


ch 16 Temperature & Heat

Temperature: a macroscopic property (can be sensed & measured with simple instruments) that is a consequence of the microscopic behavior of matter.


From a fridge
40 °F

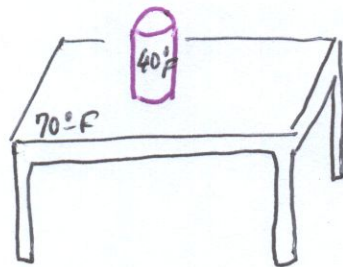
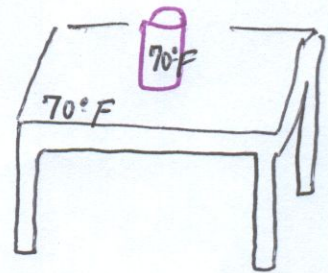


Table @ room
temperature 70 °F
@ 12:00 PM



@ 4:00 PM

- 1) Soda can was placed in thermal contact with table at higher temperature
- 2) Soda can absorbed heat and got its temperature raised.

Conclusion: two objects in thermal contact can exchange heat to arrive at a thermodynamic equilibrium or same temperature.

Temperature can be measured using thermometers (gas at constant volume, mercury Hg, electronic, etc...)

→ Different scales or units

Fahrenheit °F	:	$T_F = T_C \frac{9}{5} + 32$
Celsius °C (S.I.)	:	$T_C = \frac{5}{9} (T_F - 32)$
Kelvin °K (S.I.)	:	$T_C = T_K - 273.16^\circ$

Triple point of water : 273.16 °K

↳ gas, liquid, solid coexist @ this temp.

Fahrenheit

Reason for adoption

Body temp ~ 100 °F

Celsius

Water boiling temp ~ 100 °C

Kelvin

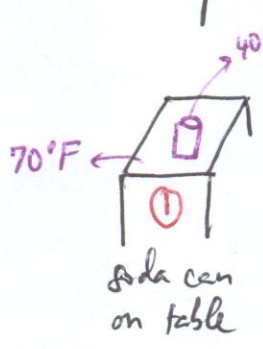
No negative temp in °K (0 °K = lowest temp. in the universe)

Physics is most importantly quantitative ↔ predictions ↔ equations:

Heat transfer (or exchange) rate H: how fast heat is transferred.

(intuitive)

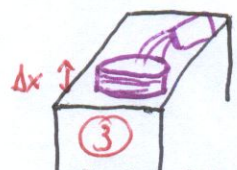
↓
compare different intuitive situations:



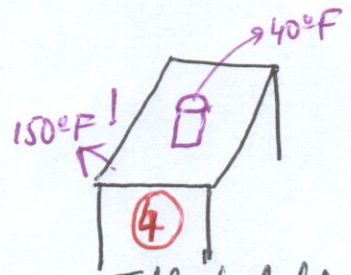
①
soda can on table



②
soda poured out on plate



③
thick plate same surface area



④
Table heated to 150 °F before soda is placed on

↓
Faster heat transfer:
larger thermal contact area b/w soda & table

Slower than ②
some contact area but heat needs to travel through Δx

Faster than ①
due to larger temperature difference

$H = \ominus k \cdot \frac{A}{\Delta x} \Delta T$ → Heat loss rate (heat transfer out of)

k: thermal constant, depends on materials (better thermal conductors have high k)

A: contact surface area b/w the two objects (area → m²)

Δx: thickness of contact medium (length → m)

ΔT: temperature difference b/w two objects (temp → °K)

H: heat transfer rate or work per unit time ($\frac{J}{s}$ → W)

Unit for thermal constant k : Dimensional Analysis:

3

Basic dimensions

- Length L
- mass M
- time T
- temperature T

Work or energy or heat = $[E] = \left[\frac{1}{2} \right] [m] [v]^2 = M \cdot \frac{L^2}{T^2}$

(Numbers have no dimension)

$$[k] = \frac{[H] [\Delta x]}{[A] [\Delta T]} = \frac{\frac{[E]}{T_{(time)}} \cdot k}{L^2 \cdot T_{(temp)}} = \frac{[E]}{T_{time}} \cdot \frac{1}{L \cdot T_{temp}}$$

units:

S.I. $\frac{W}{m \cdot ^\circ K}$
 British: $\frac{Btu \cdot in}{h \cdot ft^2 \cdot ^\circ F}$

Thermal constant \mathcal{R} & R (R-factor): $\mathcal{R} \equiv \frac{\Delta x}{k}$

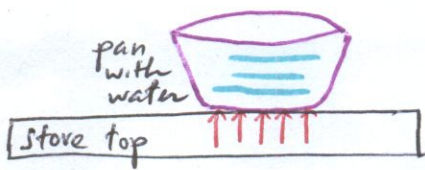
→ Larger \mathcal{R} is better insulator

→ $H = -k \frac{A}{\Delta x} \Delta T = -\frac{A}{\mathcal{R}} \Delta T$

→ Units for \mathcal{R}

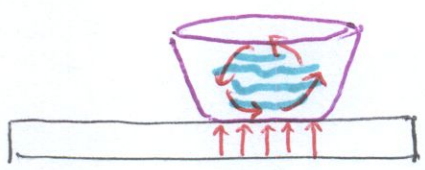
- S.I.: $\frac{m^2 \cdot ^\circ K}{W}$
- British: $\frac{ft^2 \cdot ^\circ F}{Btu/h}$

Mechanisms of Heat Transfer: conduction, convection, radiation

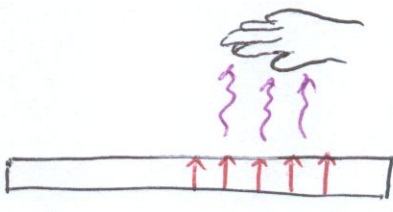


Pan: metal wall & bottom

1) From stove top to bottom of pan: free electrons in metal bottom receive heat \rightarrow higher KE \rightarrow move faster \rightarrow hit other electrons more frequently and with more energy. Heat ~~by air~~ transfer by conduction through bottom of pan to lowest H_2O molecules



2) H_2O molecules transfer heat to each other by convection



3) Heat transfer from stove top to hand by radiation (no materials are needed, happens in outer space).
Other example: heat from sun

Convection:

AC outlets are installed high : cold air molecules will sink
Baseboard heaters are installed low : hot air molecules will rise

Why? → hot air molecules → more K.E → more active : larger average separation b/w molecules → lower density → pushed up by buoyancy (this only happens ~~with~~ in fluid ↔ with materials)
→ cold air molecules → less K.E → less active : less average separation b/w molecules → higher density → sinked by gravity

These two processes form the convection cycle

Radiation:

Stefan - Boltzman Law:

Heat loss rate by radiation of an object of area A & temperature T is given by:

$$P = e \cdot \sigma \cdot A \cdot T^4$$

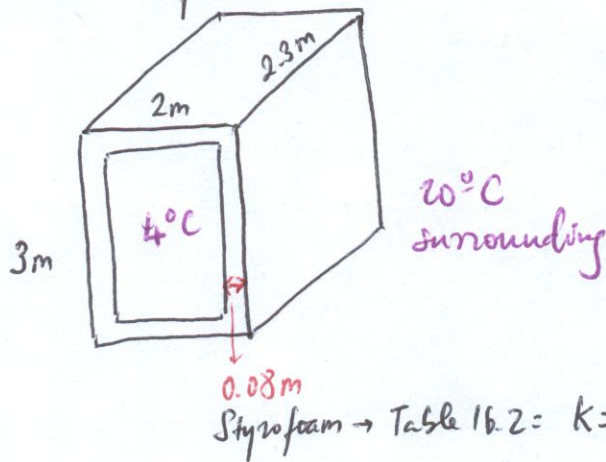
↑
emissivity constant
emissivity constant (no dimension)

Stefan - Boltzman constant

$$\sigma = 5.67 \cdot 10^{-8} \frac{W}{m^2 \cdot K^4}$$

16.57

Step 1: diagram with information



if there was no refrigeration: heat is transferred into cooler @ rate $H_{\text{surrounding}} = -k \frac{A}{\Delta x} \Delta T$

Step 2: relevant equation(s)

$$H_{\text{cooler}} = +k \frac{A}{\Delta x} \Delta T$$

$$\Delta x = 0.08 \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Temp. difference } \Delta T = \begin{cases} 20^\circ\text{C} - 4^\circ\text{C} = 16^\circ\text{C} = 16^\circ\text{K} \\ (20^\circ + 273.16) - (4^\circ + 273.16) = 16^\circ\text{K} \end{cases}$$

$$A = \begin{array}{l} \text{left \& right} \\ 2 \times 6.9 \text{ m}^2 \end{array} + \begin{array}{l} \text{front \& back} \\ 2 \times 6 \text{ m}^2 \end{array} + \begin{array}{l} \text{top \& bottom} \\ 2 \times 4.6 \text{ m}^2 \end{array} = 35 \text{ m}^2$$

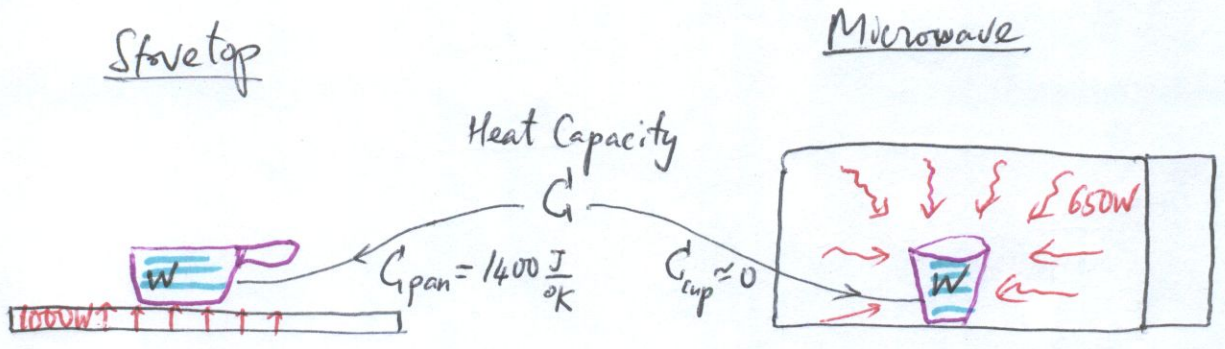
Step 3: solve for unknowns: heat removal rate by refrigeration unit:

$$H_{\text{removal}} = -k \frac{A}{\Delta x} \Delta T = -0.029 \cdot \frac{35}{0.08} \cdot 16 = -203 \text{ W}$$

16.49

What is m_w so it would be quicker to heat using stove top instead of microwave?

Step 1: Diagram with information



→ Heat capacity C ($\frac{J}{°K}$) $C \equiv m \cdot c$

↳ in SI, C is how much heat in Joules (J) is needed to raise the temperature of an object of mass m one degree kelvin ($°K$)

m : object's mass

c : specific heat (specific to material)

↳ $c_{H_2O} = 4184 \frac{J}{kg \cdot °K}$

$c_{Cu} = 386 \frac{J}{kg \cdot °K}$ (for comparison)

→ Specific heat c ($\frac{J}{kg \cdot °K}$) in SI (International System of units)

c is how much energy in Joules (J) is needed to raise the temperature of one kilogram (kg) of a specific material one degree kelvin ($°K$)

→ Total heat change $\Delta Q = C \Delta T = mc \Delta T$

change heat or increment

→ Stove top: heat supplied by stove top goes into heating pan ($C_{pan} = 1400 \frac{J}{°K}$) and heating water ($C_w = m_w 4184 \frac{J}{kg \cdot °K}$)

Microwave: heat supplied by microwave goes into heating water ($C_w = m_w 4184 \frac{J}{kg \cdot °K}$)

Step 2: Relevant equations: quicker to heat \leftrightarrow comparing times
 Δt_s & Δt_m
 (stovetop) (Microwave)

Stovetop

$$\text{Heat supply @ } 1000\text{W} = 1000 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{s}} = \frac{\Delta Q_s}{\Delta t_s}$$

$$\Delta t_s = \frac{\Delta Q_s}{1000}$$

$$= \frac{C_{\text{pan}} \cdot \Delta T + m_w C_w \cdot \Delta T}{1000}$$

Microwave

$$\text{Heat supply @ } 625\text{W} = 625 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{s}}$$

$$\frac{\Delta Q_m}{\Delta t_m} = 625 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{s}}$$

$$\Delta t_m = \frac{\Delta Q_m}{625}$$

$$= \frac{m_w C_w \cdot \Delta T}{625}$$

What m_w using stovetop would be quicker than using microwave?

$$\Delta t_s < \Delta t_m$$

$$\frac{(C_{\text{pan}} + m_w C_w) \Delta T}{1000} < \frac{m_w C_w \Delta T}{625}$$

Step 3: solve for m_w : $C_{\text{pan}} + m_w C_w < \frac{1000}{625} m_w C_w$

$$C_{\text{pan}} < \left(\frac{1000}{625} - 1 \right) m_w C_w$$

$$\frac{C_{\text{pan}}}{\left(\frac{1000}{625} - 1 \right) C_w} < m_w$$

$$\frac{1400 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{K}}}{\left(\frac{375}{625} \right) 4184 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{kg} \cdot \text{K}}} = 0.558 \text{kg} < m_w$$

Heat balance equation:

($T_1 > T_2$)

→ When two objects of different temperatures T_1 & T_2 are brought into thermal contact with each other, heat will transfer from hotter object to colder object until both arrive at a same temperature T_f (thermodynamic equilibrium)

→ If these two objects are isolated: total heat change is zero:

$$\Delta Q_1 + \Delta Q_2 = 0$$



$$\underbrace{m_1 c_1 (T_f - T_1)}_{\Delta Q_1} + \underbrace{m_2 c_2 (T_f - T_2)}_{\Delta Q_2} = 0$$

- Given $m_1, m_2, T_1, T_2 \rightarrow$ provide T_f
- Given $m_1, T_1, T_2, T_f \rightarrow$ provide m_2
- etc..

} Given a set of 4 variables (values), calculate the value of the fifth one.

Ch 17 Thermal Behavior of Matter:

↳ (i) If we continue to supply heat to a pan with boiling water, where does this heat go?

(ii) Boiling water is always @ 100°C or 373.16 K:

$$\Delta Q = mc\Delta T, \text{ since } \Delta T = 0, \Delta Q = 0$$

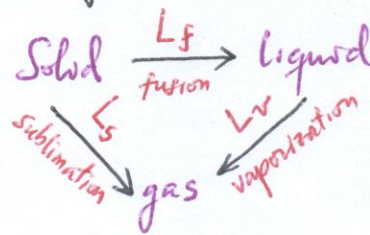
(iii) Heat supply goes into phase change liquid → gas (after a while there is no more water in pan)

When heat is supplied to matter

ΔQ

1) If temperature will change $\Delta T = \frac{\Delta Q}{m \cdot c}$

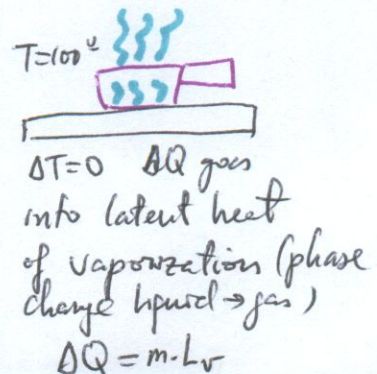
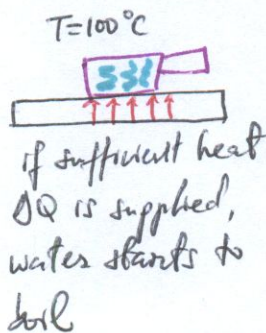
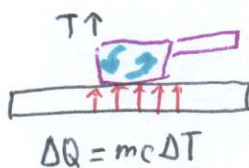
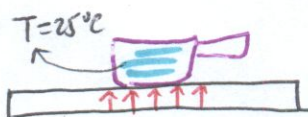
2) If sufficient heat is supplied, matter will undergo a phase change $\Delta Q = m \cdot L$ (L: latent heat)

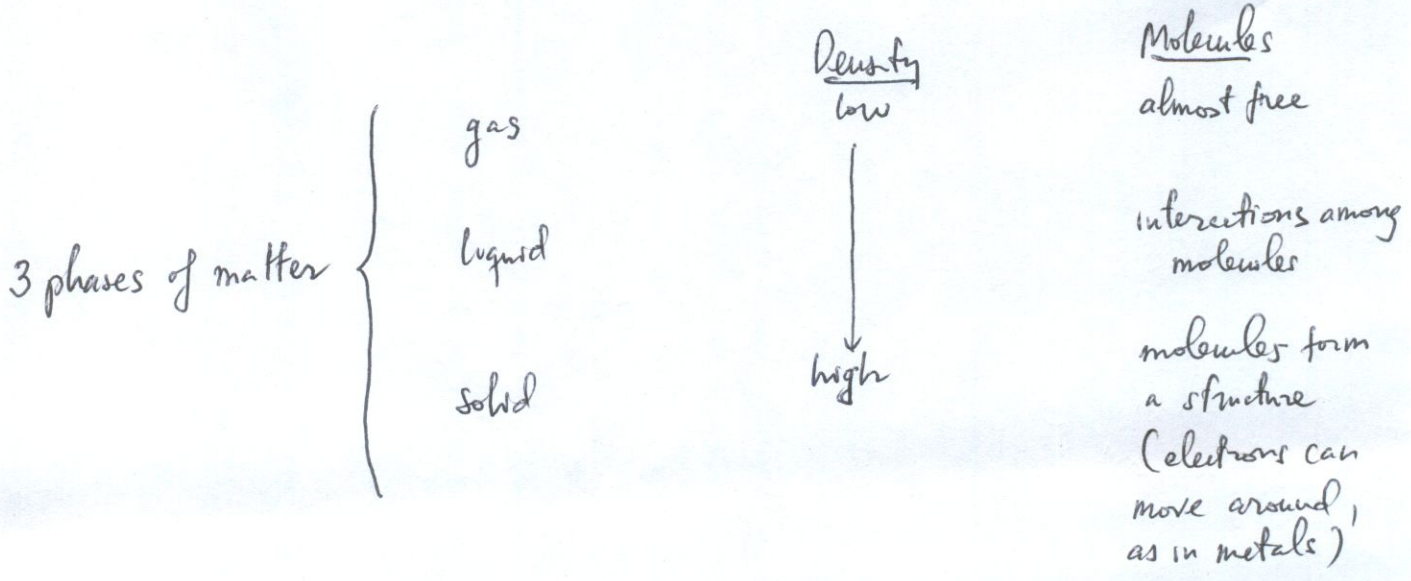


3) If heat is supplied to a solid: it may undergo expansion

- linear: $\alpha \equiv \frac{\frac{\Delta L}{L}}{\Delta T}$ (L: length)
- volume: $\beta \equiv \frac{\frac{\Delta V}{V}}{\Delta T}$ (V: volume)

Outcomes 1) & 2)





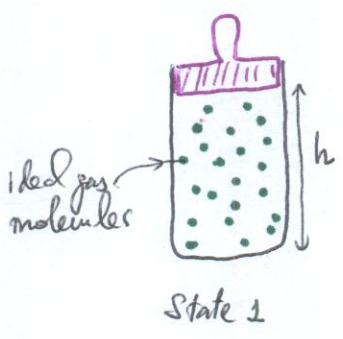
Easiest phase to describe quantitatively with an equation: ideal gas

Ideal Gas: we assume gas molecules are completely free (we ignore interactions b/w them)

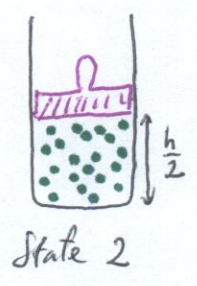
→ equation of state for an ideal gas is intuitive:

↳ relates: macroscopic properties (T: temp. of gas, V: volume of gas; P: pressure of gas) with the microscopic number of gas molecules N

Observe gas in a cylinder controlled by a piston:



Gas is compressible (molecules can come closer together)

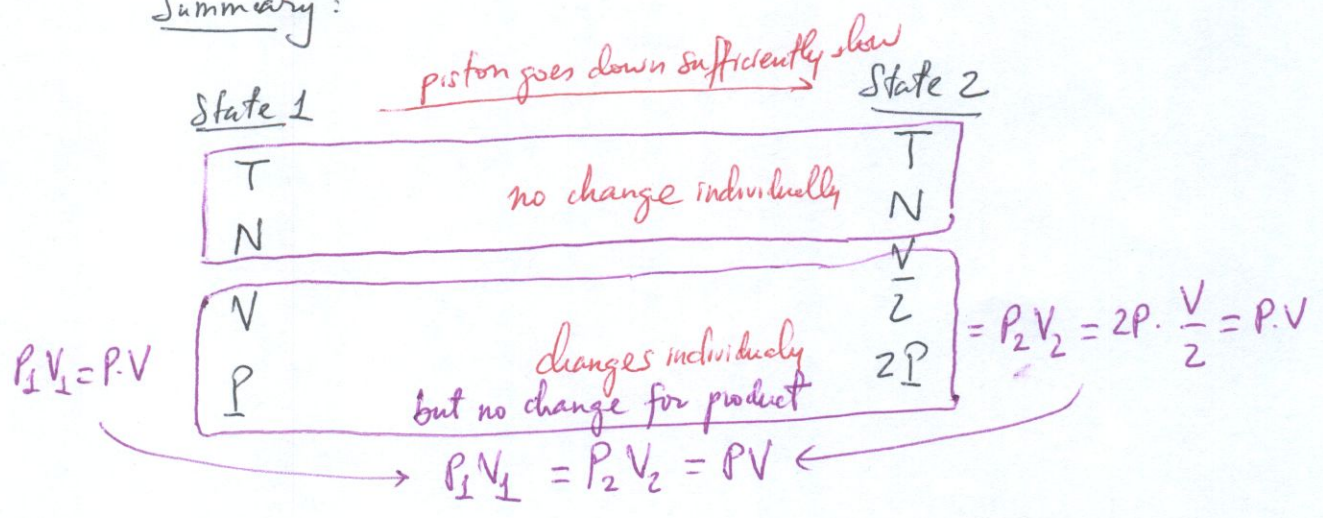


- 1) Piston fits cylinder perfectly ↔ no leaks ↔ # of gas molecules in both states is N
- 2) Height is reduced by half → $V_1 = V$; $V_2 = \frac{V}{2}$
- 3) Gas molecules hit cylinder all the time transferring momentum ↔ pressure (momentum ~~pressure~~ transfer per unit area).

There is a double number of momentum transfer per unit area in state 2 compared to state 1 $\rightarrow P_1 = P ; P_2 = 2P$

4) We assume piston is going down very slowly = so molecules won't get hit by piston (they can slowly adjust to smaller volume in small increments). No hit, no increase in kinetic energy KE of each molecule \rightarrow no temperature increase $\leftrightarrow T$ is constant (isothermal process)

Summary:



Equation of state for an ideal gas: $P \cdot V = k N \cdot T$

dimension & scale

k: Boltzman's constant = $1.38 \cdot 10^{-23} \frac{J}{^{\circ}K}$

why?

SI units $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} PV = \frac{F}{A} \cdot A \cdot h = \text{Work} \rightarrow \text{unit: J} \\ N = \# \text{ molecules, no dimension} \\ T = \text{temperature} \rightarrow \text{unit } ^{\circ}K \end{array} \right.$

$$\begin{aligned}
 J &= \frac{J}{^{\circ}K} \cdot ^{\circ}K \\
 \uparrow & \\
 \textcircled{PV} &= \textcircled{k} N \textcircled{T}
 \end{aligned}$$

Alternative form for ideal gas equation of state:

$$P \cdot V = k \cdot N \cdot T$$

$$N \equiv n \cdot N_A$$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} n = \text{number of moles} \\ N_A = \text{Avogadro number} = 6.022 \cdot 10^{23} \end{array} \right.$

$$P \cdot V = k n N_A T = n \cdot (k N_A) \cdot T$$

$$R = 1.38 \cdot 10^{-23} \cdot 6.022 \cdot 10^{23} = 8.314 \frac{\text{J}}{\text{K mol}}$$

ideal gas constant R

$$\boxed{P \cdot V = n R \cdot T}$$

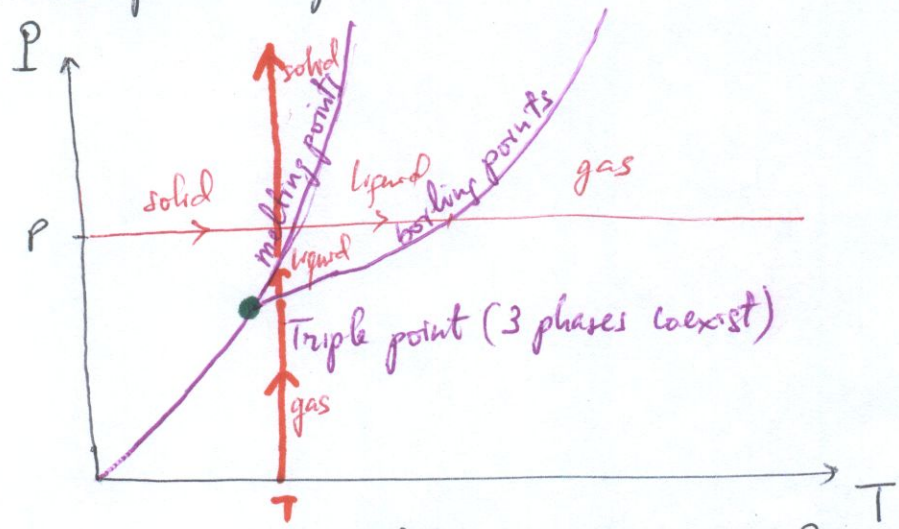
More realistically there are some interactions b/w gas molecules

Real Gas equation of state:

$$\boxed{\left(P + \frac{n^2 a}{V^2} \right) \cdot (V - n \cdot b) = n R \cdot T \quad ; \quad a \ \& \ b \ \text{are constant}}$$

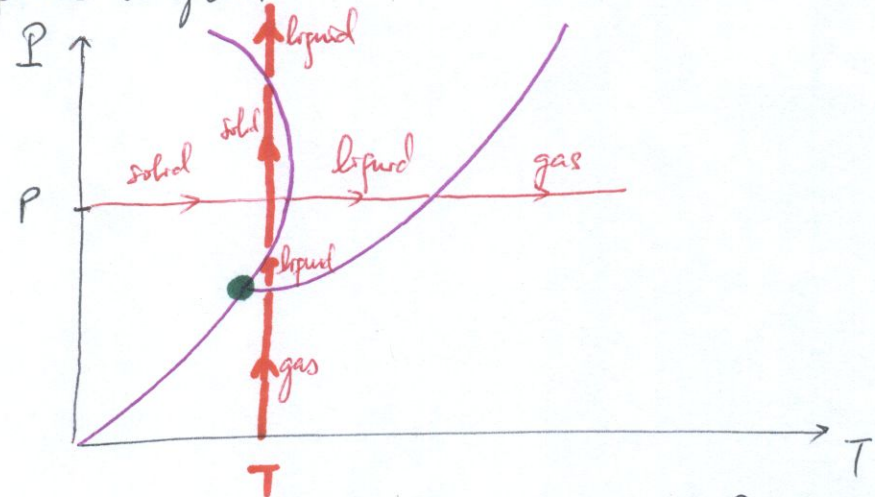
Phase diagrams: pressure vs. temp. graphs

Normal matter phase diagram



@ constant T as we increase pressure P: gas → liquid → solid

Water phase diagram



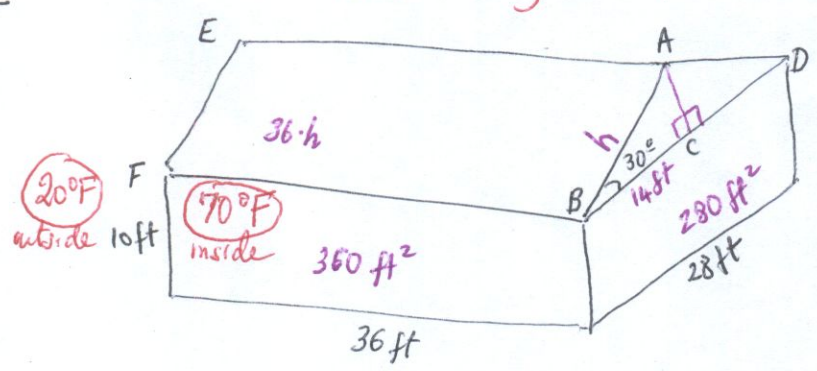
@ constant T as we increase P: gas → liquid → solid → liquid

if we apply sufficient pressure on ice, it melts.
(not just melts by increased T but also by increased P)

16.67) Example 16.4:

Step 1:

Total heating cost for one month?



$$\Delta ABC: h \cos 30^\circ = 14$$

$$h = \frac{14}{\cos 30^\circ}$$

$$\text{Area } \Delta ABD = 28 \cdot 14 \cdot \tan 30^\circ \cdot \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\frac{AC}{14} = \tan 30^\circ \Rightarrow AC = 14 \cdot \tan 30^\circ$$

Total surface area: 4 sides + 2 roofs + 2 side roofs =

$$= 360 \cdot 2 + 280 \cdot 2 + \frac{36 \cdot 14}{\cos 30^\circ} \cdot 2 + \frac{28 \cdot 14 \cdot \tan 30^\circ \cdot \frac{1}{2} \cdot 2}{113 \cdot 2}$$

$$= \boxed{1506 \text{ ft}^2} \text{ (walls)} + \boxed{1164 \text{ ft}^2} \text{ (roofs)}$$

$$R_{\text{wall}} = 0.17 + 11 + 0.65 + 0.55 = 12.37 \frac{\text{ft}^2 \text{ of}}{\text{Btu/h}}$$

wall = plaster + fiber glass insulation (R-11) + plywood + cedar shingles

$$R_{\text{roof}} = 0.17 + 30 + 0.65 + 0.55 = 31.37 \frac{\text{ft}^2 \text{ of}}{\text{Btu/h}}$$

($R \equiv \frac{\Delta x}{k}$)

Step 2 Relevant equation: Heat loss rate (we need to supply what is lost to keep interior of house at 70°F)

$$H = -k \frac{A}{\Delta x} \Delta T = -\frac{A}{R} \Delta T$$

$R \equiv \frac{\Delta x}{k}$

$$H_{\text{walls}} = -\frac{A_{\text{wall}}}{R_{\text{wall}}} \Delta T = -\frac{1506}{12.37} (70-20) = -6073 \frac{\text{Btu}}{\text{h}}$$

$$H_{\text{roofs}} = -\frac{A_{\text{roofs}}}{R_{\text{roofs}}} \Delta T = -\frac{1164}{31.37} \cdot 50 = -1855 \frac{\text{Btu}}{\text{h}}$$

- Total heat loss rate $H_{total} = - 7928 \frac{Btu}{h}$
- Every hour we need to supply 7928 Btu to keep house interior @ 70°F
- Every month we need $7928 \times 24 \times 30 = 5.7 \cdot 10^6$ Btu
- For each gallon of heating oil we can extract: 10^5 Btu:
- $5.7 \cdot 10^6 \text{ Btu} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ Gal}}{10^5 \text{ Btu}} = 57 \text{ Gallons}$
- If oil price is \$2.20/gal
- per month: $57 \text{ Gal} \cdot \frac{\$2.20}{\text{Gal}} = \$126$
(no windows)

Step 3: Now similar calculations taking into considerations 10 windows

10 windows

- size or $A = 2.5 \text{ ft} \times 5 \text{ ft} = 12.5 \text{ ft}^2$
- single-glazed $R = 0.9 \rightarrow H = - \frac{A}{R} \Delta T$
- 4 south facing: solar energy → heat gain rate

$H_{\text{south facing window}} = + 30 \frac{Btu}{h \cdot ft^2} \cdot A_{\text{window}}$

Total heat loss rate with windows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 H_{\text{with windows}} &= H_{\text{walls}} + H_{\text{windows}} + H_{\text{south facing windows}} + H_{\text{roofs}} \\
 &= - \frac{1506 - 125}{12.37} 50 - \frac{125}{0.9} 50 + 30 \cdot 12.5 \cdot \underbrace{4}_{\substack{\text{4 south} \\ \text{facing} \\ \text{windows}}} - \frac{1164}{31.37} 50 \\
 &= - 11026 - 1855 \\
 &= - 12881 \frac{Btu}{h}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\rightarrow H_{\text{Total w/windows}} = -12881 \frac{\text{Btu}}{\text{h}}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{Cost per month} : 12881 \times 24 \times 30 \text{ Btu} \cdot \frac{1 \text{ GfL}}{10^5 \text{ Btu}} \frac{\$2.20}{\text{GfL}} = \$204$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{Solar gain} = 30 \frac{\text{Btu}}{\text{h}\cdot\text{ft}^2} \times \underbrace{12.5 \times 4}_{50} \times \underbrace{24}_{\text{hrs of sun light per day}} \times 30 \times \frac{\$2.20}{10^5} = \$23.96 \text{ per month}$$

(for curiosity)

↓
add to \$204
if you have a tree blocking south facing windows!
(since gain of $30 \frac{\text{Btu}}{\text{h}\cdot\text{ft}^2}$ was "average rate")

Ch 18 Heat, Work, 1st Law of Thermodynamics (TD)

Conservation of energy = relating heat, work, and internal energy of a system

$$\Delta U = Q - W$$

- ↳ $Q =$ heat absorbed by system
- ↳ $W =$ work done by system
- ↳ $\Delta U =$ change of internal energy of system

(If you define W as work done on system then $\Delta U = Q + W$)

State variables:

1) Given a state, state variables are independent of how the system arrived at that state. State variables don't depend on a process

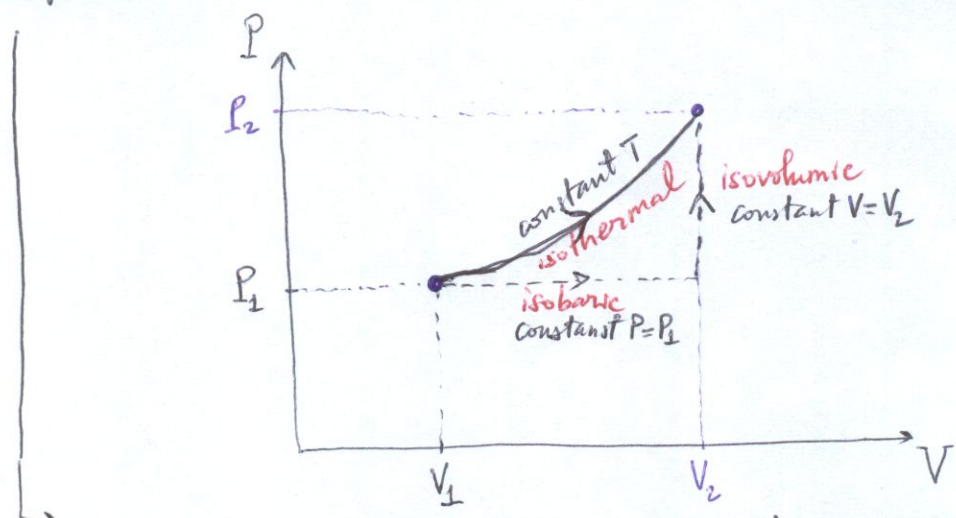
Examples: $\Delta U, T, P, V$

2) Q & W are not state variables. They depend on a particular process

- ↳ isobaric (constant pressure P)
- ↳ isovolumic (constant volume V)
- ↳ isothermal (constant temperature T)
- ↳ adiabatic ($Q = 0$)

Note: 1st Law of TD = while Q & W are not state variables their difference $Q - W$ is a state variable.

PV diagram: each point on this diagram represents a state



Allows us to calculate work done by system $W = \int P \cdot dV$

↑
Area under $P(V)$
(Area under the pressure curve in a PV diagram)

(Mechanics: $W = F \cdot \Delta x = P \cdot \underbrace{A \cdot \Delta x}_V$)

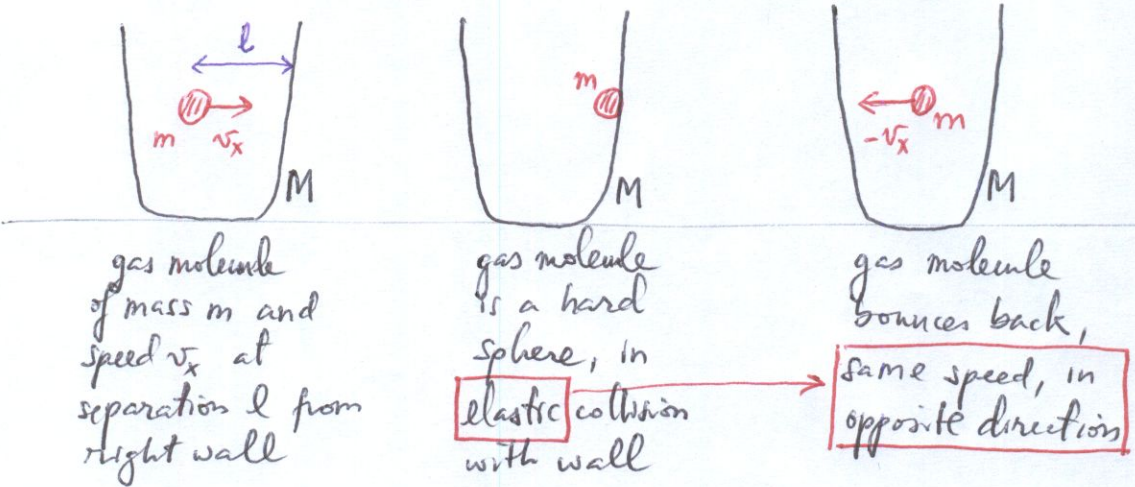
Microscopic to Macroscopic Connections in an Ideal Gas:

Microscopic: pressure exerted by a gas molecule on its container

↳ Macroscopic pressure: adding up these pressures for N molecules ($N_A = 6.023 \cdot 10^{23}$)

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^N P_i$$

Pressure by a single molecule comes from the transfer of linear momentum when it collides with the containing wall. ($\vec{F}_{net} = \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt}$)



What is the linear momentum transfer (gas to wall) at the elastic collision.

Any collision $\vec{F}_{net} = 0 \rightarrow \frac{d\vec{p}}{dt} = 0 \Rightarrow \vec{p}$ is conserved $\vec{p}_i = \vec{p}_f$
Before collision After collision

Conservation of linear momentum:

$$mv_x = -mv_x + \underline{MV_x}$$

Momentum acquired by container after collision

$$\text{or } \boxed{2mv_x} = \boxed{MV_x}$$

$$V_x = \frac{2mv_x}{M} \approx 0 \text{ (container barely moves!)}$$

→ Pressure by gas molecule i : $P_i = \frac{F_i}{A} = \frac{\frac{\Delta p_i}{\Delta t}}{A} = \frac{\frac{2m v_{xi}}{\Delta t}}{A} = \frac{m v_{xi}^2}{A \cdot \Delta t}$

Capital P pressure
lower case p linear momentum
volume (A·l)
 (21)

$\Delta t = \frac{l}{v_{xi}}$ (one way)

$\Delta t = \frac{2l}{v_{xi}}$ (round trip)

→ Macroscopic pressure

$$P = \sum_{i=1}^N P_i = \frac{m}{\text{vol}} \sum_{i=1}^N v_{xi}^2$$

$$= \frac{mN}{\text{vol}} \left(\frac{\sum_{i=1}^N v_{xi}^2}{N} \right)$$

$\overline{v_x^2}$ (average of v_x^2 over molecules)

$$P = \frac{mN}{\text{vol}} \overline{v_x^2}$$

macroscopic

microscopic

m : mass of a molecule
 $\overline{v_x^2}$: average **x-component** of the velocity, squared, of a molecule.

We included momentum transfer in one direction (x-direction). In general there can be momentum transfer in 3 directions:

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

x-component only *total velocity in 3D*

$$P = \frac{1}{3} \frac{mN}{\text{vol}} \overline{v^2} = \frac{mN}{3V} \overline{v^2}$$
 or

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

$$PV = kNT$$

Equation of state of an ideal gas:

$$kT = m \frac{\overline{v^2}}{3} \Rightarrow$$

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

Temp *microscopic* *macroscopic*
 m, v of a molecule

macroscopic

$$\frac{3}{2} kT =$$

microscopic

$$\frac{1}{2} m \overline{v^2}$$

↓
average KE of one gas molecule in 3D

(\vec{v} : total velocity in 3D)

Profound consequences:

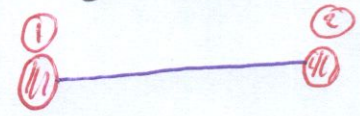
1) KE of gas molecules determines the overall temperature of the gas

2) If gas is confined in 1D : $\overline{v_x^2} = \frac{1}{3} \overline{v^2}$

↓
 $\frac{1}{2} kT = \frac{1}{2} m \overline{v_x^2}$

→ KE of a gas contributes $\frac{1}{2} kT$ per degree of freedom

3) Diatomic molecules



without invisible rod
(2 individual molecules)
atoms

$$\begin{array}{l} 3 \text{ d.o.f's atom 1} \\ + 3 \text{ d.o.f's atom 2} \\ \hline \end{array}$$

6 d.o.f's

$$\hookrightarrow \frac{6}{2} kT$$

with invisible rod
(diatomic molecule)

$$\begin{array}{l} 3 \\ + 3 \\ - 1 \text{ (invisible rod or interaction)} \\ \hline 5 \text{ d.o.f's. to form a diatomic molecule} \end{array}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \frac{5}{2} kT$$

$$\hookrightarrow c_v \begin{cases} \text{monatomic gas: } \frac{3}{2} R \\ \text{diatomic gas: } \frac{5}{2} R \end{cases}$$

specific heat at constant volume

$$\hookrightarrow \gamma \begin{cases} \text{monatomic} = \gamma = 1.67 \\ \text{diatomic} = \gamma = 1.4 \end{cases}$$

Isothermal processes (constant T)

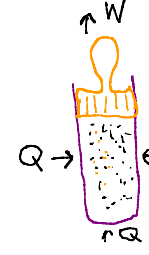
Work done by an ideal gas undergoing an isothermal process ① → ②

$$W = \int_1^2 P dV \stackrel{T \text{ constant}}{=} nRT \int_1^2 \frac{dV}{V} = nRT [\ln V]_1^2 = nRT (\ln V_2 - \ln V_1) = nRT \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

↑
ideal gas eq. of state
 $PV = nRT$
 $P = \frac{nRT}{V}$

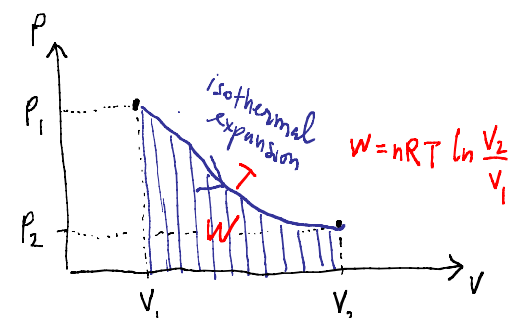
Practical situation of (i):

$W = nRT \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}$ (work done by a gas) $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{(i) } V_2 > V_1 \text{ (isothermal expansion)} \rightarrow \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1} > 0 \\ \Rightarrow W > 0 \text{ (gas did work)} \\ \text{(ii) } V_2 < V_1 \text{ (isothermal compression)} \rightarrow \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1} < 0 \\ \Rightarrow W < 0 \text{ (gas received work)} \end{array} \right.$



Heat supplied $Q \rightarrow$ gas expands pushing piston up doing work
If T is constant $\rightarrow W = nRT \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}$

PV diagram



1) What is the change of internal energy for this gas from ① to ②?

$$\Delta U = U_2 - U_1 = \frac{3}{2}kT - \frac{3}{2}kT = 0$$

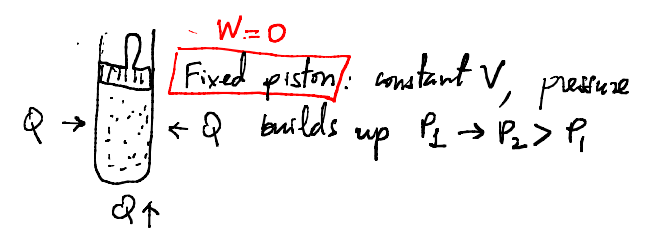
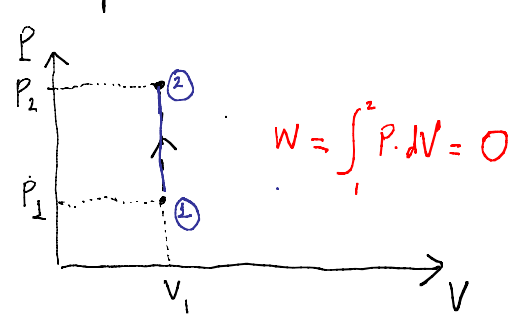
(i) ideal gas no interaction: $U = \frac{1}{2}m\overline{v^2} = \frac{3}{2}kT$
(ii) isothermal process $T_2 = T_1 = T$

2) What is the heat absorbed by gas in this isothermal process?
 $Q?$

1st Law of TD: $\Delta U = Q - W$
 $0 = Q - W \Rightarrow Q = nRT \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}$

In an isothermal process an ideal gas absorbs heat Q and returns an equal amount of work $W = nRT \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}$

Isovolumic process (constant volume V)

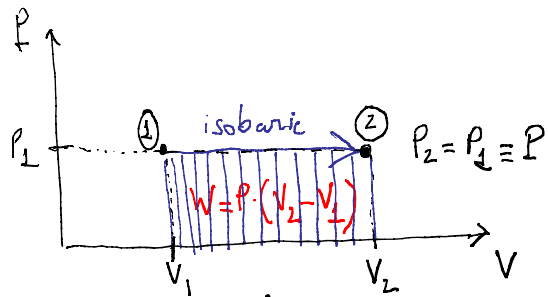


1) 1st Law of TD : $\Delta U = Q - W = Q$

\uparrow
 $W=0$
 isovolumic process

2) Specific heat at constant volume $C_V = \frac{1}{n} \frac{Q}{\Delta T} = \frac{1}{n} \frac{\Delta U}{\Delta T} \Rightarrow \Delta U = n C_V \Delta T$

Isobaric Process (constant pressure P)



$W = \int_1^2 P \cdot dV = P \int_1^2 dV = P [V]_1^2 = P \cdot (V_2 - V_1)$

1) Specific heat at constant pressure $C_P = \frac{1}{n} \frac{Q}{\Delta T} \Rightarrow Q = n C_P \Delta T$

2) Ideal gas equation: $P \cdot \Delta V = n R \Delta T$
 $- W = n R \Delta T$
 isobaric process!

3) 1st Law TD : $\Delta U = Q - W$
 $n C_V \Delta T = n C_P \Delta T - n R \Delta T \Rightarrow C_V = C_P - R$ or $C_P = C_V + R$

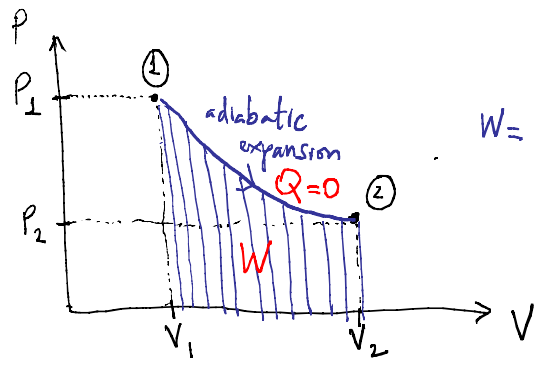
$C_P = C_V + R$
 $R = 8.314 \frac{J}{mol \cdot K}$ } $C_P > C_V$: a gas at constant pressure can absorb more heat than a gas at constant volume

Why?

$Q = \Delta U + W \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{const } P: Q = \Delta U + W \\ \text{const } V: Q = \Delta U \end{cases} \left\{ C_P > C_V \right.$

- (i) at constant volume V gas can't do any work to release heat absorbed, so it can't absorb lot of heat
- (ii) at constant pressure P, it can change volume or can do work to release heat absorbed, so it can absorb more heat

Adiabatic Process (Q=0) $\Leftrightarrow \Delta U = -W$



$W = \frac{P_1 V_1 - P_2 V_2}{\gamma - 1}$, $\gamma = \text{gas coefficient} = \frac{C_P}{C_V} = \frac{C_V + R}{C_V} > 1$
 ↓
 depends on type of gas molecules (monatomic, diatomic, ...)

1) In an adiabatic process: $P \cdot V^\gamma = \text{constant}$

Adiabatic expansion ① → ② $P_1 V_1^\gamma = P_2 V_2^\gamma$

Ideal gas equation $PV = nRT$ or $P = \frac{nRT}{V} \rightarrow T_1 V_1^{\gamma-1} = T_2 V_2^{\gamma-1}$

2) Values for $\gamma = \frac{C_p}{C_v} = \frac{C_v + R}{C_v}$

$n = \frac{N}{N_A}$ ($N_A = 6.022 \cdot 10^{23}$)
 $R = k N_A$

Equations for C_v : for N gas molecules

(i) Monoatomic gas: each atom or molecule has 3 d.o.f

$C_v = \frac{1}{n} \frac{dU}{dT} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{\frac{3}{2} k \Delta T \cdot N}{\Delta T} = \frac{1}{\frac{N}{N_A}} \cdot \frac{3}{2} k \cdot N = \frac{3}{2} k \cdot N_A = \frac{3}{2} R$

(ii) Diatomic gas: each molecule has 5 d.o.f.

$C_v = \frac{1}{n} \frac{dU}{dT} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{\frac{5}{2} k \Delta T \cdot N}{\Delta T} = \frac{1}{\frac{N}{N_A}} \cdot \frac{5}{2} k \cdot N = \frac{5}{2} k N_A = \frac{5}{2} R$

$\gamma = \frac{C_v + R}{C_v}$
 monoatomic: $\gamma = \frac{\frac{3}{2}R + R}{\frac{3}{2}R} = \frac{5}{3} = 1.67$
 diatomic: $\gamma = \frac{\frac{5}{2}R + R}{\frac{5}{2}R} = \frac{7}{5} = 1.4$

18.33

Sizes of air bubble: $e \left\{ \begin{matrix} P_H = 125 \text{ mmHg} \\ P_L = 80 \text{ mmHg} \end{matrix} \right\}$ excesses over atmospheric pressure $\left\{ \begin{matrix} P_H = 125 + 760 \text{ mmHg} \\ P_L = 80 + 760 \text{ mmHg} \end{matrix} \right.$
 1 atm = 760 mmHg

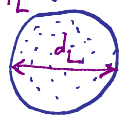
Step 1: Diagram with information

Bubble in blood:

spherical shape

P_L (low blood pressure)

P_H (high blood pressure)



$d_L = 1.52 \text{ mm}$

$d_H = ?$



$V = \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3$

constant!

Step 2: Relevant equation: ideal gas equation $P \cdot V = nRT$

$T = 37^\circ\text{C}$ constant body temperature

$P_L \cdot V_L = P_H \cdot V_H$

Step 3: $P_L \cdot \frac{4}{3} \pi \left(\frac{d_L}{2}\right)^3 = P_H \cdot \frac{4}{3} \pi \left(\frac{d_H}{2}\right)^3 \Rightarrow P_L \cdot d_L^3 = P_H \cdot d_H^3 \Rightarrow d_H = \left(\frac{P_L}{P_H}\right)^{1/3} \cdot d_L = \left(\frac{840}{885}\right)^{1/3} \cdot 1.52 \text{ mm}$

a) $d_L = 1.49 \text{ mm}$

b) From $P_L \rightarrow P_H$ as bubble is squeezed, gas is compressed as it receives work | blood or ultimately from heart. $W?$ for $P_L \xrightarrow{\text{isothermal}} P_H$

$W = nRT \ln \frac{V_H}{V_L} \xrightarrow{PV = nRT \text{ or } V = \frac{nRT}{P}} W = nRT \ln \frac{P_L}{P_H}$

$$W = \frac{P_L V_L}{nRT} \ln \frac{P_L}{P_H} = (80+760) \cdot 133.3 \cdot \frac{4\pi}{3} \left(\frac{1.52 \cdot 10^{-3}}{2} \right)^3 \ln \left(\frac{80+760}{125+760} \right) = -12312 \cdot 10^{-9} \text{ J}$$

SI units
 Pressure : Pa (Pascal)
 1 mm Hg = 133.3 Pa
 Volume : m³
 1 mm = 10⁻³ m

$W = 0.12 \mu\text{J}$
 ↳ work received by gas
 $\mu = 10^{-6}$ (micro)

18.58] Mixture Ar₂ & O₂ { in adiabatic expansion } Fraction of Argon f in mixture
 monatomic $\gamma = 1.67$ diatomic $\gamma = 1.4$ $V_1 \rightarrow V_2 = 2V_1$ $P_1 \rightarrow P_2 = \frac{P_1}{3}$
 Ar₂ (f) & O₂ (1-f)

- 1) Calculate f from γ_{mixture} which depends on mixture composition
- 2) Obtain γ_{mixture} from adiabatic equation: $P_1 V_1^\gamma = P_2 V_2^\gamma \Rightarrow \frac{P_1}{P_2} = \left(\frac{V_2}{V_1} \right)^\gamma$
 $\Rightarrow \ln \frac{P_1}{P_2} = \gamma \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1} \Rightarrow \gamma = \frac{\ln \left(\frac{P_1}{P_2} \right)}{\ln \left(\frac{V_2}{V_1} \right)} = \frac{\ln 3}{\ln 2} = 1.58$ for mixture { Ar₂ : f
 O₂ : 1-f

Derive equation for γ for mixture:

$$\gamma = \frac{C_p}{C_v} = \frac{C_v + R}{C_v}$$

Derive equation for $C_v = \frac{3}{2}R \cdot f + \frac{5}{2}R \cdot (1-f) = R \left(\frac{5}{2} - f \right)$
monatomic diatomic

$$\gamma = \frac{R \left(\frac{5}{2} - f \right) + R}{R \left(\frac{5}{2} - f \right)} = \frac{\frac{5}{2} - f + 1}{\frac{5}{2} - f} = \frac{\frac{7}{2} - f}{\frac{5}{2} - f}$$

3) solve for f: $1.58 = \frac{3.5 - f}{2.5 - f} \rightarrow 1.58(2.5 - f) = 3.5 - f \rightarrow 2.5 \cdot 1.58 = 3.5 + f(1.58 - 1)$

$$f = \frac{2.5 \cdot 1.58 - 3.5}{0.58} = 0.78$$

→ Mixture composition { 78% Ar₂ } given their behavior during an adiabatic process
 { 22% O₂ }