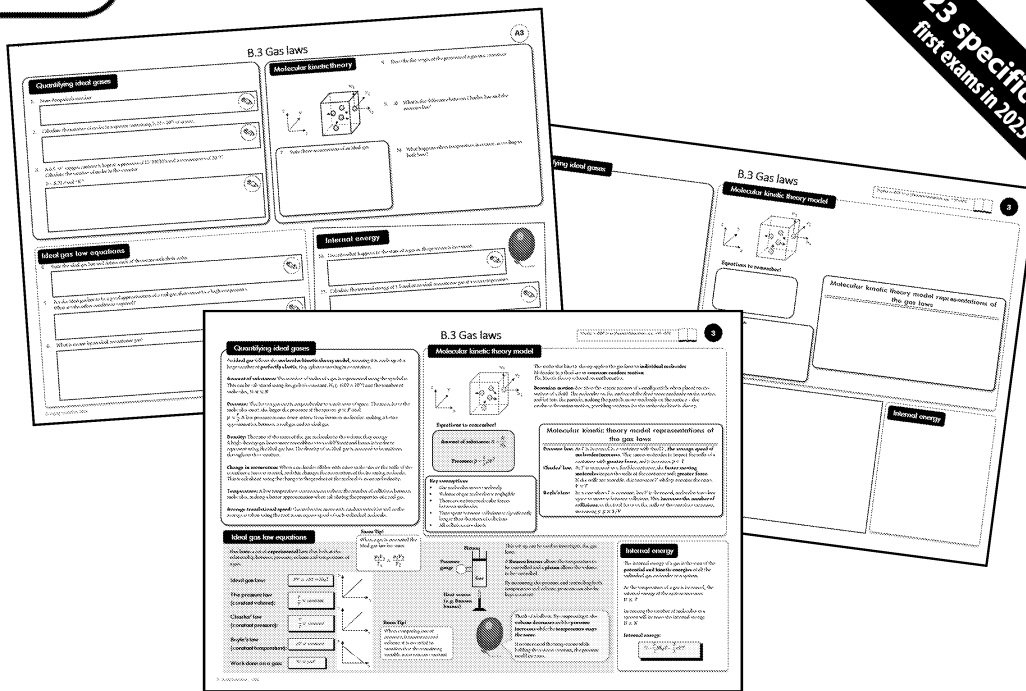


2023 specification
first exams in 2025



Topic on a Page

for IB Physics

Theme B: The Particulate Nature of Matter

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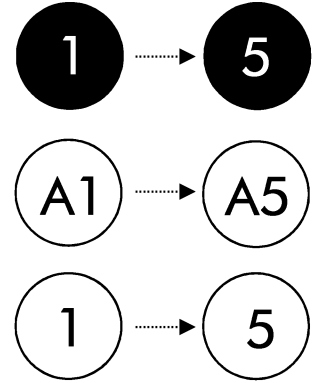
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Teacher's Introduction

This Topic-on-a-page resource has been designed to help your students revise the key points of each topic and test their knowledge after you have taught each section of the **IB Physics Diploma Programme (Standard Level and Higher Level), Theme B – The particulate nature of matter**. Each page is closely tied to the IB specification, ensuring all aspects of the course are covered.

There are four sections to this resource, each with its own features:

1. **Summary posters:** these are the main pages which intend to clearly consolidate and recap all the key information from the IB Physics course (SL and HL).
2. **Activity worksheets:** these are identical to the summary posters, but contain a variety of tasks, from filling in missing words to performing calculations. The activity worksheets aim to ensure the student understands all the key knowledge required of them and gives them the opportunity to demonstrate how well they have remembered and understood the content of the course.
3. **Outline-only pages:** these are the summary posters, but with most of the content removed. Students can research the topics, e.g. for homework, and fill in as much information as they can.
4. **Mark scheme:** full answers for the activity worksheets.



The 'summary', 'activity' and 'outline-only' sheets are designed to be A3 size, although they are still usable at A4 with no loss of detail. When photocopying activity worksheets on A3, we suggest photocopying the relevant summary poster on the reverse. If using at A4 size, we suggest photocopying each A3 'activity worksheet' (for writing answers) as a double-sided A4 page to avoid shrinking the space available for answers.

Each page presents information in a variety of ways, including:

- **Bold key words** – essential terminology in bold, allowing students to skim and revise main points quickly.
- **Bullet-point processes** – complex processes and lists have been summarised into quick, easy-to-learn points.
- **Graphs** – sketch graphs illustrate complex points without providing unnecessary information.
- **Comparison tables** – a quick way of comparing key features of different processes or features.
- **Equation boxes** – concisely state the equations used in required calculations.
- **Exam tips** – aid memorisation, revision and exam technique in areas where students typically struggle.

We hope you find these pages useful during your teaching and your students' revision.

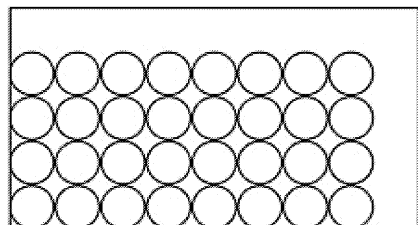
September 2024

B.1 Thermal energy transfers

Molecular theory

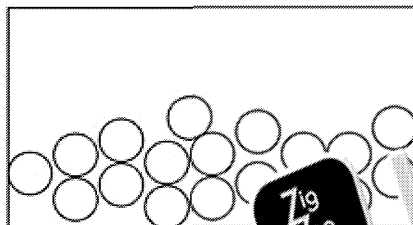
The three states of matter are:

$$\text{Density, } \rho \text{ (kg m}^{-3}\text{)} = \frac{m}{V}$$



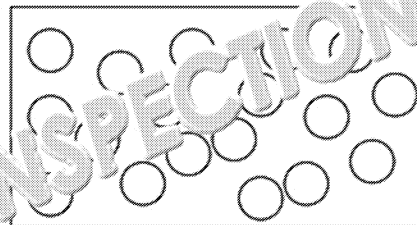
Solid

- Atoms vibrate in fixed position.
- **High density** from efficiently packed atoms.
- **Low internal energy** as particles vibrate in a fixed position (low kinetic energy).
- **High potential energy** due to strong forces.



Liquid

- Atoms slide over each other, matching the shape of the container.
- **Lower density** than for solid material.
- Exert pressure on sides of container.
- Relatively **high internal energy** due to lots of molecules interacting.



Gas

- Atoms move freely, following Brownian motion.
- **Low density** as molecules spread out to fill the container.
- **High internal energy** as molecules have lots of kinetic energy.
- **Low potential energy** as molecules rarely interact.

Mechanisms for energy transfer

There are three mechanisms for energy transfer:

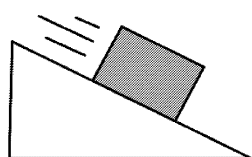
Conduction
Occurs when two materials of different temperature are in direct contact.
The hotter material has particles with a higher kinetic energy which is then transferred to the colder material by collisions.
The rate of this transfer is: $\frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} = kA \frac{\Delta T}{\Delta x}$

Equations to remember!

Stefan-Boltzmann law: $L = \sigma AT^4$

Luminosity: $b = \frac{L}{4\pi d^2}$

Wien's displacement law: $\lambda_{\max} T = 2.9 \times 10^{-3}$



Internal energy: Sum of the potential and kinetic energies of the particles in a body arising from their random motion.

Brownian motion: Particles move in random directions and at varying velocities.

Specific heat capacity and latent heat

Thermal energy is transferred from a hotter body to a colder one (but never the other way around!). This transfer is measured using the **specific heat capacity**, c , which is the energy required to raise the temperature of 1 kg of a substance by 1 °C.

At a certain temperature, the particles overcome the **intermolecular forces** between each other and a phase change occurs. During this, the temperature remains constant as all the energy is being used to split apart the particles.

There are three state changes to be aware of:

1. **Fusion** – solid to a liquid
2. **Vaporisation** – liquid to a gas
3. **Condensation** – gas to a liquid

These are quantified using the **specific latent heat of fusion**, L , which is the energy required for 1 kg of a substance to undergo a state change without a change in temperature. The most common example is the specific latent heat of fusion of water.

Exam Tip!

Remember to convert from °C to K before performing calculations:

$$T(\text{K}) = T(\text{°C}) + 273.15$$

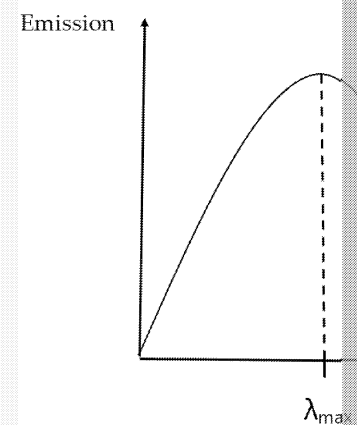
The difference between two temperatures is the same whether the temperatures are in Kelvin or degrees Celsius!

Black body radiation

A black body emits wavelength. This emission can be modelled. The power emitted by a material is directly proportional to the area and the fourth power of the temperature.

The luminosity is related to the distance to the body. σ is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant.

Wien's displacement law states that the wavelength of maximum emission is inversely proportional to the core temperature of the body.



Kelvin scale: Measure of the average kinetic energy, $\bar{E}_K = \frac{3}{2} k_B T$

Specific heat capacity, c (J kg⁻¹ K⁻¹): $Q = mc\Delta T$

Specific latent heat, L (J kg⁻¹): $Q = mL$

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B.2 Greenhouse effect

Emissivity and absorption

The conservation of energy law states that:

'Energy cannot be created or destroyed, it can only be transferred from one body to another'

In relation to solar rays this means that an incident source of radiation can either be **absorbed, reflected or re-emitted** by another body.

The **emissivity** of a body can be quantified as the ratio of power radiated per unit area. This is relative to a **perfect black body** where the emission would be across all wavelengths.

The **reflection** of radiation is related to the **albedo**, the average energy reflected off a macroscopic system.

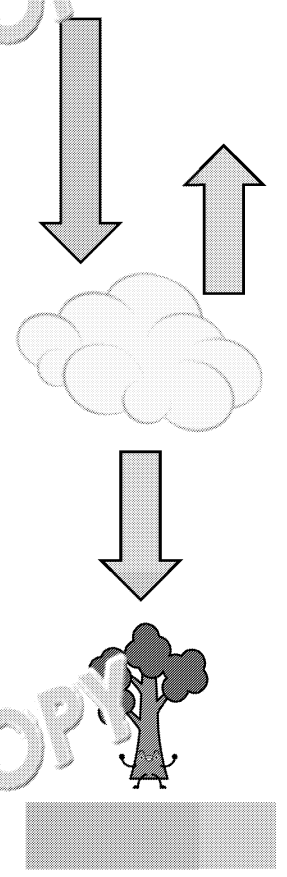
The **average albedo of Earth is ~0.3** but this value depends on the **latitude and formation of clouds**. At higher latitudes, Earth's varying angular tilt causes shifts in the regions where solar radiation strikes. In general, the **greater the tilt towards the Sun, the greater the solar radiation** that reaches Earth. This is what leads to seasons.

Clouds primarily reflect solar radiation; therefore, the more clouds there are in the sky, the less solar radiation that reaches Earth's surface.



$$\text{Emissivity} = \frac{\text{power radiated per unit area}}{\sigma T^4}$$

$$\text{Albedo} = \frac{\text{total scattered power}}{\text{total incident power}}$$



Solar constant

The **solar constant** is the amount of solar radiation received by the Earth from the Sun. Calculating the solar constant is $S = 1400 \text{ W m}^{-2}$.

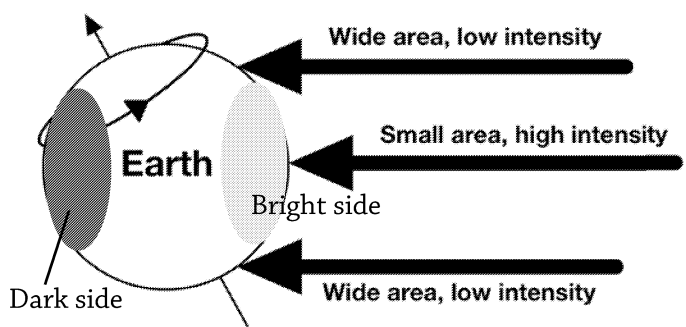
This radiated power is the energy that reaches the planet changes.

Imagine completely different latitudes. The amount of solar radiation that reaches **this surface** would be different. The length of the shadow would change.

Enhanced greenhouse effect

There are **four main** greenhouse gases.

- Methane**
 - Small amount of methane is present in the atmosphere.
 - Generated during the production of agricultural products.
- Carbon dioxide**
 - Present in the atmosphere.
 - Produced from the combustion of fossil fuels.

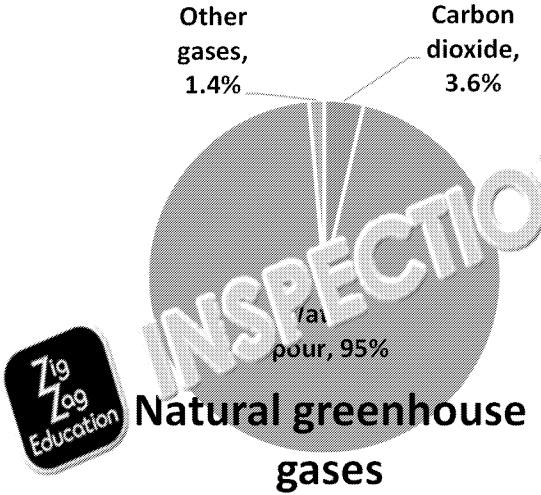
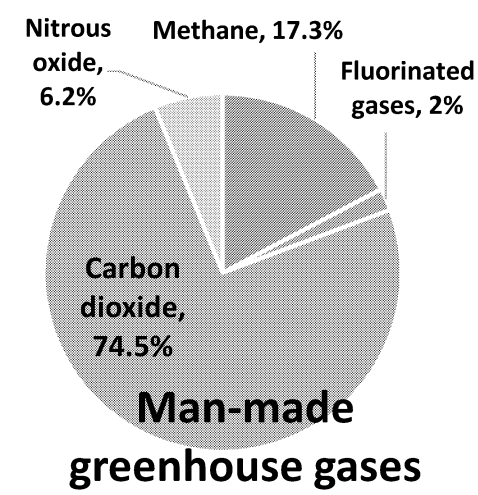


Total radiative power of sun = $S \times \pi R^2$

Surface area of the bright side of the Earth = $4\pi R^2$

Incoming radiative power = $\frac{S \times \pi R^2}{4\pi R^2} = \frac{S}{4}$

where S is the solar constant, and R is the radius of the disc emitting solar radiation



The **enhanced greenhouse effect** describes the process where greenhouse gases trap heat in the atmosphere. This process leads to more heating of the Earth's surface.

The main greenhouse gases absorb solar radiation. This radiation has energy equal to the energy of the **bending and vibrating motions of molecules**.

This means that when solar radiation reaches the surface of Earth, and is absorbed by **greenhouse gases**. This radiation causes the molecules to vibrate and bend, which then radiates energy back towards the Earth's surface.

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B.3 Gas laws

Quantifying ideal gases

An **ideal gas** follows the **molecular kinetic theory model**, meaning it is made up of a large number of **perfectly elastic**, tiny spheres moving in a container.

Amount of substance: The number of moles of a gas is represented using the symbol n . This can be calculated using Avogadro's constant, $N_A (= 6.02 \times 10^{23})$ and the number of molecules, N . $n \propto N$

Pressure: The force a gas exerts perpendicular to a unit area. The more force the molecules exert, the larger the pressure of the system. $p \propto \frac{F}{A}$. A low pressure means fewer interactions between molecules, making a better approximation between a real gas and an ideal gas.

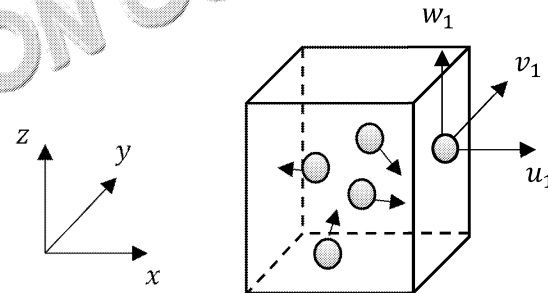
Density: The ratio of the mass of the gas molecules to the volume they occupy. A high-density gas bears more resemblance to a solid/liquid and hence is harder to represent using the ideal gas law. The density of an ideal gas is assumed to be uniform throughout the container.

Change in momentum: When a molecule collides with other molecules or the walls of the container a force is exerted, and this changes the momentum of the incoming molecule. This is calculated using the change in the product of the molecule's mass and velocity.

Temperature: A low temperature environment reduces the number of collisions between molecules, making a better approximation when calculating the properties of a real gas.

Average translational speed: Gas molecules move with random velocities and the average is taken using the root mean square speed of each individual molecule.

Molecular kinetic theory model



The molecules are in constant motion. The kinetic energy of the molecules is related to the temperature.

Brownian motion: The random motion of particles suspended in a fluid, caused by collisions with the molecules of the fluid.

Equations to remember!

Amount of substance: $n = \frac{N}{N_A}$

Pressure: $p = \frac{1}{3} \rho v^2$

Key assumptions

- Gas molecules move randomly
- The volume of gas molecules is negligible
- There are no intermolecular forces between molecules
- Time spent between collisions is significantly longer than duration of collisions
- All collisions are elastic

Exam Tip! When a gas is evacuated the ideal gas law becomes $pV = nRT$

Ideal gas law equations

Gas laws: a set of **experimental** laws that look at the relationship between pressure, volume and temperature of a gas.

Ideal gas law:

$PV = nRT = Nk_B T$

The pressure law (constant volume):

$\frac{P}{T} = \text{constant}$

Charles' law (constant pressure):

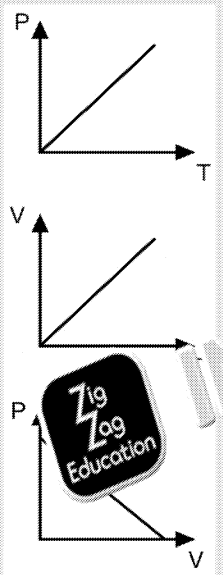
$\frac{V}{T} = \text{constant}$

Boyle's law (constant temperature):

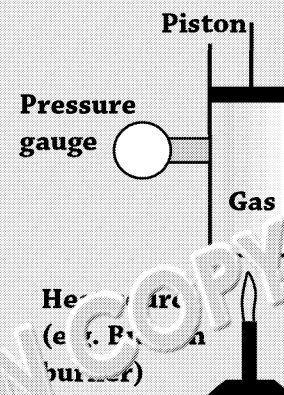
$pV = \text{constant}$

Work done on a gas:

$W = p\Delta V$



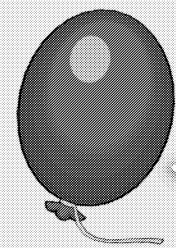
When comparing two of pressure, temperature and volume, it is essential to mention that the remaining variable must remain constant.



This set-up can be used to investigate the gas laws.

A **Bunsen burner** allows the flame to be controlled and a **piston** can be controlled.

By measuring the pressure, temperature and volume, the gas laws can be kept constant.



Think of a balloon. By **compressing** the gas, the **volume decreases** and the **pressure increases** while the **temperature is the same**.

If we increased the temperature, holding the volume constant, the pressure would increase.

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Pressure

Charles

Boyle's

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B.4 Thermodynamics (Additional Higher Level)

Thermal energy transfer

Internal energy: the sum of the randomly distributed kinetic energies and potential energies of particles in a system or body.

First law of thermodynamics

The change of internal energy of the object is equal to the total energy transferred due to work done and heating.

$$\Delta U = Q - W$$

ΔU = change in internal energy, Q = change in heat, W = work done

Internal energy is constant when:

- **no energy transfer** by heating and **no work is done**
- OR
- energy transfer by heating and work done are **equal and opposite**

$$\Delta U = \frac{3}{2} Nk_B \Delta T = \frac{3}{2} nR \Delta T$$

ΔU = change in internal energy, ΔT = change in temperature

Internal energy can be increased by:

- **heating** the object
- OR
- **doing work** on the object:

$$W = P \Delta V$$

ΔV = change in volume, P = pressure

Doing **work on a system** (e.g. compressing a gas) means **work is done on the system** and the work is positive ($W > 0$) when **work is done by the system**.

Imagine an engine – as the air is compressed, it heats up. No heat is being added, but work is being done – this raises the internal energy, so temperature increases.

Key terms

- Isovolume** – constant volume
- Isobaric** – constant pressure
- Isothermal** – constant temperature
- Adiabatic processes** – no heat in ($\Delta Q = 0$, $PV^\gamma = \text{constant}$)
- Carnot cycle** – ideal thermodynamic cycle
- Closed system** – energy transferred as either heat or work, mass remains constant
- Isolated system** – no heat or mass can be transferred in or out of the system

Entropy

Entropy

- Measure of disorder
- Increase in entropy is spontaneous

Alternatives of thermodynamics

Clausius – a heat engine cannot operate with no net heat exchange with a reservoir at a higher temperature.

Kelvin – it is impossible to devise a cyclic process that produces no other effect than the extraction of heat from a hotter reservoir.

For any spontaneous process, the total entropy of the system and surroundings increases. For any process that is not spontaneous, the total entropy of the system and surroundings decreases.

Consider the entropy change of the system and surroundings. For a process to be spontaneous, the total entropy change must be positive.

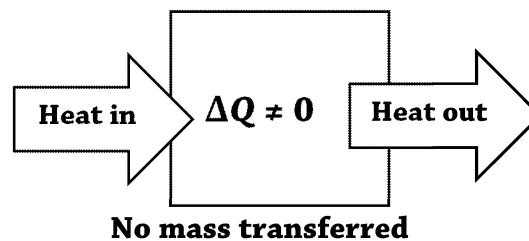
Exam Tip!

Keep track of direction of energy transfer. Heat flowing **into** an object means ΔQ is **positive**. Heat flowing **out** of an object means ΔQ is **negative**.

Isolated system



Closed system



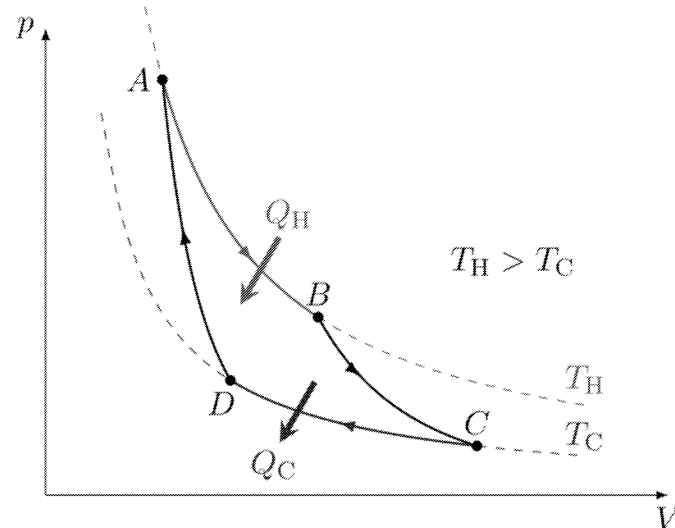
Heat engines

A **heat engine** converts thermal energy into mechanical work. This is achieved by transferring thermal energy from a hot reservoir to a cold reservoir.

This process follows engine cycles which are composed of **four processes**:

1. **(D → A) Adiabatic compression** – work done on gas, reducing volume, and increasing temperature
2. **(A → B) Isobaric expansion** – Gas does work, heat taken from surroundings.
3. **(B → C) Adiabatic expansion** – Gas does work, increasing volume and decreasing temperature and pressure
4. **(C → D) Isobaric compression** – Work done on gas, heat lost to surroundings.

Efficiency of a heat engine is the ratio of the useful work transferred to the total energy input. Most heat engines are irreversible. The efficiency can increase but only up to a limit set by the **Carnot cycle**. This is set by the temperatures of the hot and cold reservoirs surrounding the heat engine.



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B.5 Current and circuits

Basics of electricity

Cells provide a **source of electromotive force** (emf), ϵ , driving the flow of electrons around a circuit. For example, a cell with an emf of 1 V can provide a **maximum potential difference** of 1 V. Cells are classified by their emf as well as their **internal resistance**, r .

$$\epsilon = I(R + r)$$

Remember to allow for I and R

The electrical **potential difference**, V , is the **work done**, W , by a **unit positive charge**, q , between two points along a circuit.

$$V = \frac{W}{q}$$

Direct current, I , is defined as the **number of charge carriers**, Δq , that pass a given point **in unit time**, Δt .

$$I = \frac{\Delta q}{\Delta t}$$

There are **two types of energy sources** (cells) to be aware of: chemical and solar. **Chemical cells** involve chemical reactions between a set of **electrodes** and an **electrolyte** that produces a voltage. **Solar cells** involve solar radiation being transferred into electrical energy via the electron-hole pair migration. This generates an excess of free electrons by the **photovoltaic effect**.

Energy source	Examples	Advantages	Disadvantages
Chemical cell	Li-ion batteries, hydrogen fuel cell	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Small and compact Cheap, readily available. and large emf 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Requires a constant supply of reactants
Solar cell	Photovoltaic cell, silicon solar panels	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Renewable source of energy Requires no fuel or chemical reactions 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Requires a constant, intense source of light

Resistance

Electrical **resistance** is the ratio of potential difference to the current passing through a component. It is measured in **ohms**, Ω .

Because electrons encounter resistance in a resistor is the amount of energy transferred per unit charge.

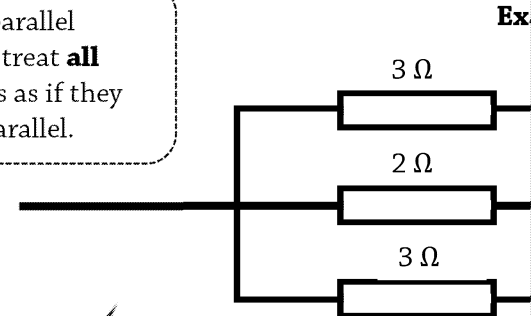
Resistivity, ρ , is the measure of a material's resistance to the flow of electric current. It is proportional to its **length**, l , and inversely proportional to its **cross-sectional area**, A .

There are three types of **variable resistors**:

- Thermistors** – resistance decreases as temperature increases.
- Light-dependant resistors (LDRs)** – resistance decreases as light intensity increases.
- Potentiometers** – split up the voltage across a circuit.

Exam Tip!

In any parallel branch, treat **all** resistors as if they are in parallel.



Conductors and insulators

In order for an electrical **current** to pass through a material, the **electrons** must be able to travel through the material:

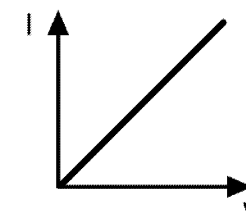
- Conductors** – electrons are not tightly bound to any nuclei and so are highly mobile.
- Insulators** – electrons are tightly bound to the nucleus and so are unable to move around to carry current.

Ohm's law states

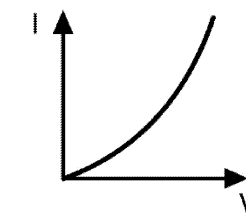
“The current through an Ohmic conductor is directly proportional to the potential difference across it, given that the temperature is constant.”

For an **Ohmic conductor**, the I–V characteristics can be illustrated by a **straight-line graph**. From this, the gradient can be calculated and interpreted as the resistance of the component.

In a **non-Ohmic conductor**, the I–V characteristic will follow a **non-linear curve** and therefore the resistance changes as the quantities are changed. It is then necessary to estimate the resistance at individual points along the curve.



Ohmic Conductor



Non-Ohmic Conductor

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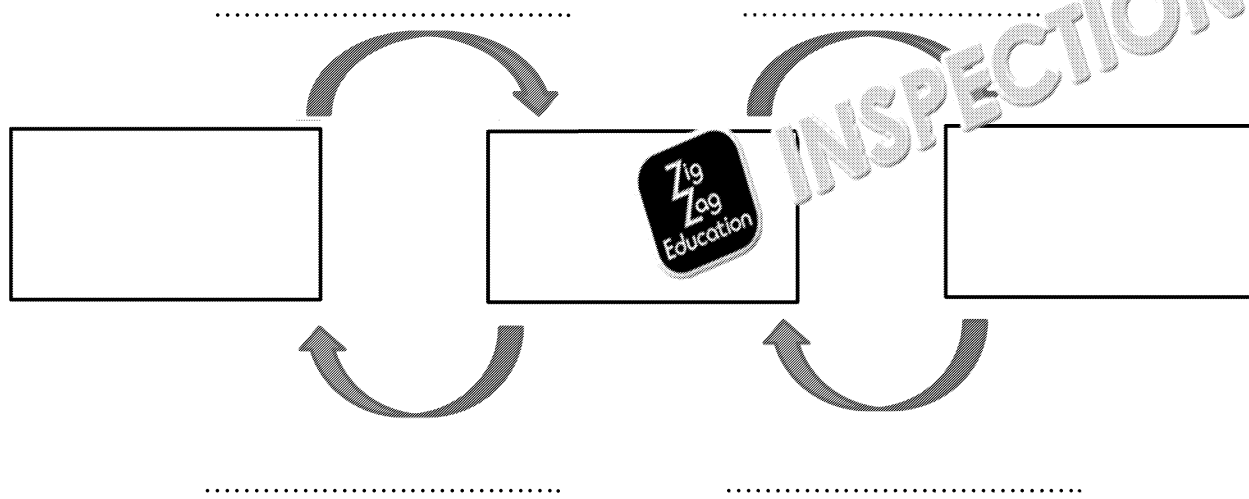
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B.1 Thermal energy transfers

Molecular theory

1. Complete the diagram to show the three states of matter and the different state changes.

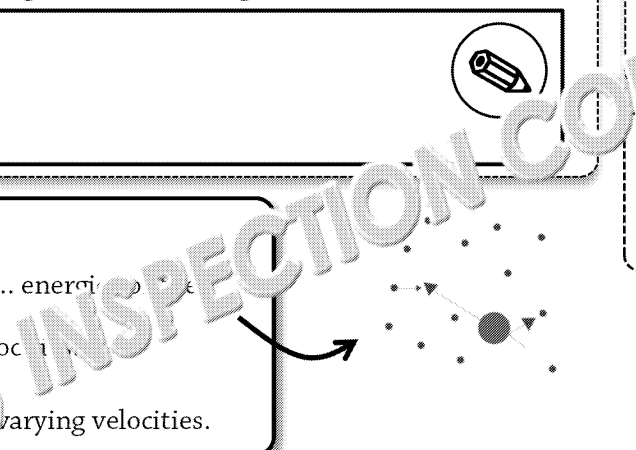


2. Calculate the density of a square block with a mass of 3 kg and length 3 cm, including the units.

3. Complete the following:

Internal energy is the sum of the and energy of particles in a body arising from their motion and location.

Brownian motion: Particles move in random directions with varying velocities.



Specific heat capacity and latent heat

Specific heat capacity, c ($\text{J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$): $Q = mc\Delta T$
Specific latent heat, L (J kg^{-1}): $Q = mL$

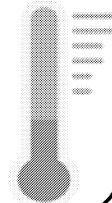
6. A pot of water of mass 5 kg is heated to its boiling point. What is the energy required for the water to evaporate?

Specific latent heat of fusion of water = 3340 J kg^{-1}

7. A pot of water is heated from 20°C to its boiling point. The heat energy required to heat the water of mass 5 kg is $5.0 \times 10^5 \text{ J}$. Calculate the mass of water in the pot.

Specific heat capacity of water = $4200 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$

8. Calculate the average kinetic energy of a system of nitrogen molecules at 32°C .



Mechanisms for energy transfer

4. Complete the table to briefly explain the mechanisms for energy transfer.

Conduction

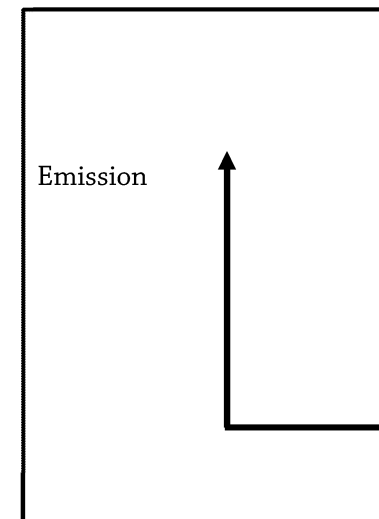
5. The rate of thermal energy transfer of a material changes by 2°C every 0.2 m . Calculate the constant of proportionality.

9. Convert 213°C to kelvin.

10. Define a perfect black body.

11. Explain what is meant by a black body.

12. Calculate the peak wavelength of the emission spectrum.

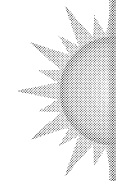


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B.2 Greenhouse effect



Emission and absorption

1. Calculate the core temperature of a body where the emissivity is 0.8 and the power radiated is $1.3 \times 10^9 \text{ W}$



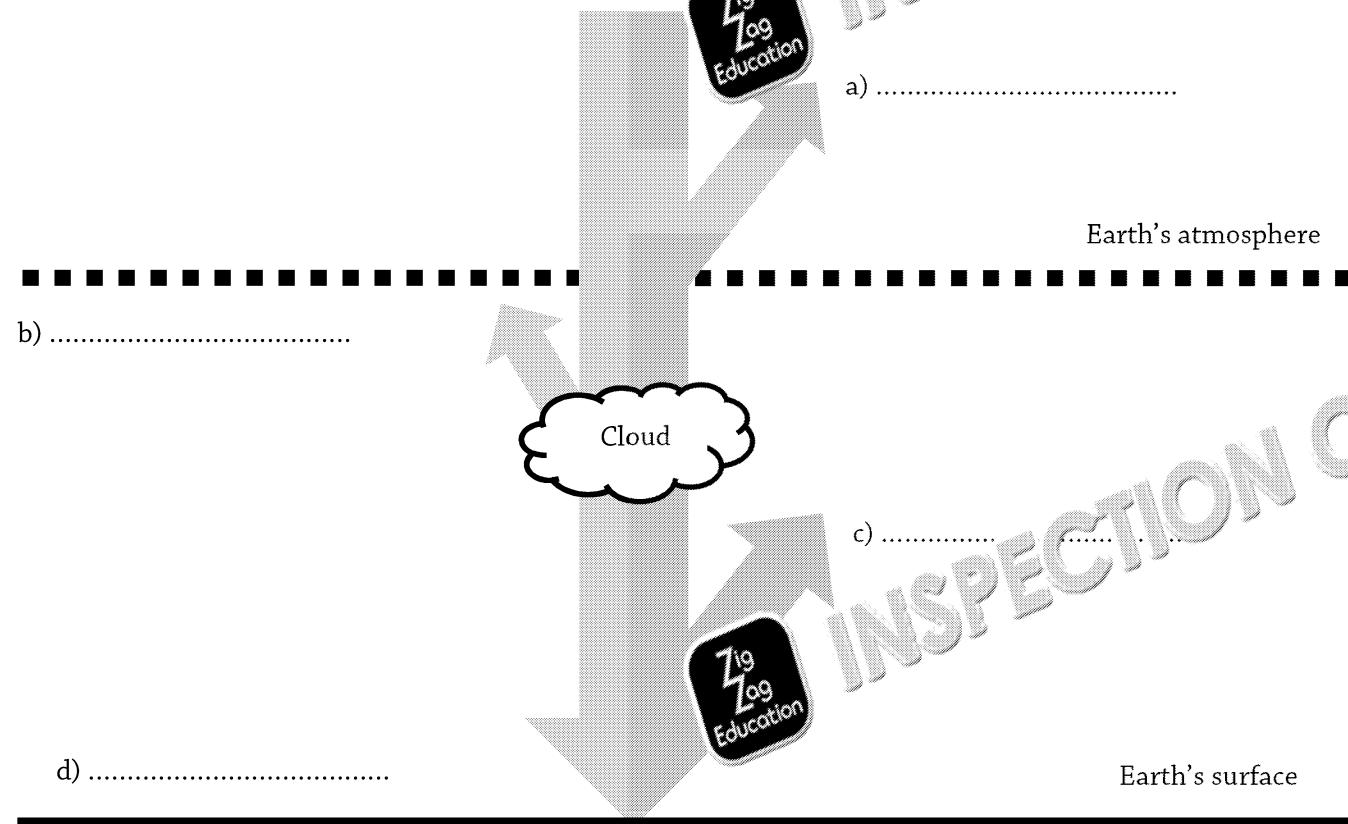
2. Solar radiation of $1.8 \times 10^{12} \text{ W}$ is incident on Earth. $1.2 \times 10^{12} \text{ W}$ is scattered by Earth's atmosphere, what is the albedo of Earth?



3. Explain how Earth's albedo contributes to the seasons.



4. Label the diagram to show the energy balance of solar radiation reaching Earth. Incident radiation is 1400 W m^{-2} . 10 % is reflected by Earth's atmosphere, 10 % is reflected by the clouds, and 50 % of the remaining radiation is absorbed by Earth's surface.



5. State the definition of the solar constant

6. Why is it that the average radiation temperature of Earth is higher than it would be without an atmosphere?

7. It turns out the radiation emitted by Earth is the same as the radiation absorbed by Earth. Explain this observation.

Enhanced greenhouse effect

8. Why is it that burning fossil fuels contributes to the enhanced greenhouse effect?

9. The resonance model describes the vibration of a molecule of carbon dioxide. Why is this the case?

10. Many misunderstand that greenhouse gases are responsible for the greenhouse effect. Why is this the case?

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B.3 Gas laws

Quantifying ideal gases

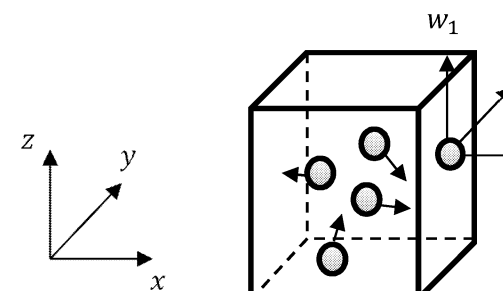
1. State Avogadro's number.

2. Calculate the number of moles in a system containing 1.5×10^{23} molecules of oxygen gas.

3. A 6.5 m^3 oxygen canister is kept at a pressure of $15\,200 \text{ kPa}$ and a temperature of 20°C . Calculate the number of moles in the canister.

$$R = 8.31 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$$

Molecular kinetic theory



7. State three assumptions of an ideal gas.

Ideal gas law equations

4. State the ideal gas law and define each of the terms with units.

5. For the ideal gas law to be a good approximation of a real gas, there must be a high temperature. What are the other conditions required?

6. What is meant by an ideal monatomic gas?

Internal energy

10. Describe what happens to the internal energy of a gas when it is heated at constant volume.

11. Calculate the internal energy of 2 mol of an ideal monatomic gas at 300 K .

12. Why is it that a high temperature is required for an ideal gas approximation to be valid?

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B.4 Thermodynamics (Additional Higher Level)

Thermal energy transfer

1. State the first law of thermodynamics.

First law of thermodynamics



2. 100 J of heat is taken out of an isolated system. If the work done by the gas is 50 J, what is the change in internal energy?



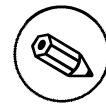
3. An isolated system is comprised of 1.5 mol of oxygen molecules contained in a container at a pressure of 100 kPa. The gas is compressed from 20 cm³ to 10 cm³, increasing the temperature by 20 K. Calculate the transfer of energy as heat.



Key terms

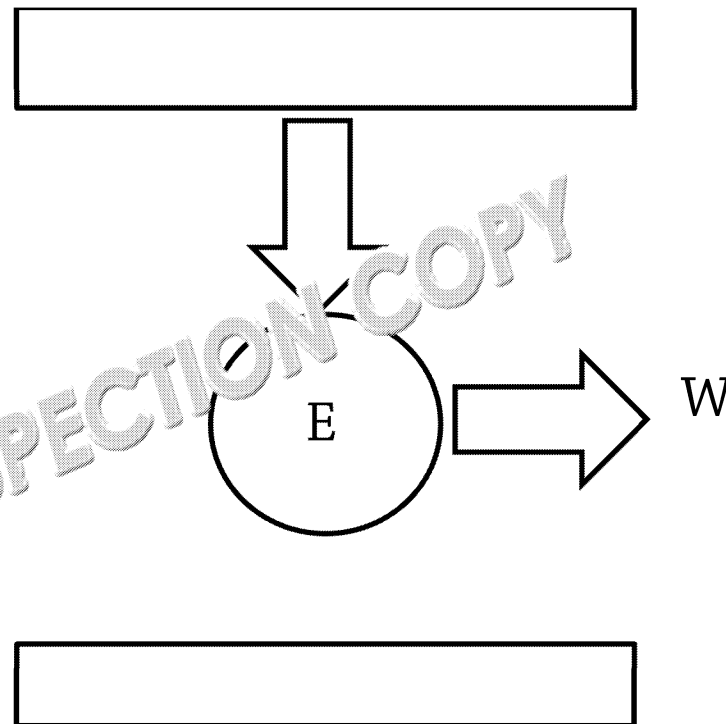
4. State the meaning of the term...

Isobaric



Closed system

5. Complete the diagram below to illustrate an engine working between two bodies of different temperatures.



Entropy

6. State the...

7. State the...

8. What is a... system?

9. Explain a non-...

Heat engines

10. State the word equation for efficiency.

Answer box for question 10.



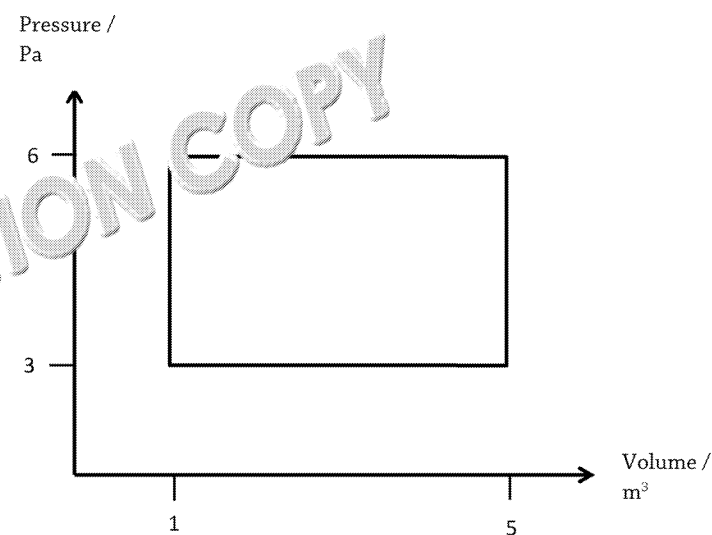
11. Give one way of increasing the efficiency of an engine.

Answer box for question 11.



12. What would happen to the efficiency if two heat engines were connected between the bodies?

Answer box for question 12.



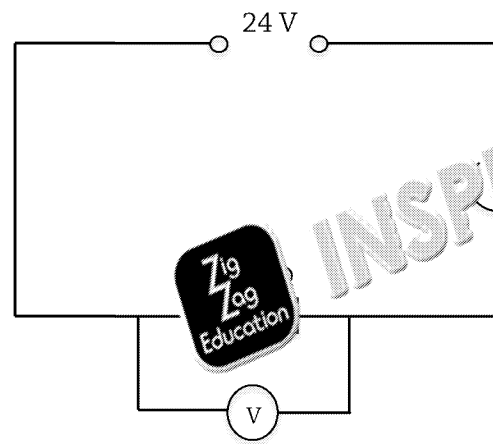
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B.5 Current and circuits

Basics of electricity



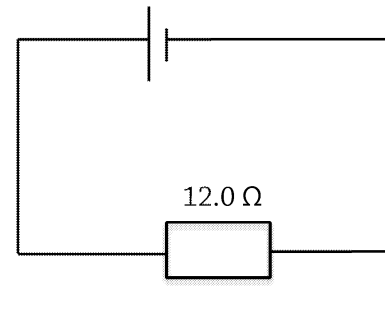
1. The emf of the source of the circuit is 24 V and it is connected in series to a 11.4Ω resistor. The reading on the ammeter is 1.9 A.

a) Calculate the internal resistance of the power source.

b) Calculate the reading on the voltmeter.

c) Explain why the reading on the voltmeter is less than the emf of the power source.

Resistance



2. 1.20 A is present in the circuit.

a) Calculate the emf of the battery.

b) Determine the internal resistance of the battery.

3. A variable resistor circuit is set up with a thermistor. The thermistor is used to detect when the fridge door has been left open too long. The voltage output is connected to an alarm. When the voltage reaches a sufficiently high value, the alarm rings.

a) Explain how the alarm rings as the temperature of the thermistor increases.

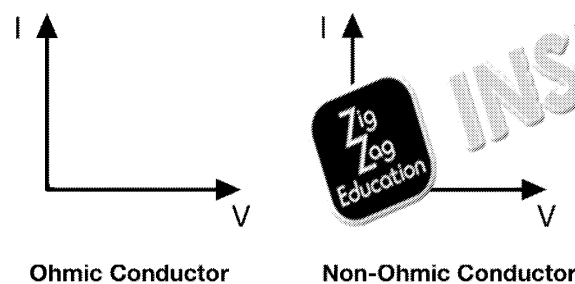
At a certain temperature, the resistance of the thermistor is measured to be 6.4Ω .

b) Calculate the voltage output when the resistance of the thermistor is 6.4Ω .

Conductors and insulators

4. State Ohm's law.

5. Complete the axes to show the I-V characteristics of an Ohmic and a non-Ohmic conductor.



Circuit laws

6. Complete the table.

Quantity
Current
Potential difference
Resistance

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B.1 Thermal energy transfers

Molecular theory

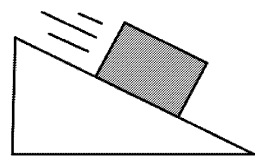
Density

Mechanisms for energy transfer



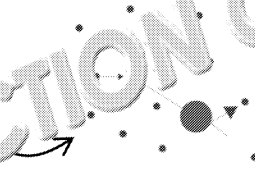
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Equations to remember!



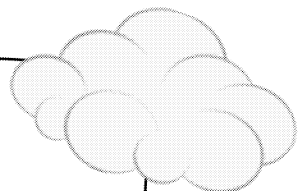
Internal energy:

Brownian motion:



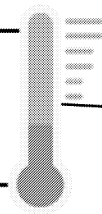
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Specific heat capacity and latent heat



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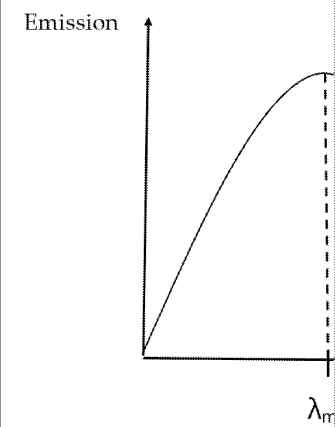
Kelvin scale:



Specific heat capacity

Specific latent heat

Black body radiation

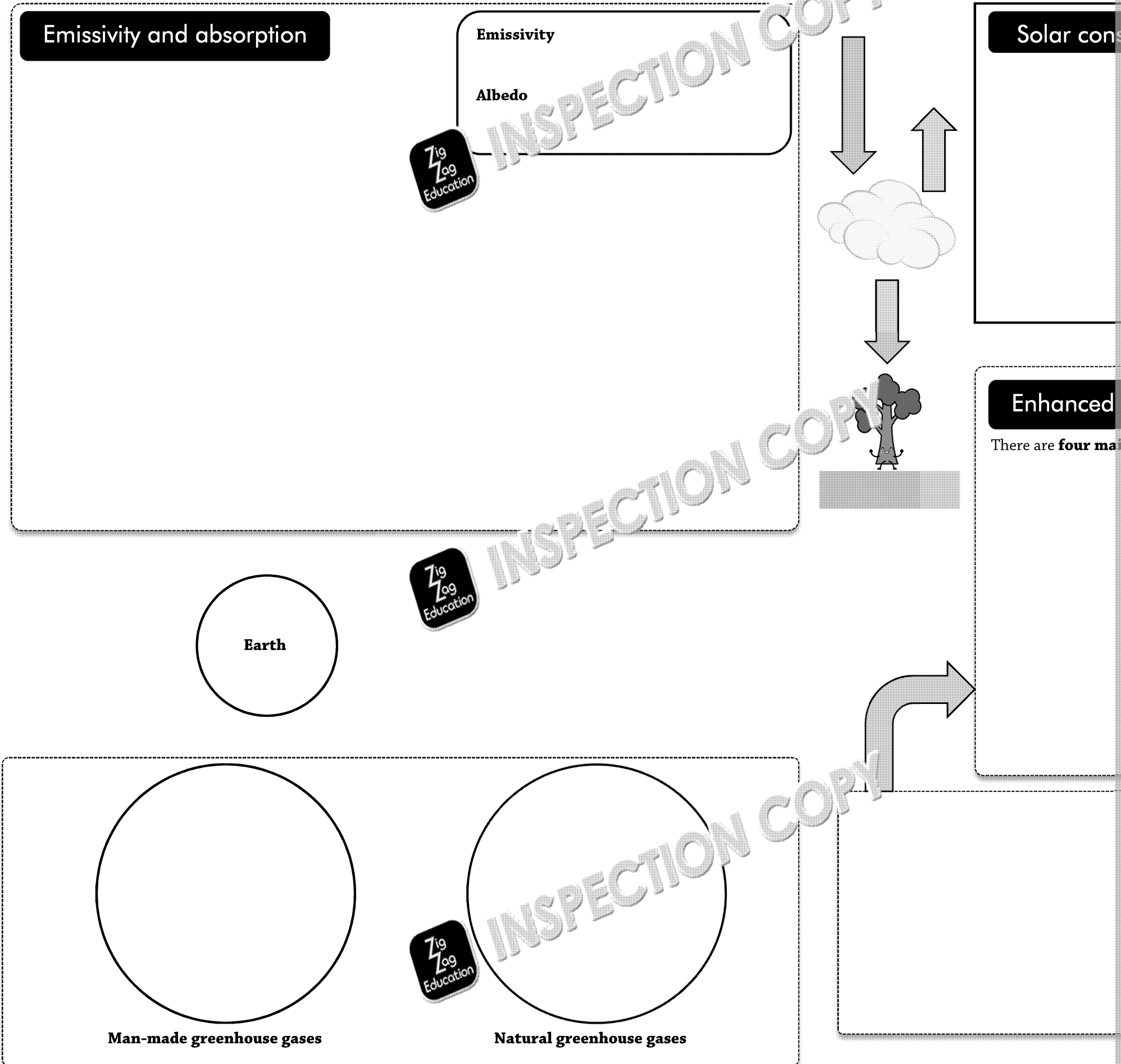


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B.2 Greenhouse effect



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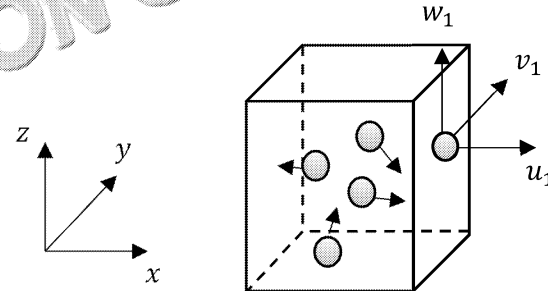


B.3 Gas laws

Quantifying ideal gases



Molecular kinetic theory model



Equations to remember!

Key assumptions:

Ideal gas law equations



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B.4 Thermodynamics (Additional Higher Level)

Thermal energy transfer

First law of thermodynamics

$$\Delta U = \Delta Q + \Delta W$$

Key terms

Isolated system

Closed system

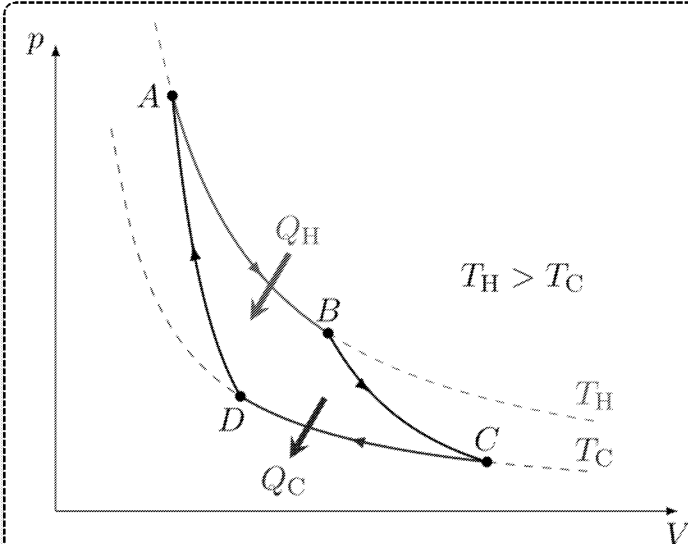
Intro

Alternati
of therm

Consider the un

Imagine an engine –

Heat engines



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B.5 Current and circuits

Basics of electricity

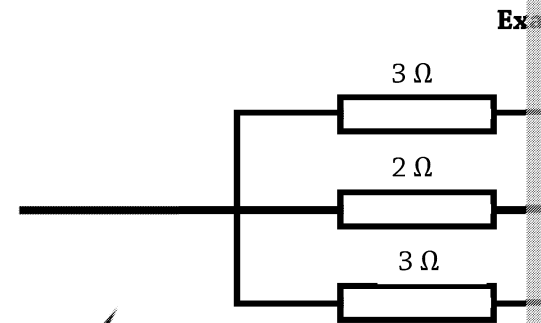
Resistance



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Conductors and insulators



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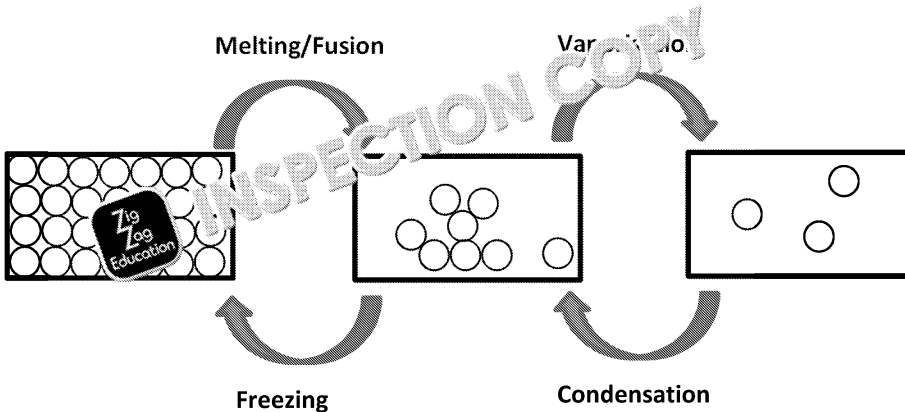
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IB Topic on a Page, Theme B: Matter

B.1 Thermal energy transfers

1.



2. $v = (3 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m})^3 = 2.7 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m}^3$

Density = $m \div v = 3 \div (2.7 \times 10^{-5}) = 1.11 \times 10^5 \text{ kg m}^{-3}$

3. Internal energy is the sum of the **kinetic** and **potential** energies of the particles due to their **random** motion and velocities.

4.

Conduction	Convection	
Transfer of kinetic energy from a hotter body to a colder one	Differences in density (due to differences in temperature) cause a fluid, generating convection currents	Tr wi be el in

5. $k = \frac{3}{20 \text{ m}} = 1.5 \text{ J s}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$

Describes the amount of energy transferred per second in one metre of material raised by one kelvin.

6. $\Delta Q = \Delta mL$

$\Delta Q = 5 \times 3340 = 1.67 \times 10^4 \text{ J}$

7. $Q = mc\Delta T$ rearranges to $m = Q / (c\Delta T)$

$Q = 5.0 \times 10^5 \text{ J}, \Delta T = 80 \text{ K}, c = 4200 \text{ J kg}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$

$m = (5.0 \times 10^5) / (4200 \times 80) = 1.488 \text{ kg} \sim 1.5 \text{ kg}$

8. $KE = \frac{3}{2} k_B T$

$KE = \frac{3}{2} \times 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \times (32 + 273)$

$KE = 6.31 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J}$

9. $213 + 273 = 486 \text{ K}$

10. A perfect black body emits radiation across the whole electromagnetic spectrum.

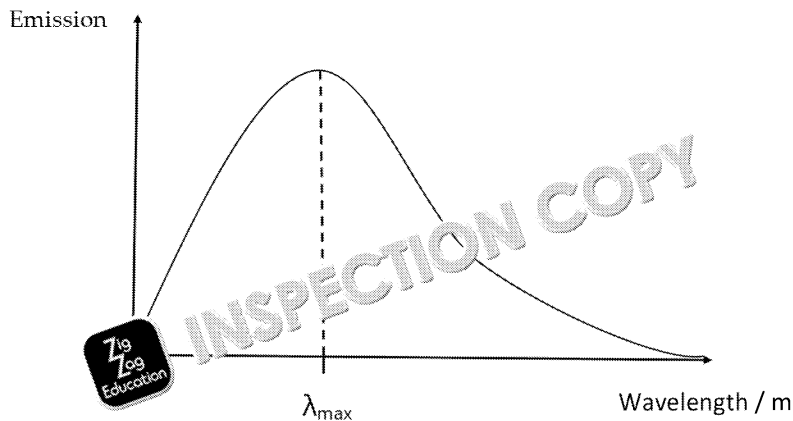
11. Three watts of power are transferred in one metre square of area.

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$$12. \lambda_{\max} = \frac{2.9 \times 10^{-3}}{3500 \text{ K}} = 8.28 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$$



B.2 Greenhouse effect

- $$T^4 = \frac{\text{power radiated per unit area}}{\sigma \times \text{emissivity}}$$

$$= \frac{1.3 \times 10^9}{5.67 \times 10^{-8} \times 0.8}$$

$$= 2.87 \times 10^{16} \text{ K}^4$$

$$T = 1.30 \times 10^4 \text{ K}$$
- $$\text{albedo} = \frac{1.3 \times 10^{11}}{1.8 \times 10^{12}}$$

$$= 0.072$$
- Earth's albedo varies with the proportion of clouds and the latitude. Therefore and/or a lower latitude means that more radiation is scattered, leading to cooler extremes with
- 14
 - 100 W m^{-2}
 - 580 W m^{-2}
 - 580 W m^{-2}
- The solar constant is the power radiated by the Sun in a one square metre area.
- The average radiation absorbed changes with the surface of Earth.
- Radiation is absorbed by the clouds, Earth's atmosphere and any other objects in its absorption spectrum.
- The atmosphere absorbs in the infrared region and infrared radiation is what is emitted by the Earth's surface.
- Bending, stretching and rotating.
- Many people are not aware of the difference between the greenhouse effect and global warming. The greenhouse effect is a natural process where the Earth's atmosphere traps heat from the sun. Global warming is the increase in the average temperature of the Earth's atmosphere and oceans over the past century, which is caused by the increase in greenhouse gases, particularly man-made gases such as carbon dioxide and fluorinated gases.

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B.3 Gas laws

- $N_A = 6.02 \times 10^{23}$
- $n = \frac{7.23 \times 10^{23}}{6.02 \times 10^{23}}$
 $= 1.20 \text{ mol}$
- $n = \frac{pV}{RT} = \frac{15,200 \times 10^3 \times 6.5}{8.31 \times 298}$
 $= 4.0 \times 10^4 \text{ mol}$
- $pV = nRT$
 p – Pressure of contained gas, Pa
 V – Volume of container, m^3
 n – Number of moles of gas, mol
 R – Gas constant, $\text{J mol}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$
 T – Temperature of gas, K
- Low density and pressure.
- A gas that contains only one atom and obeys the ideal gas law.
- Gas molecules move randomly
 - Volume the gas occupies is negligible compared to size of container
 - No intermolecular forces between molecules*OR any other key assumptions*
- Molecules collide with each other and the sides of the container. These molecules exert a force on the area and therefore a pressure exists.
- In Charles' law, pressure is constant whereas in the pressure law, volume is constant.
 - In Charles' law, when temperature increases in a flexible container, the moving molecules impact the walls with greater force, but pressure remains constant.
 - In Boyle's law, when temperature increases, the average speed of molecules increases. At a fixed volume, the pressure increases as they impact the walls with greater force.
- The gas particles are brought closer together, increasing the internal energy and are compressed into a condensed vapour.
- $U = 1.5 \times 1.5 \times 8.31 \times 298 = 5.57 \times 10^3 \text{ J}$
- At a higher temperature, there are fewer intermolecular forces between molecules. This is one of the assumptions of the ideal gas law.

B.4 Thermodynamics (Additional Higher Level)

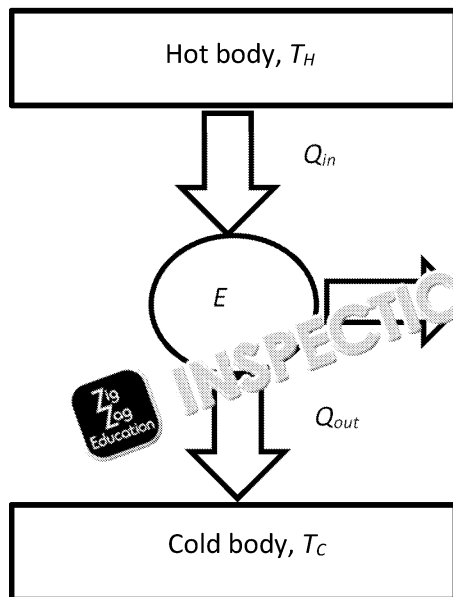
- The first law of thermodynamics states that the transfer of energy as heat is equal to the change in internal energy and the work done on the system.
- $-100 - 50 = -150 \text{ J}$
- $W = 100 \times 10^3 \times (10 - 20) = -10^7 \text{ J}$
 $\Delta U = 10^7 - 10^7 = 0 \text{ J}$
 $Q = 10^7 + 10^7 = 2 \times 10^7 \text{ J}$
- Isobaric – constant pressure
Closed system – mass remains constant, while energy is transferred as heat

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5.



6. J K^{-1}

7. Clausius – It is impossible to produce a device which will transfer heat energy from a colder body to a hotter body without the aid of external energy being transferred.

Kelvin – It is impossible to produce a device which will only transfer thermal energy from a single reservoir and convert it entirely into work.

8. There is more disorder so the number of microstates increases with the temperature.

9. A negative sign indicates a process is non-spontaneous and must be accompanied by the surroundings. A positive sign indicates an increase in entropy and therefore a spontaneous process.

10. $\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\text{Useful work output}}{\text{Total energy input}}$

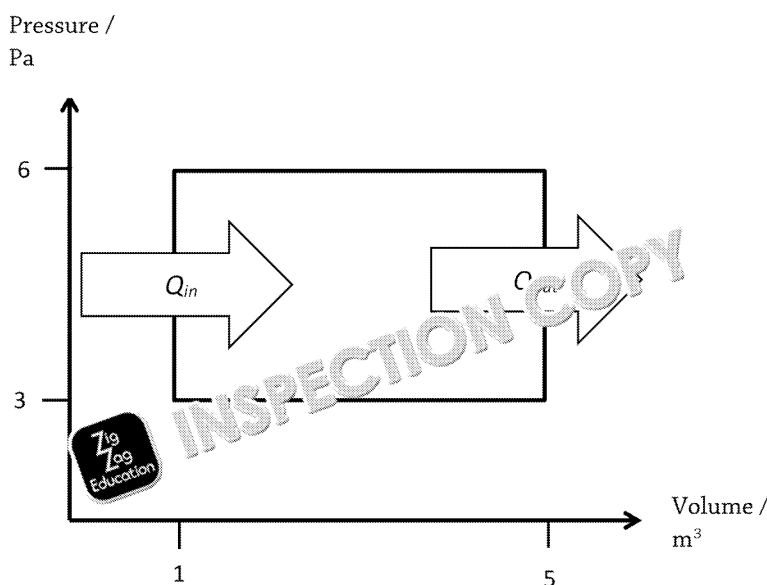
11. Insulate the apparatus to reduce heat loss to the surroundings.

12. The efficiency would increase as the heat lost by one engine becomes the heat input for another.

13. $4 \times 3 = 12 \text{ J of work}$

14. $\eta = 1 - \frac{123 \text{ K}}{398 \text{ K}} = 0.69$

15.

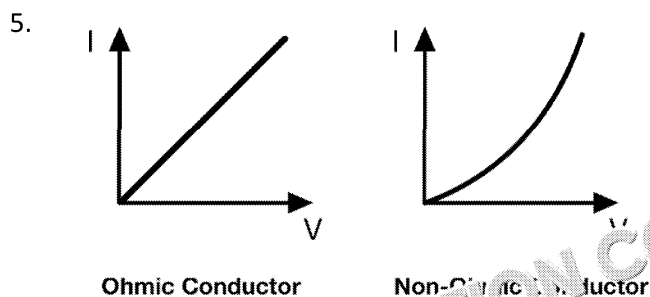


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B.5 Circuits, electromotive force and internal resistance

1. a) $\mathcal{E} = IR + Ir$
 $r = \frac{\mathcal{E} - IR}{I}$
 $r = \frac{24 - (1.9 \times 11.4)}{1.9}$
 $r = 1.2 \Omega$
- b) $V = IR$
 $V = 1.9 \times 11.4$
 $V = 21.7 \text{ V}$
- c) When there is current in the cell, work has to be done by the charge carrier in the cell. This results in an energy loss, as some energy is transferred into heating the cell. The energy supplied by the emf is supplied to the rest of the circuit – some is used to do work. Therefore, the terminal potential difference supplied to the circuit will be less than the emf.
2. a) $V = IR$
 $V = 1.2 \times 12$
 $V = 14.4 \text{ V}$
- b) $P = IV$
 $P = 1.2 \times 14.4$
 $P = 17.28 \text{ W}$
 $P = 17.3 \text{ W}$
- c) $E = Pt$
 $E = 17.28 \times 500$
 $E = 8640 \text{ J}$
3. a) As the temperature increases, the resistance of the thermistor decreases. The potential difference across the thermistor ($V = IR$). As the potential difference decreases, the potential difference across the fixed resistor increases until the alarm.
- b) $V_{out} = \frac{8.5}{8.5 + 6.4} \times 12 = 6.8 \text{ V}$
4. The current through an Ohmic conductor is directly proportional to the potential difference across it, provided that the temperature is constant.



6.

Quantity	Series circuits
Current	$I = I_1 = I_2 = \dots$
Potential difference	$V = V_1 + V_2 + \dots$
Resistance	$R_T = R_1 + R_2 + \dots$

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