

Physics 22000 **General Physics**

Lecture 26 – Heat

Fall 2016 Semester

Final Exam						
	3				Examination	on Schedule @
UNITIME				Fall 2016 (PWL) Click here to change the session / rate		
Filter						
Term: Fall 2	016 (PWL)	. Exams	: Final		, Subjec	t PHYS - Apply
	(PWL) final	examinati CRN	ons (PHYS)	Date	Time	Room
†Subject PHYS	17200	CRN	Section	Wed 12/14	1:00p - 3:00p	LAMB F101
PHYS	17200H	26979	26979-H01	Mon 12/12	8:00a - 10:00a	PHYS 114
PHYS	21400	26984	26984-001	Tue 12/13	10:30a - 12:30p	PHYS 114
PHYS	21500	26987	26987-001	Fri 12/16	1:00p - 3:00p	PHYS 112
PHYS	21800	16840	16840-014	Mon 12/12	7:00p - 9:00p	HIKS B848
PHYS	21800	26997	26997-001	Fri 12/16	1:00p - 3:00p	PHYS 114
PHYS	21900	27009	27009-001	Wed 12/14	1:00p - 3:00p	PHYS 112
PHYS	22000			Fri 12/16	1:00p - 3:00p	LAMB F101
PHYS	22100			Wed 12/14	1:00p - 3:00p	LILY 1105
PHYS	23300	67161	67161-001	Fri 12/16	8:00a - 10:00a	EE 129
PHYS	23400	10833	10833-001	Fri 12/16	8:00a - 10:00a	PHYS 111

Final Exam

- Same format as previous exams
- You can bring one page of your notes
- Equation sheet will be provided with the exam
- Bring your ID, a calculator and a pencil
- Mainly covers material since last exam with some overlap (roughly lectures 18-26)

Free Study Sessions

Rachel Hoagburg

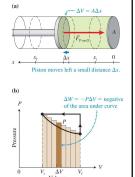
Come to SI for more help in PHYS 220

Tuesday and Thursday 7:30-8:30PM Shreve C113

Office Hour
Tuesday 1:30-2:30 4th floor of Krach
For other SI-linked courses and schedules, visit purdue edu/si or purdue edu/boilerguide

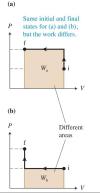
Work Done on a Piston

- If there is a pressure difference between the inside and outside of the cylinder, then it will exert a force.
- If the piston moves, then work will be done.
- P, V and T will always satisfy the ideal gas law.
- We can change T by exchanging heat with the environment.



Work depends on the process between the initial and final states

- In Figure 12.4a, to go from the initial state to the final state, the gas first has a constant volume and increasing pressure, and then has a constant pressure and decreasing volume.
- In Figure 12.4b, the gas first has a constant pressure/volume decrease, and then has a constant volume/pressure increase to reach the same final state.
- The work done for each process is different.



The first law of thermodynamics

First law of thermodynamics

Consider a process involving a system of interest. The system's internal energy change $(U_{\rm f}-U_{\rm i})=\Delta U_{\rm System}$ is equal to the amount of work W done on the system plus the amount of energy Q transferred to the system through the process of heating:

 $\begin{array}{c} W_{\rm Environment\ on\ System}\ + \\ Q_{\rm Environment\ to\ System}\ =\ \Delta\,U_{\rm System} \\ \end{array} \tag{12.4a}$

Analyzing gas processes

Table 12.6 Application of the first law to gas processes. In each process, the gas starts at position 1 (the initial state) on the P-versus-V graph and moves to position 2 (the final state).

Transity of the position of th

Particle-level explanation

As the piston is pulled out, the gas molecules collide elastically with the piston and rebound at a slower speed than before the collision, which causes a temperature decrease. But the container is in contact out the container is in contact which provides heating so the gas remains at constant temperature.

Explanation and bar chart using the first law of thermodynamics of the production of the state of the state of the state of the gas stays constant, $\Delta U_m = 0$. If the external work done on the gas is one of the state of the

Analyzing gas processes

Table 12.6 Application of the first law to gas processes. In each process, the gas starts at position 1 (the initial state) on the P-versus-V graph and moves to position 2 (the final state). (Continued)

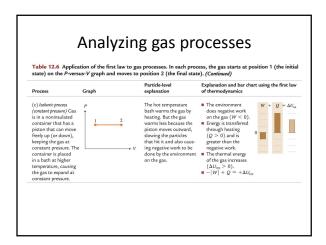
Process

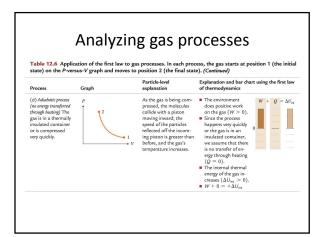
(b) Isochoric process
(constant volume) The
gas is in a noninsulated container with
a fixed piston. The
container is placed
in a bath of higher
temperature. The
temperature of the
gas increases.

Particle-level explanation

As the gas warms, its molecules move faster and faster, colliding with the walls of the container more often and more violently. The gas pressure increases.

Explanation and har chart using the first law of thermodynamics of thermodynamics on the property of the property of the property of the property of the past (W = 0). If the property of the past (W = 0) is the property of the past (P = 0) is the property of the propert





Specific heat

Specific heat ϵ is the physical quantity equal to the amount of energy that needs to be added to 1 kg of a substance to increase its temperature by 1 °C. The symbol for specific heat is ϵ and the units are $\frac{J}{\text{kg} \cdot \text{°C}}$. This energy is added through heating or work or both.

 $\Delta U = cm\Delta T$

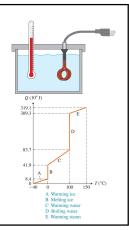
Specific heats of various solids and liquids

Table 12.5 Specific heats (c) of various solid and liquid substances.

Solid Substances	c (J/kg • °C)	Liquid Substances	c(J/kg•°C
Iron, steel	450	Water	4180
Copper	390	Methanol	2510
Aluminum	900	Ethanol	2430
Silica glass	840	Benzene	1730
Sodium chloride	860	Ethylene glycol	2420
Lead	130		
Ice	2090		
Wood	~1700		
Sand	~800		
Brick	~800		
Concrete	~900		
Human body	~3500		

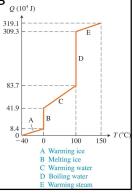
Changing state

• The transformation of ice into water is a phase change—a process during which a substance changes from one state to another. Let's consider an experiment involving the heating of water that starts as very cold solid ice.



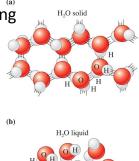
Melting and freezing $_{_{\mathcal{Q}(10^4J)}}$

 At 0 °C, the phase change graph becomes vertical. The ice starts to melt but the thermometer reading does not change, even though energy is being added to the system.



Melting and freezing

 When we transfer energy to the solid material at the melting temperature, all of this energy goes into changing the potential energy of particle interactions, not the kinetic energy—thus the temperature does not change.



Energy to melt or freeze: Latent heat of fusion

Energy to melt or freeze The energy in joules needed to melt a mass m of a solid at its melting temperature, or the energy released when a mass m of the liquid freezes at that same temperature, is

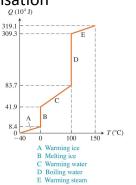
$$\Delta U_{\rm int} = \pm mL_{\rm f} \tag{12.6}$$

 $L_{\rm f}$ is the heat of fusion of the substance (see Table 12.7). The plus sign is used when the substance melts and the minus sign when it freezes.

The term heat of fusion is confusing, as the word *heat* is often associated with warming, that is, temperature change. In the case of melting or freezing, there is no temperature change. However, there is still change in internal energy—the potential energy of interactions of the particles in the system.

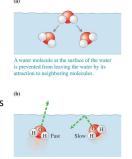
Boiling and condensation $_{\varrho\,(\mathrm{l0^4\,I})}$

 The temperature of the water remains at the boiling temperature until all of the liquid water boils into vapor. Energy has been added to the water, but its temperature does not change.



Boiling and condensation

• For a molecule to leave the surface of a liquid, it must have enough kinetic energy to break away from the neighboring molecules, which are exerting attractive forces on it. The energy transferred to the liquid leads to a change in the potential energy component of the internal energy.



Energy to boil or condense: Heat of vaporization

Energy to boil or condense The energy in joules needed to vaporize a mass m of a liquid at its boiling temperature, or the energy released when a mass m of a gas condenses at that same temperature is

$$\Delta U_{\rm int} = \pm mL_{\rm v} \tag{12.7}$$

 $L_{\rm v}$ is the heat of vaporization of the substance (see Table 12.7). The plus sign is used when the substance vaporizes and the minus sign when it condenses.

Heats of fusion and vaporization

Table 12.7 Heats of fusion and vaporization.

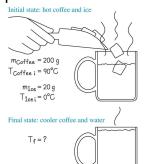
Substance	Melting temperature (°C)	L _f , Heat of fusion at the melting temperature (J/kg)	Boiling temperature (°C)	L _s , Heat of vaporization at the boiling temperature (J/kg)
Water	0	3.35×10^{5}	100	2.256 × 10 ⁶
Ethanol	-114	1.01 × 10 ⁵	78	0.837×10^{6}
Hydrogen (H ₂)	-259	0.586×10^{5}	-253	0.446×10^{6}
Oxygen (O ₂)	-218	0.138×10^{5}	-183	0.213×10^{6}
Nitrogen (N ₂)	-210	0.257×10^{5}	-196	0.199×10^{6}
Aluminum	660	3.999×10^{5}	2520	10.9×10^{6}
Copper	1085	2.035×10^{5}	2562	4.73×10^{6}
Iron	1538	2.473 × 10 ⁵	2861	6.09×10^{6}

Things to notice about melting and boiling

- The values for the heats of fusion and vaporization are much larger than the specific heat. Much more energy is needed to change the state of a substance than to change its temperature.
- The values for heat of vaporization are significantly larger than the values for heat of fusion. More energy is required to boil the same mass of the same substance than to melt it.

Example 12.8

• You add 10 g of ice at temperature 0 °C to 200 g of coffee at 90 °C. Once the ice and coffee reach equilibrium, what is their temperature? Indicate any assumptions you made.



Heating mechanisms

- How can we reduce energy losses from our homes during the winter?
- Why is the "dry heat" in Arizona less uncomfortable than a hot, humid day in Mississippi?
- Why should we be concerned about climate change?
- These questions are related to energy transfer mechanisms and, in particular, to the rate at which these transfers occur.

Conduction

- The process by which thermal energy is transferred through physical contact is called conductive heating or cooling.
- A quantity called thermal conductivity K characterizes the rate at which a particular material transfers thermal energy.
 - You want to use a material with low thermal conductivity to make a cup for holding hot beverages.

Conductive heating/cooling

Conductive heating/cooling The rate of conductive heating $H_{\rm Conduction}$ from the hot side of a material to the cool side is proportional to the temperature difference between the two sides ($T_{\rm Hot}-T_{\rm Cool}$), the thermal conductivity K of the material separating the sides, and the cross-sectional area A across which the thermal energy flows. The rate is inversely proportional to the distance I that the thermal energy travels.

$$H_{\text{Conduction}} = \frac{Q_{\text{Hot to Cool}}}{\Delta t} = \frac{KA(T_{\text{Hot}} - T_{\text{Cool}})}{l}$$
(12.8)

Thermal conductivity of materials (at 25 °C)

Table 12.8 Th	ermal conductivity
of materials (a	25 °C).
Material	K (W/m·°C)

Material	K (W/m⋅°C)		
Metals			
Aluminum	250		
Brass	109		
Copper	400		
Stainless steel	16		
Other solids			
Soil	0.6-4		
Brick	1.31		
Concrete, stone	1.7		
Attic insulation	0.04		
Glass, window	0.9		
Ice (at 0 °C)	2.18		
Styrofoam	0.03		
Wood	0.04-0.14		
Fat	0.2		
Muscle	0.4		
Bone	0.4		
Other materials			
Air	0.024		
Water	0.58		

Evaporative heating/cooling

Evaporative heating/cooling Evaporative heating occurs when a gas condenses on a surface. Evaporative cooling occurs when a liquid evaporates from a surface. The evaporative energy transfer rate $H_{\rm Evaporation}$ is proportional to the rate at which liquid mass evaporates or condenses $\Delta m/\Delta t$ on the surface and to the heat of vaporization $L_{\rm v}$ of the liquid at the temperature of the liquid:

$$H_{\text{Evaporation}} = \pm \left(\frac{\Delta m}{\Delta t}\right) L_{\text{v}}$$
 (12.9)

Forced convective heating/cooling



Forced conv 1. Cool water

1d moving across r fluid. The now-

4. Air passes through radiator causing hot (convection).

from engine to radiator (forced convection).

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Radiative heating/cooling All objects, hot and cool, emit different forms of radiation that can travel through a vacuum. The hotter the object, the greater the rate of radiation emission. Objects in the path of this radiation may absorb it, gaining energy.