**Kinetic-molecular model of an ideal gas:** In an ideal gas, the total translational kinetic energy of the gas as a whole (K_{tr}) and the average translational kinetic energy per molecule $\left[\frac{1}{2}m(v^2)_{av}\right]$ are proportional to the absolute temperature T, and the root-mean-square speed of molecules is proportional to the square root of T. These expressions involve the Boltzmann constant $k = R/N_A$. (See Examples 18.6 and 18.7.) The mean free path λ of molecules in an ideal gas depends on the number of molecules per volume (N/V) and the molecular radius r. (See Example 18.8.)

$$K_{tr} = \tfrac{3}{2}nRT \tag{18.14}$$

$$\tfrac{1}{2}m(v^2)_{av} = \tfrac{3}{2}kT \tag{18.16}$$

$$v_{rms} = \sqrt{(v^2)_{av}} = \sqrt{\frac{3kT}{m}} \tag{18.19}$$

$$\lambda = vt_{mean} = \frac{V}{4\pi\sqrt{2}\,r^2 N} \tag{18.21}$$
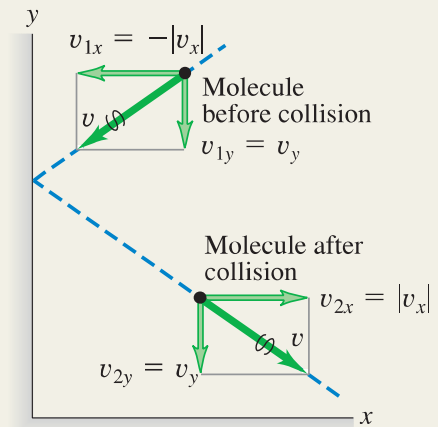
Heat capacities: The molar heat capacity at constant volume C_V is a simple multiple of the gas constant R for certain idealized cases: an ideal monatomic gas [Eq. (18.25)]; an ideal diatomic gas including rotational energy [Eq. (18.26)]; and an ideal monatomic solid [Eq. (18.28)]. Many real systems are approximated well by these idealizations.

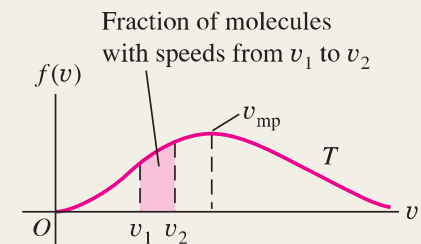$$C_V = \tfrac{3}{2}R \quad \text{(monatomic gas)} \tag{18.25}$$

$$C_V = \tfrac{5}{2}R \quad \text{(diatomic gas)} \tag{18.26}$$

$$C_V = 3R \quad \text{(monatomic solid)} \tag{18.28}$$
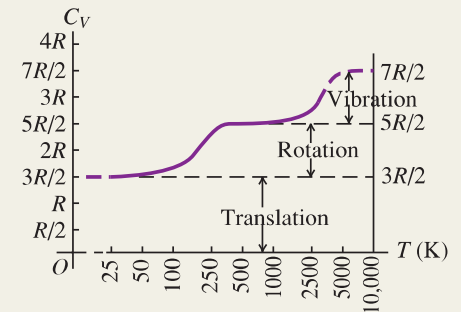
Molecular speeds: The speeds of molecules in an ideal gas are distributed according to the Maxwell–Boltzmann distribution $f(v)$. The quantity $f(v)\,dv$ describes what fraction of the molecules have speeds between v and $v + dv$.

$$f(v) = 4\pi\left(\frac{m}{2\pi kT}\right)^{3/2} v^2 e^{-mv^2/2kT} \tag{18.32}$$

3. A sample of ideal gas expands from an initial pressure and volume of 32 atm and 1.0 L to a final volume of 4.0 L. The initial temperature of the gas is 300 K. What are the final pressure and temperature of the gas and how much work is done by the gas during the expansion, if the expansion is (a) isothermal, (b) adiabatic and the gas is monatomic, and (c) adiabatic and the gas is diatomic?

(a) Using the ideal gas law for isothermal expansion,
$pV = \text{constant}$.
Final pressure

$$= 32 \times \frac{1}{4} = 8 \,\text{atm. (answer)}$$

Final temperature = 300 K (answer)
Work done by the gas

$$= nRT \ln \frac{V_f}{V_i} = p_i V_i \ln \frac{V_f}{V_i} = 32 \times 1.013 \times 10^5 \times 10^{-3} \ln 4 = 4{,}494 \,\text{J. (answer)}$$

(b) For monatomic gases, $C_V = 3R/2$, $C_P = 5R/2$, $\gamma = C_P/C_V = 5/3$.
$pV^\gamma = \text{constant}$.
Final pressure

$$= 32 \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{5/3} = 3.1748 \approx 3.17 \,\text{atm. (answer)}$$

Since $TV^{\gamma-1} = \text{constant}$,
final temperature

$$= 300 \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{5/3-1} = 119 \,\text{K. (answer)}$$

Work done by the gas

$$= \int_{V_i}^{V_f} p\,dV = \int_{V_i}^{V_f} \frac{p_i V_i^\gamma}{V^\gamma} \,dV = -\frac{p_i V_i^\gamma}{(\gamma-1)V^{\gamma-1}}\bigg|_{V_i}^{V_f} = \frac{p_i V_i - p_f V_f}{\gamma-1}$$

$$= \frac{32 \times 1.013 \times 10^5 \times 10^{-3} - 3.1748 \times 1.013 \times 10^5 \times 4 \times 10^{-3}}{5/3-1} = 2{,}933 \,\text{J. (answer)}$$

(c) For diatomic gases, $C_V = 5R/2$, $C_P = 7R/2$, $\gamma = C_P/C_V = 7/5$.
Final pressure

$$= 32 \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{7/5} = 4.5948 \approx 4.59 \,\text{atm. (answer)}$$

Final temperature

$$= 300 \left(\frac{1}{4}\right)^{7/5-1} = 284 \,\text{K. (answer)}$$

Work done by the gas

$$= \frac{32 \times 1.013 \times 10^5 \times 10^{-3} - 4.5948 \times 1.013 \times 10^5 \times 4 \times 10^{-3}}{7/5-1} = 3{,}449 \,\text{J. (answer)}$$

4. One mole of an ideal monatomic gas traverses the cycle shown in Fig. 3. Process $1 \rightarrow 2$ takes place at constant volume, process $2 \rightarrow 3$ is adiabatic, and process $3 \rightarrow 1$ takes place at constant pressure. (a) Compute the heat Q, the change in internal energy ΔE_{int}, and the work done W, for each of the three processes and for the cycle as a whole. (b) If the initial pressure at point 1 is 1.00 atm, find the pressure and the volume at points 2 and 3. Use 1.00 atm = 1.013×10^5 Pa and $R = 8.314$ J/mol·K.
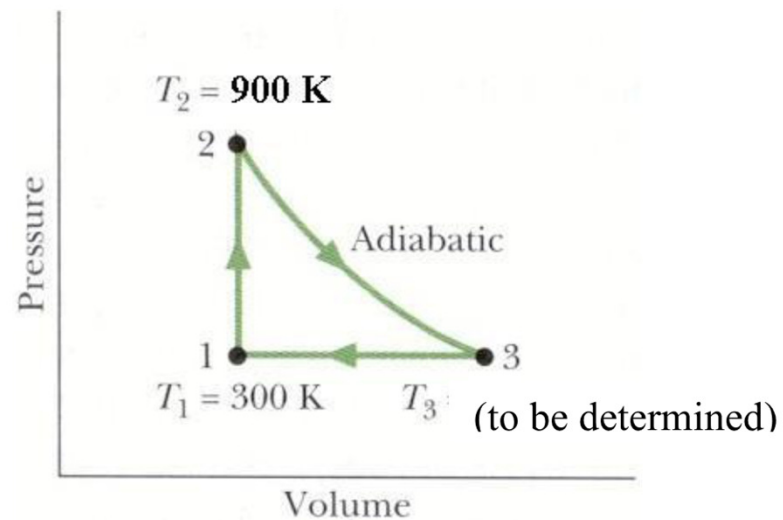

Fig. 3

Suppose at point 1, the pressure, volume and temperature are p_1, V_1 and T_1 respectively.

Then at point 2, the pressure, volume and temperature are $p_1 T_2/T_1$, V_1 and T_2 respectively.

Similarly, at point 3, the pressure, volume and temperature are p_1, $V_1 T_3/T_1$ and T_3 respectively.

Since process 2 → 3 is adiabatic, we have

$T_2 V_1^{\gamma-1} = T_3 (V_1 T_3/T_1)^{\gamma-1} \Rightarrow T_2/T_1 = (T_3/T_1)^{\gamma}$.

For monatomic gases, $C_V = 3R/2$, $C_P = 5R/2$, $\gamma = C_P/C_V = 5/3$.

Therefore, $T_3 = T_1(T_2/T_1)^{1/\gamma} = 300(900/300)^{3/5} = 580.0$ K.

Process 1 → 2:

$W = 0$, $Q = \Delta E_{int} = n\, C_V\, \Delta T = 1 \times 1.5 \times 8.314(900 - 300) = 7{,}483$ J. (answers)

Process 2 → 3:

$Q = 0$,

$$W = \frac{p_i V_i - p_f V_f}{\gamma - 1} = \frac{nRT_i - nRT_f}{\gamma - 1} = \frac{1 \times 8.314(900 - 580)}{5/3 - 1} = 3{,}991\,\text{J},$$

(see the solution to Problem 3 for derivation of this formula)

$\Delta E_{int} = -W = -3{,}991$ J. (answers)

Process 3 → 1:

$Q = n\, C_P\, \Delta T = 1 \times 2.5 \times 8.314(300 - 580) = -5{,}820$ J.

$W = p_i(V_f - V_i) = nR(T_f - T_i) = 1 \times 8.314(300 - 580) = -2{,}328$ J.

$\Delta E_{int} = Q - W = -3{,}492$ J. (answers)

The cycle:

$Q = 7{,}483 + 0 - 5{,}820 = 1{,}663$ J.

$\Delta E_{int} = 7{,}483 - 3{,}991 - 3{,}492 = 0$ J.

$W = 0 + 3{,}991 - 2{,}328 = 1{,}663$ J. (answers)

5. An insulated cylinder with a piston contains 4 g of helium and 16 g of oxygen, as shown in Fig. 4. The temperature is 0°C and the pressure is 10^5 Pa. If the piston is pressed to make the pressure increase to 2×10^5 Pa, find the temperature and the volume of the gases in the cylinder.

Helium: $C_{Vh} = 12.3$ J/mol·K, $C_{Ph} = 20.5$ J/mol·K
Oxygen: $C_{VO} = 20.5$ J/mol·K, $C_{PO} = 28.7$ J/mol·K
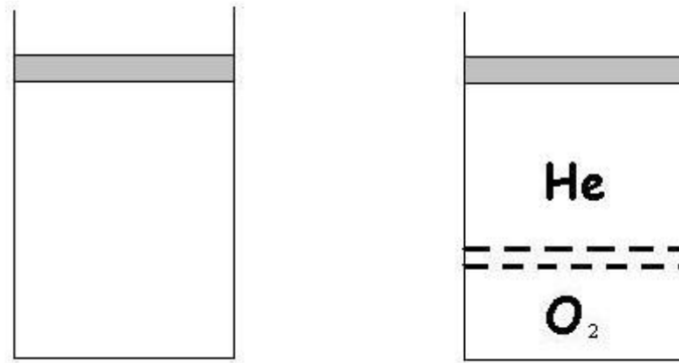

Fig. 4

There are 1 mol of helium and 0.5 mol of oxygen. Hence the average molar specific heat at constant volume is

$$\frac{2}{3} \times 12.3 + \frac{1}{3} \times 20.5 = 15.033 \text{ J mol}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1},$$

and the average molar specific heat at constant pressure is

$$\frac{2}{3} \times 20.5 + \frac{1}{3} \times 28.7 = 28.233 \text{ J mol}^{-1}\text{K}^{-1}.$$

Hence the average specific heat ratio is $\gamma = 28.233/15.033 = 1.5455$.

For adiabatic expansion of the ideal gas mixture, we have $pV^{\gamma} = $ constant and $TV^{\gamma-1} = $ constant, where γ is the average specific heat ratio. To see that this is the case, please refer to the lecture notes on the derivation of the adiabatic gas law. There you should use the average molar specific heat at constant volume and constant pressure in place of C_V and C_P respectively.

Initial volume

$$= \frac{nRT}{p} = \frac{1.5 \times 8.314 \times 273}{10^5} = 0.03405 \text{ m}^3 = 34.05 \text{ L}.$$

Final volume

$$= V_i \left(\frac{p_i}{p_f} \right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} = 34.05 \left(\frac{1}{2} \right)^{\frac{1}{1.5455}} = 21.74 \text{ L. (answer)}$$

Final temperature

$$= T_i \left(\frac{V_f}{V_i} \right) \left(\frac{p_f}{p_i} \right) = 273 \left(\frac{21.74}{34.05} \right) \left(\frac{2}{1} \right) = 349 \text{ K. (answer)}$$

18.24 •• Modern vacuum pumps make it easy to attain pressures of the order of 10^{-13} atm in the laboratory. Consider a volume of air and treat the air as an ideal gas. (a) At a pressure of 9.00×10^{-14} atm and an ordinary temperature of 300.0 K, how many molecules are present in a volume of 1.00 cm^3? (b) How many molecules would be present at the same temperature but at 1.00 atm instead?

18.25 •• The Lagoon Nebula (Fig. E18.25) is a cloud of hydrogen gas located 3900 light-years from the earth. The cloud is about 45 light-years in diameter and glows because of its high temperature of 7500 K. (The gas is raised to this temperature by the stars that lie within the nebula.) The cloud is also very thin; there are only 80 molecules per cubic centimeter. (a) Find the gas pressure (in atmospheres) in the Lagoon Nebula. Compare it to the laboratory pressure referred to in Exercise 18.24. (b) Science-fiction films sometimes show starships being buffeted by turbulence as they fly through gas clouds such as the Lagoon Nebula. Does this seem realistic? Why or why not?

Figure **E18.25**

18.24. **IDENTIFY:** Use $pV = nRT$ to calculate the number of moles and then the number of molecules would be $N = nN_A$.

SET UP: $1 \text{ atm} = 1.013 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}$. $1.00 \text{ cm}^3 = 1.00 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3$. $N_A = 6.022 \times 10^{23}$ molecules/mol.

EXECUTE: **(a)** $n = \dfrac{pV}{RT} = \dfrac{(9.00 \times 10^{-14} \text{ atm})(1.013 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa/atm})(1.00 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3)}{(8.314 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K})(300.0 \text{ K})} = 3.655 \times 10^{-18} \text{ mol}.$

$N = nN_A = (3.655 \times 10^{-18} \text{ mol})(6.022 \times 10^{23} \text{ molecules/mol}) = 2.20 \times 10^6 \text{ molecules}.$

(b) $N = \dfrac{pVN_A}{RT}$ so $\dfrac{N}{p} = \dfrac{VN_A}{RT} = \text{constant}$ and $\dfrac{N_1}{p_1} = \dfrac{N_2}{p_2}$.

$N_2 = N_1 \left(\dfrac{p_2}{p_1} \right) = (2.20 \times 10^6 \text{ molecules}) \left(\dfrac{1.00 \text{ atm}}{9.00 \times 10^{-14} \text{ atm}} \right) = 2.44 \times 10^{19} \text{ molecules}.$

EVALUATE: The number of molecules in a given volume is directly proportional to the pressure. Even at the very low pressure in part (a) the number of molecules in 1.00 cm^3 is very large.

18.25. **IDENTIFY:** We are asked about a single state of the system.

SET UP: Use the ideal-gas law. Write n in terms of the number of molecules N.

(a) EXECUTE: $pV = nRT$, $n = N/N_A$ so $pV = (N/N_A)RT$

$$p = \left(\frac{N}{V}\right)\left(\frac{R}{N_A}\right)T$$

$$p = \left(\frac{80 \text{ molecules}}{1\times10^{-6} \text{ m}^3}\right)\left(\frac{8.3145 \text{ J/mol}\cdot\text{K}}{6.022\times10^{23} \text{ molecules/mol}}\right)(7500 \text{ K}) = 8.28\times10^{-12} \text{ Pa}$$

$p = 8.2\times10^{-17}$ atm. This is much lower than the laboratory pressure of 9×10^{-14} atm in Exercise 18.24.

(b) EVALUATE: The Lagoon Nebula is a very rarefied low pressure gas. The gas would exert *very* little force on an object passing through it.

18.28 •• **How Close Together Are Gas Molecules?**   Consider an ideal gas at 27°C and 1.00 atm pressure. To get some idea how close these molecules are to each other, on the average, imagine them to be uniformly spaced, with each molecule at the center of a small cube. (a) What is the length of an edge of each cube if adjacent cubes touch but do not overlap? (b) How does this distance compare with the diameter of a typical molecule? (c) How does their separation compare with the spacing of atoms in solids, which typically are about 0.3 nm apart?

18.28. **IDENTIFY:** Use $pV = nRT$ and $n = \dfrac{N}{N_A}$ with $N = 1$ to calculate the volume V occupied by 1 molecule.

The length l of the side of the cube with volume V is given by $V = l^3$.

SET UP: $T = 27°C = 300$ K. $p = 1.00$ atm $= 1.013 \times 10^5$ Pa. $R = 8.314$ J/mol·K.

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

The diameter of a typical molecule is about 10^{-10} m. 0.3 nm $= 0.3 \times 10^{-9}$ m.

EXECUTE: **(a)** $pV = nRT$ and $n = \dfrac{N}{N_A}$ gives

$V = \dfrac{NRT}{N_A p} = \dfrac{(1.00)(8.314 \text{ J/mol·K})(300 \text{ K})}{(6.022 \times 10^{23} \text{ molecules/mol})(1.013 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa})} = 4.09 \times 10^{-26} \text{ m}^3.$ $l = V^{1/3} = 3.45 \times 10^{-9}$ m.

(b) The distance in part (a) is about 10 times the diameter of a typical molecule.

(c) The spacing is about 10 times the spacing of atoms in solids.

EVALUATE: There is space between molecules in a gas whereas in a solid the atoms are closely packed together.

18.37 •• (a) Oxygen (O_2) has a molar mass of 32.0 g/mol. What is the average translational kinetic energy of an oxygen molecule at a temperature of 300 K? (b) What is the average value of the square of its speed? (c) What is the root-mean-square speed? (d) What is the momentum of an oxygen molecule traveling at this speed? (e) Suppose an oxygen molecule traveling at this speed bounces back and forth between opposite sides of a cubical vessel 0.10 m on a side. What is the average force the molecule exerts on one of the walls of the container? (Assume that the molecule's velocity is perpendicular to the two sides that it strikes.) (f) What is the average force per unit area? (g) How many oxygen molecules traveling at this speed are necessary to produce an average pressure of 1 atm? (h) Compute the number of oxygen molecules that are actually contained in a vessel of this size at 300 K and atmospheric pressure. (i) Your answer for part (h) should be three times as large as the answer for part (g). Where does this discrepancy arise?

18.37. **IDENTIFY and SET UP:** Apply the analysis of Section 18.3.

EXECUTE: **(a)** $\frac{1}{2}m(v^2)_{av} = \frac{3}{2}kT = \frac{3}{2}(1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/molecule} \cdot \text{K})(300 \text{ K}) = 6.21 \times 10^{-21}$ J

(b) We need the mass m of one molecule:

$$m = \frac{M}{N_A} = \frac{32.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/mol}}{6.022 \times 10^{23} \text{ molecules/mol}} = 5.314 \times 10^{-26} \text{ kg/molecule}$$

Then $\frac{1}{2}m(v^2)_{av} = 6.21 \times 10^{-21}$ J (from part (a)) gives

$$(v^2)_{av} = \frac{2(6.21 \times 10^{-21} \text{ J})}{m} = \frac{2(6.21 \times 10^{-21} \text{ J})}{5.314 \times 10^{-26} \text{ kg}} = 2.34 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2$$

(c) $v_{rms} = \sqrt{(v^2)_{rms}} = \sqrt{2.34 \times 10^4 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2} = 484$ m/s

(d) $p = mv_{rms} = (5.314 \times 10^{-26} \text{ kg})(484 \text{ m/s}) = 2.57 \times 10^{-23} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$

(e) Time between collisions with one wall is $t = \dfrac{0.20 \text{ m}}{v_{rms}} = \dfrac{0.20 \text{ m}}{484 \text{ m/s}} = 4.13 \times 10^{-4}$ s

In a collision $\vec{v}$ changes direction, so $\Delta p = 2mv_{rms} = 2(2.57 \times 10^{-23} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}) = 5.14 \times 10^{-23} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}$

$$F = \frac{dp}{dt} \text{ so } F_{av} = \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t} = \frac{5.14 \times 10^{-23} \text{ kg} \cdot \text{m/s}}{4.13 \times 10^{-4} \text{ s}} = 1.24 \times 10^{-19} \text{ N}$$

(f) pressure $= F/A = 1.24 \times 10^{-19} \text{ N}/(0.10 \text{ m})^2 = 1.24 \times 10^{-17}$ Pa (due to one molecule)

(g) pressure $= 1$ atm $= 1.013 \times 10^5$ Pa

Number of molecules needed is 1.013×10^5 Pa$/(1.24 \times 10^{-17}$ Pa/molecule$) = 8.17 \times 10^{21}$ molecules

(h) $pV = NkT$ (Eq. 18.18), so $N = \dfrac{pV}{kT} = \dfrac{(1.013 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa})(0.10 \text{ m})^3}{(1.381 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/molecule} \cdot \text{K})(300 \text{ K})} = 2.45 \times 10^{22}$ molecules

(i) From the factor of $\frac{1}{3}$ in $(v_x^2)_{av} = \frac{1}{3}(v^2)_{av}$.

EVALUATE: This exercise shows that the pressure exerted by a gas arises from collisions of the molecules of the gas with the walls.

18.43 •• (a) Compute the specific heat at constant volume of nitrogen (N_2) gas, and compare it with the specific heat of liquid water. The molar mass of N_2 is 28.0 g/mol. (b) You warm 1.00 kg of water at a constant volume of 1.00 L from 20.0°C to 30.0°C in a kettle. For the same amount of heat, how many kilograms of 20.0°C air would you be able to warm to 30.0°C? What volume (in liters) would this air occupy at 20.0°C and a pressure of 1.00 atm? Make the simplifying assumption that air is 100% N_2.

18.43. **IDENTIFY:** $\tilde{C} = Mc,$ where C is the molar heat capacity and c is the specific heat capacity.

$$pV = nRT = \frac{m}{M}RT.$$

SET UP: $M_{N_2} = 2(14.007 \text{ g/mol}) = 28.014 \times 10^{-3}$ kg/mol. For water, $c_w = 4190$ J/kg·K. For N_2,

$C_V = 20.76$ J/mol·K.

EXECUTE: **(a)** $c_{N_2} = \frac{C}{M} = \frac{20.76 \text{ J/mol·K}}{28.014 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/mol}} = 741$ J/kg·K. $\frac{c_w}{c_{N_2}} = 5.65;$ c_w is over five time larger.

(b) To warm the water, $Q = mc_w\Delta T = (1.00 \text{ kg})(4190 \text{ J/mol·K})(10.0 \text{ K}) = 4.19 \times 10^4$ J. For air,

$$m = \frac{Q}{c_{N_2}\Delta T} = \frac{4.19 \times 10^4 \text{ J}}{(741 \text{ J/kg·K})(10.0 \text{ K})} = 5.65 \text{ kg}.$$

$$V = \frac{mRT}{Mp} = \frac{(5.65 \text{ kg})(8.314 \text{ J/mol·K})(293 \text{ K})}{(28.014 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/mol})(1.013 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa})} = 4.85 \text{ m}^3.$$

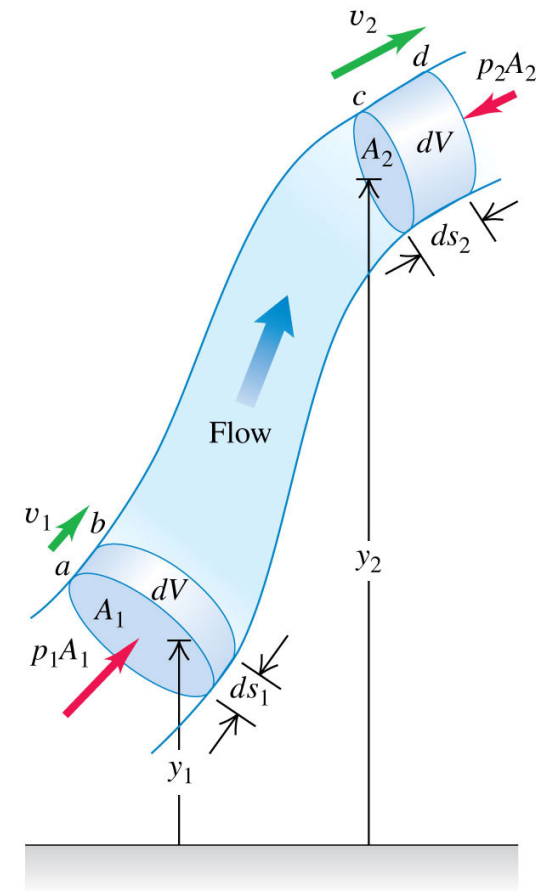**EVALUATE:** c is smaller for N_2, so less heat is needed for 1.0 kg of N_2 than for 1.0 kg of water.

Bernoulli's equation

- Bernoulli's equation is:

$$p_1 + \rho g y_1 + 1/2\ \rho v_1^2 = p_2 + \rho g y_2 + 1/2\ \rho v_2^2$$

- It is due to the fact that the work done on a unit volume of fluid by the surrounding fluid is equal to the sum of the changes in kinetic and potential energies per unit volume that occur during the flow.

18.57 ••• A cylinder 1.00 m tall with inside diameter 0.120 m is used to hold propane gas (molar mass 44.1 g/mol) for use in a barbecue. It is initially filled with gas until the gauge pressure is 1.30×10^6 Pa and the temperature is 22.0°C. The temperature of the gas remains constant as it is partially emptied out of the tank, until the gauge pressure is 2.50×10^5 Pa. Calculate the mass of propane that has been used.

18.65 •• **CP** A large tank of water has a hose connected to it, as shown in Fig. P18.65. The tank is sealed at the top and has compressed air between the water surface and the top. When the water height h has the value 3.50 m, the absolute pressure p of the compressed air is 4.20×10^5 Pa. Assume that the air

Figure **P18.65**

above the water expands at constant temperature, and take the atmospheric pressure to be 1.00×10^5 Pa. (a) What is the speed with which water flows out of the hose when $h = 3.50$ m? (b) As water flows out of the tank, h decreases. Calculate the speed of flow for $h = 3.00$ m and for $h = 2.00$ m. (c) At what value of h does the flow stop?
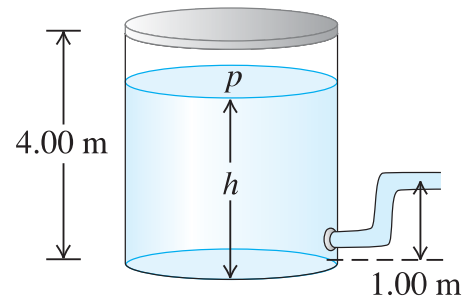
18.57. **IDENTIFY:** We are asked to compare two states. Use the ideal-gas law to obtain m_2 in terms of m_1 and the ratio of pressures in the two states. Apply Eq. (18.4) to the initial state to calculate m_1.

SET UP: $pV = nRT$ can be written $pV = (m/M)RT$

T, V, M, R are all constant, so $p/m = RT/MV = $ constant.

So $p_1/m_1 = p_2/m_2$, where m is the mass of the gas in the tank.

EXECUTE: $p_1 = 1.30 \times 10^6$ Pa $+ 1.01 \times 10^5$ Pa $= 1.40 \times 10^6$ Pa

$p_2 = 2.50 \times 10^5$ Pa $+ 1.01 \times 10^5$ Pa $= 3.51 \times 10^5$ Pa

$m_1 = p_1 VM/RT$; $V = hA = h\pi r^2 = (1.00 \text{ m})\pi(0.060 \text{ m})^2 = 0.01131 \text{ m}^3$

$$m_1 = \frac{(1.40 \times 10^6 \text{ Pa})(0.01131 \text{ m}^3)(44.1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/mol})}{(8.3145 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K})((22.0 + 273.15)\text{K})} = 0.2845 \text{ kg}$$

Then $m_2 = m_1 \left(\dfrac{p_2}{p_1} \right) = (0.2845 \text{ kg})\left(\dfrac{3.51 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}}{1.40 \times 10^6 \text{ Pa}} \right) = 0.0713 \text{ kg.}$

m_2 is the mass that remains in the tank. The mass that has been used is

$m_1 - m_2 = 0.2845 \text{ kg} - 0.0713 \text{ kg} = 0.213 \text{ kg.}$

EVALUATE: Note that we have to use absolute pressures. The absolute pressure decreases by a factor of four and the mass of gas in the tank decreases by a factor of four.

18.65. **IDENTIFY:** Apply Bernoulli's equation to relate the efflux speed of water out the hose to the height of water in the tank and the pressure of the air above the water in the tank. Use the ideal-gas equation to relate the volume of the air in the tank to the pressure of the air.
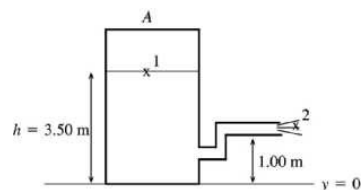
(a) SET UP: Points 1 and 2 are shown in Figure 18.65.

Figure 18.65

$p_1 = 4.20 \times 10^5$ Pa

$p_2 = p_{air} = 1.00 \times 10^5$ Pa

large tank implies $v_1 \approx 0$

EXECUTE: $p_1 + \rho g y_1 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_1^2 = p_2 + \rho g y_2 + \frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2$

$\frac{1}{2}\rho v_2^2 = p_1 - p_2 + \rho g(y_1 - y_2)$

$v_2 = \sqrt{(2/\rho)(p_1 - p_2) + 2g(y_1 - y_2)}$

$v_2 = 26.2$ m/s

(b) $h = 3.00$ m

The volume of the air in the tank increases so its pressure decreases. $pV = nRT = $ constant, so $pV = p_0 V_0$

(p_0 is the pressure for $h_0 = 3.50$ m and p is the pressure for $h = 3.00$ m)

$p(4.00\ \text{m} - h)A = p_0(4.00\ \text{m} - h_0)A$

$p = p_0\left(\dfrac{4.00\ \text{m} - h_0}{4.00\ \text{m} - h}\right) = (4.20 \times 10^5\ \text{Pa})\left(\dfrac{4.00\ \text{m} - 3.50\ \text{m}}{4.00\ \text{m} - 3.00\ \text{m}}\right) = 2.10 \times 10^5$ Pa

Repeat the calculation of part (a), but now $p_1 = 2.10 \times 10^5$ Pa and $y_1 = 3.00$ m.

$v_2 = \sqrt{(2/\rho)(p_1 - p_2) + 2g(y_1 - y_2)}$

$v_2 = 16.1$ m/s

$h = 2.00$ m

$p = p_0\left(\dfrac{4.00\ \text{m} - h_0}{4.00\ \text{m} - h}\right) = (4.20 \times 10^5\ \text{Pa})\left(\dfrac{4.00\ \text{m} - 3.50\ \text{m}}{4.00\ \text{m} - 2.00\ \text{m}}\right) = 1.05 \times 10^5$ Pa

$v_2 = \sqrt{(2/\rho)(p_1 - p_2) + 2g(y_1 - y_2)}$

$v_2 = 5.44$ m/s

(c) $v_2 = 0$ means $(2/\rho)(p_1 - p_2) + 2g(y_1 - y_2) = 0$

$p_1 - p_2 = -\rho g(y_1 - y_2)$

$y_1 - y_2 = h - 1.00$ m

$p = p_0\left(\dfrac{0.50\ \text{m}}{4.00\ \text{m} - h}\right) = (4.20 \times 10^5\ \text{Pa})\left(\dfrac{0.50\ \text{m}}{4.00\ \text{m} - h}\right)$. This is p_1, so

$(4.20 \times 10^5\ \text{Pa})\left(\dfrac{0.50\ \text{m}}{4.00\ \text{m} - h}\right) - 1.00 \times 10^5\ \text{Pa} = (9.80\ \text{m/s}^2)(1000\ \text{kg/m}^3)(1.00\ \text{m} - h)$

$(210/(4.00 - h)) - 100 = 9.80 - 9.80h$, with h in meters.

$210 = (4.00 - h)(109.8 - 9.80h)$

$9.80h^2 - 149h + 229.2 = 0$ and $h^2 - 15.20h + 23.39 = 0$

quadratic formula: $h = \frac{1}{2}\left(15.20 \pm \sqrt{(15.20)^2 - 4(23.39)}\right) = (7.60 \pm 5.86)$ m

h must be less than 4.00 m, so the only acceptable value is $h = 7.60\ \text{m} - 5.86\ \text{m} = 1.74$ m

EVALUATE: The flow stops when $p + \rho g(y_1 - y_2)$ equals air pressure. For $h = 1.74$ m, $p = 9.3 \times 10^4$ Pa and $\rho g(y_1 - y_2) = 0.7 \times 10^4$ Pa, so $p + \rho g(y_1 - y_2) = 1.0 \times 10^5$ Pa, which is air pressure.

18.73 •• **CP, CALC** **The Lennard-Jones Potential.** A commonly used potential-energy function for the interaction of two molecules (see Fig. 18.8) is the Lennard-Jones 6-12 potential:

$$U(r) = U_0\left[\left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^{12} - 2\left(\frac{R_0}{r}\right)^{6}\right]$$

where r is the distance between the centers of the molecules and U_0 and R_0 are positive constants. The corresponding force $F(r)$ is given in Eq. (14.26). (a) Graph $U(r)$ and $F(r)$ versus r. (b) Let r_1 be the value of r at which $U(r) = 0$, and let r_2 be the value of r at which $F(r) = 0$. Show the locations of r_1 and r_2 on your graphs of $U(r)$ and $F(r)$. Which of these values represents the equilibrium separation between the molecules? (c) Find the values of r_1 and r_2 in terms of R_0, and find the ratio r_1/r_2. (d) If the molecules are located a distance r_2 apart [as calculated in part (c)], how much work must be done to pull them apart so that $r \rightarrow \infty$?

18.73. **IDENTIFY** and **SET UP:** At equilibrium $F(r) = 0$. The work done to increase the separation from r_2 to ∞ is $U(\infty) - U(r_2)$.

(a) EXECUTE: $U(r) = U_0[(R_0/r)^{12} - 2(R_0/r)^6]$

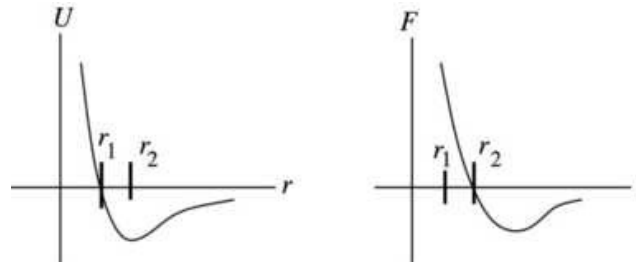Eq. (14.26): $F(r) = 12(U_0/R_0)[(R_0/r)^{13} - (R_0/r)^7]$. The graphs are given in Figure 18.73.

Figure 18.73

(b) equilibrium requires $F = 0$; occurs at point r_2. r_2 is where U is a minimum (stable equilibrium).

(c) $U = 0$ implies $[(R_0/r)^{12} 2(R_0/r)^6] = 0$

$(r_1/R_0)^6 = 1/2$ and $r_1 = R_0/(2)^{1/6}$

$F = 0$ implies $[(R_0/r)^{13} - (R_0/r)^7] = 0$

$(r_2/R_0)^6 = 1$ and $r_2 = R_0$

Then $r_1/r_2 = (R_0/2^{1/6})/R_0 = 2^{-1/6}$

(d) $W_{\text{other}} = \Delta U$

At $r \to \infty$, $U = 0$, so $W = -U(R_0) = -U_0[(R_0/R_0)^{12} - 2(R_0/R_0)^6] = +U_0$

EVALUATE: The answer to part (d), U_0, is the depth of the potential well shown in the graph of $U(r)$.

18.82 •• (a) Calculate the total *rotational* kinetic energy of the molecules in 1.00 mol of a diatomic gas at 300 K. (b) Calculate the moment of inertia of an oxygen molecule (O_2) for rotation about either the y- or z-axis shown in Fig. 18.18b. Treat the molecule as two massive points (representing the oxygen atoms) separated by a distance of 1.21×10^{-10} m. The molar mass of oxygen *atoms* is 16.0 g/mol. (c) Find the rms angular velocity of rotation of an oxygen molecule about either the y- or z-axis shown in Fig. 18.18b. How does your answer compare to the angular velocity of a typical piece of rapidly rotating machinery (10,000 rev/min)?

18.82. **IDENTIFY:** The equipartition principle says that each molecule has average kinetic energy of $\frac{1}{2}kT$ for each degree of freedom. $I = 2m(L/2)^2$, where L is the distance between the two atoms in the molecule. $K_{rot} = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2$. $\omega_{rms} = \sqrt{(\omega^2)_{av}}$.

SET UP: The mass of one atom is $m = M/N_A = (16.0 \times 10^{-3}$ kg/mol$)/(6.022 \times 10^{23}$ molecules/mol$) = 2.66 \times 10^{-26}$ kg.

EXECUTE: **(a)** The two degrees of freedom associated with the rotation for a diatomic molecule account for two-fifths of the total kinetic energy, so $K_{rot} = nRT = (1.00$ mol$)(8.3145$ J/mol$\cdot$K$)(300$ K$) = 2.49 \times 10^3$ J.

(b) $I = 2m(L/2)^2 = 2\left(\dfrac{16.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/mol}}{6.022 \times 10^{23} \text{ molecules/mol}}\right)(6.05 \times 10^{-11}$ m$)^2 = 1.94 \times 10^{-46}$ kg$\cdot$m^2

(c) Since the result in part (b) is for one mole, the rotational kinetic energy for one atom is K_{rot}/N_A and

$$\omega_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{2K_{rot}/N_A}{I}} = \sqrt{\frac{2(2.49 \times 10^3 \text{ J})}{(1.94 \times 10^{-46} \text{ kg}\cdot\text{m}^2)(6.022 \times 10^{23} \text{ molecules/mol})}} = 6.52 \times 10^{12} \text{ rad/s. This is}$$

much larger than the typical value for a piece of rotating machinery.

EVALUATE: The average rotational period, $T = \dfrac{2\pi \text{ rad}}{\omega_{rms}}$, for molecules is very short.

18.91 ••• **CP** Dark Nebulae and the Interstellar Medium. The dark area in Fig. P18.91 that appears devoid of stars is a *dark nebula,* a cold gas cloud in interstellar space that contains enough material to block out light from the stars behind it. A typical dark nebula is about 20 light-years in diameter and contains about 50 hydrogen atoms per cubic centimeter (monatomic hydrogen, *not* H_2) at a temperature of about 20 K. (A light-year is the distance light travels in vacuum in one year and is equal to 9.46×10^{15} m.) (a) Estimate the mean free path for a hydrogen atom in a dark nebula. The radius of a hydrogen atom is 5.0×10^{-11} m. (b) Estimate the rms speed of a hydrogen atom and the mean free time (the average time between collisions for a given atom). Based on this result, do you think that atomic collisions, such as those leading to H_2 molecule formation, are very important in determining the composition of the nebula? (c) Estimate the pressure inside a dark nebula. (d) Compare the rms speed of a hydrogen atom to the escape speed at the surface of the nebula (assumed spherical). If the space around the nebula were a vacuum, would such a cloud be stable or would it tend to evaporate? (e) The stability of dark nebulae is explained by the presence of the *interstellar medium* (ISM), an even thinner gas that permeates space and in which the dark nebulae are embedded. Show that for dark nebulae to be in equilibrium with the ISM, the numbers of atoms per volume (N/V) and the temperatures (T) of dark nebulae and the ISM must be related by

$$\frac{(N/V)_{\text{nebula}}}{(N/V)_{\text{ISM}}} = \frac{T_{\text{ISM}}}{T_{\text{nebula}}}$$

(f) In the vicinity of the sun, the ISM contains about 1 hydrogen atom per 200 cm^3. Estimate the temperature of the ISM in the vicinity of the sun. Compare to the temperature of the sun's surface, about 5800 K. Would a spacecraft coasting through interstellar space burn up? Why or why not?

Figure **P18.91**
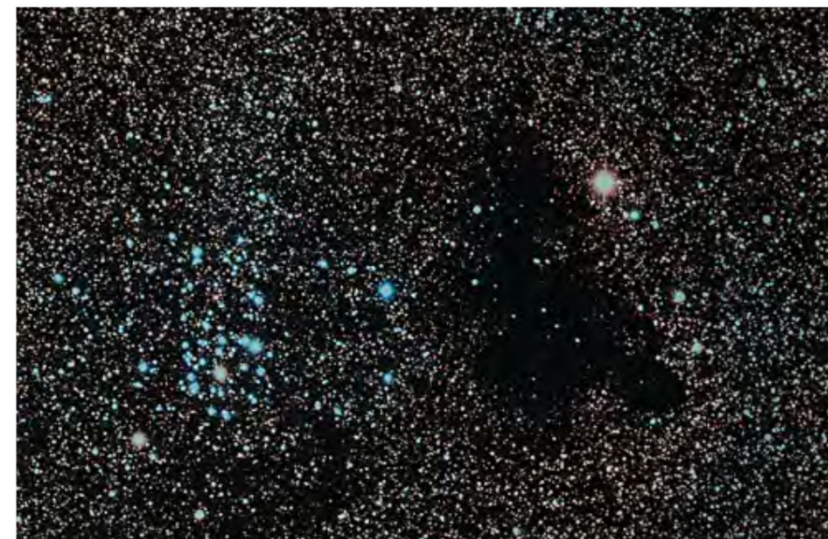
18.91. **IDENTIFY:** Eq. (18.21) gives the mean free path λ. In Eq. (18.20) use $v_{rms} = \sqrt{\dfrac{3RT}{M}}$ in place of v.

$pV = nRT = NkT$. The escape speed is $v_{escape} = \sqrt{\dfrac{2GM}{R}}$.

SET UP: For atomic hydrogen, $M = 1.008 \times 10^{-3}$ kg/mol.

EXECUTE: **(a)** From Eq. (18.21),

$\lambda = (4\pi\sqrt{2}r^2(N/V))^{-1} = (4\pi\sqrt{2}(5.0\times10^{-11}\text{ m})^2(50\times10^6\text{ m}^{-3}))^{-1} = 4.5\times10^{11}$ m.

(b) $v_{rms} = \sqrt{3RT/M} = \sqrt{3(8.3145\text{ J/mol}\cdot\text{K})(20\text{ K})/(1.008\times10^{-3}\text{ kg/mol})} = 703$ m/s, and the time between collisions is then $(4.5\times10^{11}\text{ m})/(703\text{ m/s}) = 6.4\times10^8$ s, about 20 yr. Collisions are not very important.

(c) $p = (N/V)kT = (50/1.0\times10^{-6}\text{ m}^3)(1.381\times10^{-23}\text{ J/K})(20\text{ K}) = 1.4\times10^{-14}$ Pa.

(d) $v_{escape} = \sqrt{\dfrac{2GM}{R}} = \sqrt{\dfrac{2G(Nm/V)(4\pi R^3/3)}{R}} = \sqrt{(8\pi/3)G(N/V)mR^2}$

$v_{escape} = \sqrt{(8\pi/3)(6.673\times10^{-11}\text{ N}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{kg}^2)(50\times10^6\text{ m}^{-3})(1.67\times10^{-27}\text{ kg})(10\times9.46\times10^{15}\text{ m})^2}$

$v_{escape} = 650$ m/s. This is lower than v_{rms} and the cloud would tend to evaporate.

(e) In equilibrium (clearly not *thermal* equilibrium), the pressures will be the same; from $pV = NkT$,

$kT_{ISM}(N/V)_{ISM} = kT_{nebula}(N/V)_{nebula}$ and the result follows.

(f) With the result of part (e),

$$T_{ISM} = T_{nebula}\left(\frac{(N/V)_{nebula}}{(N/V)_{ISM}}\right) = (20\text{ K})\left(\frac{50\times10^6\text{ m}^3}{(200\times10^{-6}\text{ m}^3)^{-1}}\right) = 2\times10^5\text{ K,}$$

more than three times the temperature of the sun. This indicates a high average kinetic energy, but the thinness of the ISM means that a ship would not burn up.

EVALUATE: The temperature of a gas is determined by the average kinetic energy per atom of the gas. The energy density for the gas also depends on the number of atoms per unit volume, and this is very small for the ISM.

Thermodynamics of ideal gases: The internal energy of an ideal gas depends only on its temperature, not on its pressure or volume. For other substances the internal energy generally depends on both pressure and temperature.

The molar heat capacities C_V and C_p of an ideal gas differ by R, the ideal-gas constant. The dimensionless ratio of heat capacities, C_p/C_V, is denoted by γ. (See Example 19.6.)

$$C_p = C_V + R \qquad (19.17)$$

$$\gamma = \frac{C_p}{C_V} \qquad (19.18)$$
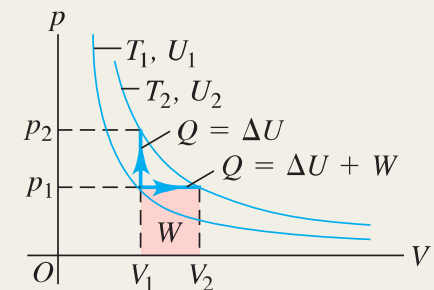
Adiabatic processes in ideal gases: For an adiabatic process for an ideal gas, the quantities $TV^{\gamma-1}$ and pV^{γ} are constant. The work done by an ideal gas during an adiabatic expansion can be expressed in terms of the initial and final values of temperature, or in terms of the initial and final values of pressure and volume. (See Example 19.7.)

$$W = nC_V(T_1 - T_2)$$

$$= \frac{C_V}{R}(p_1 V_1 - p_2 V_2) \qquad (19.25)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\gamma - 1}(p_1 V_1 - p_2 V_2) \qquad (19.26)$$
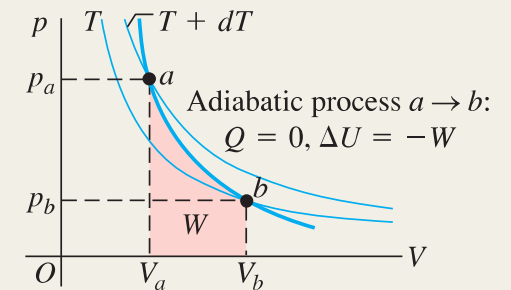
19.35 •• On a warm summer day, a large mass of air (atmospheric pressure 1.01×10^5 Pa) is heated by the ground to a temperature of 26.0°C and then begins to rise through the cooler surrounding air. (This can be treated approximately as an adiabatic process; why?) Calculate the temperature of the air mass when it has risen to a level at which atmospheric pressure is only 0.850×10^5 Pa. Assume that air is an ideal gas, with $\gamma = 1.40$. (This rate of cooling for dry, rising air, corresponding to roughly 1°C per 100 m of altitude, is called the *dry adiabatic lapse rate*.)

19.36 • A cylinder contains 0.100 mol of an ideal monatomic gas. Initially the gas is at a pressure of 1.00×10^5 Pa and occupies a volume of 2.50×10^{-3} m^3. (a) Find the initial temperature of the gas in kelvins. (b) If the gas is allowed to expand to twice the initial volume, find the final temperature (in kelvins) and pressure of the gas if the expansion is (i) isothermal; (ii) isobaric; (iii) adiabatic.

19.35. **IDENTIFY:** Combine $T_1 V_1^{\gamma-1} = T_2 V_2^{\gamma-1}$ with $pV = nRT$ to obtain an expression relating T and p for an adiabatic process of an ideal gas.

SET UP: $T_1 = 299.15$ K

EXECUTE: $V = \dfrac{nRT}{p}$ so $T_1 \left(\dfrac{nRT_1}{p_1} \right)^{\gamma-1} = T_2 \left(\dfrac{nRT_2}{p_2} \right)^{\gamma-1}$ and $\dfrac{T_1^{\gamma}}{p_1^{\gamma-1}} = \dfrac{T_2^{\gamma}}{p_2^{\gamma-1}}$.

$T_2 = T_1 \left(\dfrac{p_2}{p_1} \right)^{(\gamma-1)/\gamma} = (299.15 \text{ K}) \left(\dfrac{0.850 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}}{1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}} \right)^{0.4/1.4} = 284.8 \text{ K} = 11.6°\text{C}$

EVALUATE: For an adiabatic process of an ideal gas, when the pressure decreases the temperature decreases.

19.36. **IDENTIFY:** $pV = nRT$ For an adiabatic process, $T_1 V_1^{\gamma-1} = T_2 V_2^{\gamma-1}$.

SET UP: For an ideal monatomic gas, $\gamma = 5/3$.

EXECUTE: **(a)** $T = \dfrac{pV}{nR} = \dfrac{(1.00 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa})(2.50 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3)}{(0.1 \text{ mol})(8.3145 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K})} = 301 \text{ K}.$

(b) (i) Isothermal: If the expansion is *isothermal*, the process occurs at constant temperature and the final temperature is the same as the initial temperature, namely 301 K. $p_2 = p_1(V_1/V_2) = \frac{1}{2} p_1 = 5.00 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa}.$

(ii) Isobaric: $\Delta p = 0$ so $p_2 = 1.00 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}.$ $T_2 = T_1(V_2/V_1) = 2T_1 = 602 \text{ K}.$

(iii) Adiabatic: Using Eq. (19.22), $T_2 = \dfrac{T_1 V_1^{\gamma-1}}{V_2^{\gamma-1}} = \dfrac{(301 \text{ K})(V_1)^{0.67}}{(2V_1)^{0.67}} = (301 \text{ K})\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{0.67} = 189 \text{ K}.$ Then

$pV = nRT$ gives $p_2 = 3.14 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa}.$

EVALUATE: In an isobaric expansion, T increases. In an adiabatic expansion, T decreases.

19.58 ••• **High-Altitude Research.** A large research balloon containing 2.00×10^3 m^3 of helium gas at 1.00 atm and a temperature of 15.0°C rises rapidly from ground level to an altitude at which the atmospheric pressure is only 0.900 atm (Fig. P19.58). Assume the helium behaves like an ideal gas and the balloon's ascent is too rapid to permit much heat exchange with the surrounding air. (a) Calculate the volume of the gas at the higher altitude. (b) Calculate the temperature of the gas at the higher altitude. (c) What is the change in internal energy of the helium as the balloon rises to the higher altitude?

Figure **P19.58**
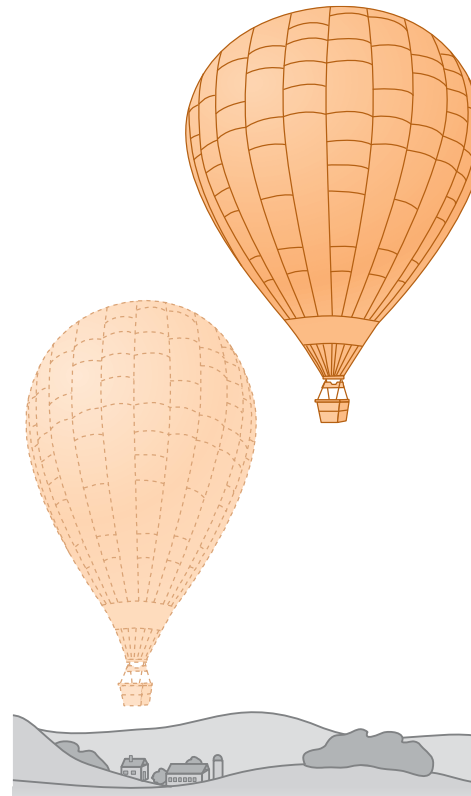
19.58. **IDENTIFY:** The process is adiabatic. Apply $p_1V_1^\gamma = p_2V_2^\gamma$ and $pV = nRT$. $Q = 0$ so

$$\Delta U = -W = -\frac{1}{\gamma - 1}(p_1V_1 - p_2V_2).$$

SET UP: For helium, $\gamma = 1.67$. $p_1 = 1.00$ atm $= 1.013 \times 10^5$ Pa. $V_1 = 2.00 \times 10^3$ m^3.

$p_2 = 0.900$ atm $= 9.117 \times 10^4$ Pa. $T_1 = 288.15$ K.

EXECUTE: **(a)** $V_2^\gamma = V_1^\gamma \left(\dfrac{p_1}{p_2} \right)$. $V_2 = V_1 \left(\dfrac{p_1}{p_2} \right)^{1/\gamma} = (2.00 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^3) \left(\dfrac{1.00 \text{ atm}}{0.900 \text{ atm}} \right)^{1/1.67} = 2.13 \times 10^3$ m^3.

(b) $pV = nRT$ gives $\dfrac{T_1}{p_1V_1} = \dfrac{T_2}{p_2V_2}$.

$T_2 = T_1 \left(\dfrac{p_2}{p_1} \right) \left(\dfrac{V_2}{V_1} \right) = (288.15 \text{ K}) \left(\dfrac{0.900 \text{ atm}}{1.00 \text{ atm}} \right) \left(\dfrac{2.13 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^3}{2.00 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^3} \right) = 276.2$ K $= 3.0°$C.

(c) $\Delta U = -\dfrac{1}{0.67}([1.013 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa})(2.00 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^3)] - [9.117 \times 10^4 \text{ Pa})(2.13 \times 10^3 \text{ m}^3)] = -1.25 \times 10^7$ J.

EVALUATE: The internal energy decreases when the temperature decreases.

19.62 •• **Engine Turbochargers and Intercoolers.** The power output of an automobile engine is directly proportional to the mass of air that can be forced into the volume of the engine's cylinders to react chemically with gasoline. Many cars have a *turbocharger,* which compresses the air before it enters the engine, giving a greater mass of air per volume. This rapid, essentially adiabatic compression also heats the air. To compress it further, the air then passes through an *intercooler* in which the air exchanges heat with its surroundings at essentially constant pressure. The air is then drawn into the cylinders. In a typical installation, air is taken into the turbocharger at atmospheric pressure $(1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa})$, density $\rho = 1.23 \text{ kg/m}^3$, and temperature 15.0°C. It is compressed adiabatically to 1.45×10^5 Pa. In the intercooler, the air is cooled to the original temperature of 15.0°C at a constant pressure of 1.45×10^5 Pa. (a) Draw a pV-diagram for this sequence of processes. (b) If the volume of one of the engine's cylinders is 575 cm³, what mass of air exiting from the intercooler will fill the cylinder at 1.45×10^5 Pa? Compared to the power output of an engine that takes in air at 1.01×10^5 Pa at 15.0°C, what percentage increase in power is obtained by using the turbocharger and inter- cooler? (c) If the intercooler is not used, what mass of air exiting from the turbocharger will fill the cylinder at 1.45×10^5 Pa? Com- pared to the power output of an engine that takes in air at 1.01×10^5 Pa at 15.0°C, what percentage increase in power is obtained by using the turbocharger alone?

19.62. **IDENTIFY:** $m = \rho V$. The density of air is given by $\rho = \dfrac{pM}{RT}$. For an adiabatic process, $T_1 V_1^{\gamma-1} = T_2 V_2^{\gamma-1}$.

$pV = nRT$

SET UP: Using $V = \dfrac{nRT}{p}$ in $T_1 V_1^{\gamma-1} = T_2 V_2^{\gamma-1}$ gives $T_1 p_1^{1-\gamma} = T_2 p_2^{1-\gamma}$.

EXECUTE: **(a)** The pV-diagram is sketched in Figure 19.62.

(b) The final temperature is the same as the initial temperature, and the density is proportional to the absolute pressure. The mass needed to fill the cylinder is then

$$m = \rho_0 V \frac{p}{p_{air}} = (1.23 \text{ kg/m}^3)(575 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3)\frac{1.45 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}}{1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}} = 1.02 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg}.$$

Without the turbocharger or intercooler the mass of air at $T = 15.0°\text{C}$ and $p = 1.01 \times 10^5$ Pa in a cylinder is $m = \rho_0 V = 7.07 \times 10^{-4}$ kg. The increase in power is proportional to the increase in mass of air in the cylinder; the percentage increase is $\dfrac{1.02 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg}}{7.07 \times 10^{-4} \text{ kg}} - 1 = 0.44 = 44\%$.

(c) The temperature after the adiabatic process is $T_2 = T_1 \left(\dfrac{p_2}{p_1}\right)^{(\gamma-1)/\gamma}$. The density becomes

$$\rho = \rho_0 \left(\frac{T_1}{T_2}\right)\left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right) = \rho_0 \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right)^{(1-\gamma)/\gamma}\left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right) = \rho_0 \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right)^{1/\gamma}. \text{ The mass of air in the cylinder is}$$

$$m = (1.23 \text{ kg/m}^3)(575 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m}^3)\left(\frac{1.45 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}}{1.01 \times 10^5 \text{ Pa}}\right)^{1/1.40} = 9.16 \times 10^{-4} \text{ kg},$$

The percentage increase in power is $\dfrac{9.16 \times 10^{-4} \text{ kg}}{7.07 \times 10^{-4} \text{ kg}} - 1 = 0.30 = 30\%$.

EVALUATE: The turbocharger and intercooler each have an appreciable effect on the engine power.

19.68 • **Comparing Thermodynamic Processes.** In a cylinder, 1.20 mol of an ideal monatomic gas, initially at 3.60×10^5 Pa and 300 K, expands until its volume triples. Compute the work done by the gas if the expansion is (a) isothermal; (b) adiabatic; (c) isobaric. (d) Show each process in a pV-diagram. In which case is the absolute value of the work done by the gas greatest? Least? (e) In which case is the absolute value of the heat transfer greatest? Least? (f) In which case is the absolute value of the change in internal energy of the gas greatest? Least?

19.68. **IDENTIFY:** Use the appropriate expression for W for each type of process.

SET UP: For a monatomic ideal gas, $\gamma = 5/3$ and $C_V = 3R/2$.

EXECUTE: **(a)** $W = nRT \ln(V_2/V_1) = nRT \ln(3) = 3.29 \times 10^3$ J.

(b) $Q = 0$ so $W = -\Delta U = -nC_V \Delta T$. $T_1 V_1^{\gamma-1} = T_2 V_2^{\gamma-1}$ gives $T_2 = T_1 (1/3)^{2/3}$. Then

$W = nC_V T_1 (1 - (1/3^{2/3})) = 2.33 \times 10^3$ J.

(c) $V_2 = 3V_1$, so $W = p\Delta V = 2pV_1 = 2nRT_1 = 6.00 \times 10^3$ J.

(d) Each process is shown in Figure 19.68. The most work done is in the isobaric process, as the pressure is maintained at its original value. The least work is done in the adiabatic process.

(e) The isobaric process involves the most work and the largest temperature increase, and so requires the most heat. Adiabatic processes involve no heat transfer, and so the magnitude is zero.

(f) The isobaric process doubles the Kelvin temperature, and so has the largest change in internal energy. The isothermal process necessarily involves no change in internal energy.

EVALUATE: The work done is the area under the path for the process in the pV-diagram. Figure 19.68 shows that the work done is greatest in the isobaric process and least in the adiabatic process.
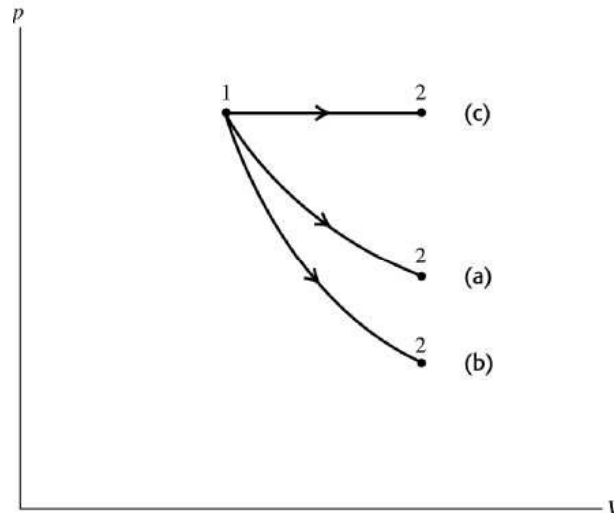

Figure 19.68