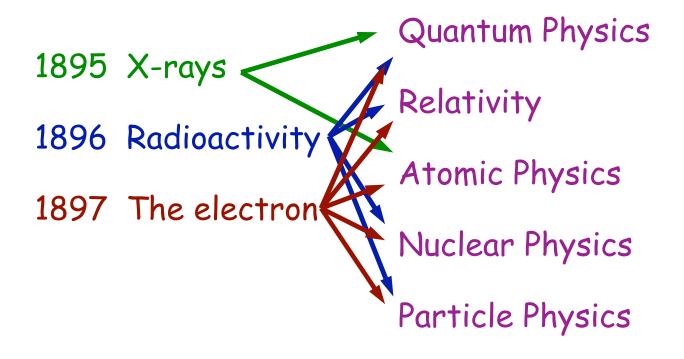
Classical Physics

- at end of the 19th century:
 - ·Mechanics Newton's Laws
 - ·Electromagnetism Maxwell's Eqns
 - Optics Geometric (particles) vs.
 Physical (waves)
 - •Thermodynamics Four Laws (0-3)
 - •Gas Laws Kinetic Theory
- overlaps often led to important discoveries:
 - Maxwell's Eqns → EM radiation (optics)
 - ·Newton's laws / kinetic theory

microscopic/atomic description of macroscopic gas laws

- around 1900, Theoretical problems:
- 1) What is EM medium?
 - → Relativity
- 2) Blackbody Radiation
 - → Quantum Physics

- Experimental discoveries:



But first...

Heat and Thermodynamics

- study of Thermal Energy of systems

Temperature: a measure of thermal energy, units of Kelvins

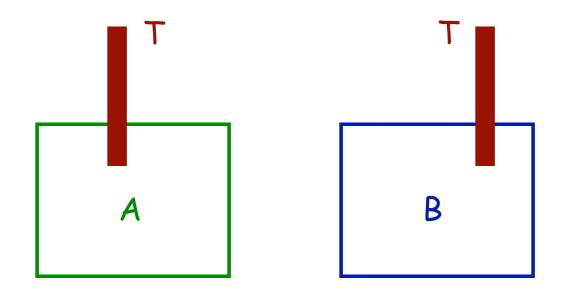
Room Temp ~ 290 K

Temperature of an object is measured by the change in some physical property.

Measuring device is called a thermometer.

Zeroth Law of Thermodynamics

If bodies A and B are each in thermal equilibrium with a third body T, then they are in thermal equilibrium with each other.



Thermal equilibrium: all measureable properties unchanging.

Objects in thermal equilibrium are at the same temperature.

Temperature Scales

Daniel Fahrenheit (1686-1736)

Anders Celsius (1701-1744)

$$0^{\circ}C$$
 = Freezing point of H_2O
100°C = Boiling point of H_2O

·Lord Kelvin (1824-1907)

$$H_2O$$
 boil: $100^{\circ}C = 212^{\circ}F = 373 \text{ K}$

$$H_2O$$
 freeze: $O^{\circ}C = 32^{\circ}F = 273 \text{ K}$

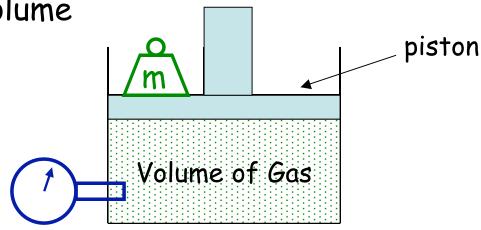
Absolute zero:
$$-273^{\circ}C = -460^{\circ}F = 0 \text{ K}$$

$$T_C = T_K - 273.15$$

$$T_F = (9/5)T_C + 32$$

Constant-Volume Gas Thermometer

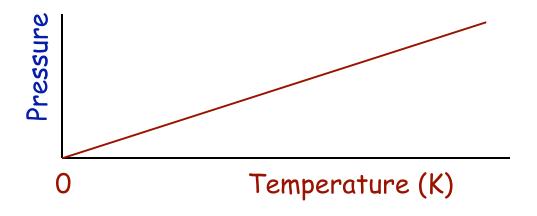
⇒ measure pressure of gas at fixed volume



 $\frac{\text{Pressure}}{\text{Pressure}} = \text{Force/Area} \qquad (\text{N/m}^2=\text{Pa})$ (Pascals)

1 atm = 1.01×10^5 Pa = 14.7 lb/in² = 760 mm of Hg = 760 torr

T ∝ P at fixed V



Ideal-Gas Temperature

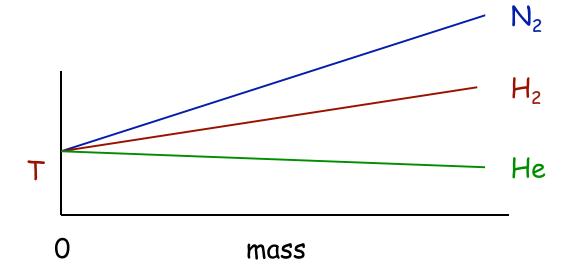
$$T_k = (constant) \times P$$
 at fixed V

-Need one point:
Triple point of H₂O
(ice/water/steam coexist)

$$T_3 = 273.16 \text{ K}$$

-Problem: different gases give different T

But as mass of gas reduced $(m\rightarrow 0)$ and $P_3\rightarrow 0$, they agree (approach "ideal" gas)

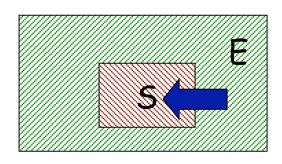


Temperature and Heat

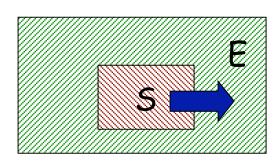
If system 5 and environment E are At different temperatures:

Energy will transfer until their temperatures become equal.

The transferred energy is called <u>Heat</u> (symbol Q).



 $T_E > T_S$, Q > 0Heat absorbed by 5



 $T_s > T_E$, Q < 0Heat lost by S Defn: Require $\Delta Q = 1$ calorie to raise 1 gm of H_2O by $\Delta T = 1^{\circ}C$.

1 calorie = 4.186 joules (heat is a form of energy)

Specific Heat

Amount of heat needed to raise the temperature of m grams of a substance by ΔT is

$$\Delta Q = c m \Delta T$$

$$\Delta = final - initial$$

where c is the specific heat (cals/g.°C)

Specific heat of water = 1 cal/g·°C = 4186 J/kg·K

Molar Specific Heat

Can specify amount of substance in moles:

```
1 mole = 6.02 \times 10^{23} units
= N_A units (Avogadro's number)
```

(1 mole of Al = 6.02×10^{23} atoms 1 mole of CO_2 = 6.02×10^{23} molecules)

The mass of a substance (in grams) is

m = n A

where n = (# moles) and
A is the atomic (molecular) weight of
the substance.

1 mole of Carbon-12 has m = 12 grams.

Some Examples:

c (kg)

C (molar)

<u>Element</u>	Spec. Heat (J/kg K)	<u>A</u> (g)	Mol. Sp. Ht. (J/Mole K)
Lead	128	207	26.5
Tungsten	134	184	24.8
Silver	236	108	25.5
Copper	386	63.5	24.5
Aluminum	900	27	24.4

Note the relative consistency

$$\Delta Q = m c \Delta T$$

$$\Delta Q = n C \Delta T$$

$$C = c (m/n) = c A$$

 $A(Pb) = .207 kg = 207g$

Heats of Transformation

Heat may also change the <u>phase</u> (or <u>state</u>) of a substance (at constant T).

Matter exists in 3 common states:

- ·Solid
- ·Liquid
- ·Gas (or vapor)

Heating Curve

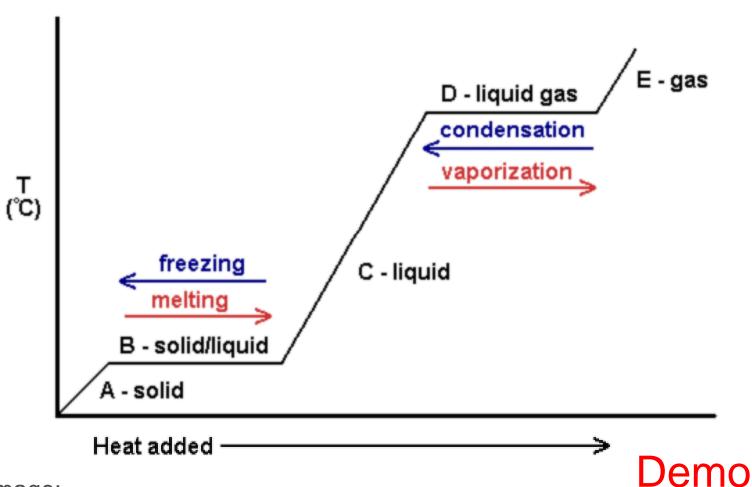
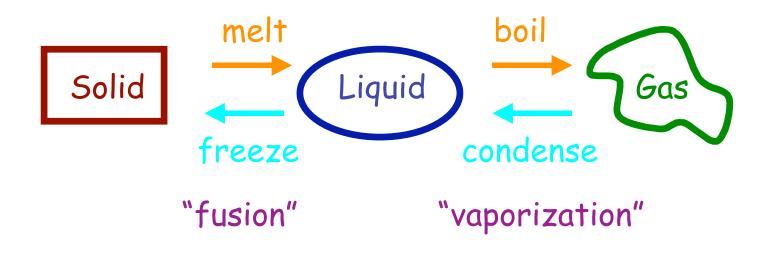


Image: http://library.thinkquest.org



Requires energy Releases energy

Amount of energy/unit mass is Heat of transformation, L.

e.g. for water:

Heat of fusion

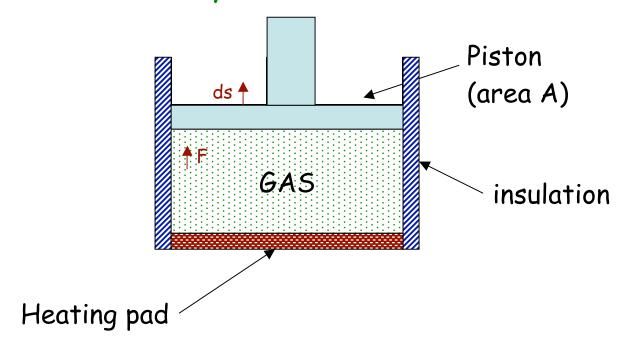
 $L_F = 79.5 \text{ cal/}g = 333 \text{ kJ/kg} = 6.01 \text{ kJ/mole}$

Heat of vaporization

 $L_V = 539 \text{ cal/}g = 2256 \text{ kJ/kg} = 40.7 \text{ kJ/mole}$

Heat and Work

Consider this system:



Pressure = Force/Area (P=F/A)

If piston moves ds, then work done by the gas:

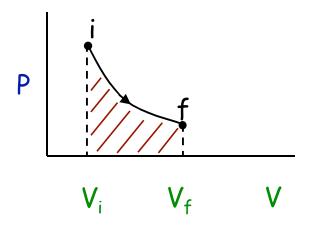
$$dW = F ds = P A ds = P dV$$

Total work done by the gas in moving from V_i to V_f :

$$\Delta W = \int_{V_i}^{V_f} P dV$$

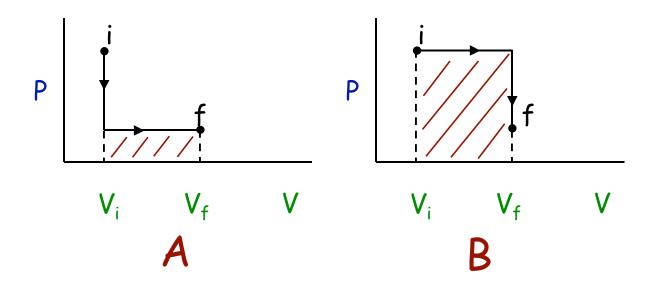
P-V Diagrams

Study effects of heat added/work done by plotting P vs V of gas:

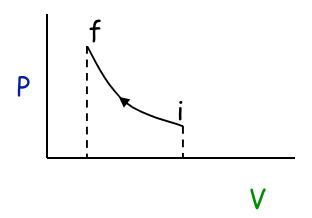


The area under the curve is the work done.

The work done depends on the specific path from i to f.

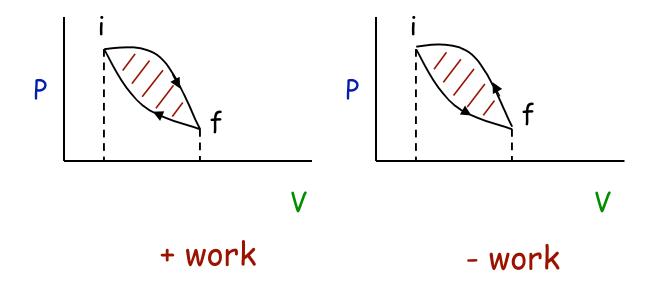


Thermodynamic Cycles



If volume decreases, the work done (by the gas) is negative.

If we go from $i \rightarrow f$ and back to i, the net work done by the gas is the area inside the curve.



First Law of Thermodynamics

Heat $\triangle Q$ added to the system can have two effects:

- •Increase the internal energy of the system
- ·Cause the gas to do work

Conservation of Energy says:

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

where

U is the internal energy of the system.

⇒ 1st Law of Thermodynamics.

Energy Conservation: A Parable from Feynman

Count sugar cubes directly

Deduce number hidden in a box

Even dissolved in a pond

Count those that passed through a window

(named W or Q)

That's defining the system boundary!

Locality is assumed: cubes don't just re-materialize outside the windows: must pass through the windows Learned to calculate various forms of internal energy.

Can't derive conservation of E: must deduce that it's plausible, learn to account for different forms of E, and then measure that it works, with your chosen definitions and calculation methods.

State Functions

A property of the state of the system is often called a "State Function".

P, V, and T are state functions. So is U (the internal energy).

Heat and Work are not.
They are <u>path-dependent</u>, i.e. they depend on how we go from i to f.

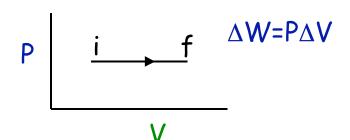
However the combination $\Delta Q - \Delta W = \Delta U$ does not depend on the path.

Various System Changes

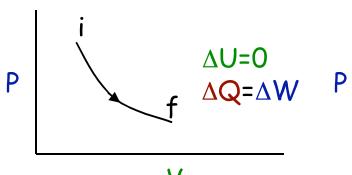
Constant Volume (isochoric)

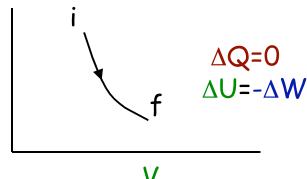
Constant Temp (isothermal)

Constant Pressure (isobaric)

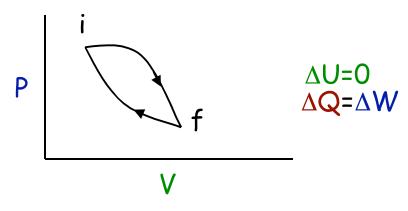


Constant Heat (adiabatic)





Cyclical Process (returns to original state)

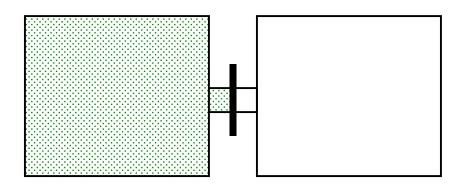


All previous cases are "quasi-static":

Change occurs slow enough that thermal equilibrium can be considered true at all times.

A non-quasi-static process:

Adiabatic, free expansion:



$$\Delta Q = 0$$
 (adiabatic)
 $\Delta W = 0$ (nothing to work against)
 $\Rightarrow \Delta U = 0$

Heat Transfer Mechanisms

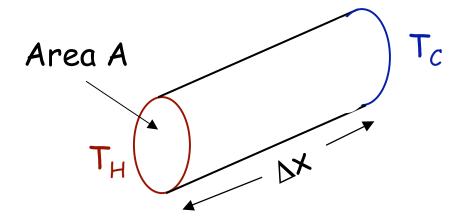
How does heat exchange occur?

- · Conduction
- · Convection
- Radiation

Conduction

- ·Occurs in systems where atoms stay in a fixed region.
- Heat energy causes them to move, rotate, and/or vibrate.
- Energy is transferred to adjacent atoms by interactions/collisions.

Energy moves, not the atoms



Heat conduction rate is

$$P_{cond} = \Delta Q/\Delta t = \kappa A \Delta T/\Delta x$$

- $\Delta T/\Delta x = (T_H T_C)/\Delta x$ is the Temperature gradient.
- P_{cond} is the Energy transferred per time (SI units: Watts), sometimes called thermal current, I.
- K is the Thermal Conductivity (SI units: Watts/m•K).

Some Thermal Conductivities

Silver	428	W/m·K	
Copper	402		
Aluminum	235		
Lead	35		
Stainless Steel	14		
Hydrogen	0.18		
Helium	0.15		
Dry Air	0.026		
Window Glass	1.0		
White Pine	0.11	0.11	
Fiberglass	0.048	0.048	
Polyurethane Foam	0.024		

Using the notation I for P_{cond} , we can write

$$\Delta T = I \Delta x / (\kappa A)$$

or
 $\Delta T = I R$

where $R = \Delta x / (\kappa A)$ is the thermal resistance.

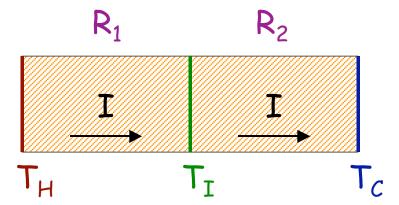
Note the analogy with Ohm's Law for electricity.

Note: Rfishbane = $\Delta x / \kappa = R A$

Rfishbane = insulation "R-value"

= material and thickness only
can't change size of attic
can add more, or better, insulation

Two or more conductors (or insulators) in series:



Steady state →thermal current is same through both slabs

$$T_H - T_I = I R_1$$
 $T_I - T_C = I R_2$

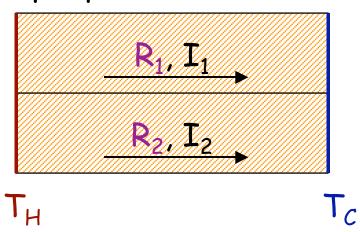
$$T_H - T_C = I (R_1 + R_2) = I R_{equiv}$$

where

$$R_{equiv} = R_1 + R_2 + ...$$

(like resistances in series)

Conductors in parallel: (multiple paths for heat flow)



 $T_H - T_C = \Delta T$: same for all paths but current flows (I) are different.

$$I_{total} = I_1 + I_2 + ...$$

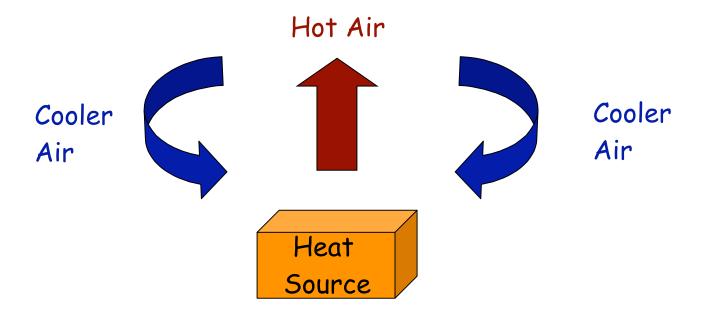
= $\Delta T/R_1 + \Delta T/R_2 + ...$
= $\Delta T (1/R_1 + 1/R_2 + ...)$
= $\Delta T/R_{equiv}$

with

$$1/R_{\text{equiv}} = 1/R_1 + 1/R_2 + ...$$

(like resistances in parallel)

Convection



- Occurs in fluid systems.
 The energy flows along with the medium.
- Fluid near heat source becomes hot, expands, and rises.
 Surrounding cooler fluid takes its place. Etc.

Radiation

Here the energy is carried by electromagnetic waves. Called Thermal Radiation.

The Rate at which an object radiates is given by the Stefan-Boltzman Law:

$$P_{rad} = \varepsilon \sigma A T^4$$

where

 P_{rad} : Power radiated in Watts A: Area of emitter (or absorber!) T: Temperature of emitter in K σ : Universal constant (S-B's constant) $\sigma = 5.6703 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W/(m}^2\text{K}^4)$ the emissivity of the emitter (0 < ϵ < 1, depending on the composition of the surface)

The rate an object absorbs thermal radiation is given by the same formula:

$$P_{abs} = \varepsilon \sigma A (T_{env})^4$$

except that now T_{env} is the <u>temperature</u> of the environment.

The emissivity ϵ of an object is <u>the same</u> for radiation and absorption.

- •Lighter objects reflect more. (smaller ε)
- •Darker objects absorb more. (larger ε)
 They also emit more.

A surface with $\varepsilon = 1$ is called a Blackbody radiator.