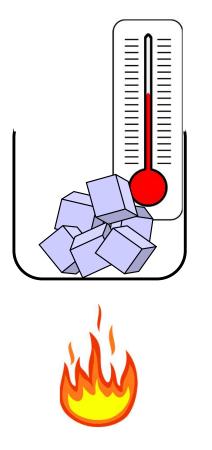
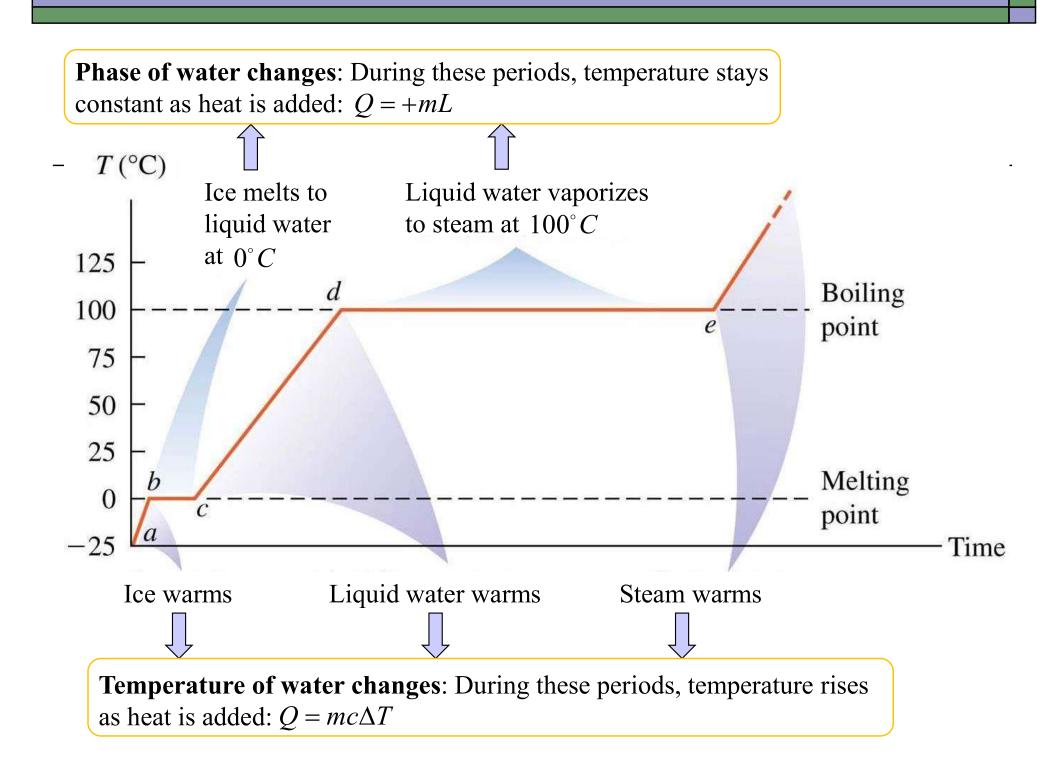
Calorimetric Processes

Now we are ready to describe thermodynamic process such as the following:





Calorimetry: Problem Solving with Heat Exchanges (method 1)

- Main Concept: Conservation of Energy
 - $\sum \Sigma Q = 0 \text{ (sum of all heat flows into and out of system =0)}$
- Sign Convention: heat enters a system is + heat leaves a system is -

$$\Box \quad \varDelta T = T_f - T_i$$

Calorimetry: Problem Solving with Heat Exchanges (method 2)

□ Main Concept: Conservation of Energy

OR
$$\sum Q_{gain} = \sum Q_{loss}$$

□ Keep all heats as positive quantities

Calorimetry: Problem Solving with Heat Exchanges

Steps:

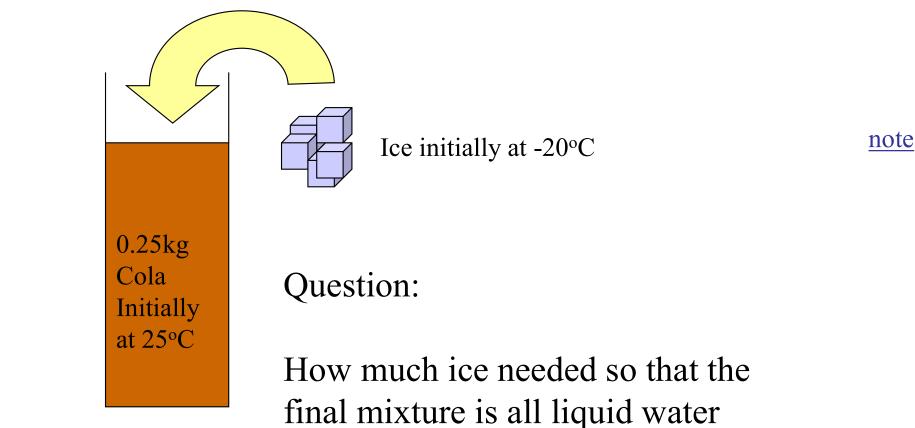
- 1. Identify all phase change pts
- 2. Apply (either $Q=mc\Delta T$ or Q=mL) for each processes separately. (don't apply $Q=mc\Delta T$ across ph. changes!)

3. Use

$$\sum_{ALL} Q = 0 \quad \text{and follow sign convention}$$

or just do
$$\sum Q_{gain} = \sum Q_{loss}$$

Calorimetry (example 17.8)



with a temperature of 0°C?

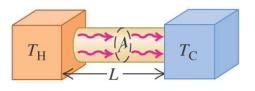
#1: Conduction

$$H = \frac{dQ}{dt} = kA\frac{T_H - T_C}{L}$$

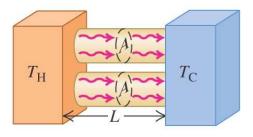
(+H is in the dir. of *decreasing T*)

- $H \rightarrow heat \ current \ [J/s]$ (heat flow rate)
- $k \rightarrow$ thermal conductivity $[W / m \cdot K]$ (characteristic of the material)
- $-R = L/k \rightarrow \text{thermal resistance}$ (larger is better)

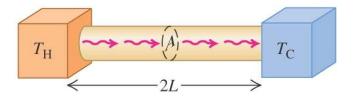
(a) Heat current H



(b) Doubling the cross-sectional area of the conductor doubles the heat current (*H* is proportional to *A*).



(c) Doubling the length of the conductor halves the heat current (H is inversely proportional to L).



Thermal Resistivity (additive R values)

 $H(heat current) = kA(T_H - T_L) / L = A(T_H - T_L) / R$ where R = L / kFor a composite system, we have the following: H $H_{1} = \frac{A(T_{H} - T_{M})}{R_{1}} \qquad H_{2} = \frac{A(T_{M} - T_{L})}{R_{2}}$ Now, by conservation of energy, we need to have $H_{1} = H_{2} = H$ 2 1 Re-arranging and adding the two equations gives: $T_H - T_M = \frac{HR_1}{4}$ $\bigoplus \qquad \Rightarrow \quad T_H - T_L = \frac{H(R_1 + R_2)}{A} \quad \Rightarrow \quad H = \frac{A(T_H - T_L)}{R_1 + R_2}$ T_L T_{H} T_{M} $T_M - T_L = \frac{HR_2}{4}$ So, for composite system, *R* is additive.

Table 17.5 Thermal Conductivities

| Substance | $k(\mathbf{W}/\mathbf{m}\cdot\mathbf{K})$ |
|--------------------------------|---|
| Metals | |
| Aluminum | 205.0 |
| Brass | 109.0 |
| Copper | 385.0 |
| Lead | 34.7 |
| Mercury | 8.3 |
| Silver | 406.0 |
| Steel | 50.2 |
| Solids (representative values) | |
| Brick, insulating | 0.15 |
| Brick, red | 0.6 |
| Concret | 0.8 |
| Cork | 0.04 |
| Felt | 0.04 |
| Fiberglass | 0.04 |
| Glass | 0.8 |
| Ice | 1.6 |
| Rock wool | 0.04 |
| Styrofoam | 0.01 |
| Wood | 0.12-0.04 |
| Gases | |
| Air | 0.024 |
| Argon | 0.016 |
| Helium | 0.14 |
| Hydrogen | 0.14 |
| | |



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Protective tile for the space shuttle has both low values of *k* and *c* !

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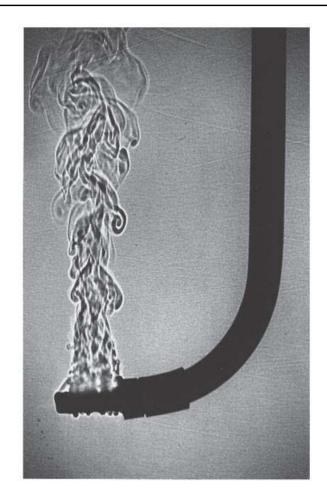
Oxygen

0.023

#2: Convection

 Heating by moving large amounts of hot fluid, usually water or air.

 Heating element in the tip warms surrounding water.
 Heat is transferred by convection of the warm water movement.

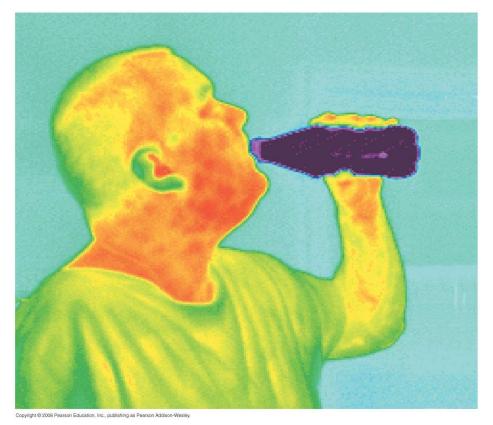


#3: Radiation

 Infrared lamps, hot objects, a fireplace, standing near a running furnace ... these are all objects heating others by "broadcasting" EM radiation.

 $H = Ae\sigma T^4$ (Stefan-Boltzmann Law)

- $A \rightarrow$ surface area of object at T
- e → emissivity [0,1]
 (effectiveness of surface in emitting EM radiation)
- $\sigma \rightarrow$ Stefan-Boltzmann constant (a fundamental physical constant)



Camera sensitive to these radiation can be used to take this picture.

□ Radiation and Absorption

- The *environment* around an object at a given *T* also radiates electromagnetic energy and the radiating object will *absorb* some of this energy.
- In general, the absorption will again depends on the surface properties of the object, i.e., the same A, e, and σ . Now, if the surrounding environment is at T_s , the *net* heat current radiated by the object will be,

$$H_{net} = Ae\sigma T^4 - Ae\sigma T_s^4 = Ae\sigma (T^4 - T_s^4)$$

(radiate) (absorb)

PHYS 262/266

Geroge Mason University

Prof. Paul So

Chapter 18: Thermal Properties of Matter

Topics for Discussion

- Equations of State
- Ideal Gas Equation
- PV Diagrams
- Kinetic-Molecular Model of an Ideal Gas
- Heat Capacities
- Distribution of Molecular Speeds



Equations of State

- □ State Variables
 - \rightarrow physical variables describing the macroscopic state of the system:

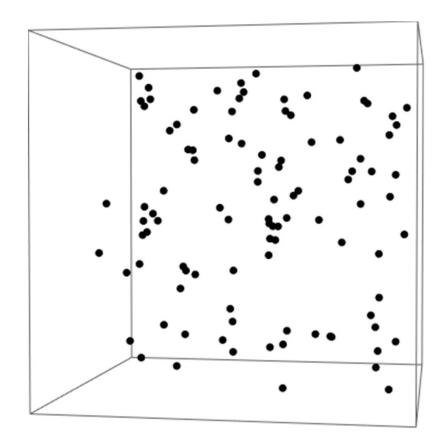
P, *V*, *T*, *n* (or *m*)

□ Equation of State

 \rightarrow a mathematical relationship linking these variables

Ideal Gas – a Box of Dilute Gas

This discussion applies in general to all physical systems ... now we focus on a system of dilute gas

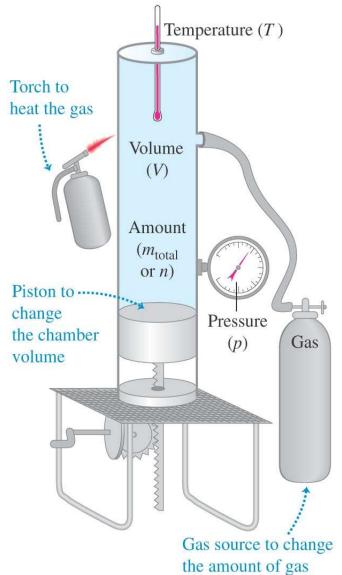


The Ideal Gas Equation

Properties of a gas is studied by varying the macroscopic variables:
 P, *V*, *T*, *n* and observing the result.

□ Observations:

- 1. $P \propto 1/V$ e.g. air pump
- 2. $V \propto T$ e.g. hot air balloon
- 3. $P \propto T$ e.g. hot closed spray can
- 4. $V \propto n$ e.g. birthday balloon



applet

http://phet.colorado.edu/en/simulation/gas-properties

Ideal Gas Law (summary)

□ By putting all these observations together, we have

PV = nRT

 $R \rightarrow$ Universal Gas Constant (R = 8.314 J/mol K)

(This is an important example of an **Equation of State** for a gas at *thermal equilibrium*.)

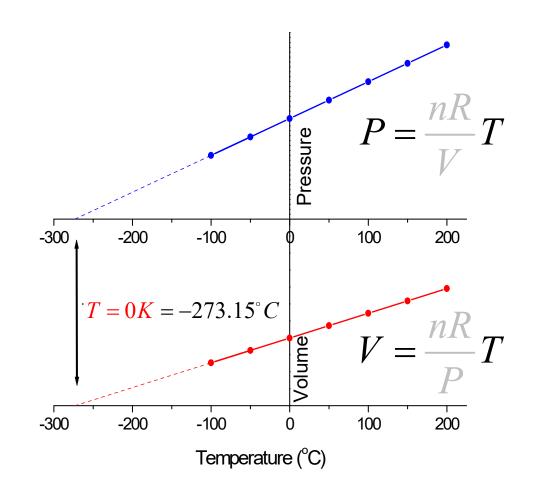
- \Box An Ideal Gas (dilute):
 - No molecular interactions besides elastic collisions
 - Molecular volume <<< volume of container</p>

Most everyday gases ~ Ideal!

The Ideal Gas Law

Important Notes:

- □ The relationship P vs. T (at cont V) & V vs. T (at cont P) are *linear* for all *diluted* gases.
 - \rightarrow diluted gas ~ Ideal
- They both extrapolate to a single *zero* point (absolute zero).
 - \rightarrow *T* has to be in K!



The Ideal Gas Law (alternative form)

Instead of the *number of moles* (*n*), one can specify the amount of gas by the actual *number of molecules* (*N*). $N = n N_A$ ($N_A = 6.02214 \times 10^{23} molecules/mole$) where N_A is the # of molecules in a *mole* of materials (Avogadro's number).

$$PV = nRT \rightarrow PV = \frac{N}{N_A}RT = NkT$$

where k is the Boltzmann constant,

$$k = \frac{R}{N_A} = 1.381 \times 10^{-23} J / molecule \cdot K$$

Example 18.1 (V at STP)

- What is the volume of a gas (one mole) at *Standard Temperature and Pressure* (STP)?
- → STP: $T = 0^{\circ}C = 273.15K$ P = 1 atm = $1.013 \times 10^{5} Pa$

$$PV = nRT \rightarrow V = \frac{nRT}{P}$$

= $\frac{(1 \ mole)(8.314 \ J/mol \cdot K)(273.15K)}{1.013 \times 10^5 \ Pa} = 0.0224 \ m^3 = 22.4L$

Typical Usage for the Ideal Gas Law

 \Box For a fixed amount of gas (*nR*=const)

$$\square \longrightarrow \frac{PV}{T} = nR = const$$

□ So, if we have a gas at two different states 1(before) and 2 (after), their state variables are related simply by:

$$\frac{P_1V_1}{T_1} = \frac{P_2V_2}{T_2}$$

We can use this relation to solve for any unknown variables with the others being given.