

CHAPTER THIRTEEN KINETIC THEORY

- <u>Atomic Hypothesis</u>: All things are made of atoms
- Kanada in India and Democritus in Greece had suggested that matter may consist of indivisible constituents.
- The scientific 'Atomic Theory' is proposed by John Dalton.
- The size of an atom is about an *angstrom*.
- From many observations, in recent times we now know that *molecules* (made up of one or more atoms) constitute matter.
- *Electron microscopes* and *scanning tunneling microscopes* enable us to see the molecules.
- In solids, which are tightly packed, atoms are spaced about a few angstroms (2 Å) apart.
- In liquids the separation between atoms is also about the same.
- In liquids the atoms are not as rigidly fixed as in solids, and can move around. This enables a liquid to flow.
- In gases the interatomic distances are in tens of angstroms.
- The atoms attract when they are at a few angstroms but repel when they come closer.

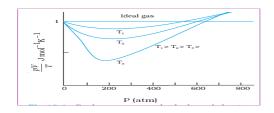
BEHAVIOUR OF GASES

- Gases at *low pressures* and *high* temperatures shows ideal gas behavior.
- The ideal gas equation can be written as $PV = \mu RT$
- where μ is the number of moles and *R is universal gas constant.*

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R = 8.314 \text{ J mol}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}
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- Also in terms of Boltzmann's constant ideal gas equation can be written as $PV = k_{\rm B} NT$ or $P = k_{\rm B} nT$
- Where n = N/V
- The value of Boltzmann constant in SI units is

 $1.38 \times 10^{-23} \,\mathrm{J \ K^{-1}}$



KINETIC THEORY OF AN IDEAL GAS

 Kinetic theory of gases is a theory, which is based on the concept of molecular motion as is able to explain the behavior of gases.

Postulates of Kinetic Theory :

- The molecules of a gas are supposed to be point masses, the size of a molecule being negligible compared to the distance between them.
- There is no force of attraction or repulsion between molecules.
- The molecules are in a state of random motion, moving with all possible velocities in all possible directions.
- During their motion, they collide with one another and also with the walls of the container. These collisions are elastic.
- Between successive collisions, the molecules move in straight lines with uniform velocity. The distance travelled between two successive collisions is called <u>free path</u>. Average distance between the successive collisions is called <u>mean free</u> <u>path</u>
- **Time for a collision is negligibly small** compared to the time taken to traverse mean free path.
- The mean KE of the molecule is a constant at a given temperature and is proportional to absolute temperature.

Concept of Pressure.

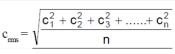
 The pressure exerted by a gas may be defined as the total momentum imparted to unit area of the walls of the container per second due to molecular impacts (collisions).

<u>Root mean square (rms) velocity of gas</u> <u>molecules</u>.

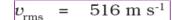
- *rms velocity* of gas molecules is the square root of the mean of the squares of individual velocities of the molecules.
- If c₁, c₂,c_n are the velocities of a gas molecules, then mean square velocity,

$$\overline{c^2} = \frac{c_1^2 + c_2^2 + c_3^2 + \dots + c_n^2}{n}$$

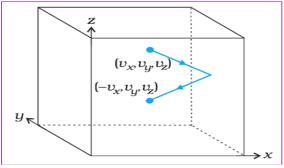
Hence root mean square velocity



• At a temperature *T* = 300 K, the root mean square speed of a molecule in nitrogen gas is :



Pressure of an Ideal Gas



- Consider a gas enclosed in a cube of side l.
- A molecule with velocity (v_x, v_y, v_z) hits the planar wall parallel to yz plane of area $A (= l^2)$.
- The velocity after collision is $(-v_x, v_y, v_z)$.
- The change in momentum of the molecule is : $-mv_x - (mv_x) = -2mv_x$.
- By the principle of conservation of momentum, the momentum imparted to the wall in the collision = 2mv_x.
- In a small time interval Δt, a molecule with x-component of velocity v_x will hit the wall if it is within the distance v_x Δt from the wall.
- That is, all molecules within the volume $Av_x \Delta t$ only can hit the wall in time Δt .
- But, on the average, half of these are moving towards the wall and the other half away from the wall.
- Thus the number of molecules with velocity (v_x , v_y , v_z) hitting the wall in time Δt is $\frac{1}{2}A v_x \Delta t n$, where n is the number of molecules per unit volume.
- The total momentum transferred to the wall by these molecules in time Δt is : $Q = (2mv_x) (\frac{1}{2} n A v_x \Delta t)$
- The force on the wall is the rate of momentum transfer Q/Δt and pressure is force per unit area :

$$P = Q / (A \Delta t) = n m v_x^2$$

• The above equation therefore, stands for pressure due to the group of molecules with speed v_x in the x-direction and n stands for the number density of that group of molecules.

• The total pressure is obtained by summing over the contribution due to all groups:

$$P = n m \overline{v_x^2}$$

- Now the gas is isotropic, i.e. there is no preferred direction of velocity of the molecules in the vessel.
- Therefore, by symmetry,

$$\overline{v_x^2} = \overline{v_y^2} = \overline{v_z^2}$$
$$= (1/3) \left[\overline{v_x^2} + \overline{v_y^2} + \overline{v_z^2} \right] = (1/3) \overline{v^2}$$

• Thus

$$P = (1/3) \ n \ m \ \overline{v^2}$$

Kinetic Interpretation of Temperature

• We have

$$P = (1/3) \ n \ m \ \overline{v^2}$$

We may write

$$PV = (1/3) nVm v^2$$

$$PV = (2/3) N x^{1/2} m \overline{v^2}$$

- where N (= nV) is the number of molecules in the sample.
- The quantity in the bracket is the average translational kinetic energy of the molecules in the gas.
- Since the internal energy *E* of an ideal gas is purely kinetic,

$$E = N \times (1/2) \ m \ \overline{v^2}$$

• Thus

$$PV = (2/3) E$$

$$PV = k_{\rm B} NT$$
 or $P = k_{\rm B} nT$

$$E = (3/2) \ k_B NT$$

$$E/N = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 = (3/2) k_{\rm B}T$$

 Thus the average kinetic energy of a molecule is proportional to the absolute temperature of the gas; it is independent of pressure, volume or the nature of the ideal gas.

Pressure of a Mixture Of Non- reactive Gases

 For a mixture of non-reactive ideal gases,
 the total pressure gets contribution from each gas in the mixture. • Thus

 $P = (1/3) \left[n_1 m_1 \overline{v_1^2} + n_2 m_2 \overline{v_2^2} + \dots \right]$

- In equilibrium, the average kinetic energy of the molecules of different gases will be equal.
- That is,

$$\frac{1}{2} m_1 \overline{v_1^2} = \frac{1}{2} m_2 \overline{v_2^2} = (3/2) k_B T$$

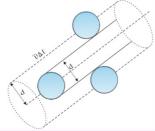
so that
 $P = (n_1 + n_2 + \dots) k_B T$

Mean free path

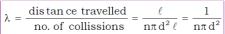
- Mean free path of a molecule in a gas is the average distance travelled by the molecule between two successive collissions.
- The mean free path, in gases, is of the order of thousands of angstroms.
- Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, ..., \lambda_n$ are the free paths travelled by the molecules in n successive collissions, then mean free path is give by

$$\lambda = \frac{\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 + \dots + \lambda_n}{n}$$

Equation for mean free path



- Assume that only one molecule is in motion and all other molecules are at rest.
- Let d be the diameter of each molecule.
- Suppose I is the distance travelled by the moving molecule.
- The moving molecule will make a collision with all those molecules whose centres lie inside a volume πd²l
- Thus the number of collisions = the number of molecules in the volume $\pi d^2 l = n \pi d^2 l$
- Where n is the number of molecules per unit volume.
- Now mean free path λ = distance travelled / number of collisions

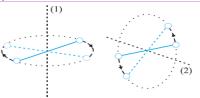


• A more exact treatment gives

$$\lambda = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} n \pi d^2}$$

DEGREES OF FREEDOM

- The total number of co-ordinates or independent quantities required to completely specify the position and configuration of a system is called the degrees of freedom of that system.
- A molecule has only one degree of freedom for motion in a line, two for motion in a plane and three for motion in space.



LAW OF EQUIPARTITION OF ENERGY

- The law of equipartition of energy states that, in equilibrium, the total energy of a molecule is equally distributed in all possible energy modes, with each mode having an average energy equal to ½ k_BT.
 - The kinetic energy of a single molecule is

$$\mathcal{E}_{t} = \frac{1}{2}mv_{x}^{2} + \frac{1}{2}mv_{y}^{2} + \frac{1}{2}mv_{z}^{2}$$

• For a gas in thermal equilibrium at temperature *T* the average value of energy is

$$\langle \mathcal{E}_t \rangle = \left\langle \frac{1}{2} m v_x^2 \right\rangle + \left\langle \frac{1}{2} m v_y^2 \right\rangle + \left\langle \frac{1}{2} m v_z^2 \right\rangle = \frac{3}{2} k_B T$$

• Since there is no preferred direction

$$\left\langle \frac{1}{2} m v_{x}^{2} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{2} k_{B} T$$

$$\left\langle \frac{1}{2} m v_{y}^{2} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{2} k_{B} T$$

$$\left\langle \frac{1}{2} m v_{z}^{2} \right\rangle = \frac{1}{2} k_{B} T$$

- Thus the average energy for translational, rotational and vibrational mode of motion is ½ k_BT
- Each translational and rotational degree of freedom of a molecule contributes ½ k_BT to the energy.

 Each vibrational frequency contributes 2 × ½ k_BT = k_BT, since a vibrational mode has both kinetic and potential energy modes.

SPECIFIC HEAT CAPACITY

Monatomic Gases

- The molecule of a monatomic gas has only three translational degrees of freedom. Thus, the average energy of a molecule at temperature *T* is $(3/2)k_BT$.
- The total internal energy of a mole of such a gas is

$$U = \frac{3}{2}k_B T N_A = \frac{3}{2}RT$$

- The molar specific heat at constant volume, C_{ν} , is $C_{\nu} = \frac{dU}{dT} = \frac{3}{2}R$
- For an ideal gas $C_p C_v = R$
- Thus

$$C_p = \frac{5}{2} R \qquad \frac{C_P}{C_v} = \frac{5}{3}$$

Diatomic Gases

- A diatomic molecule treated as a rigid rotator like a dumbbell has 5 degrees of freedom : 3 translational and 2 rotational.
- Using the law of equipartition of energy, the total internal energy of a mole of such a gas is $U = \frac{5}{2}k_BTN_A = \frac{5}{2}RT$
- The molar specific heats are then given by $C_{v} \text{ (rigid diatomic)} = \frac{5}{2}R, C_{p} = \frac{7}{2}R$ $\gamma \text{ (rigid diatomic)} = \frac{7}{5}$
- If the diatomic molecule is not rigid but has in addition a vibrational mode

$$U = \left(\frac{5}{2}k_{B}T + k_{B}T\right)N_{A} = \frac{7}{2}RT$$
$$C_{V} = \frac{7}{2}R, C_{P} = \frac{9}{2}R, \frac{C_{P}}{C_{V}} = \frac{9}{7}$$

Polyatomic Gases

- In general a polyatomic molecule has 3 translational, 3 rotational degrees of freedom and a certain number (*f*) of vibrational modes.
- According to the law of equipartition of energy, it is easily seen that one mole of such a gas has

$$U = (\frac{3}{2} k_{B}T + \frac{3}{2} k_{B}T + f k_{B}T) N_{A}$$

 $C_v = (3 + f) R, C_p = (4 + f) R,$

And
$$\gamma = \frac{4+}{3+}$$

Specific Heat Capacity of Solids

- Consider a solid of *N* atoms, each vibrating about its mean position.
- An oscillation in one dimension has average energy of $2 \times \frac{1}{2} k_B T = k_B T$
- In three dimensions, the average energy is 3 k_BT.
- For a mole of solid, $N = N_A$,
- The total energy is $U = 3 k_B T \times N_A = 3 RT$
- Now at constant pressure $\Delta Q = \Delta U + P\Delta V$ = ΔU , since for a solid ΔV is negligible.
 - Hence, $C = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta T} = \frac{\Delta U}{\Delta T} = 3R$

Specific Heat Capacity of Water

- We treat water like a solid. For each atom average energy is 3k_BT. Water molecule has three atoms, two hydrogen and one oxygen.
- So it has

$$U = 3 \times 3 \ k_B T \times N_A = 9 \ RT$$

and $C = \Delta Q / \Delta T = \Delta U / \Delta T = 9R$.

Inadequacy of classical physics

- The predicted specific heats are independent of temperature. As we go to low temperatures, however, there is a marked departure from this prediction.
- Specific heats of all substances approach zero as *T→ 0. This is related to the* fact that degrees of freedom get frozen and ineffective at low temperatures.
- According to classical physics degrees of freedom must remain unchanged at all times.
- The behaviour of specific heats at low temperatures shows the inadequacy of classical physics and can be explained only by invoking quantum considerations, as was first shown by Einstein.



Thus