

PHY 117 HS2023

Week 7, Lecture 1

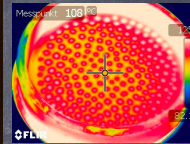
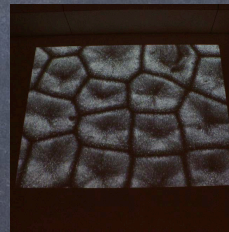
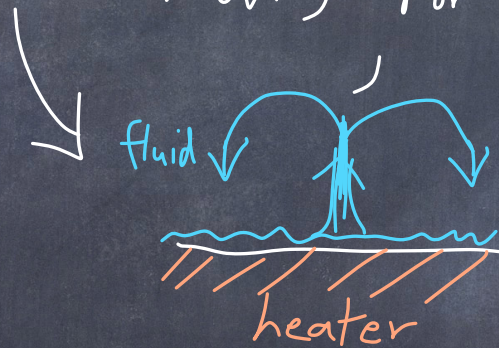
Oct. 29th, 2024

Prof. Ben Kilminster

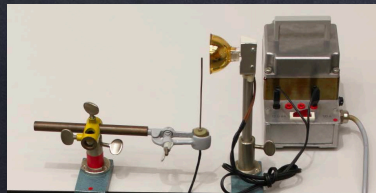
Note: $1 \text{ cal} = 4.184 \text{ J}$
 $1 \text{ Cal} = 1 \text{ kcal} = 4.184 \text{ kJ}$

Transfer of thermal energy is done by
3 main processes: 1) convection
2) radiation
3) conduction

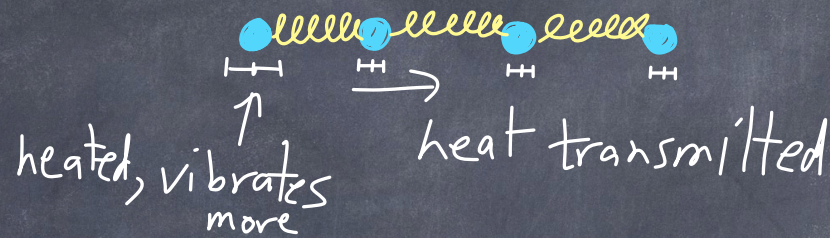
1) convection: heat transported by a mass of material moving. For instance, hot air is less dense and it rises.



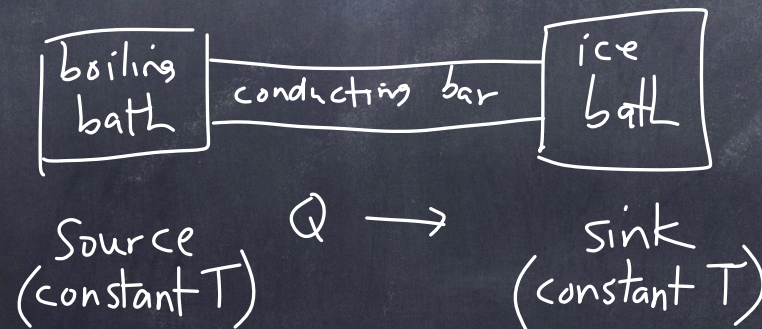
2) radiation: energy absorbed + emitted in electromagnetic radiation (visible light, infrared light, x-rays)



3) Conduction: thermal energy transferred by interaction between atoms, molecules.



Consider a solid bar connecting a bath of boiling water to a bath of ice water (we use dry ice $\text{CO}_2 + \text{C}_2\text{H}_6$ ^{ethane} -78.5°C)



Heat will flow uniformly across the bar and the temperature of the bar will vary.

thermal current \downarrow

heat \downarrow

material property: coefficient of thermal conductivity \downarrow

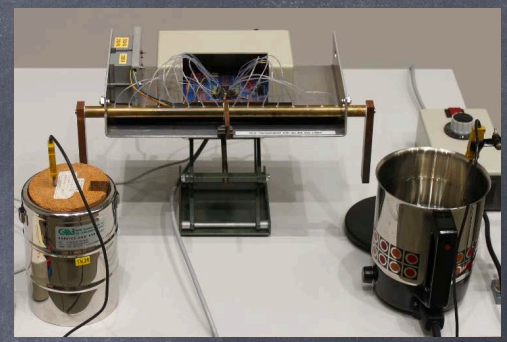
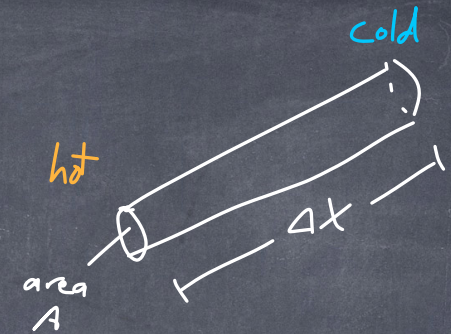
$$I = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta t} = k A \frac{\Delta T}{\Delta x}$$

temp. \leftarrow

time \uparrow

area \uparrow

position \leftarrow



I has units of $\left[\frac{J}{s}\right] = [W]$
(power)

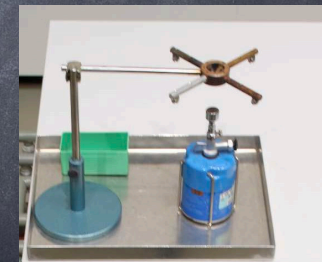
$$\Delta T = I R$$

where $R = \frac{\Delta x}{k A}$ is thermal resistance

small increments: $I = \frac{dQ}{dt} = k A \frac{dT}{dx}$

coefficient of thermal conductivity, k

<u>materials</u>	<u>k</u>	units $\left[\frac{W}{m \cdot K} \right]$
air	0.026	
ice	0.592	
Copper	401	
wood	0.11-0.15	
glass	~ 0.8	
aluminum	237	

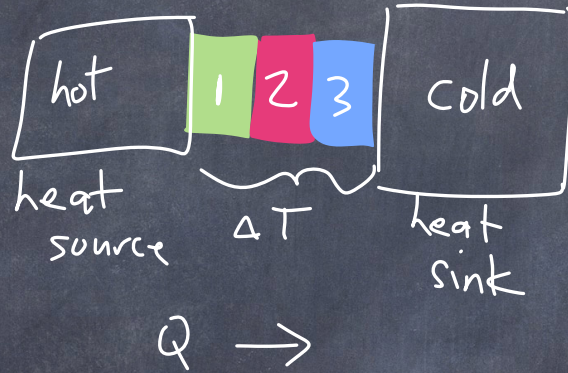


What is R for a cylinder of copper?



$$R = \frac{\Delta x}{kA} = \frac{0.3 \text{ m}}{\left(400 \frac{\text{W}}{\text{m}\cdot\text{K}}\right) \pi (0.01 \text{ m})^2} = 2.9 \frac{\text{K}}{\text{W}}$$

materials in series

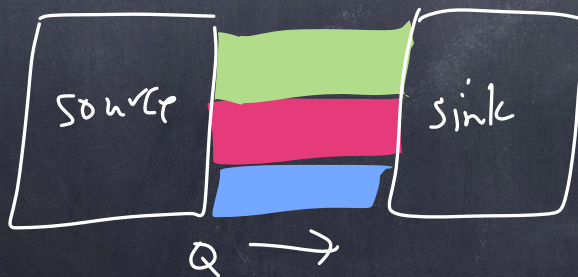


$$R_{\text{eq}} = R_1 + R_2 + R_3 + \dots$$

$$\Delta T = R_{\text{eq}} \cdot I$$

R_{eq} increases, I decreases

materials in parallel



$$\frac{1}{R_{\text{eq}}} = \frac{1}{R_1} + \frac{1}{R_2} + \frac{1}{R_3}$$

$$\Delta T = R_{\text{eq}} \cdot I$$

R_{eq} decreases, I increases

Thermal expansion of solids

T_0 
 L_0 (length)

$T_0 + \Delta T$ 
 ΔL

T_0 : initial temp.
 L_0 : initial length
 ΔT : change in temperature

$$\Delta L = \alpha L_0 \Delta T \rightarrow dL = \alpha L_0 dT$$

α : coefficient of linear expansion

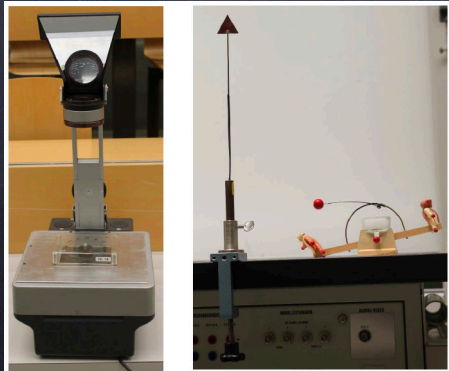
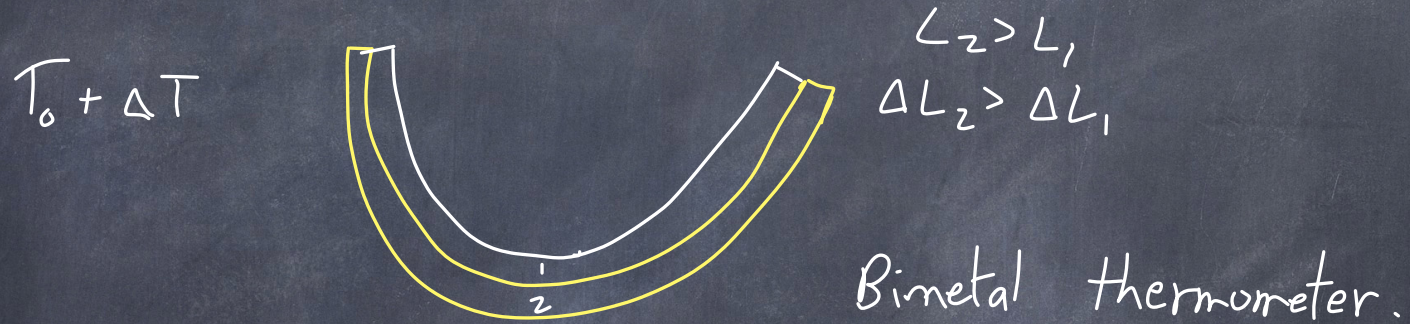
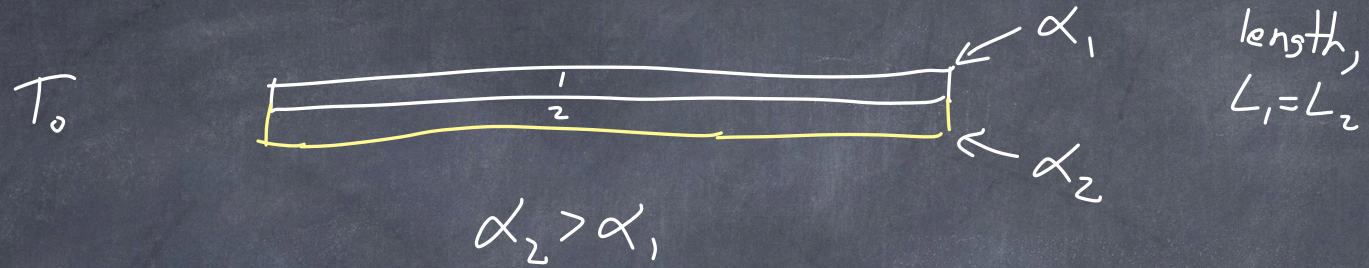
units $\left[\frac{1}{K} \right]$ or $\left[\frac{1}{^\circ C} \right]$

Material

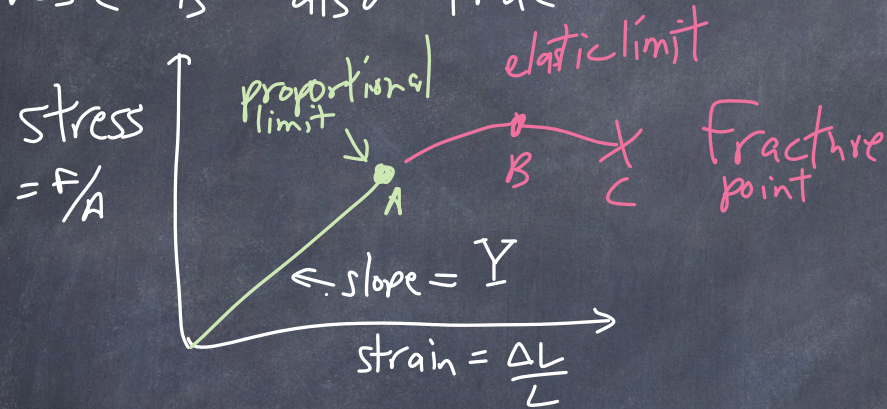
$\alpha \left[\frac{1}{K} \right]$

Aluminium	$24 \text{ E-}6$
Steel	$11 \text{ E-}6$
copper	$17 \text{ E-}6$
brass	$19 \text{ E-}6$
ice	$51 \text{ E-}6$
water (20°C)	$0.207 \text{ E-}3$
alcohol	$1.1 \text{ E-}3$

we can turn this into a thermometer,



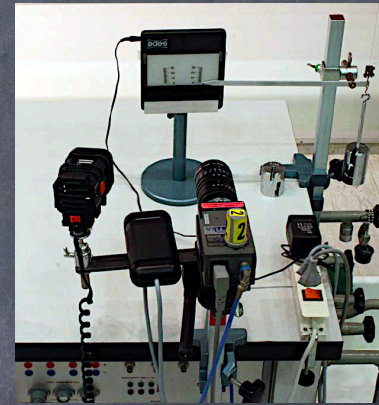
Take this opportunity to point out that a change in length, $\frac{\Delta L}{L}$, called a "strain", exerts a force per area, $\frac{F}{A}$, called a "stress" on a material. The reverse is also true.



$$\frac{\text{stress}}{\text{strain}} = \text{Young's modulus} = Y = \frac{F}{A} \div \frac{\Delta L}{L}$$

Up to point A, the curve is linear and has a slope of Y

→ but then deformation and fractures happen



<u>material</u>	<u>Y</u> $\left[\frac{GN}{m^2}\right]$
steel	200
lead	16
gold	8

We can create a strain, for instance, with a thermal expansion, and this will generate a stress according to Y .

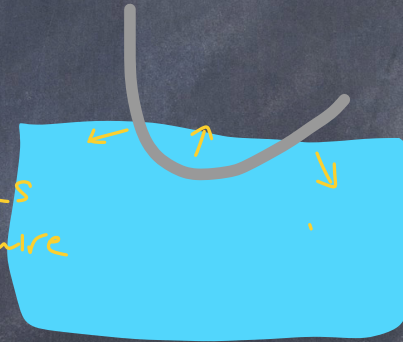


work done by heat



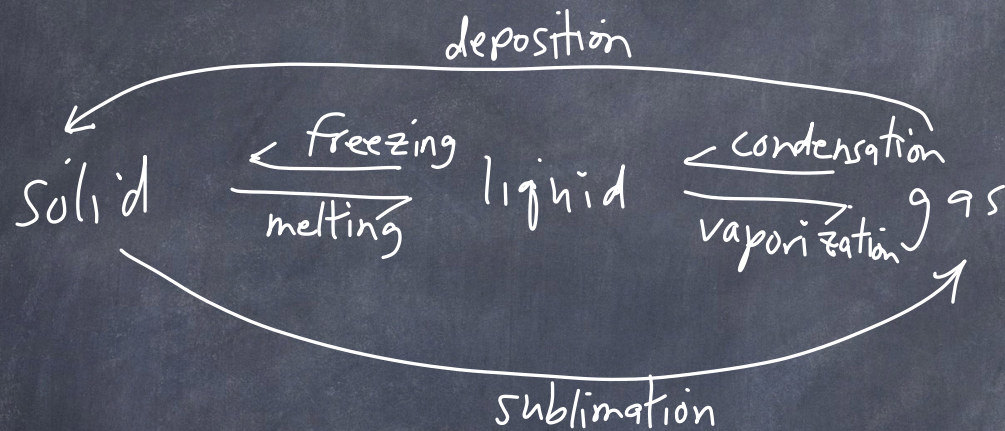
Shape memory alloys
remember their original molecular
configuration at high temperatures.

asymmetric forces
tend to straighten wire
when heated



most materials don't do this

Sometimes when heat is absorbed or emitted, the material undergoes a phase change



Freezing or melting

$$Q = mL_f$$

heat required to change phase (+) or (-) →

mass of material →

latent heat of fusion of material →

condensation or vaporization

$$Q = mL_v$$

latent heat of vaporization →

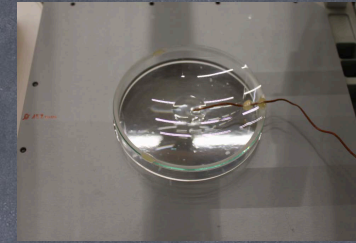
	Melting point [K]	latent heat of Fusion L_f [$\frac{kJ}{kg}$]	Boiling point [K]	latent heat of vaporization L_v [$\frac{kJ}{kg}$]	specific heat C [$\frac{kJ}{kg \cdot K}$]
Gold	1336	62.8	3081	1701	0.126
water	-	333.5	373.15	2257	4.18
lead	600	24.7	2023	858	0.128
alcohol	159	109	351	879	2.4
ice	273.15	333.5	-	-	2.05

water good for storing heat & not changing phase

lead good for bullets

During evaporation, a liquid loses heat and decreases in temperature.

Experiment.



Macroscopic: we put liquid alcohol in a dish, and measure the liquid temperature as the alcohol evaporates. The temperature decreases...

$$\Delta Q_{\text{liquid}} = -\Delta m L_v$$

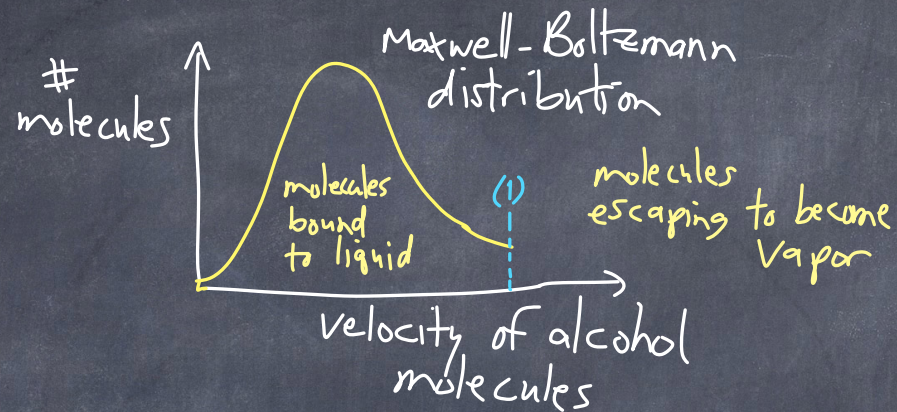
↑
heat loss depends on how much mass Δm evaporates.

This changes the temperature of the liquid according to

$$\Delta Q_{\text{liquid}} = m_r c \Delta T$$

↑
remaining mass of liquid, m_r

Microscopic scale:

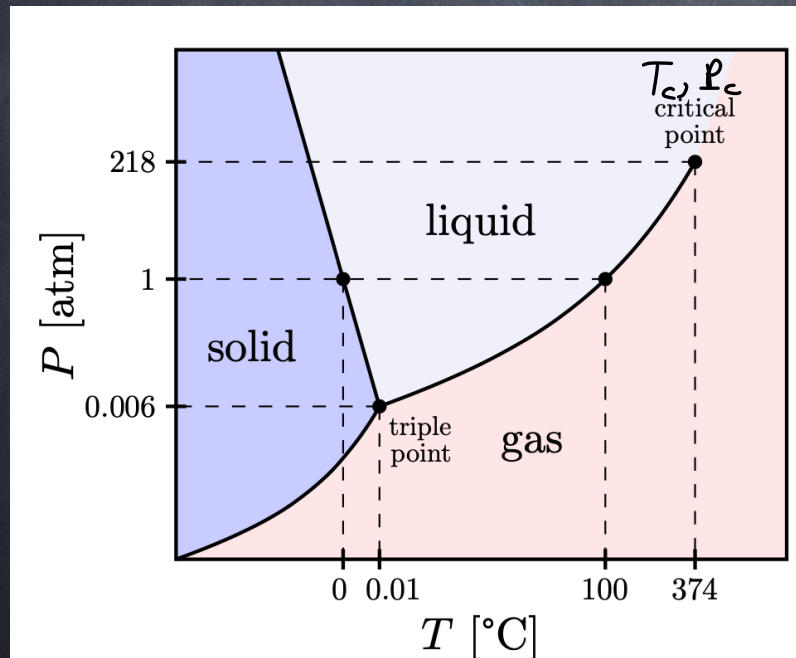


The alcohol liquid is composed of alcohol molecules, with a velocity distribution like the one above. Molecules are bound to the liquid by a potential energy barrier. Above a certain velocity⁽¹⁾, molecules have enough velocity to overcome the potential energy holding them.

Since the fastest molecules are the hottest ones, when they escape, the remaining liquid gets cooler. This is why sweating cools your body.

Phase diagram for a material,
shown for P vs. T

One can determine the state of a material.



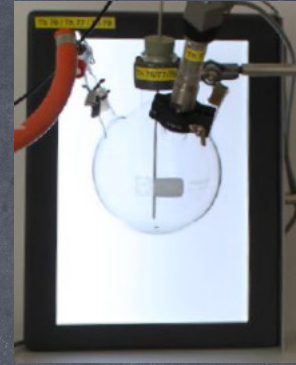
1) Along lines, 2 phases
solid black can exist
Away from lines, 1 phase exists

2) At triple point, all 3 phases
can exist

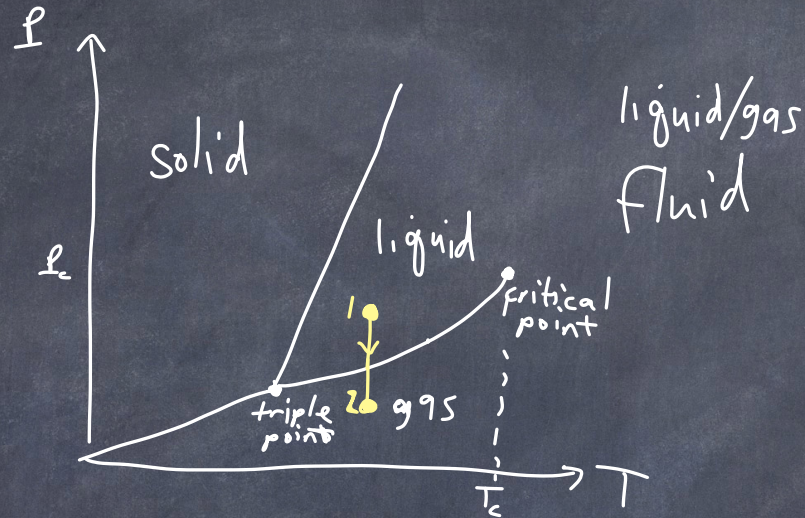
3) At T_c, P_c , density of liquid
& gas phases are the same.
For $T > T_c$ and $P > P_c$,
there is no distinction
between liquid and gas.

P_c : critical pressure
 T_c : critical temperature

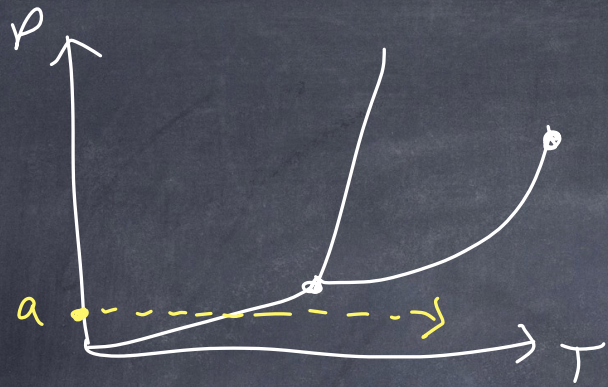
Expt: Boiling by vacuum.



phase diagram for water.



In this experiment, we move along the phase diagram for water from point 1 ($22^{\circ}\text{C}, 1000\text{hPa}$) to point 2 ($22^{\circ}\text{C}, 30\text{hPa}$). We ^{should} see the water boil.



If we move along line (a), we heat at constant pressure. We are below the triple ^{point} pressure, so we go from solid to gas.

CO_2 sublimates solid to gas at 1 atm because triple point is at 5.1 atm ($a = P_{\text{atm}} = 1 \text{ atm}$)

Back to ideal gas. we can add heat while keeping pressure constant or volume constant.

The heat will change the internal energy differently.

C_v : heat capacity $[\text{J/mol}\cdot\text{K}]$ at constant volume

C_p : heat capacity at constant pressure.

There is a relationship between the two.

At constant volume, we add heat to a gas.

$$Q = \Delta U + \cancel{W}^0 \quad (\text{no work is done, since } V \text{ is constant})$$

$$\Delta U = Q = C_v \Delta T$$

$$\text{As } \Delta T \rightarrow 0, \quad dU = C_v dT$$

$$C_v = \frac{dU}{dT} \quad \textcircled{1}$$

Note: $c = \frac{C}{m}$ ← heat capacity
↑
specific heat $[\text{J/kg}\cdot\text{K}]$ · $m = \text{mass kg}$
 $[\text{J/mol}\cdot\text{K}]$

At constant pressure, we add heat to a gas.
The gas will expand.

$$Q = \Delta U + W$$

$$C_p \Delta T = \Delta U + P \Delta V$$

for small changes, $C_p dT = dU + P dV$ (2)

rewrite $P dV$:

$$PV = nRT \rightarrow P dV = nR dT$$
 (3)

put (1) + (3) into (2):

$$C_p dT = C_v dT + nR dT$$

$$C_p = C_v + nR$$

for an ideal gas

$$C_p > C_v \text{ by } nR$$

The ratio of the heat capacities
is dimensionless. $\frac{C_p}{C_v} = \gamma$

For an ideal monatomic gas, $C_v = \frac{3}{2}nR$ $C_p = \frac{5}{2}nR$

so $\gamma = \frac{5}{3}$.

For an ideal diatomic gas,

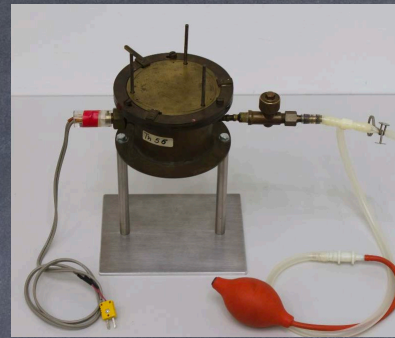
$C_v = \frac{5}{2}nR$, $C_p = \frac{7}{2}nR \Rightarrow \gamma = \frac{7}{5}$



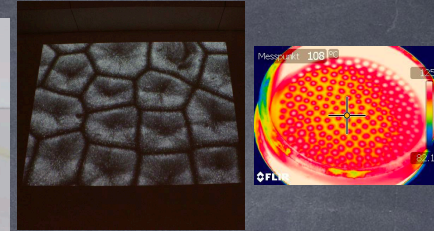
Th81



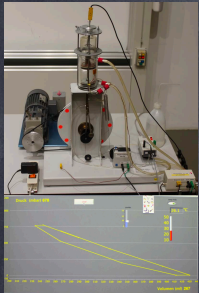
Th34



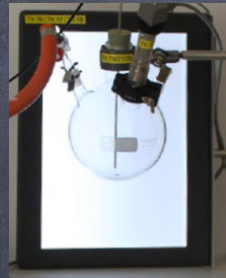
Th55



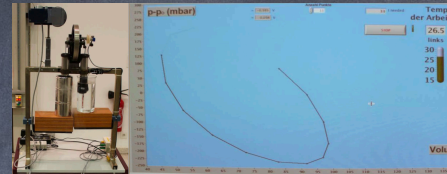
Th35



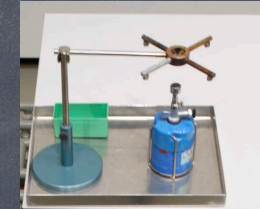
Th70



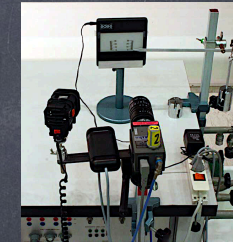
Th77



Th68



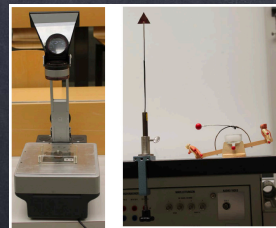
Th20



E12



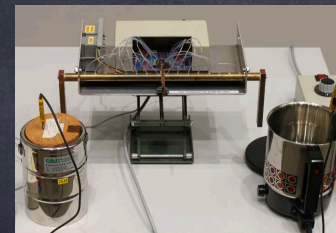
Th19



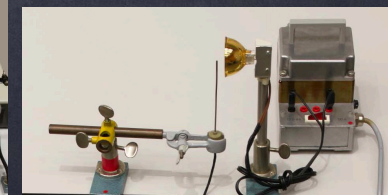
Th14



Th2



Th22



Th48