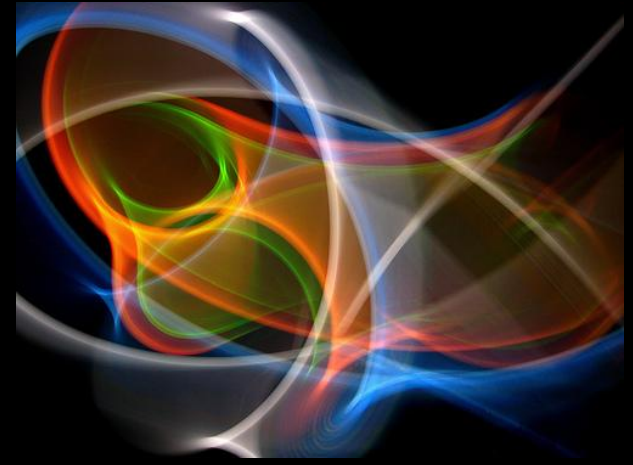




Gases



State of Matter - Gas (Vapor)



Form

Fluid (Flows)

Compressibility

Very High

Shape

Variable (Fills Closed Container)

Volume

Variable (Fills Closed Container)

Particle Movement

Random, Independent



Example: Steam

Kinetic (Moving) Theory of Gases



Gases are composed of molecules in constant motion

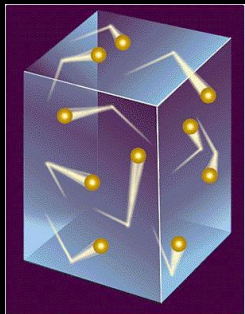
Gas molecules move in random directions

**Molecules of a gas collide frequently with each other & with vessel walls
(why gases mix to uniformity & fill all portions of the containment vessel)**

**Gas molecules move with an average velocity at a given temperature.
(the average energy of molecules in a gas is the same for all substances)**

**Distance between gas molecules \gg than size of the individual molecules
(why gases can be compressed)**

**Molecules are perfectly elastic ... no energy is lost when molecules collide
(If not-elastic, the temperature of a gas mix would always decrease with time)**



Works for “Ideal” Gases:

No molecular interactions ‘cause of large separation

Volume of gas molecules insignificant

Molecular Explanation of Gas Properties



Property

Gas Molecules:

Compressibility

Widely spaced

Low density

Widely spaced

Mixable

Widely spaced

In constant, random motion

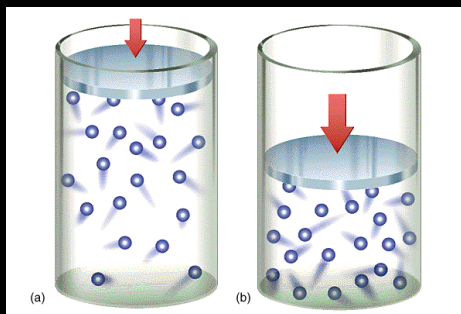
Fills container

In constant, random motion

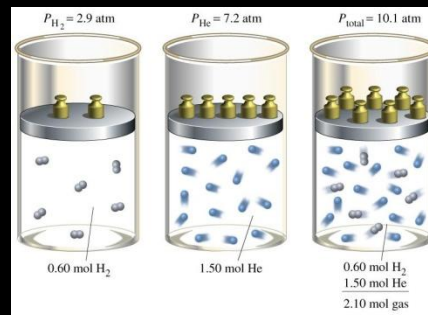
Uniform pressure

In constant, random motion

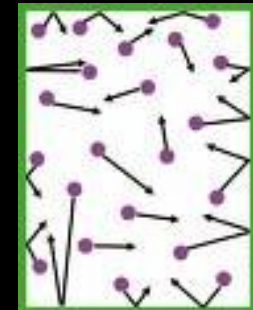
No energy loss collisions



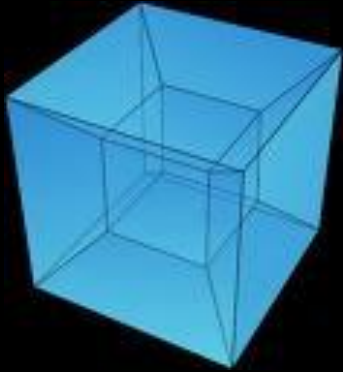
Compress



Mix



Fill



V



T

Gas behavior is described in terms of:

Volume (V)
Pressure (P)
Temperature (T)
Quantity (moles) (n)
molecules



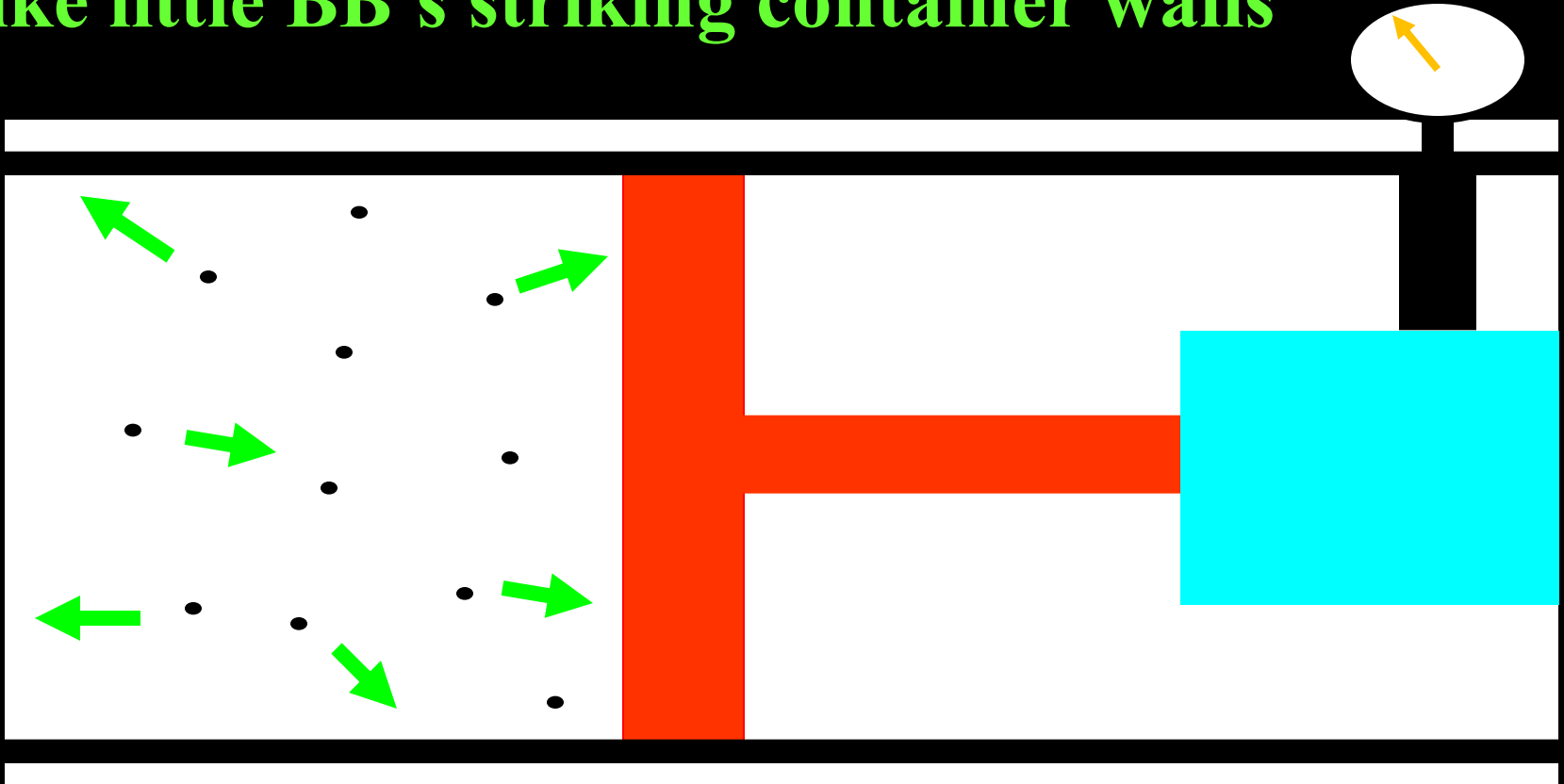
n



P

Pressure = molecular impact on container walls

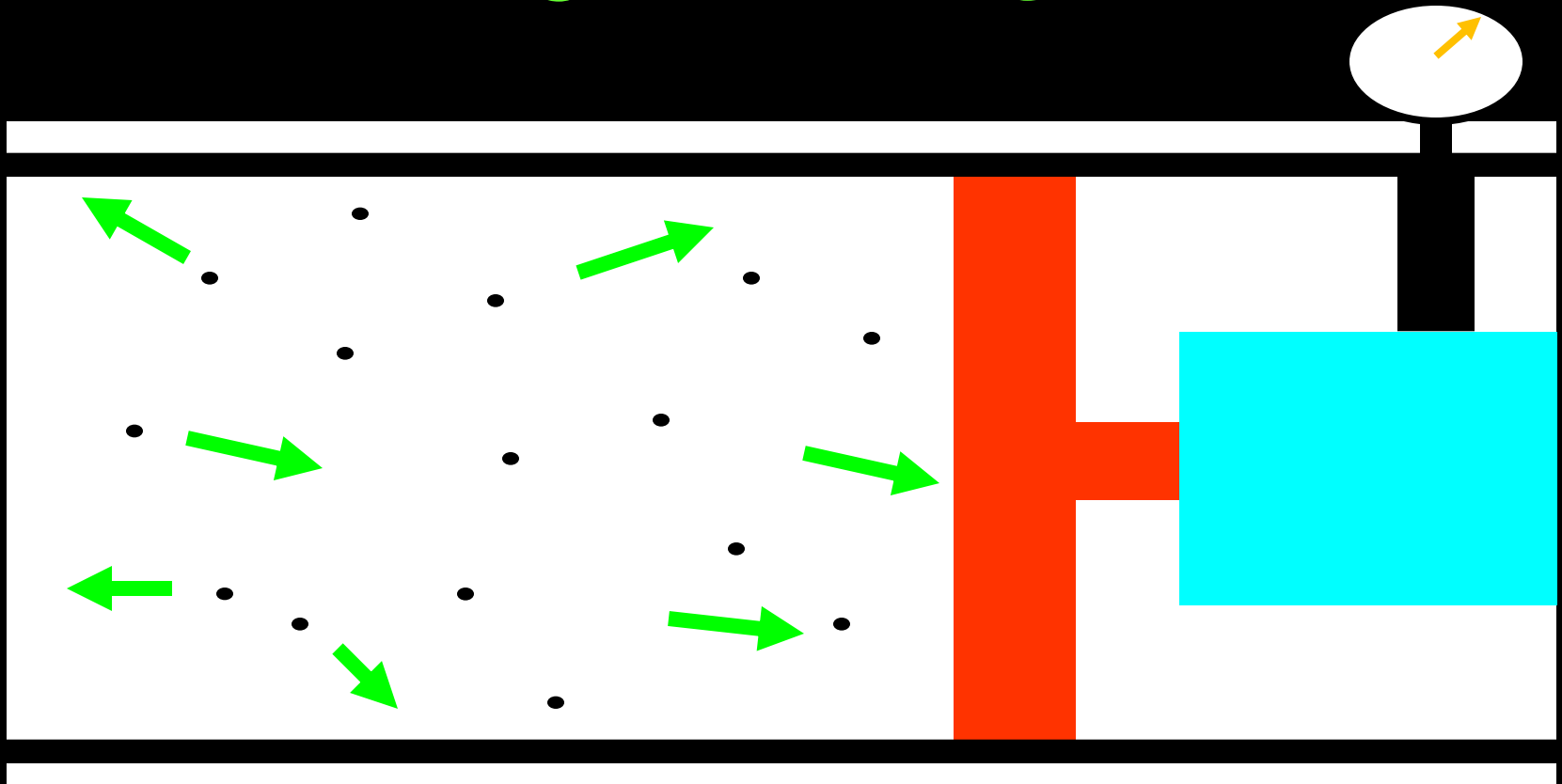
Like little BB's striking container walls



Pressure = force/area

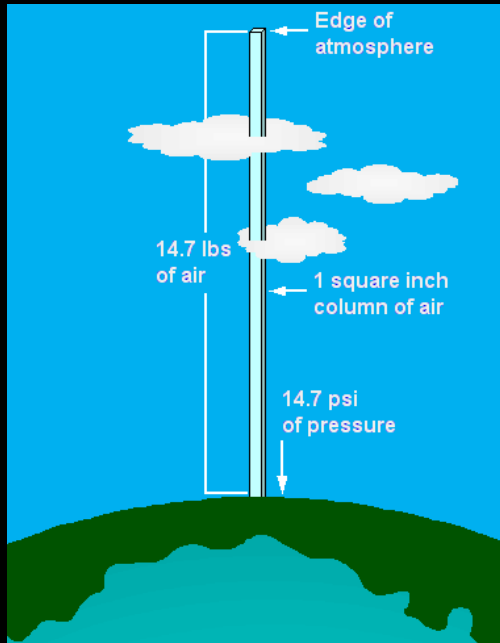
More impacts / time → Increased Pressure

Like faster moving BB's striking container walls



$$\text{Pressure} = \text{force/area}$$

Pressure = Force per Unit Area



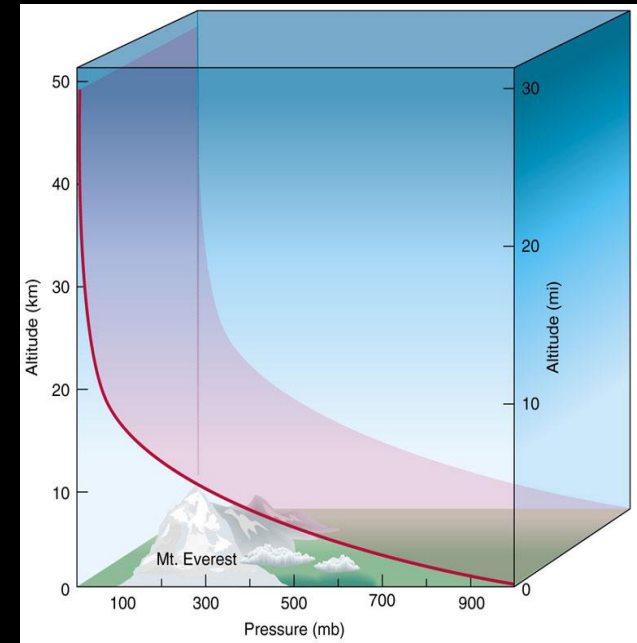
UNITS:

Related to atmosphere

mm Hg (torr)
inches Hg
inches H₂O
bar (or millibar)
atm

Related to force

psi (pounds / in²)
Pa (Pascals: newtons / m²)



Atmospheric pressure = weight of atmosphere

One atmosphere (atm) of Pressure

1 atm equals:

760 millimeters of mercury

760 torr

29.92 inches of mercury

101.3 kilopascals (kPa)

1.01325 bars

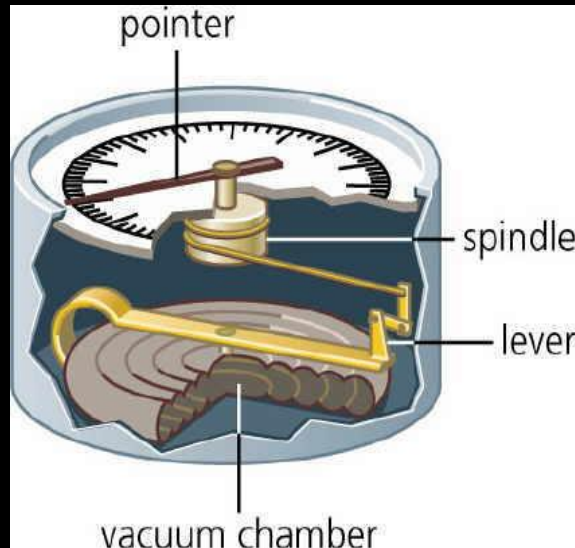
14.7 lbs/in² (psi)

33 feet of sea water (fsw)

34 feet of fresh water (ffw)

10 meters of sea water (msw)

10.4 meters of fresh water (mfw)



Barometer measures weight of atmosphere

Converting Pressure Measurements

NOAA reports barometric pressure in mm of mercury.
What is atmospheric pressure in inches of mercury?

$$760.0 \text{ mm Hg} \times \frac{1 \text{ m}}{1000 \text{ mm}} \times \frac{100 \text{ cm}}{1 \text{ m}} \times \frac{1 \text{ in}}{2.54 \text{ cm}} = 29.92 \text{ in Hg}$$

What is the atmospheric pressure in bar?

$$760.0 \text{ mm Hg} \times \frac{1 \text{ atm}}{760 \text{ mm Hg}} \times \frac{1.01325 \text{ bar}}{1 \text{ atm}} = 1.013 \text{ bar}$$



Converting Pressure Measurements

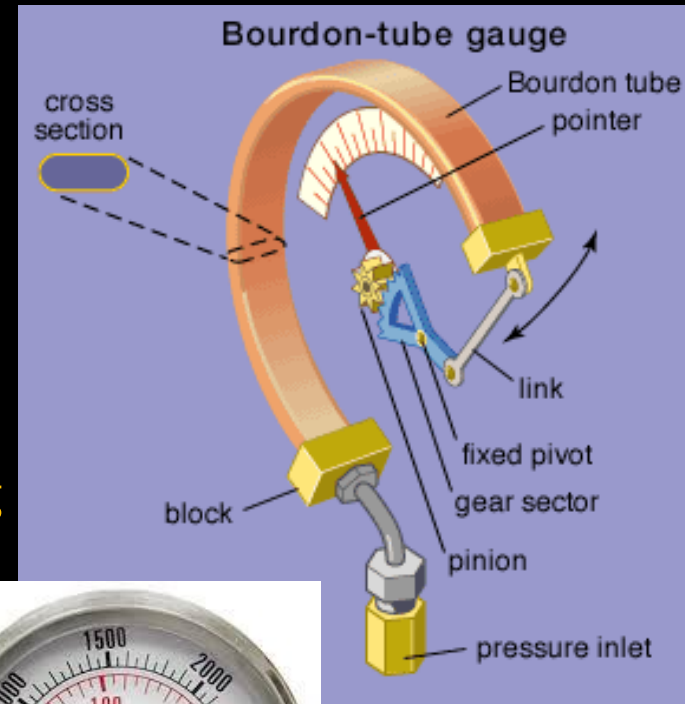
Americans commonly use psig for cylinder pressures
Others use units of bar (100 kiloPascals)

From psig to bar

$$1500 \text{ psi} \times \frac{1 \text{ atm}}{14.7 \text{ psi}} \times \frac{1.01325 \text{ bar}}{1 \text{ atm}} = 103 \text{ bar}$$

From bar to psig

$$100 \text{ bar} \times \frac{1 \text{ atm}}{1.01325 \text{ bar}} \times \frac{14.7 \text{ psig}}{1 \text{ atm}} = 1451 \text{ psig}$$



Let the units drive the solution

Gauge vs. Absolute Pressure

Gauges have a zero point

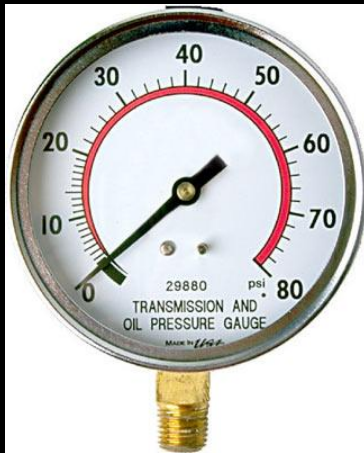
Gauge zero point = 1 atmospheric pressure

Absolute Pressure

Absolute pressure = pressure of gauge + atmospheric pressure

Represents the actual (total) pressure on the system

Gases respond to the absolute pressure



DEPTH	ABSOLUTE PRESSURE	GAUGE PRESSURE	AIR VOLUME	SURFACE VOLUME EQUIVALENT	EXAMPLE
0	1 ATM	0 ATM	1	1	60
10	2 ATM	1 ATM	1/2	2	30
20	3 ATM	2 ATM	1/3	3	20
30	4 ATM	3 ATM	1/4	4	15
40	5 ATM	4 ATM	1/5	5	12

Absolute Pressure

Total pressure on system: gauge pressure + atmospheric pressure



$$P_t = P_g + P_a$$

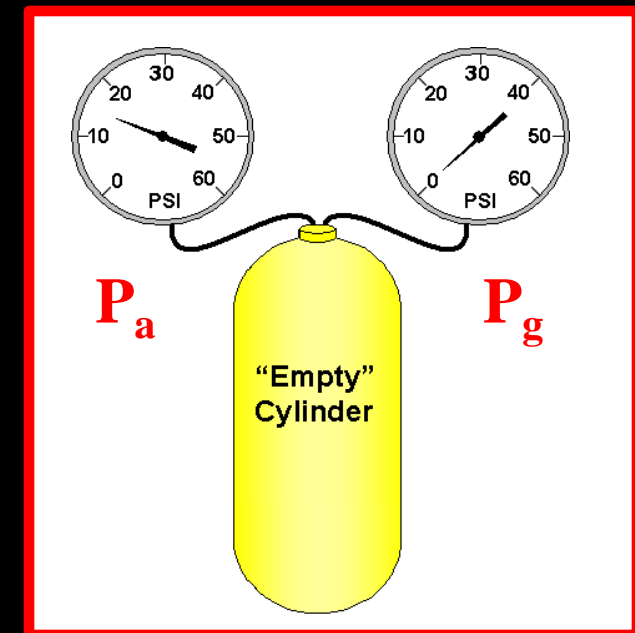
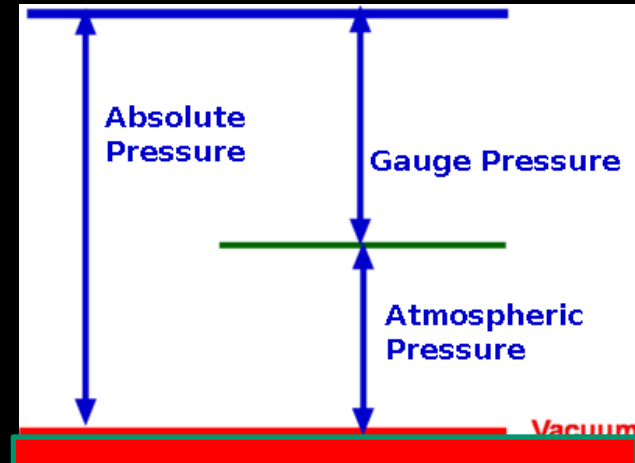
For absolute pressure:
Need to add 1 atm

SPG Pressure
Depth Gauge

Use Appropriate Units



Gauges calibrated:
fsw or msw



Converting Depth To Pressure

Converting depth sea water (fsw) to absolute pressure in atmospheres (ata):
33 fsw of depth represents 1 atm of pressure (33 fsw / 1 atm)



$$\frac{(D \text{ fsw} + 33 \text{ fsw})}{33 \text{ fsw} / \text{atm}} = P \text{ ata}$$

For a depth of 33 fsw

$$\frac{(33 \text{ fsw} + 33 \text{ fsw})}{33 \text{ fsw} / \text{atm}} = 2.0 \text{ ata}$$

For a depth of 99 fsw

$$\frac{(99 \text{ fsw} + 33 \text{ fsw})}{33 \text{ fsw} / \text{atm}} = 4.0 \text{ ata}$$

Pressure on Diver:
Weight of atmosphere +
Weight of water above diver

Converting Depth To Pressure

It is critical to keep consistent units when solving problems

For example:

Assume an American trained diver on vacation rents a depth gauge calibrated in meters. The diver dives with a guide to 40 m.

If the American diver only remembers

$$\text{ata} = \text{Depth}/33 + 1 \text{ (without units)}$$

the following diver calculation error is possible:

$$\text{ata} = 40/33 + 1 = 2.21$$

(Actual units the diver is using in {})

$$\text{ata} = (40 \{m\} / 33 \text{ fsw/atm}) + 1 \text{ atm} = 2.21 \{m\text{-atm} / \text{fsw}\}$$

SHOULD BE:

$$\text{ata} = (40 \text{ m} / 10 \text{ msw/atm}) + 1 \text{ atm} = 5 \text{ ata}$$



Let the units drive the solution

Converting Pressure To Depth

Converting absolute pressure (ata) to depth sea water (fsw)

33 fsw of depth represents 1 atm of pressure (33 fsw / 1 atm)

$$D \text{ fsw} = (P_{\text{ata}} \times 33 \text{ fsw/atm}) - 33 \text{ fsw}$$

For 5 atm of absolute pressure

$$D = (5 \text{ atm} \times 33 \text{ fsw/atm}) - 33 \text{ fsw} = 132 \text{ fsw}$$

For 3 ata (ata = atm + 1 atm)

$$D = (3 \text{ atm} \times 33 \text{ fsw/atm}) - 33 \text{ fsw} = 66 \text{ fsw}$$

For 2 ata

$$D = (2 \text{ atm} \times 33 \text{ fsw/atm}) - 33 \text{ fsw} = 33 \text{ fsw}$$

For 1.4 ata

$$D = (1.4 \text{ atm} \times 33 \text{ fsw/atm}) - 33 \text{ fsw} = 13.2 \text{ fsw}$$

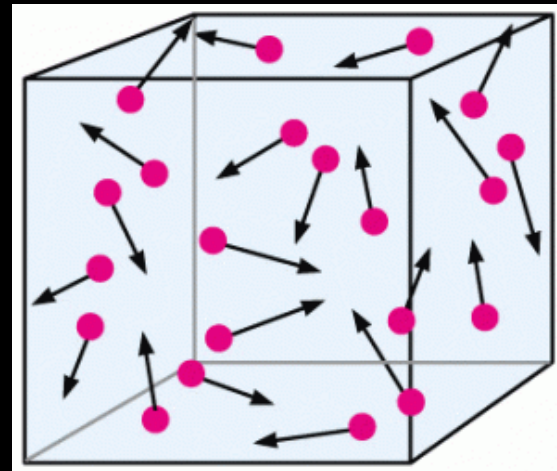
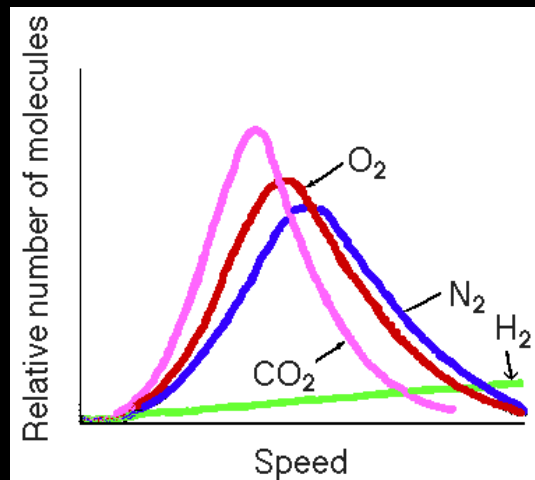


Temperature

The *average* kinetic energy (K.E.) of molecules

$$\begin{aligned} \text{K.E.} &= \text{energy of motion} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \text{ mass}(\text{velocity})^2 \end{aligned}$$

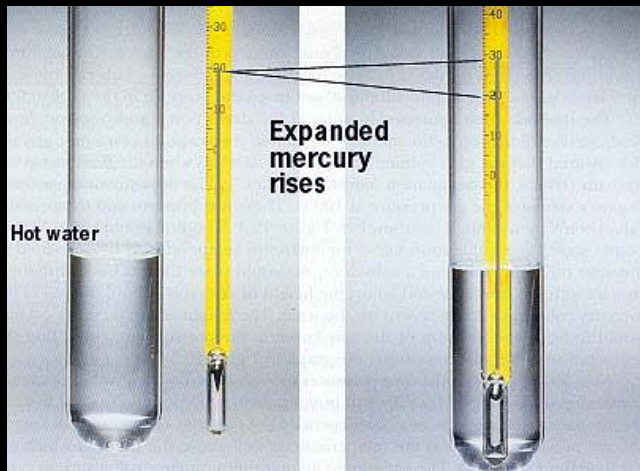
As velocity (speed) slows, K.E. decreases & temperature falls
At K.E. = 0, $v = 0$ (Absolute zero ... no molecular movement)



At constant temperature, larger molecules move slower

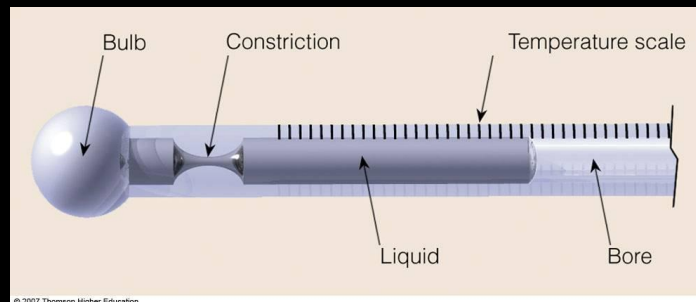
Thermometer

Device for measuring temperature



As liquid warms, it expands & Amount of expansion is quantified

Clinical (Maximum Temperature):
Restriction Prevents Liquid Return to Bulb



Temperature Scales

Fahrenheit (°F)

Dutch scientist

Placed mercury in closed glass column

Used three points to define scale:

0 = coldest that could be reached with water, ice, sea salt slush

32 = water/ice

96 = arm pit temperature (used bisection to create scale)

Daniel Fahrenheit

1724



**Ice/ Water
Slush**



0 °F

**Freezing
Water**



32 °F

**Human
Arm Pit**



96 °F

**Boiling
Water**



212 °F

water: freezing and boiling points 180 units apart

Temperature Scales

Celsius (Centigrade, °C)

Swedish Astronomer

International scientific scale

Used two points to define scale:

100 = freezing point of water

0 = boiling point of water

Anders Celsius

1742



Freezing Water



100 °C

Boiling Water



0 °C



water: freezing and boiling points 100 units apart

Carolus Linnaeus

Swedish Botanist

1744

Reversed scale to set Freezing Point at 0 Degrees



“Absolute” Temperature Scales

William Thompson (Lord Kelvin) 1848

Proposed a scale based on absolute zero as zero point
Uses the Centigrade (1/273 gas volume change) degree
Makes all temperatures have positive value

$$\mathbf{K = ^\circ C + 273} \qquad \mathbf{^\circ C = K - 273}$$



William Rankine 1859

Proposed a scale based on absolute zero as zero point
Uses the Fahrenheit degree

$$\mathbf{^\circ R = ^\circ F + 459} \qquad \mathbf{^\circ F = ^\circ R - 459}$$



Gas laws must use absolute temperatures

Science uses Kelvin

American engineering (especially heating / cooling) uses Rankine

Temperature Conversions

Zero point difference:
32 degrees

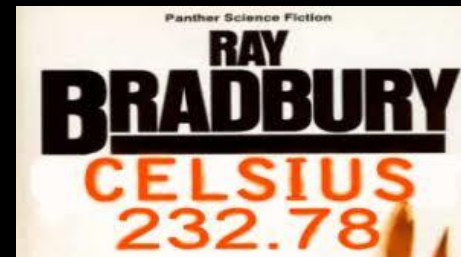
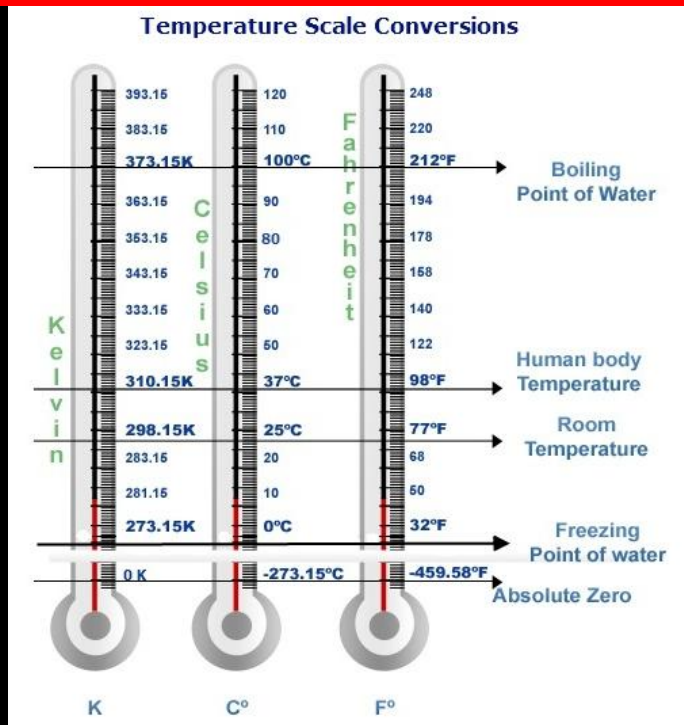
$$^{\circ}\text{F} = 9/5 ^{\circ}\text{C} + 32$$

$$180 / 100 = 9/5$$

$$^{\circ}\text{C} = 5/9 (^{\circ}\text{F} - 32)$$

$$\text{K} = ^{\circ}\text{C} + 273 \text{ (Kelvin, Absolute Celsius Scale)}$$

By convention, there is no $^{\circ}$ symbol for degrees kelvin





Gas Behavior (Equations or Laws)

Must use absolute temperature and pressure

“Ideal” Gases

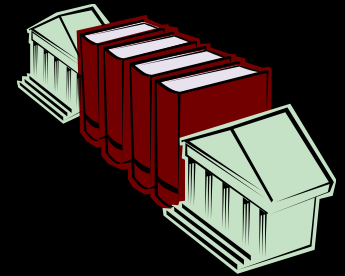
Described by Kinetic Theory of Gases

Behavior predictable by “Ideal Gas Laws”

Valid at low pressures & high temperatures

Not valid at compressed gas cylinder pressures

Need more complex “Real” Gas Equations





STP



Standard Temperature & Pressure

Standard Temperature = 0°C (273 K)

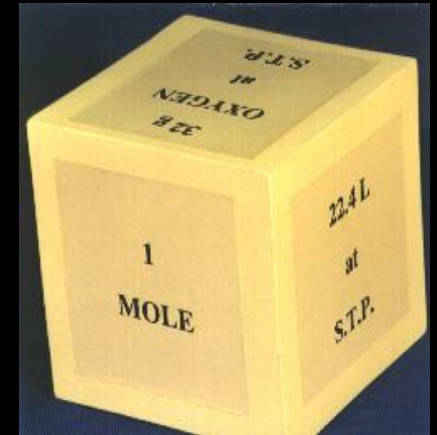
Standard Pressure = 1 atm (760 torr)

At STP:

22.4 L = 1 mole of any gas

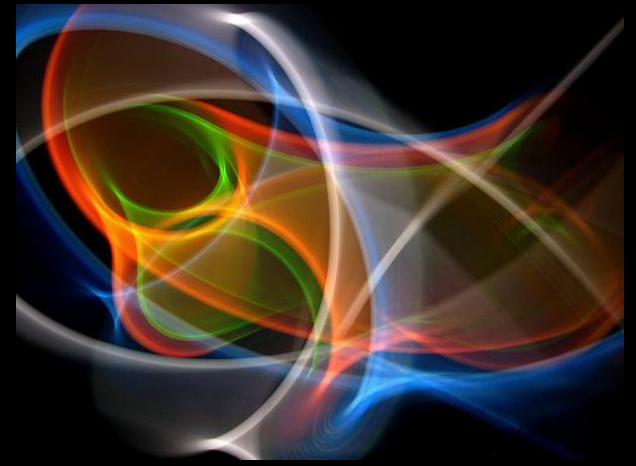
22.4 L weighs Molar Mass

22.4 L contains 6.02×10^{23} molecules



STP

Allows comparisons to different locations and conditions



Gas Laws



Rigid and Flexible Gas Containers



Walls: rigid

Volume: constant

Rupture when internal pressure exceeds container strength

Example: compressed gas cylinder

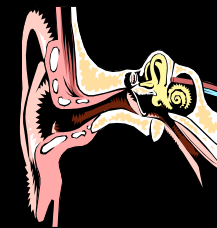
Walls: flexible

Volume: constant if internal & surroundings pressures equal

Volume: changes if internal & surroundings pressures unequal

Rupture when internal pressure exceeds container strength

Examples: balloon, internal air spaces (lungs, ears, sinus, gut)



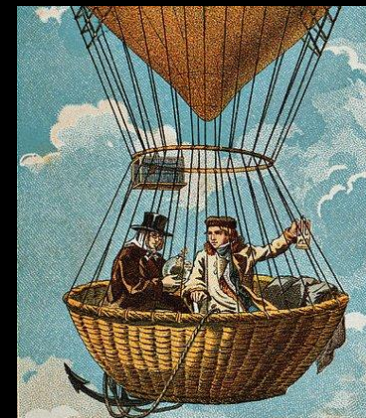


Joseph Louis Guy-Lussac

French chemist

Student of Jacques Charles

Studied Gases In Chemical Reactions



Pressure - Temperature relationship (1809)

Maybe called Charles's Law or Charles's Law #2

Sometimes called Amonton's Law

(Proposed relationship, but lacked technology to prove)

But,

Guy-Lussac was first to experimentally document P-T relation

His observations – a primary source of absolute temperature scale



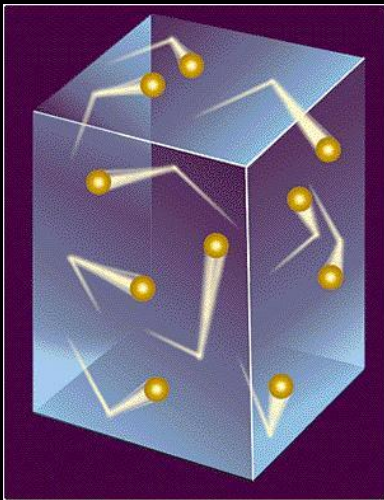
Guy-Lussac's Law



Heat energy increases molecular motion.

Volume of rigid cylinder cannot increase; the pressure increases

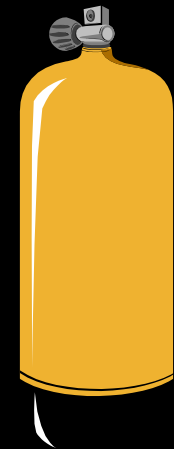
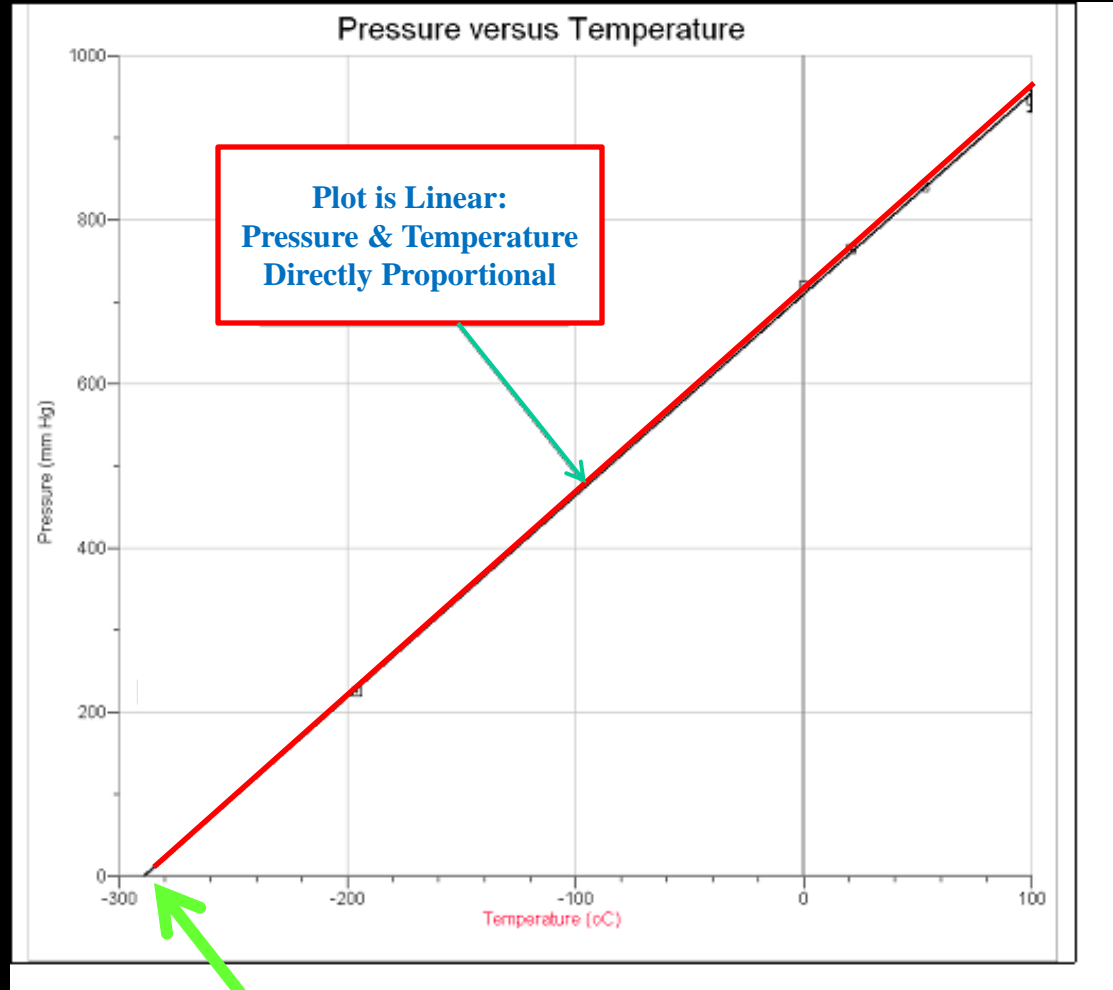
At constant *volume*, in a RIGID container:
pressure is directly proportional to the absolute temperature



$$\frac{P_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2}{T_2}$$



Guy-Lussac's Law



Absolute Zero (-273.16 °C)



A scuba cylinder contains 3000 psig at 78 °F. It is left in the trunk of a car on a hot summer day. If the temperature of the trunk is 115 °F, what will be the gauge pressure of the cylinder?

Using Guy-Lussac's Law: $P_1 / T_1 = P_2 / T_2$

Remember P & T must in absolute values

Since P value given in psi, 1 atm = 14.7 psi

psia = 3000 psi + 14.7 psi = 3014 psia

Since T given in °F, use Rankin Absolute Scale

$T_1 = 78 \text{ °F} + 460 = 538 \text{ °R}$

$T_2 = 115 \text{ °F} + 460 = 575 \text{ °R}$

Substituting in Guy Lussac's Law

$3014.7 \text{ psia} / 538 \text{ °R} = P_2 / 575 \text{ °R}$

$P_2 = 3222 \text{ psia}$

Converting to gauge pressure

$3222 \text{ psia} - 14.7 \text{ psi} = 3207 \text{ psig}$



A cylinder at 25 °C has a gauge pressure of 200 bar. Predict the gauge pressure at 42 °C .

Using Guy-Lussac's Law: $P_1 / T_1 = P_2 / T_2$

Remember P & T must in absolute values

Since P value given in bar, 1 atm = 1.01 bar

$$p_{\text{sig}} = 200 \text{ bar} + 1.01 \text{ bar} = 201.01 \text{ bar}$$

Since T given in °C, use Kelvin Absolute Scale

$$T_1 = 25 \text{ °C} + 273 = 298 \text{ K}$$

$$T_2 = 42 \text{ °C} + 273 = 315 \text{ K}$$

Substituting in Guy Lussac's Law

$$201 \text{ bar} / 298 \text{ K} = P_2 / 315 \text{ K}$$

$$P_2 = 212.5 \text{ bar}$$

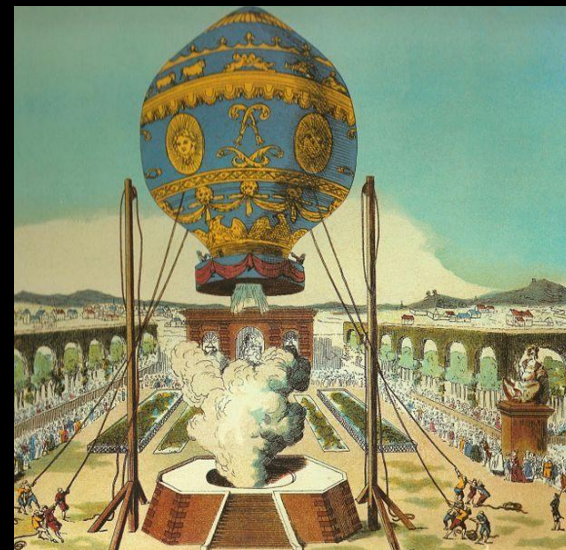
Converting to gauge pressure

$$212.5 \text{ bar} - 1.01 \text{ bar} = 212 \text{ bar}$$





Jacques Charles
French chemist
Scientific Advisor to
Montgolfier brothers



Volume - Temperature Relationship (1787)

1783 – First hot air balloon

Sack cloth and paper with 1800 buttons

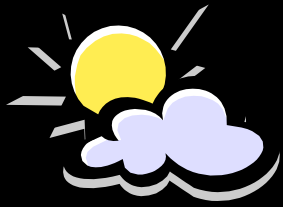
Redesigned the way hot-air balloons were built:

Silk instead of paper construction

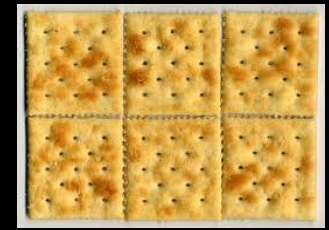
Hydrogen instead of hot air

Valve line

Wicker basket passenger compartment



Charles' Law



Heat energy increases molecular motion.

Volume of flexible container increases

At constant *pressure*, in a FLEXIBLE container volume is directly proportional to the absolute temperature

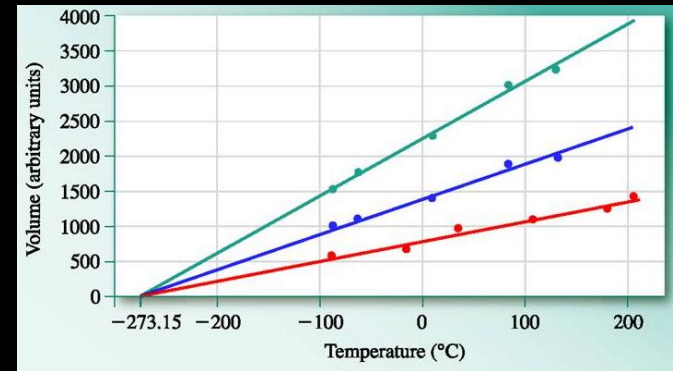
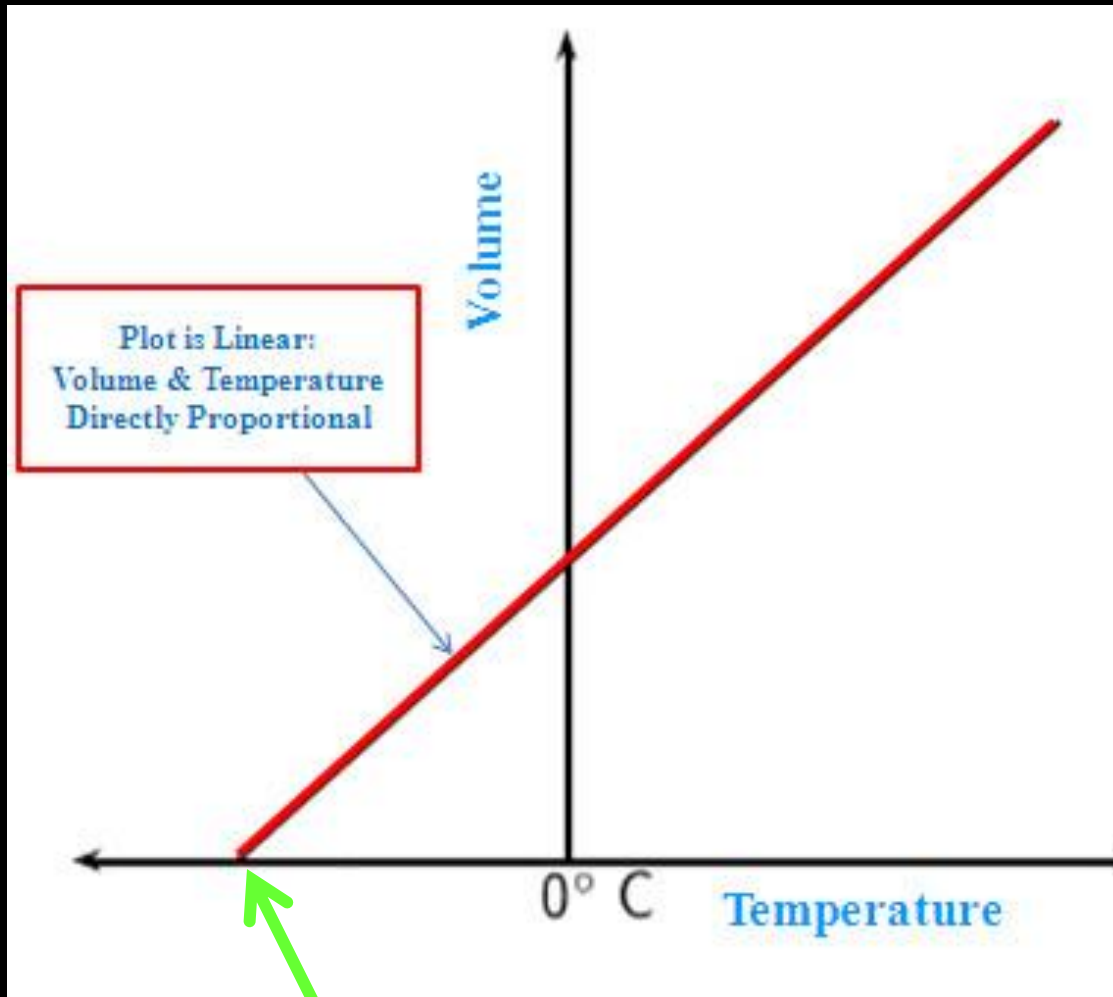
$$\frac{V_1}{T_1} = \frac{V_2}{T_2}$$



If $T = \text{negative}$, volume = negative (not realistic)

Need temperature to be positive

Charles' Law



Absolute Zero (-273.16 °C)

If a scuba cylinder is capable of delivering 40 ft³ of air to a diver at 78 °F, how much air is available at 55 °F?

Using Charles' Law: $V_1 / T_1 = V_2 / T_2$

Since T given in °F, use Rankin Absolute Scale

$$T_1 = 78 \text{ °F} + 460 = 538 \text{ °R}$$

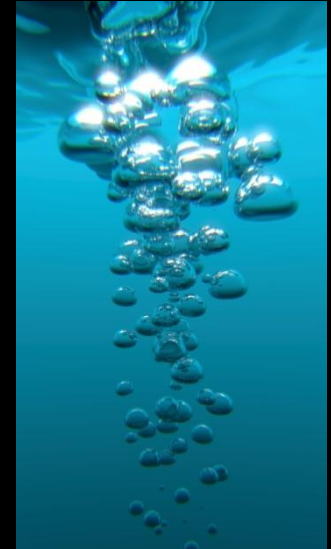
$$T_2 = 55 \text{ °F} + 460 = 515 \text{ °R}$$

Substituting into Charles' Law

$$40 \text{ ft}^3 / 538 \text{ °R} = V_2 / 515 \text{ °R}$$

Solving:

$$V_2 = 38.3 \text{ ft}^3$$



The temperature 55 °F is typically the temperature of the first thermocline of a fresh water lake. Charles' law explains why divers have less air available to them in colder water.

A scuba cylinder delivers 1000 L of air at 25 °C. If this cylinder is used at 18 °C. how much air will be available to the diver?

Using Charles' Law: $V_1 / T_1 = V_2 / T_2$

Since T given in °C, use Kelvin Absolute Scale

$$T_1 = 25 \text{ °C} + 273 = 298 \text{ K}$$

$$T_2 = 18 \text{ °C} + 273 = 291 \text{ K}$$

Substituting into Charles' Law

$$1000 \text{ L} / 298 \text{ K} = V_2 / 291 \text{ K}$$

Solving:

$$V_2 = 977 \text{ L}$$



When descending below the thermocline, the decrease in BCD volume changes buoyancy and divers need to add gas to compensate

Thermoclines are often visualized by silt particles resting on the colder, more dense water

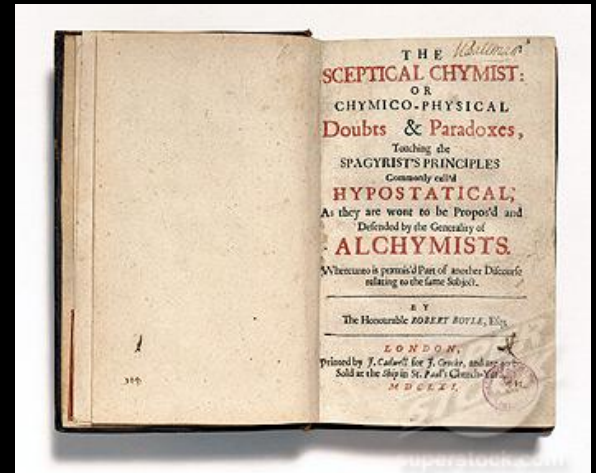


Robert Boyle

Irish Alchemist

Father of modern chemistry

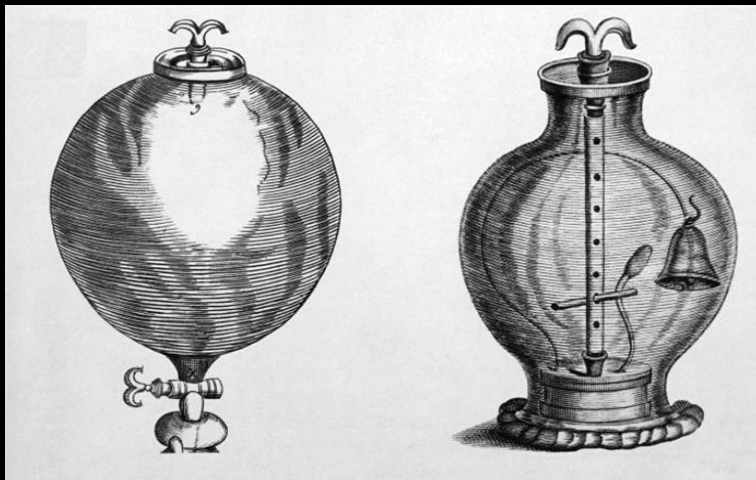
Founder of Royal Society



Pressure - Volume relationship (1660)

New Experiments: Phsico-Mechanical Touching the spring of air and their effects (1660)

The Sceptical Chymst (Air, Earth, Fire, & Water not elements) (1661)



In an evacuated chamber

Observed bubble in snake's eye

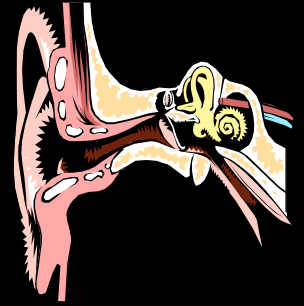
Reduced Pressure Changes Physiology

Bell produced no sound

Air needed to carry sound

Boyles's Law

At constant *temperature*,
the volume of a flexible container
depends upon the surrounding pressure

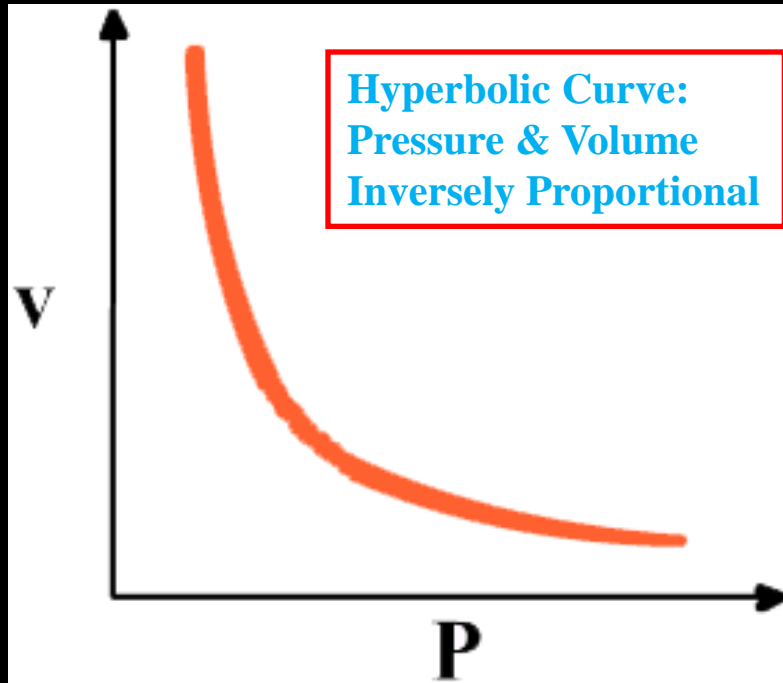


At constant *temperature*, in a **FLEXIBLE** container
volume is indirectly proportional to the absolute pressure

$$P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2$$



Boyles's Law



**Greatest volume change:
~12 feet to surface**

**Means greatest risk to tissue:
shallow water**

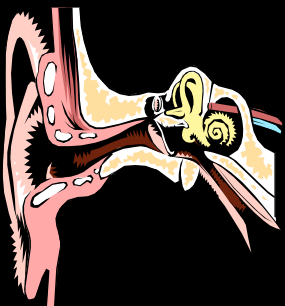
Explains:

Ear Discomfort while ascending / descending

Grandpa's knee forecasting weather

Changes in all gas volumes with altitude / depth

Changes in pressure with altitude / depth



What is the physical volume (in ft³) of an aluminum “80”?

An aluminum “80” delivers 80 ft³ at one atmosphere pressure when filled to 3000 psig.

Using Boyle’s Law: $P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2$

Since P value given in psi, 1 atm = 14.7 psi

$$\text{psiga} = 3000 \text{ psi} + 14.7 \text{ psi} = 3014.7 \text{ psia}$$

Substituting into Boyle’s Law:

$$(14.7 \text{ psia}) (80 \text{ ft}^3) = (3014.7 \text{ psia}) V_2$$

Solving:

$$V_2 = 0.39 \text{ ft}^3$$

This physical volume represents how much water the cylinder would hold if the valve were removed and the cylinder were filled with water. This is the "water capacity" of a scuba cylinder.



**A scuba cylinder is rated at 2400 L with a pressure of 200 bar.
What is the physical volume (water capacity) of the cylinder.?**

Using Boyle's Law: $P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2$

Since P value given in bar, 1 atm = 1 bar

$$p_{\text{sig}} = 200 \text{ bar} + 1 \text{ bar} = 201 \text{ bar}$$

Substituting into Boyle's Law:

$$(1 \text{ bar}) (2400 \text{ L}) = (201) V_2$$

Solving:

$$V_2 = 11.9 \text{ L}$$



Determine the volume of air from an “80” ft³ cylinder that will be available to the diver at 33, 66, 99 and 132 fsw

Using Boyles’ Law: $P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2$

For 33 feet:

$$(1 \text{ ata})(80 \text{ ft}^3) = (2 \text{ ata}) V_2$$

$$V_2 = 40 \text{ ft}^3$$

For 66 feet:

$$(1 \text{ ata})(80 \text{ ft}^3) = (3 \text{ ata}) V_2$$

$$V_2 = 26.7 \text{ ft}^3$$

For 99 feet:

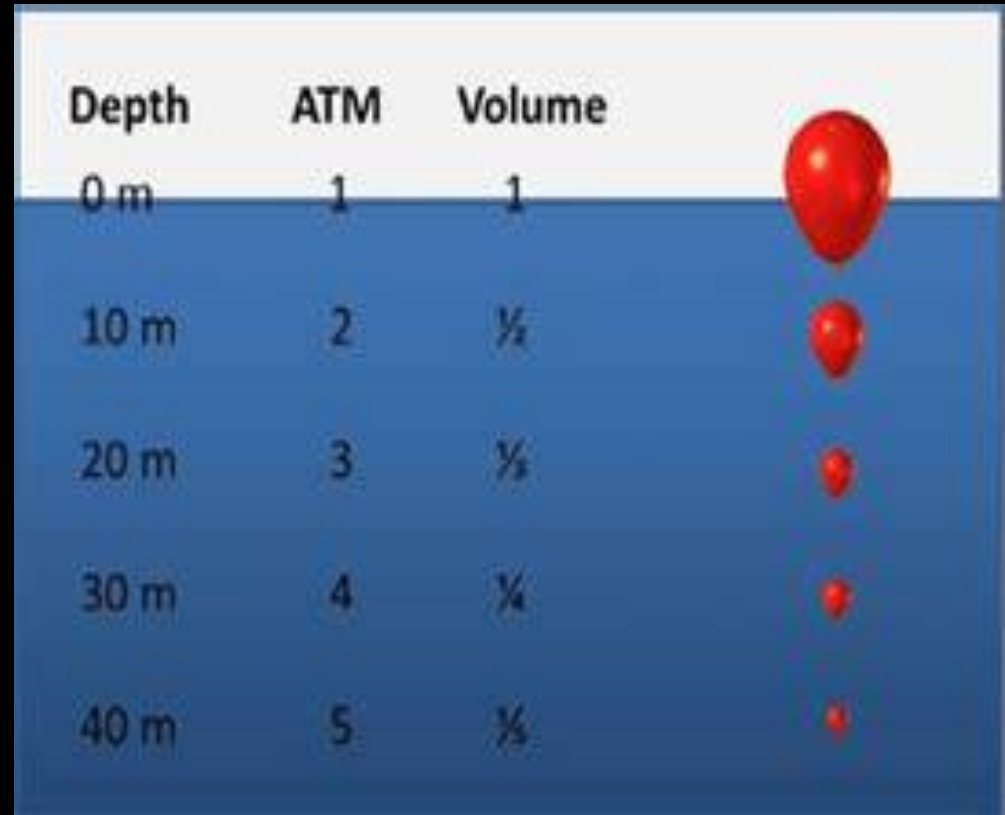
$$(1 \text{ ata})(80 \text{ ft}^3) = (4 \text{ ata}) V_2$$

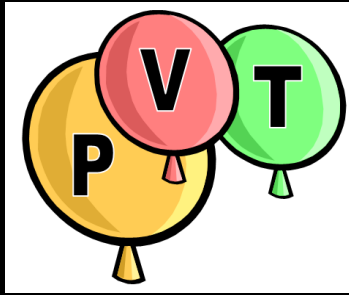
$$V_2 = 20 \text{ ft}^3$$

For 132 feet:

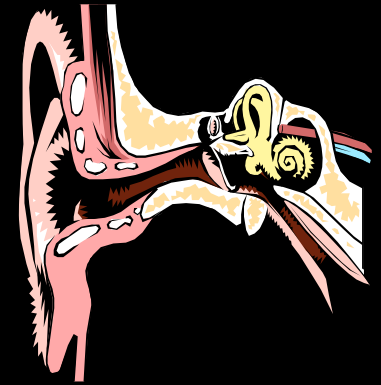
$$(1 \text{ ata})(80 \text{ ft}^3) = (5 \text{ ata}) V_2$$

$$V_2 = 16 \text{ ft}^3$$

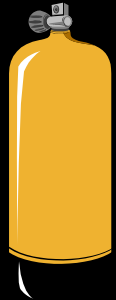




General Gas Law



$$\frac{p_1 v_1}{t_1} = \frac{p_2 v_2}{t_2}$$

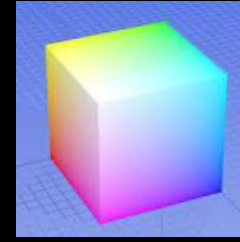


Units need to be same on both sides of =
P & T must be in absolute measure



General Gas Law

$$\frac{p_1 v_1}{t_1} = \frac{p_2 v_2}{t_2}$$



If P constant:

$$\frac{v_1}{t_1} = \frac{v_2}{t_2}$$

Charles



If V constant:

$$\frac{p_1}{t_1} = \frac{p_2}{t_2}$$

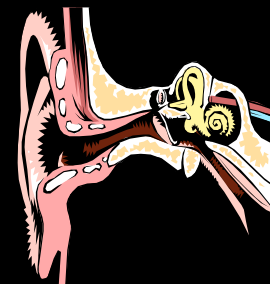
Guy-Lussac



If T constant:

$$p_1 v_1 = p_2 v_2$$

Boyle



Universal Gas Law Problem Matrix

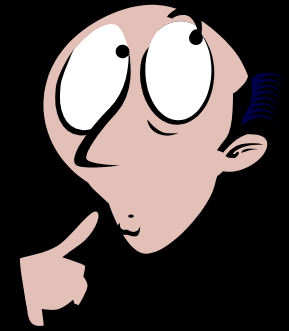
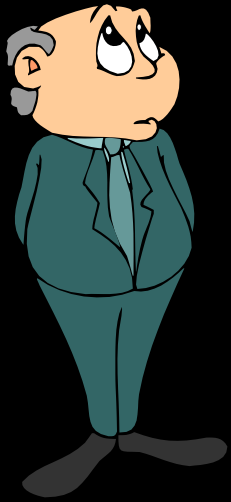
A standard method for determining Gas Law Solutions
Facilitates Solving

Set up the universal gas law table of values

	Pressure (units)	→	Pressure (absolute)	Volume (units)	Temperature (°C)	→	Temperature (K)
Initial						+273	
Final						+273	

Fill in table values from the problem description
Place problem table values into general gas law
Solve

Proportional Thinking



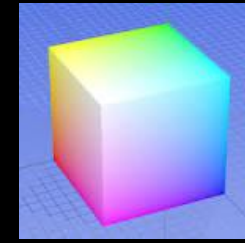
$$\frac{pv}{t} = k$$



$$\frac{p_1 v_1}{t_1} = k = \frac{p_2 v_2}{t_2}$$



Proportional Thinking

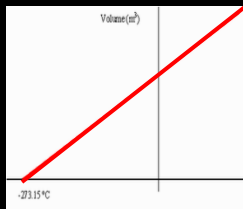


$$\frac{p v}{t} = k$$

If P constant:

$$\frac{v}{t} = k$$

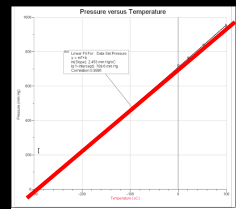
Charles' Law
Direct
Proportion



If V constant:

$$\frac{p}{t} = k$$

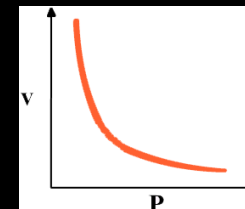
Guy-Lussac's Law
Direct
Proportion



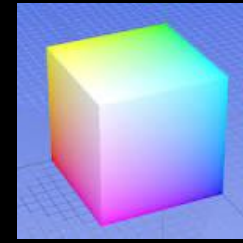
If T constant:

$$p v = k$$

Boyle's Law
Inverse
Proportion



Proportional Thinking



$$\frac{p v}{t} = k$$

Variables change to keep k constant

If P constant:

$$\frac{v}{t} = k$$

v and t change
(increase or decrease)
in same direction



If V constant:

$$\frac{p}{t} = k$$

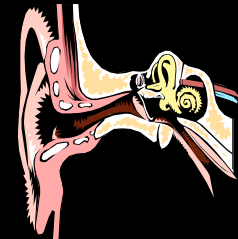
p and t change
(increase or decrease)
in same direction



If T constant:

$$p v = k$$

p and v change
(increase or decrease)
in opposite direction



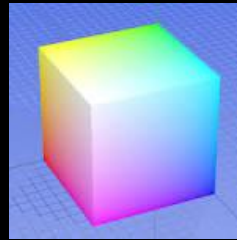
Proportional Thinking: Word problems



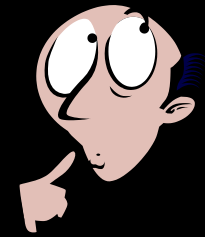
At constant volume, if temperature decreases, pressure

At constant pressure, if temperature increases, volume

At constant temperature, if pressure increases, volume



Proportional Thinking: Word problems



At constant volume, if temperature decreases, pressure decreases

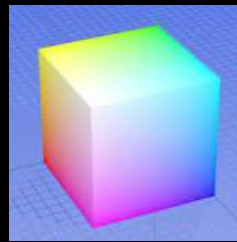
$$\frac{p}{t} = k \longrightarrow \frac{p}{t} = k \quad \text{P \& T Move same direction}$$

At constant pressure, if temperature increases, volume increases

$$\frac{v}{t} = k \longrightarrow \frac{v}{t} = k \quad \text{V \& T Move same direction}$$

At constant temperature, if pressure increases, volume decreases

$$p v = k \longrightarrow p v = k \quad \text{P \& V Move opposite direction}$$



John Dalton



School teacher with contributions to:
Atomic Theory
Understanding Color Blindness
Studies on Gas Behavior

Dalton's Law of Partial Pressure (1803)

$$P_{\text{total}} = P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + \dots P_n$$

For a mixture of ideal gases,
total pressure = sum of the partial pressures of gases present

ELEMENTS			
Hydrogen	1	Strontian	46
Azote	5	Barytes	68
Carbon	5	Iron	56
Oxygen	7	Zinc	56
Phosphorus	9	Copper	56
Sulphur	13	Lead	90
Magnesia	20	Silver	190
Lime	24	Gold	190
Soda	28	Platina	190
Potash	42	Mercury	167

Dalton's Law: Partial Pressures

Dalton's law: In a mixture of gases, the total pressure is the sum of the partial pressures of the individual components

$$P = P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + \dots + P_n$$

The partial pressure of a gas is the product of the fraction of that gas times the total pressure

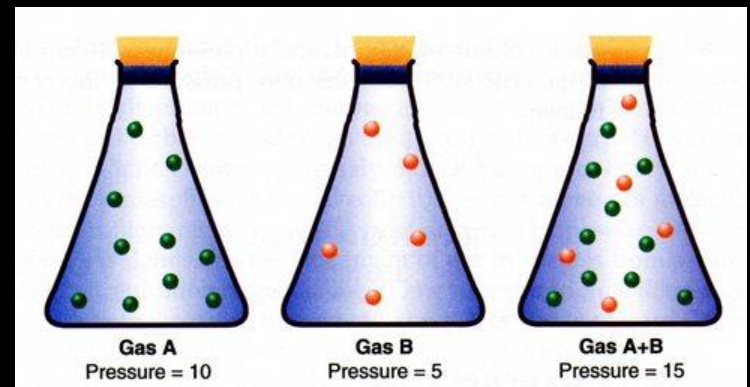
$$P_g = F_g \times P_{\text{total}}$$

Where

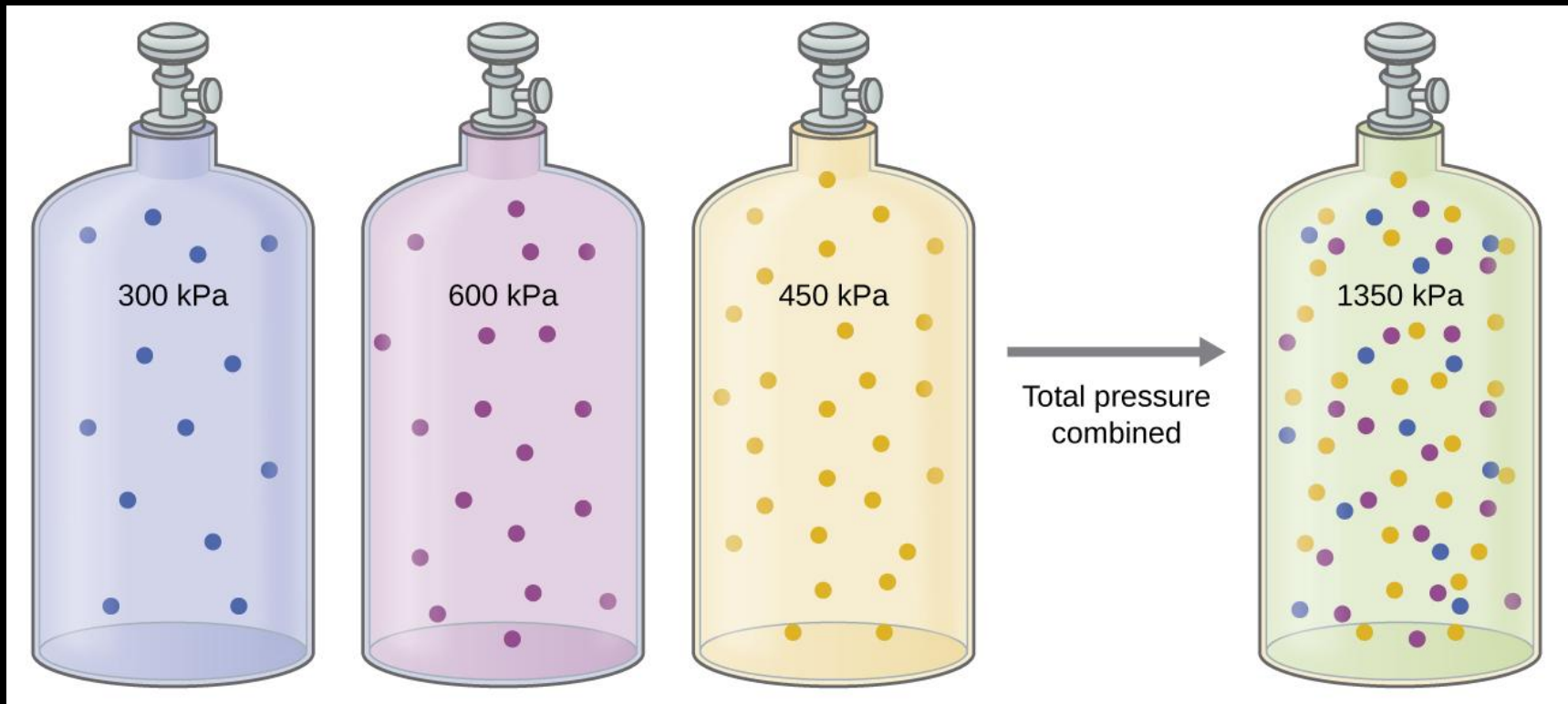
P_g = partial pressure of the component gas

F_g = fraction of the component gas in the mixture

P_{total} = the total pressure of the gas mixture



Dalton's Law: Partial Pressures



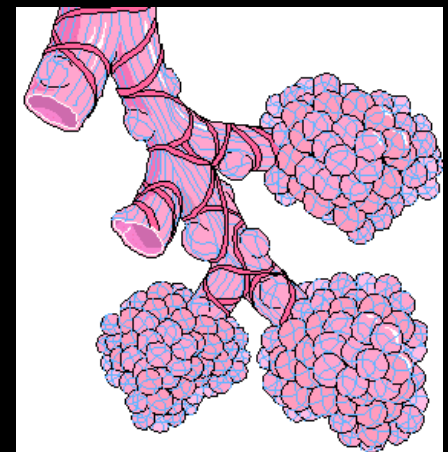
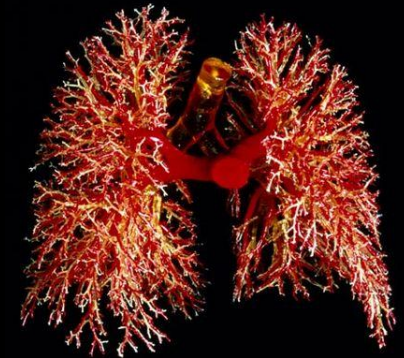
Total pressure is always the sum of component gas pressures

Dalton's Law: Partial Pressures

Pressure in alveolar spaces immediately equilibrates with blood



	Inspired air	Alveolar air
H ₂ O	Variable	47 mmHg
CO ₂	000.3 mmHg	40 mmHg
O ₂	159 mmHg	105 mmHg
N ₂	601 mmHg	568 mmHg
Total pressure	760 mmHg	760 mmHg



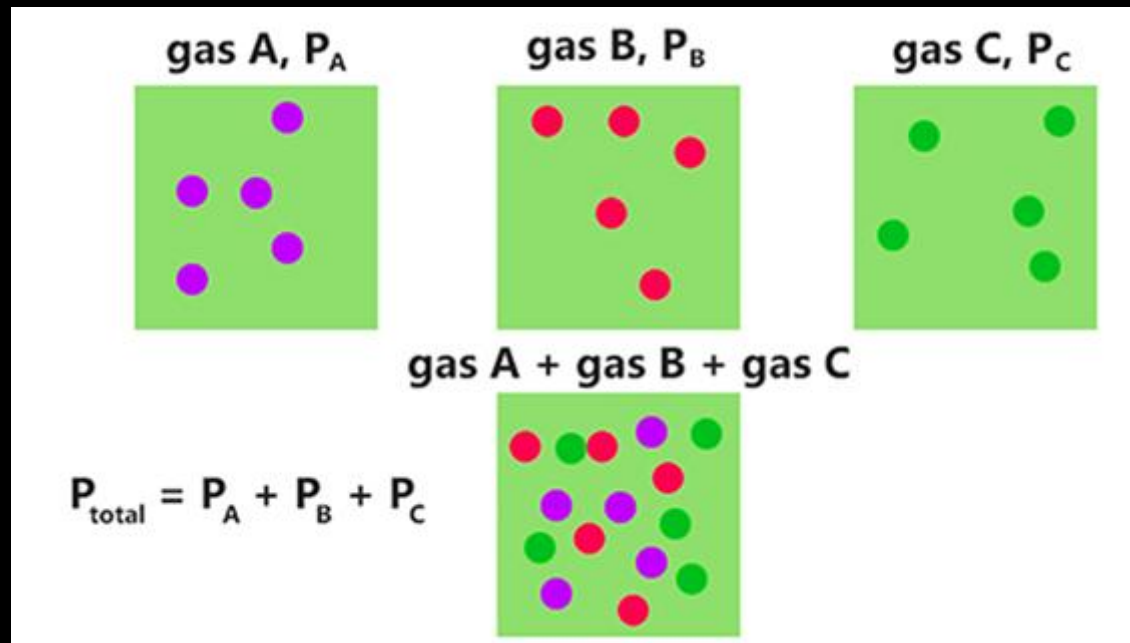
A mixture of gases at 760 torr contains 55.0 % N₂, 25.0 % O₂, and 20.0 % CO₂ by volume. What is the partial pressure of each gas?

$$\text{N}_2: 55.0/100 \times 760 \text{ torr} = 418 \text{ torr}$$

$$\text{O}_2: 25.0/100 \times 760 \text{ torr} = 190 \text{ torr}$$

$$\underline{\text{CO}_2: 20.0/100 \times 760 \text{ torr} = 152 \text{ torr}}$$

$$\text{Total (check)} = 760 \text{ torr}$$



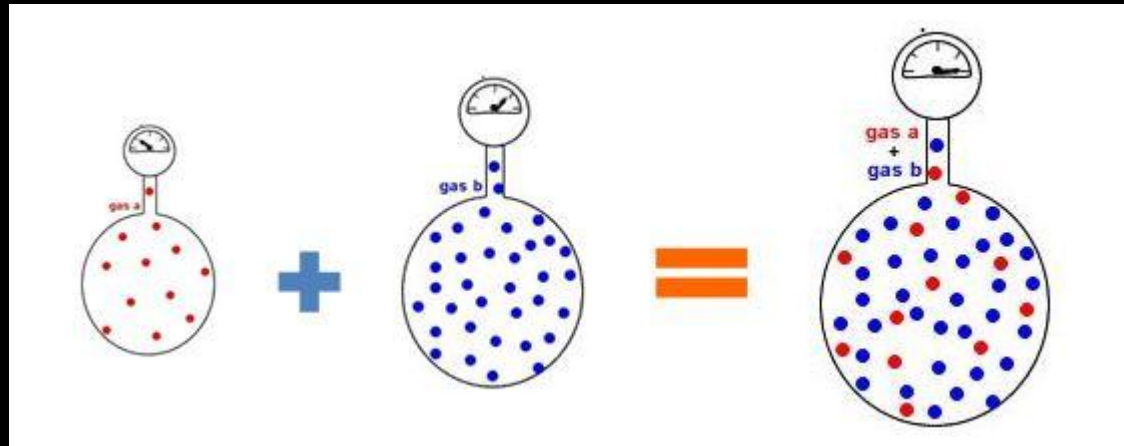
A 200 mL flask contains O₂ at 220 torr and a 300 mL flask contains N₂ at 100 torr. The flasks are connected and the gasses are allowed to completely fill the system. There is no temperature change. What is the partial pressure of each gas and the total pressure?

The final volume is 200 mL + 300 mL = 500 mL

O₂: 220 torr (200 / 500) = 88 torr

N₂: 100 torr (300 / 500) = 60 torr

Total: 60 torr + 88 torr = 148 torr





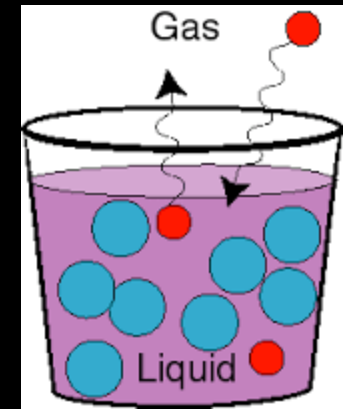
William Henry

British chemist

Solubility of gases

Composition of HCl and NH_3

Disinfecting powers of heat



Gas in liquid solubility: Henry's Law (1803)

Determined solubility of gases in liquids a function of:

Partial pressure of the gas

Temperature of the system

Characteristics of the liquid

Very important when environmental pressure changes
(alters gasses dissolved in the body)



Henry's Law

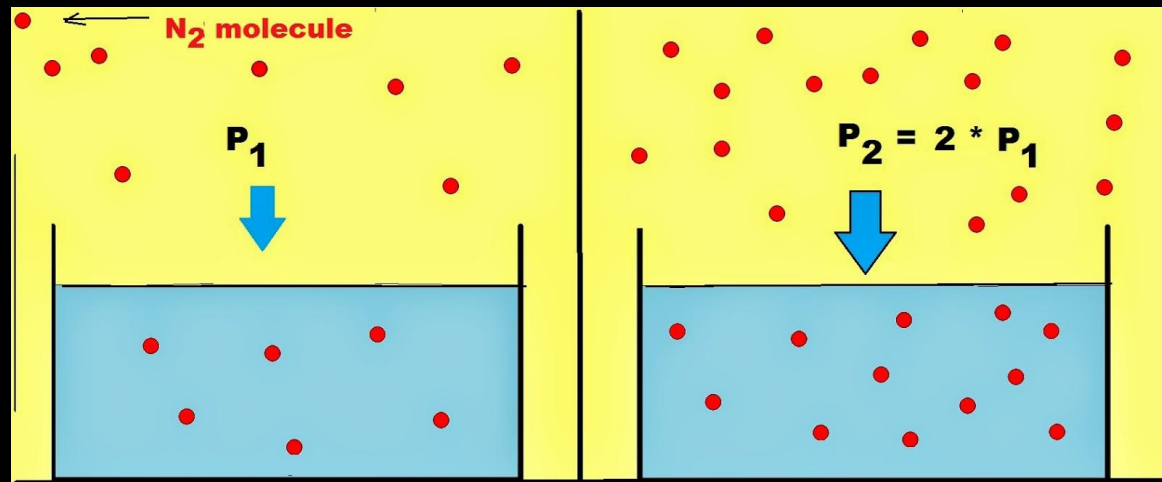
The amount of any given gas that will dissolve in a liquid at a given temperature is a function of the partial pressure of the gas that is in contact with the liquid and the solubility coefficient of the gas in the particular liquid

$$S_g = K_H \times P_g$$

S_g solubility of the gas

K_h liquid solubility constant

P_g Partial pressure of the gas

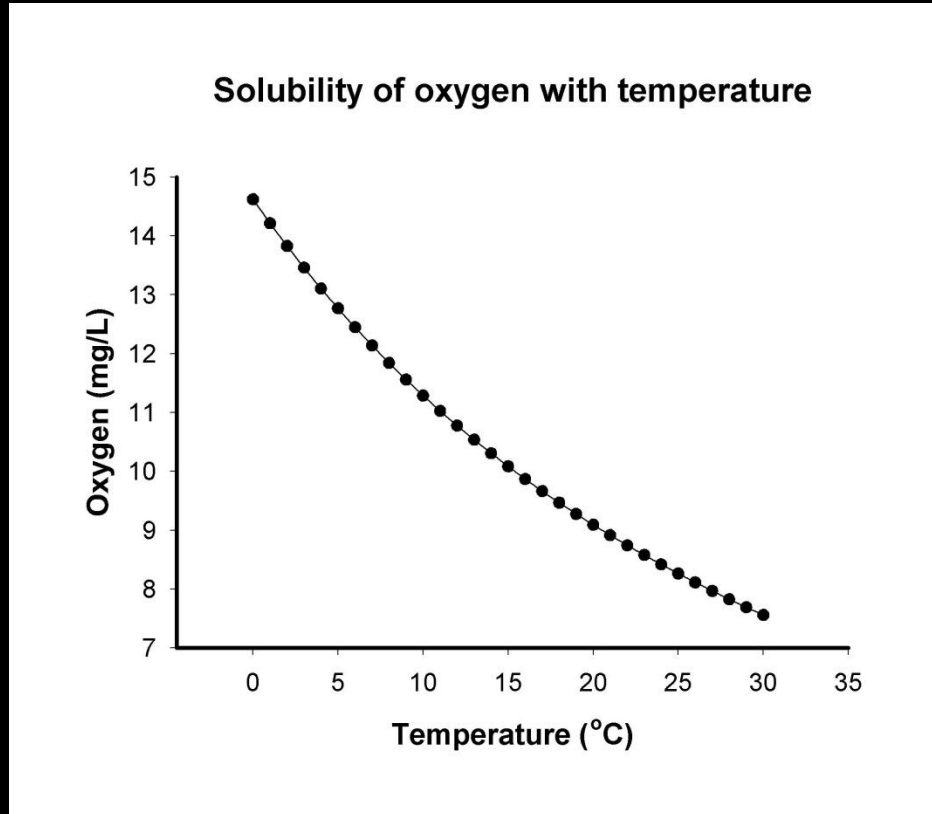


Increase in pressure → increase in solubility

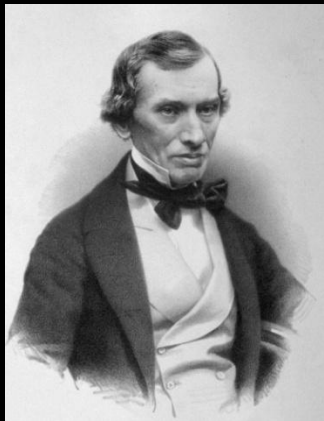
Decrease in pressure → decrease in solubility

Henry's Law

Gas solubility changes with temperature



Colder water (Great Lakes): Divers carry additional gas loads

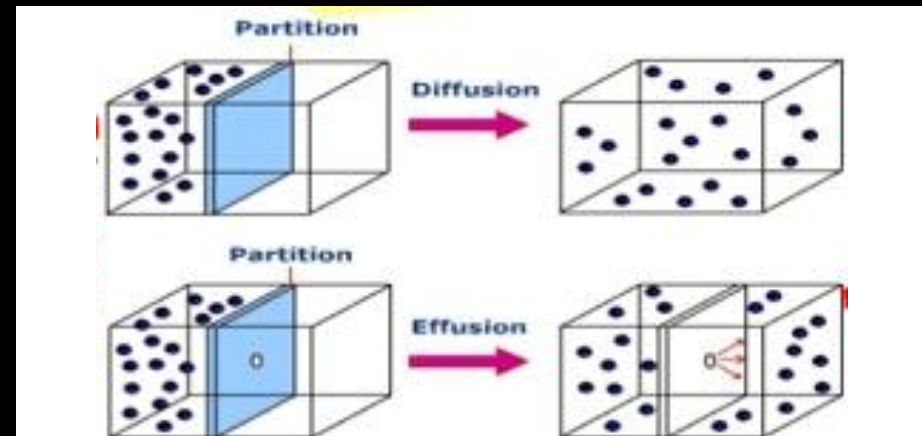


Graham's Law

The speed of gas diffusion (gas mixing due to kinetic energy) or effusion (gas moving through a tiny opening) is inversely proportional to the square root of their molar masses.

This is commonly written for effusion:

$$\frac{\text{Rate}_1}{\text{Rate}_2} = \sqrt{\frac{M_2}{M_1}}$$



Graham's Law

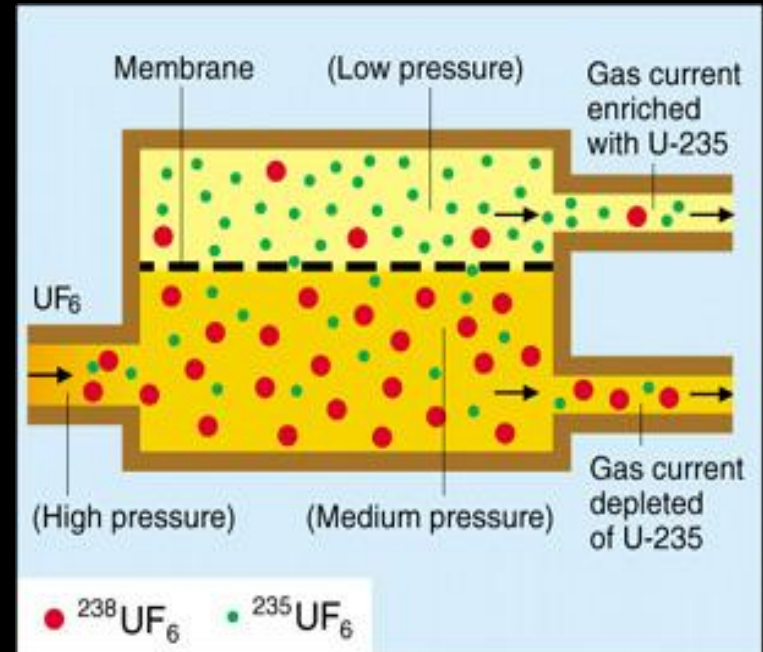
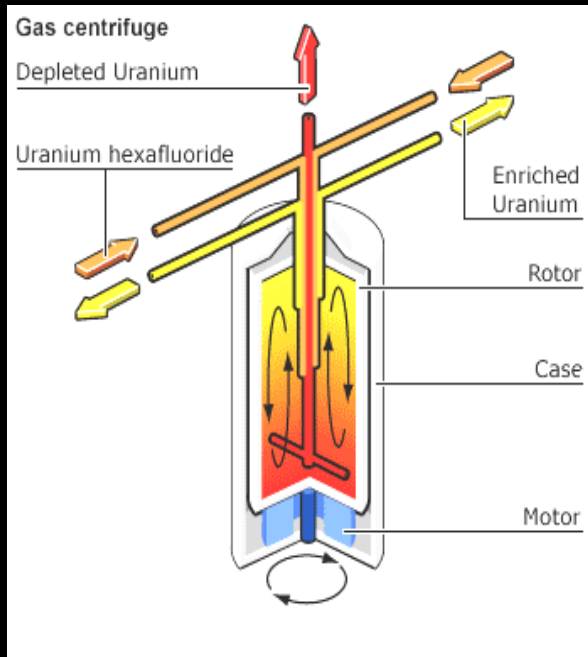
Useful for:

separation of gases of different densities

separation of isotopes

prime means for producing nuclear material

determining molar mass of unknown material



Compare the relative rates of effusion of H₂ and CO through a fine pinhole.

Molar masses:

CO = 28.0

H₂ = 2.00

$$\frac{\text{Rate H}_2}{\text{Rate CO}} = \sqrt{\frac{28.0}{2.00}} = 3.74$$

Compare the relative rates of effusion of H₂ and O₂ through a fine pinhole.

Molar masses:

O₂ = 32.0

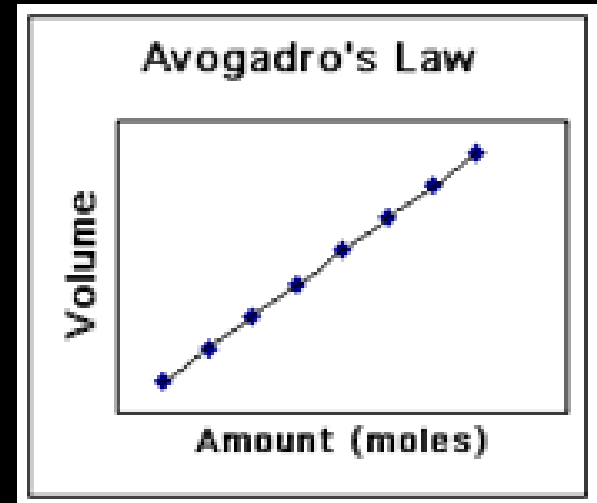
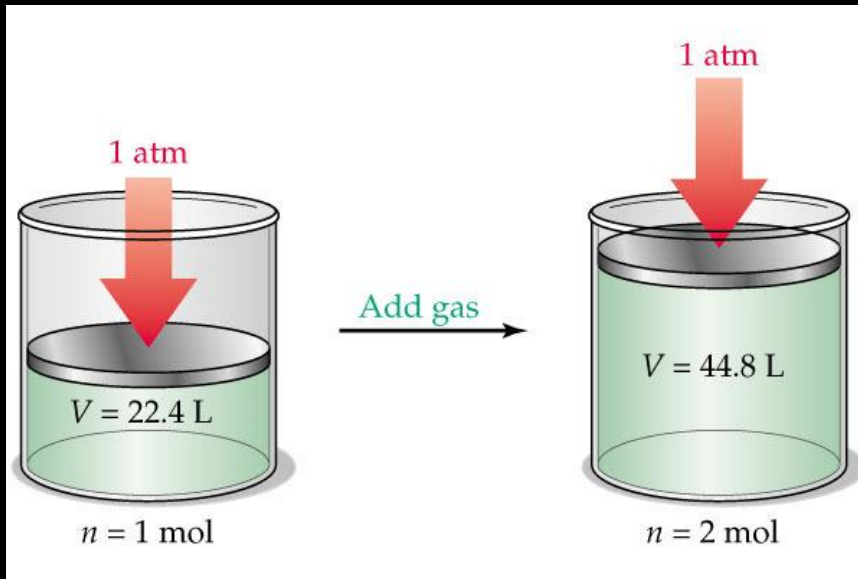
H₂ = 2.0

$$\frac{\text{Rate H}_2}{\text{Rate O}_2} = \sqrt{\frac{32.0}{2.0}} = 4.0$$



Avogadro's Law (1811)

More Moles (Molecules) means more molecular collisions

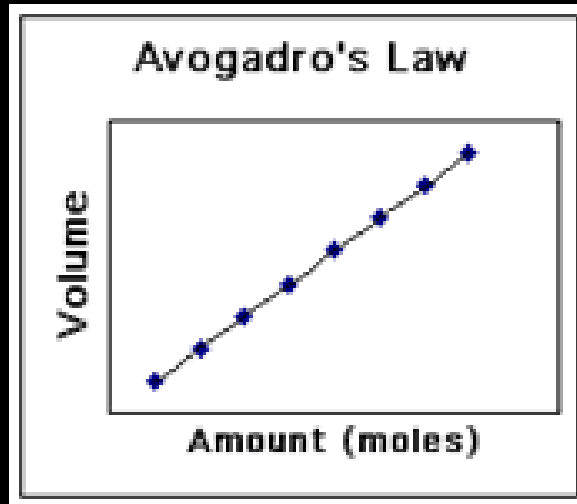


Plot is Linear:
Volume & # moles
Directly Proportional





Avogadro's Law



At constant *temperature and pressure*,
volume is directly proportional to the number of moles present



$$\frac{V_1}{n_1} = \frac{V_2}{n_2}$$

1.00 mole of gas occupies 1.45L. If the quantity of gas is increased to 2.50 moles, what is the new volume of gas?

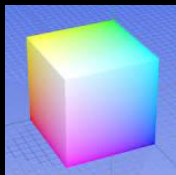
	Pressure (torr)	Volume (L)	# moles
Initial	constant	1.45	1.00
Final	constant	?	2.50

Pressure constant, use Avagadro's Law

$$\frac{V_1}{n_1} = \frac{V_2}{n_2}$$

$$\frac{1.45 \text{ L}}{1.00 \text{ m}} = \frac{V_2}{2.50 \text{ m}} \longrightarrow V_2 = \frac{(1.45 \text{ L})(2.50 \text{ m})}{1.00 \text{ m}}$$

$$V_2 = 3.625 \text{ L} \longrightarrow 3.63 \text{ L}$$

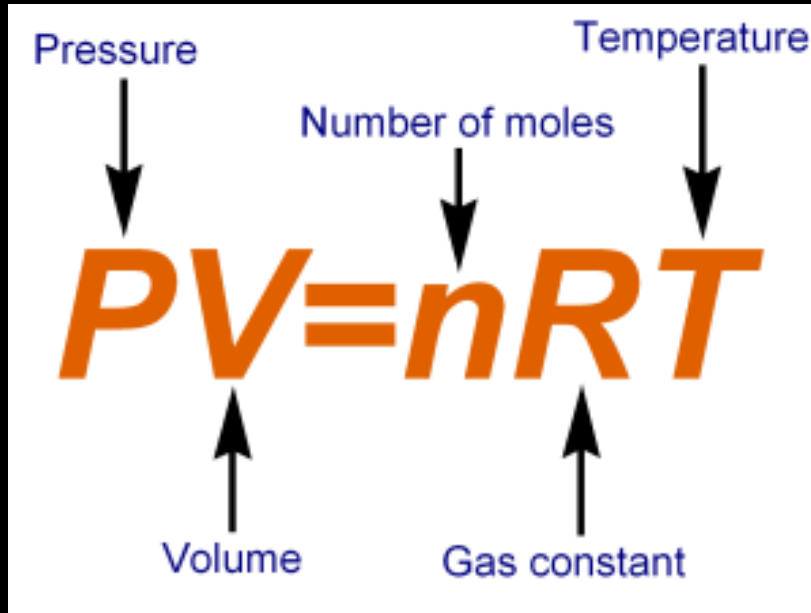




Ideal Gas Law



$$PV = kT$$



$$R = \frac{PV}{nT}$$

R makes “numbers work”

For:

P in atm; V in L; T in K

R = universal gas constant: 0.08206 L · atm / K · mol

Ideal Gas Law

$$PV = nRT$$

Based on kinetic theory of gases

Primary use is single point determination

Assumes:

Volume of individual gas molecules is negligible

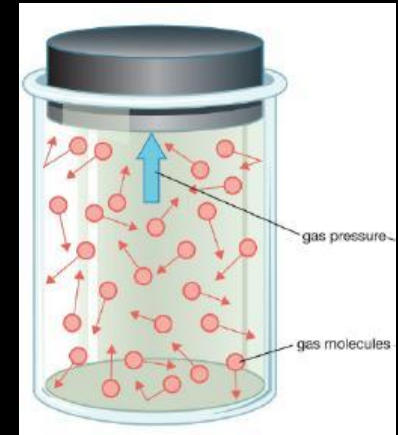
There is no attraction between individual molecules

Strongest correlation between calculated and measured:

Low pressure

High temperature

Monatomic gases



Ideal gas law assumes vast distances between gas molecules

Typically not discussed in scuba classes

Idea equation examples follow (for enlightenment)

Calculate the pressure of a 2.50 mole sample of a gas in a 5.50 L container at 27 °C.

Only one condition given → use Ideal Gas Law:

$$PV = nRT$$

$$P (5.50 \text{ L}) = (2.50 \text{ mole}) (0.08206 \text{ L-atm/K-mol}) (27 + 273 \text{ K})$$

$$P = \frac{(2.50 \text{ mole}) (0.08206 \text{ L-atm/K-mol}) (300 \text{ K})}{(5.50 \text{ L})}$$

$$P = 11.19 \text{ atm} \rightarrow 11.2 \text{ atm}$$

How many moles of a gas occupy 2.67 L at STP?

Only one condition given → use Ideal Gas Law:

STP: Standard Temperature & Pressure → 1 atm and 273 K

$$PV = nRT$$

$$(1.00 \text{ atm}) (2.67 \text{ L}) = n (0.08206 \text{ L-atm/K-mol}) (273 \text{ K})$$

$$n = \frac{(1.00 \text{ atm}) (2.67 \text{ L})}{(0.08206 \text{ L-atm/K-mol}) (273 \text{ K})}$$

$$n = 0.119184 \rightarrow 0.119 \text{ mole}$$

Real (Non-Ideal) Gases

Ideal gases (because of decreased distance between molecules) often will differ in behavior from ideal gas equations.

Modifications of ideal laws to account for molecular volumes and attractions are termed Real or non-ideal situations.

Van der Waals' Real Gas Equation

Modifies ideal gas law to account for molecular volume and attractions

New Volume term: $V-nb$ (n = moles; b = specific constant for each gas)

New Pressure term: $P + an^2 / V^2$ (a = specific constant for each gas)

$$(P + an^2 / V^2) (V-nb) = nRT$$

Values of a and b available in gas tables

Complex calculations best done by calculator / computer

Details of solution on next slide from Gas Law Primer

<http://www-personal.umich.edu/~lpt/primer.htm>

Assume : 80 ft³ scuba cylinder with water capacity of 0.4 ft³ (11.3 L)

This corresponds to ~ 100 moles of air

Using the Ideal gas equation at 25 °C, the pressure would be:

$$P = \frac{(100 \text{ moles}) (0.0821 \text{ L-ata/deg K moles}) (298 \text{ K})}{11.3 \text{ L}}$$

$$P = 216.5 \text{ ata} \quad (\text{This corresponds to } 3182.5 \text{ psia or } 3168 \text{ psig})$$

Using Van DerWaal's for compressed air:

$$P = \frac{(100 \text{ mole})(0.0821 \text{ L-ata/K moles})(298 \text{ K})}{(11.3 \text{ l} - 0.036 \text{ L/mole} (100 \text{ mole}))} - \frac{(100 \text{ mole})^2 (1.33 \text{ L}^2\text{-atm/mole}^2)}{(11.3 \text{ L})^2}$$

Solving:

$$P = 317.738 \text{ ata} - 104.159 \text{ ata}$$

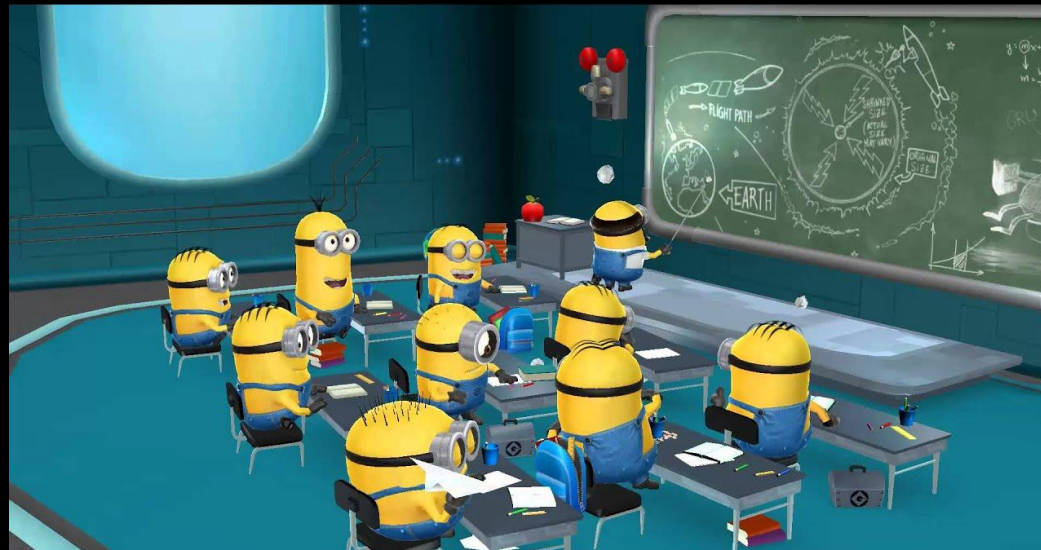
$$P = 213.58 \text{ ata} \quad (\text{This corresponds to } 3139 \text{ psia or } 3124 \text{ psig})$$

**For most scuba applications, this difference is not significant, but
Becomes critical when mixing gases**

Extra Example Problems Using Gas Table For Setup

From CEM 101

All pressures in class assumed absolute



A sample of oxygen occupies a volume of 1240 mL at temperature of 45° C. What is the volume of this gas sample if the temperature is raised to 85° C?

	Pressure	Volume (mL)	Temperature (°C)	→	Temperature (K)
Initial	constant	1240	45	+ 273	318
Final	constant	?	85	+ 273	358

Pressure constant, use Charles' Law

$$\frac{V_1}{T_1} = \frac{V_2}{T_2}$$

$$\frac{1240 \text{ mL}}{318 \text{ K}} = \frac{V_2}{358 \text{ K}} \longrightarrow \frac{(1240 \text{ mL})(358 \text{ K})}{318 \text{ K}} = V_2$$

$$V_2 = 1395.97 \text{ mL} \rightarrow 1400 \text{ mL} \quad (1.40 \times 10^3 \text{ mL})$$



Calculate the volume a gas will occupy at 15 °C if the gas has a volume of 830. mL at 42 °C.

	Pressure	Volume (mL)	Temperature (°C)	→	Temperature (K)
Initial	constant	830	42	+ 273	315
Final	constant	?	15	+ 273	288

Pressure constant, use Charles' Law

$$\frac{V_1}{T_1} = \frac{V_2}{T_2}$$

$$\frac{830 \text{ mL}}{315 \text{ K}} = \frac{V_2}{288 \text{ K}} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \frac{(830 \text{ mL})(288 \text{ K})}{315 \text{ K}} = V_2$$

$$V_2 = 758.857 \text{ mL} \rightarrow 759 \text{ mL}$$



Calculate the final temperature in °C of a gas initially at 39 °C whose volume changes from 348 ml to 657 mL. The pressure remains constant.

	Pressure	Volume (mL)	Temperature (°C)	→	Temperature (K)
Initial	constant	348	39	+ 273	312
Final	constant	657	?	+ 273	?

Pressure constant, use Charles' Law

$$\frac{V_1}{T_1} = \frac{V_2}{T_2}$$

$$\frac{348 \text{ mL}}{312 \text{ K}} = \frac{657 \text{ mL}}{T_2} \longrightarrow \frac{(657 \text{ mL}) (312 \text{ K})}{(348 \text{ mL})} = T_2$$

$$T_2 = 589.038 \rightarrow 589 \text{ K}$$

$$T_2 = 589 \text{ K} - 273 = 316 \text{ °C}$$



A sample of oxygen has a pressure of 1420. mm Hg at a temperature of 75 °C. What is the pressure of this gas sample if temperature is lowered to 19° C?

	Pressure (torr)*	Volume	Temperature (°C)	→	Temperature (K)
Initial	1420	constant	75	+ 273	348
Final	?	constant	19	+ 273	292

Volume constant, use Guy-Lussac's Law

$$\frac{P_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2}{T_2}$$

$$\frac{1420 \text{ torr}}{348 \text{ K}} = \frac{P_2}{292 \text{ K}} \longrightarrow \frac{(1420 \text{ torr})(292 \text{ K})}{348 \text{ K}} = P_2$$

$$P_2 = 1191.49 \text{ torr} \rightarrow 1190 \text{ torr} \rightarrow 1190 \text{ mm Hg}$$

$$* 1 \text{ mm Hg} = 1 \text{ torr}$$



Calculate the pressure a gas will exert at 65 °C if the gas has a pressure of 830. torr at 52 °C.

	Pressure (torr)	Volume	Temperature (°C)	→	Temperature (K)
Initial	830	constant	52	+ 273	325
Final	?	constant	65	+ 273	338

Volume constant, use Guy-Lussac's Law

$$\frac{P_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2}{T_2}$$

$$\frac{830 \text{ torr}}{325 \text{ K}} = \frac{P_2}{338 \text{ K}} \longrightarrow \frac{(830 \text{ torr})(338 \text{ K})}{325 \text{ K}} = P_2$$

$$P_2 = 863.2 \text{ torr} \rightarrow 863 \text{ torr}$$



A sample of nitrogen has a pressure of 1420. torr at a temperature of 75 °C.
 What is the ° C temperature of this gas if the pressure is lowered to 258 torr?

	Pressure (torr)	Volume	Temperature (°C)	→	Temperature (K)
Initial	1420	constant	75	+ 273	348
Final	258	constant	?	+ 273	?

Volume constant, use Guy-Lussac's Law

$$\frac{P_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2}{T_2}$$

$$\frac{1420 \text{ torr}}{348 \text{ K}} = \frac{258 \text{ torr}}{T_2} \longrightarrow \frac{(258 \text{ torr})(348 \text{ K})}{(1420 \text{ torr})} = T_2$$

$$T_2 = 63.2262 \text{ K} \rightarrow T_2 = 63.2 \text{ K}$$

$$T_2 = 63.2 \text{ K} - 273 = - 210 \text{ ° C}$$



At 723 mm Hg a gas has a volume of 294 mL. What is the new volume of this gas if the pressure is changed to 585 mm Hg?

	Pressure (mm Hg)	Volume (mL)	Temperature (°C)	Temperature (K)
Initial	723	294	constant	constant
Final	585	?	constant	constant

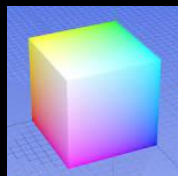
Temperature constant, use Boyle's Law

$$P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2$$

$$(723 \text{ mm Hg}) (294 \text{ mL}) = (585 \text{ mm Hg}) V_2$$

$$\frac{(723 \text{ mm Hg}) (294 \text{ mL})}{(585 \text{ mm Hg})} = V_2$$

$$V_2 = 363.354 \text{ mL} \rightarrow 363 \text{ mL}$$



At 723 torr a gas has a volume of 294 mL. What is the new pressure of this gas if the volume is changed to 1256 mL?

	Pressure (torr)	Volume (mL)	Temperature (°C)	Temperature (K)
Initial	723	294	constant	constant
Final	?	1256	constant	constant

Temperature constant, use Boyle's Law

$$P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2$$

$$(723 \text{ torr}) (294 \text{ mL}) = (1256 \text{ mL}) P_2$$

$$\frac{(723 \text{ torr}) (294 \text{ mL})}{(1256 \text{ mL})} = P_2$$

$$P_2 = 169.237 \rightarrow 169 \text{ torr}$$



A sample of neon with a volume of 825 mL at a temperature of 37 °C and a pressure of 600. torr is heated to a temperature of 68 °C and a pressure of 940. mm Hg. What is the new volume of the gas?

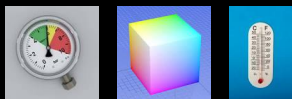
	Pressure (torr)	Volume (mL)	Temperature (°C)	→	Temperature (K)
Initial	600	825	37	+ 273	310
Final	940	?	68	+ 273	341

Pressure, Volume & Temperature change, use General Gas Law

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

$$\frac{(600 \text{ torr})(825 \text{ mL})}{310 \text{ K}} = \frac{(940 \text{ torr}) V_2}{341 \text{ K}} \rightarrow \frac{(600 \text{ torr})(825 \text{ mL})(341 \text{ K})}{(310 \text{ K})(940 \text{ torr})} = V_2$$

$$V_2 = 579.255 \text{ mL} \rightarrow 579 \text{ mL}$$



A sample of argon with a volume of 4.37 L at a temperature of 58 °C and a pressure of 725 torr is cooled to a temperature of 22 °C and a pressure of 615 mm Hg. What is the new volume of the gas?

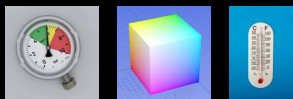
	Pressure (torr)	Volume (L)	Temperature (°C)	→	Temperature (K)
Initial	725	4.37	58	+ 273	331
Final	615	?	22	+ 273	295

Pressure, Volume & Temperature change, use General Gas Law

$$\frac{p_1 v_1}{t_1} = \frac{p_2 v_2}{t_2}$$

$$\frac{(725 \text{ torr}) (4.37 \text{ L})}{331 \text{ K}} = \frac{(615 \text{ torr}) v_2}{295 \text{ K}} \rightarrow \frac{(725 \text{ torr}) (4.37 \text{ L}) (295 \text{ K})}{(331 \text{ K}) (615 \text{ torr})} = v_2$$

$$V_2 = 4.59133 \text{ L} \rightarrow 4.59 \text{ L}$$



A sample of nitrogen with a volume of 14.7 L at a temperature of 95 °C and a pressure of 485 torr is brought to STP. What is the new volume?

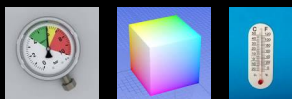
	Pressure (torr)	Volume (L)	Temperature (°C)	→	Temperature (K)
Initial	485	14.7	95	+ 273	368
Final	760	?	0	+ 273	273

Pressure, Volume & Temperature change, use General Gas Law

$$\frac{p_1 v_1}{t_1} = \frac{p_2 v_2}{t_2}$$

$$\frac{(485 \text{ torr}) (14.7 \text{ L})}{368 \text{ K}} = \frac{(760 \text{ torr}) v_2}{273 \text{ K}} \rightarrow \frac{(485 \text{ torr}) (14.7 \text{ L})(273 \text{ K})}{(368 \text{ K}) (760 \text{ torr})} = v_2$$

$$V_2 = 6.95922 \text{ L} \rightarrow 6.96 \text{ L}$$



A sample of neon at STP has a volume of 286 L. What is the pressure in atmospheres if the temperature is changed to 95 °C at a new volume of 26.5 L?

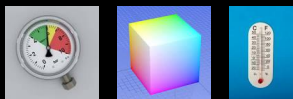
	Pressure (ata)*	Volume (L)	Temperature (°C)	→	Temperature (K)
Initial	1.00	286	0	+ 273	273
Final	?	26.5	95	+ 273	368

Pressure, Volume & Temperature change, use General Gas Law

$$\frac{P_1 V_1}{t_1} = \frac{P_2 V_2}{t_2}$$

$$\frac{(1.00 \text{ ata}) (286 \text{ L})}{273 \text{ K}} = \frac{P_2 (26.5 \text{ L})}{368 \text{ K}} \rightarrow \frac{(1.00 \text{ ata}) (286 \text{ L}) (368 \text{ K})}{(273 \text{ K}) (26.5 \text{ L})} = P_2$$

$$P_2 = 14.5481 \text{ ata} \rightarrow 14.5 \text{ ata}$$



*** ata = atmospheres absolute**

A sample of xenon with a volume of 825 mL at a temperature of 37 °C and a pressure of 600. torr is changed to a pressure of 940. mm Hg at a volume of 628 mL. What is the temperature in °C of the gas?

	Pressure (torr)	Volume (mL)	Temperature (°C)	→	Temperature (K)
Initial	600	825	37	+ 273	310
Final	940	628	?	+ 273	?

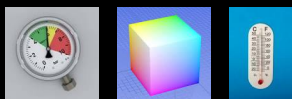
Pressure, Volume & Temperature change, use General Gas Law

$$\frac{p_1 v_1}{t_1} = \frac{p_2 v_2}{t_2}$$

$$\frac{(600 \text{ torr})(825 \text{ mL})}{310 \text{ K}} = \frac{(940 \text{ torr})(628 \text{ mL})}{T_2} \rightarrow \frac{(940 \text{ torr})(628 \text{ mL})(310 \text{ K})}{(600 \text{ torr})(825 \text{ mL})} = T_2$$

$$T_2 = 369.695 \text{ K} \rightarrow 370 \text{ K}$$

$$T_2 = 370 \text{ K} - 273 = 97 \text{ °C}$$



Solving Gas Law Problems: Merely a Matter of Paying Attention to Details!

