (*t_{eff}*) is inversely proportional to *ER*

$$t_{eff} \propto \frac{1}{ER} \Rightarrow t_{eff} \propto \sqrt{M}$$

$$\frac{ER(A)}{ER(B)} = \sqrt{\frac{M_B}{M_A}} \qquad \frac{t_{eff}(A)}{t_{eff}(B)} = \sqrt{\frac{M_A}{M_B}}$$
Example: If it takes a certain amount of H₂
15 s to effuse through a small hole, how long does it take for the same amount of O₂?
 $t_{eff}(O_2) = \sqrt{\frac{M_{O_2}}{M_{O_2}}} = t_{O_2}(O_2) = \sqrt{\frac{M_{O_2}}{M_{O_2}}} = t_{O_2}(M_O_2)$

For two gases, A and B:

$$\frac{t_{eff}(O_2)}{t_{eff}(H_2)} = \sqrt{\frac{M_{O_2}}{M_{H_2}}} \qquad t_{eff}(O_2) = \sqrt{\frac{M_{O_2}}{M_{H_2}}} \times t_{eff}(H_2)$$
$$t_{eff}(O_2) = \sqrt{\frac{32.00 \text{ g/mol}}{2.02 \text{ g/mol}}} \times 15 \text{ s} = 60 \text{ s}$$

5.6 Real Gases

- Real gases deviate from ideal behavior
- Compression factor (Z)

$$Z = PV/nRT$$

• For ideal gases:

 $PV = nRT \implies Z = PV/nRT = 1$

• A plot of *Z* versus *P* gives a straight line for ideal gases, but not for real gases





- Negative deviations important at moderately high pressures (*PV/nRT* < 1)
 Due to attractive forces between the molecules
 The molecules attract each other and impact the walls with a weaker force (*P* and *Z* decrease)
 Positive deviations important at very high
- **Positive deviations** important at very high pressures (PV/nRT > 1)
 - Due to the actual volume of the molecules
 - The physical volume of the molecules reduces the free volume in the container, but we still use the volume of the entire container, V, which is larger than the free volume (Z increases)