

1. THE KINETIC MOLECULAR THEORY OF GASES

In your lower classes you have very well studied about the behaviour of gases. Some basic laws like Boyle's law, Charles's law - - - & very interestingly also the ideal gas equation.

At the time of their enunciation, the various gas laws were only empirical generalisations based on experimental observations. There was no theoretical background to justify them. In the nineteenth century, however, young classical Maxwell and Boltzmann developed a theory known as kinetic molecular theory of gases, which provide sound theoretical basis for the various gas laws. Essential aspects of this theory have been discussed below.

1.1 Postulates of Kinetic Molecular Theory

1. A gas consists of a large no. of minute particles, called molecules. The molecules are so small that their actual vol^m is a negligible fraction of the total vol^m (space) occupied by the gas.
2. The molecules are in a state of continuous rapid ~~balls~~ motion in all possible dir^s, colliding in a random manner with one another and with the walls of the vessel.
3. The molecules of a gas are hard rigid balls (point mass) so that their molecular collisions are perfectly elastic & there is no net loss of energy may be transferred from one molecule to another but it is not converted into any other form of energy such as heat.
4. There are no attractive forces amongst molecules & the walls of the vessel in which the gas is present. The molecules move ~~is~~ independently of one another. In fact, there are no intermolecular forces of attraction or repulsion amongst the molecules of a perfect (ideal gas).
5. The pressure of a gas is due to the bombardment of the molecules on the walls of the vessel containing the gas.

12 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE POSTULATES

The above postulates appear to be justified by experience as discussed below.

1. The first assumption that the vol^m of molecules themselves in a gas is a negligible fraction of the total vol^m occupied by the gas is borne out by the fact that in a gas like oxygen, hydrogen or nitrogen, at NTP. The vol^m occupied by the molecules themselves is only 0.014% of the total vol^m. The remaining 99.986% of the vol^m is merely an empty space.

Derivation

$$PV = \frac{1}{3} mNc^2$$

Let us consider a single molecule of the gas having velocity (v). The velocity v can be resolved into three mutually \perp components x, y, z . Let these components be v_x, v_y & v_z respectively. The compo. are related by the eq -



Let us consider the motion of the molecule along this x -axis. The change in momentum $mV_x - (-mV_x) = 2mV_x$ — (i)

$$\text{No of collision } s^{-1} = \frac{\text{velocity}}{\text{dist. travelled}} = \frac{v_x}{2l} \text{ (where } 2l \text{ is the dist. trav)} \text{ — (ii)}$$

momentum transferred s^{-1} to the face A is equal to

$$2mV_x \times \frac{v_x}{2l} = \frac{mV_x^2}{l} \text{ — (iii)}$$

$$\text{consequently total momentum transferred} = \frac{mV_x^2}{l} + \frac{mV_x^2}{l} = \frac{2mV_x^2}{l}$$

ii) The mom. transferred s^{-1} by a single molecule on all 6 faces of the cube will

$$2mV_x^2/l + 2mV_y^2/l + 2mV_z^2/l$$

$$= 2m/l [V_x^2 + V_y^2 + V_z^2] = 2mV^2/l \text{ — (iv)}$$

Let the individual velocities are $v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_N$.

Total mom. transferred to the walls by N molecules s^{-1}

$$= 2m/l [v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2 + \dots + v_N^2] \text{ — (v)}$$

multiplying the numerators & denominators by N , we have,

$$2mN/l [v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2 + \dots + v_N^2] \text{ — (vi)}$$

is equal to $\frac{2mNc^2}{l}$ where c is the rms velocity

But the total mom. transferred s^{-1} is equal to F

$$F = \frac{2mNc^2}{l}$$

but we have, pressure = $F/A = \frac{2mNc^2}{2 \cdot 6l^2}$ [$\because 6l^2$ is the area of the cube]

$$P = \frac{2mNc^2}{6l^3}$$

$$PV = \frac{1}{3} mNc^2 (l^3 = V)$$

proved

2 KINETIC ENERGY AND TEMPERATURE:

Suppose one mole of a gas is under consideration. The no. of molecules involved will then be N_A (The Avogadro's no). The kinetic gas eq. may be written as

$$PV = \frac{1}{3} m N_A c^2 = \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{1}{2} m N_A c^2 = \frac{2}{3} \times KE$$
 where KE is the translational KE of 1 mole of the gas and is the (average) KE of all the molecules. This energy is average because it has been obtained from the eq. $KE = \frac{1}{2} m N c^2$ where c represent an average (rms) velocity of all the molecules are considered as rigid perfectly elastic balls, they do not have any other motion else than translational (in the three dim). therefore this KE i.e. $\frac{1}{2} m N_A c^2$ is the translational energy of one mole of the gas which is simply written as E .

Average translational energy \bar{E} , $KE = \frac{1}{2} m N_A c^2 = E$ (say)

\therefore Eq. 1 becomes $PV = \frac{2}{3} E$

But $PV = RT$ (for an ideal gas)

$$RT = \frac{2}{3} E$$

$$E = KE = \frac{3}{2} RT \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Since R is a constant

$$E \propto T \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

i.e., Average translational KE of an ideal gas is proportional to its absolute temp. It may further be seen that this energy is independent of the nature, volm (or pressure) of the gas. It is just a function of absolute temp. This is a very important generalization arrived at by the application of KT of gas.

3 DERIVATION OF GAS LAWS

Boyle's law: volm of a given amount of a gas at constant temp is inversely proportional to its pressure i.e., $V \propto \frac{1}{P}$

We know, $PV = \frac{1}{3} m N c^2$

$$PV = \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{1}{2} m N c^2$$

$$PV = \frac{2}{3} KE \quad [\because KE = \frac{1}{2} m N c^2]$$

$$PV = \frac{2}{3} K'T \quad [\because KE \propto T, KE = K'T]$$

$PV = \text{constant}$

Thus Boyle's Law is verified

Charles's Law: Vol^m of a given amount of a gas at constant P is directly proportional to its absolute temp^r T . $V \propto T$

We know, $PV = \frac{1}{3} mNc^2$

$$PV = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{2} mNc^2$$

$$PV = \frac{2}{3} KE \quad [\because KE = \frac{1}{2} mNc^2]$$

$$PV = \frac{2}{3} K'T \quad [\begin{matrix} KE \propto T \\ KE = K'T \end{matrix}]$$

$$V = \frac{2}{3} \frac{K'T}{P}$$

$$V = \text{constant} \times T$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V}{T} = \text{constant}$$

Avogadro's Law: - Avogadro law is equal vol^m of all gases under the condition of temp^r and pressure contains equal no. of molecules

We know, $PV = \frac{1}{3} mNc^2$ for any two gases the kinetic eq. may be, $P_1V_1 = \frac{1}{3} m_1N_1c_1^2 = \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{1}{2} m_1N_1c_1^2$

$$\text{and } P_2V_2 = \frac{1}{3} m_2N_2c_2^2 = \frac{2}{3} \times \frac{1}{2} m_2N_2c_2^2$$

When P and V of two gases are the same i.e., when $P_1 = P_2$ and $V_1 = V_2$ it follows that $\frac{1}{2} m_1N_1c_1^2$

$$\frac{1}{2} m_1N_1c_1^2 = \frac{1}{2} m_2N_2c_2^2 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

If the two gases at the same temp^r, then their KE are also same $\frac{1}{2} m_1c_1^2 = \frac{1}{2} m_2c_2^2 \quad \text{--- (2)}$

Dividing KE are also same $\frac{1}{2} m_1c_1^2 = \frac{1}{2} m_2c_2^2$

Dividing eq (1) and (2) we get, $N_1 = N_2$

Graham's law of diffusion: - It states that the rate of diffusion by two gases under identical condition of temp^r and pressure are inversely proportional to the

square root of densities.

$$PV = \frac{1}{3} mNc^2$$

$$c^2 = \frac{3PV}{mN} \quad [\because mN = M]$$

$$c = \sqrt{\frac{3PV}{M}}$$

$$c = \sqrt{\frac{3P}{\rho}} \quad [\because \rho = \frac{M}{V}]$$

$$c = \sqrt{\frac{3P}{\rho}}$$

Now, rate of diffusion of a gas depends upon the velocity u , $r \propto c$

So, we can write

$$r = \sqrt{\frac{3P}{\rho}}$$

$$\frac{r_1}{r_2} = \sqrt{\frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1}}$$

Dalton's law of Partial Pressure: - The total pressure exerted by a mixture of gases is equal to $P = P_1 + P_2 + \dots$

Dalton's law of partial pressure is, "when in a vessel two or more non-reactive gases are present the total pressure of the gases is equal to sum of their partial pressures which each gas exerts present alone."

We know, $PV = \frac{1}{3} mNc^2$

Let us suppose 'N' molecules each of mass 'm' of gas 1 are contained in a vessel of volume 'V'. Then the pressure P_1 is given by

$$P_1 = \frac{m_1 N_1 c_1^2}{3V}$$

Similarly, $P_2 = \frac{m_2 N_2 c_2^2}{3V}$, where c_1 & c_2 are rms velocities

of the molecules 1 & 2 respectively.

If both the gases are present in the same vessel in same time the total pressure P' will be

given by

$$P_T = \frac{m_1 n_1 c_1^2}{3V} + \frac{m_2 n_2 c_2^2}{3V}$$

$$P_1 = \frac{m_1 n_1 c_1^2}{3V} + \frac{m_2 n_2 c_2^2}{3V}$$

$$P_T = P_1 + P_2$$

IDEAL AND REAL GASES

Any gas, hypothetical or real, which obeys the ideal gas eq $PV = nRT$ under all conditions of temp^r and pressure is called an ideal gas. The real gases like H_2 , N_2 , O_2 , CO_2 , SO_2 , NH_3 and even the so-called noble gases like He & Ar.

A real gas is one which obeys the gas eq approximately and too under conditions of low pressure and high temp^r.

All gases are real gases. The higher the pressure and the lower the temp^r, the greater are the deviations from the ideal behaviour. In general, the most easily liquefiable and highly soluble gases show higher larger deviations. Thus, gases like CO_2 , sulphur dioxide & NH_3 show much larger deviations than hydrogen, oxygen, H_2 etc.

Q:- Difference betⁿ ideal & real gases.

Ans: Ideal gas

Real gas

1) It obeys ideal gas eq $PV = nRT$ at all temp^r & pressure.

1) It obeys the eq $PV = nRT$ only approximately & that too under conditions of low pressure & high temp^r.

2) The concept of ideal gas is hypothetical.

2) All the gases which exist are easily liquefiable show real gases.

3) Gases like H_2 , N_2 , O_2 etc which do not liquefy easily show nearly ideal behaviour.

3) Gases like CO_2 , SO_2 , NH_3 etc which are easily liquefiable show large deviations from ideal behaviour.

4) There is intermolecular force betⁿ the molecules.

4) There is intermolecular force of attraction or repulsion depending on whether intermolecular separation is larger or smaller.

5) The vol^m of gas molecules is considered to be negligible as compared to the total vol^m of the gas.

5) The vol^m of gas molecules cannot be neglected as compared to the total vol^m of the gas especially at low temp^r and high pressure.

Deviation of Real gases from ideal behaviour and compressibility factor :-

Real gases show small to appreciable deviations from ideal gas eq. $PV = nRT$. The higher the pressure and the lower the temp, the greater are the deviations from the ideal behaviour. In general the easily liquefiable and highly soluble gases show higher (larger) deviations. Thus, gases like CO_2 , SO_2 & NH_3 show much larger deviations than hydrogen, O_2 , N_2 .

The deviations from ideal behaviour than H_2 , O_2 , N_2 are best represented in terms of the compressibility factor Z which is defined as :-

$$Z = \frac{PV}{(PV)_{ideal}} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

When V is the volm actually occupied by n moles of the gas at pressure P & temp T .

The equality $\frac{PV}{nRT}$ may be written as :- $= \frac{P}{RT} \frac{V}{n} = \frac{PV_m}{RT}$ --- (2)

where $V_m (= V/n)$ is the molar volm, i.e., the volm actually occupied by one mole of the gas.

For a gas behaving ideally, the product of its pressure P and molar volm V_m is equal to the PV as predicted by the ideal gas eq.

$PV_m = (PV)_{ideal}$ so that $Z = 1$ under all conditions of temp & pressure. The deviation of Z from unity is, thus, a measure of the imperfection of the gas under consideration.

The van der Waals equation of state -

In 1873, van der Waals proposed his famous eqⁿ of state for a non-ideal (real gas) i.e., an imperfect gas. He modified the ideal gas eq by suggesting that :-

- (i) The gas molecules are not point masses but behave like rigid spheres having a certain finite diameter.
- (ii) There exist intermolecular forces of attraction betⁿ the gas molecules.

The two correction terms introduced by van der Waals are described below:

Correction due to volm of gas molecules

The ideal gas eq. $PV = nRT$ is derived on the assumption that the gas molecules are point masses i.e., they do not have finite volm. Van der Waals abandoned this assumption and suggested that the gas molecules do have some volm and correspondingly

is correction term which should be subtracted from the total volume V to get the ideal volume, i.e., volume which is freely available. In order to understand the meaning of the correction term nb -

Let us consider two gas molecules as impenetrable and incompressible spheres, each of which has a diameter d , as shown in fig. It is evident that the centers of the two spheres cannot approach each other more closely than the distance d . For this pair of molecules, therefore, a sphere of radius $d/2$ inside of volume $\frac{4}{3}\pi d^3/8$, constitutes what is known as the excluded volume.

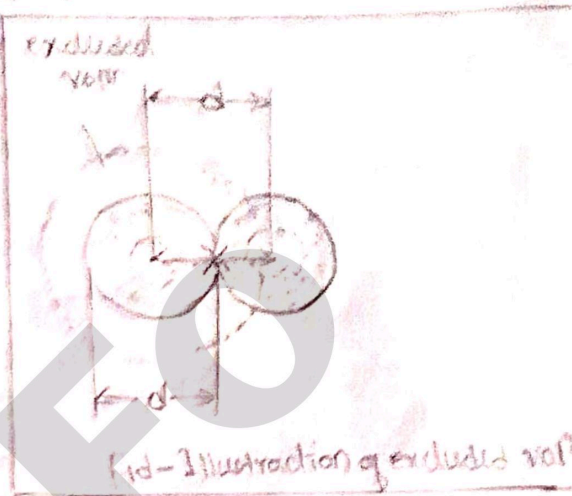


Fig - Illustration of excluded vol

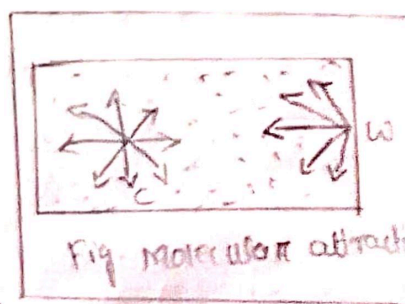
The excluded volume per mole of the gas would be $N_A \times 4 \times \frac{4}{3}\pi \frac{d^3}{8}$ where, N_A is the Avogadro's no. The compressible volume per mole of the gas would thus be $v - b$. If volume v of the gas contains n moles, then the excluded volume would be nb . Hence, the ideal volume which is compressible would be $v - nb$. The excluded volume b , per mole of a gas is also known as its co-volume. Thus, corrected volume per mole of a gas is given as -

$$= V_m - b \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

where V_m is the volume occupied by one mole of a gas.

Correction due to intermolecular forces of attraction

In the derivation of the ideal gas eq. it was assumed that there are no intermolecular forces of attraction. Actually, it is not so. In order to take into account the effect of intermolecular forces of attraction, let us consider a molecule lying somewhere in the middle of the vessel, as shown in fig. As seen in fig., it is being attracted uniformly on all the sides by its neighbouring molecules.



These forces neutralize one another and there is no net resultant attractive force acting on the molecule. However, as the molecule approaches the wall of the vessel, as shown at w , it experiences attractive forces from the bulk of the molecules which are only behind it. Hence, it will strike the wall with a lower velocity and will thus exert a lower pressure than it would have done if there were no forces of attraction. It is, therefore, necessary to

add a higher pressure than it could have done if there was no force of attraction. It is, therefore, necessary to add a certain correction factor, p_c , to the pressure of the gas in order to get the ideal pressure. The correct pressure, therefore, should be $P + p_c$ where p_c is the correction for pressure.

Thus the total inward attractive pull on the molecules, which accounts for the correction pressure p_c , is proportional to the square of the density (ρ) of the gas,

$$p_c \propto \rho^2 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

But density is inversely proportional to v_m and if v_m is the volume occupied by one mole of a gas the value of p_c for one mole of a gas will be inversely proportional to the square of the volume. Hence,

$$p_c \propto \frac{1}{v_m^2} = \frac{a}{v_m^2} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

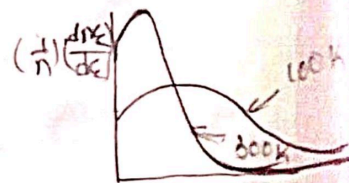
where a is a constant depending upon the nature of the gas.

Types of Molecular velocities

Three types of molecular velocities are reckoned with in the study of gases. These are -

- (i) The most probable velocity (α or c_p)
- (ii) The average velocity (v or \bar{c} or $\langle c \rangle$)
- (iii) The root mean square velocity (c or $\langle c^2 \rangle^{1/2}$)

(i) The most probable velocity (α or c_p) is defined as the velocity possessed by maximum number of molecules of a gas at a given temperature and corresponds to the peak of the distribution curve, in fig.



The average velocity (v or \bar{c} or $\langle c \rangle$) is given by the arithmetic mean of different velocities possessed by the molecules and n is their total number, then, average velocity is given by -

$$v \text{ or } \bar{c} = \frac{.c_1 + c_2 + c_3 + \dots + c_n}{n}$$

If, however c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots are the velocities possessed by groups n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots molecules of the gas, respectively, then, average velocity is given by -

$$v \text{ or } \vec{c} = \frac{n_1 c_1 + n_2 c_2 + n_3 c_3 + \dots}{n_1 + n_2 + n_3 + \dots}$$

The root mean square velocity (c) is defined as the square root of the mean of the squares of different velocities possessed by the molecules of a gas at a given temp. Evidently the root mean square velocity would be given by,

$$\langle c^2 \rangle^{1/2} \equiv c = \left[\frac{c_1^2 + c_2^2 + c_3^2 + \dots + c_n^2}{n} \right]^{1/2}$$

where $c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots, c_n$ are the individual velocities of n molecules of the gas, Alternatively,

$$c = \left[\frac{n_1 c_1^2 + n_2 c_2^2 + n_3 c_3^2 + \dots}{n_1 + n_2 + n_3 + \dots} \right]^{1/2}$$

where c_1, c_2, c_3, \dots are velocities possessed by groups of n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots molecules, respectively.

With the help of the Maxwell (eqn 2 sec. 11) it is possible to derive mathematical expressions for the three types of velocity - c_x , v_{mp} , v_{rms} , the most probable velocity, α ; the average velocity, v and the root mean square velocity c . These expressions are as follows:

$$\alpha \text{ or } c_p = (2RT/M)^{1/2}$$

$$v \text{ or } \bar{c} = (8RT/\pi M)^{1/2}$$

$$c = (3RT/M)^{1/2}$$

Collision Parameters

* Collision Diameter

The kinetic theory of gases treats molecules as point-masses. When two such molecules approach each other, a point is reached at which the mutual repulsion betⁿ the molecules (resulting from electronic and nuclear repulsions) become so strong that it causes reversal of the direction of their motion.

The distance betⁿ the centres of the two molecules at the point of their closest approach is known as coll diameter.

It is denoted by d as shown in fig.

It can be easily visualized that if the distance betⁿ the centres of two molecules is less than d , there would be a coll betⁿ them.



Diagram illustrating the collision diameter (d) as the distance between the centers of two molecules at the point of their closest approach.

collision number:—

The number of molecules with which a given molecule in a given sample of gas are collides in one second is called collision number.

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