Thermodynamics (Chapters 18-21)

Temperature and Kinetic Gas Theory (Chapter 18)

The temperature of an object is a measure of its average internal molecular kinetic energy. A consistent temperature scale can be defined in terms of properties of gases at low densities.

Thermal Equilibrium and Temperature:

Our sense of touch tells us if an object is hot or cold. A physical property that changes with temperature is called thermometric property.

If we place a warm and a cold object into thermal contact, the cold object warms and the warm object cools. Eventually, this process stops and the two objects are said to be in thermal equilibrium and the two objects are then defined to have the same temperature.

The zeroth law of thermodynamics:

If two objects are in thermal equilibrium with a third, then they are also in thermal equilibrium with one another.



The Celsius and the Fahrenheit Temperature Scales:

Any thermometric property can be used to establish a temperature scale. The common mercury thermometer consists of a glass bulb and tube containing a fixed amount of mercury. When the thermometer is put in contact with a warmer body, the mercury expands, increasing the length of the mercury column (the glass expands by a negligible amount).

The ice point temperature or normal freezing point of water is the freezing point of water at a pressure of 1 atm. The steam-point temperature or normal boiling point of water is the the boiling point of water at a pressure of 1 atm.

Units of pressure: Pascal (Pa): $1\,\mathrm{Pa} = 1\,\mathrm{N/m^2}$, atmosphere (atm): $1\,\mathrm{atm} = 101.325\,\mathrm{kPa} = 14.70\,\mathrm{lb/in^2}$, millimeters of mercury (mmHg) in a Utube barometer (Figure 13-8 of Tipler), a unit called torr: $1\,\mathrm{atm} = 760\,\mathrm{mmHg}$.

The Celsius temperature scale defines the ice-point temperature as zero degree Celsius, 0° C, and the steampoint temperature as 100° C. The space between 0° C and 100° C marks is divided into one hundred equal intervals (degrees) on the mercury scale.



Degree markings are extended below and above these points by the equation

$$t_{\rm C} = \frac{L_t - L_0}{L_{100} - L_0} \times 100^{\circ} {\rm C}$$

where $t_{\rm C}$ is the temperature on the Celsius scale and L_t the length of the mercury column at the temperature indicated by the subscript.

The Fahrenheit temperature scale defines the ice-point as 32° F and the steam-point as 212° F.

$$t_{\rm C} = \frac{100}{212 - 32} (t_{\rm F} \, {\rm C/F} - 32^{\circ} {\rm C}) = \frac{5}{9} (t_{\rm F} \, {\rm C/F} - 32^{\circ} {\rm C}) \ .$$

Originally Fahrenheit design his scale so that $0^{\circ}F$ was the coldest temperature he could create in his laboratory and $96^{\circ}F$ for the temperature of the human body. The upper scale was later slighty modified.



Gas Thermometers and the Absolute Temperature

When different thermometers are calibrated at the ice-point and steam-point temperatures, they give slightly different readings at the points between. Discrepancies increase markedly above and below this range. Exceptions are the constant-volume gas thermometers, for which the measured temperatures agree closely even far from the calibration points. In these thermometers the volume is kept constant and the change in gas pressure is used to measure the temperature (Figure 18-3 of Tipler). For the Celsius scale:

$$t_{\rm C} = \frac{P_t - P_0}{P_{100} - P_0} \times 100^{\circ} {\rm C} .$$

The agreement between different gas thermometers is best at low gas densities.

Figure 18-6 of Tipler shows a plot of measured temperature versus pressure for a constant-volume gas thermometer at very low density. When we extrapolate the straight line towards zero pressure, the temperature approaches the absolute zero at

$$T_0 = -273.15^{\circ} \text{C}$$
.



A reference point that is more precisely reproducible than either the ice or the steam points is the triple point of water. This is the unique temperature and pressure at which water, water vapor and ice coexist in equilibrium, namely at 0.01°C and $P_3 = 4.58\,\text{mmHg}$. The Kelvin or ideal gas temperature scale is defined so that the triple point is at $273.16\,\text{K}$ and the absolute zero temperature is at $0\,\text{K}$:

$$T = \frac{273.16 \, K}{P_3} P$$

where P is the observed pressure of the gas thermometer. The lowest temperature that can be measured with a gas thermometer is about $1\,\mathrm{K}$, and requires helium for the gas. Below this temperature helium liquefies and all other gases liquefy at higher temperatures. Later, we will see that the second law of thermodynamics can be used to define the absolute temperature scale without reference to the properties of a particular substance. Temperatures as low at $10^{-6}\mathrm{K}$ have been measured this way. To convert from Celsius to Kelvin one merely adjust the absolute zero temperature:

$$T = t_{\rm C} \, {\rm K/C} + 273.15 \, {\rm K}$$
.

In the following we use the absolute (Kelvin) temperature scale, which is most convenient for scientific purposes.



The Ideal-Gas Law

Experimental results by Robert Boyle (1627-1691), Jacques Charles (1746-1823) and Gay-Lussac (1778-1850) for a fixed amount of gas combine to the equation

$$PV = CT$$

where P is the pressure, V is the volume, T is the absolute temperature and C is a proportionality constant. We see that C is proportional to the volume by doubling the amount of gas, while holding the pressure and temperature constant. Therefore, we write C = k N, where k is a constant and N the number of molecules in the gas. Then, we have

$$PV = NkT$$
.

The constant k is called Boltzmann constant and found experimentally to be

$$k = 1.381 \times 10^{-23} \,\mathrm{J/K} = 8.617 \times 10^{-5} \,\mathrm{ev/K}$$



An amount of gas is often expressed in moles. A mole (mol) is the amount of a substance that contains Avogadro's number N_A of molecule, defined as the number of carbon atoms in $12 \,\mathrm{g}$ of ^{12}C :

$$N_A = 6.022 \times 10^{23}$$
.

If we have n moles of a substance, the number of molecules is then $N=n\,N_A$. The constant

$$R = N_A k = 8.314 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K} = 0.08206 \text{ L} \cdot \text{atm/mol} \cdot \text{K}$$

is called universal gas constant. The pressure, volume, and temperature of an ideal gas are related by

$$PV = n N_A kT = n RT.$$

The variables P, V, and T describe the macroscopic state of a gas. The microscopic state would be described by giving the position and velocity of each molecule of the gas. An equation which relates the macroscopic state variables is called an equation of state. At higher densities corrections must be made to the ideal gas law. The van der Waals equation, discussed in Chapter 21 of Tipler, includes such corrections.



The temperature of 0°C (273 K) and the pressure of 1 atm are often referred to as standard conditions. Under standard conditions 1 mol of and ideal gas occupies a volume of $22.4\,\text{L}$.

Figure 18-8 of Tipler shows plots of P versus V for several constant temperatures. These curves are called isotherms. For a fixed amount of gas we have

$$\frac{P_2 V_2}{T_2} = \frac{P_1 V_1}{T_1} = n R$$

where the subscripts label two different macroscopic states.

