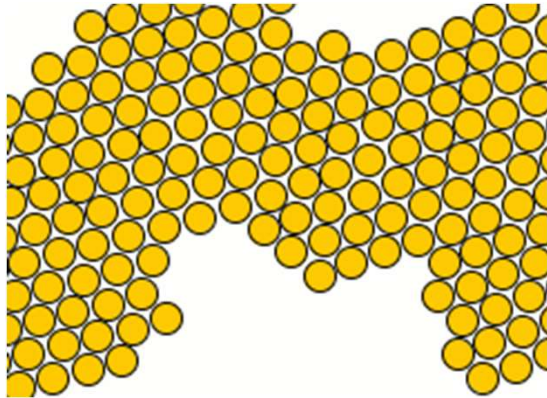
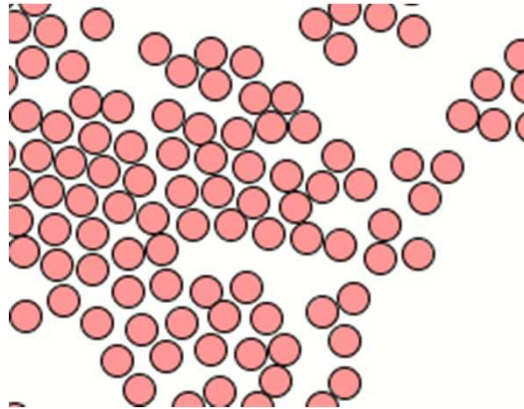


stati di aggregazione della materia

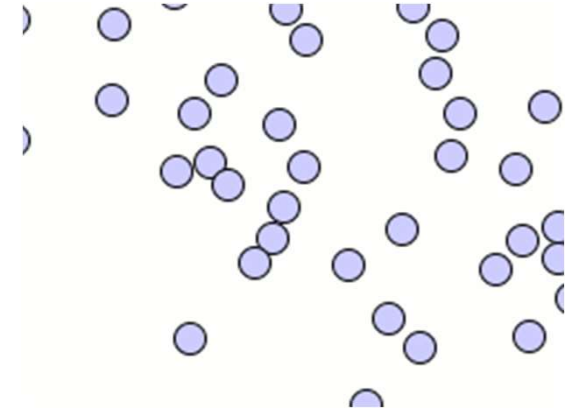
stato solido



stato liquido



stato gassoso

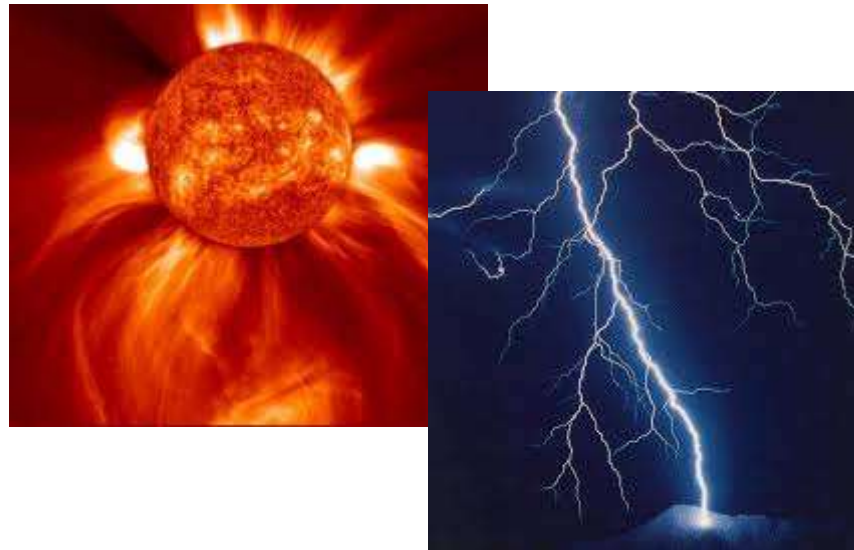


teoria
cinetico-molecolare
della materia

*proprietà macroscopiche materia
dipendono da
struttura delle unità elementari e
dalle loro interazioni*

*↙ stato di aggregazione più
abbondante nell'universo*

plasma gas parzialmente o totalmente ionizzato, di carica complessiva neutra, costituito da particelle di vario tipo (i.e. elettroni, ioni, atomi neutri e molecole)



lo stato gassoso

stato gassoso o aeriforme

stato di aggregazione della materia nel quale atomi e molecole sono legati da forze molto deboli, caratterizzato dall'assenza di volume e forma propri.

definito da

p, V, T, n

gas

sostanza che si trova allo stato gassoso a T e p ordinarie

vapore

stato gassoso di una sostanza che si trova nello stato liquido o solido a T e p ordinarie

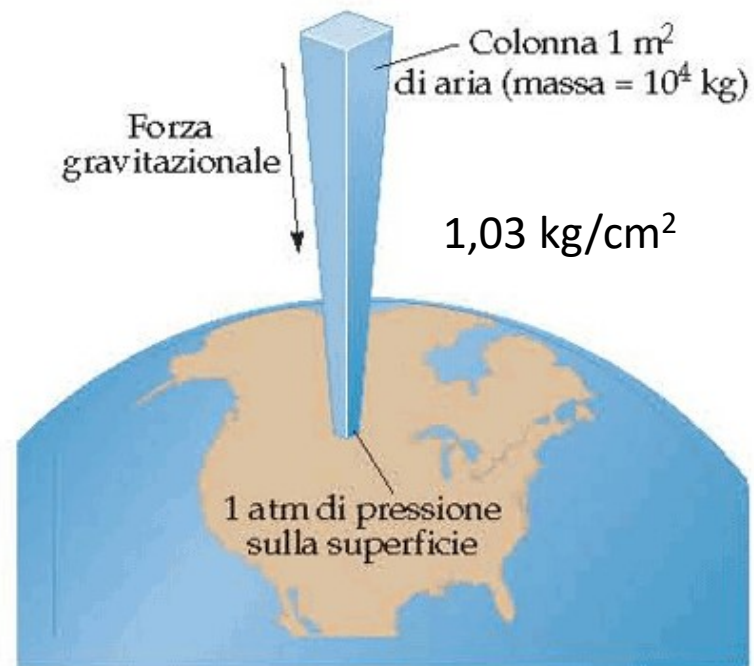
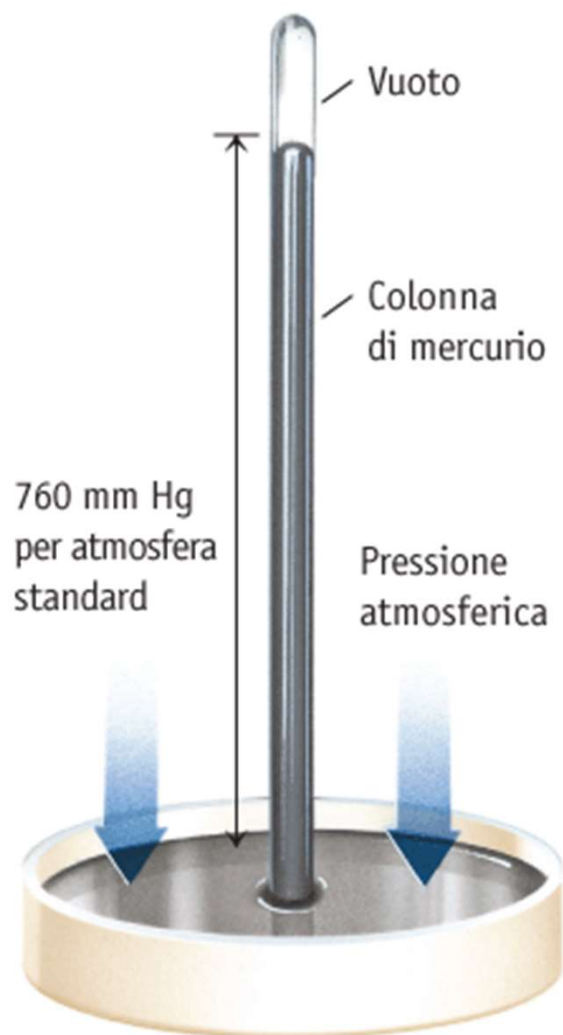


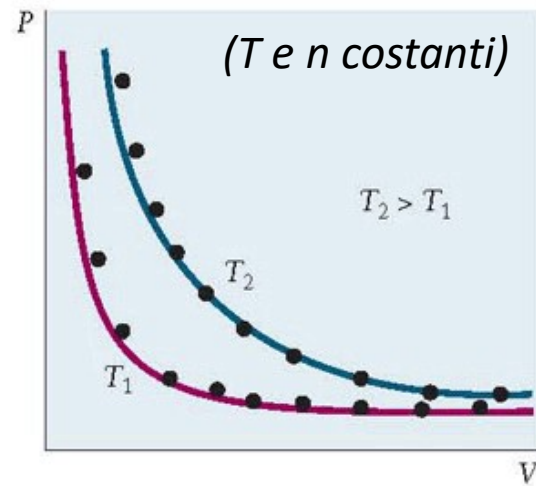
TABELLA 10.4 Fattori di conversione delle unità di pressione

1 atmosfera standard è pari a...

- 760 mm Hg (millimetri di mercurio)
- 760 torr
- 14.7 psi (libbre per pollice quadrato)
- 101 325 Pa (pascal)
- 1.01325 bar
- 0.0 psig (pressione assoluta in libbre per pollice quadrato)
- 29.921 in Hg (pollici di mercurio)

la legge di Boyle

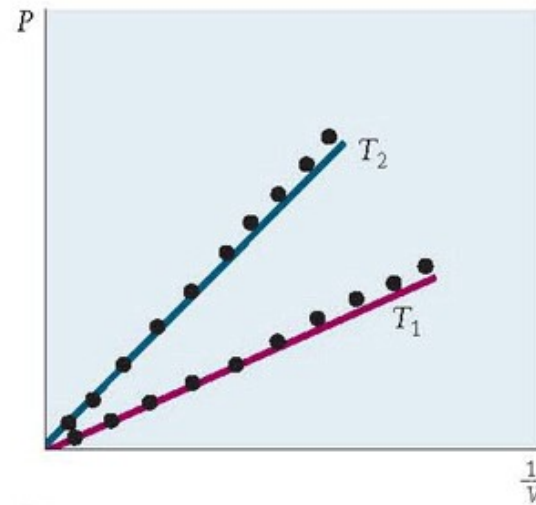
R. Boyle



(a)

$$PV = \text{costante}$$

$$P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2$$



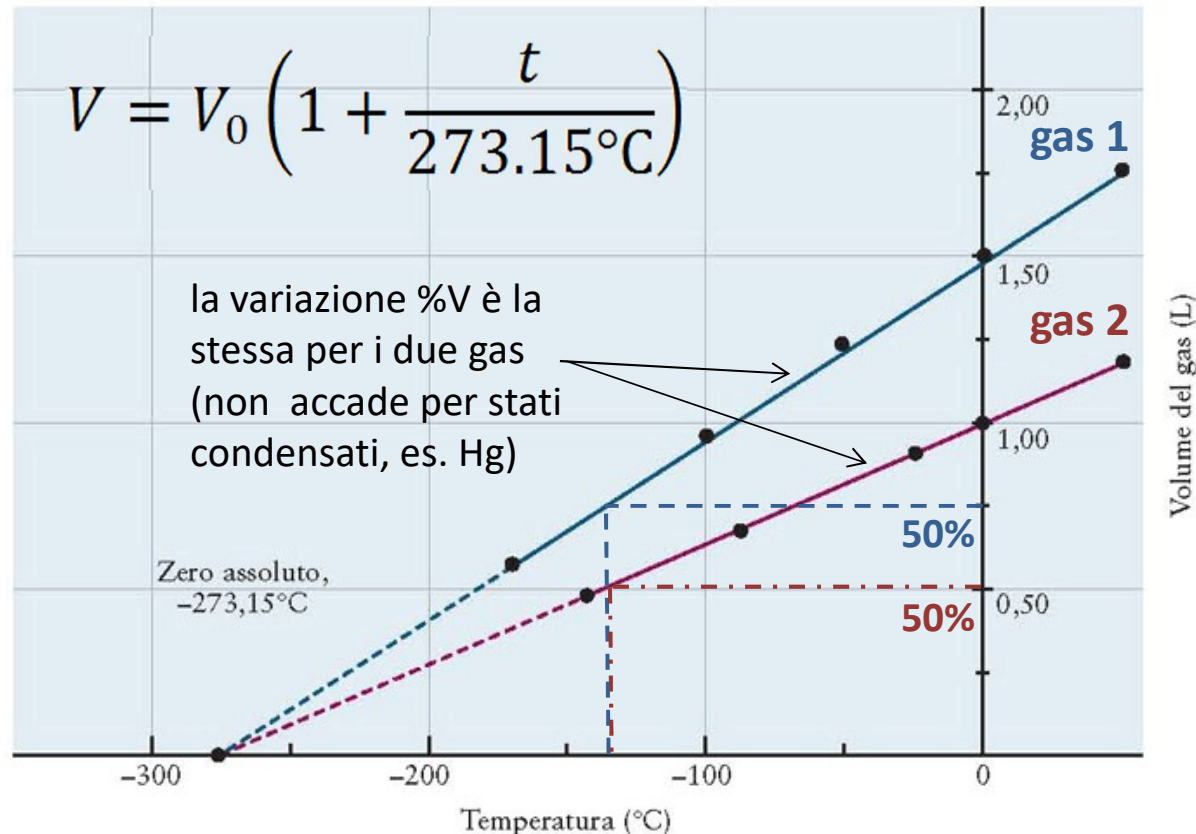
(b)

$$P = \text{costante} \cdot \frac{1}{V}$$

la legge di Charles *(o prima legge di Gay-Lussac)*

“a pressione costante, il volume di una data quantità di gas varia linearmente con la temperatura”

$$V = \text{costante} \cdot T \quad \frac{V_1}{T_1} = \frac{V_2}{T_2}$$



J. A. C. Charles



la variazione di V di un gas permette di definire una scala di temperatura “assoluta” (scala Kelvin)

$$T(\text{K}) = 273.15 + t(^{\circ}\text{C})$$

Seconda legge di Gay-Lussac

J.L. Gay-Lussac



$$P = cost \cdot T$$

*a volume costante, la pressione
esercitata da una data massa
di gas è proporzionale alla
temperatura*

la legge di Avogadro

ipotesi di Avogadro

“Volumi uguali di gas diversi, misurati nelle stesse condizioni di temperatura e pressione, contengono lo stesso numero di particelle”

legge di Avogadro

“il volume di un gas, in determinate condizioni di temperatura e pressione, è direttamente proporzionale alla quantità del gas”

$$V = \text{costante} \cdot n$$



la legge dei gas “ideali” (o “perfetti”)

(equazione di stato dei gas ideali o perfetti)

Legge di Boyle

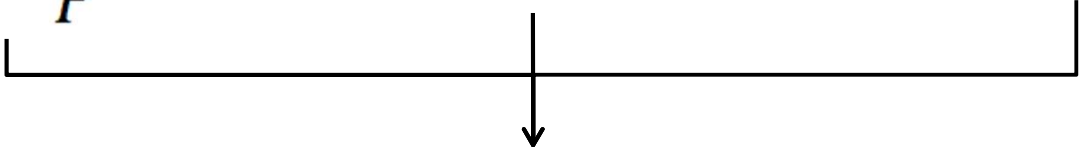
$$V \propto \frac{1}{P}$$

Legge di Charles

$$V \propto T$$

Legge di Avogadro

$$V \propto n$$


$$V \propto \frac{nT}{P}$$

$$V = R \frac{nT}{P}$$

limiti di validità

vale per tutti i gas a temperature e pressioni vicine a quelle ambiente, ma non per alte pressioni o basse temperature

$$PV = nRT$$

costante universale dei gas

$$R = 0.082 \text{ L atm mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$$

$$R = 8.3145 \text{ J mol}^{-1} \text{ K}^{-1}$$

le equazioni di stato

$$PV = nRT$$

equazione di stato

*relazione matematica tra due o più **funzioni (o variabili) di stato** di un sistema materiale*

funzione (o variabile) di stato

grandezza fisica o proprietà di un sistema che dipende solamente dal suo stato attuale, e non dal particolare cammino seguito per arrivarvi (es. p , V , T)

$$PV = nRT$$

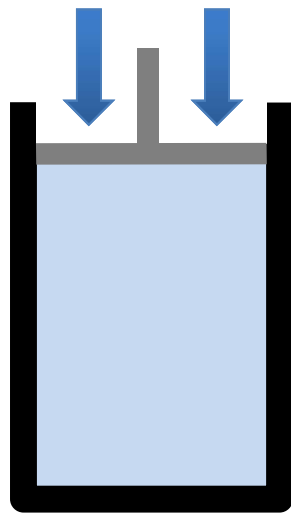
$$P = (nRT) \frac{1}{V}$$

$$V = \left(\frac{nR}{P}\right) T$$

$$P = \left(\frac{nR}{V}\right) T$$

P costante

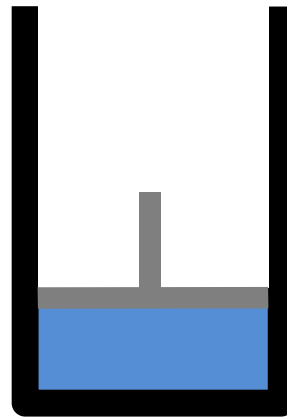
V costante



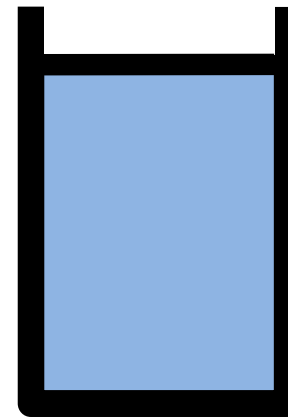
pressione



T costante



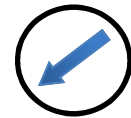
temp.



temp.



press.



legge dei gas e calcoli stechiometrici

(ricordiamo il concetto di *massa molare*)

MASSA MOLARE (g/mol)
(massa corrispondente ad una mole)

La massa di una mole di molecole, espressa in grammi, è numericamente uguale peso molecolare.

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{P.M. H}_2\text{O} \\ = (2 \cdot 1) + 16 = 18 \text{ Da} \\ \\ \text{P.M. CO}_2 \\ = 12 + (2 \cdot 16) = 44 \text{ Da} \end{array} \right]$$

↑
*somma dei pesi atomici
degli atomi costituenti
la molecola*

legge dei gas e calcoli stechiometrici



$$n^{\circ} \text{ moli (mol)} = \frac{\text{massa (g)}}{\text{massa molare (g mol}^{-1}\text{)}}$$

condizioni convenzionali

condizioni normali (c.n.)

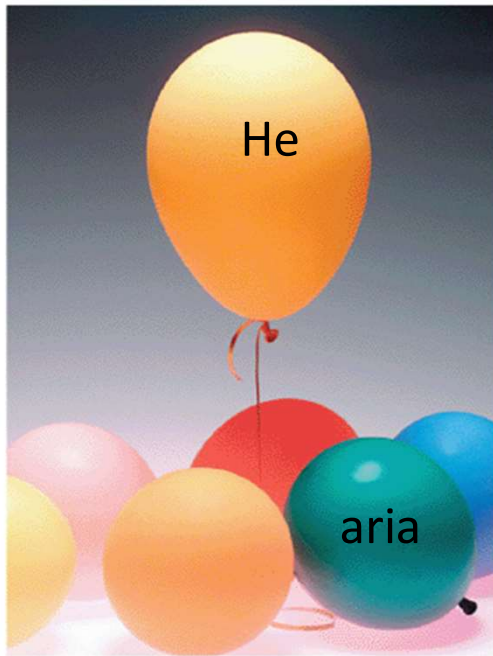
0°C (273.15 K), 1 atm

condizioni standard (t.p.s.)

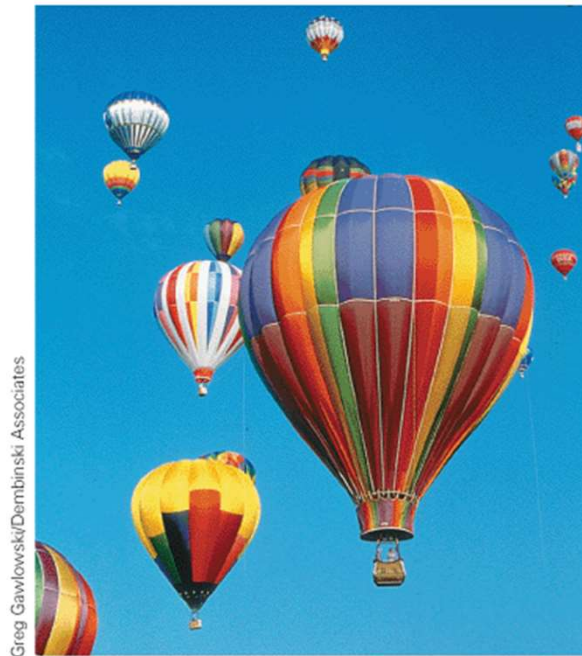
25°C (298.15 K), 1 atm

densità dei gas

$$PV = nRT \quad \frac{n}{V} = \frac{P}{RT} \quad \frac{m}{VM} = \frac{P}{RT} \quad d = \frac{m}{V} = \frac{MP}{RT}$$



(a)



(b)



miscele di gas (legge di Dalton)

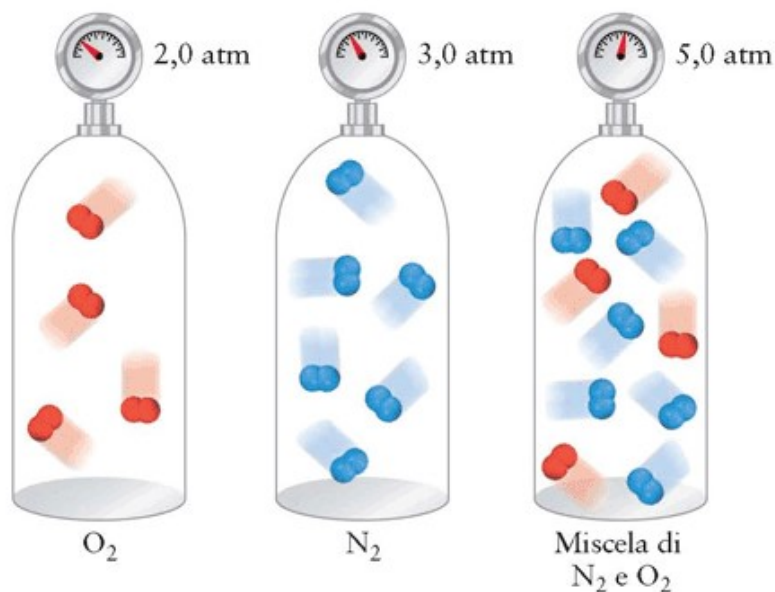
pressione parziale

“la pressione che un gas eserciterebbe se fosse da solo nel recipiente”

$$P_A = n_A \frac{RT}{V}$$

$$P_{totale} = P_A + P_B + P_C + (...) = \sum_i P_i$$

“la pressione totale di una miscela di gas è la somma delle pressioni parziali dei singoli gas”



$$P_{tot} = n_{tot} \frac{RT}{V}$$

$$\chi_A = \frac{n_A}{n_{tot}} \quad \text{“frazione molare”}$$

$$P_A = \chi_A \cdot P_{tot}$$

miscele di gas (legge di Dalton)

$$P_A = \chi_A \cdot P_{tot}$$

TABELLA 11.1 Componenti dell'aria atmosferica secca

Costituente	Massa molare*	Mole percentuale	Pressione parziale a STP (atm)
N ₂	28.01	78.08	0.7808
O ₂	32.00	20.95	0.2095
CO ₂	44.01	0.0385	0.00033
Ar	39.95	0.934	0.00934

*Massa molare media dell'aria secca = 28.960 g/mol.

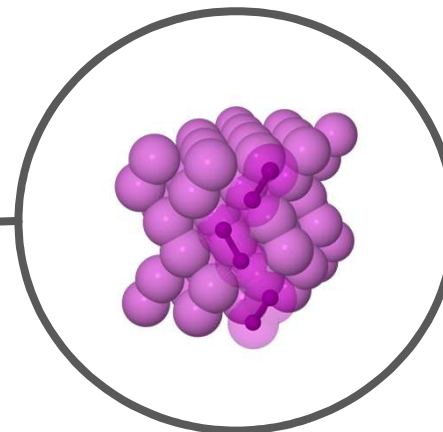
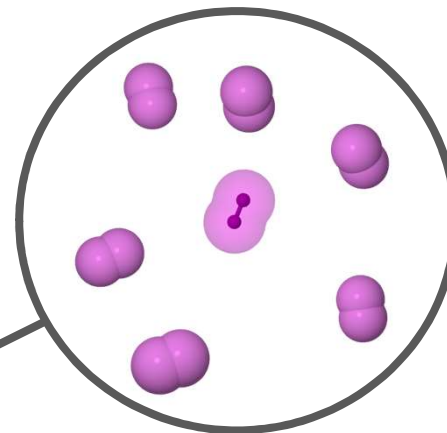
descrizione macroscopica
in termini di grandezze fisiche osservabili



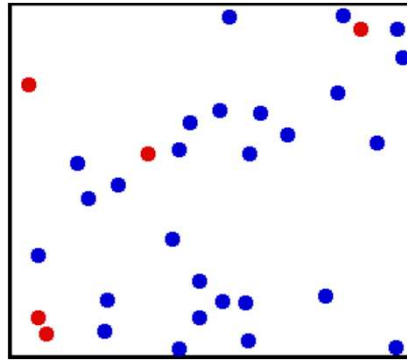
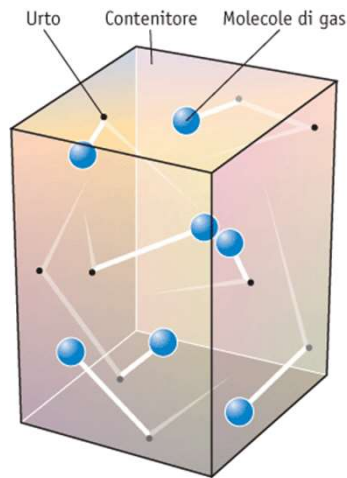
descrizione microscopica
in termini atomico-molecolari

$$PV = nRT$$

P, V, T



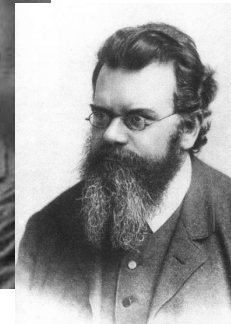
teoria cinetica dei gas (1857-1871)



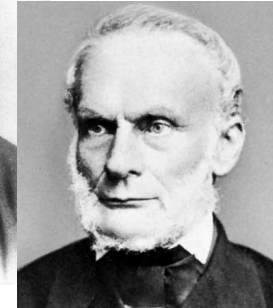
J. C. Maxwell



L. Boltzmann

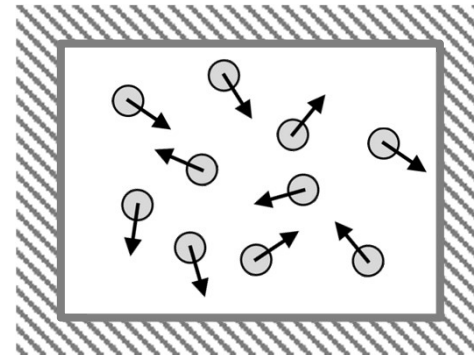
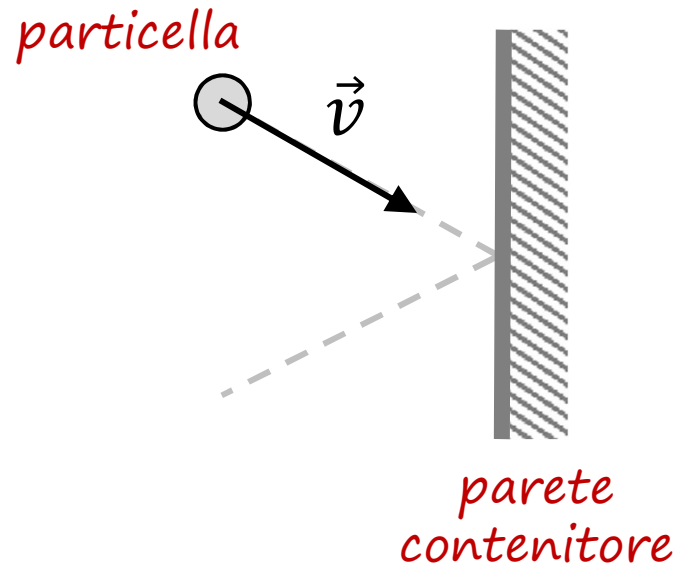


R. Clausius



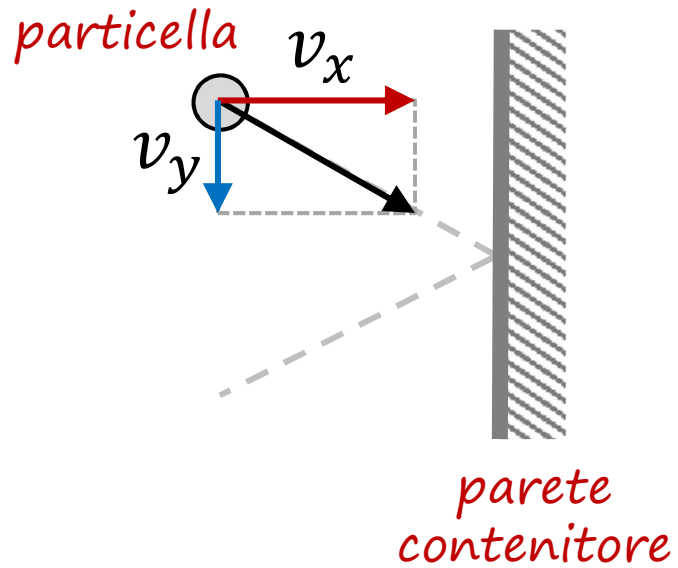
1. un gas puro consiste in un grande numero di molecole identiche separate da **distanze** che sono **grandi** rispetto alle loro dimensioni (**puntiformi**, massa non nulla)
2. le molecole del gas sono **constantemente in moto**, in **direzioni casuali** e con una distribuzione di velocità
3. le molecole **non esercitano forze** tra di esse, ed in assenza di collisioni si muovono in **linea retta con velocità costante**
4. le **collisioni** con le pareti del contenitore sono **elastiche**

teoria cinetica dei gas (1857-1871)



la pressione del gas è dovuta
alle collisioni delle particelle
con le pareti del contenitore

teoria cinetica dei gas (1857-1871)



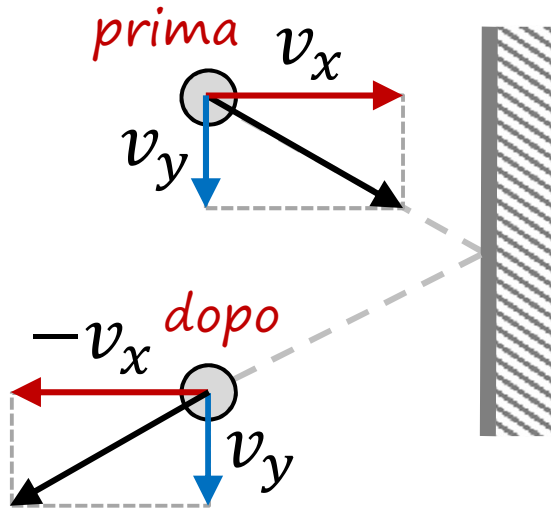
$$\vec{v} = v_x + v_y (+ v_z)$$

$$\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$$

$$p_x = mv_x$$

*componente in x
della quantità di
moto*

teoria cinetica dei gas (1857-1871)



*conservazione
quantità di moto*

$$\vec{v} = v_x + v_y (+ v_z)$$

$$\vec{p} = m\vec{v} \quad p_x = mv_x$$

$$\Delta p_x = p_{x,fin} - p_{x,ini}$$

$$\Delta p_x = m(-v_x) - mv_x$$

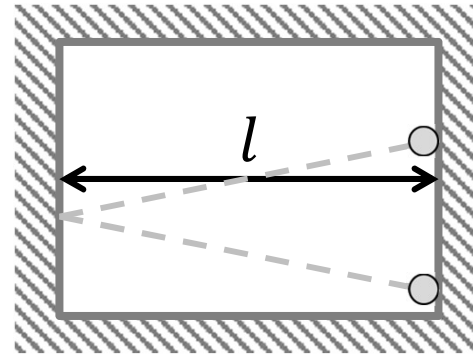
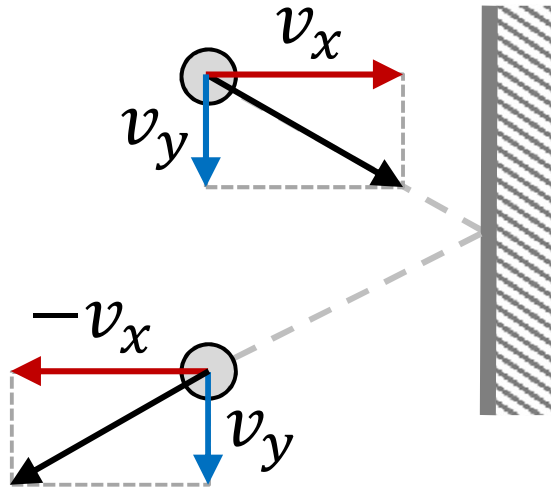
$$\Delta p_x^{mol} = -2mv_x$$

$$\Delta p_x^{parete} + \Delta p_x^{mol} = 0$$

$$\Delta p_x^{parete} = 2mv_x$$

*quantità di moto trasferita
alla parete del contenitore*

teoria cinetica dei gas (1857-1871)



$$\Delta t = \frac{2l}{v_x}$$

tempo tra due collisioni con la stessa parete

p trasferito alla parete per unità di tempo

$$\frac{\Delta p_x^{\text{parete}}}{\Delta t} = \frac{2mv_x}{2l/v_x} = \frac{mv_x^2}{l}$$

teoria cinetica dei gas (1857-1871)

$$f = ma \quad \text{forza trasferita alla parete}$$

$$f = m \frac{\Delta v}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t}$$
$$f = \frac{mv_x^2}{l} \quad \frac{\Delta p_x}{\Delta t} = \frac{mv_x^2}{l}$$

per N particelle

$$F = \frac{mv_{x1}^2}{l} + \frac{mv_{x2}^2}{l} + \dots + \frac{mv_{xN}^2}{l}$$

$$F = \frac{Nm}{l} \left[\frac{1}{N} (v_{x1}^2 + v_{x2}^2 + \dots + v_{xN}^2) \right] = \frac{Nm}{l} \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N v_{xi}^2 \right)}_{\overline{v_x^2}}$$
$$F = \frac{Nm}{l} \overline{v_x^2}$$

teoria cinetica dei gas (1857-1871)

$$P = \frac{F}{A} = \frac{Nm}{Al} \overline{v_x^2} = \frac{Nm}{V} \overline{v_x^2}$$

*superficie
parete*

$$PV = Nm \overline{v_x^2}$$

$$\overline{v^2} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N v_i^2 = \frac{1}{N} (v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots)$$

*velocità
quadratica
media*

$v^2 = v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2$

$$\overline{v^2} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (v_{xi}^2 + v_{yi}^2 + v_{zi}^2) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N v_{xi}^2 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N v_{yi}^2 + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N v_{zi}^2$$
$$\overline{v^2} = \overline{v_x^2} + \overline{v_y^2} + \overline{v_z^2}$$

teoria cinetica dei gas (1857-1871)

velocità
quadratica
media

$$\overline{v^2} = \overline{v_x^2} + \overline{v_y^2} + \overline{v_z^2}$$

$$\overline{v_x^2} = \overline{v_y^2} = \overline{v_z^2}$$

le molecole non
hanno una
direzione preferita
di movimento

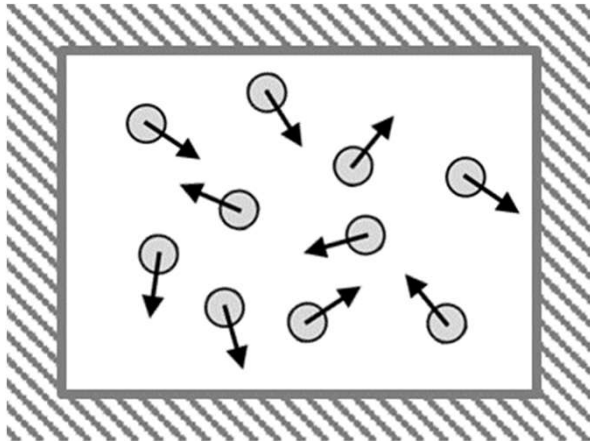
$$\overline{v^2} = \overline{v_x^2} + \overline{v_y^2} + \overline{v_z^2} = 3\overline{v_x^2}$$

$$\overline{v_x^2} = \frac{1}{3}\overline{v^2}$$

$$PV = Nm\overline{v_x^2}$$

$$PV = \frac{1}{3}Nm\overline{v^2}$$

teoria cinetica dei gas (1857-1871)



$$pV = \frac{1}{3} N m \overline{v^2}$$

numero di particelle

massa di una particella

velocità quadratica media

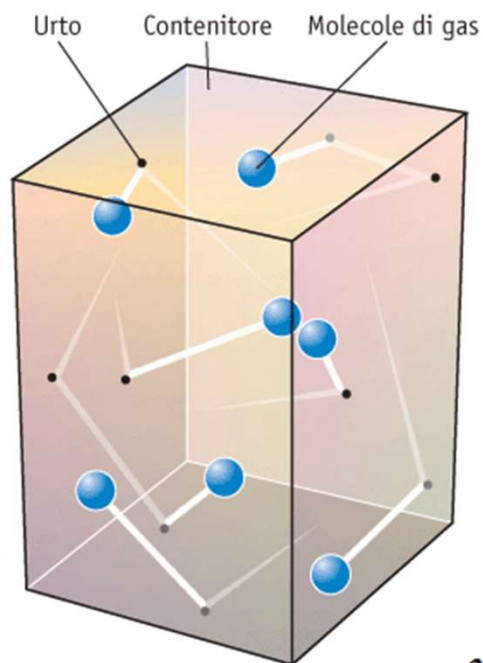
$$pV = nRT$$

$$\frac{1}{3} N m \overline{v^2} = nRT$$

$$\frac{1}{3} N_A m \overline{v^2} = RT$$

$$\overline{K} = \frac{1}{2} m \overline{v^2} = \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{N_A} \left(\frac{1}{3} N_A m \overline{v^2} \right)$$

$$\overline{K} = \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{N_A} RT = \frac{3}{2} k_B T$$



la pressione del gas è dovuta alle collisioni delle particelle con le pareti del contenitore

si può dimostrare che:

$$pV = \frac{1}{3} N m \overline{v^2}$$

numero di particelle

massa di una particella

velocità quadratica media

$$\overline{v} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^N \frac{v_i^2}{N}}$$

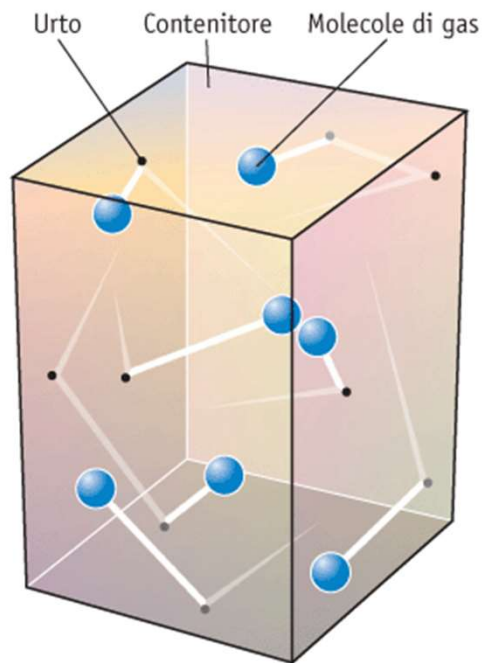
$$pV = nRT$$

$$\frac{1}{3} N m \overline{v^2} = nRT$$

$$\frac{1}{3} N_A m \overline{v^2} = RT$$

$$\overline{K} = \frac{1}{2} m \overline{v^2} = \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{N_A} \left(\frac{1}{3} N_A m \overline{v^2} \right)$$

$$\overline{K} = \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{N_A} RT = \frac{3}{2} k_B T$$



energia cinetica media
di una singola particella

temperatura

$$\overline{K} = \frac{3}{2} k_B T$$

relazione tra energia e T

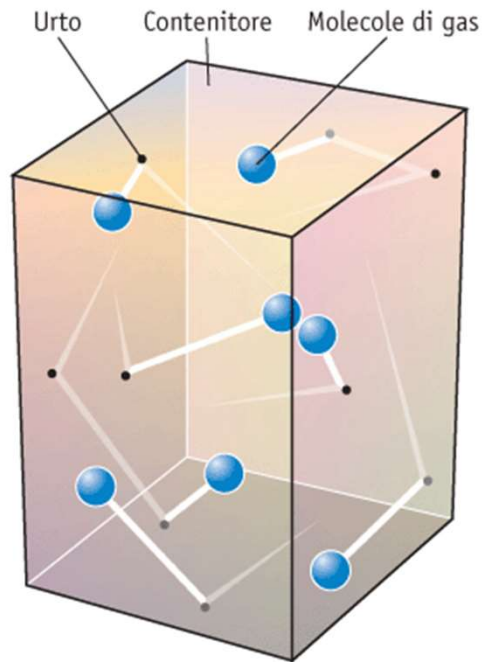
(definizione "microscopica")

*la temperatura è una misura
dell' **energia cinetica***

(per una mole di gas)

$$R = k_B \cdot N_A$$

$$\overline{K} = \frac{3}{2} RT$$



velocità
quadratica
media

temperatura

$$\frac{1}{3} N_A m \overline{v^2} = RT$$

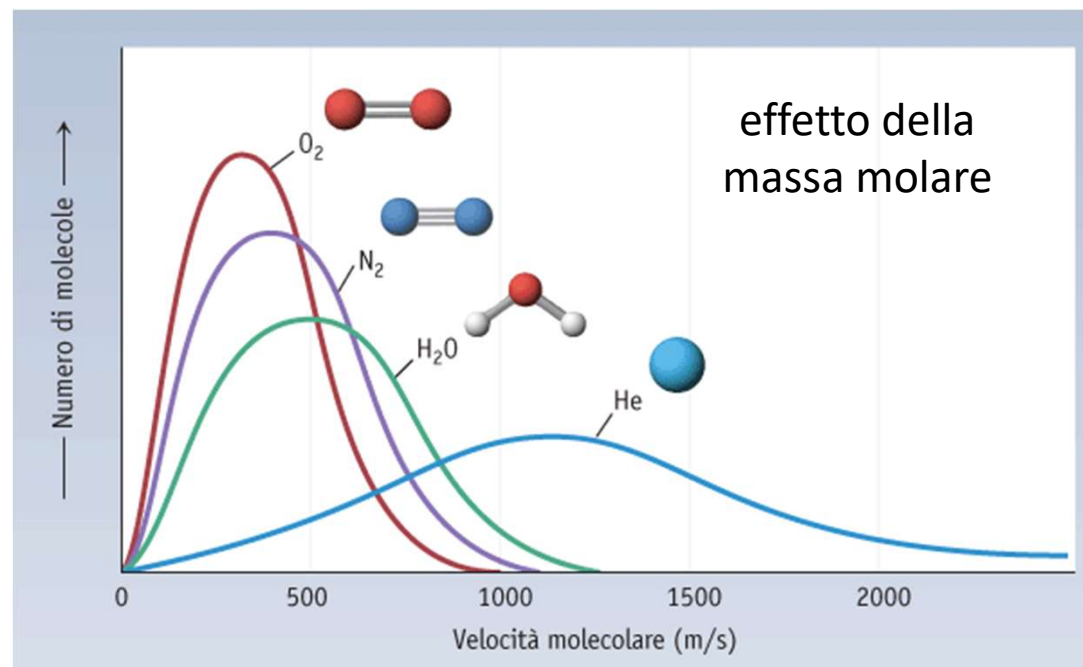
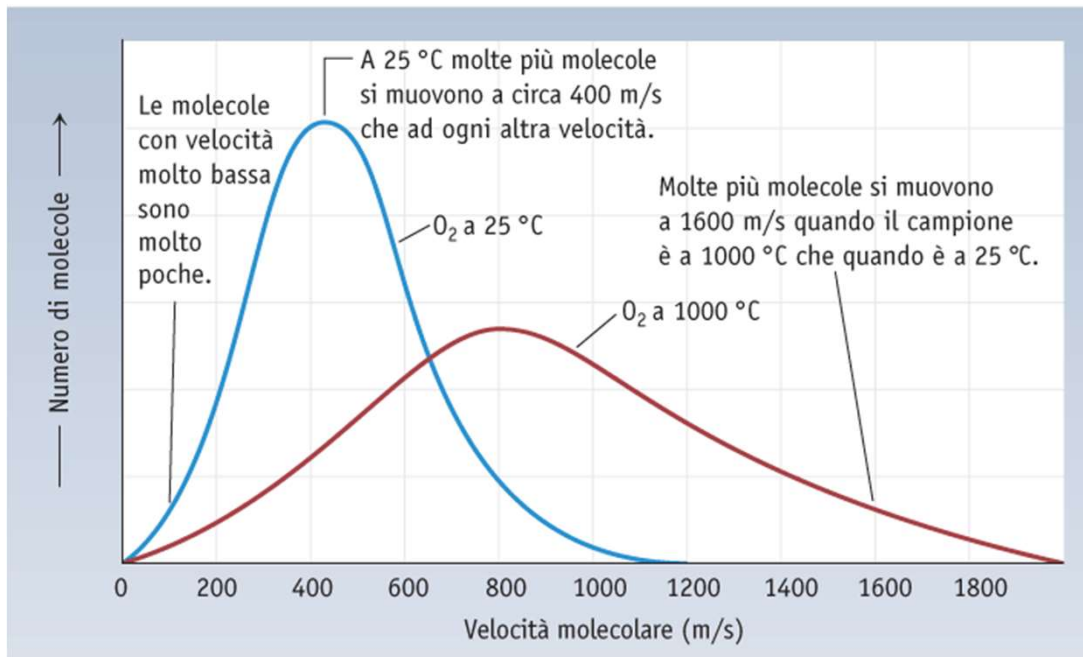
relazione tra velocità molecolare e T

(definizione “microscopica”)

*la temperatura è correlata alla
velocità molecolare*

che velocità hanno le particelle del gas?

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

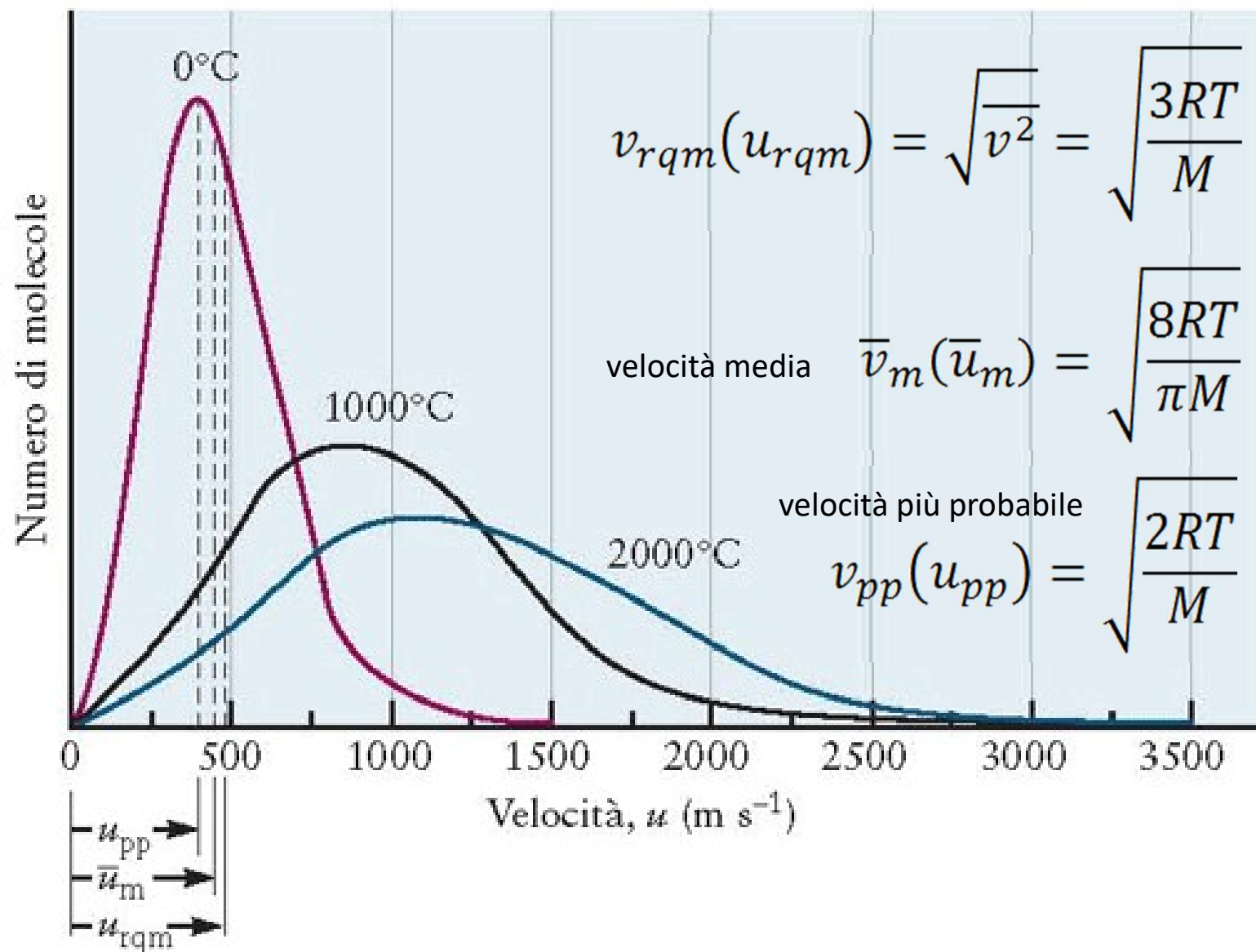


distribuzione delle velocità molecolari di *Maxwell - Boltzmann*

velocità media

$$\bar{v} = \sqrt{\frac{8RT}{\pi M}}$$

↑
massa molare



legge di Graham

$$\frac{1}{2}M\overline{v^2} = \frac{3}{2}RT \quad \rightarrow \quad \sqrt{\overline{v^2}} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{M}RT}$$

(da teoria cinetica)



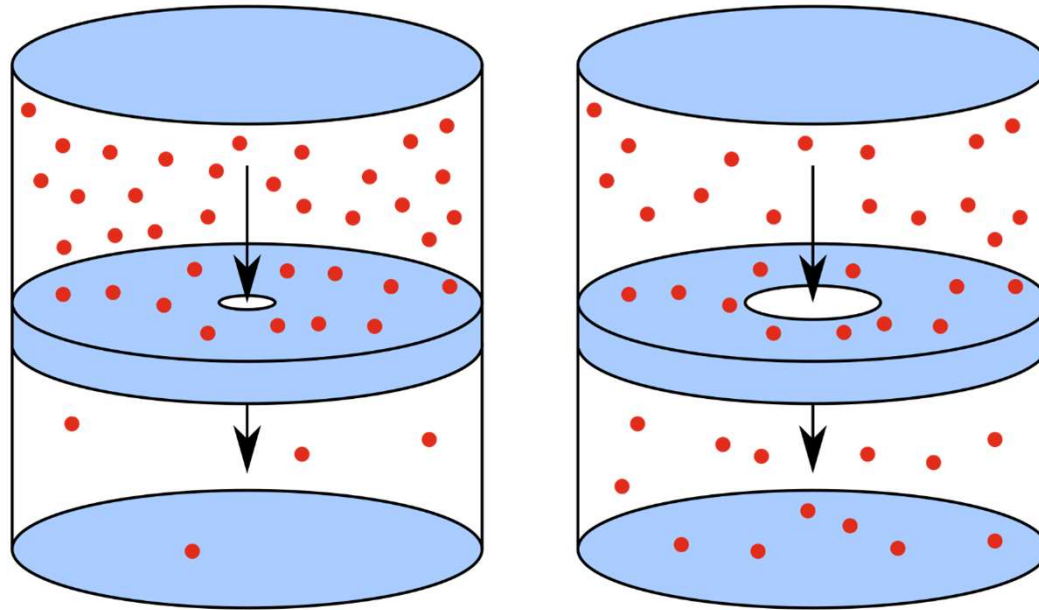
*gas diversi hanno diverse
velocità di effusione (i.e.
movimento del gas attraverso
una piccola apertura):*

possono essere separati!

$$\frac{v_1}{v_2} = \sqrt{\frac{M_2}{M_1}}$$

(legge di Graham)

legge di Graham



[Di Astrang13 - Opera propria, CC BY-SA 3.0, <https://commons.wikimedia.org/w/index.php?curid=19573908>]

legge di Graham

usato per arricchimento U con ^{235}U , una volta trasformato nel gas UF_6

$$\begin{array}{ll} M_{^{235}\text{UF}_6} = 349.042 & \frac{v_{^{235}\text{UF}_6}}{v_{^{238}\text{UF}_6}} = \sqrt{\frac{352.032}{349.042}} = 1.004 \\ M_{^{238}\text{UF}_6} = 352.032 & \end{array}$$

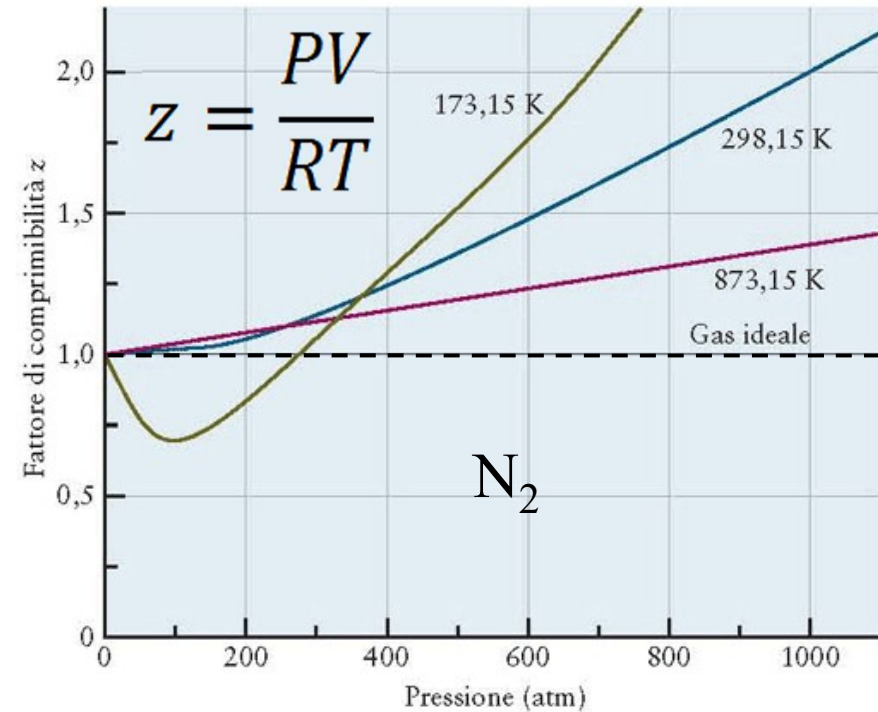
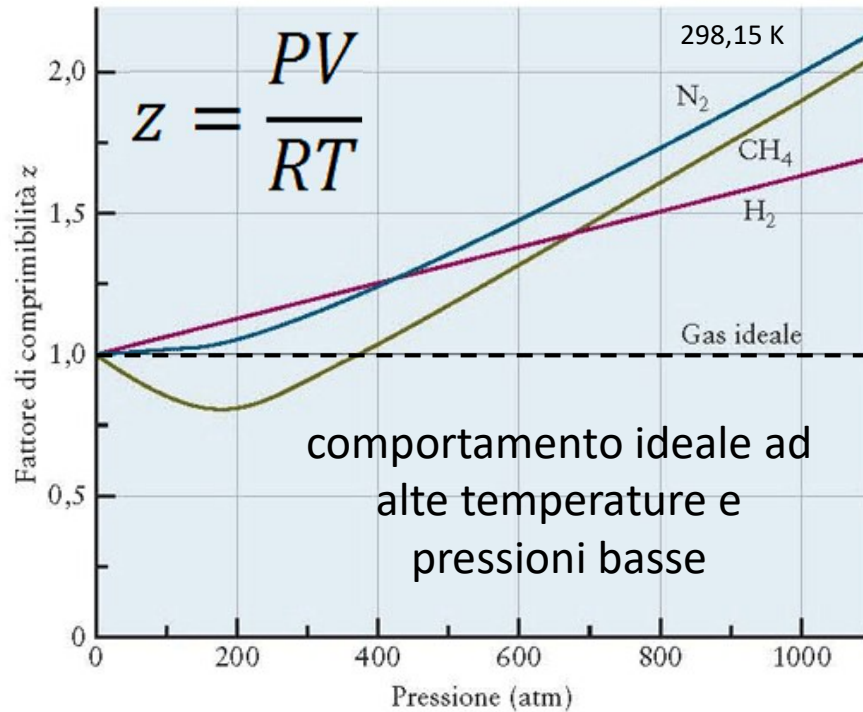
*gas diversi hanno diverse
velocità di effusione (i.e.
movimento del gas attraverso
una piccola apertura):*

possono essere separati!

$$\frac{v_1}{v_2} = \sqrt{\frac{M_2}{M_1}}$$

(legge di Graham)

gas “ideali” e gas “reali”



gas ideale *gas che obbedisce all'equazione di stato $PV=nRT$ (IUPAC)*

gas reale *gas che NON obbedisce all'equazione di stato $PV=nRT$*

gas “ideali” e gas “reali”

ATTENZIONE!

*Non esistono gas ideali o
reali, ma comportamenti
ideali o reali per un dato gas*

equazione di van der Waals

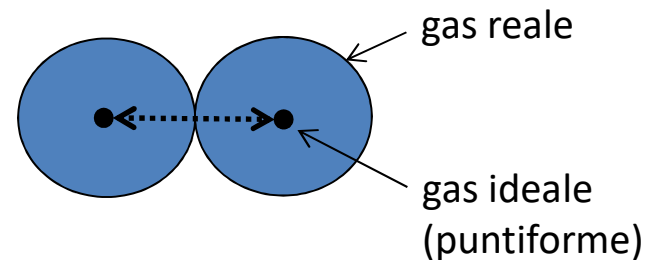
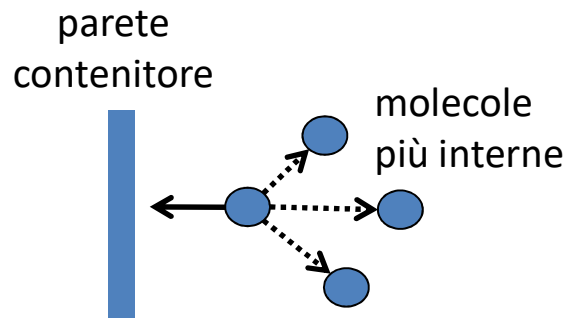
$$\left(P + a \frac{n^2}{V^2} \right) (V - nb) = nRT$$

$$P_{reale} = P_{ideale} - a(n/V)^2$$

termine dovuto alla presenza di
forze intermolecolari
*la pressione è minore a causa
dell'attrazione tra molecole*

$$V_{reale} = V_{ideale} + nb$$

termine dovuto al
volume non-nullo occupato
dalle molecole
(b, "volume escluso" o "covolume")
*il volume è maggiore a causa delle
dimensioni molecolari*



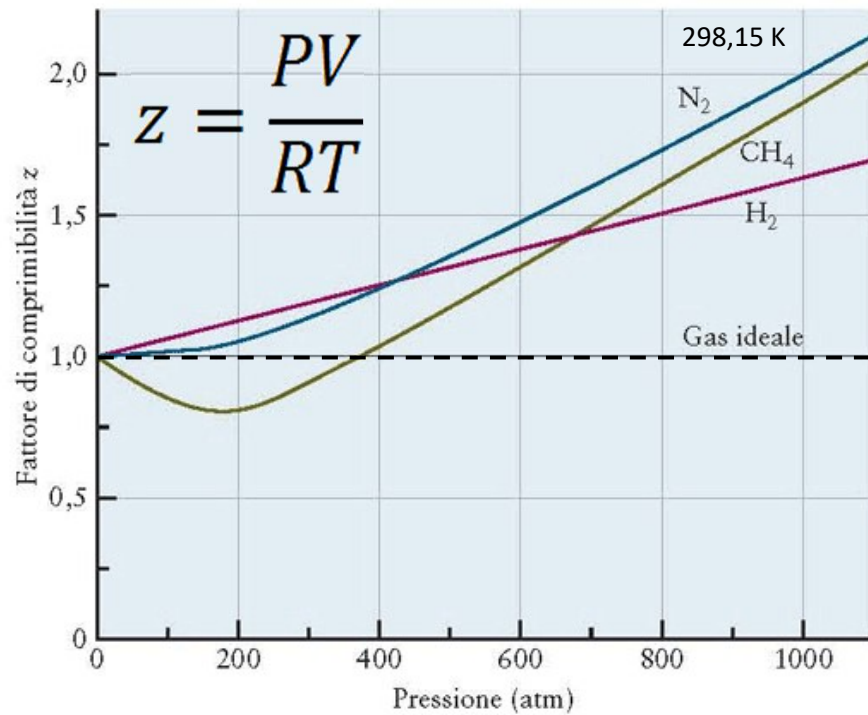
equazione di van der Waals

$$\left(P + a \frac{n^2}{V^2} \right) (V - nb) = nRT$$

Gas	Formula	misura forze attrattive	misura dimensioni
		a (atm L ² ·mol ⁻²)	b (L·mol ⁻¹)
Acetilene	C ₂ H ₂	4.39	0.0514
Ammoniaca	NH ₃	4.17	0.0371
Argon	Ar	1.35	0.0322
Anidride carbonica	CO ₂	3.59	0.0427
Cloro	Cl ₂	6.49	0.0562
Etano	C ₂ H ₆	5.49	0.0638
→ Elio	He	0.034	0.0237
→ Idrogeno	H ₂	0.244	0.0266
Metano	CH ₄	2.25	0.0428
→ Azoto	N ₂	1.39	0.0391
→ Ossigeno	O ₂	1.36	0.0318
Biossido di zolfo	SO ₂	6.71	0.0564

Fonte: Maron and Prutton, *Principles of Physical Chemistry*. New York: MacMillan, 1959, p. 33.

equazione di van der Waals



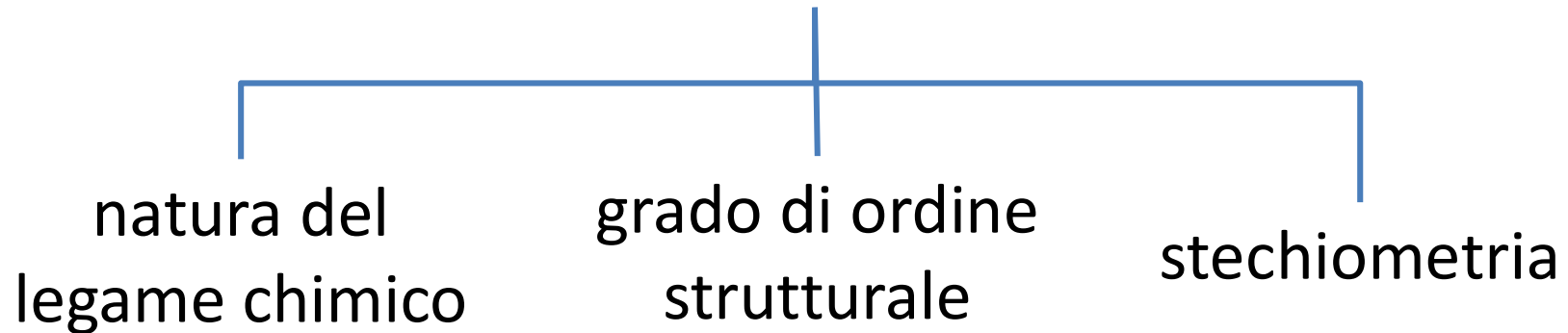
si fanno sentire i volumi non nulli delle particelle
(V maggiore del previsto)

si fanno sentire gli effetti delle forze intermolecolari
(P minore del previsto)

stato solido

*stato della materia nella quale i corpi hanno
forma e volume propri*

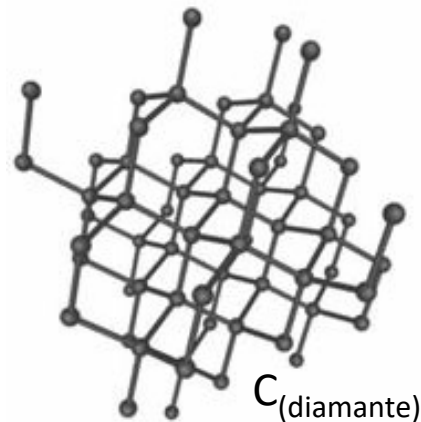
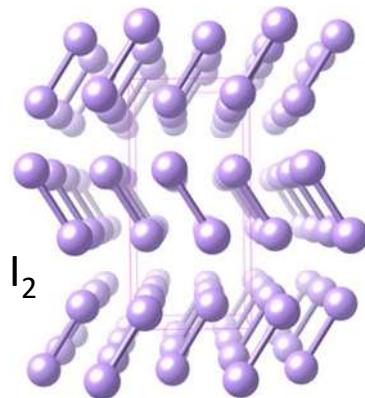
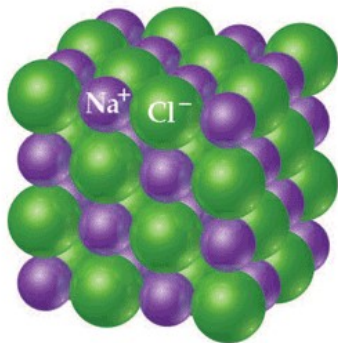
solidi classificabili in base a
3 criteri



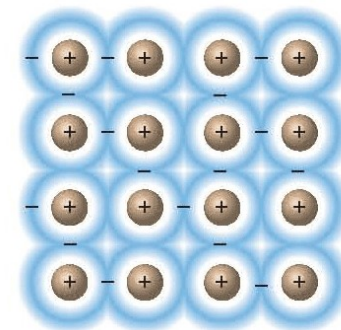
(1) natura del legame chimico

Tipo di solido	Particelle in un solido	Forze tra le particelle	Proprietà fisiche	Esempi
Ionico	Cationi e anioni	Attrazioni elettrostatiche	Duri e lucenti, alto punto di fusione, bassa conducibilità di calore ed elettricità	NaCl, CaO, MgBr ₂
Molecolare	Atomi o molecole	Forze di London, dipolo-dipolo, e/o legame idrogeno	Leggermente teneri, punto di fusione basso o medio, bassa conducibilità di calore ed elettricità	CH ₄ , C ₆ H ₁₂ O ₆ (glucosio), H ₂ O, Kr
Struttura covalente	Atomi	Legame covalente	Molto duri, punto di fusione elevato, bassa conducibilità di calore ed elettricità	C (diamante), SiO ₂ (quarzo), SiC, BN
Metallico	Atomi	Legame metallico	Teneri o duri, da basso ad alto punto di fusione, buona conducibilità del calore ed elettrica	Na, Fe, Au, Ag, Al

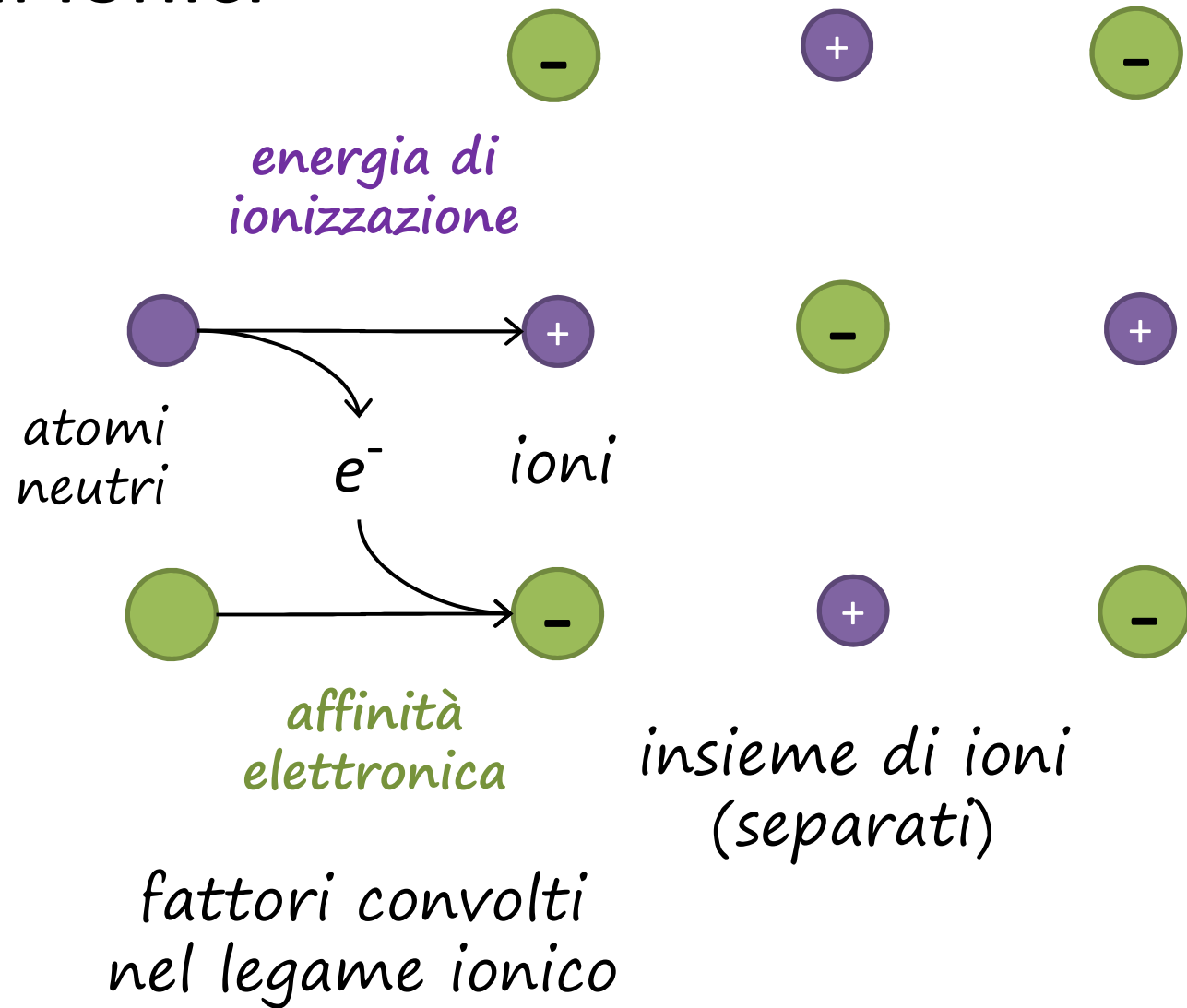
NaCl



Ag



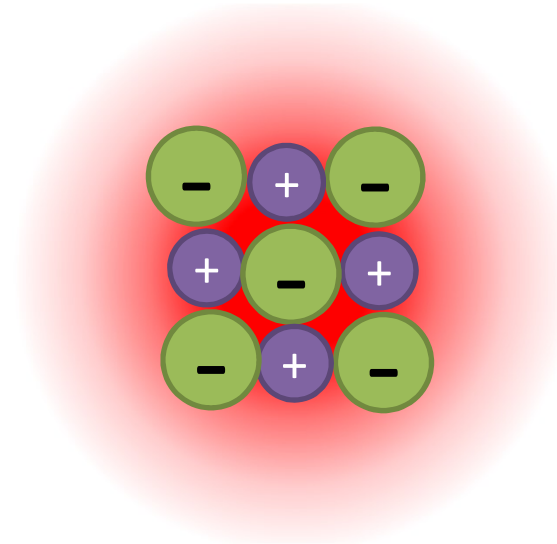
i solidi ionici



i solidi ionici

energia reticolare

*energia liberata nel
processo di formazione
del reticolo cristallino
solido a partire dagli ioni
isolati allo stato gassoso*



equazione di
Born-Landè

$$E_{retic} = - \frac{N_A M |z^+| |z^-| e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_0} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n} \right)$$

costante di Madelung (pointing to M) *cariche ioni* (pointing to $|z^+|$ and $|z^-|$)

distanza reciproca (pointing to r_0) *esponente di Born* (pointing to n)

i solidi ionici

energia reticolare

*energia liberata nel
processo di formazione
del reticolo cristallino
solido a partire dagli ioni
isolati allo stato gassoso*

*energia reticolare
aumenta con cariche ioni*

	M	n	r_0	E_{retic}
$\text{Na}^+ \text{Cl}^-$	1.74	9.1	2.82 Å	-787 kJ/mol
$\text{Mg}^{2+} \text{O}^{2-}$	1.74	9.1	2.10 Å	-4113 kJ/mol

equazione di
Born-Landè

r_0, M, n

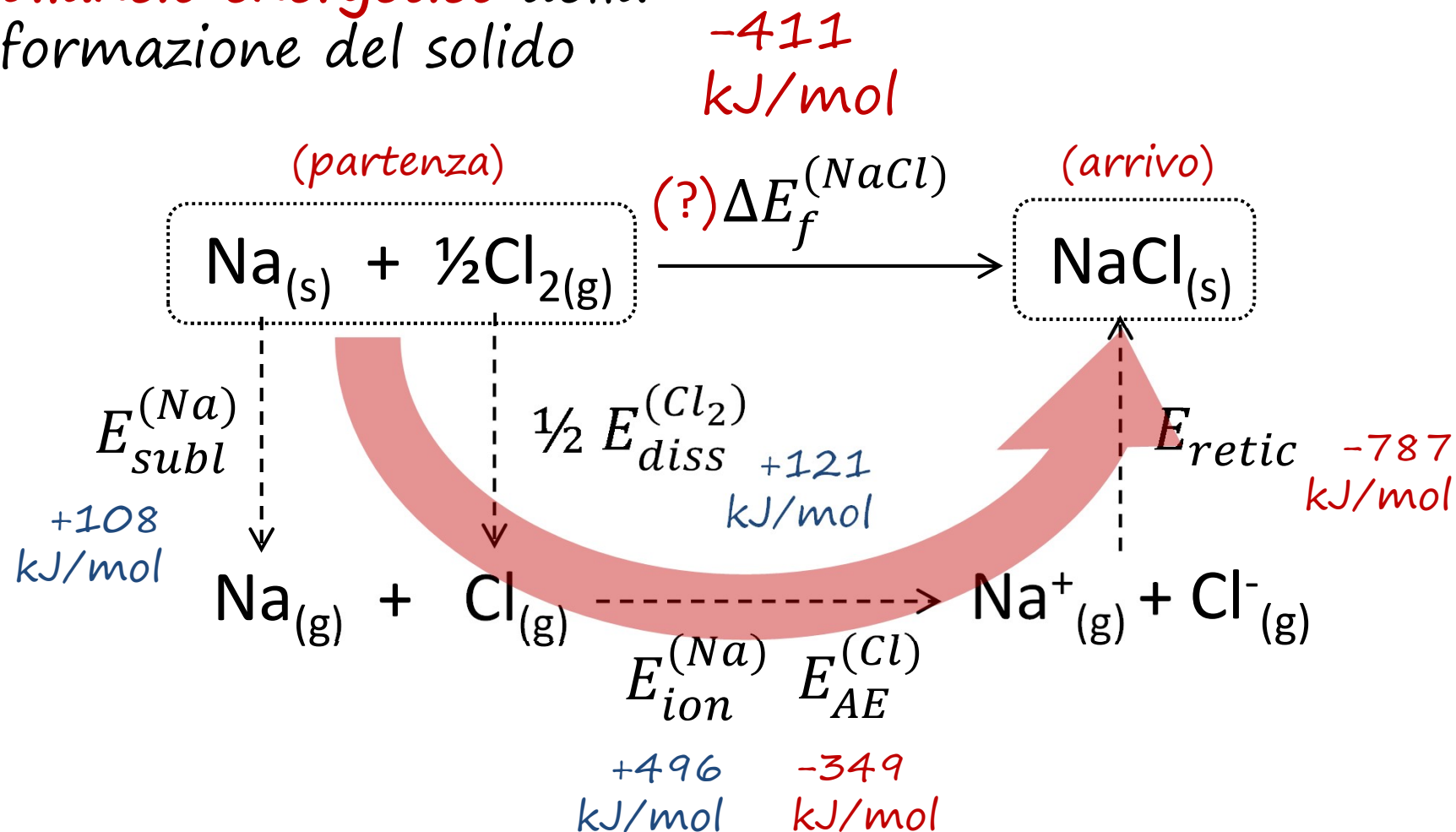
*determinati
sperimentalmente*

$$E_{\text{retic}} = - \frac{N_A M |z^+| |z^-| e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_0} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n} \right)$$

costante di Madelung (pointing to M)
cariche ioni (pointing to $|z^+|$ and $|z^-|$)
distanza reciproca (pointing to r_0)
esponente di Born (pointing to n)

i solidi ionici – il ciclo di Born-Haber

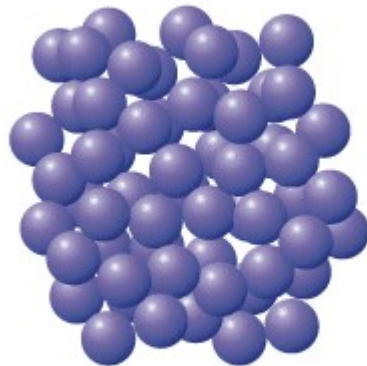
bilancio energetico della
formazione del solido



(2) grado di ordine strutturale



Solido cristallino



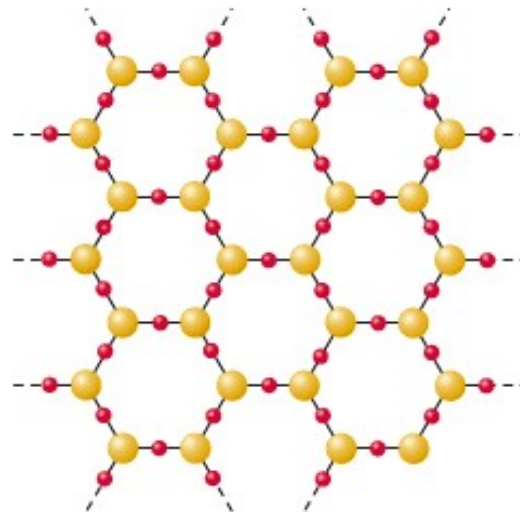
Solido amorfo



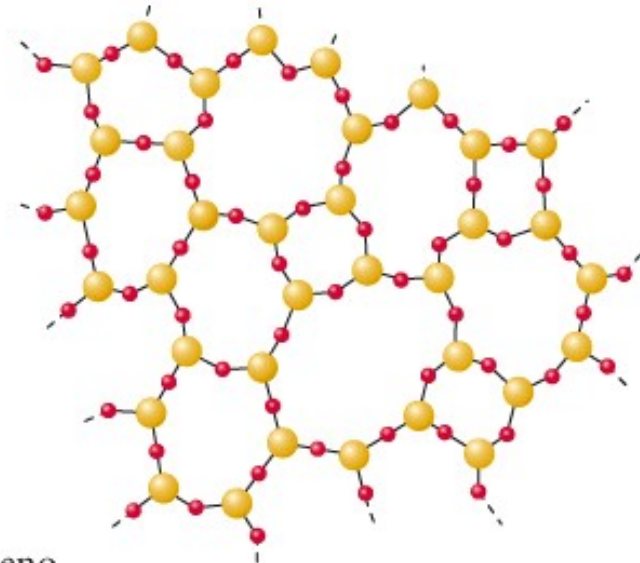
Cristallo di quarzo



Vetro



SiO_2 cristallino

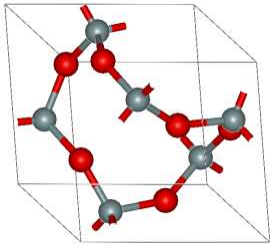


SiO_2 amorfo

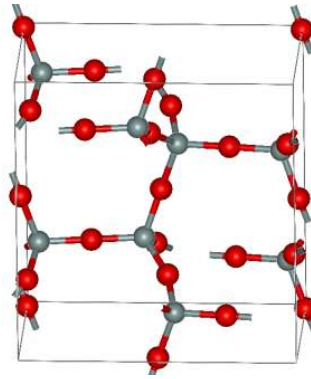
● Ossigeno
● Silicio

polimorfismo

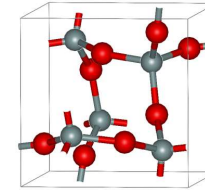
*abilità di un composto di poter assumere
più di una forma cristallina*



quarzo



tridimite



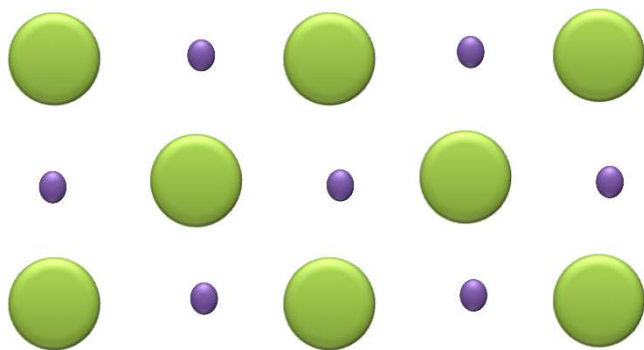
cristobalite

(3) stechiometria

composti stechiometrici

*composizione elementare rispetta le
leggi delle proporzioni definite e
multiple,*

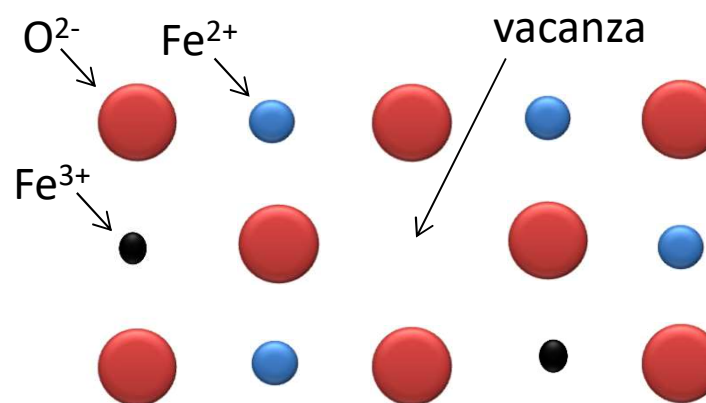
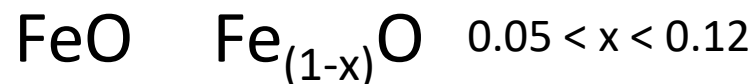
*formula chimica in termini di rapporti
tra numeri interi*



composti non-stechiometrici

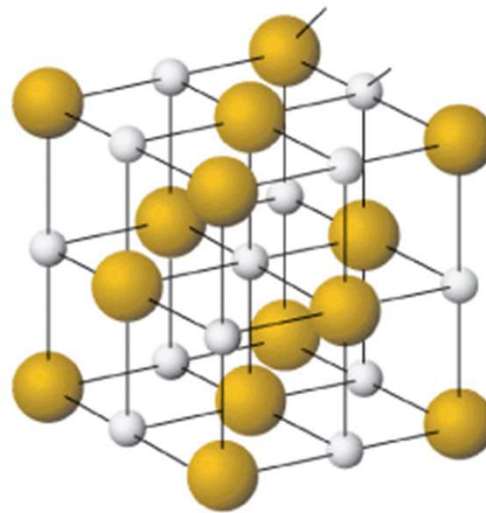
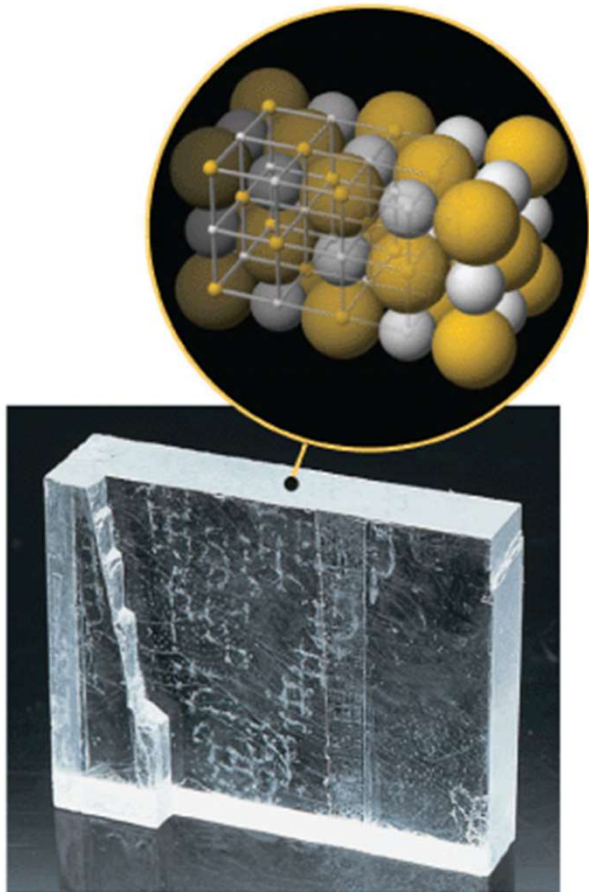
*composizione elementare NON
rispetta le leggi delle proporzioni
definite e multiple,*

*formula chimica NON può essere
rappresentata in termini di rapporti tra
numeri interi*



cristallo o solido cristallino

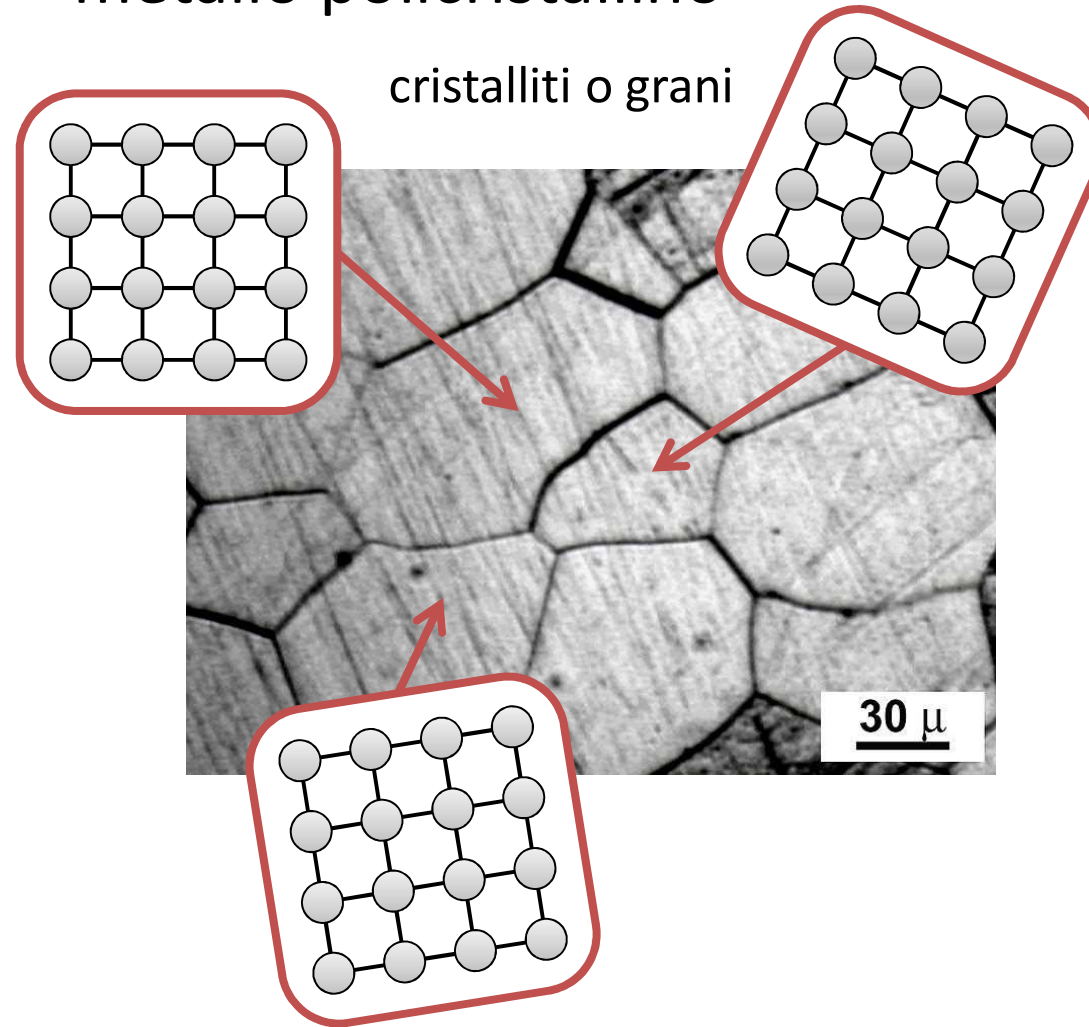
*porzioni di materia solida ed
omogenea di forma poliedrica
regolare a cui corrisponde una
struttura atomico-molecolare
regolare*



Cella elementare di NaCl (espansa)

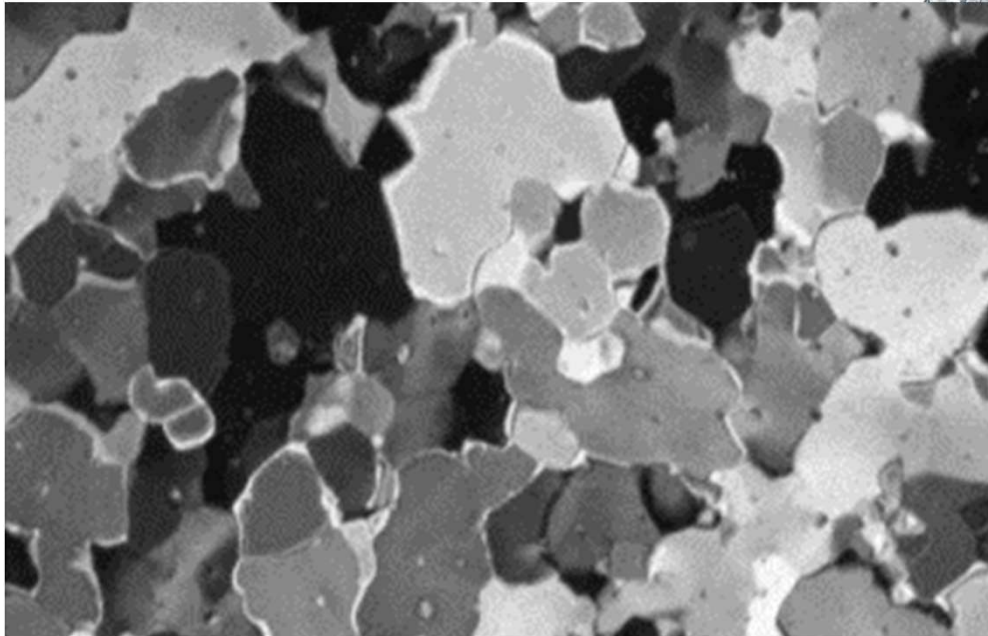
solidi policristallini

metallo policristallino



solidi policristallini

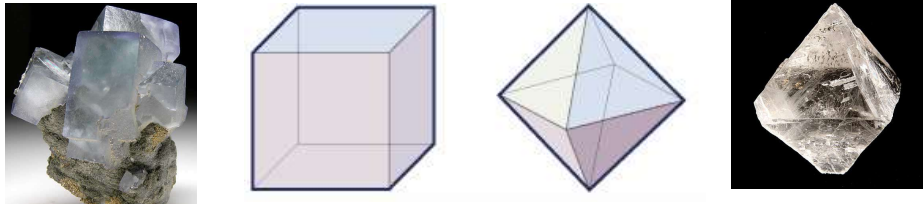
il ghiaccio è policristallino



solidi cristallini

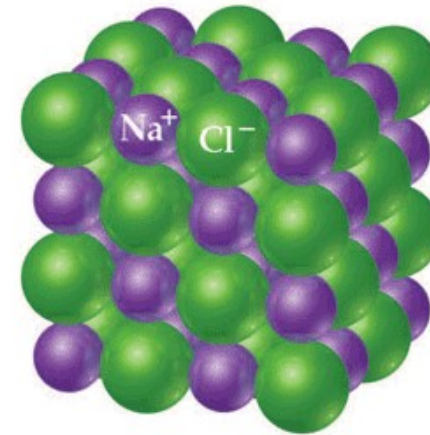
descrizione macroscopica

*aspetto esterno (macroscopico) del
cristallo → ABITO CRISTALLINO*



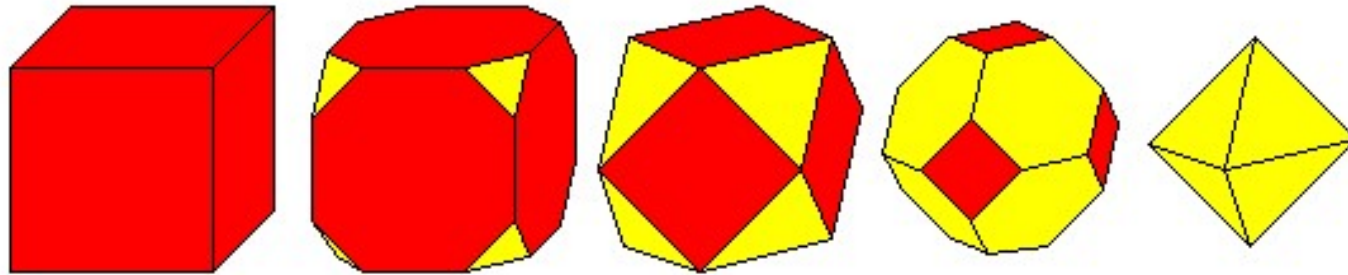
*uno stesso composto può presentare
diversi abiti cristallini
ma gli angoli tra le facce del cristallo
rimangono uguali*

descrizione microscopica

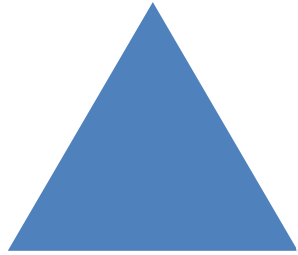


*l'abito cristallino dipende
dalla disposizione spaziale
degli atomi o molecole nella
struttura cristallina*

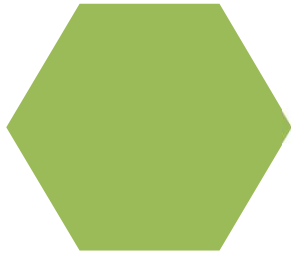
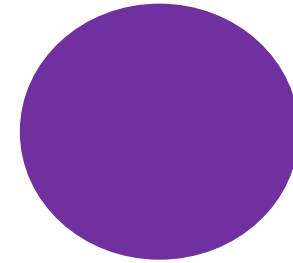
abiti cristallini



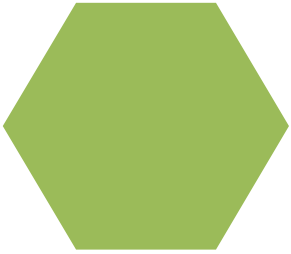
simmetria



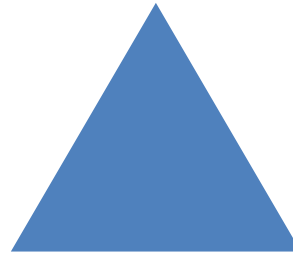
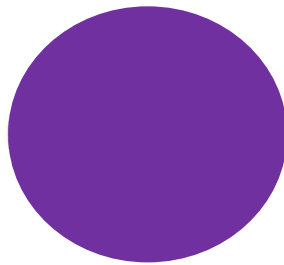
?



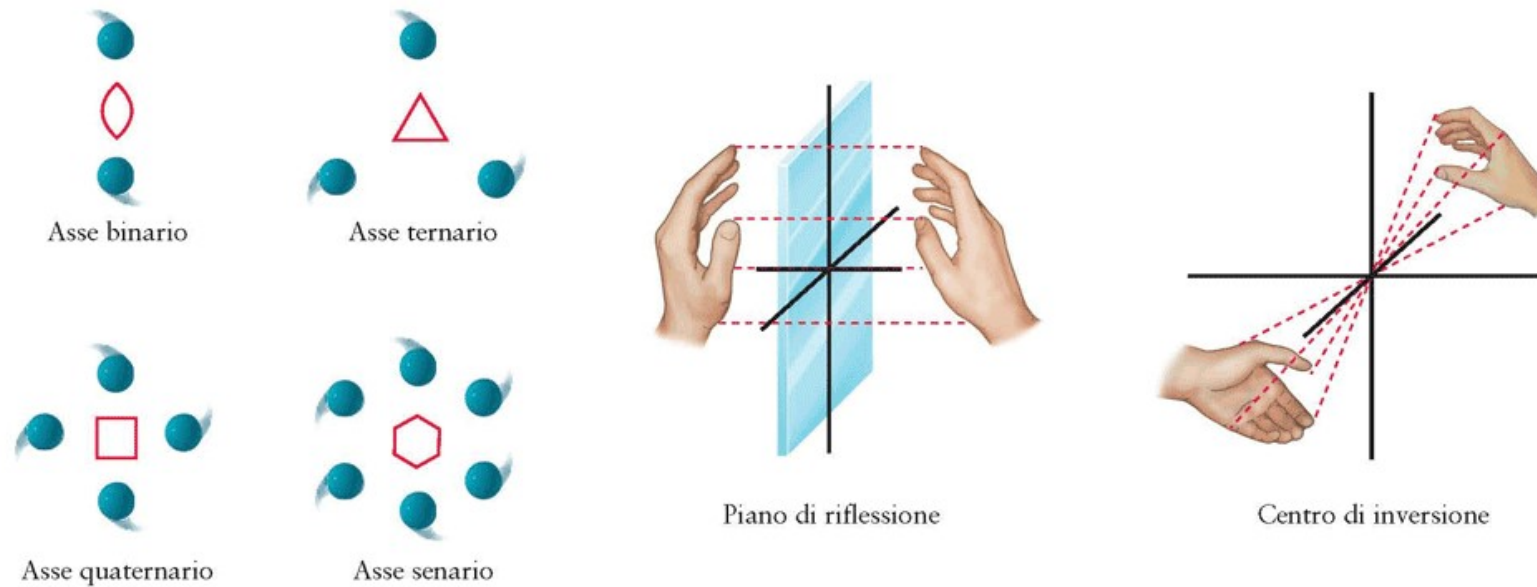
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?

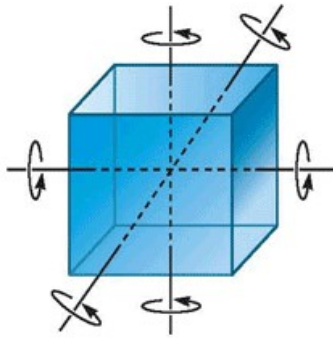


elementi ed operazioni di simmetria

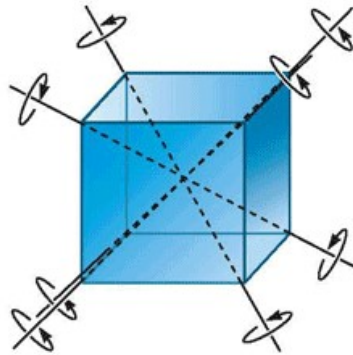


*la “regolarità” della forma dei solidi
cristallini si può descrivere con la teoria
matematica della simmetria*

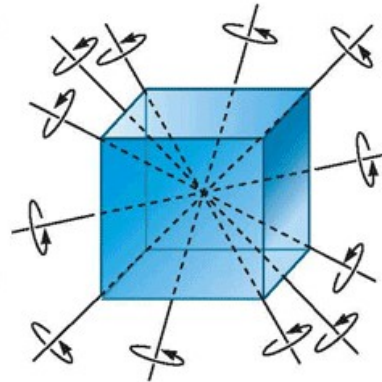
elementi di simmetria



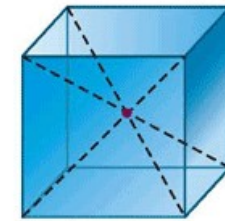
Tre assi quaternari



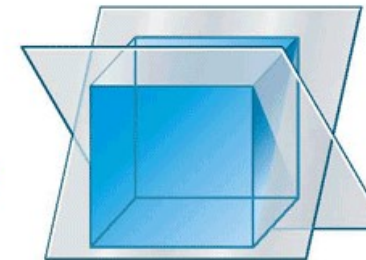
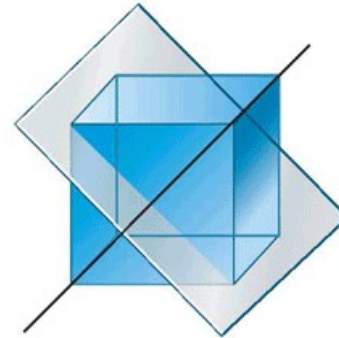
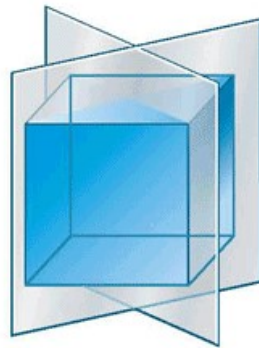
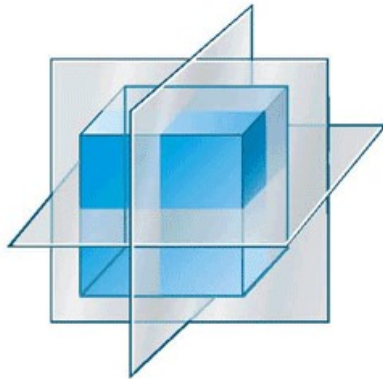
Quattro assi ternari



Sei assi binari



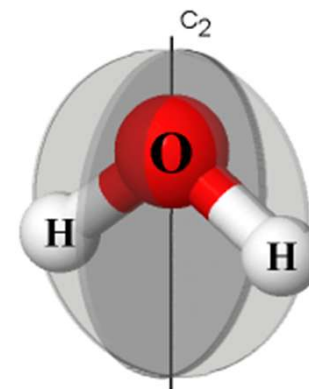
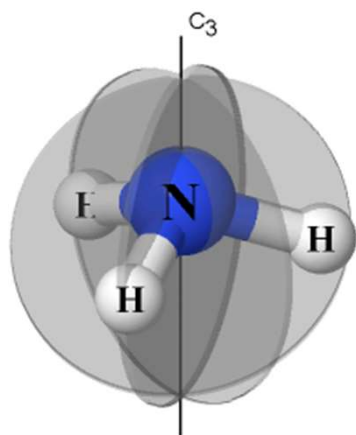
Centro di inversione



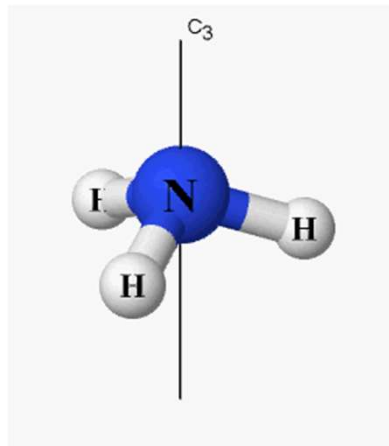
Nove piani di riflessione

elementi ed operazioni di simmetria

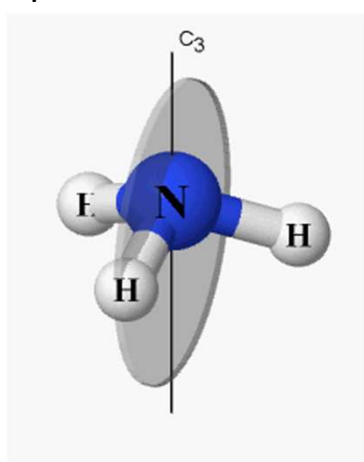
*la teoria della simmetria si può applicare
anche alle strutture molecolari*



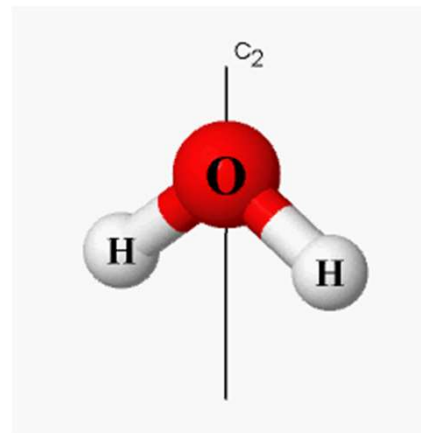
asse rotazione C₃



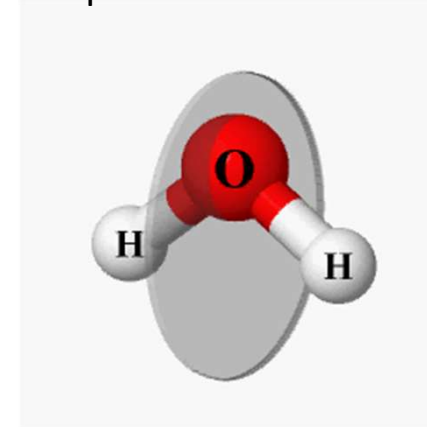
piano di riflessione



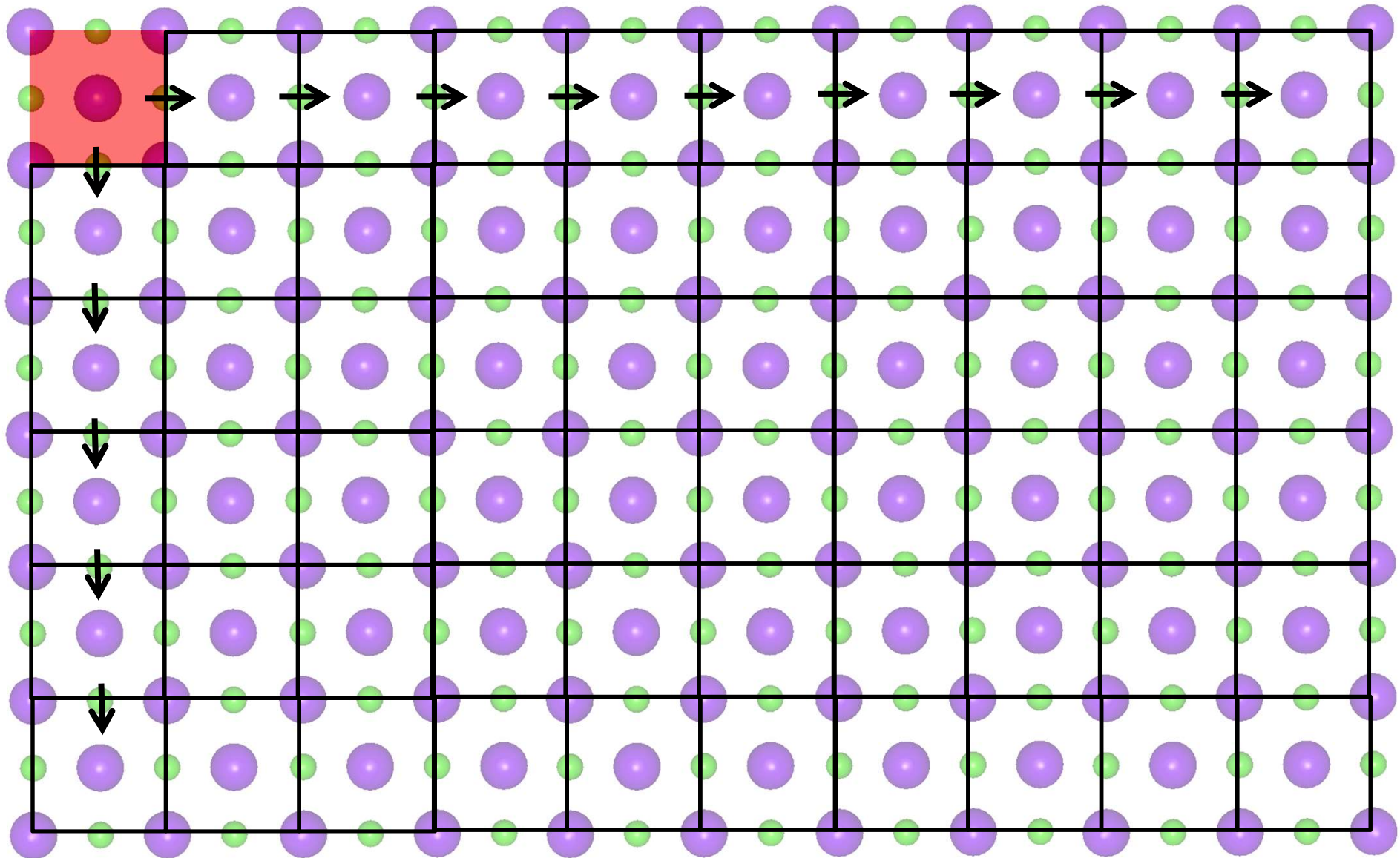
asse rotazione C₂



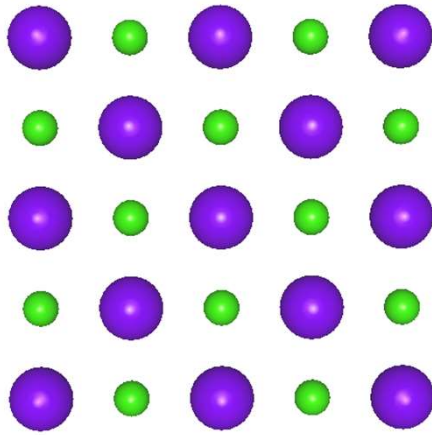
piano di riflessione



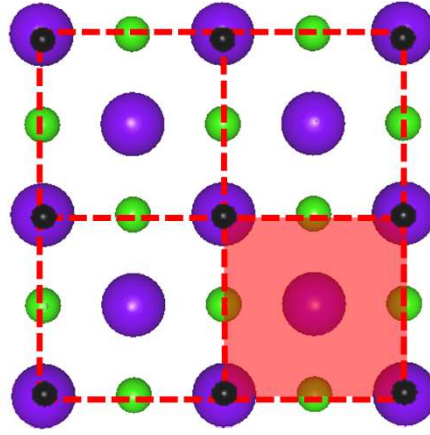
descrizione microscopica: reticolo cristallino



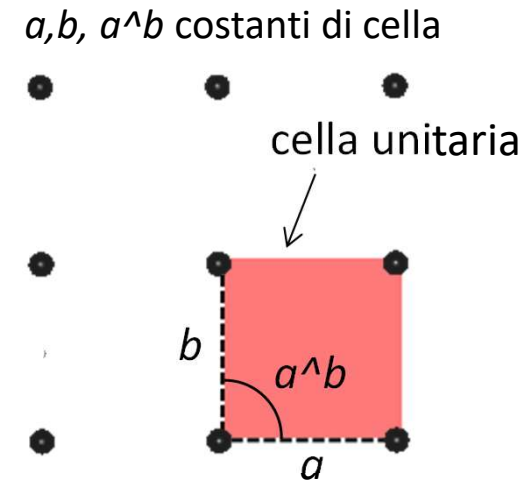
descrizione microscopica: reticolo cristallino



*disposizione regolare
atomi o molecole
nello spazio*



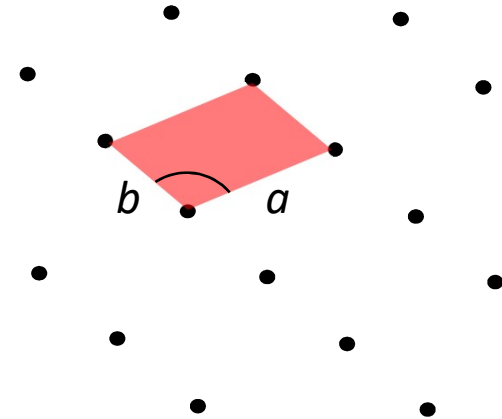
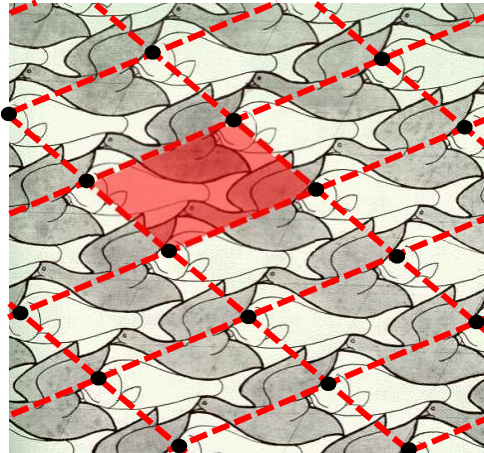
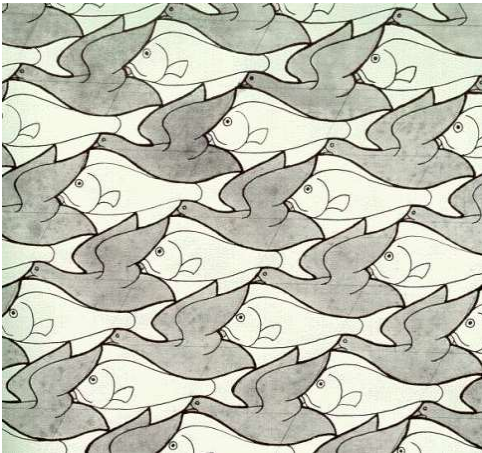
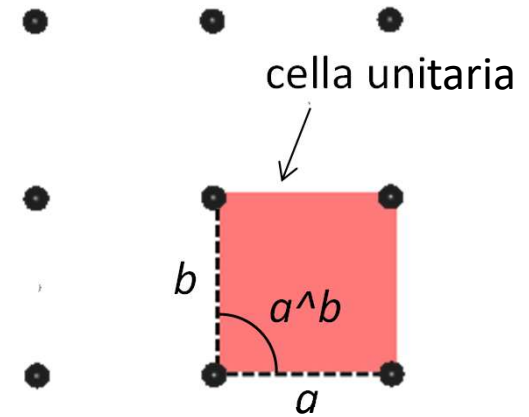
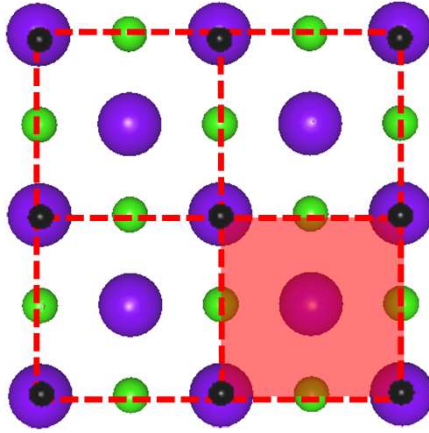
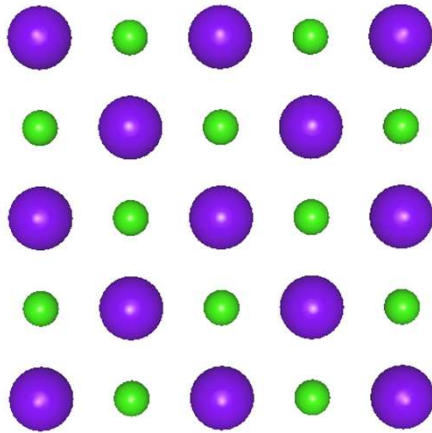
*ad ogni punto del
cristallo con lo stesso
“intorno” è associato
un punto del reticolo*



*reticolo cristallino;
insieme di punti che
esprime lo schema di
ripetizione presente
nel cristallo*

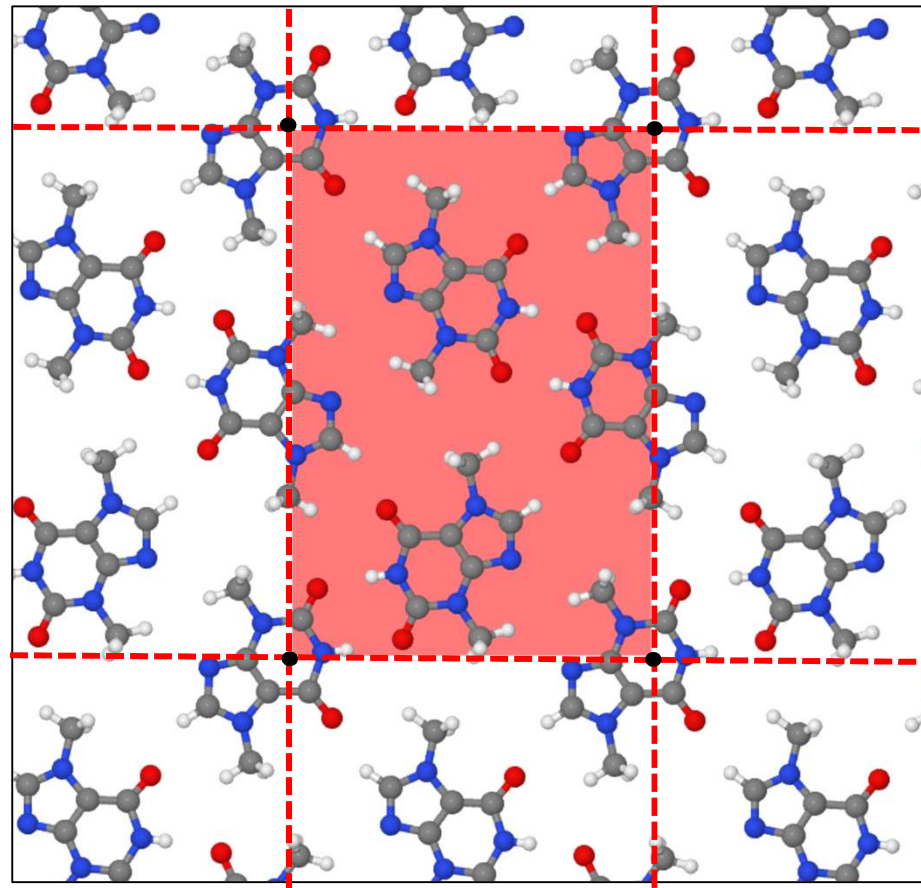
cella unitaria: rappresenta l'intero cristallo
l'intero reticolo (cristallo) può essere
ottenuto dalla cella unitaria per traslazione

descrizione microscopica: reticolo cristallino



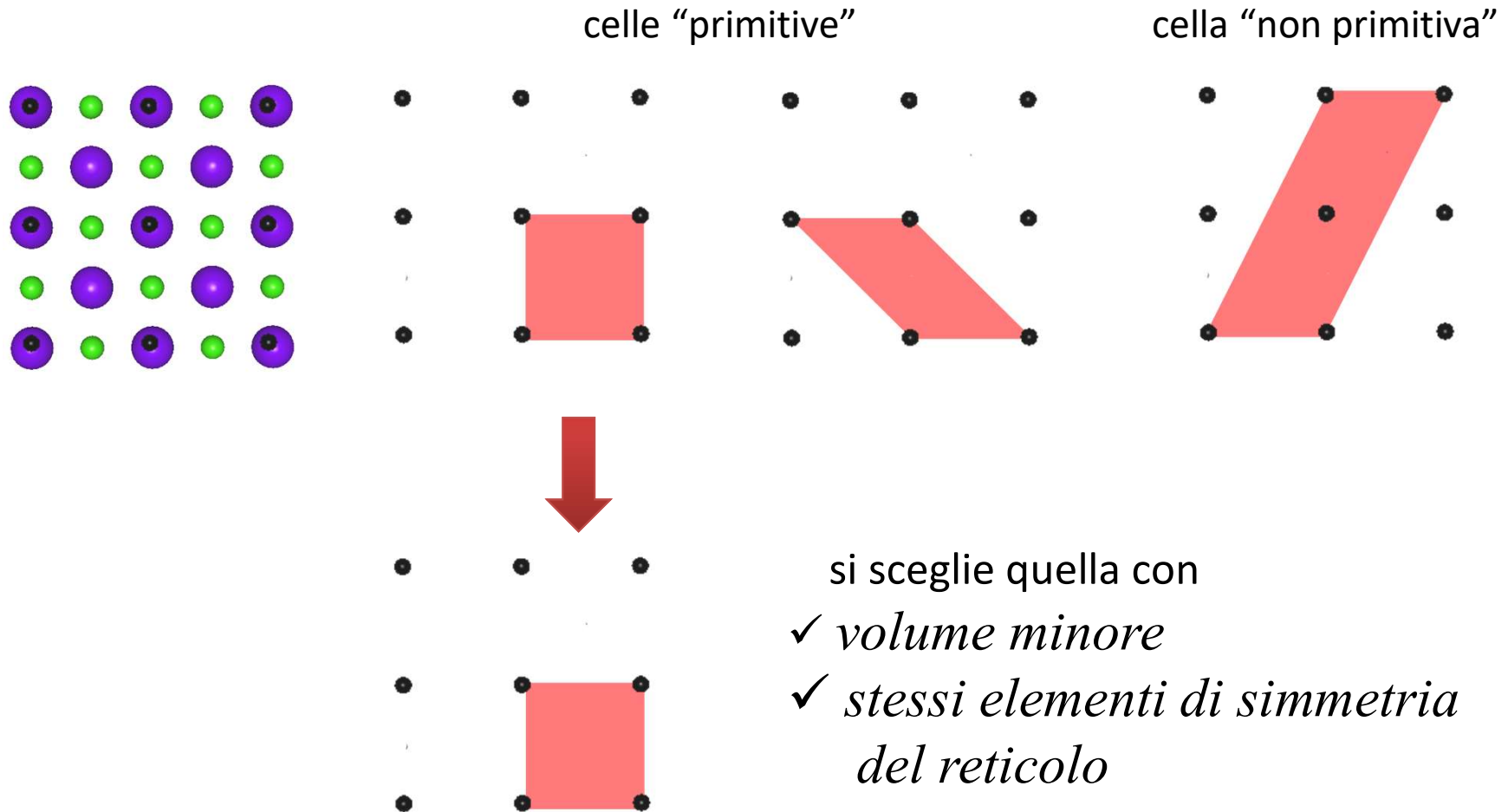
descrizione microscopica: reticolo cristallino

i punti del reticolo non corrispondono necessariamente ad atomi, ed anche molecole asimmetriche possono dare luogo a reticoli molto regolari (es. cristalli molecolari)

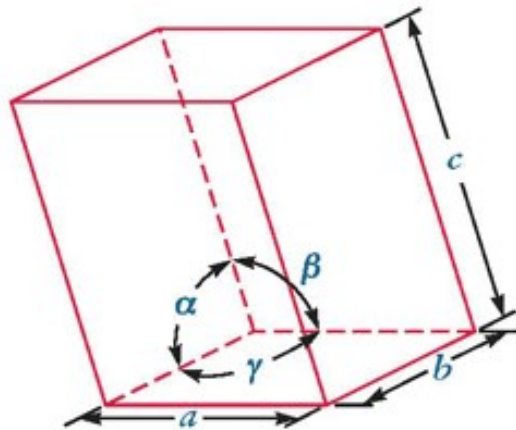
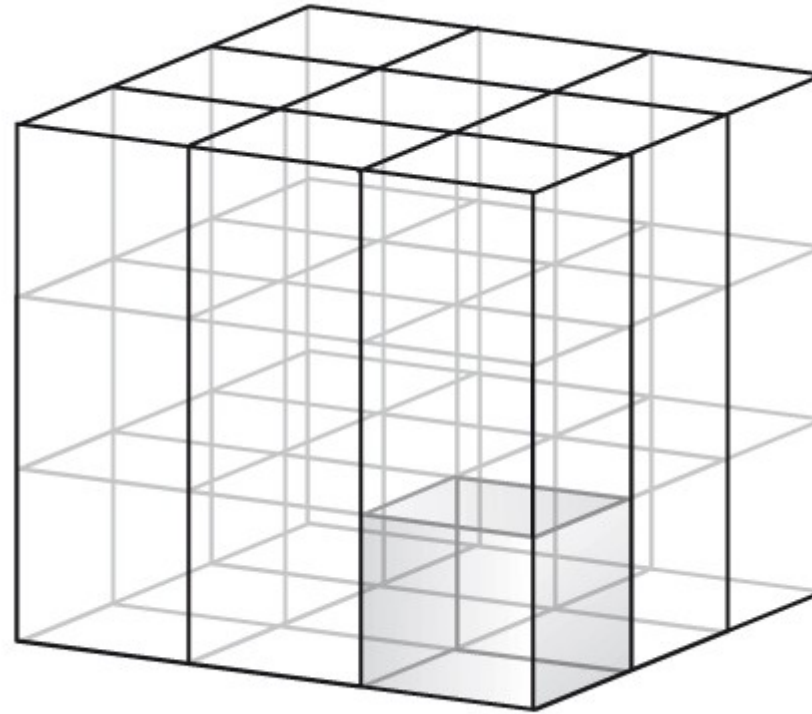
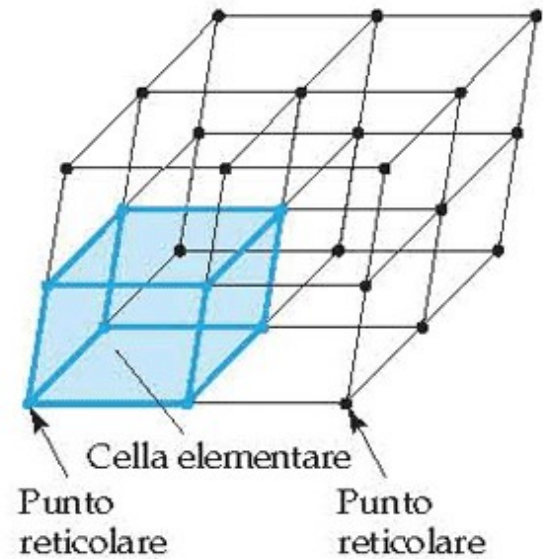


reticolo cristallino e cella unitaria

*per un dato reticolo sono possibili **infinite** celle unitarie*

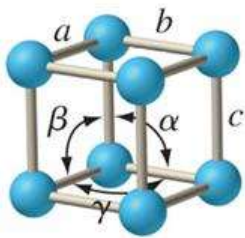


reticolo cristallino tridimensionale

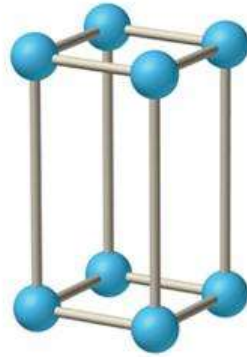


6 costanti o parametri di cella
($a, b, c, \alpha, \beta, \gamma$)

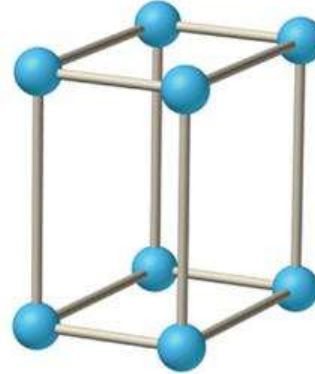
i sette sistemi cristallini



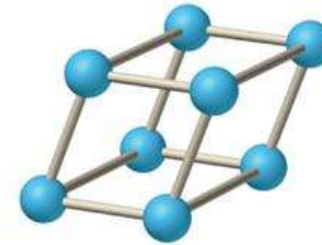
cubico
 $a = b = c$
 $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$



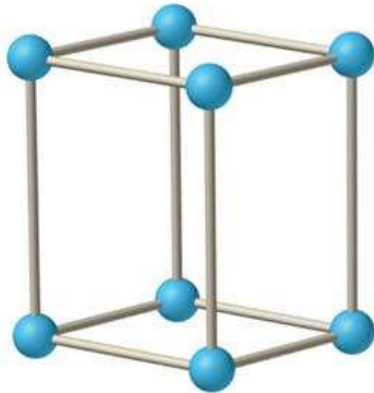
tetragonale
 $a = b \neq c$
 $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$



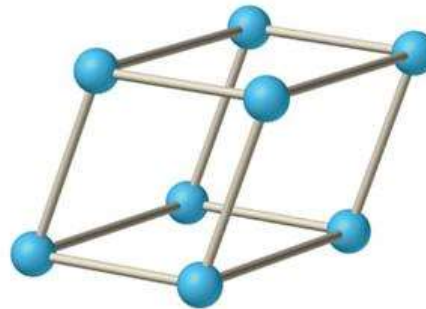
ortorombico
 $a \neq b \neq c$
 $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$



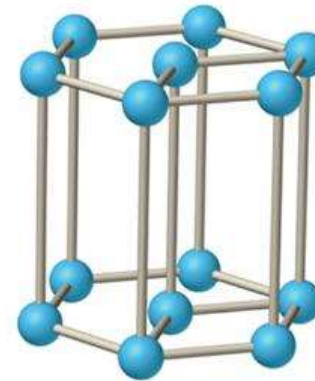
trigonale
 $a = b = c$
 $\alpha = \beta = \gamma \neq 90^\circ$



monoclino
 $a \neq b \neq c$
 $\gamma \neq \alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$



triclino
 $a \neq b \neq c$
 $\alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma \neq 90^\circ$

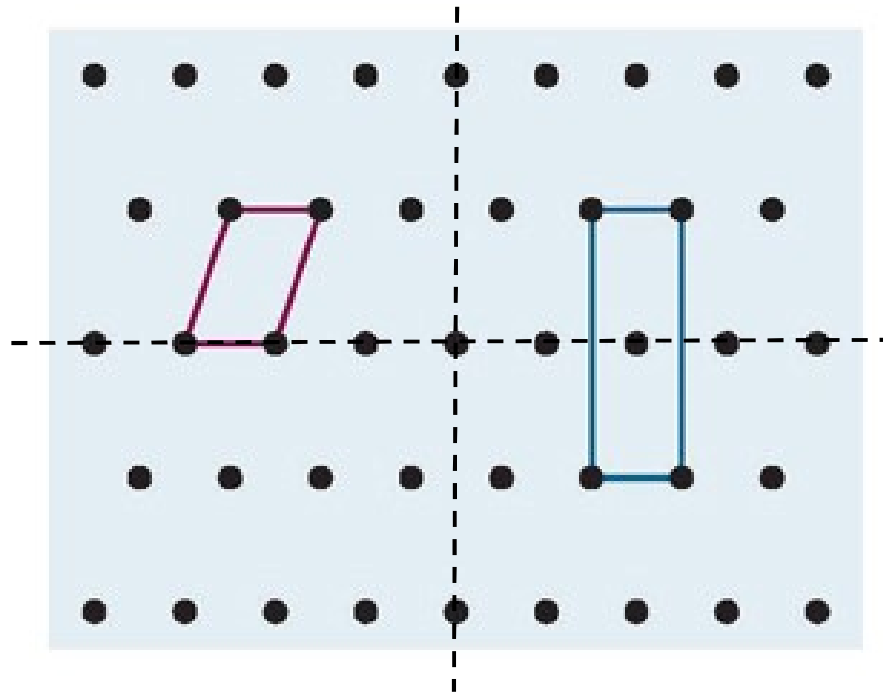


esagonale
 $a = b \neq c$
 $\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ, \gamma = 120^\circ$

reticolo cristallino e cella unitaria

in alcuni casi la cella più piccola che soddisfa il criterio di simmetria contiene più di un punto reticolare

il reticolo ha due assi di simmetria



la cella non primitiva ha anche due assi di simmetria

tipi di celle unitarie non-primitive

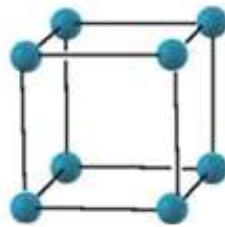
(esempio per sistema cubico)

bcc

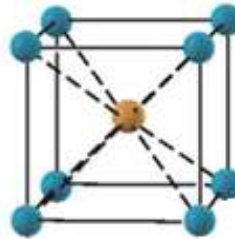
(body-centered cubic)

fcc

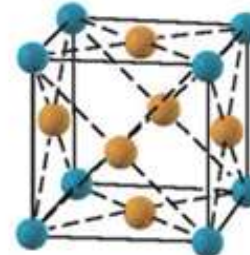
(face-centered cubic)



primitiva
(P)



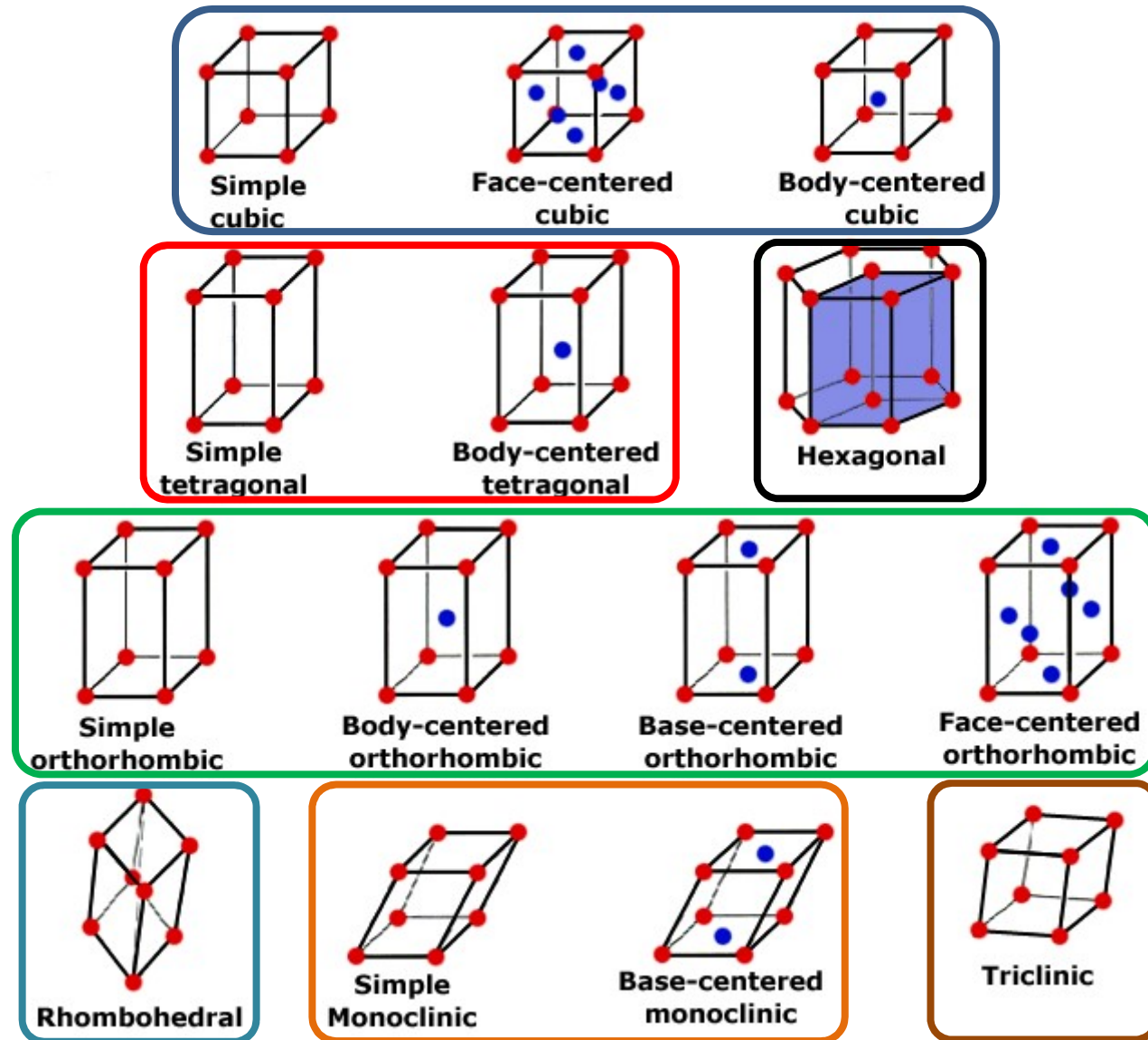
corpo centrato
(I)



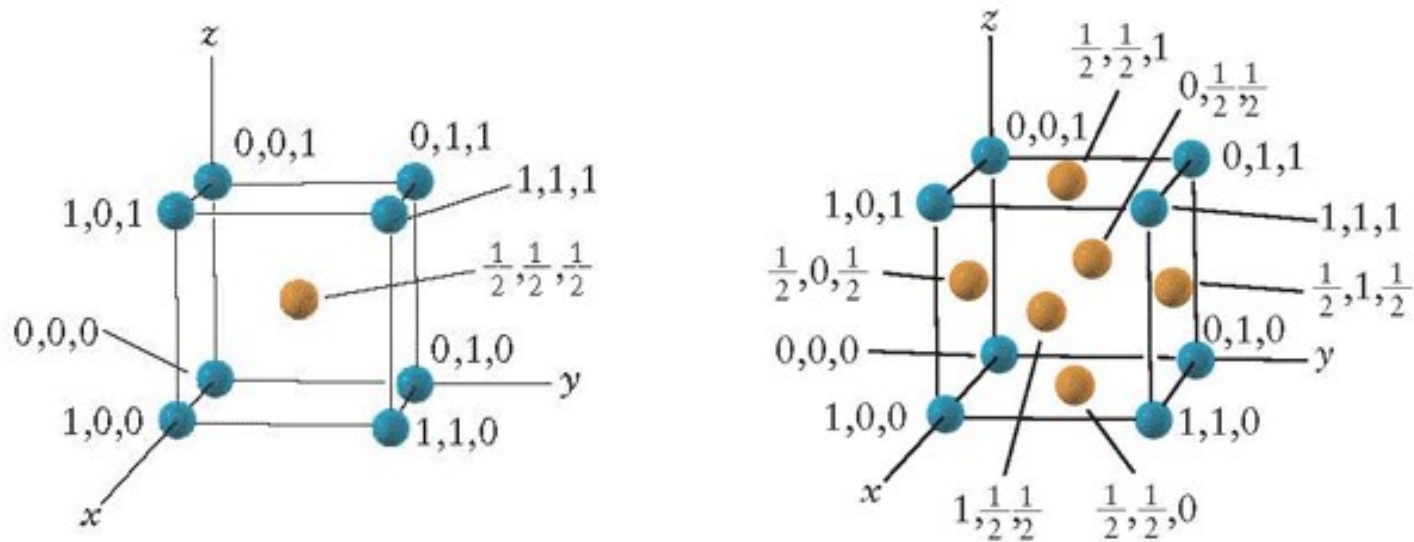
a facce centrate
(F)

2 tipi di celle unitarie non-primitive

i 14 reticoli di Bravais



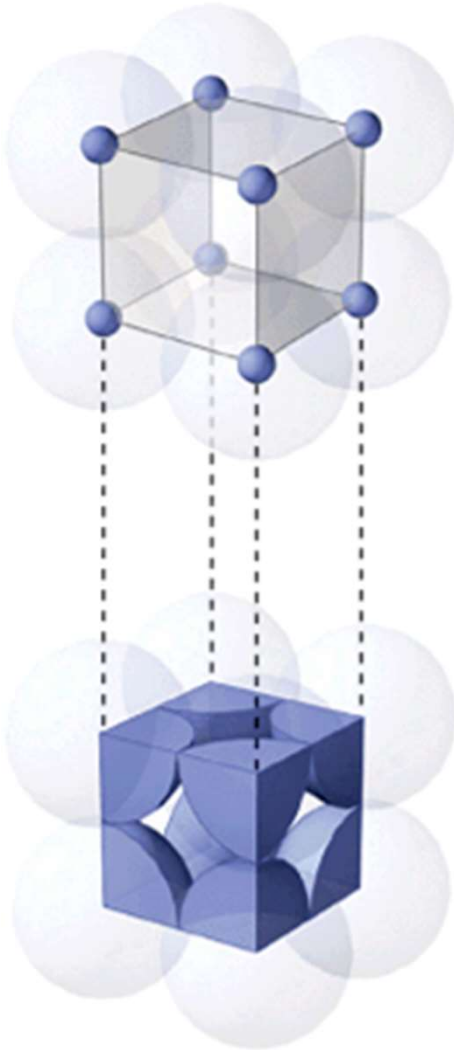
coordinate frazionarie



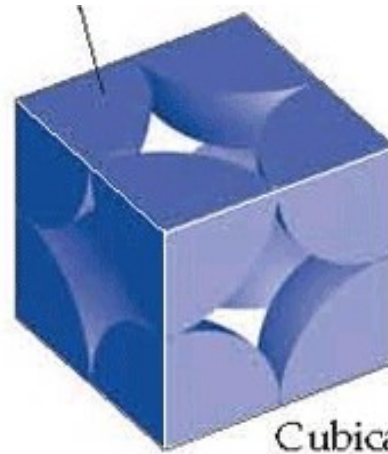
definiscono la posizione di un atomo
o di un punto reticolare all'interno
della cella cristallina

punti reticolari e celle unitarie

Cubo primitivo



1/8 di punto
reticolare su 8 angoli

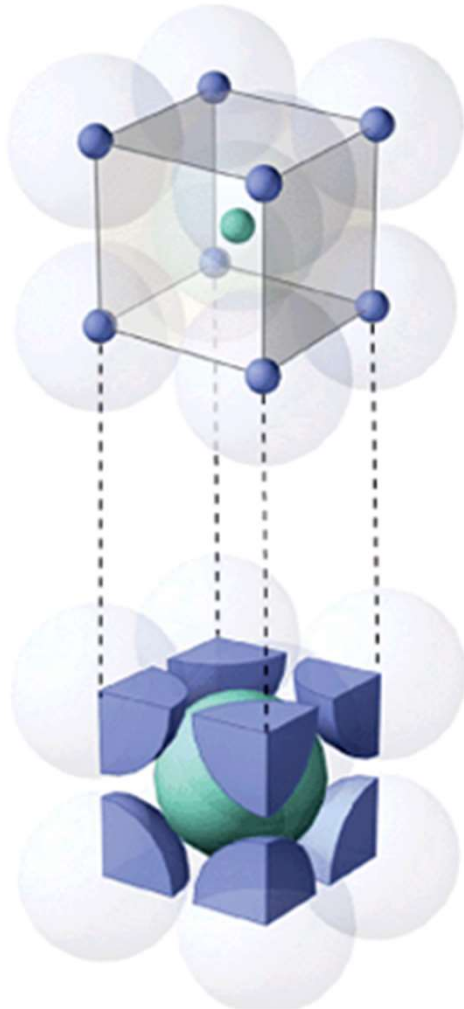


Cubica primitiva

$$1/8 \times 8 = 1 \text{ punto reticolare}$$

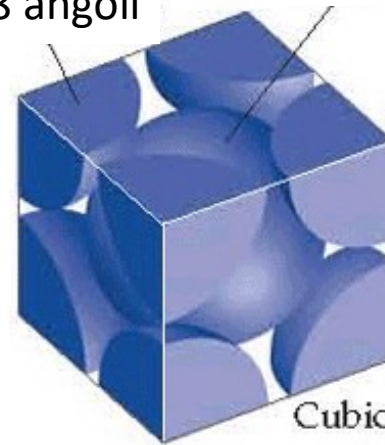
punti reticolari e celle unitarie

Cubo a corpo centrato



1/8 di punto
reticolare su 8 angoli

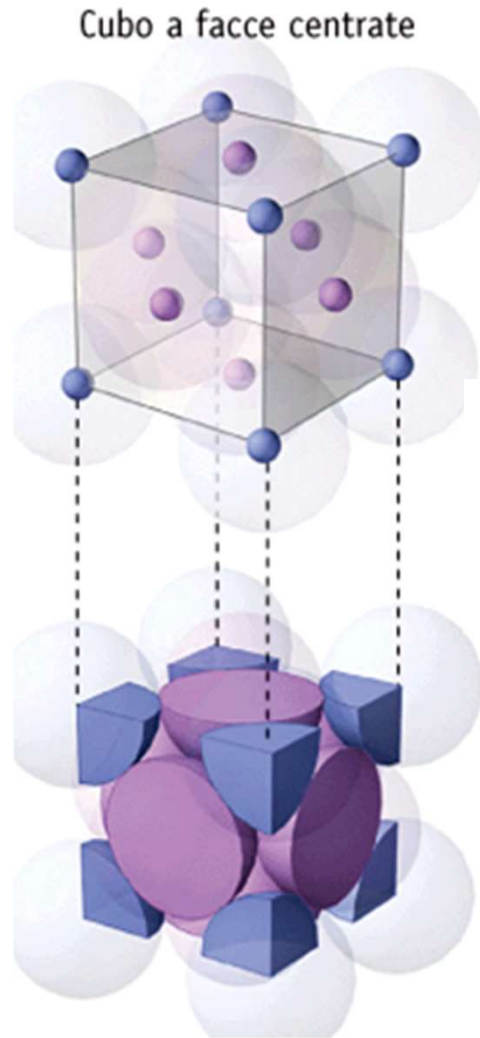
1 punto al
centro



Cubica a corpo
centrato

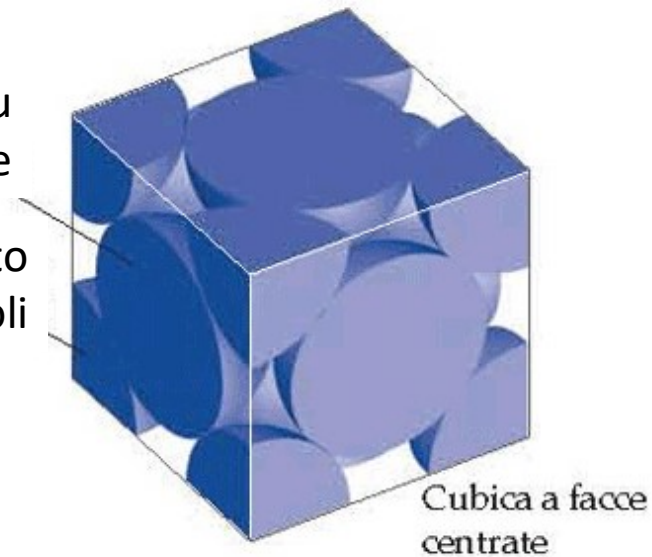
$$(1/8 \times 8) + 1 = 2 \text{ punti reticolari}$$

punti reticolari e celle unitarie



1/2 punto su
6 facce

1/8 di punto
reticolare su 8 angoli

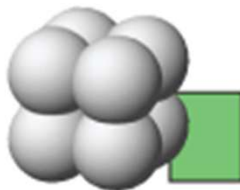


$$(1/8 \times 8) + (1/2 \times 6) = 4 \text{ punti reticolari}$$

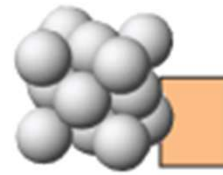
esempi di strutture cristalline: metalli

strutture semplici: ogni punto reticolare corrisponde ad un atomo

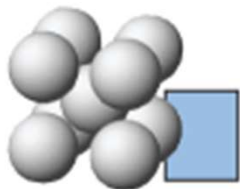
H																	He				
Li	Be															B	C	N	O	F	Ne
Na	Mg															Al	Si	P	S	Cl	Ar
K	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr				
Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	Xe				
Cs	Ba	La	Hf	Ta	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	Tl	Pb	Bi	Po	At	Rn				
Fr	Ra	Ac																			



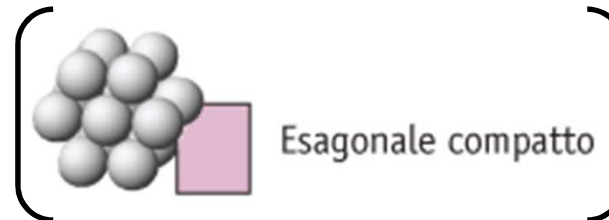
Cubo primitivo



Cubico compatto
(Cubo a facce centrate)



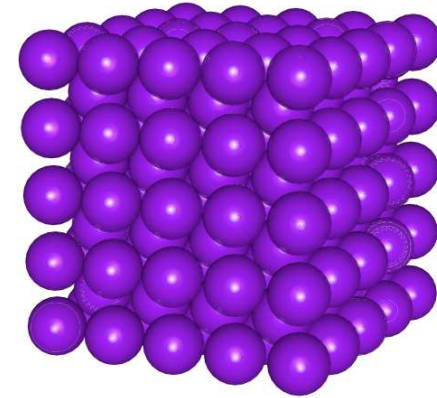
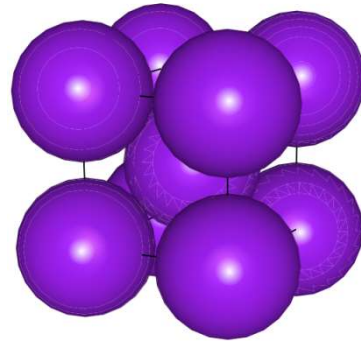
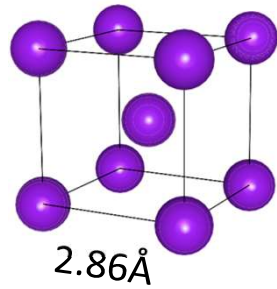
Cubo a corpo centrato



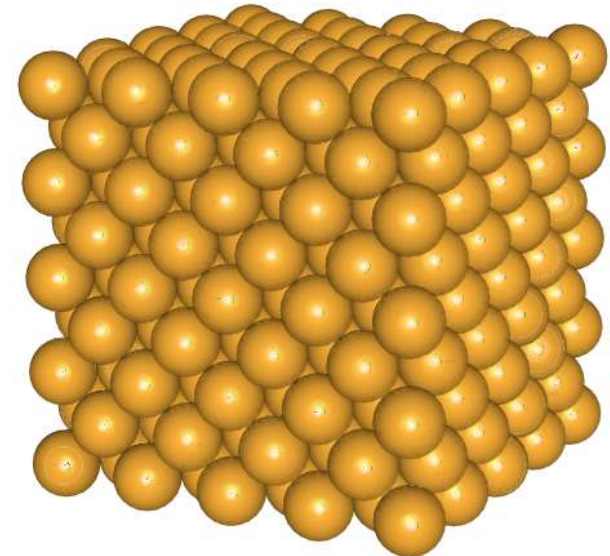
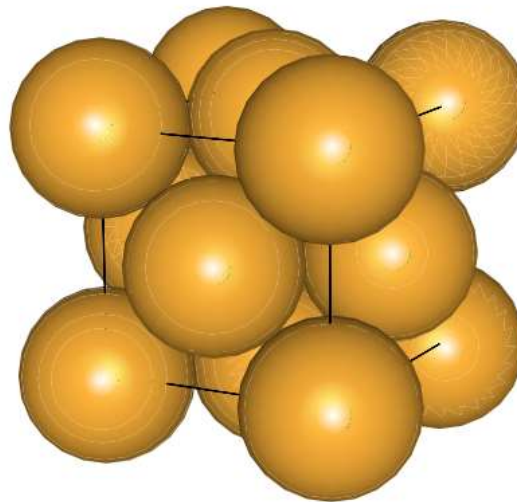
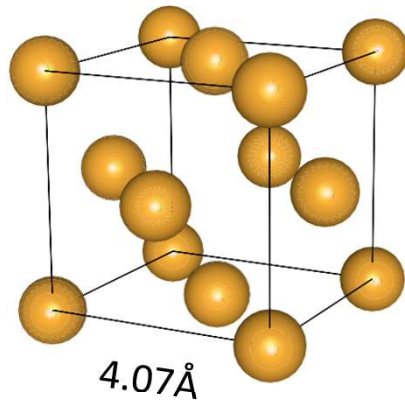
Esagonale compatto

esempi *bcc* e *fcc*: metalli

Fe

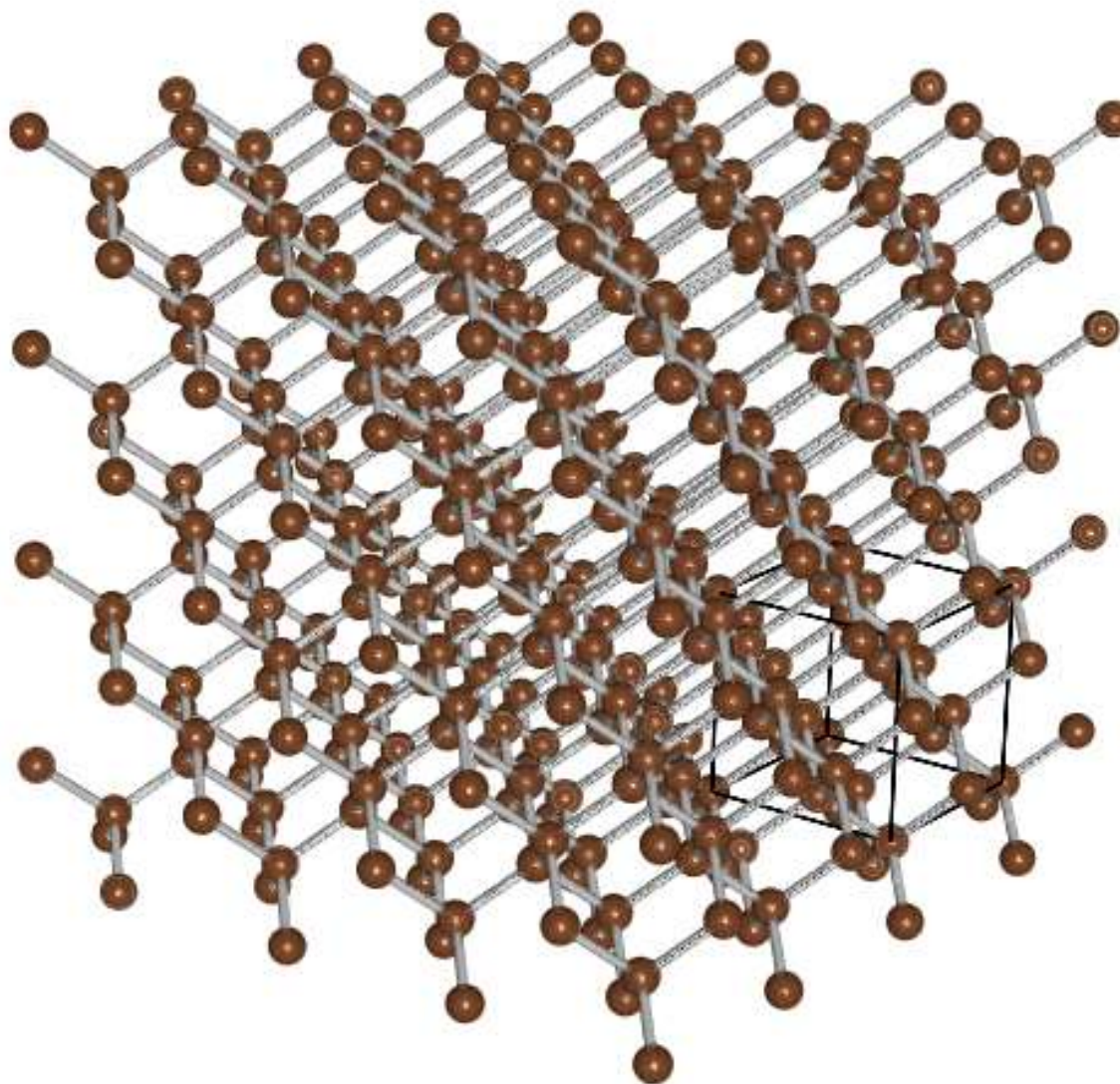
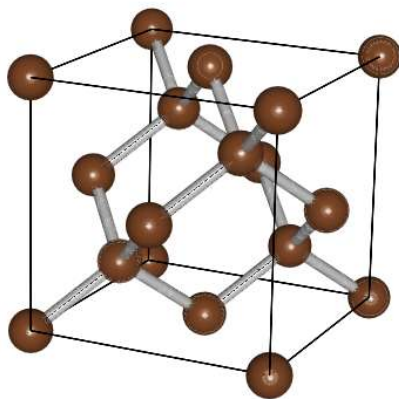


Au



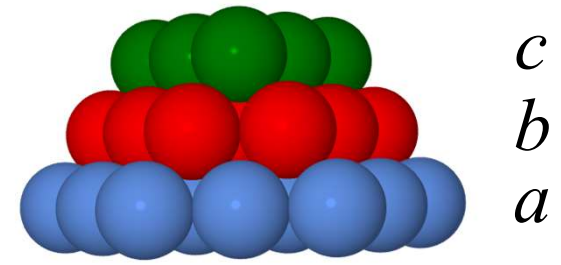
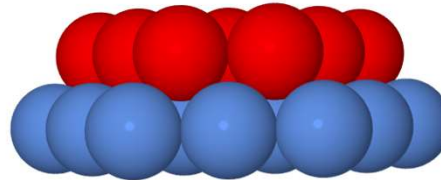
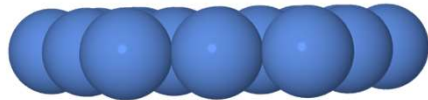
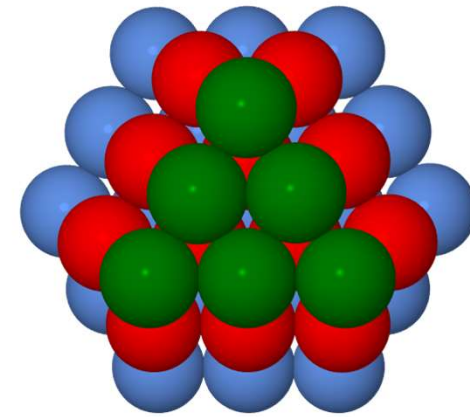
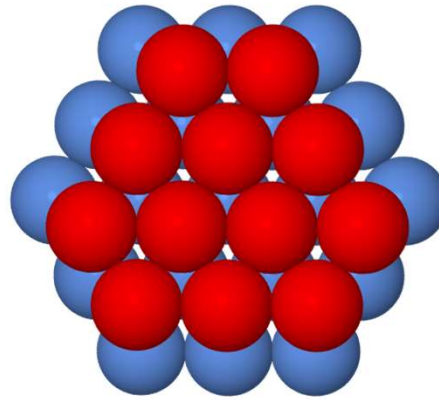
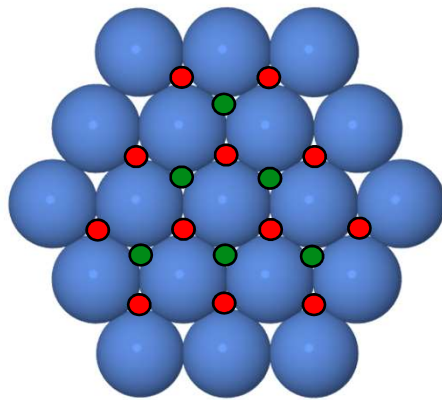
esempi cristalli altri elementi

$C_{(\text{diamante})}$



impaccamento nelle strutture cristalline

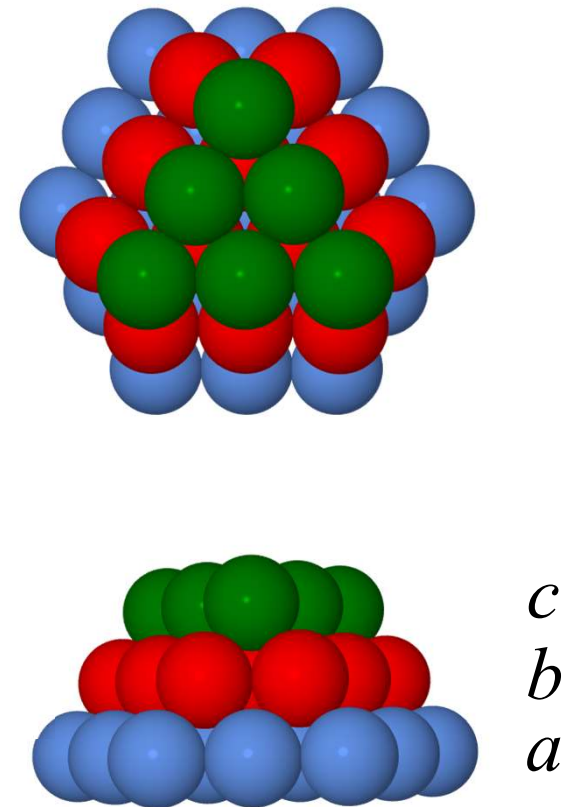
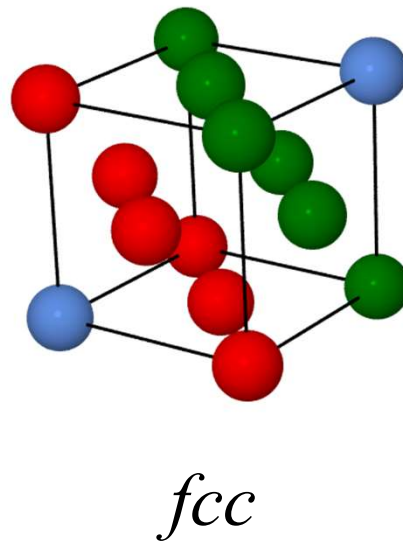
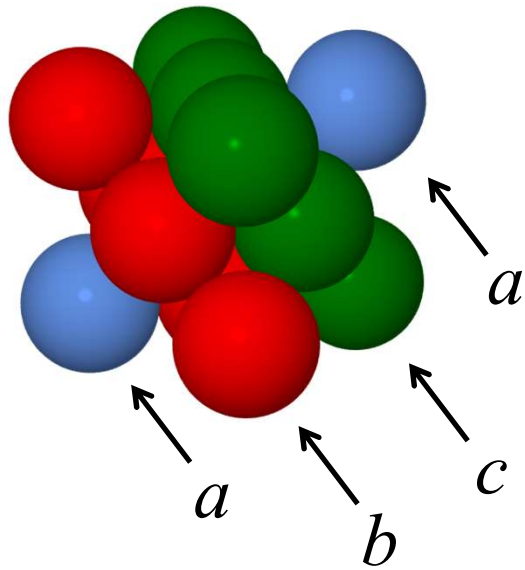
cubico compatto



c
 b
 a

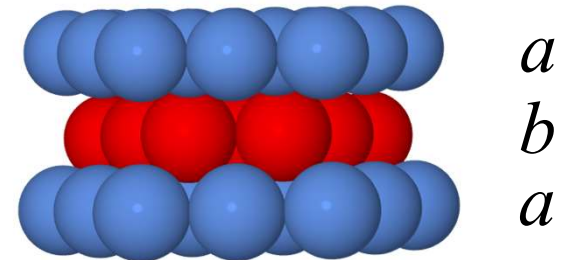
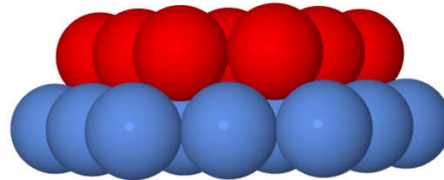
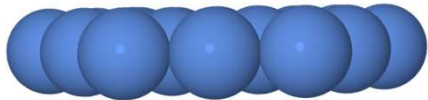
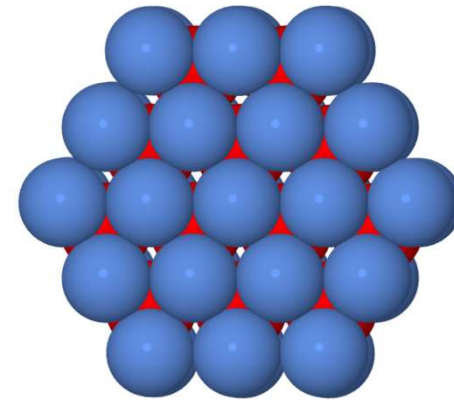
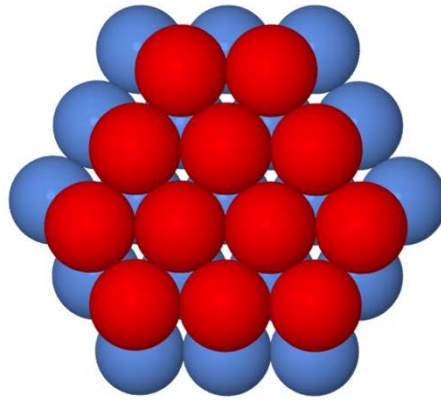
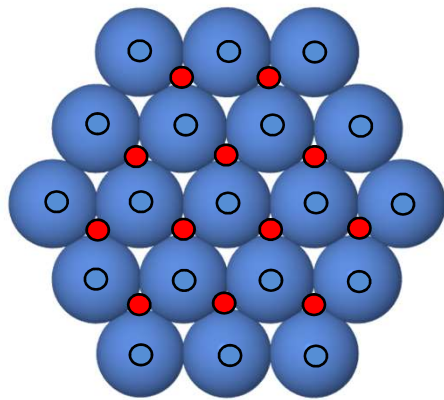
impaccamento nelle strutture cristalline

cubico compatto



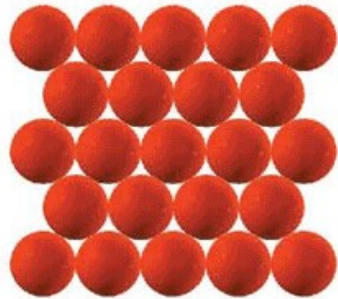
impaccamento nelle strutture cristalline

esagonale compatto

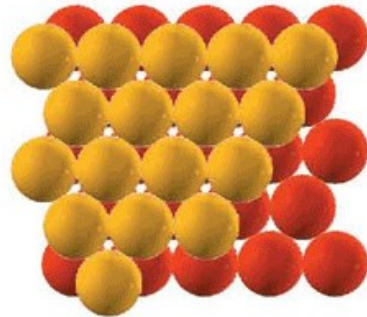


a
 b
 a

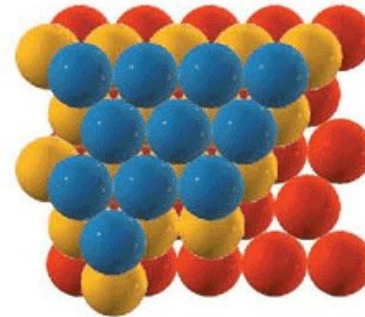
impaccamento nelle strutture cristalline



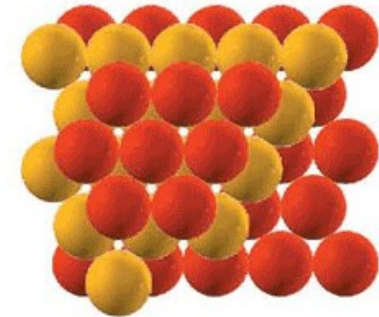
(a)



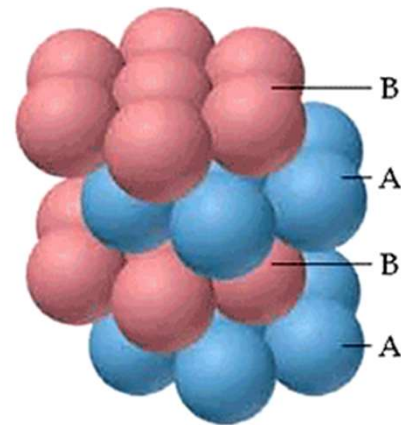
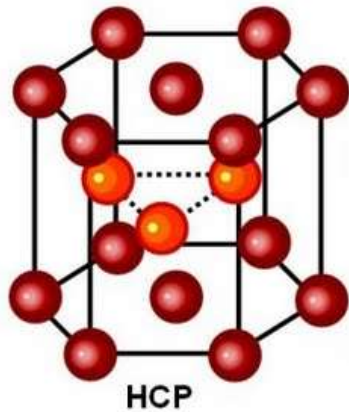
(b)



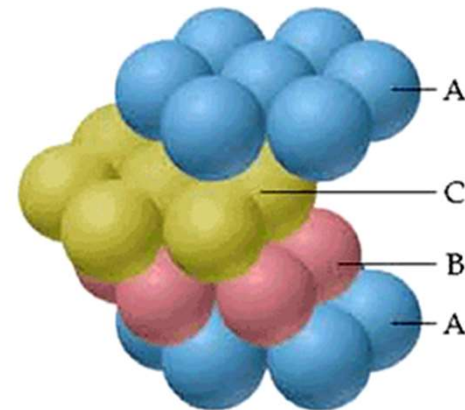
(c)



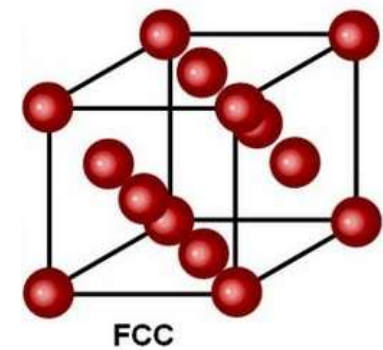
(d)



*struttura esagonale
compatta*



*struttura cubica
compatta*

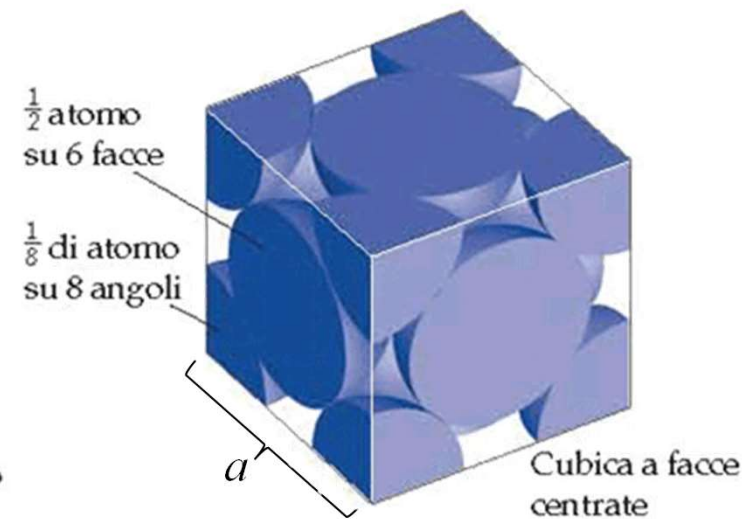
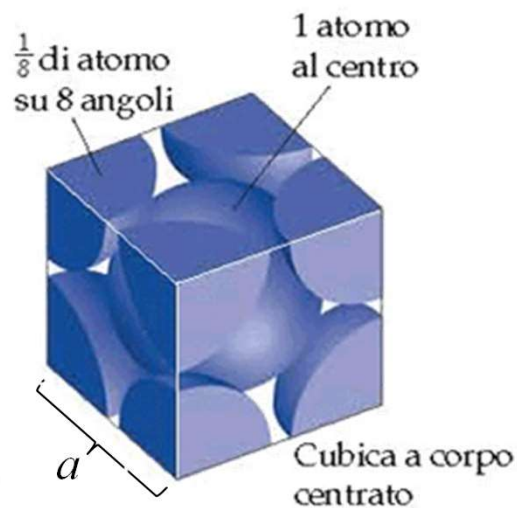
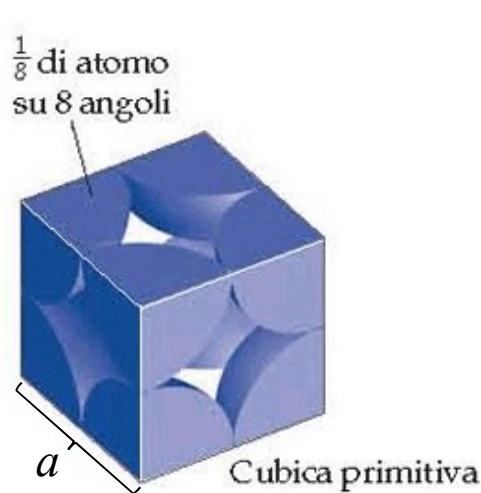


coefficienti di impaccamento

volume atomo raggio $r = \frac{4}{3} \pi r^3$

volume cella cubica di lato $a = a^3$

coefficiente di impaccamento = $\frac{\text{volume occupato da atomi}}{\text{volume cella}}$



$$\underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ r}}{\frac{4}{3} \pi \left(\frac{a}{2} \right)^3} \cdot \frac{1}{a^3} = \frac{\pi}{6} = 0.524$$

52.4%

$$2 \cdot \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ r}}{\frac{4}{3} \pi \left(\frac{a\sqrt{3}}{4} \right)^3} \cdot \frac{1}{a^3} = \frac{\sqrt{3}\pi}{8} = 0.680$$

68%

$$4 \cdot \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ r}}{\frac{4}{3} \pi \left(\frac{a\sqrt{2}}{4} \right)^3} \cdot \frac{1}{a^3} = \frac{\sqrt{2}\pi}{6} = 0.740$$

74%
(come hcp)

impaccamento e densità

numero
atomi in
una cella

massa di un
atomo

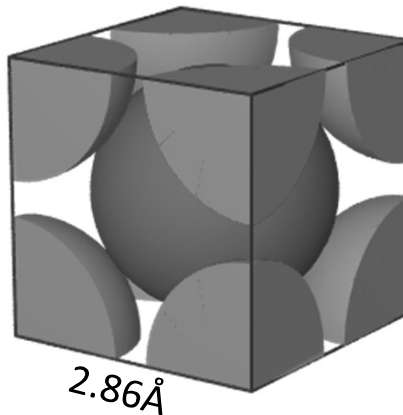
massa molare
(g/mol)

$$\rho_{solido} = \frac{m}{V} = \frac{n_{atomi} \cdot M_{atomi}}{V_{cella}} = \frac{n_{atomi}}{V_{cella}} \cdot \frac{MM}{N_A}$$

volume
della cella

n° atomi in
una mole

Fe
(bcc)

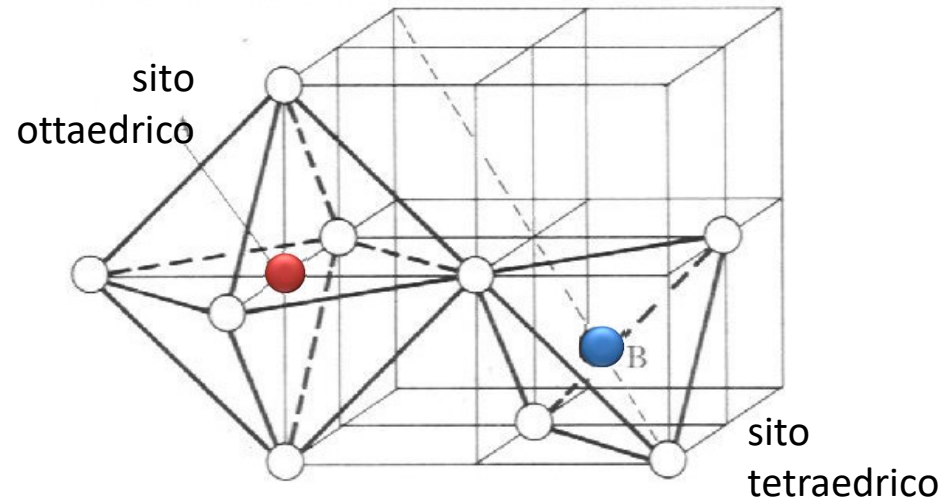


$$\rho_{solido} = \frac{2 \cdot 55.845 \text{ g mol}^{-1}}{(2.86 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ m})^3 \cdot 6.022 \cdot 10^{23} \text{ mol}^{-1}} = 7921276 \text{ g/m}^3$$

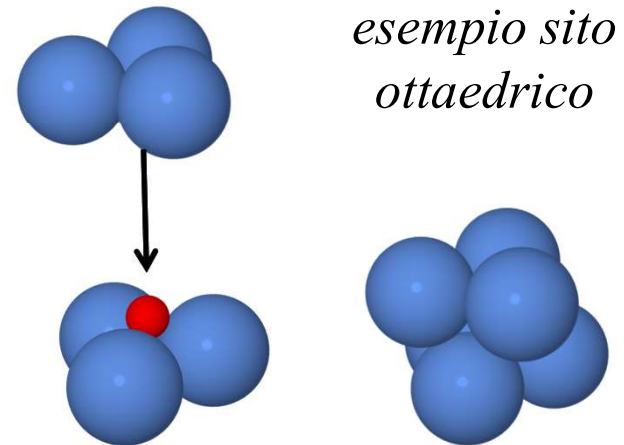
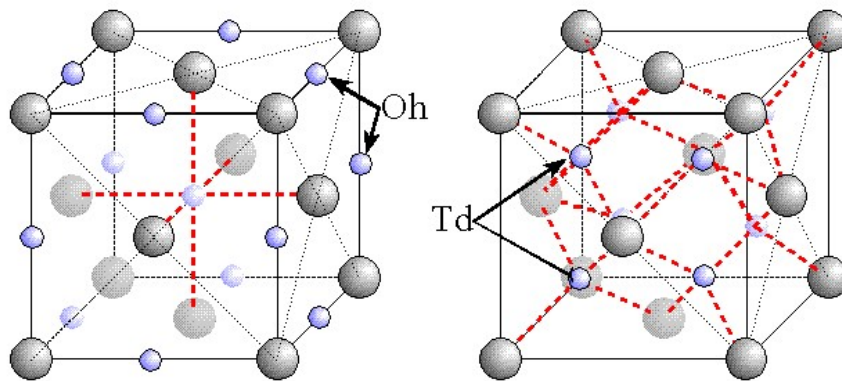
(per il ferro)

7.9 g/cm³
(7.87 g/cm³ misurati)

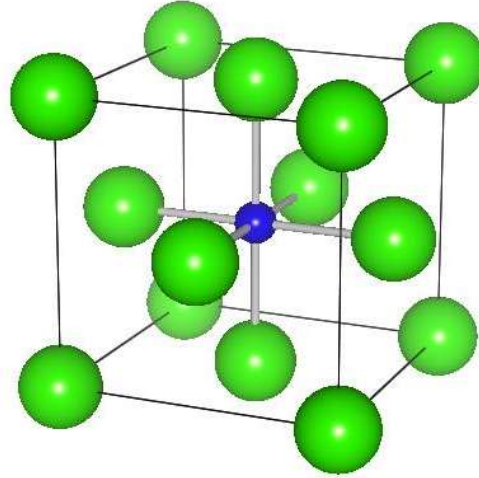
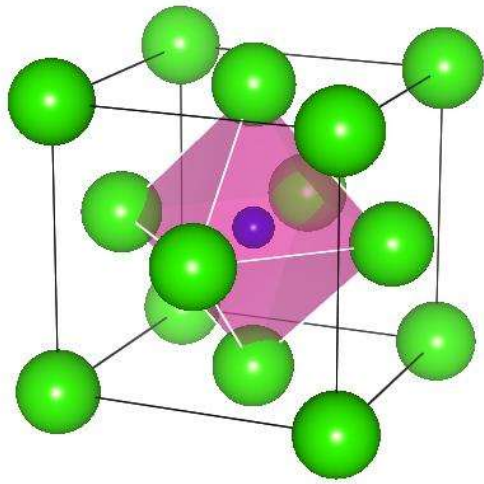
siti interstiziali nella *fcc*



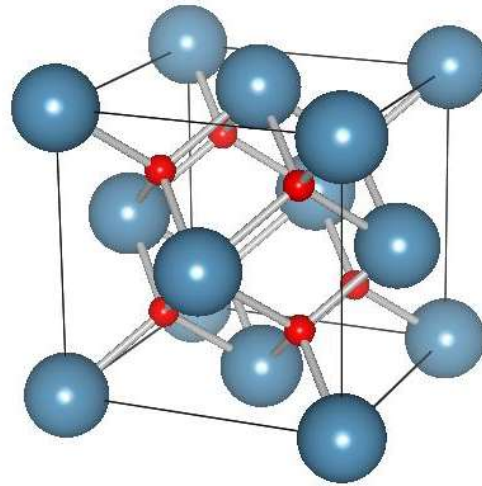
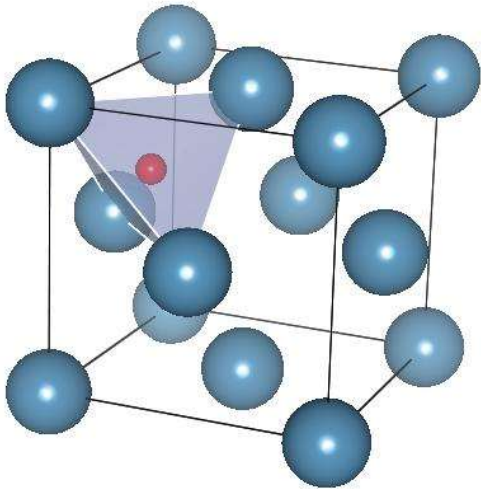
spazi (interstizi) tra gli atomi coincidenti con i punti reticolari



siti interstiziali nella *fcc*

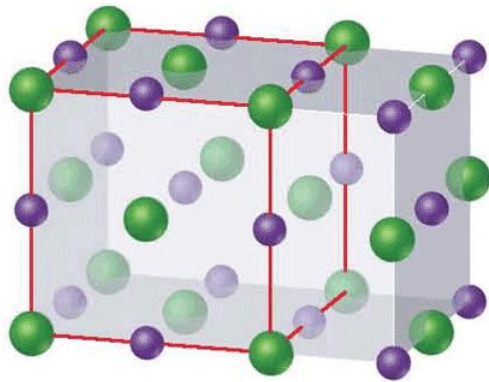


*sito
ottaedrico*

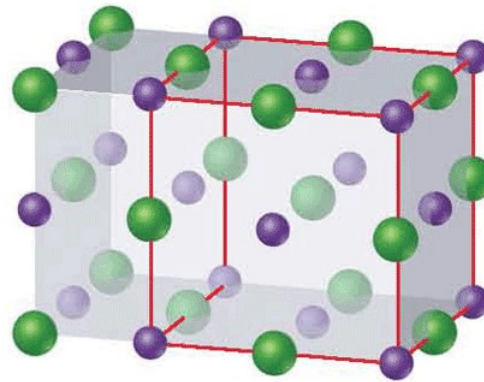


*sito
tetraedrico*

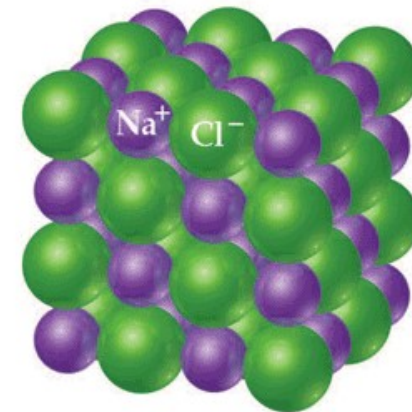
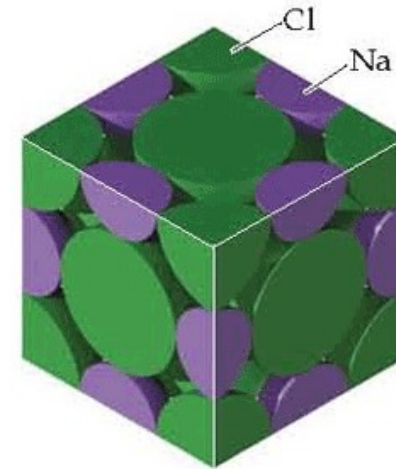
cristalli ionici(1): struttura del NaCl (salgemma)



reticolo fcc di Cl^- in cui i siti ottaedrici sono occupati da Na^+



reticolo fcc di Na^+ in cui i siti ottaedrici sono occupati da Cl^-



hanno la stessa struttura cristallina:

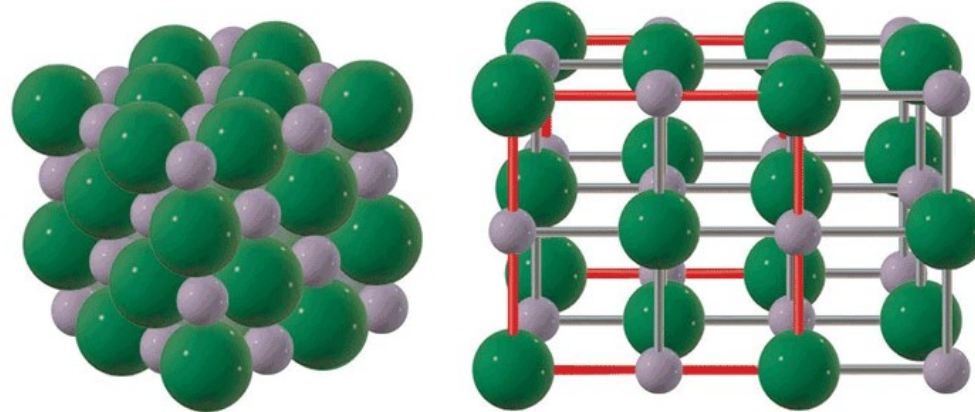
- MX alogenuri dei metalli alcalini (gruppo I)
(es. KCl , LiF , KBr , ...)
- MO, MS ossidi e solfuri dei metalli alcalino-terrosi (gruppo II)
(es. CaO , MgO , BaO , MgS , ...)

cristalli ionici(2): struttura del CsCl

struttura NaCl

reticolo fcc di anioni in cui i siti ottaedrici sono occupati da cationi

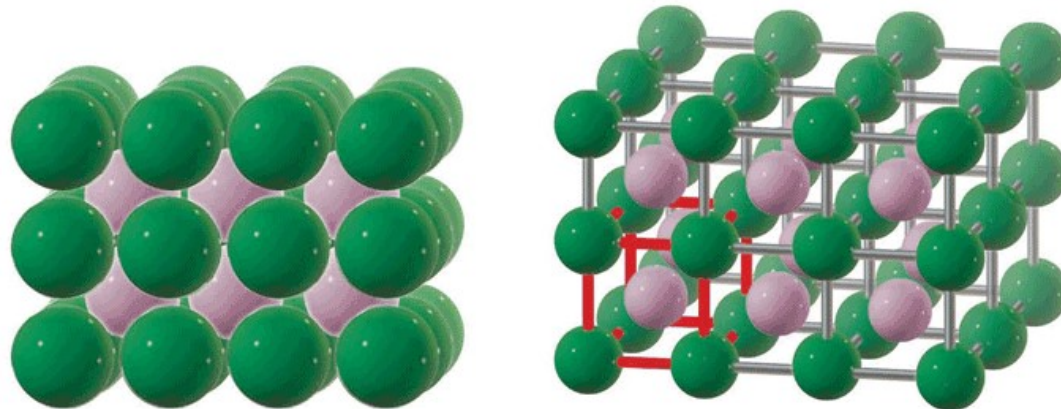
$$0.414 < \frac{\text{raggio cationi}}{\text{raggio anioni}} < 0.732$$



struttura CsCl

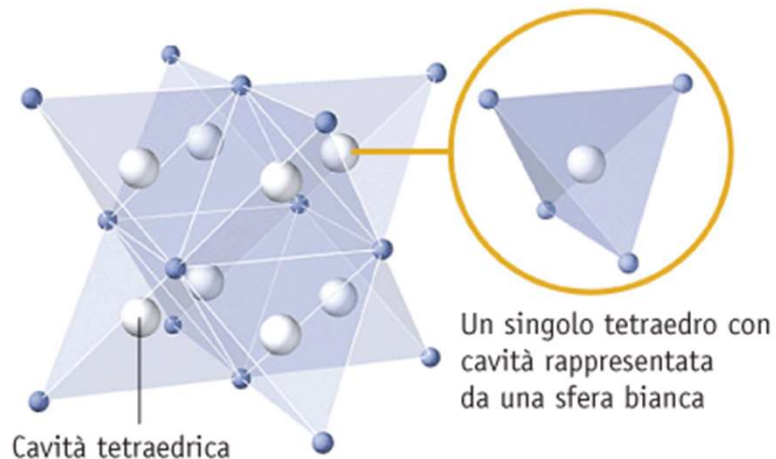
2 reticoli di celle cubiche primitive compenetrati

$$0.732 < \frac{\text{raggio cationi}}{\text{raggio anioni}}$$



cristalli ionici(3): struttura del ZnS

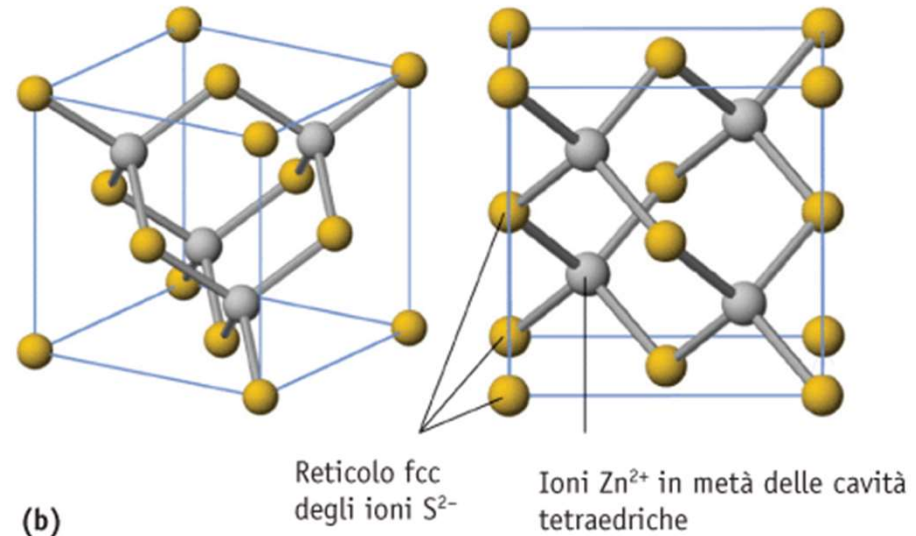
$$\frac{\text{raggio cationi}}{\text{raggio anioni}} < 0.414$$



(a)

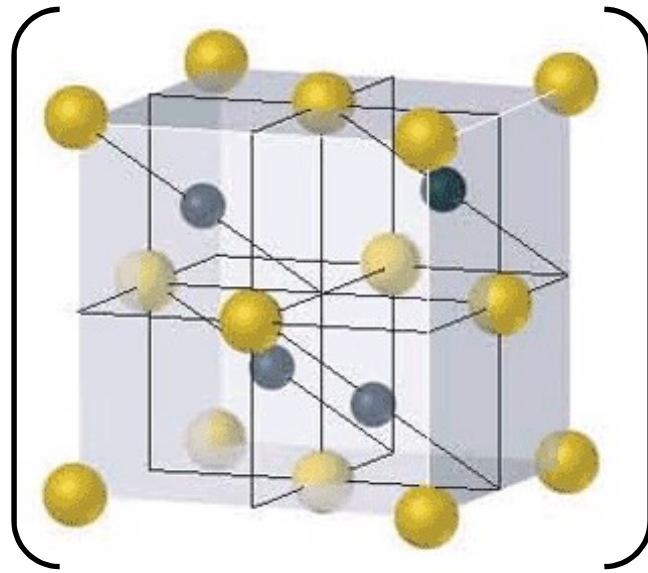
struttura ZnS
(blenda cubica o sfalerite)

*reticolo fcc di anioni S^{2-} in cui
metà dei siti tetraedrici sono
occupati da cationi Zn^{2+}*

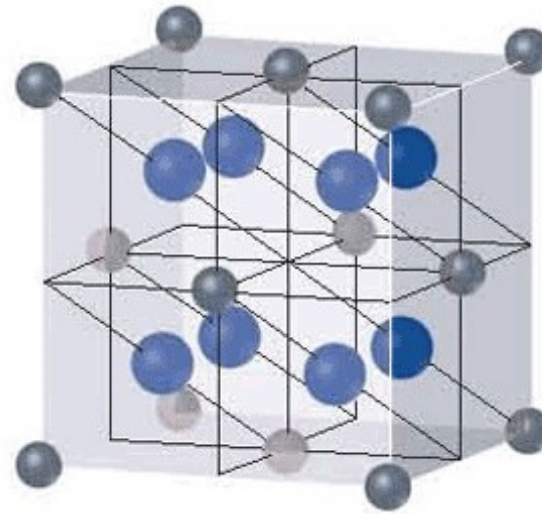


(b)

cristalli ionici(4): struttura del CaF_2



(b) ZnS



(c) CaF_2

cella fcc

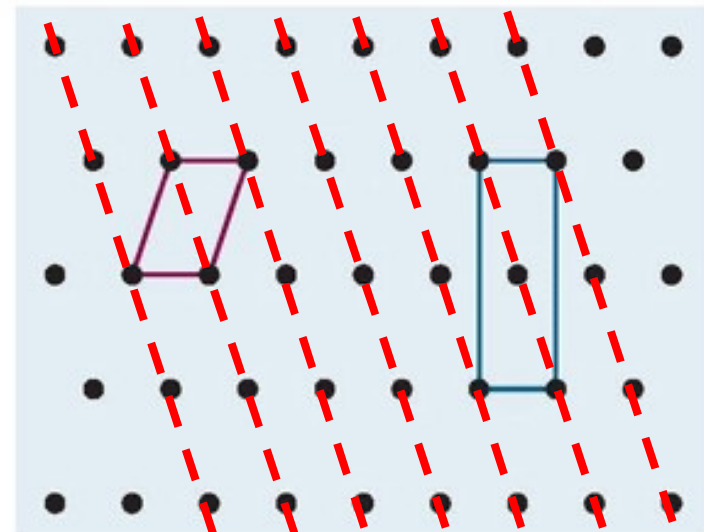
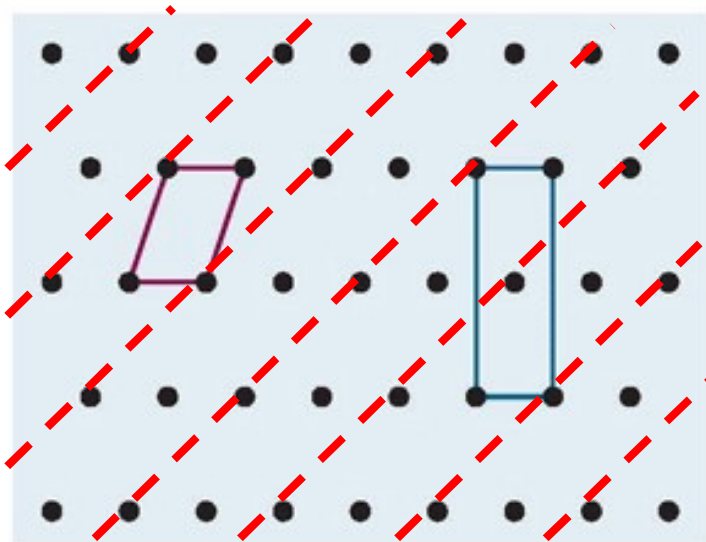
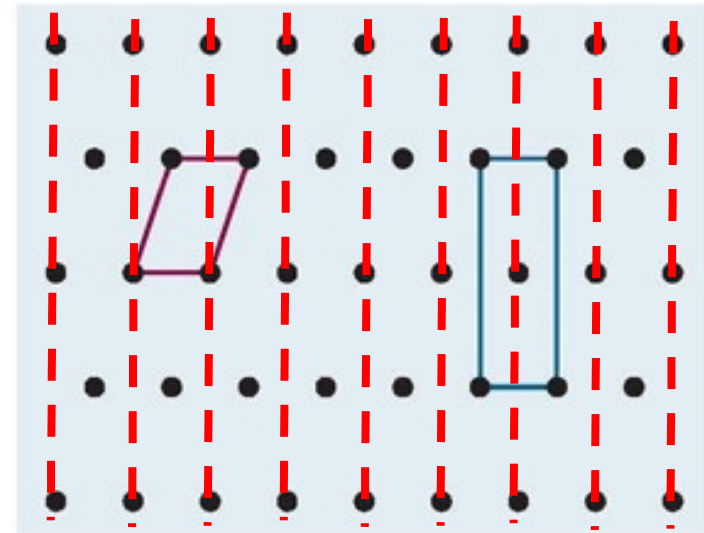
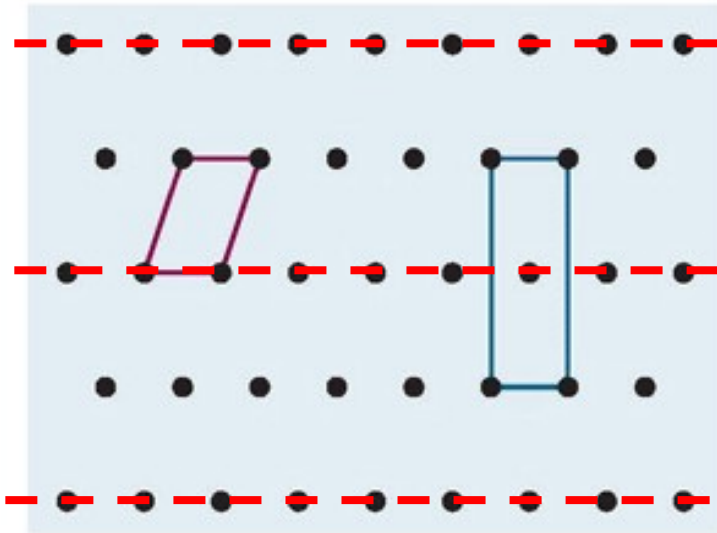
8 siti tetraedrici
4 punti reticolari



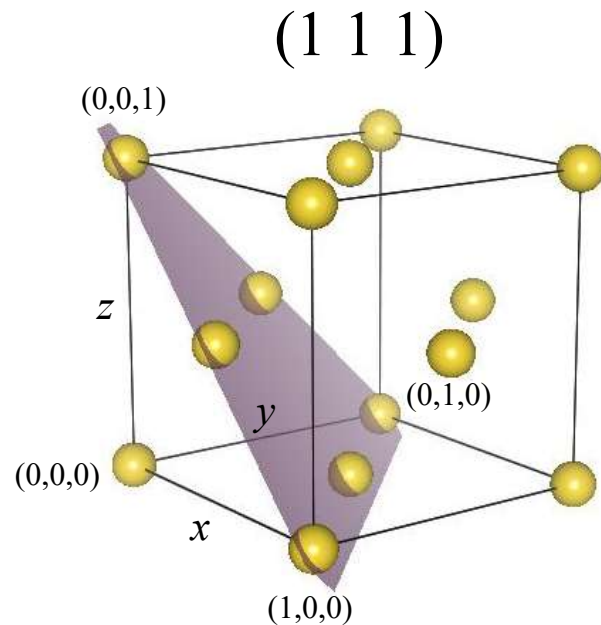
struttura CaF_2
(fluorite)

*reticolo fcc di cationi Ca^{2+} in cui
TUTTI i siti tetraedrici sono
occupati da anioni F^-*

Piani cristallini



indici di Miller



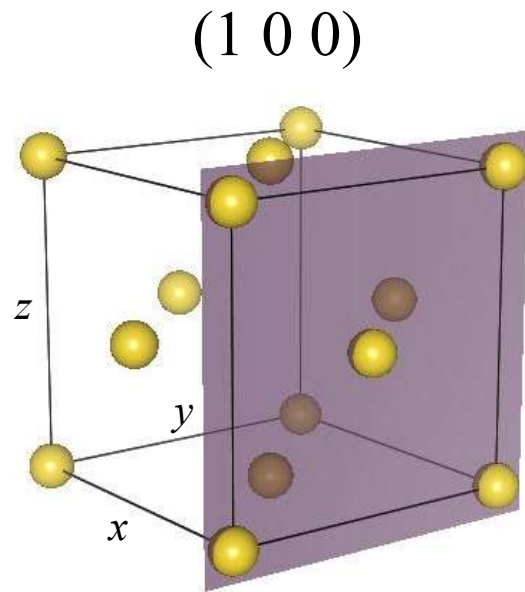
(hkl) identificano una famiglia di piani cristallini in un reticolo di Bravais

terna di reciproci delle intercette del piano in coordinate frazionarie

<i>intercette</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>z</i>
	1	1	1
<i>reciproco</i>	$\frac{1}{1}$	$\frac{1}{1}$	$\frac{1}{1}$
<i>indici</i>	1	1	1

$$\left(\overbrace{\frac{1}{\text{intercetta } x}}^h \quad \overbrace{\frac{1}{\text{intercetta } y}}^k \quad \overbrace{\frac{1}{\text{intercetta } z}}^l \right)$$

indici di Miller



(hkl) identificano una famiglia di piani cristallini in un reticolo di Bravais

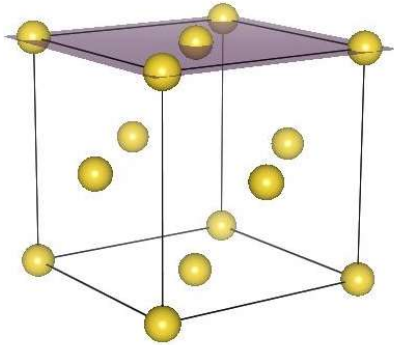
terna di reciproci delle intercette del piano in coordinate frazionarie

<i>intercette</i>	<i>x</i>	<i>y</i>	<i>z</i>
	1	∞	∞
<i>reciproco</i>	$\frac{1}{1}$	$\frac{1}{\infty}$	$\frac{1}{\infty}$
<i>indici</i>	1	0	0

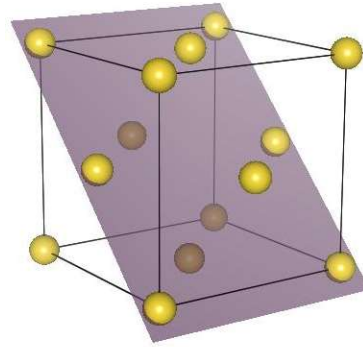
$$\left(\overbrace{\frac{1}{\text{intercetta } x}}^h \quad \overbrace{\frac{1}{\text{intercetta } y}}^k \quad \overbrace{\frac{1}{\text{intercetta } z}}^l \right)$$

indici di Miller

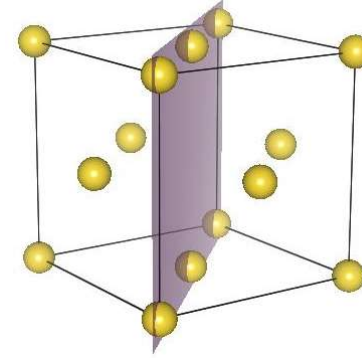
$(0\ 0\ 1)$



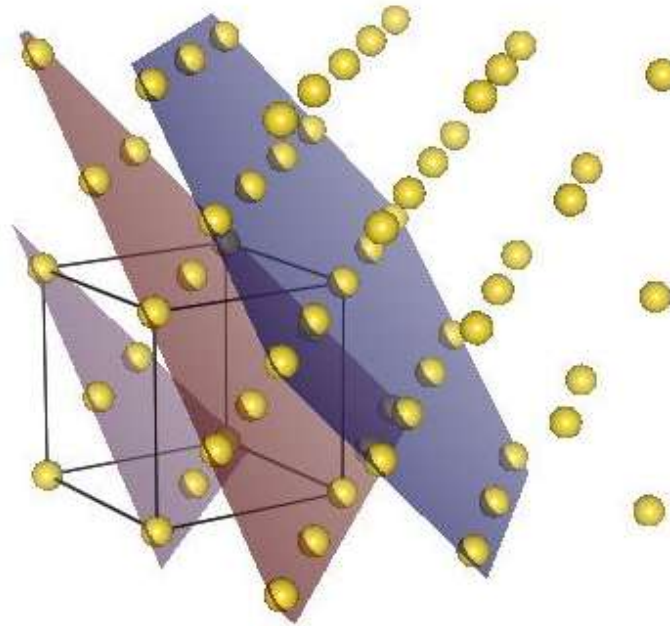
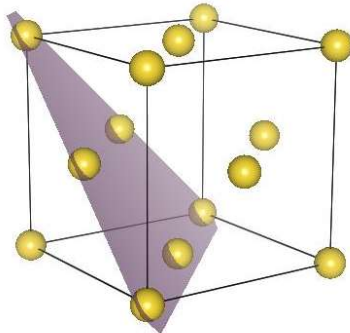
$(1\ 0\ 1)$



$(1\ 1\ 0)$

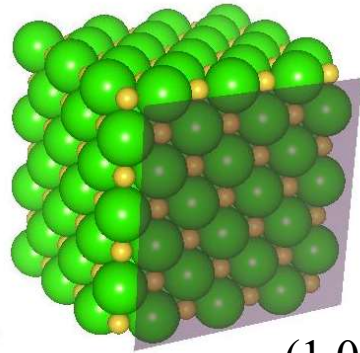


$(1\ 1\ 1)$

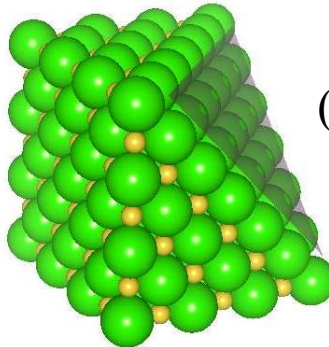


*(hkl) identifica
una famiglia di
piani paralleli*

piani cristallografici: esempio NaCl



$(1\ 0\ 0)$

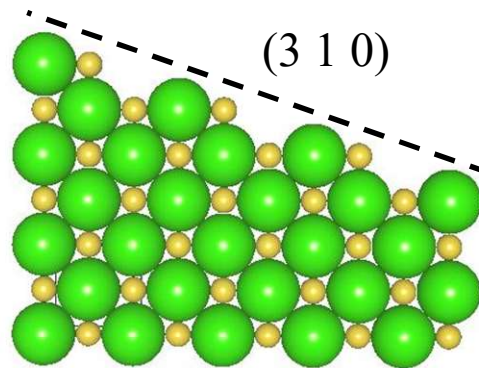
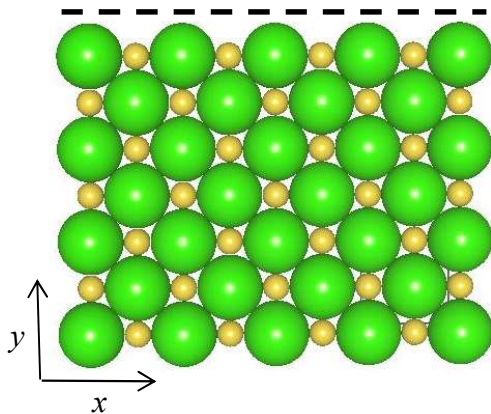


$(1\ 1\ 1)$

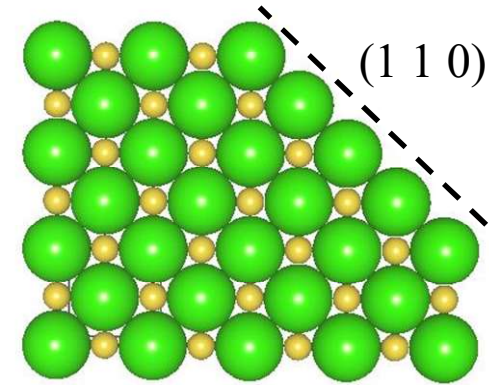
*diversi piani
cristallini hanno
“densità” diverse*

*→ proprietà chimiche e
fisiche diverse a seconda
della faccia del cristallo*

$(0\ 1\ 0)$



$(3\ 1\ 0)$



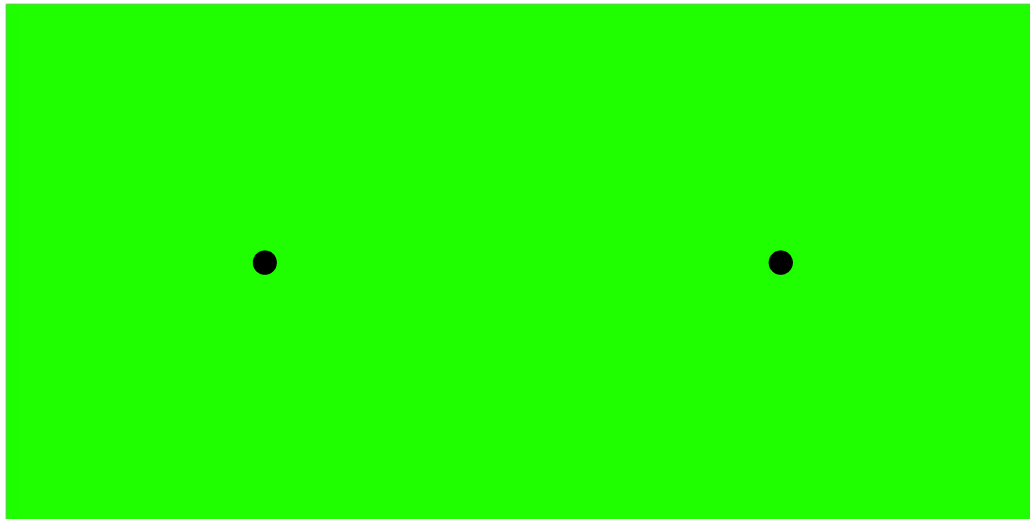
$(1\ 1\ 0)$

Raggi-x e struttura cristallina

un esperimento di **diffrazione**

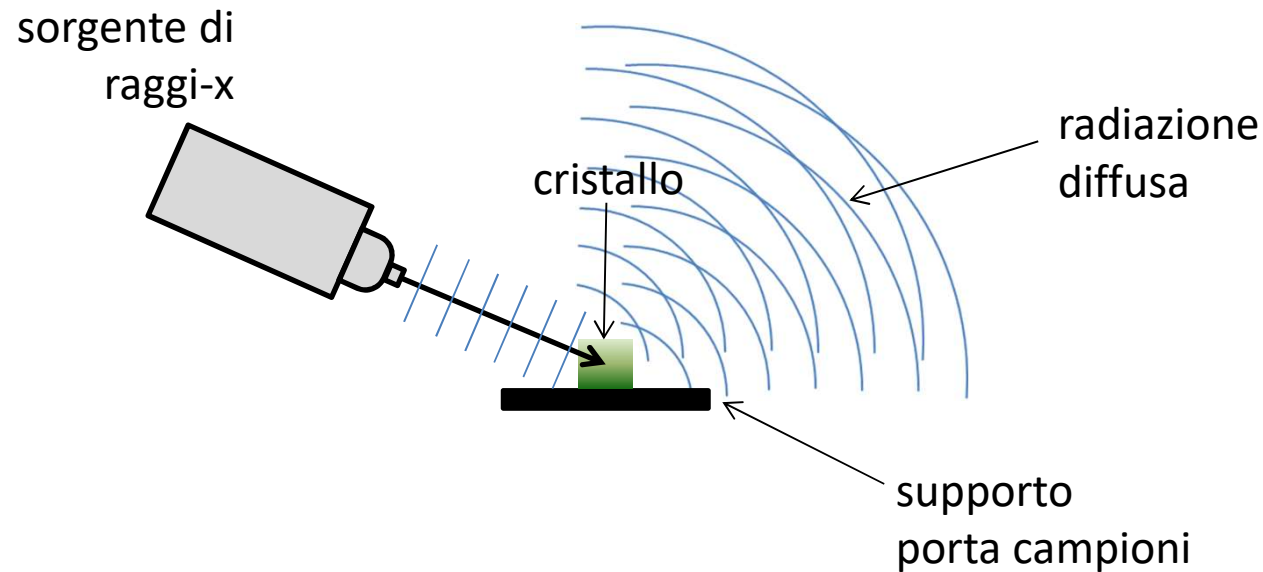
diffrazione

fenomeno per cui un' **onda**, dopo aver incontrato un **ostacolo** (*delle stesse dimensioni della lunghezza d'onda*), si propaga secondo una **direzione diversa** da quella prevista dalla legge della propagazione rettilinea.



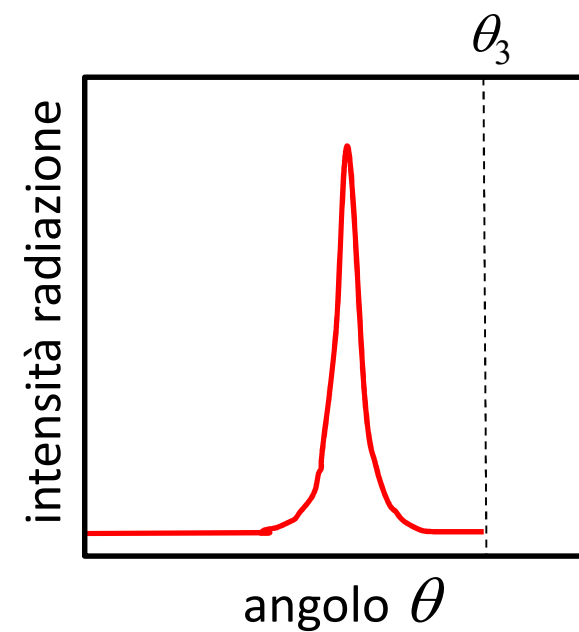
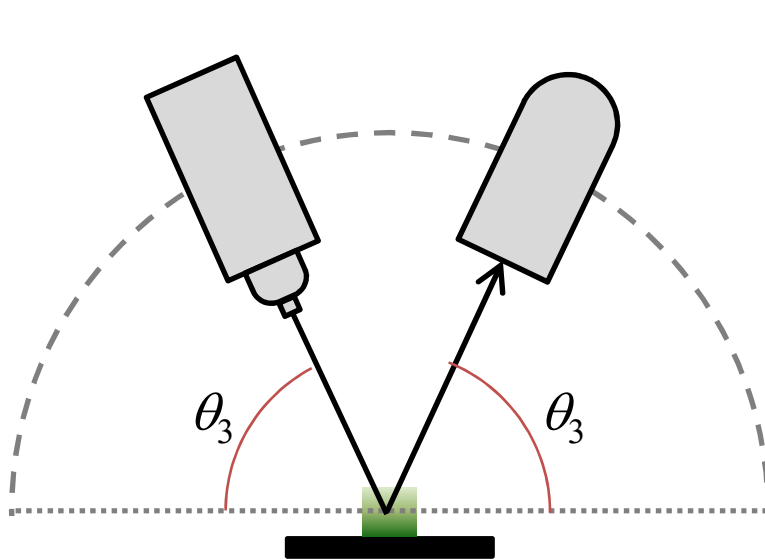
Raggi-x e struttura cristallina

un esperimento di **diffrazione**



Raggi-x e struttura cristallina

un esperimento di **diffrazione**



Legge dei Bragg (1913)

esprime la condizione per la quale l'intensità dei raggi x diffratti da un cristallo è massima ad un rivelatore posto ad un certo angolo θ

$$n\lambda = 2d \cdot \text{sen}(\theta)$$

↑ ↑ ↑

λ lunghezza d'onda

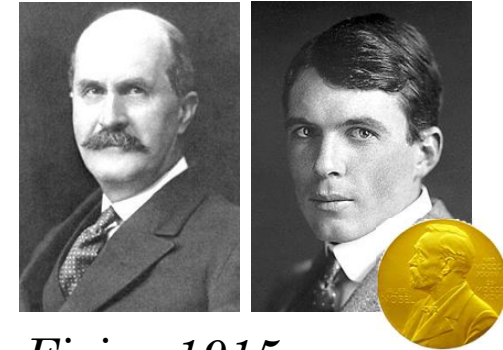
è fissa durante una misura

d distanza tra due piani cristallini

da determinare

θ angolo di incidenza dei raggi-x

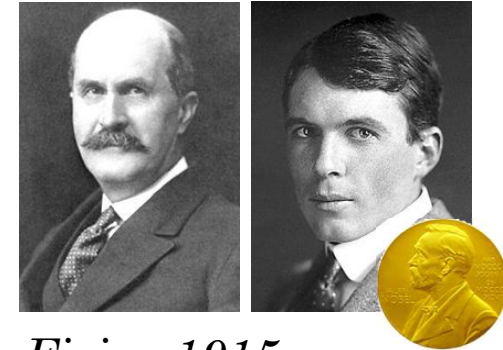
varia durante la misura



Fisica 1915

Legge dei Bragg (1913)

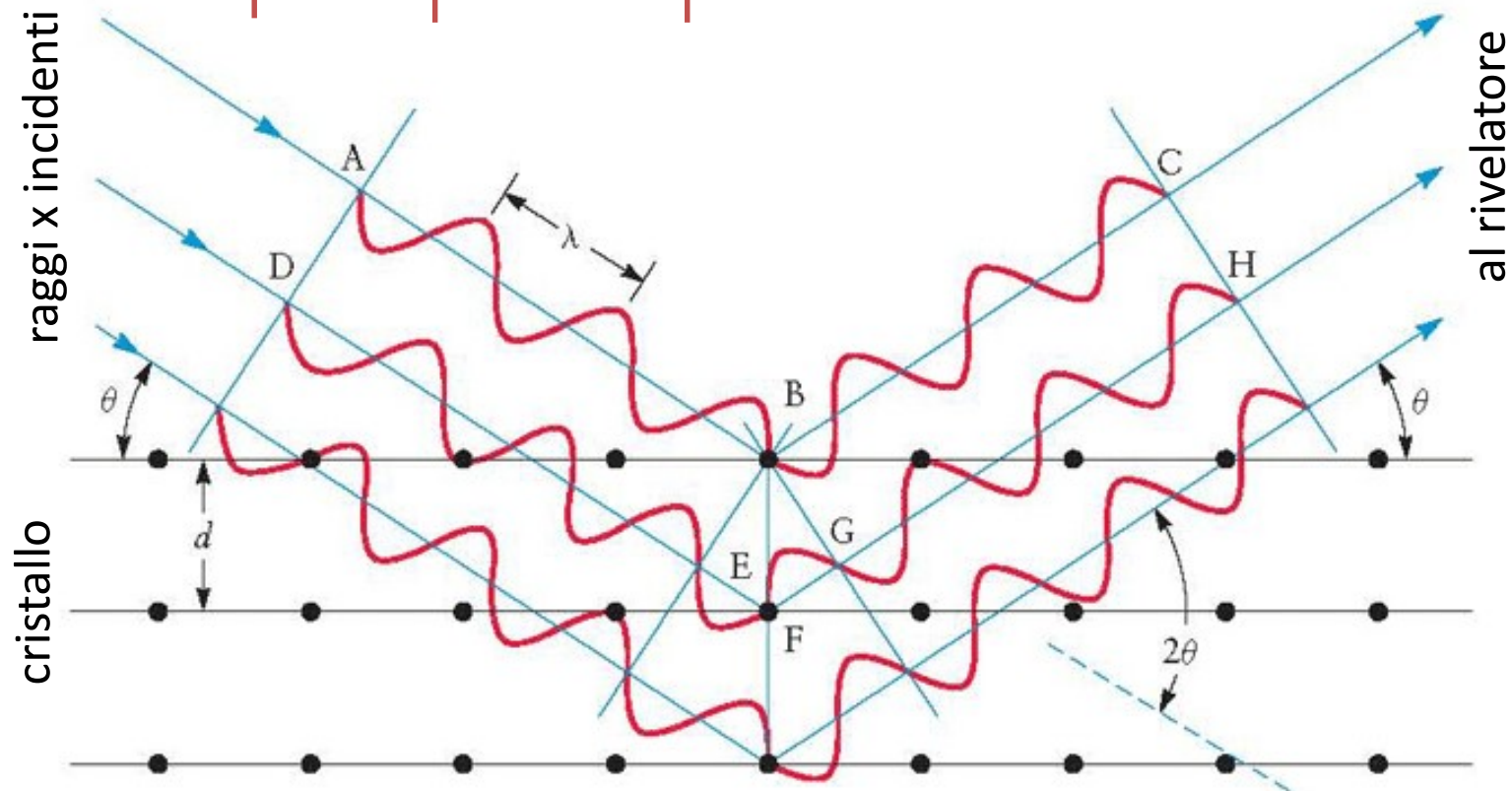
esprime la condizione per la quale l'intensità dei raggi x diffratti da un cristallo è massima ad un rivelatore posto ad un certo angolo θ



Fisica 1915

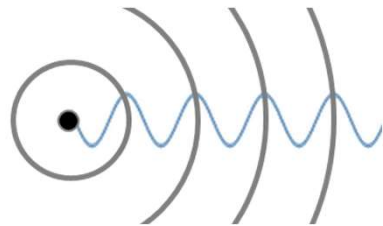
$$n\lambda = 2d \cdot \text{sen}(\theta)$$

↑ ↑ ↑



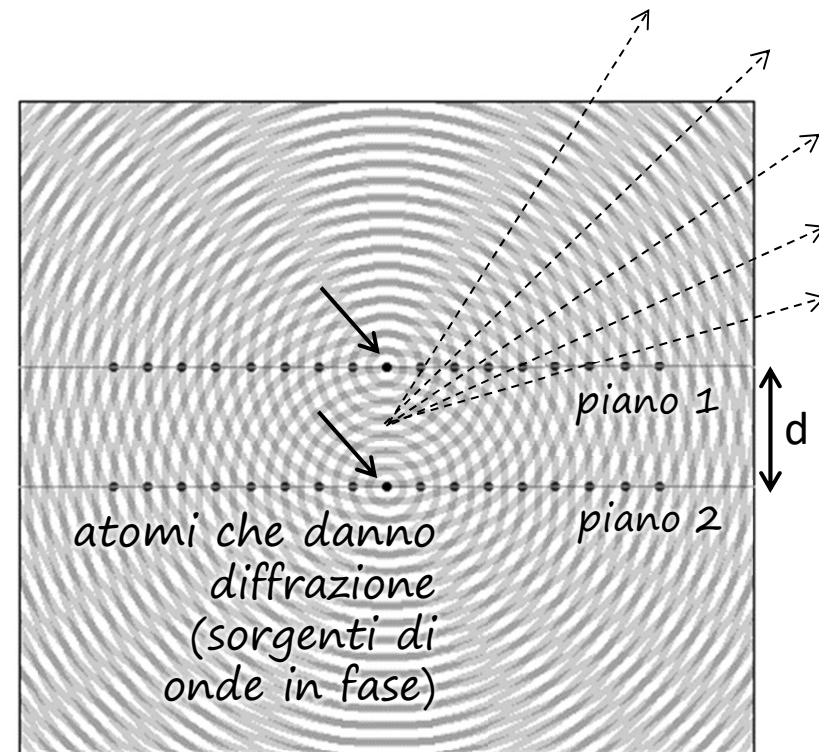
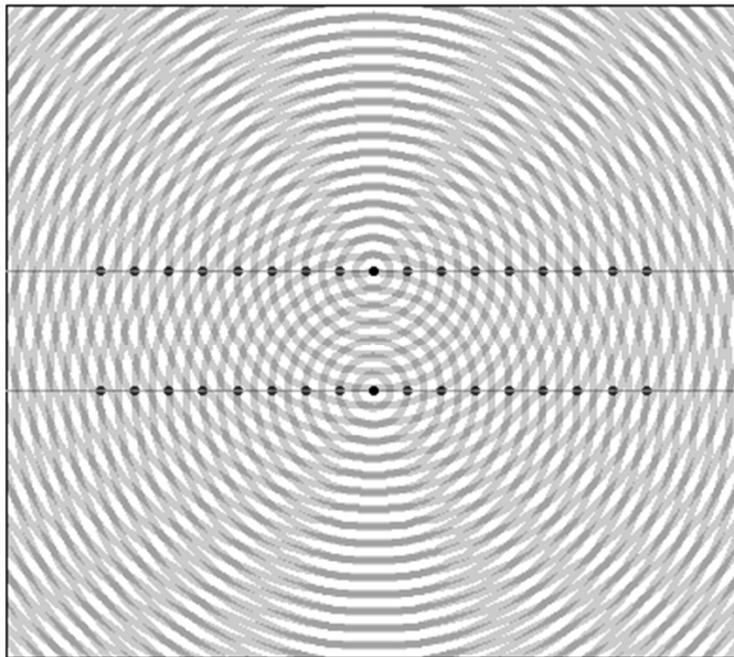
Legge dei Bragg (1913)

(da un'altra prospettiva)



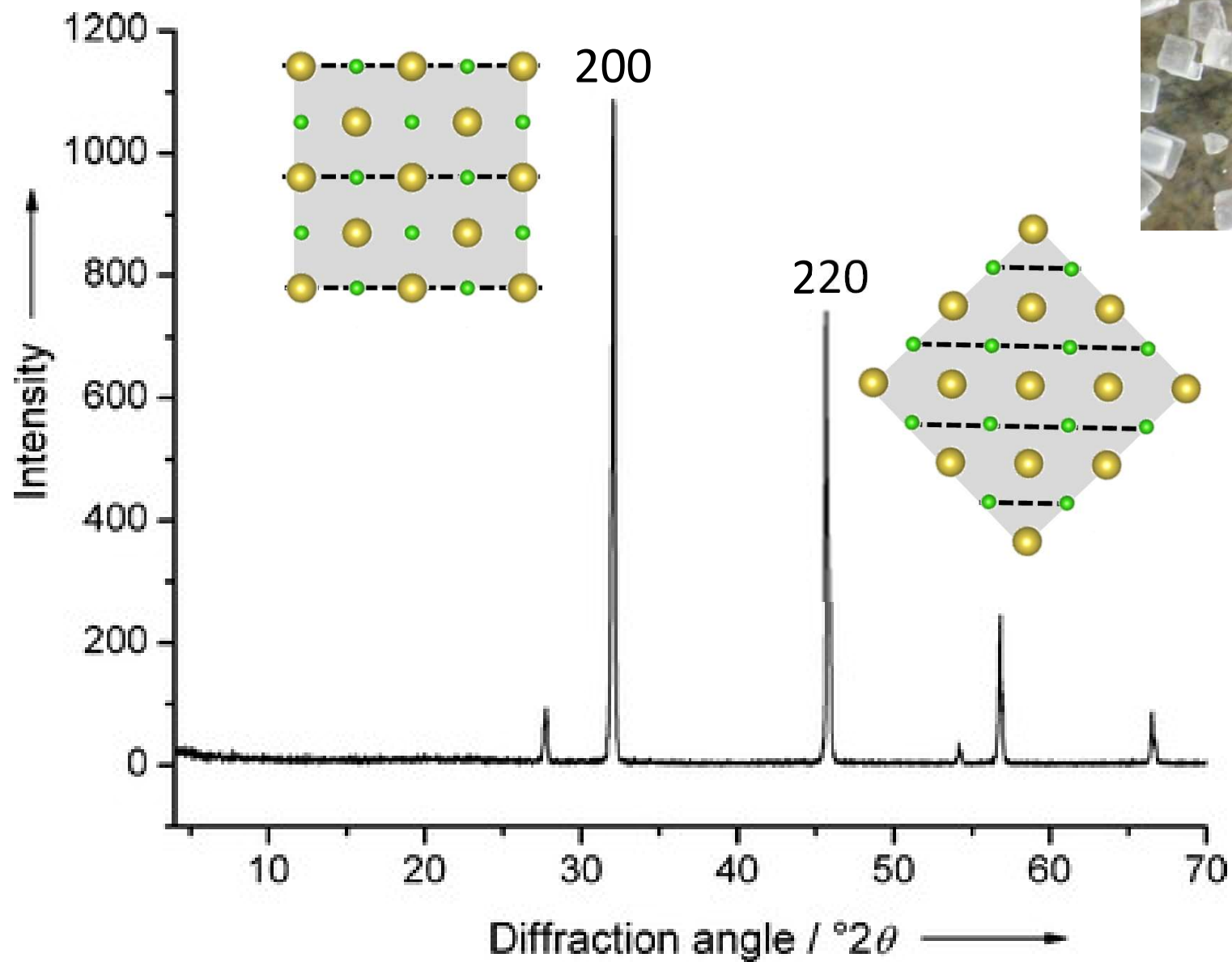
ogni linea
corrisponde a
una cresta

angoli per i quali
l'intensità è massima
(interferenza costruttiva)
NB. variano con d !

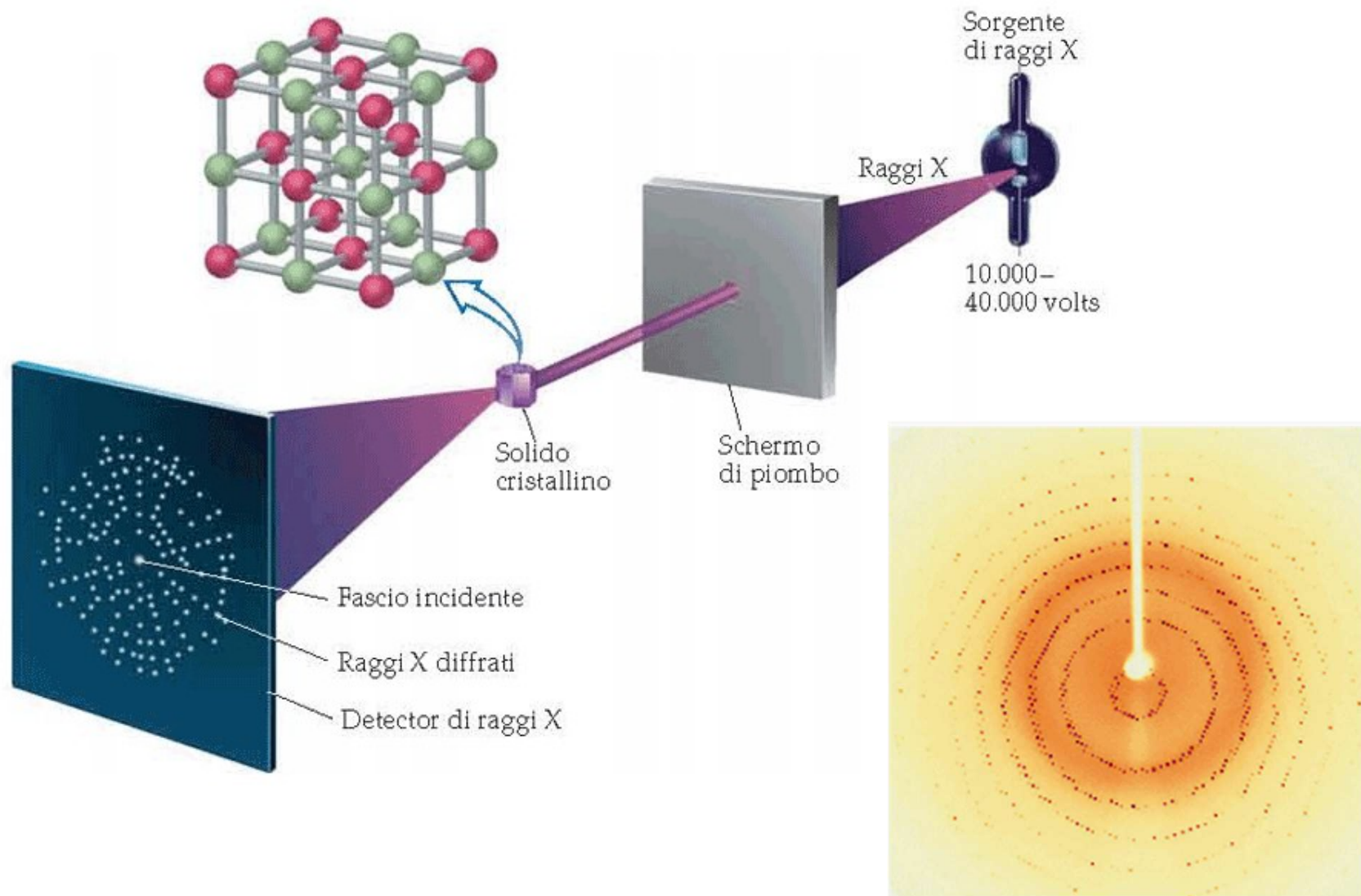


diffrattogramma NaCl

(polvere microcristallina)

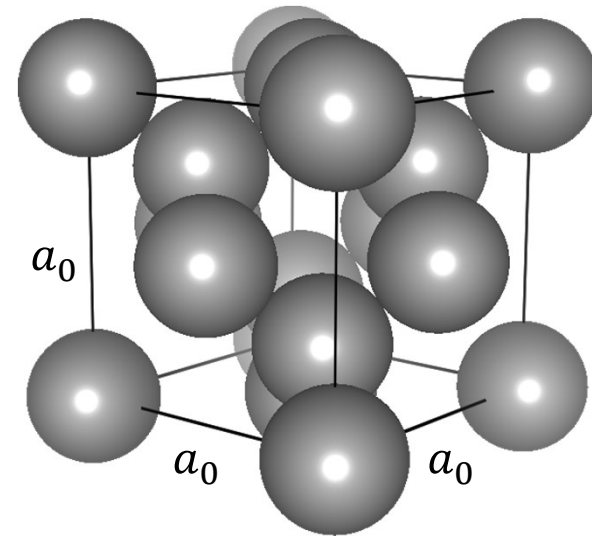


Diffrazione a raggi x e struttura cristallina



Determinazione del numero di Avogadro

silicio (Si) puro



$$a_0 = 0.54 \text{ nm}$$

N° atomi nella cella cristallina

massa atomica

massa molare

numero di Avogadro

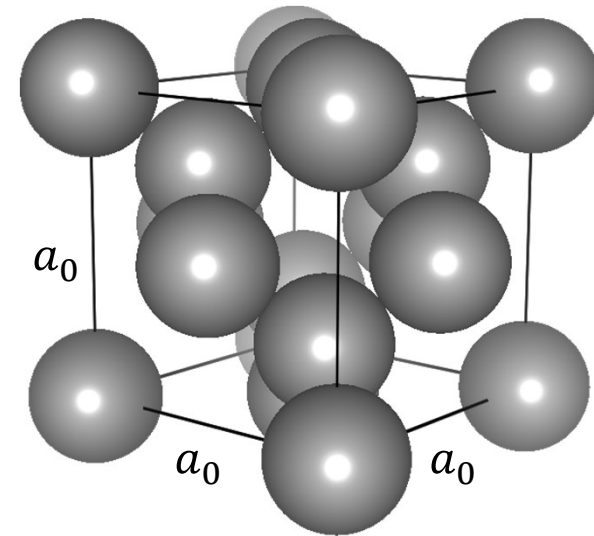
densità

volume della cella cristallina

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V} = \frac{n \cdot m_a}{a_0^3}$$
$$m_a = \frac{M}{N_A}$$

Determinazione del numero di Avogadro

silicio (Si) puro



$$a_0 = 0.54 \text{ nm}$$

$$\rho = \frac{m}{V} = \frac{n \cdot m_a}{a_0^3} = \frac{n \cdot M}{a_0^3 \cdot N_A}$$

densità → ρ n *N° atomi nella cella cristallina* M *massa molare*
 a_0^3 *volume cella* N_A *numero di Avogadro*

Determinazione del numero di Avogadro

N° atomi nella cella cristallina

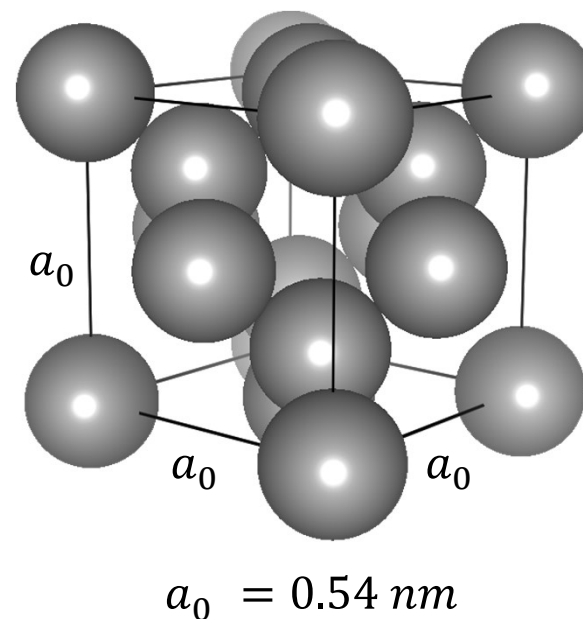
massa molare

densità

$$\rho = \frac{n \cdot M}{a_0^3 \cdot N_A}$$

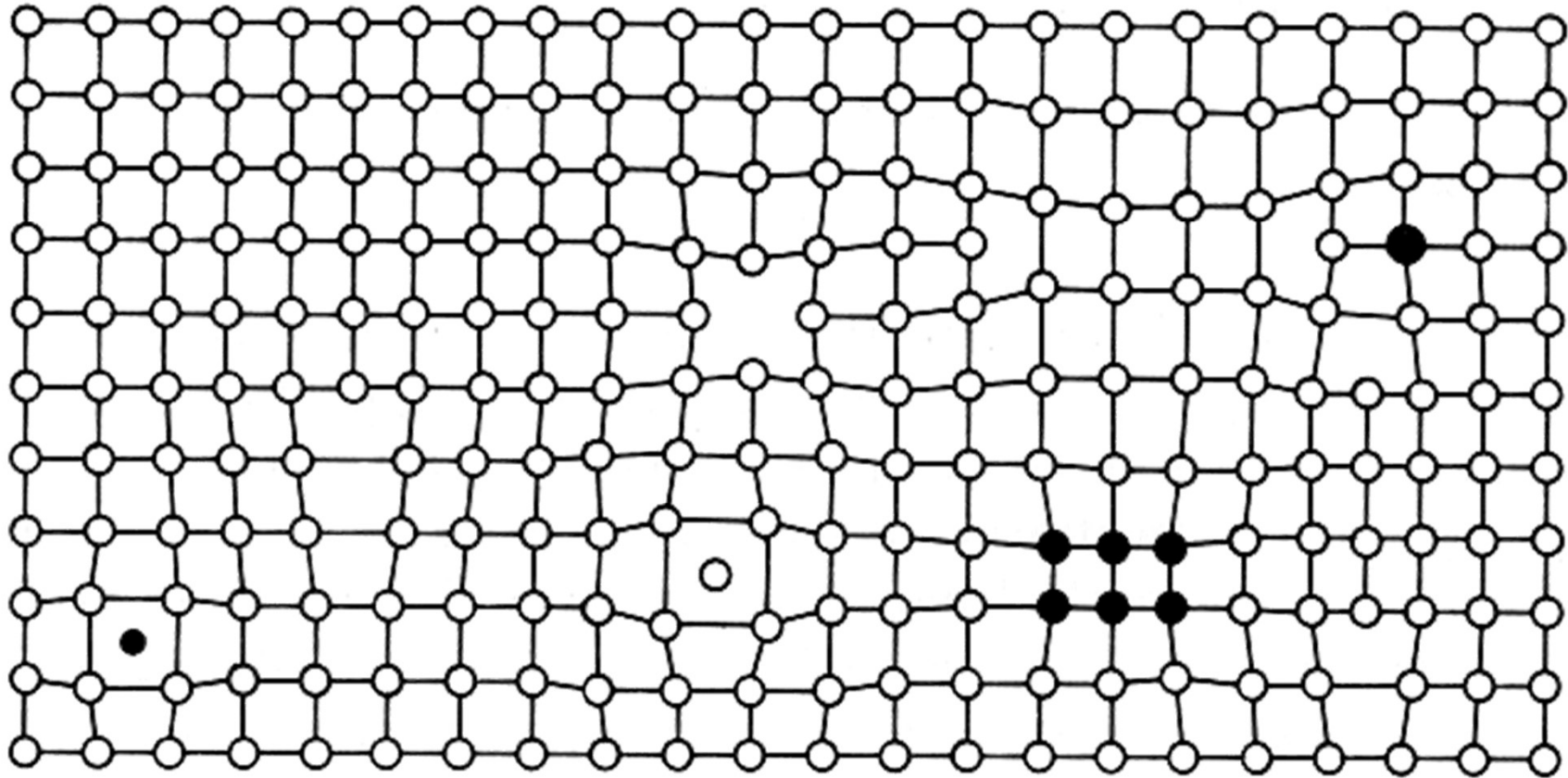
volume della cella cristallina

numero di Avogadro



$$N_A = \frac{n \cdot M}{\rho \cdot a_0^3} = \left(\frac{8 \text{ atomi} \cdot 28.0 \text{ g mol}^{-1}}{2.3 \text{ g cm}^{-3} \cdot 1.6 \cdot 10^{-22} \text{ cm}^3} \right)$$
$$= 6.0 \cdot 10^{23} \text{ atomi/mol}$$

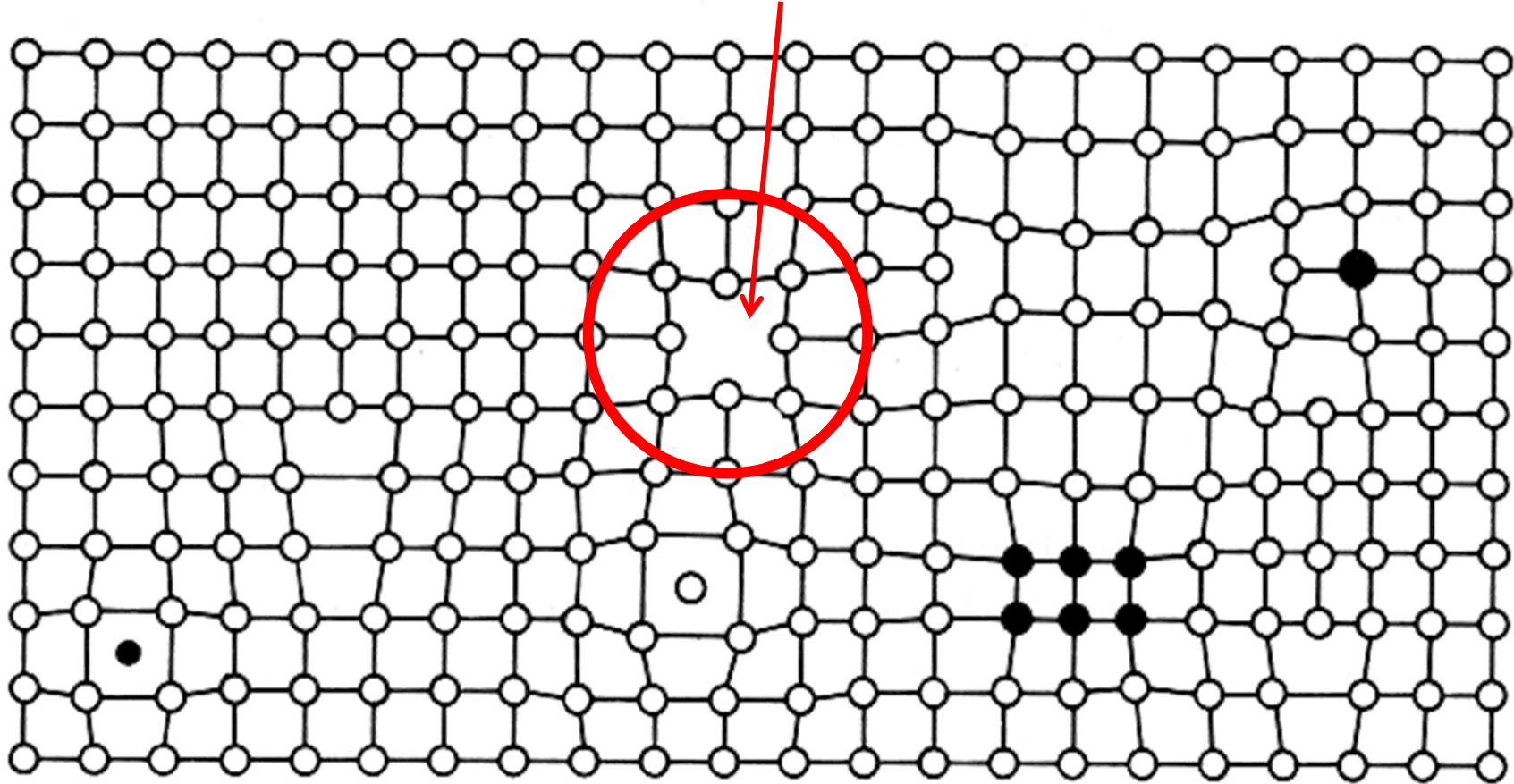
difetti nei cristalli



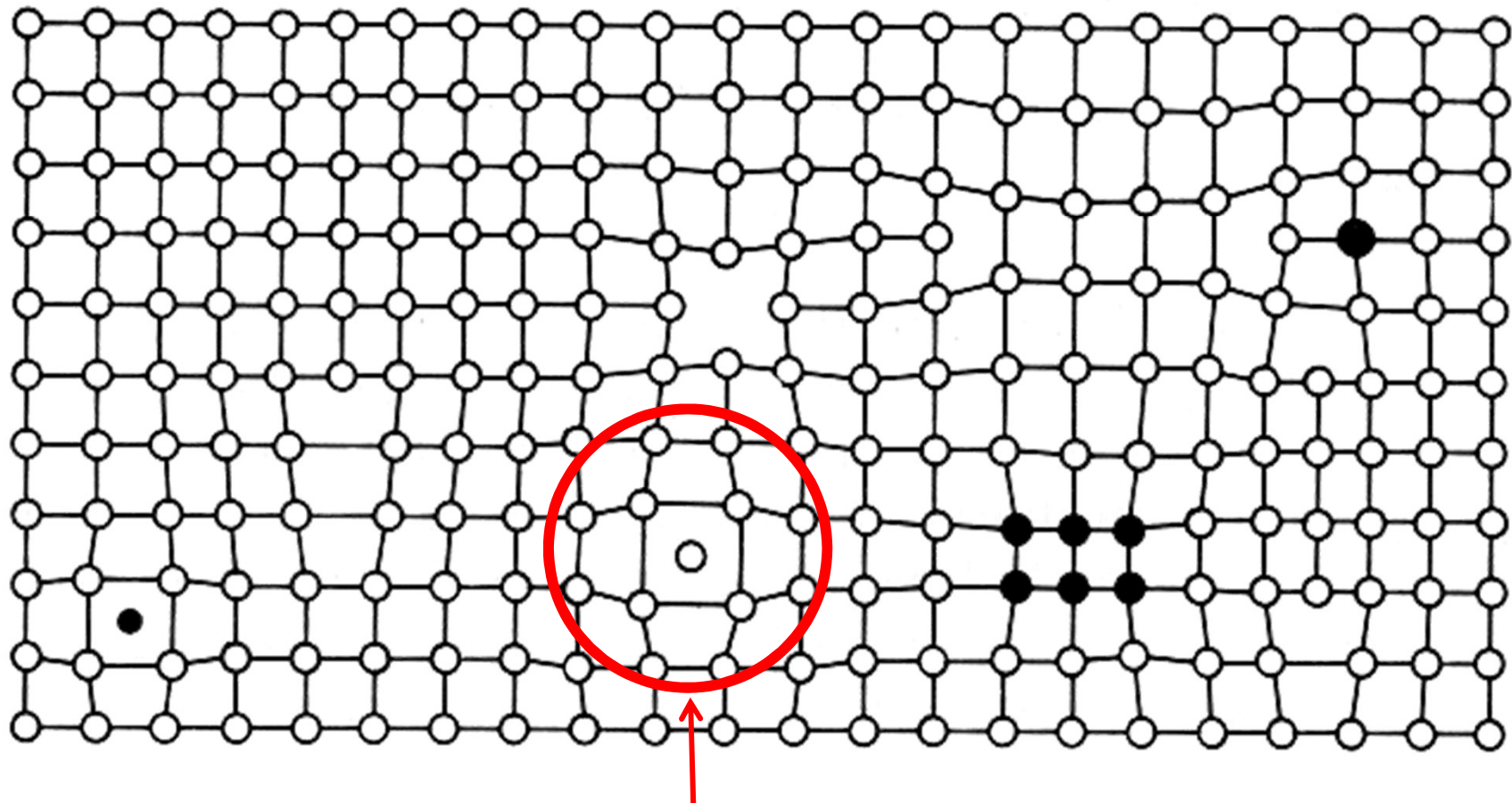
(da https://www.tf.uni-kiel.de/matwis/amat/def_en/index.html)

difetti nei cristalli

vacanza (molto comune)

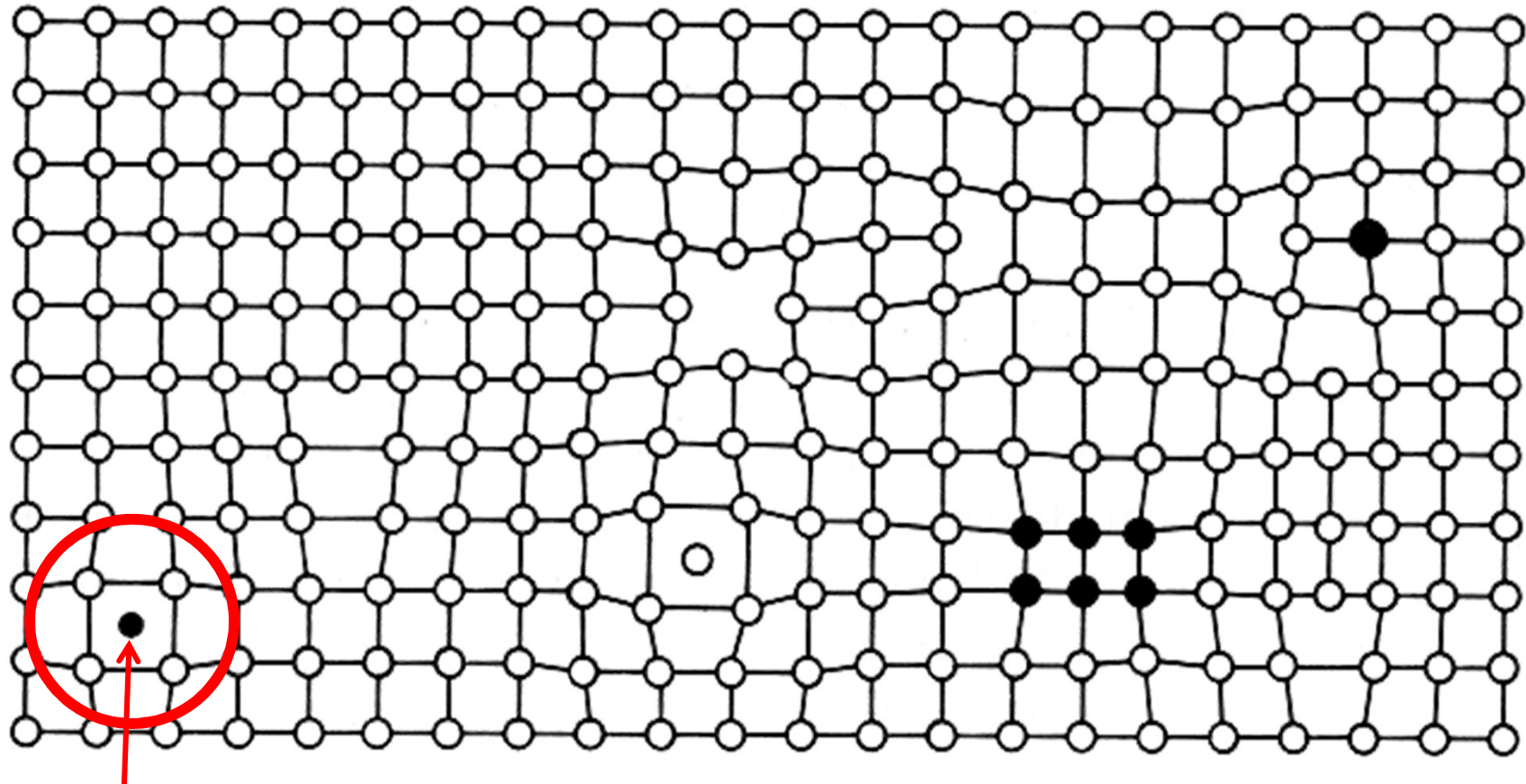


difetti nei cristalli



auto-intertiziale (poco comune)

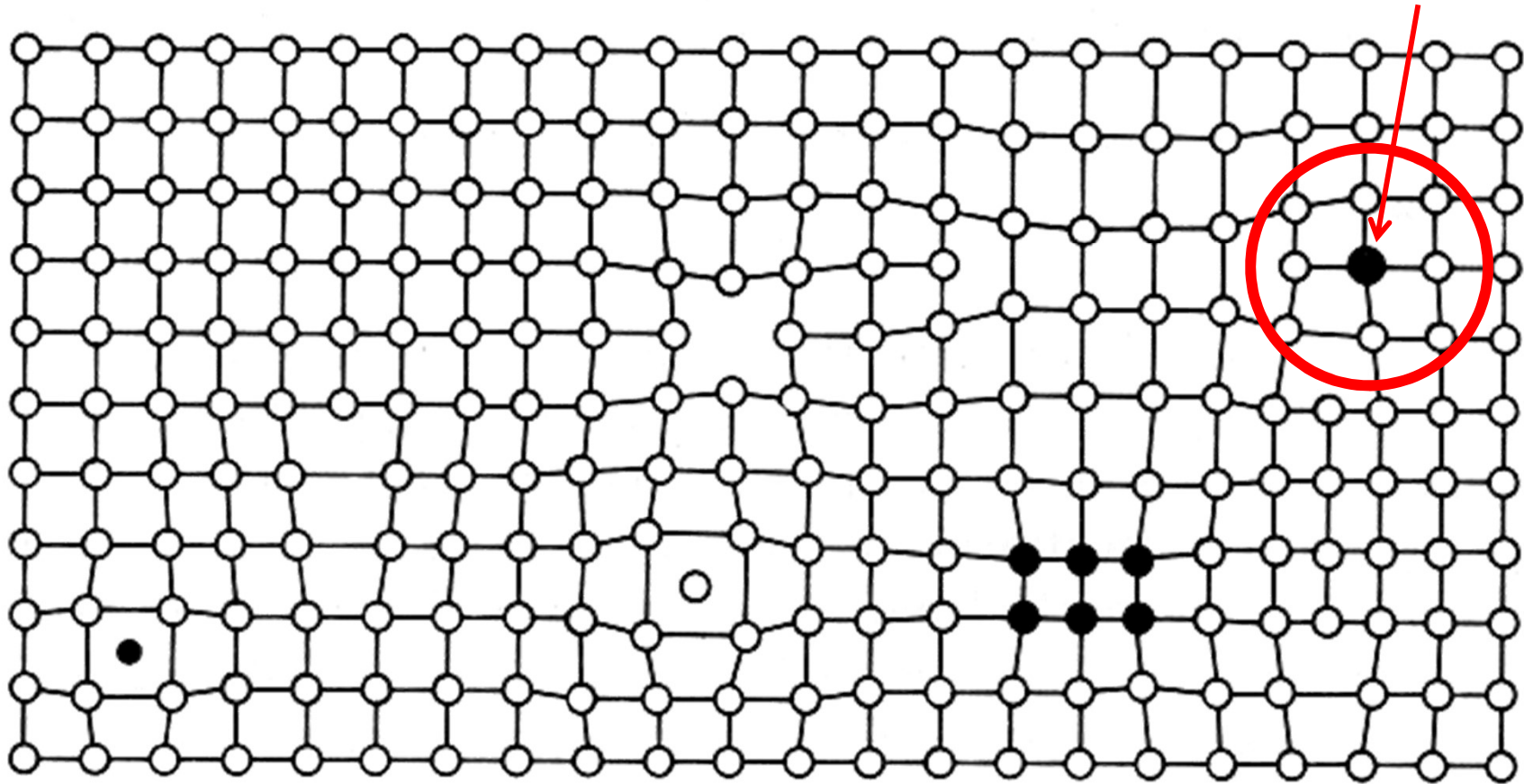
difetti nei cristalli



impurezza interstiziale

difetti nei cristalli

impurezza sostitutiva



Leghe metalliche

materiali composti da due o più elementi chimici, uno dei quali è presente in percentuale più alta ed è un metallo

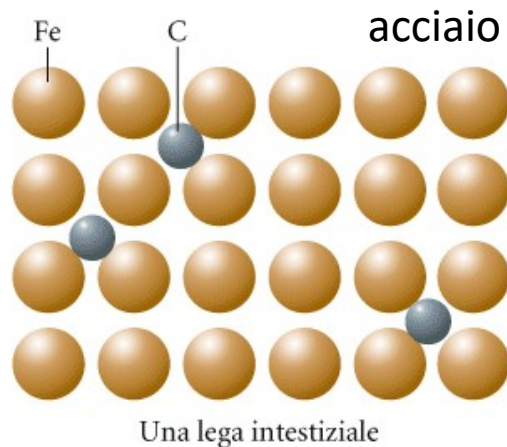
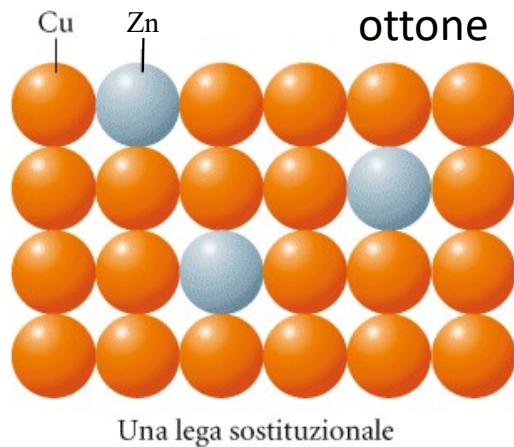
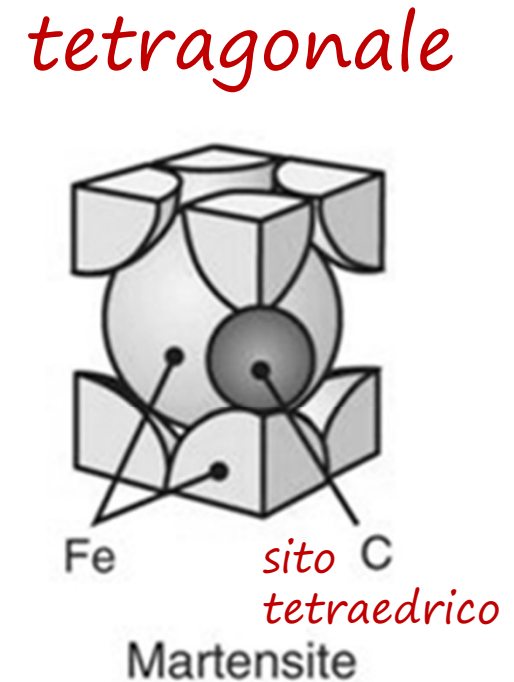
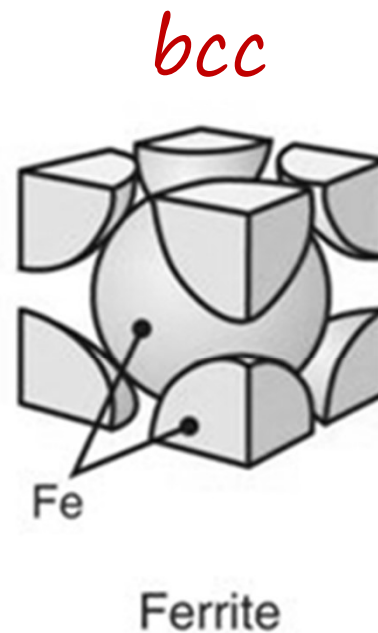
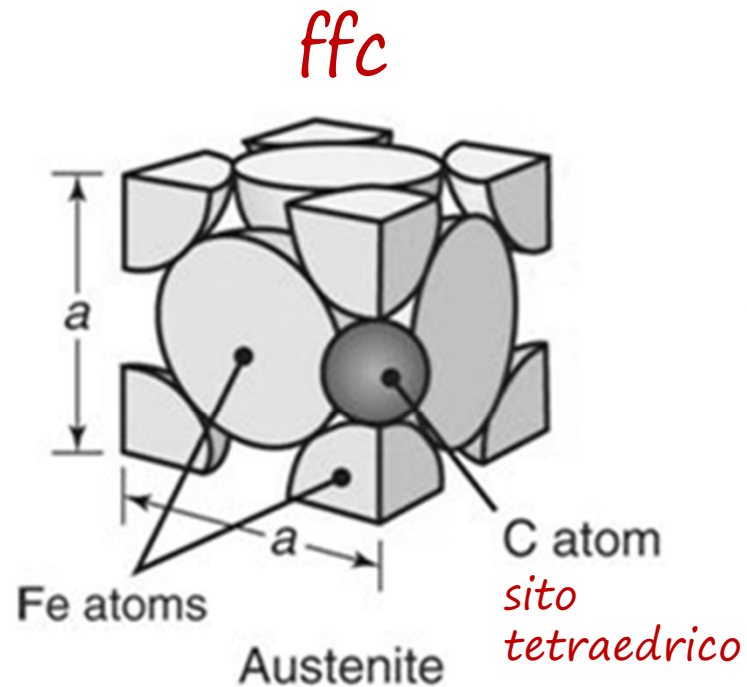


TABELLA 13.4 Leghe e loro usi

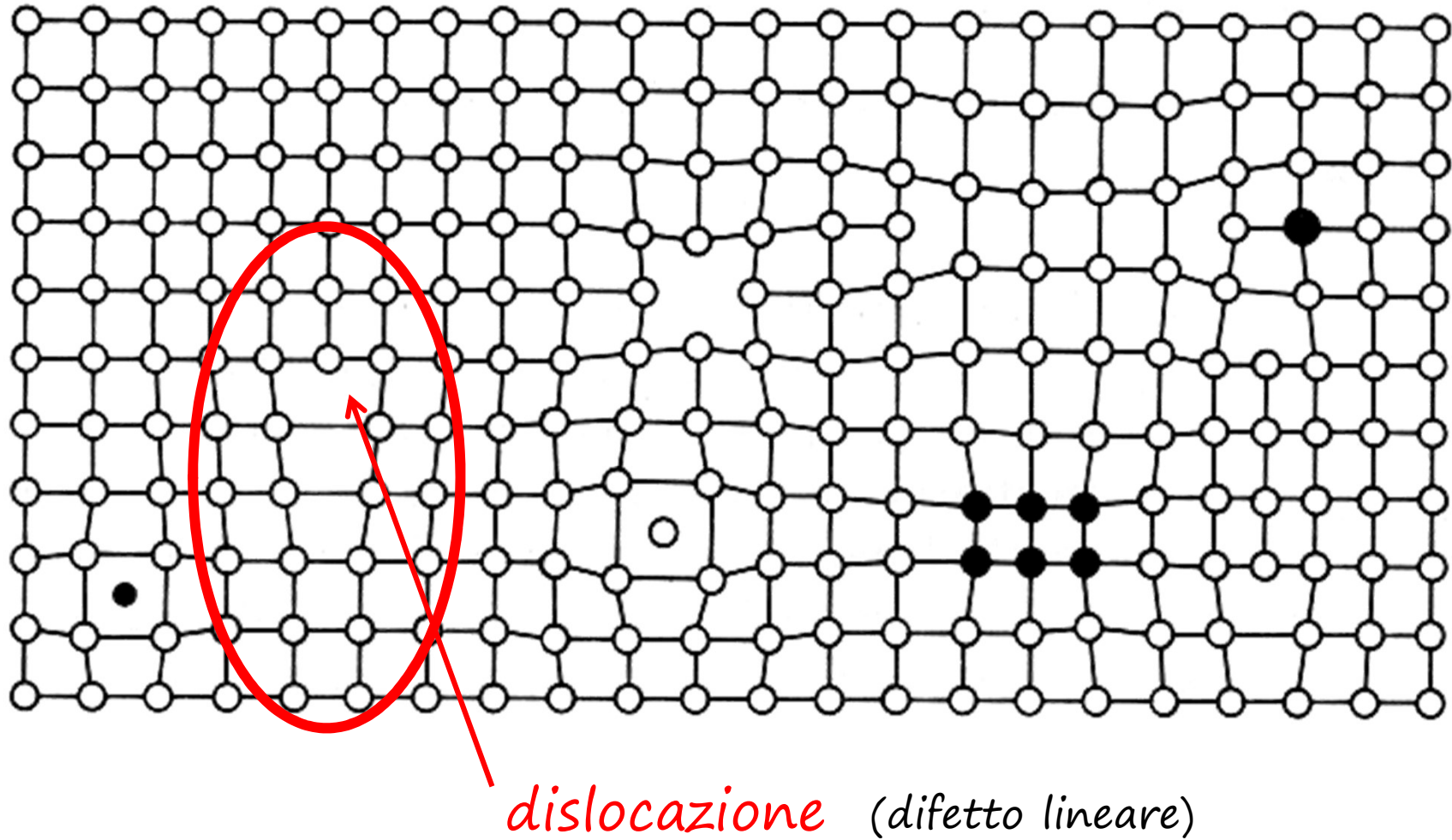
Nome	Composizione comune (massa %)	Usi
<i>Sostituzionale</i>		
Ottone	90 Cu : 10 Zn	Decorazioni
Peltro	85 Sn : 7 Cu : 6 Bi: 2 Sb	Piatti, bigiotteria, figurine
Bronzo	92–97 Cu : 1–8 Sn : 0–2 Zn	Medaglie, statue
Oro 14 carati	58 Au : 30 Ag : 12 Cu	Gioielli
Argento sterling	92.5 Ag : 7.5 Cu	Gioielli, utensili da cucina
Argento da conio	90 Ag : 10 Cu	Monete d'argento
Piombo per saldature	67 Pb : 33 Sn	Tubi saldati
<i>Interstiziale</i>		
Acciaio	98–99.9 Fe: 0–2 C	Materiali per costruzione
Acciaio inossidabile	>10.5 Cr: <89.5 Fe	Utensili da cucina, materiali strutturali

Leghe metalliche

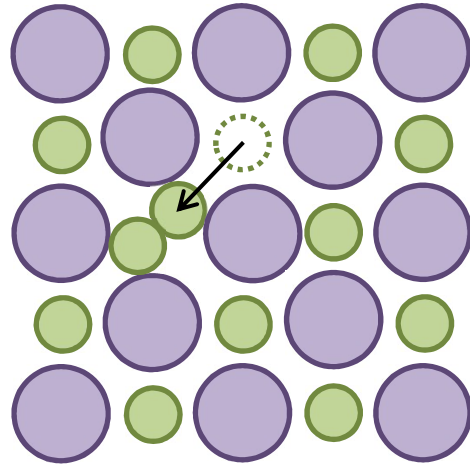
(esempi acciai: leghe ferro - carbonio)



difetti nei cristalli

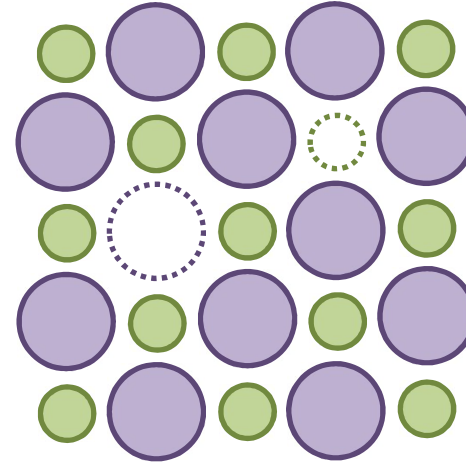


difetti puntuali nei cristalli ionici



difetto di
Frenkel

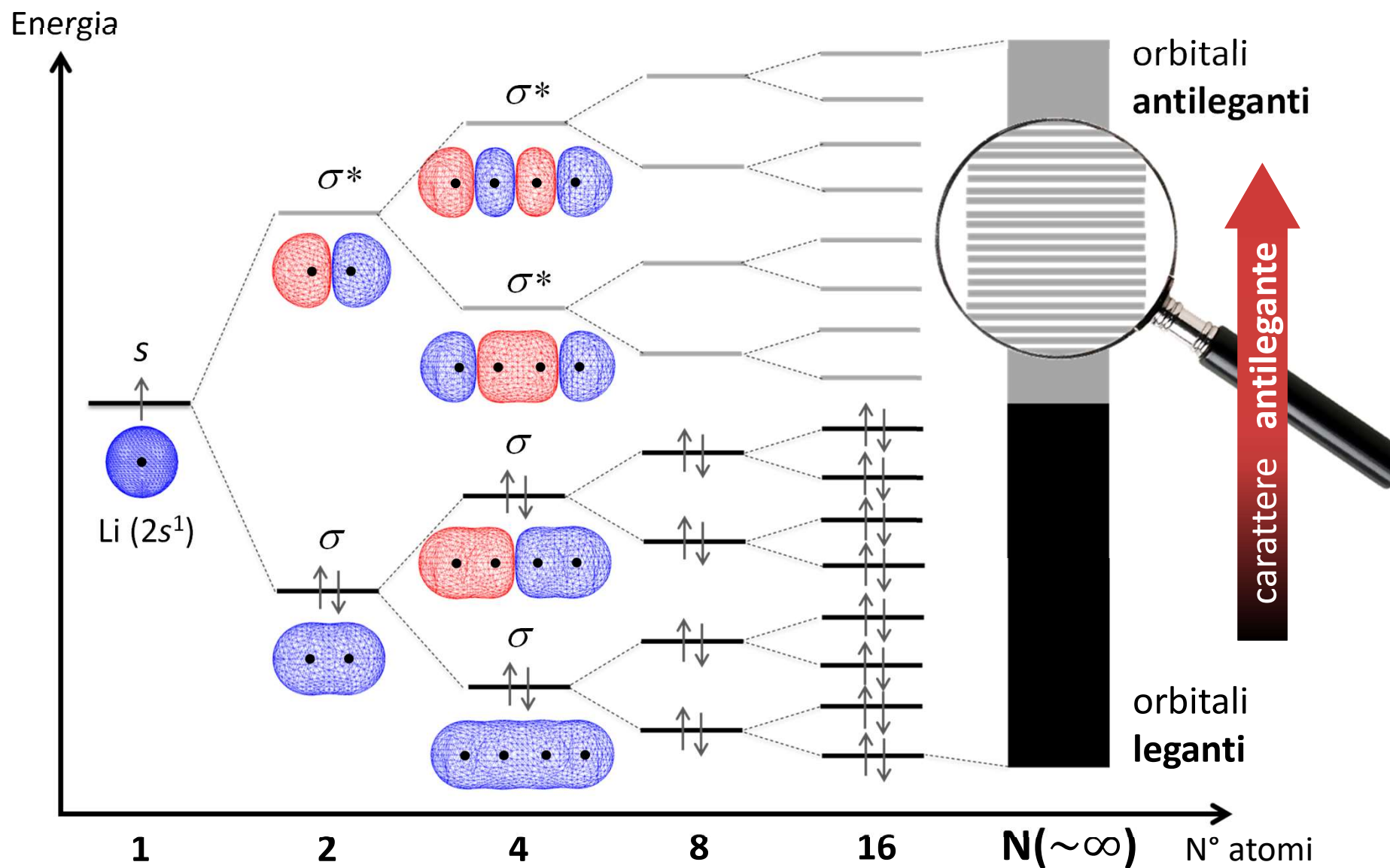
*(spostamento di
un catione da sito
reticolare ad
interstizio)*



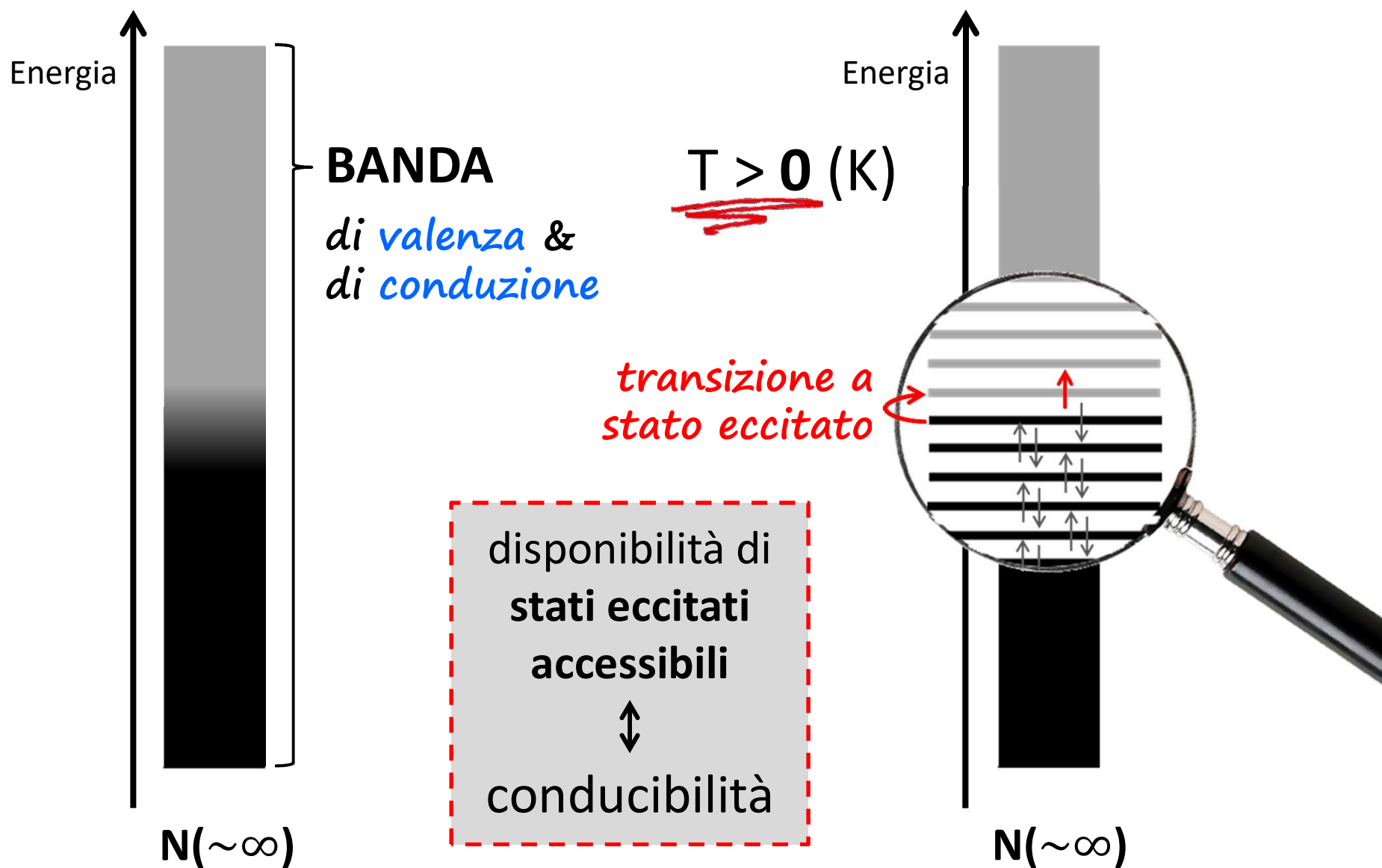
difetto di
Schottky

*(mancanza
contemporanea di
anione e catione)*

teoria quantistica dei solidi (teoria delle bande)



spiegazione conduzione elettrica



conduttori, isolanti e... semiconduttori

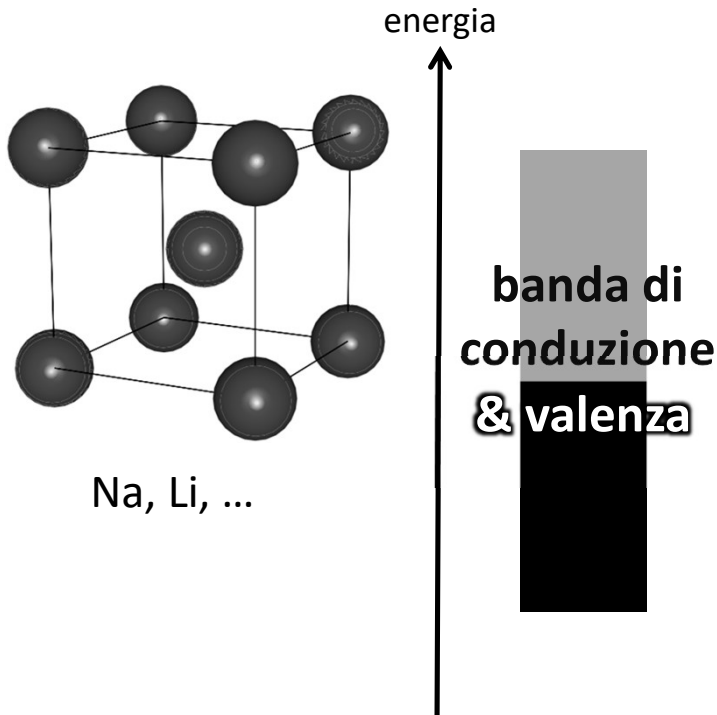
conduttori

es. metalli

(celle bcc)

numero coordinazione 8

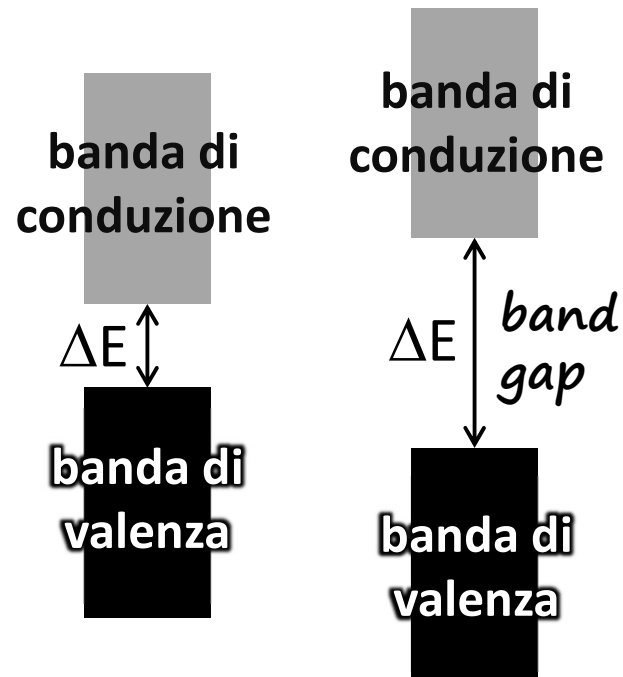
“buona” sovrapposizione
tra orbitali



semiconduttori

es. semi-metalli (Si, Ge, ...)

situazione intermedia



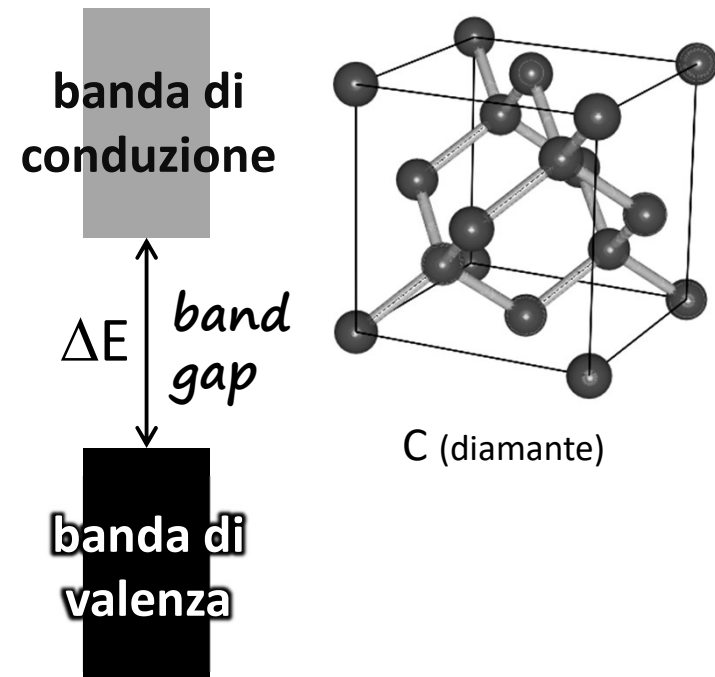
isolanti

es. non-metalli

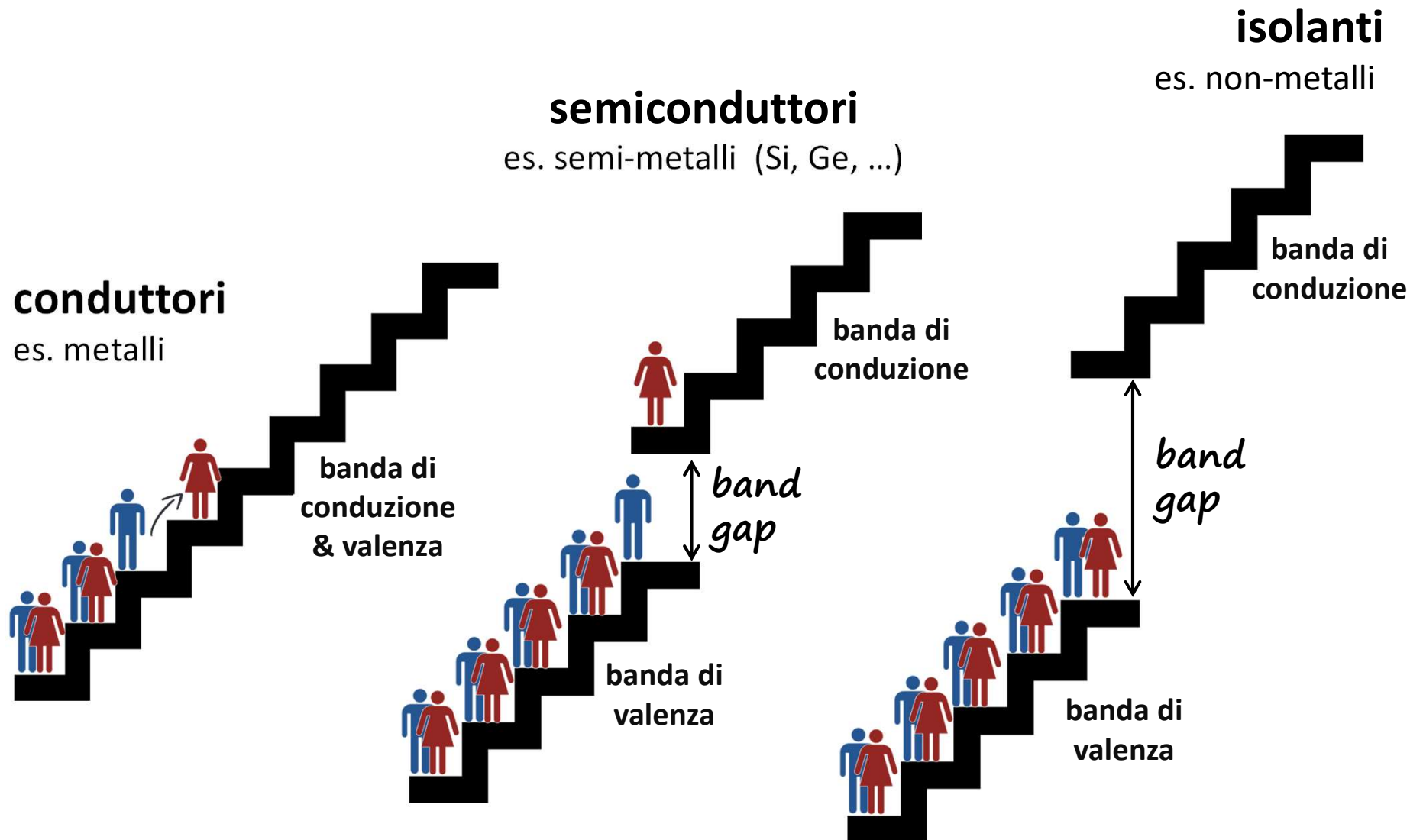
(celle + complesse)

numero coordinazione 4

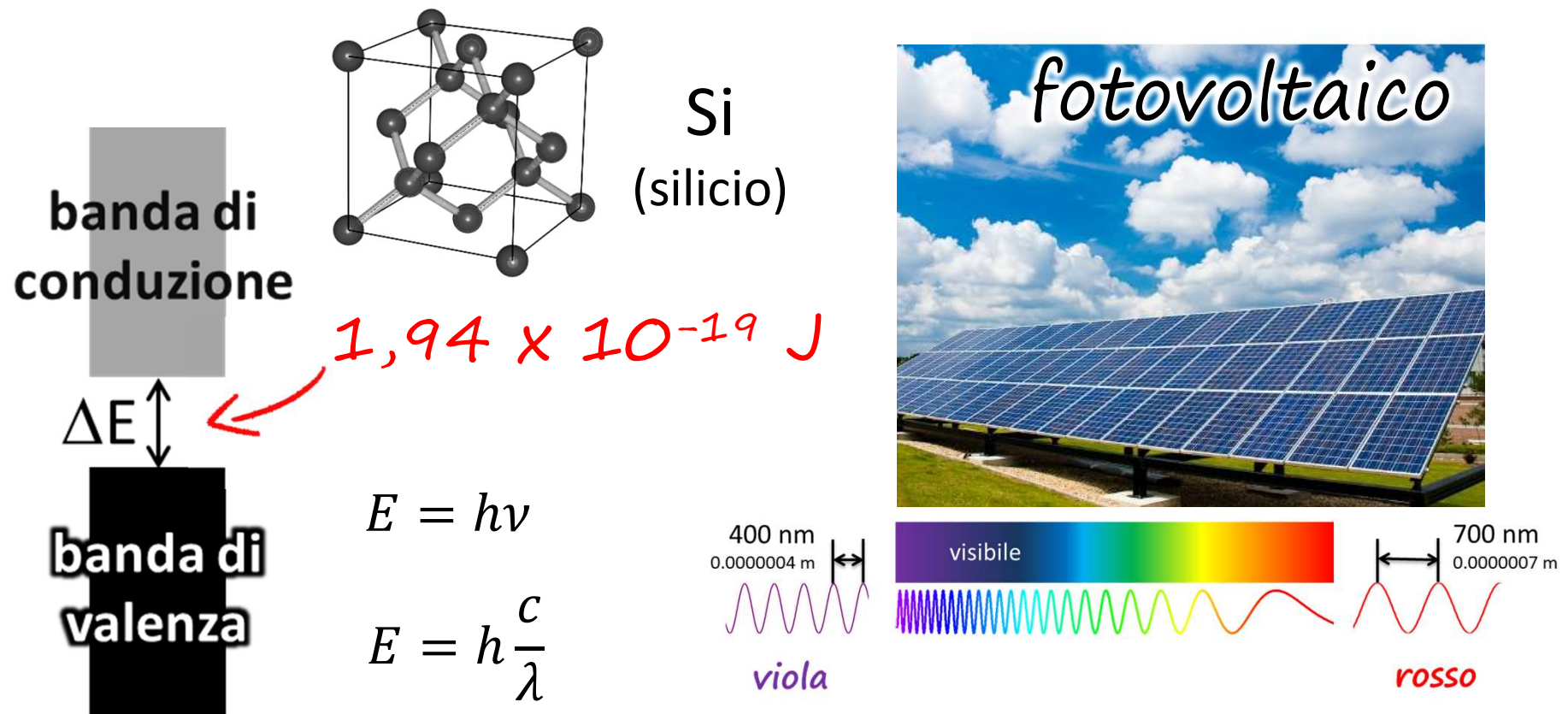
“cattiva” sovrapposizione
tra orbitali



conduttori, isolanti e... semiconduttori



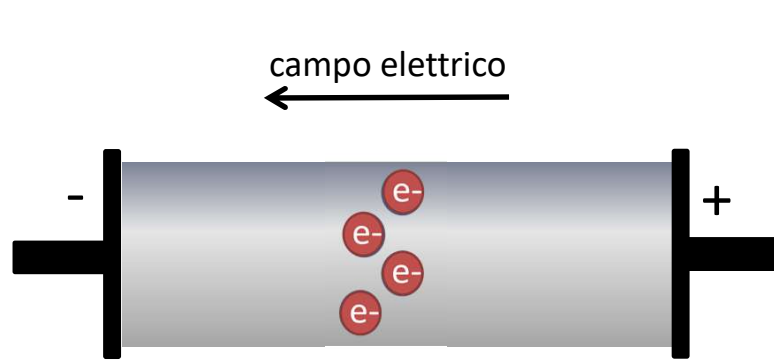
semiconduttori e tecnologie fotovoltaiche



$$\lambda = h \frac{c}{E} = \frac{(6,622 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}) \cdot (2,998 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1})}{1,94 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}}$$

$$\lambda = 1,02 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m} = 1020 \text{ nm} \leftarrow \text{infrarosso}$$

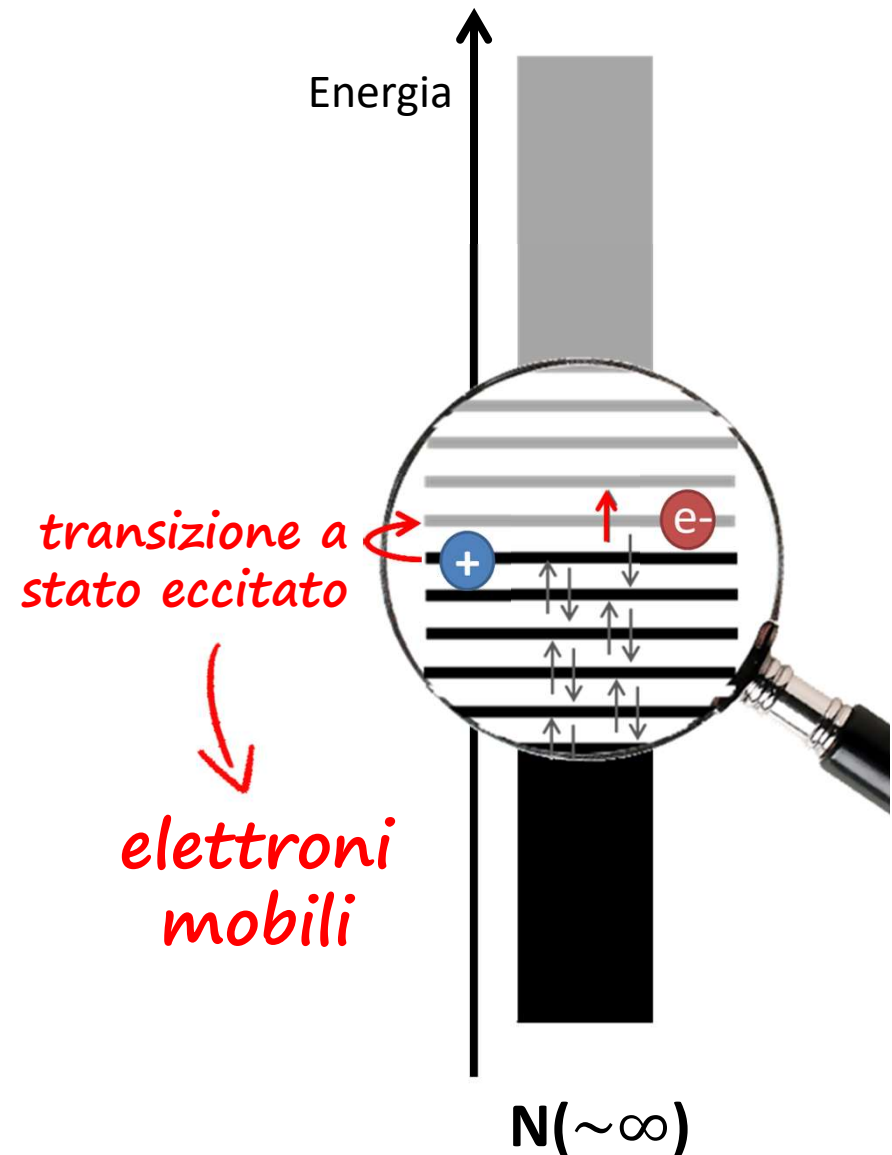
spiegazione conduzione elettrica



eccitazione e^- mediante
campo elettrico
(aumento E cinetica)

1. generazione elettroni mobili
2. creazione «**lacune**» **positive**
3. migrazione elettroni e lacune

lacune sotto livello di Fermi
elettroni sopra livello di Fermi

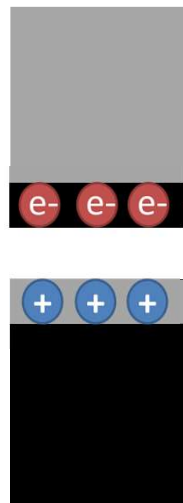


conduzione elettrica in semiconduttori

(drogaggio)

semiconduttori
intrinseci

energia



banda di
conduzione

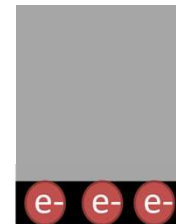
banda di
valenza

lacune in banda di valenza
elettroni in banda di conduzione

semiconduttori
estrinseci

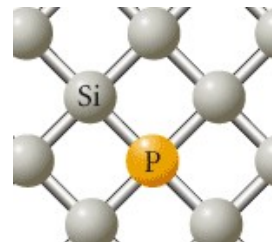
tipo n

eccesso e-



banda di
conduzione

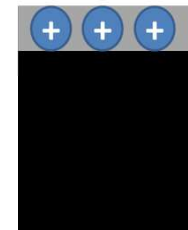
banda di
valenza



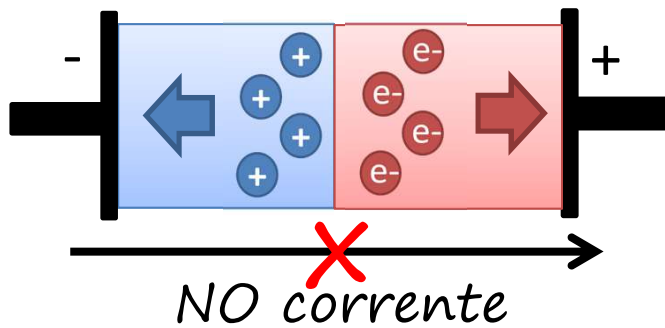
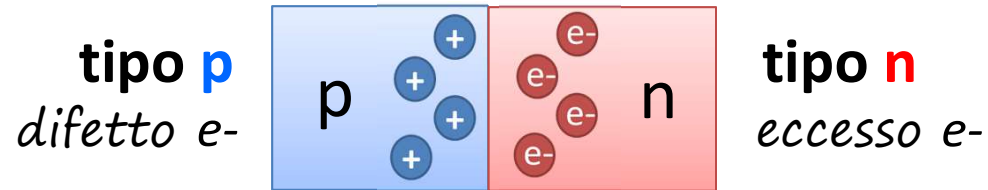
Si $3s^2 3p^2$
Al $3s^2 3p^1$
P $3s^2 3p^3$

tipo p

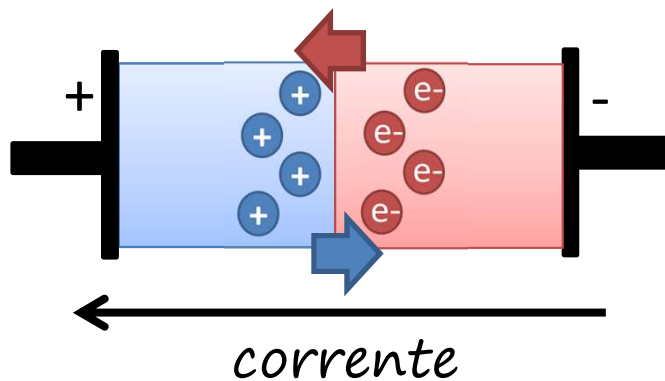
difetto e-



giunzioni p-n

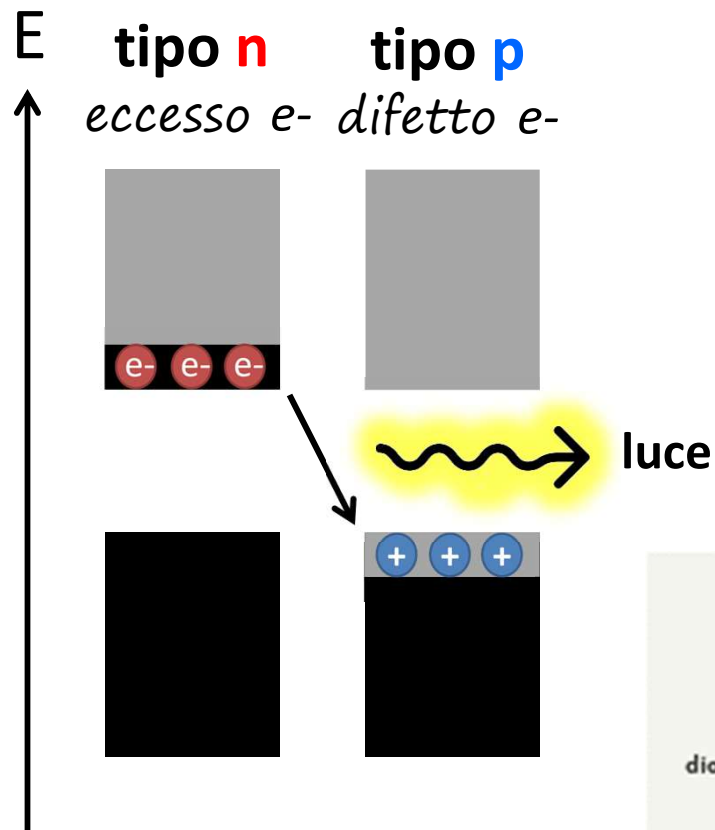


niente passaggio di
corrente elettrica

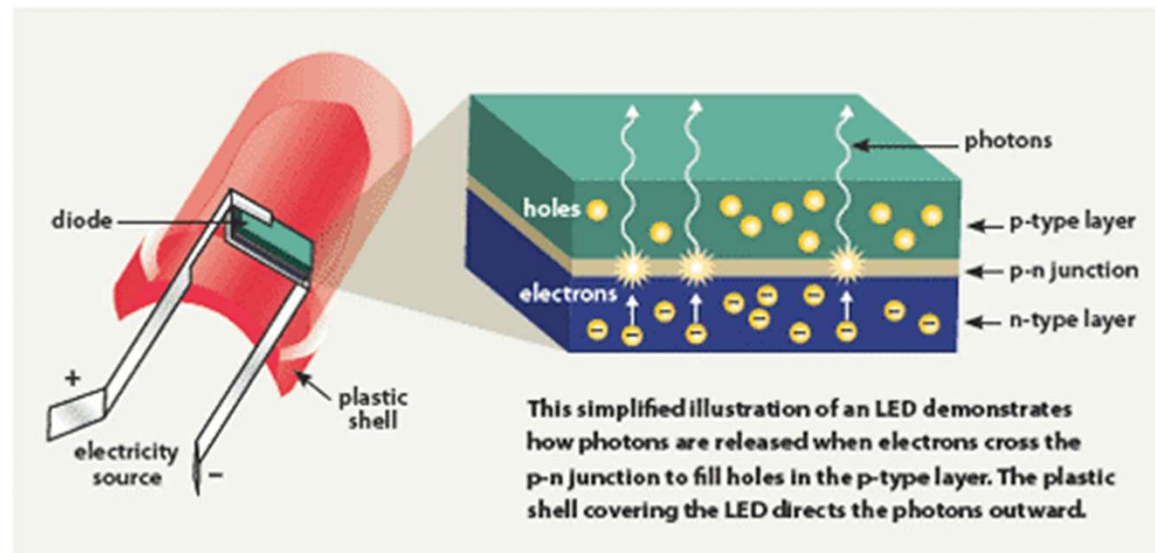


passaggio di
corrente elettrica

come funziona un LED (Light Emitting Diode)



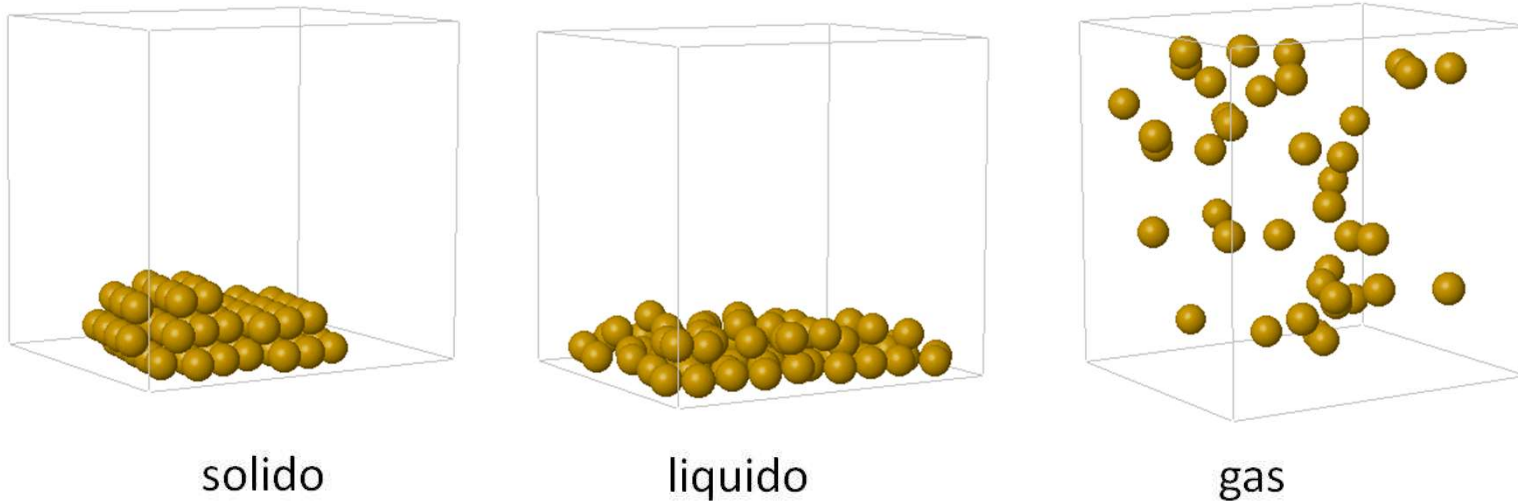
transizione elettronica
da **stato ad E più alta** a
stato ad E più bassa
con **emissione di fotoni**



stato liquido

*stato della materia nella quale i corpi hanno
volume propri ma forme variabili
(a seconda del contenitore)*

stato intermedio tra solido e gas



forze di attrazione tra molecole



energia cinetica (temperatura)

stato liquido

*classificabili in base alle interazioni tra unità
elementari (atomi, ioni o molecole)*

- liquidi “atomici” (He liquido)
- liquidi ionici (NaCl fuso)
- liquidi metallici (Hg, Fe fuso)
- liquidi molecolari (H_2O)

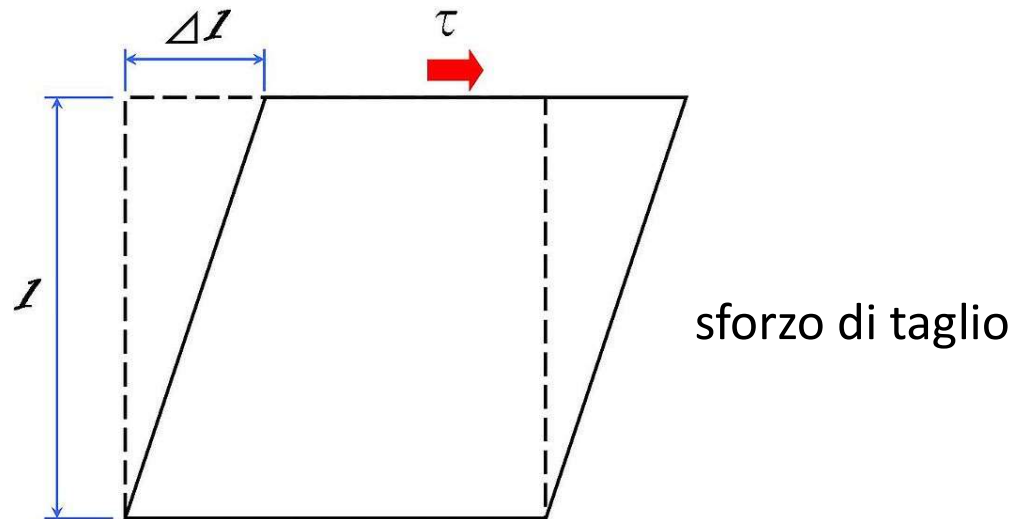
un liquido è un fluido

liquido

stato della materia nella quale i corpi hanno volume propri ma forme variabili (a seconda del contenitore)

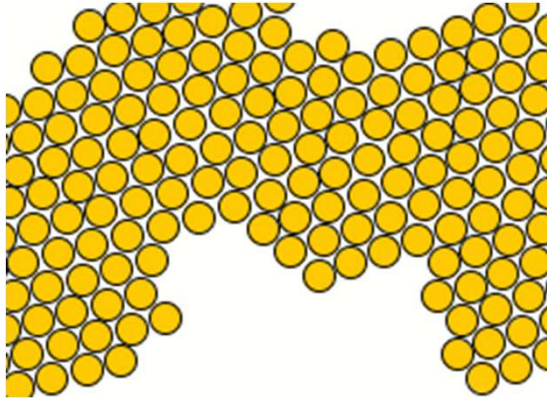
fluido

*sostanza che si deforma illimitatamente (fluisce) se sottoposta a uno **sforzo di taglio**; sono fluidi i liquidi, i gas, il plasma*

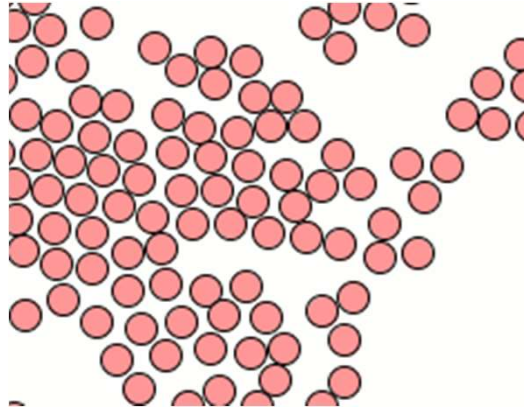


stato liquido ed ordine

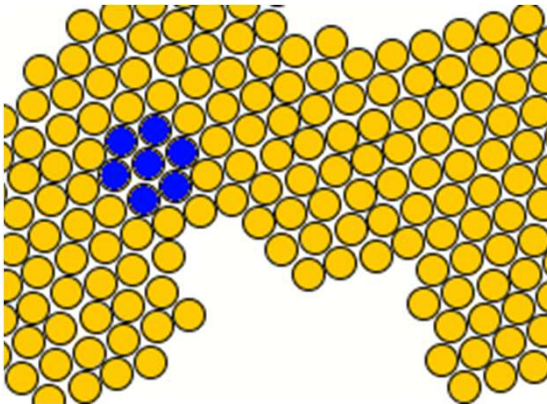
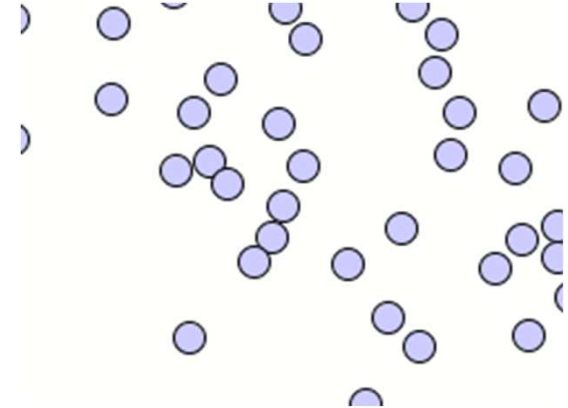
solido



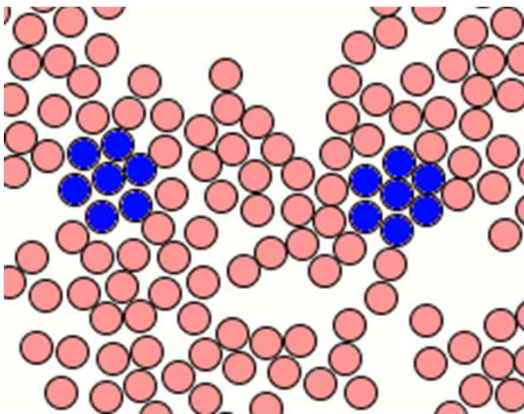
liquido



gas

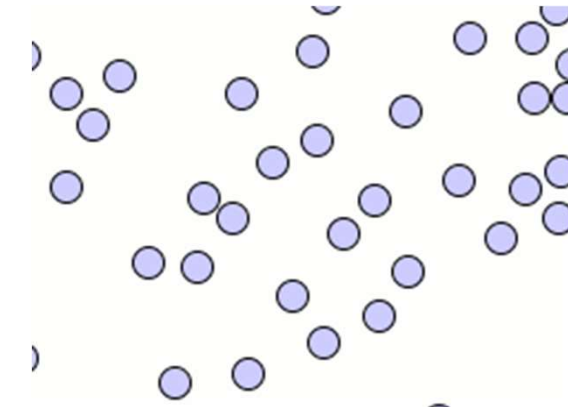


*ordine
a lungo raggio*



*ordine
a corto raggio*

ordine a **medio raggio**
(solidi amorfi)



disordine

viscosità

*grandezza fisica (Pa s) che descrive l'**attrito interno** di un fluido (ed in particolare di un liquido), ossia la resistenza allo scorrimento*

tendenza di uno strato in moto del liquido di trascinare con se gli strati adiacenti

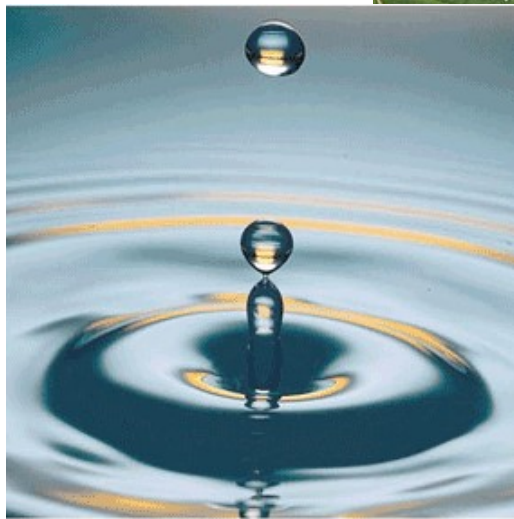


diminuisce con
la temperatura !

tensione superficiale (γ)

proprietà di un liquido per la quale esso tende a minimizzare la superficie esterna

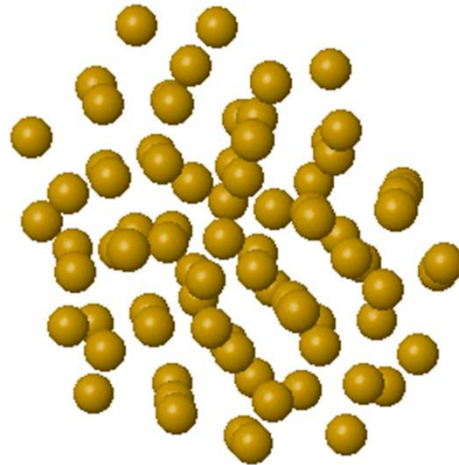
energia richiesta per aumentare di un unità la superficie di un liquido (J/m^2)



tensione superficiale (γ)

proprietà di un liquido per la quale esso tende a minimizzare la superficie esterna

energia richiesta per aumentare di un unità la superficie di un liquido (J/m^2)



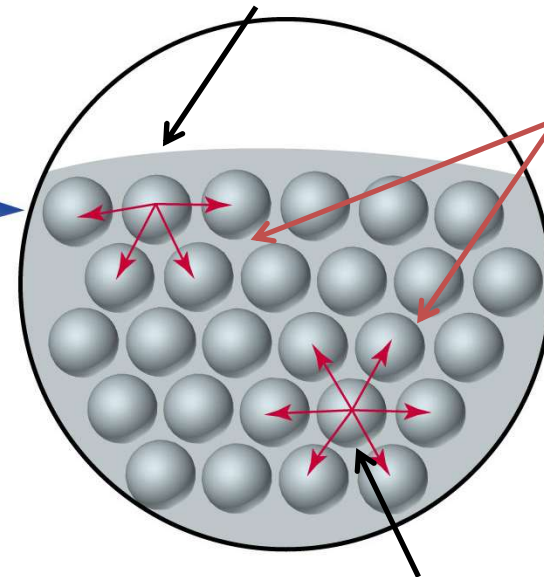
e' una conseguenza del fatto che ci sono interazioni (intermolecolari) tra le particelle

tensione superficiale (γ)

*originata dalle forze di coesione
(intermolecolari) tra le particelle del liquido*



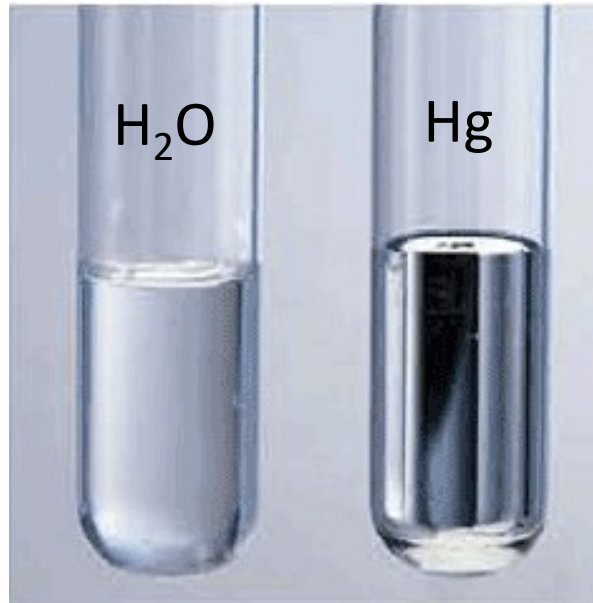
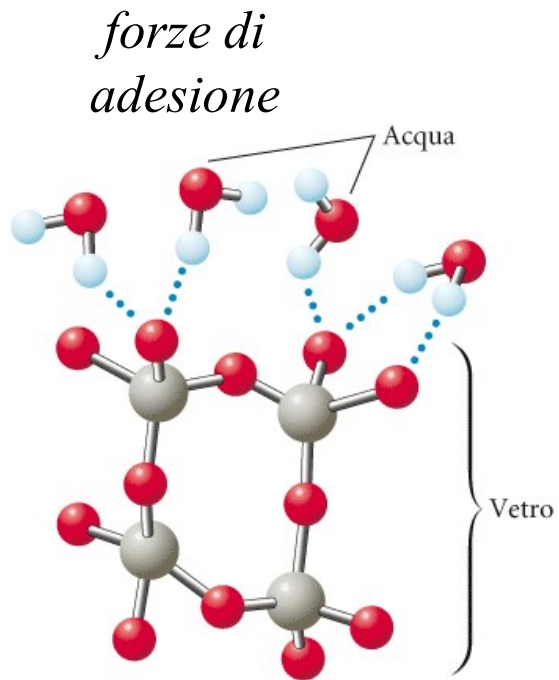
le molecole superficiali non
sono completamente
circondate da altre molecole



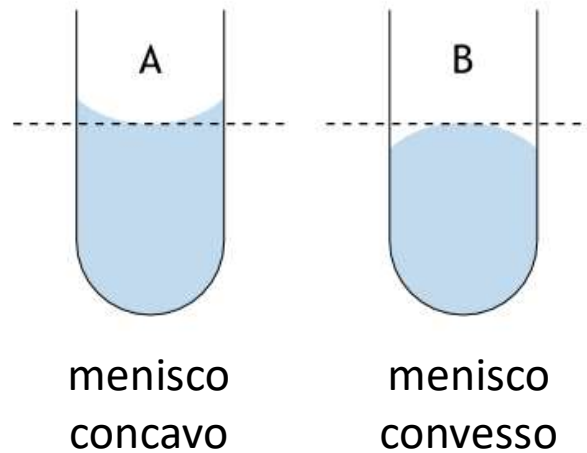
forze di
coesione

le molecole sotto la superficie
sono completamente
circondate da altre molecole

forze di coesione ed adesione



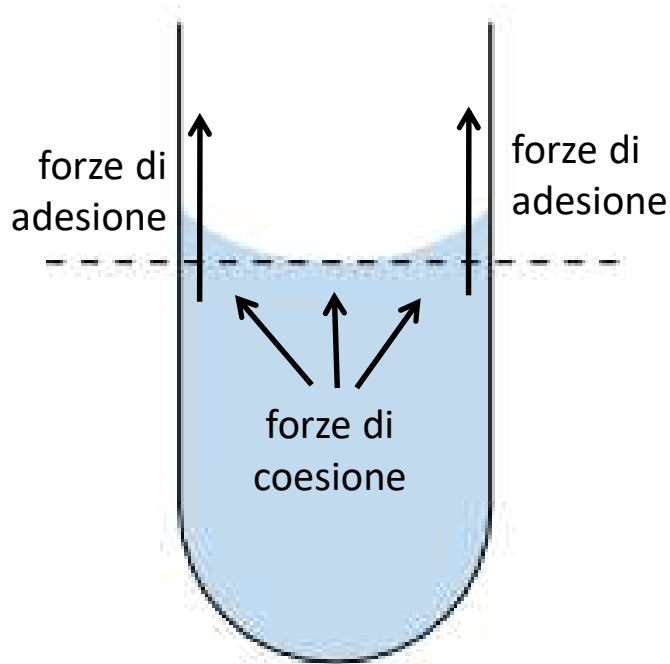
forze di coesione < *forze di adesione*



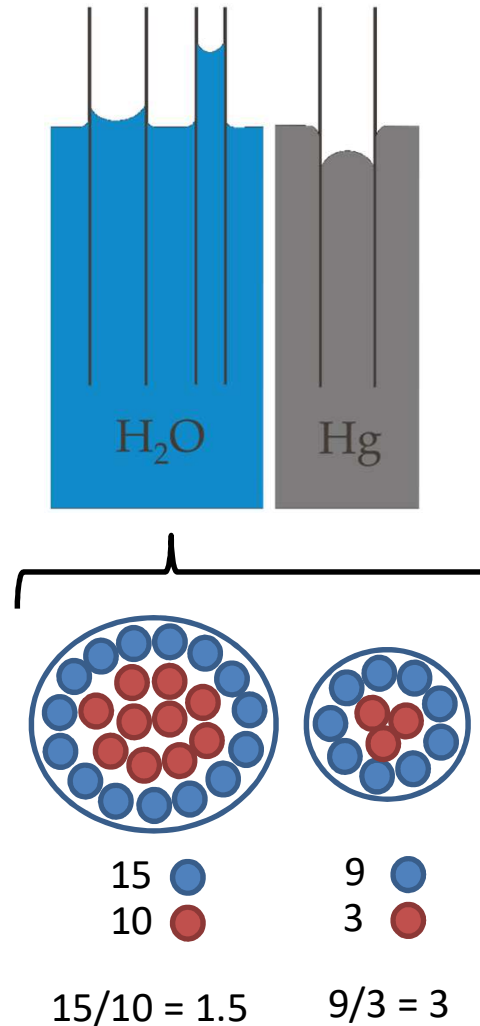
forze di coesione > *forze di adesione*

capillarità

*fenomeno dovuto alla
combinazione delle forze
di adesione e coesione*



*più evidente in contenitori stretti
perché il rapporto tra molecole
superficiali e interne aumenta*

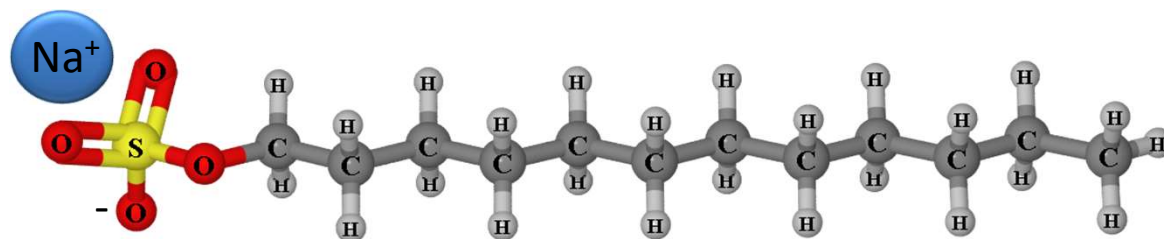


$$\frac{\text{forze adesione}}{\text{forze coesione}} = \frac{2\pi r}{\pi r^2} = \frac{2}{r}$$

- molecole che interagiscono con le pareti del contenitore
- molecole che interagiscono tra loro

i tensioattivi (o surfattanti)

*sostanze che hanno la proprietà di **abbassare la tensione superficiale** di un liquido, agevolando la bagnabilità delle superfici o la miscibilità tra liquidi diversi*

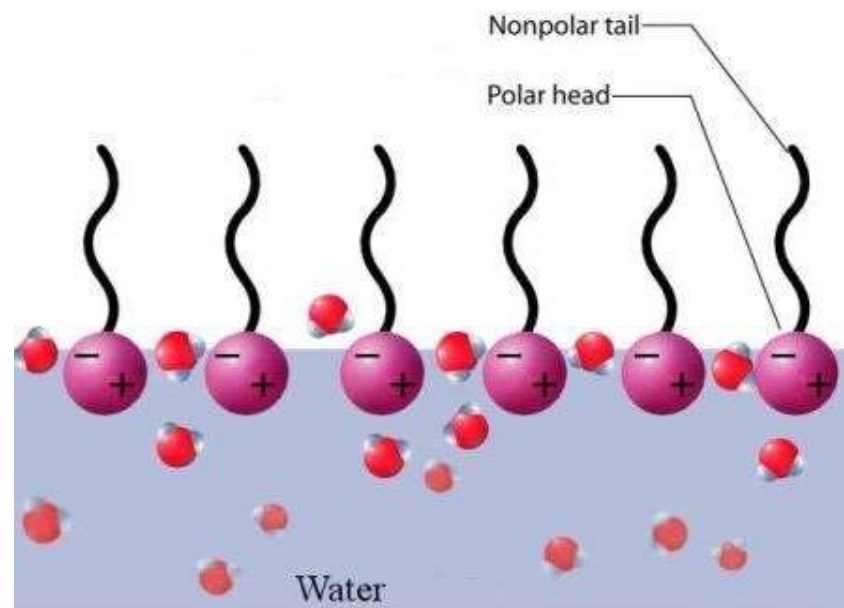
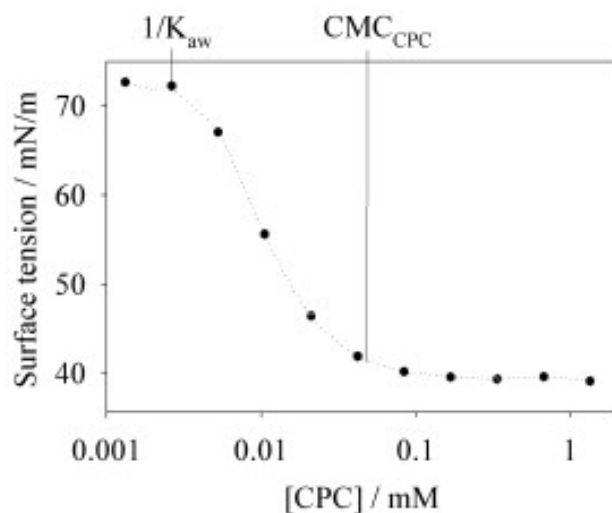


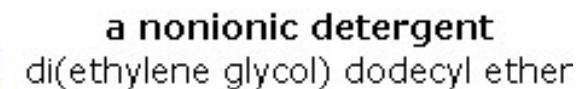
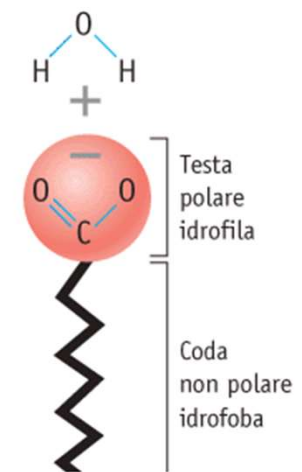
parte (testa)
“idrofila”



parte (coda) “lipofila”

sodio dodecilsolfato

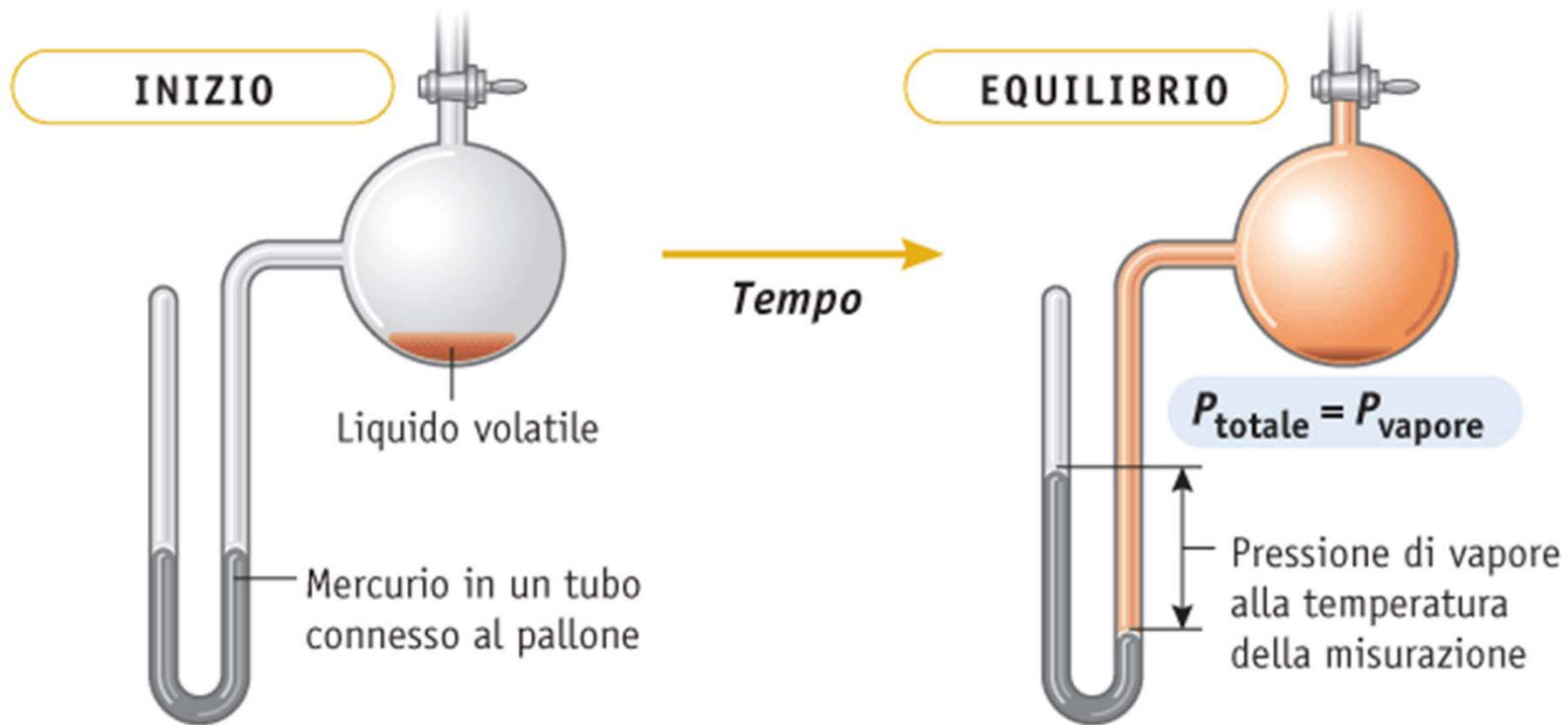




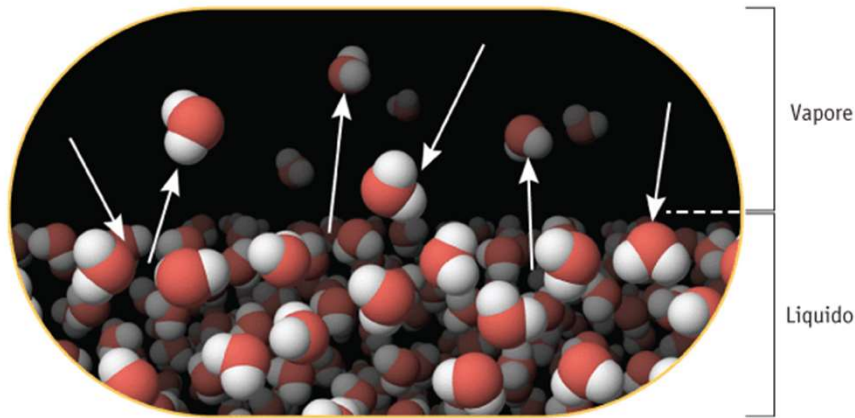
Polar "Head Group"

tensione (o pressione) di vapore

dato un liquido in un recipiente chiuso, dopo in certo tempo t una parte del liquido passa alla fase gassosa come vapore

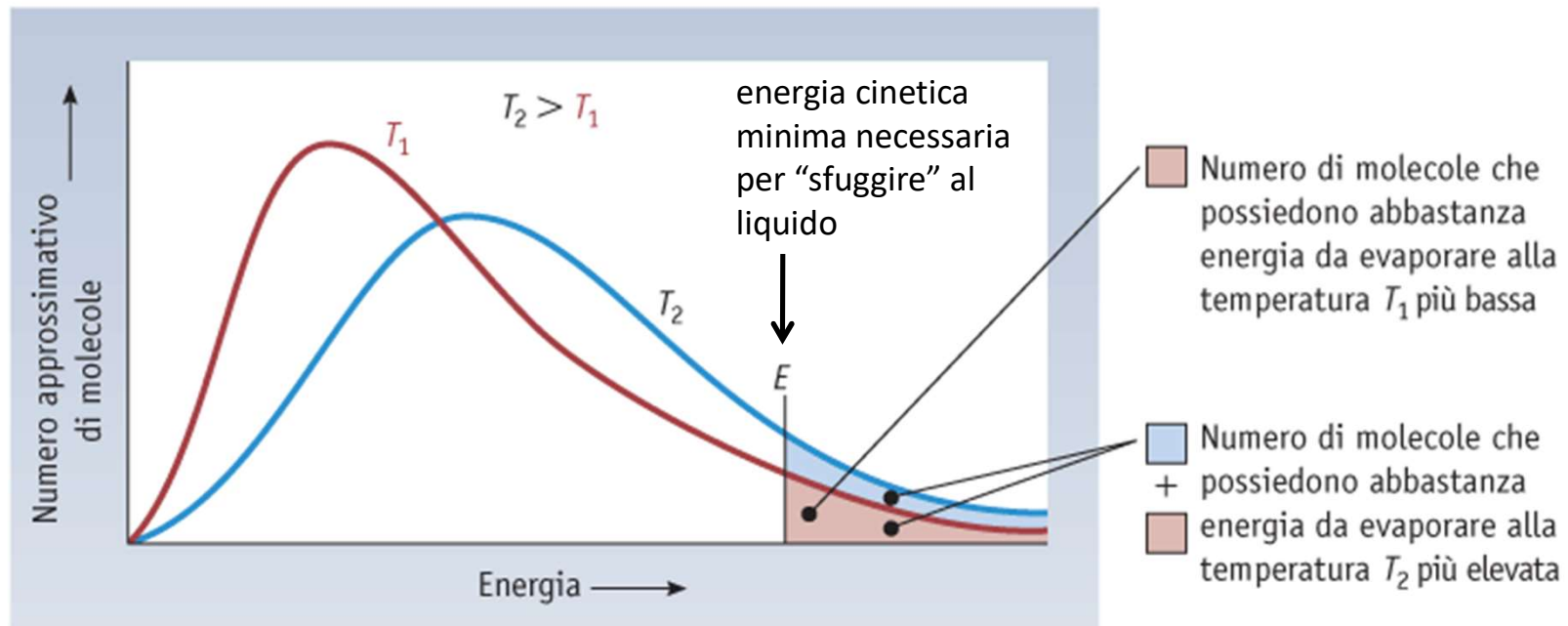


tensione (o pressione) di vapore



teoria cinetica dei liquidi
→ *distribuzione di*
Maxwell-Boltzmann
delle velocità molecolari

concetto di
“velocità di fuga”

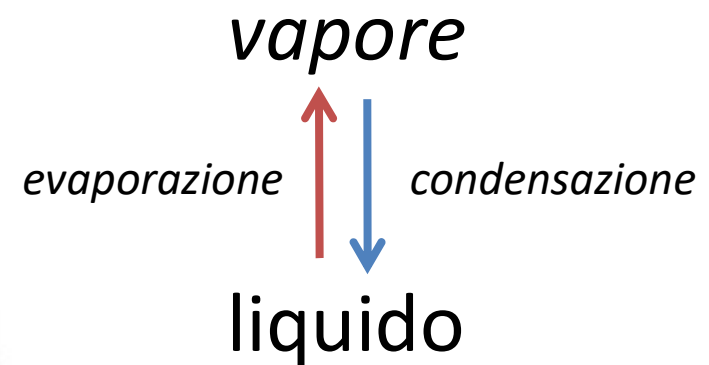
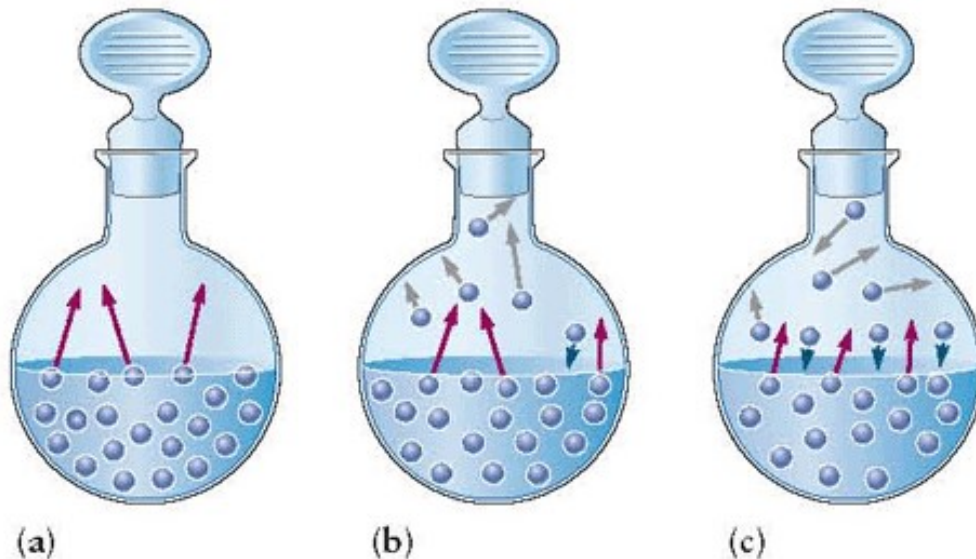
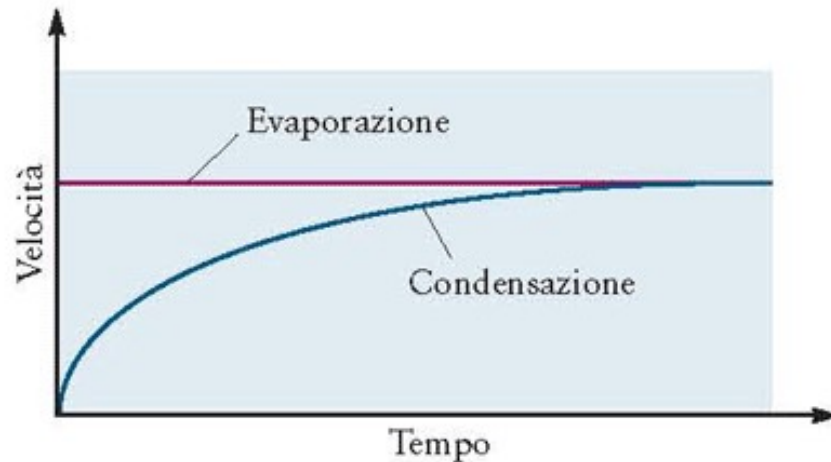


tensione (o pressione) di vapore

*pressione esercitata dal
vapore saturo sul liquido ad
una certa temperatura*

*2 processi
in **equilibrio dinamico***

“equilibrio di fase”



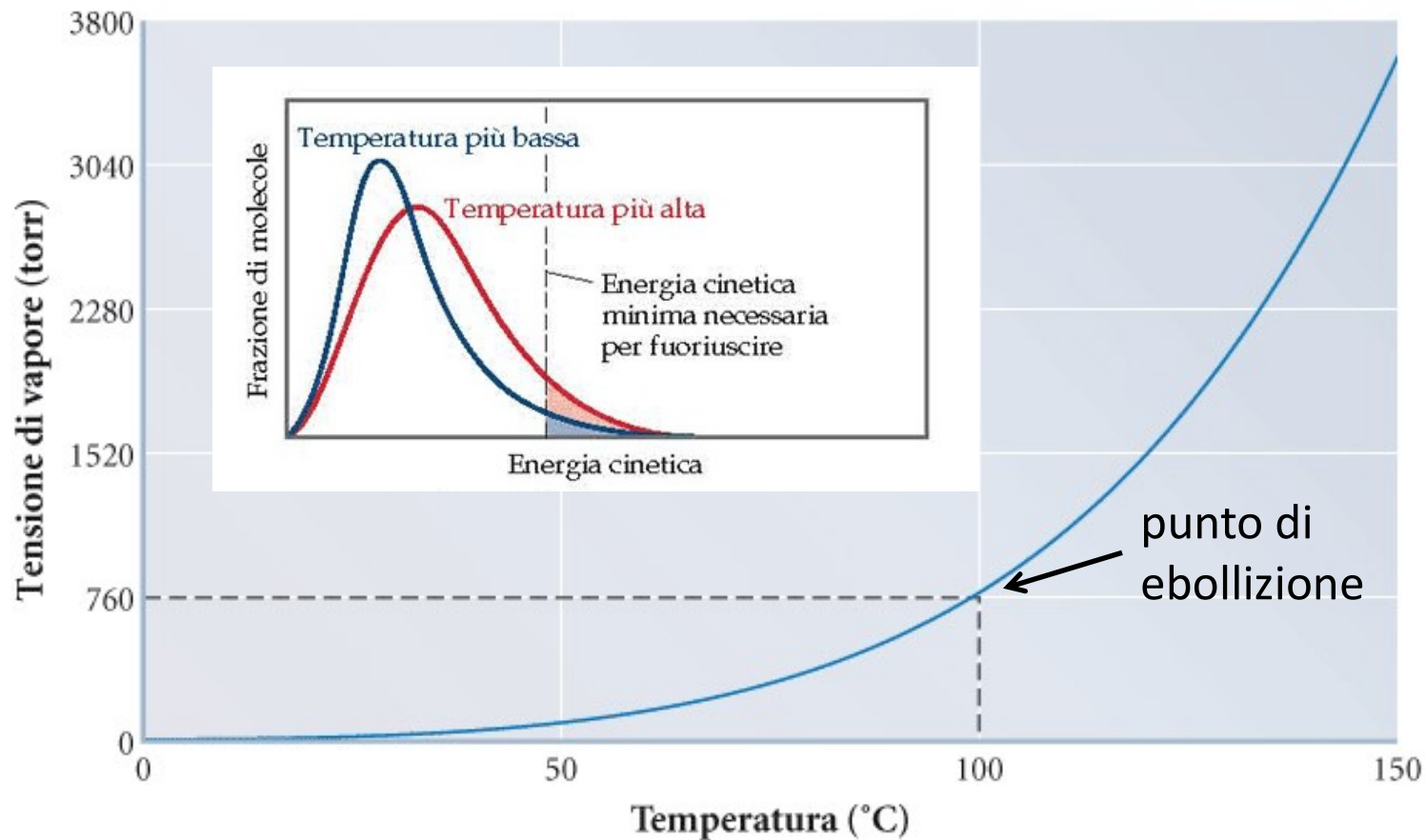
tensione di vapore e T

la pressione di vapore
aumenta con la T

$$P = A \cdot e^{-\frac{\Delta H_{ev}}{RT}}$$

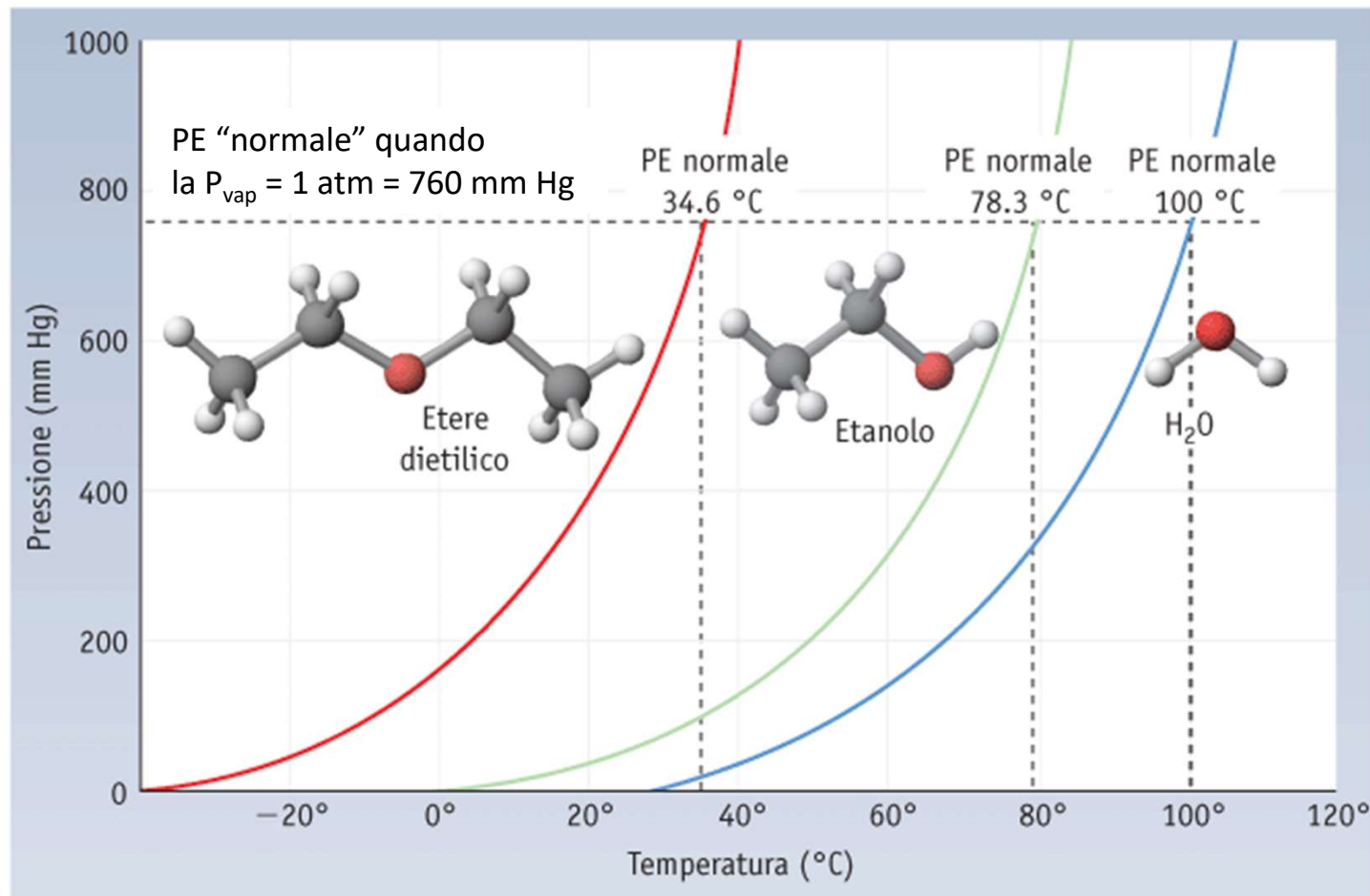
(equazione di Clausius-Clapeyron)

entalpia molare di
evaporazione: calore
richiesto per vaporizzare
1 mol di liquido ad 1 atm

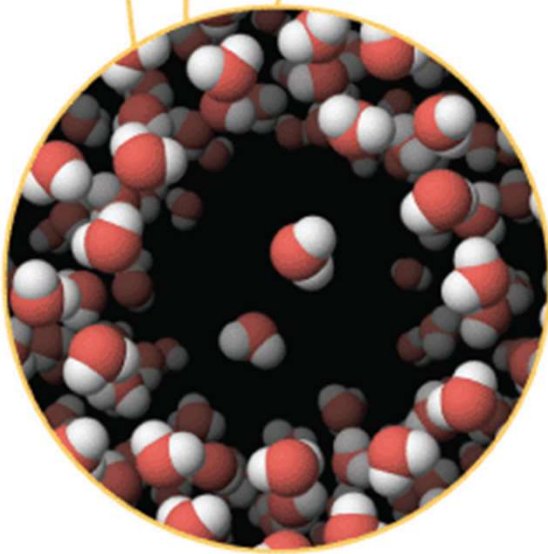


tensione di vapore e punto di ebollizione

temperatura (o punto) di ebollizione di un liquido: T alla quale la pressione di vapore del liquido è uguale alla pressione applicata sopra di esso



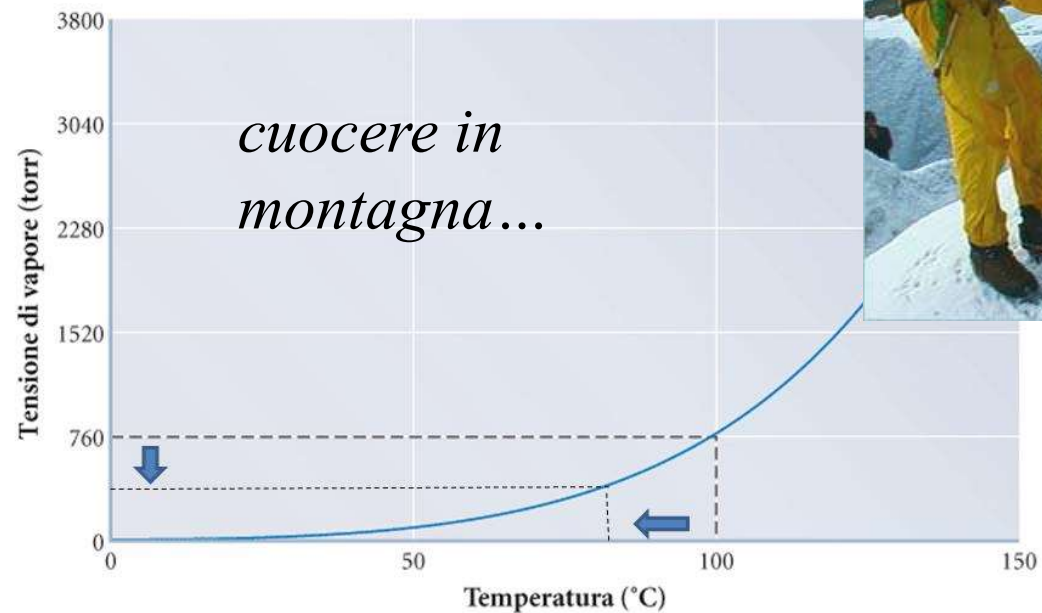
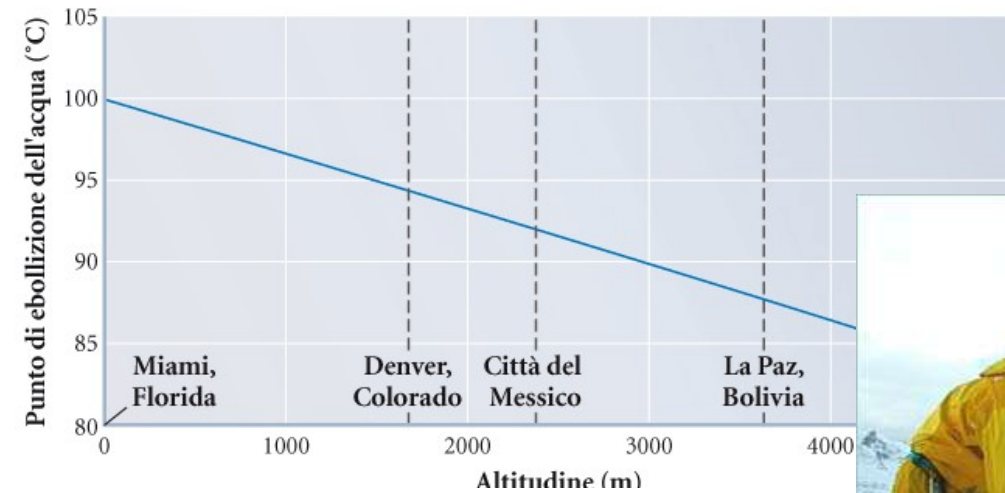
ebollizione



pressione di
vapore
=
pressione
atmosferica

*quando la velocità di una
frazione considerevole di
molecole del liquido, si
formano bolle di vapore
anche all'interno del liquido*

tensione di vapore e punto di ebollizione



tensione di vapore e forze intermolecolari

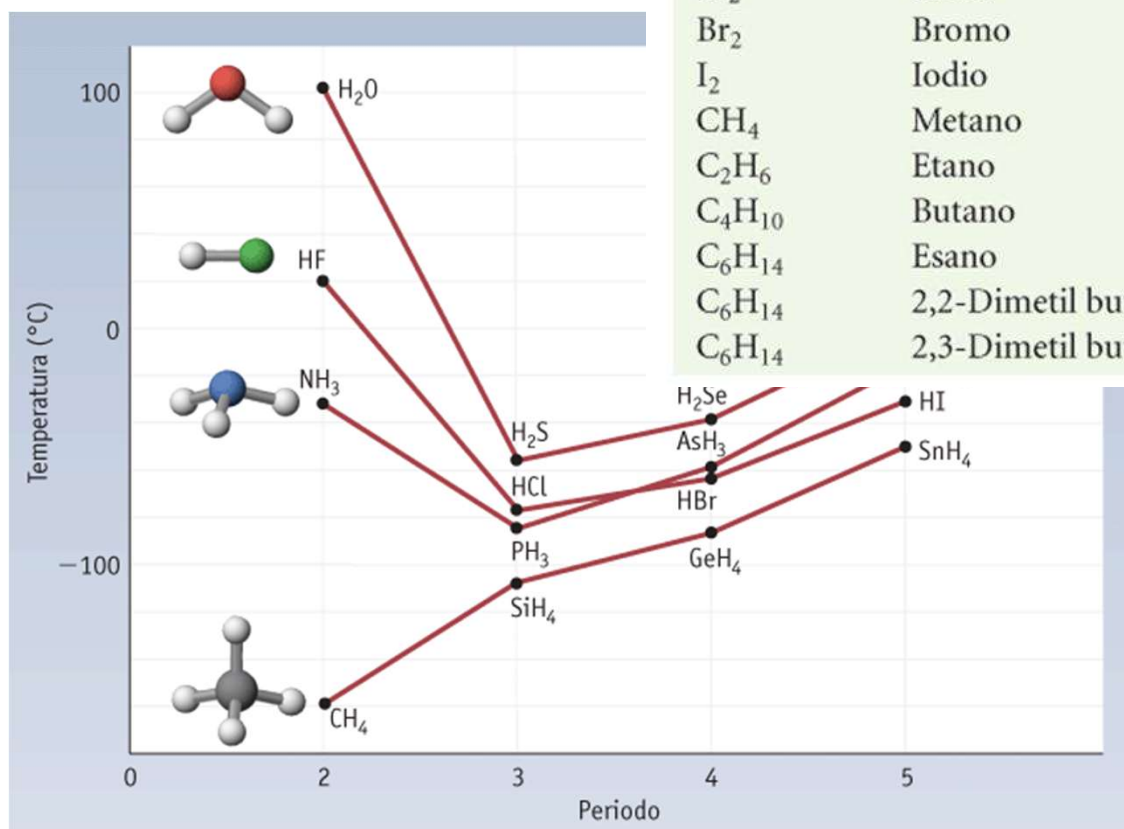
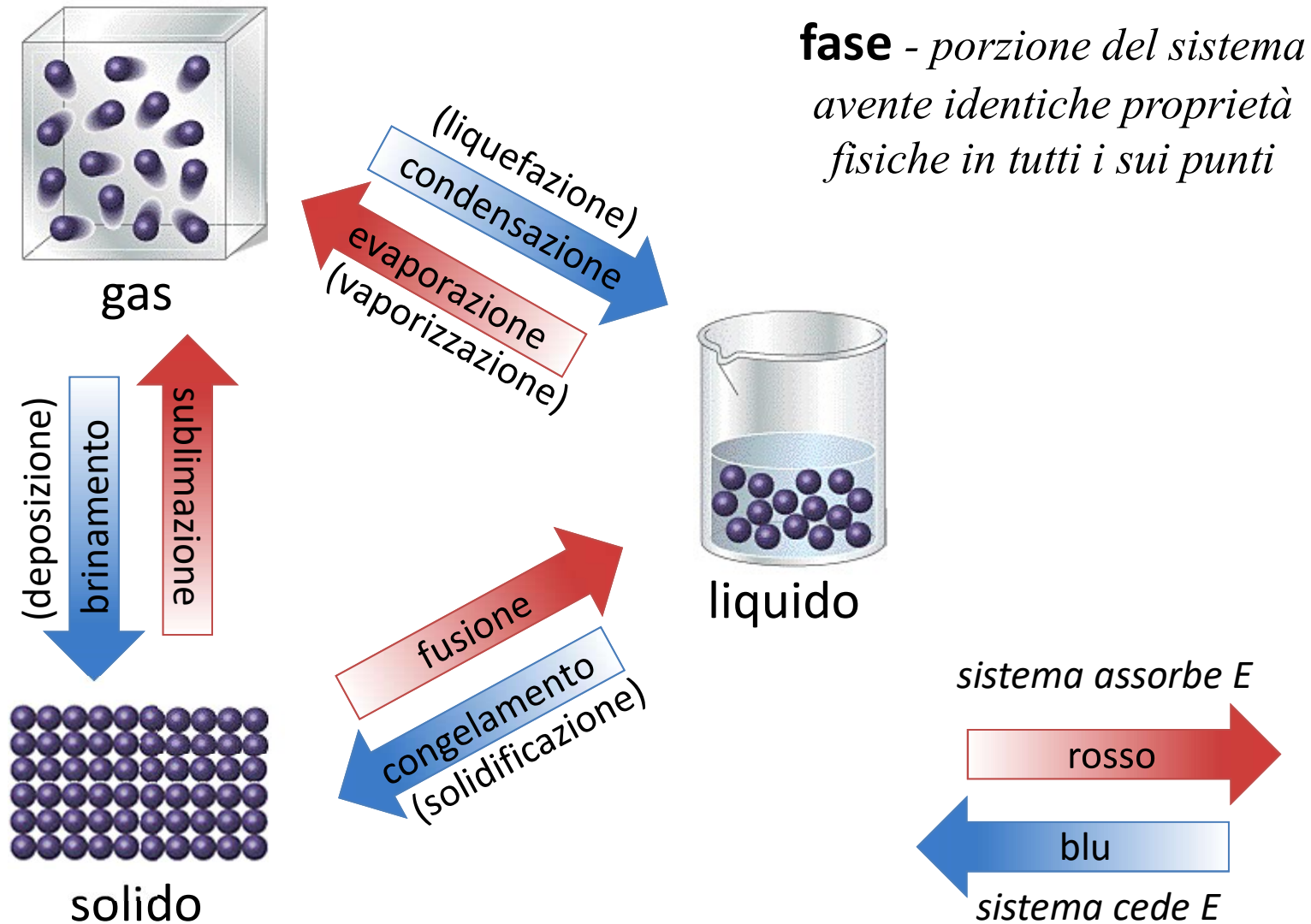


TABELLA 11.1

Punti di ebollizione di composti a 1 atm

Composto	Nome	Massa molare (g/mol)	Punto di ebollizione (°C)
F_2	Fluoro	38	-188.1
Cl_2	Cloro	71	-34.6
Br_2	Bromo	160	58.8
I_2	Iodio	254	184.4
CH_4	Metano	16	-164
C_2H_6	Etano	30	-88.6
C_4H_{10}	Butano	58	-0.5
C_6H_{14}	Esano	86	69
C_6H_{14}	2,2-Dimetil butano	86	50
C_6H_{14}	2,3-Dimetil butano	86	58

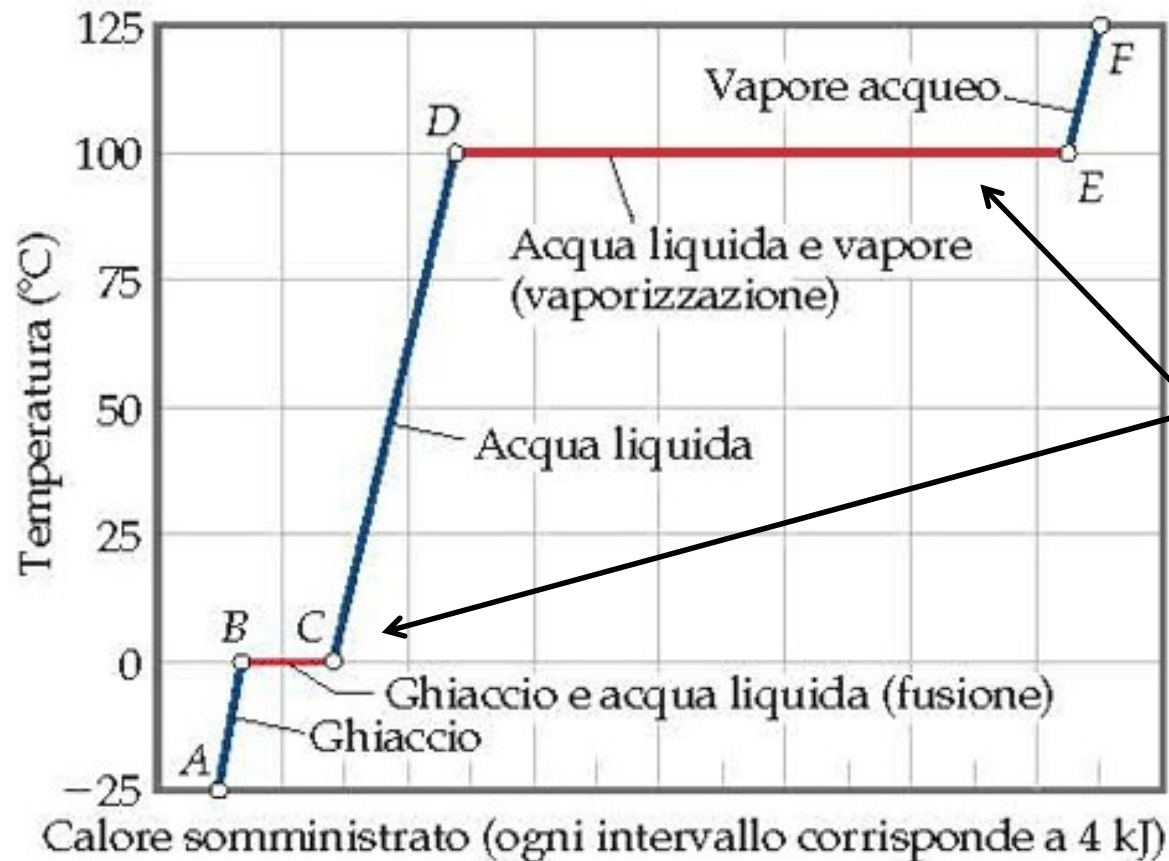
transizioni di fase (o cambiamenti di stato)



curve di riscaldamento / raffreddamento

calore – (J ; cal) energia
termica trasferita (movimento
di atomi/ioni/molecole)

calore specifico – calore
necessaria per variare di 1°C la
temperatura di 1g di sostanza



calore latente –
calore trasferito in
processi (B-C, D-E)
in cui la T rimane
costante

liquefazione o condensazione

*entro un certo intervallo di T ,
un gas può essere liquefatto
aumentando la pressione*

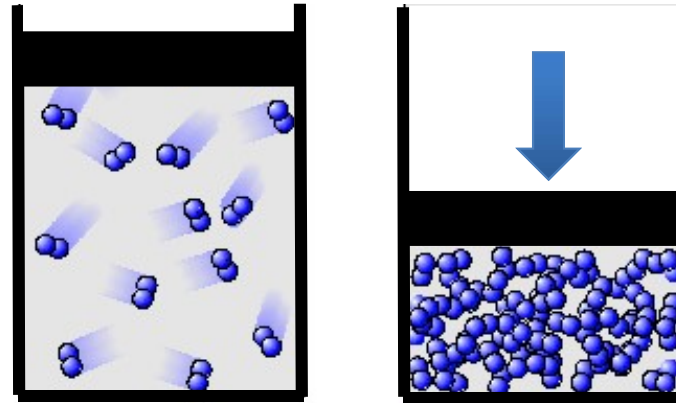


diagramma di Andrews

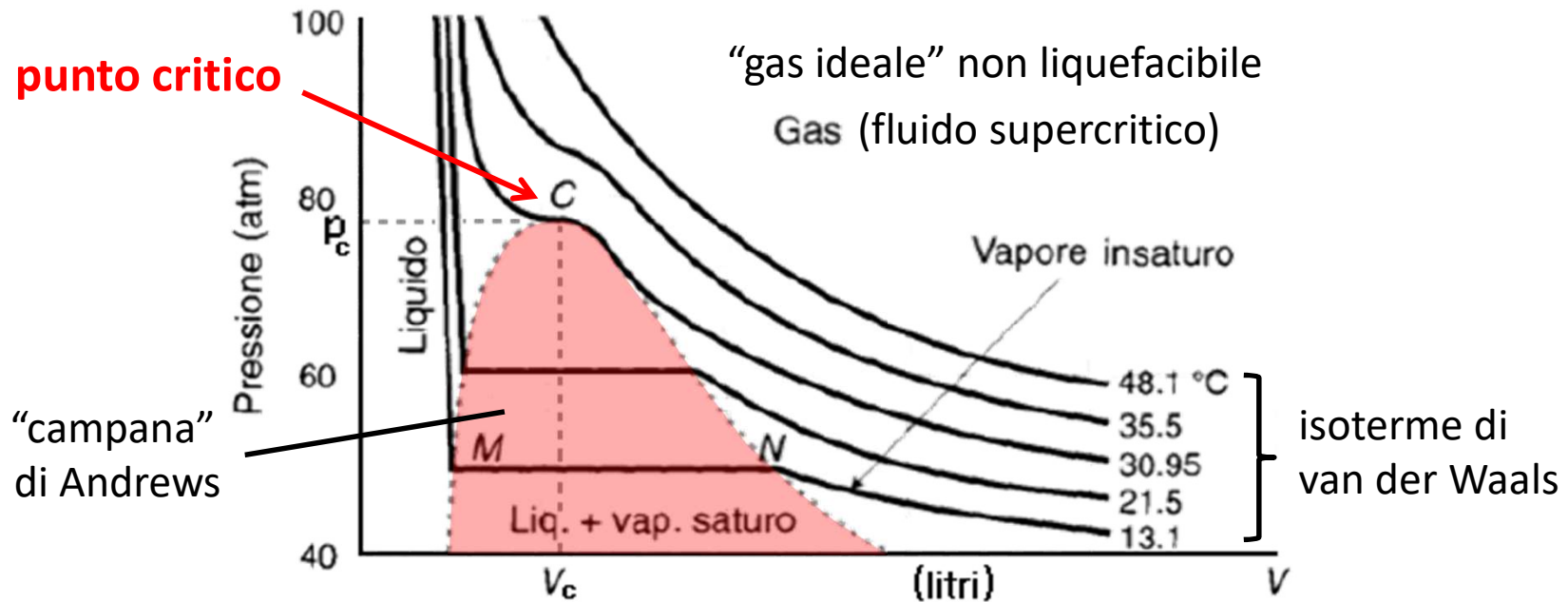
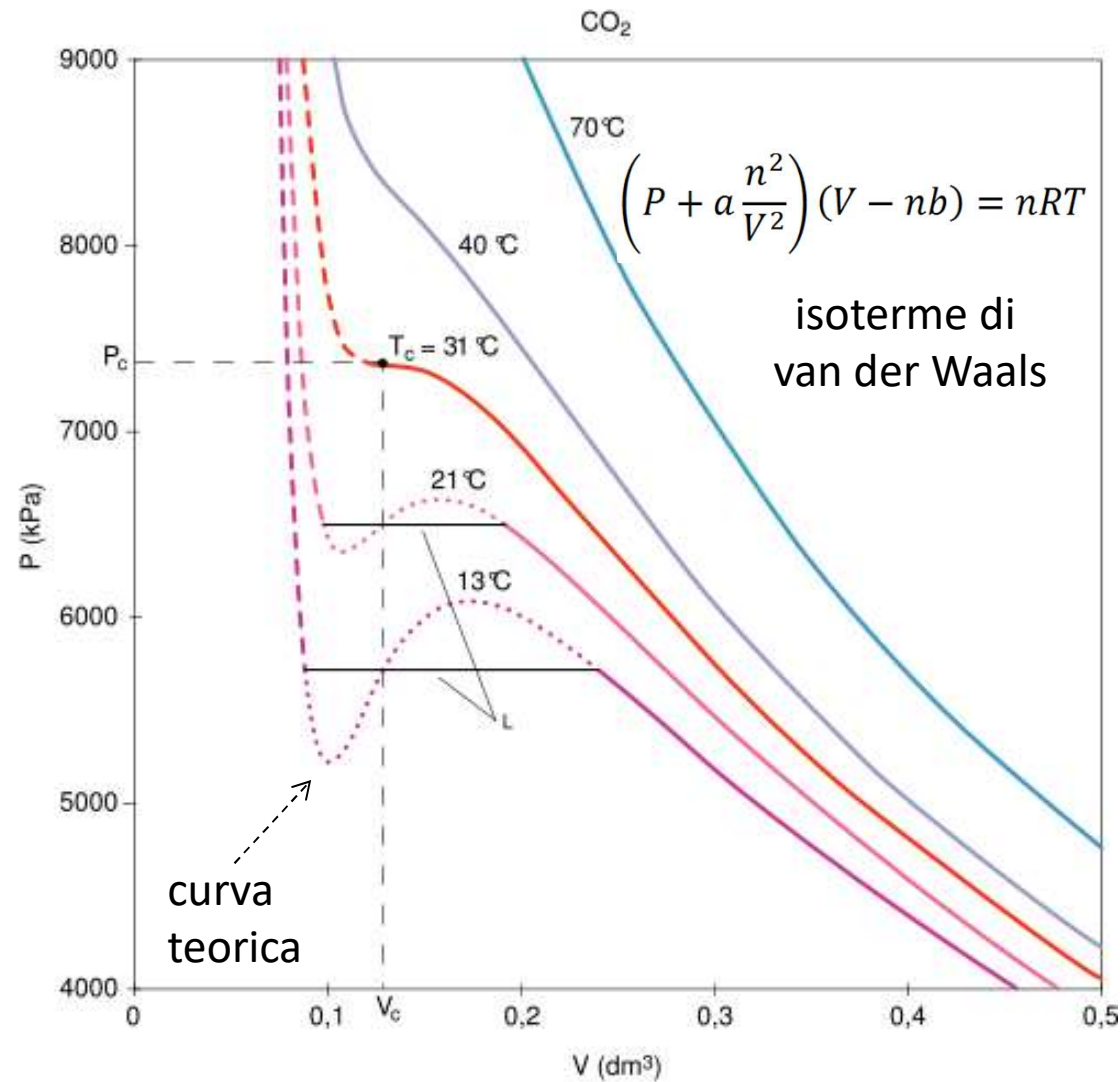


diagramma di Andrews per la CO₂



punto critico: T e P critiche

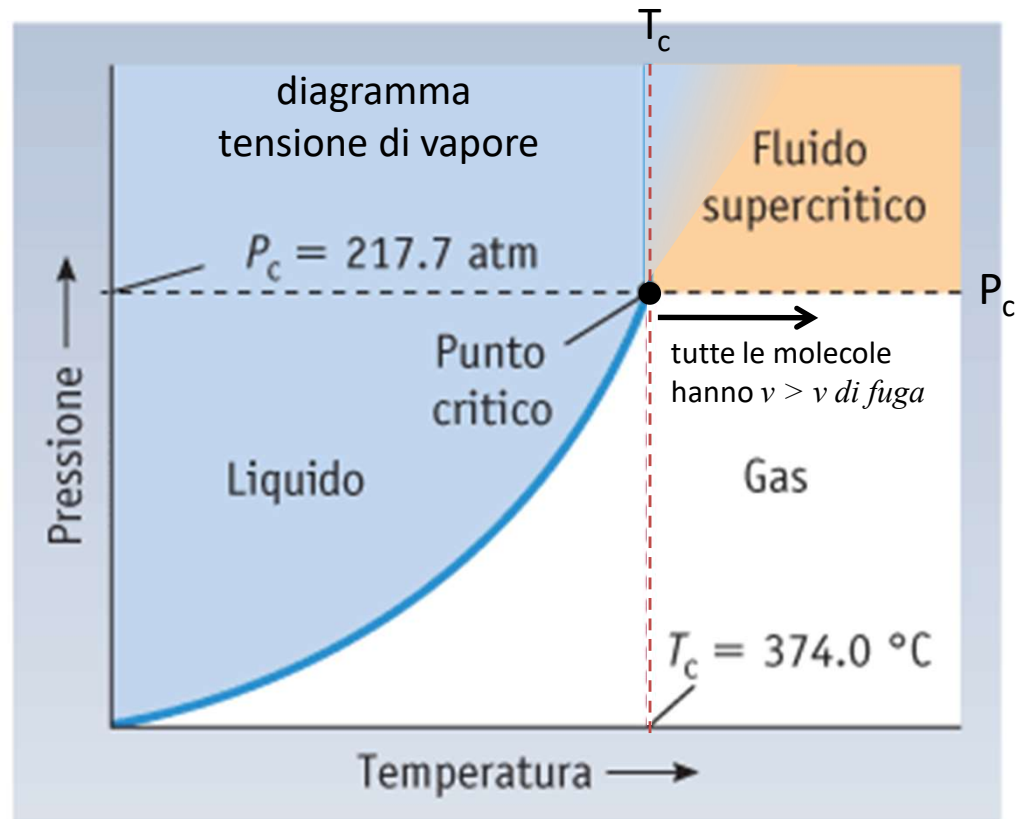
T critica (T_c) è la T oltre la quale un vapore non può essere liquefatto per compressione

P critica (P_c) è la pressione minima richiesta per liquefare un gas alla T_c

TABELLA 12.7 Temperatura e pressioni critiche per composti comuni*

Composto	T_c (°C)	P_c (atm)
CH ₄ (metano)	-82.6	45.4
C ₂ H ₆ (etano)	32.3	49.1
C ₃ H ₈ (propano)	96.7	41.9
C ₄ H ₁₀ (butano)	152.0	37.3
CCl ₂ F ₂ (CFC-12)	111.8	40.9
NH ₃	132.4	112.0
H ₂ O	374.0	217.7
CO ₂	30.99	72.8
SO ₂	157.7	77.8

*Dati estratti da D. R. Lide: *Basic Laboratory and Industrial Chemicals*, Boca Raton, FL, CRC Press, 1993.

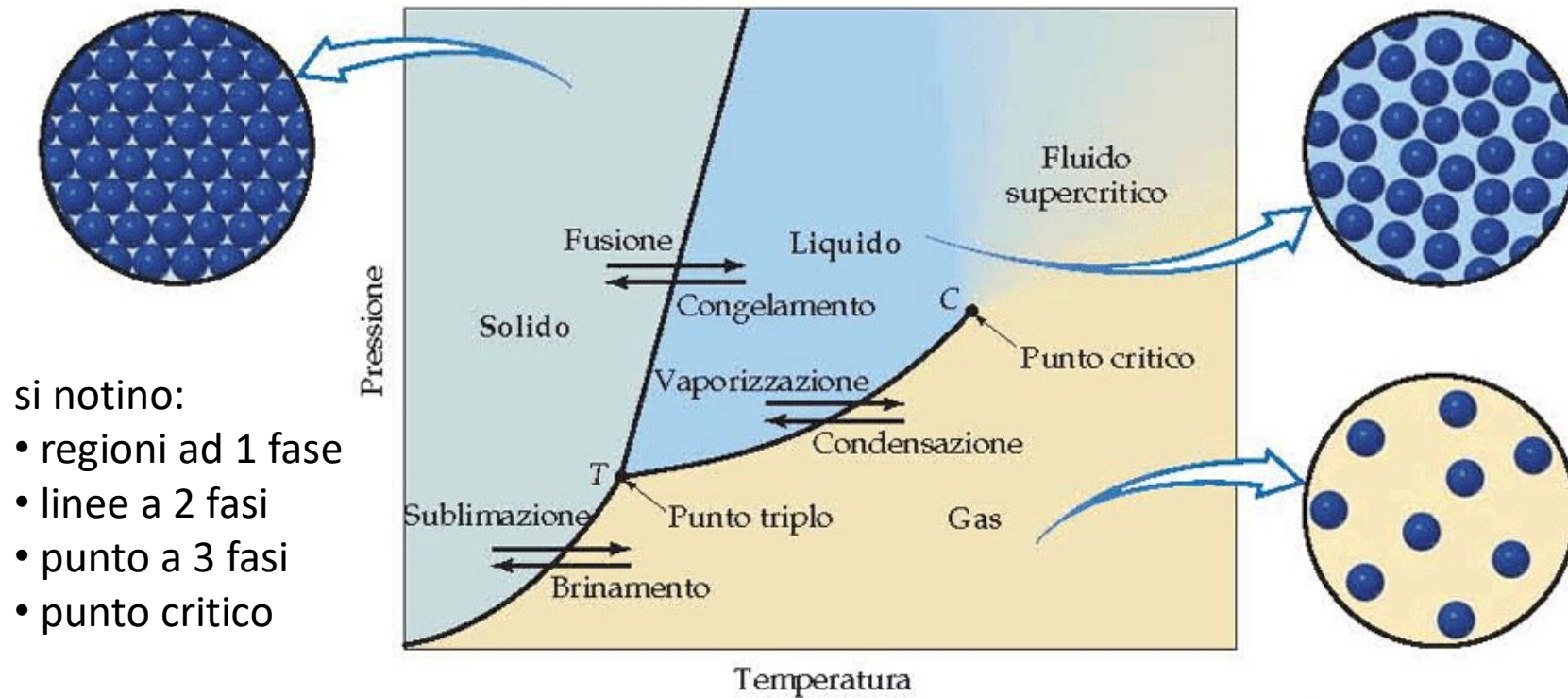


diagrammi di fase (o di stato)

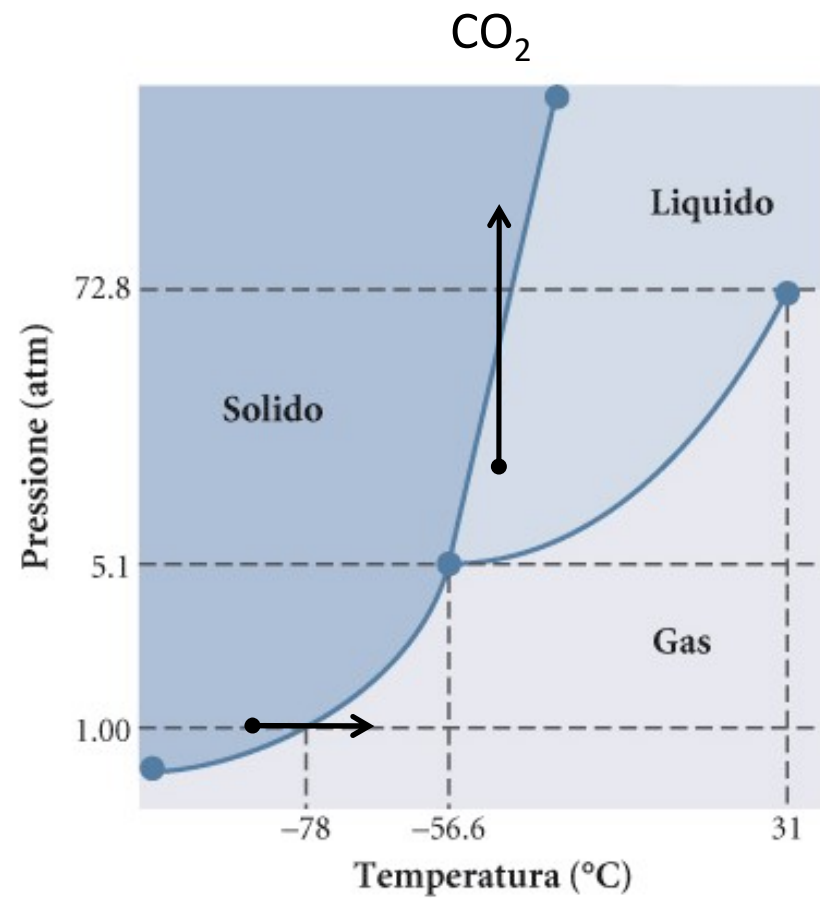
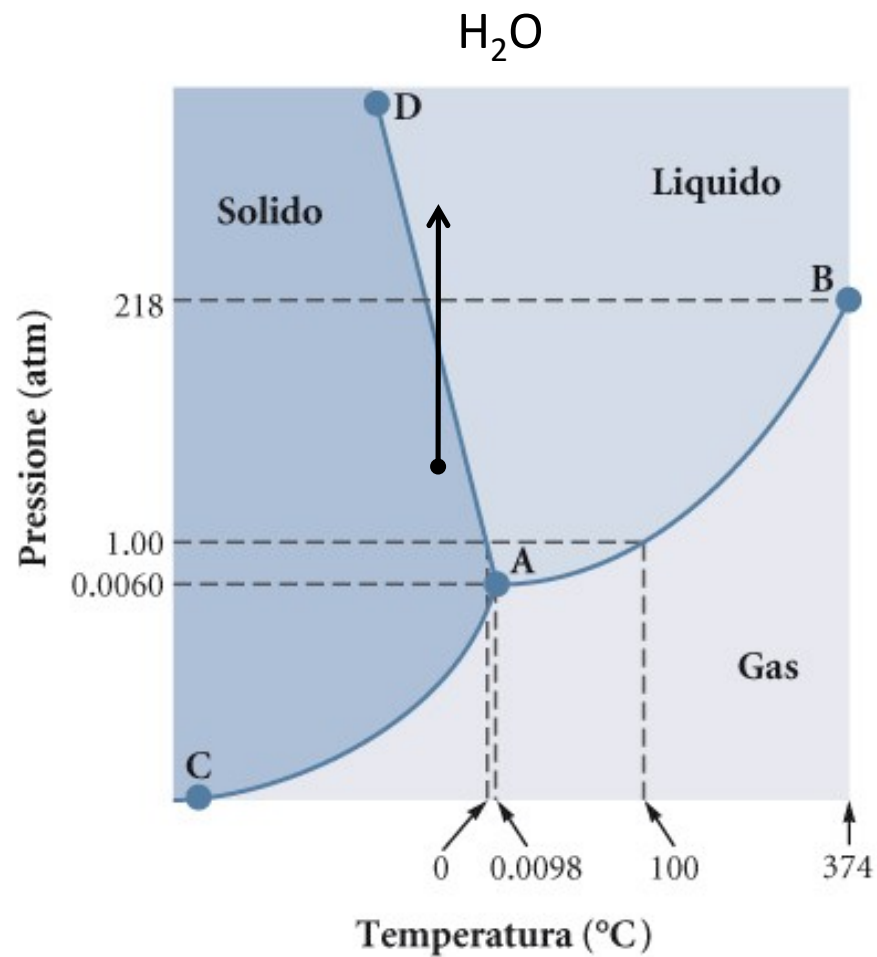
per una sostanza pura

diagramma che rappresenta la fase (o stato) di un sistema al variare di temperatura e pressione

esempio di diagramma di stato (generico)

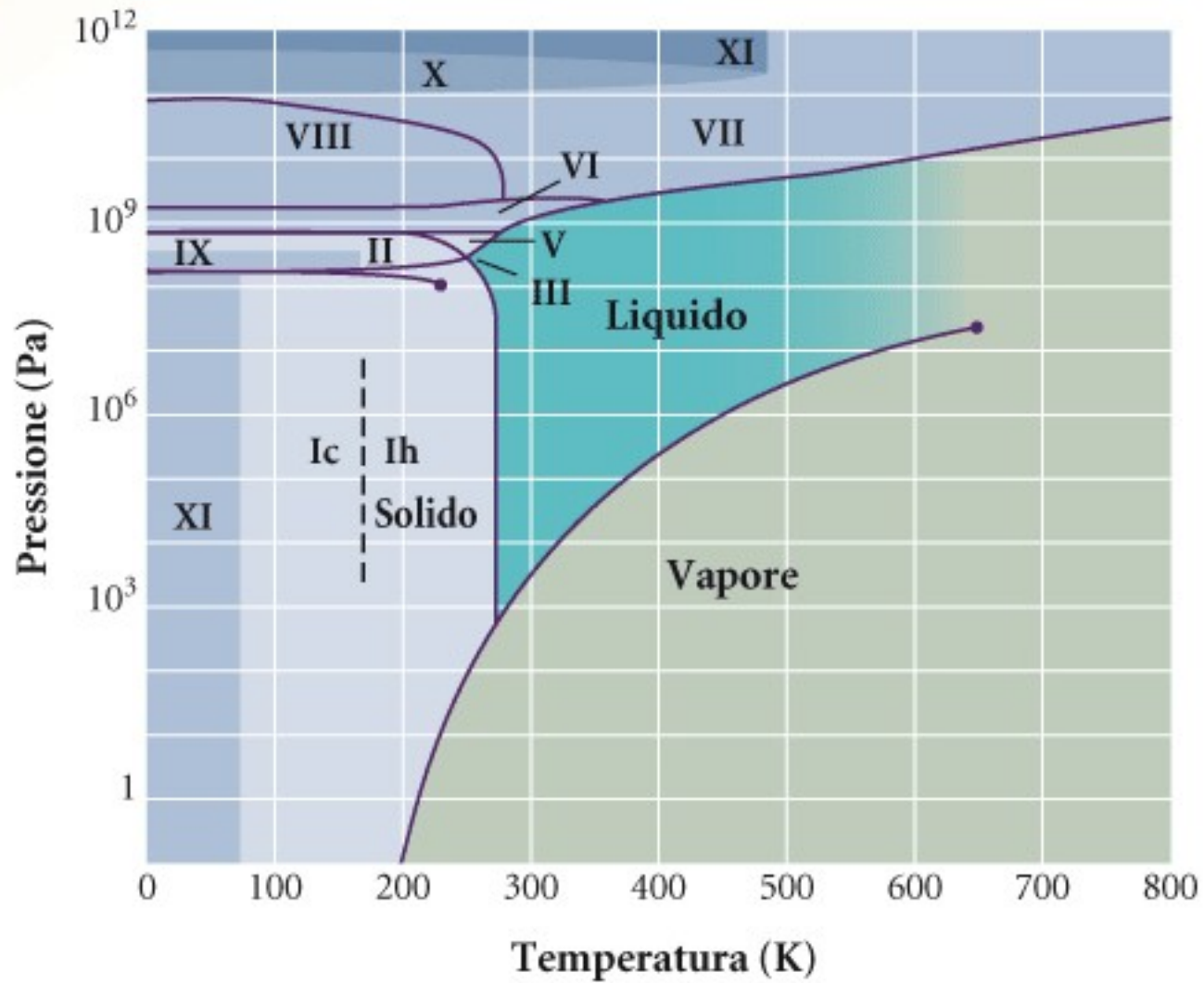


diagrammi di stato per H_2O e CO_2



- pendenza linea solido/liquido
- posizione punto triplo (CO_2 sublima a 1atm)

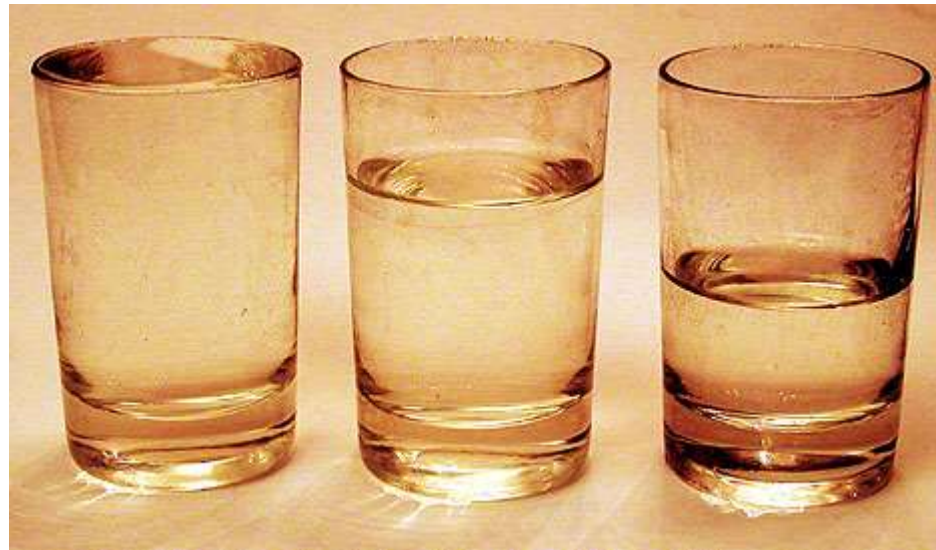
diagramma di stato esteso per H₂O



sistemi fuori dall' equilibrio

molti sistemi "reali" fuori dall'equilibrio

(ad esempio, evaporazione bicchiere d'acqua)



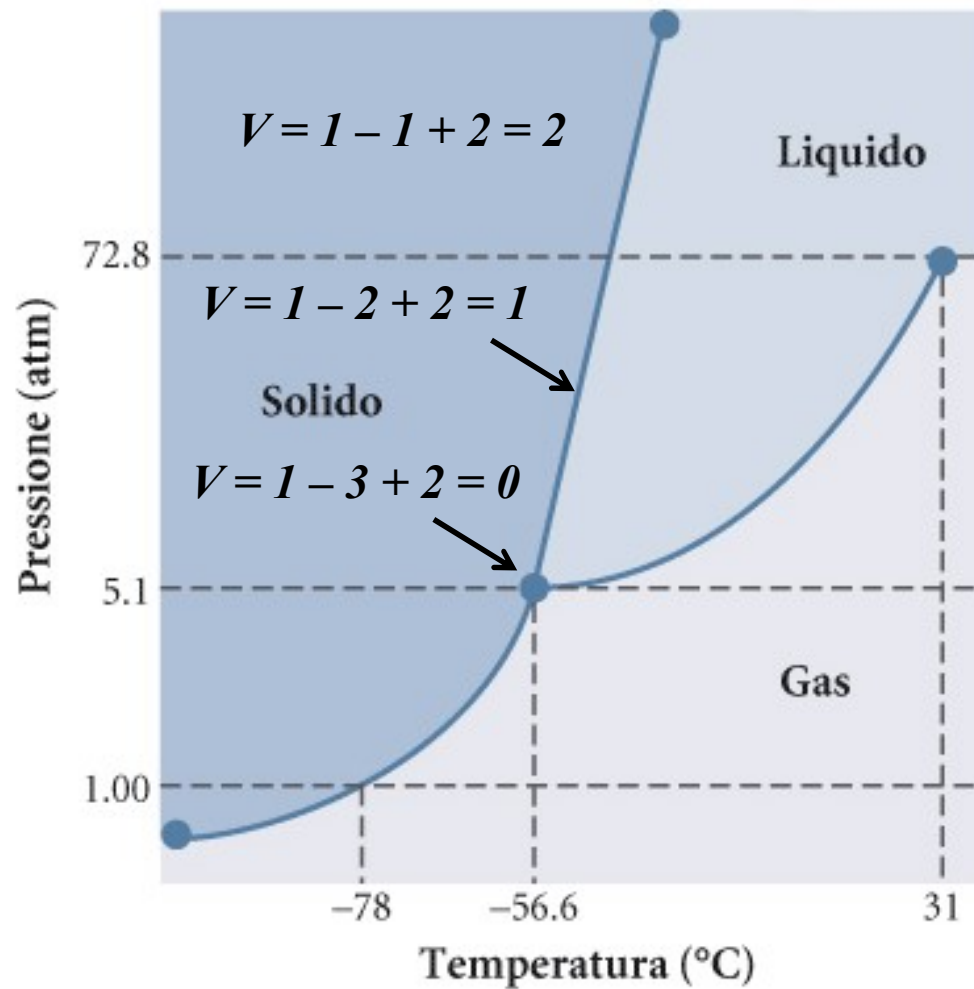
sistemi fuori dall'equilibrio

molti sistemi “reali” fuori dall'equilibrio

(ad esempio, acqua sottoraffreddata)



regola delle fasi (o della varianza)

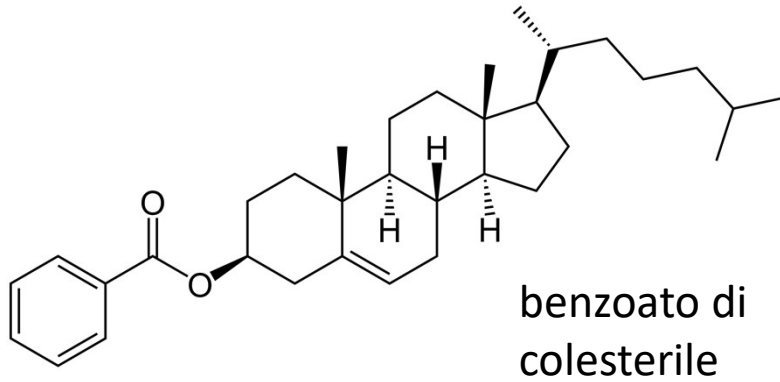


numero dei componenti numero delle fasi

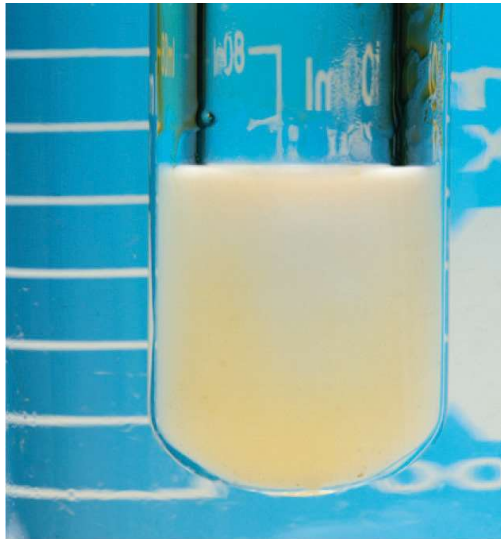
$$V = c - f + 2$$

varianza o numero dei gradi di libertà
n° variabili che posso cambiare in modo indipendente senza cambiare il numero di fasi del sistema

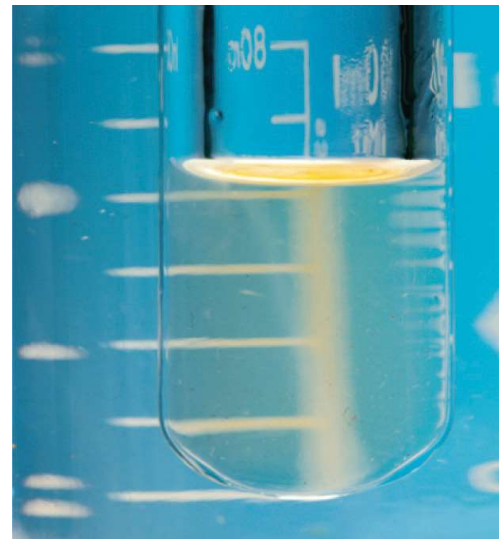
cristalli liquidi



*due punti di
fusione distinti (!)*

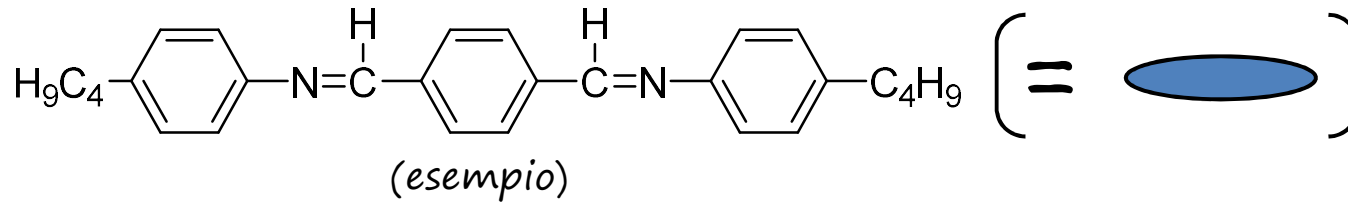


145°C



179°C

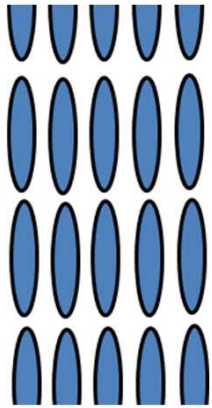
cristalli liquidi



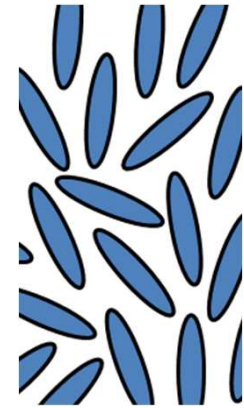
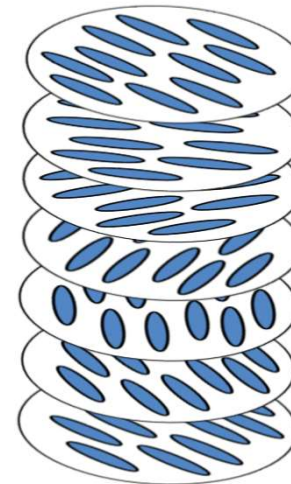
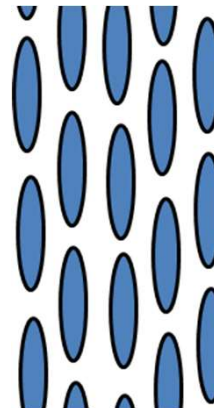
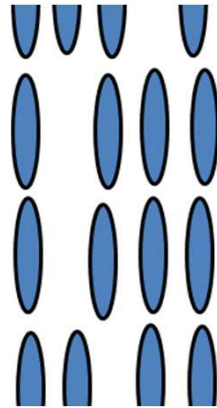
mesofase
smectica A

mesofase
nemática

mesofase
colesterica [“twisted
nematic”]



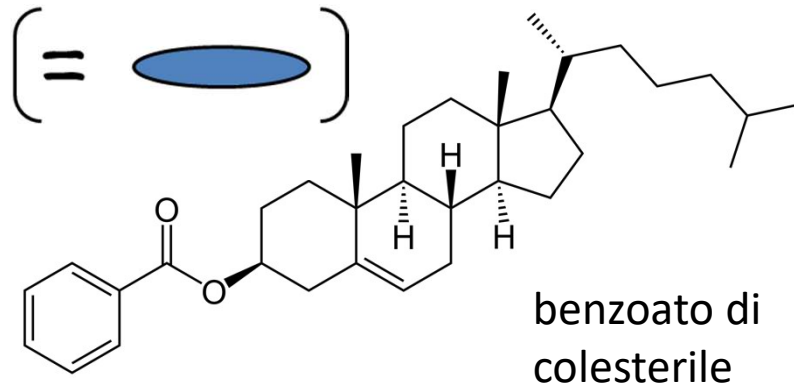
solido
cristallino
(ordinato)



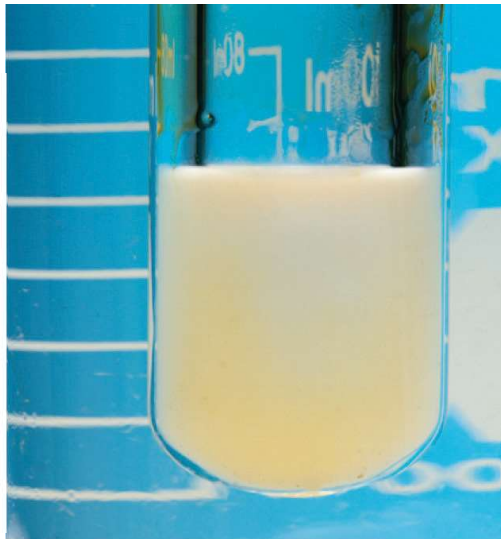
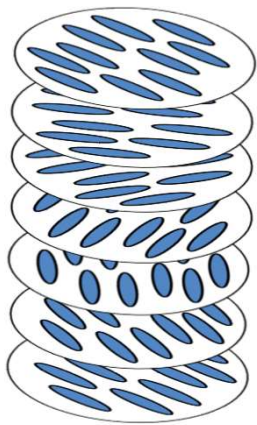
liquido
(disordinato)

cristalli liquidi
(parzialmente ordinati)

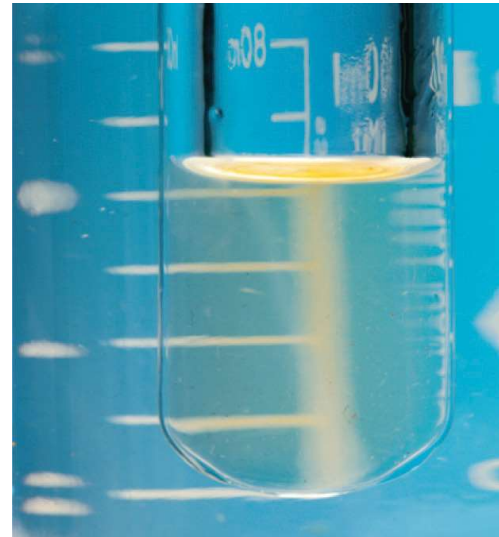
cristalli liquidi



*due punti di
fusione distinti (!)*



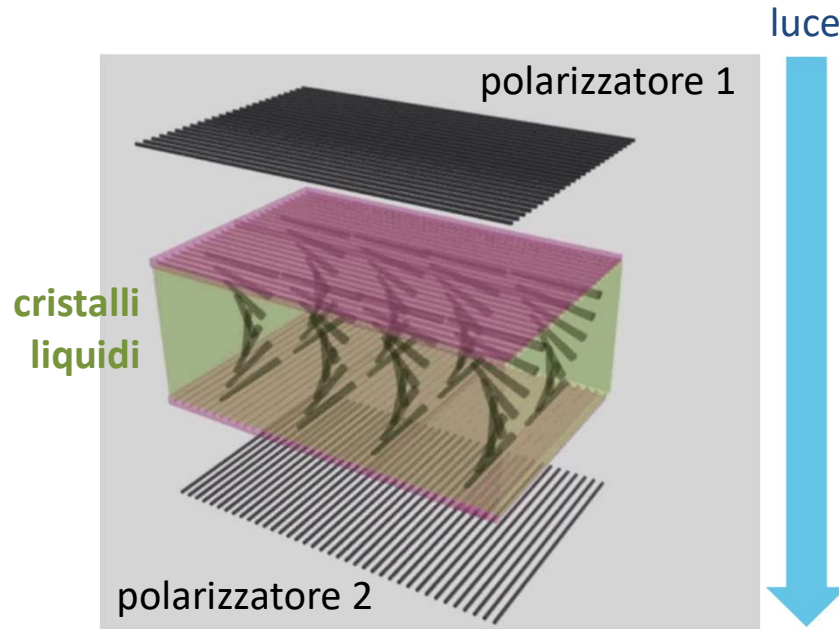
145°C
(fase colesterica)



179°C
(liquido)

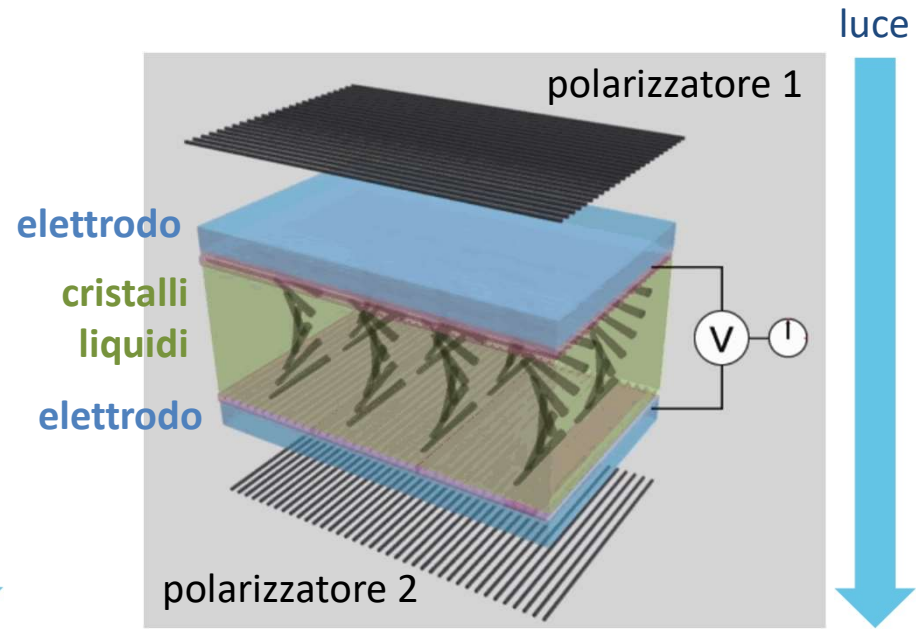


cristalli liquidi



*piano di polarizzazione
della luce ruotato da
cristalli liquidi*

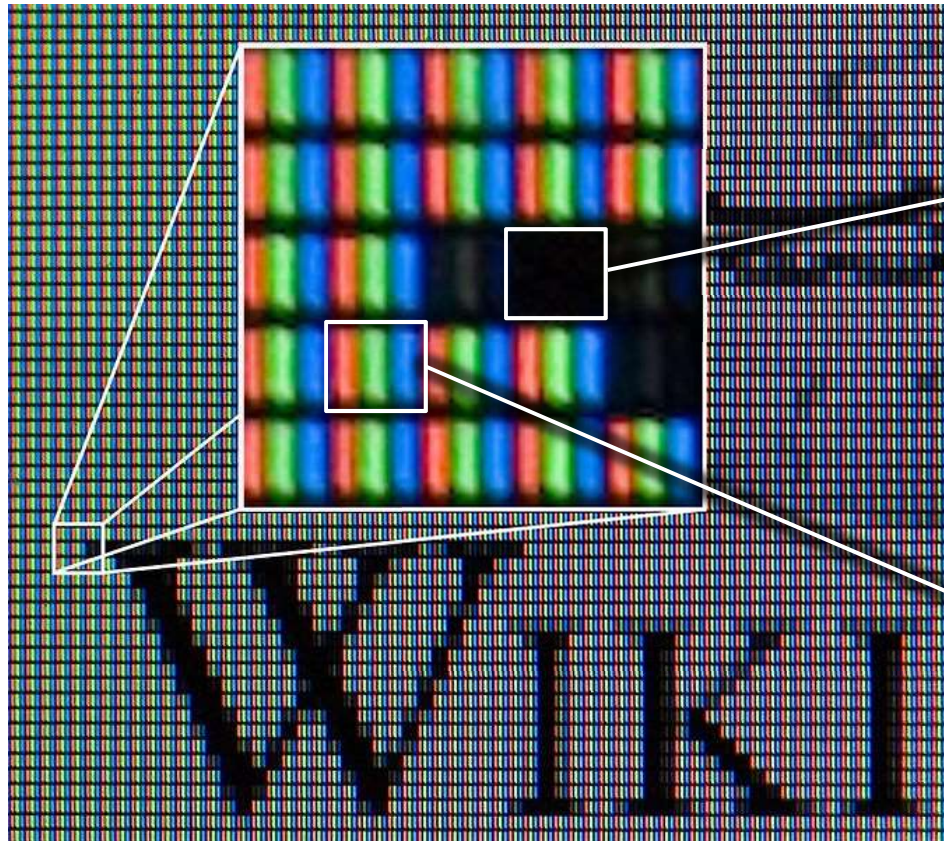
- LA LUCE PASSA -



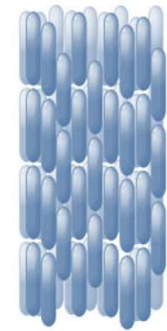
*campo elettrico allinea le
molecole, cambiando la
fase; piano di
polarizzazione non cambia*

- LA LUCE NON PASSA -

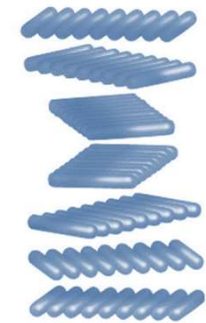
(display a) cristalli liquidi



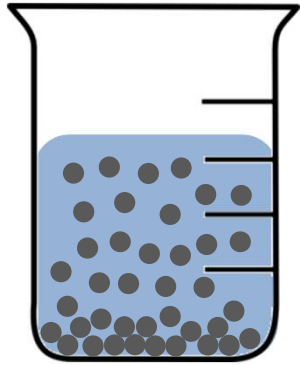
nematica



colesterica

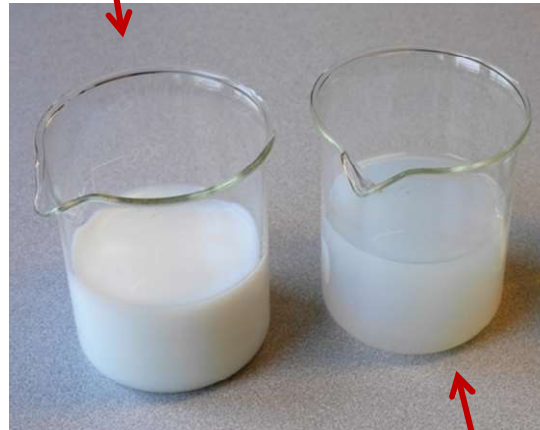


i colloidi



sospensione

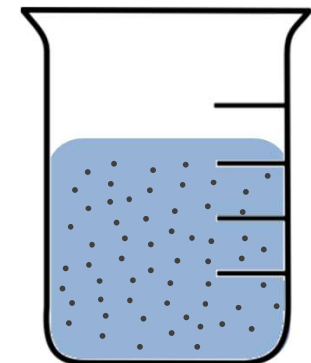
particelle di solido
sospese in un liquido
(es. sabbia in acqua)



co-esistenza
tra più stati
di aggregazione

miscela nella quale una
sostanza si trova in particelle
molto piccole

*dispersione
colloidale*



aereosol
(dispersioni colloidali di solido (o liquido) in un gas)



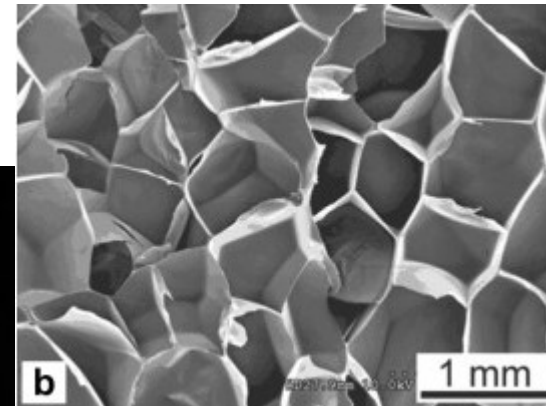
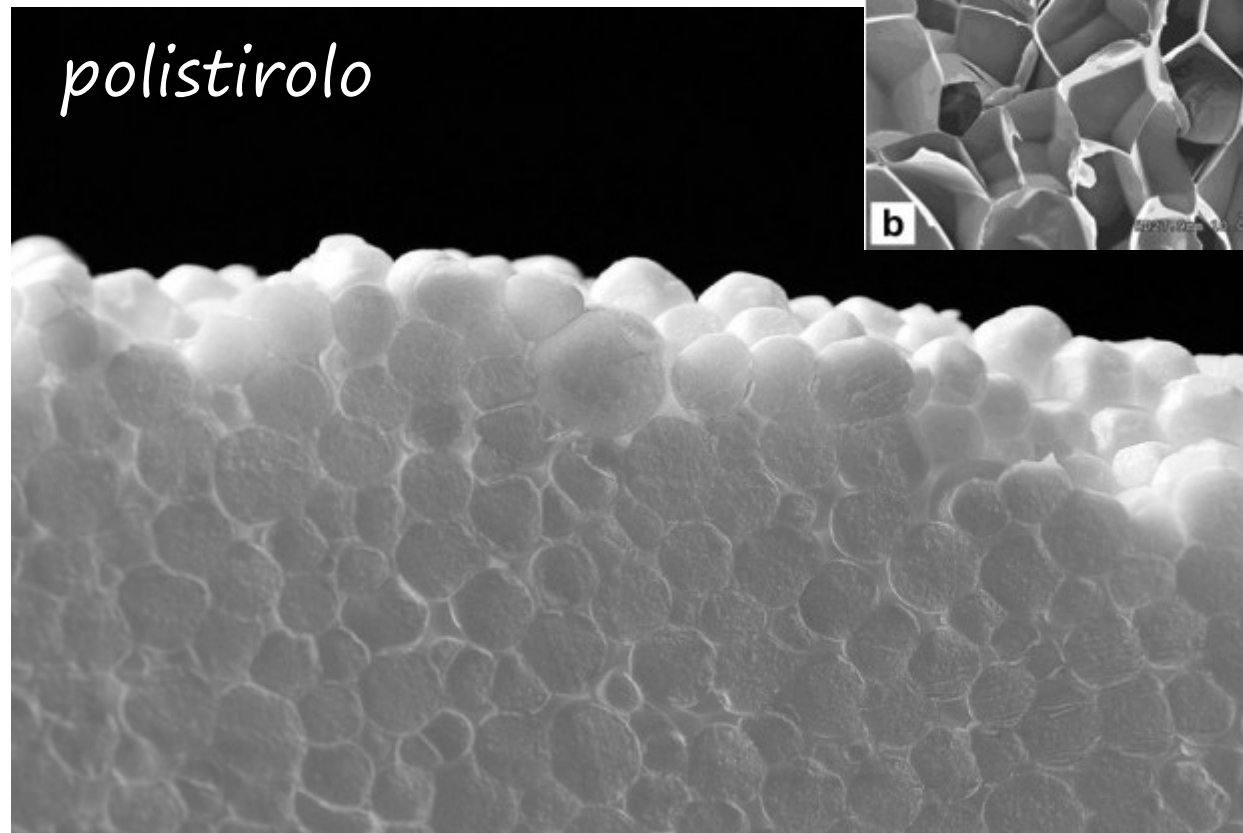
fumo

nebbia, nubi



schiume

(dispersioni colloidali di gas in solido (o liquido))



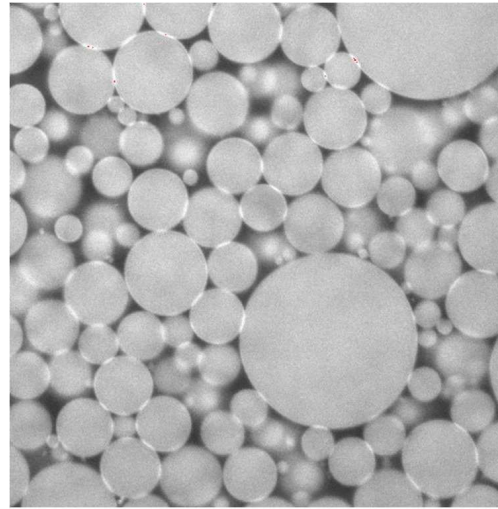
schiume
(dispersioni colloidali di gas in solido (o liquido))



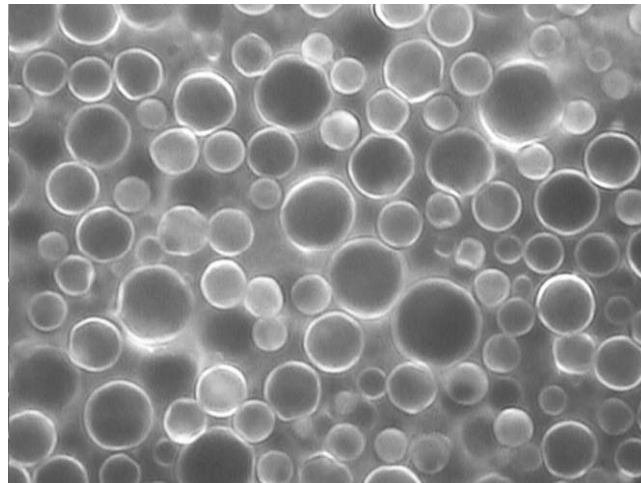
emulsioni

(dispersioni colloidali di liquido in liquido)

*particelle di
grassi
disperse in
fase acquosa*



maionese



latte

i colloidi

classificazione

nome	mezzo disperdente	fase dispersa	esempi
aerosol	gas	liquido	<i>nebbia, nuvole</i>
aerosol	gas	solido	<i>fumo</i>
schiuma	liquido	gas	<i>schiuma da barba, panna</i>
schiuma	solido	gas	<i>polistirolo</i>
emulsione	liquido	liquido	<i>maionese, latte</i>
gel	solido	liquido	<i>gelatina, formaggio, burro</i>
sol	liquido	solido	<i>fango, gel di silice</i>

i colloidi

effetto Tyndall

