



Chapter 17

Temperature and Heat

PowerPoint® Lectures for
University Physics, 14th Edition
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Learning Goals for Chapter 17

Looking forward at ...

- the meaning of thermal equilibrium, and what thermometers really measure.
- the physics behind the absolute, or Kelvin, temperature scale.
- how the dimensions of an object change as a result of a temperature change.
- how to do calculations that involve heat flow, temperature changes, and changes of phase.
- how heat is transferred by conduction, convection, and radiation.

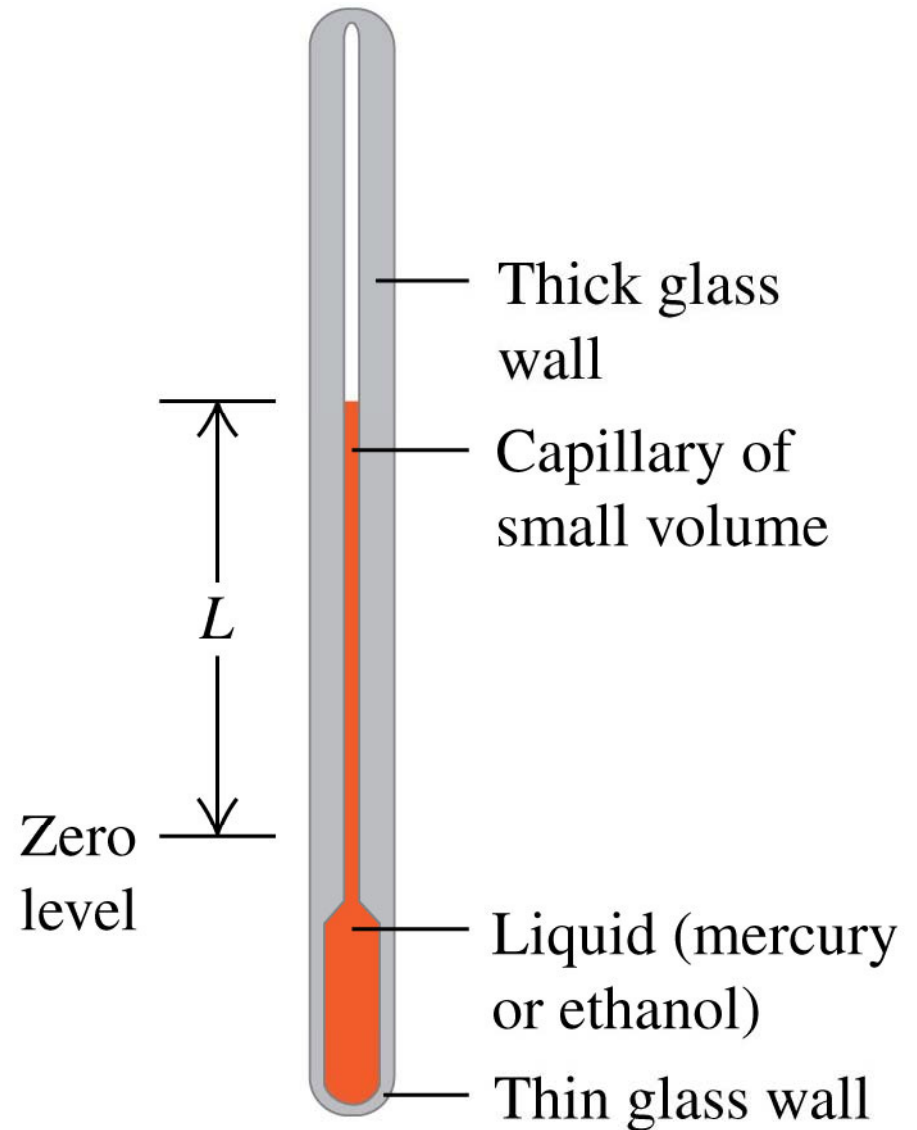
Introduction

- Does molten iron at 1500°C contain heat?
- The terms “temperature” and “heat” have very different meanings, even though most people use them interchangeably.
- In this chapter, we’ll focus on large-scale, or *macroscopic*, objects, but in the next chapter we’ll look at the *microscopic* scale.



Temperature and thermal equilibrium

- We use a **thermometer** to measure **temperature**.
- For example, the volume of the liquid in the thermometer to the right changes with temperature.
- Two systems are in **thermal equilibrium** if and only if they have the same temperature.



Other types of thermometers

- A temporal artery thermometer measures infrared radiation from the skin that overlies one of the important arteries in the head.
- Although the thermometer cover touches the skin, the infrared detector inside the cover does not.

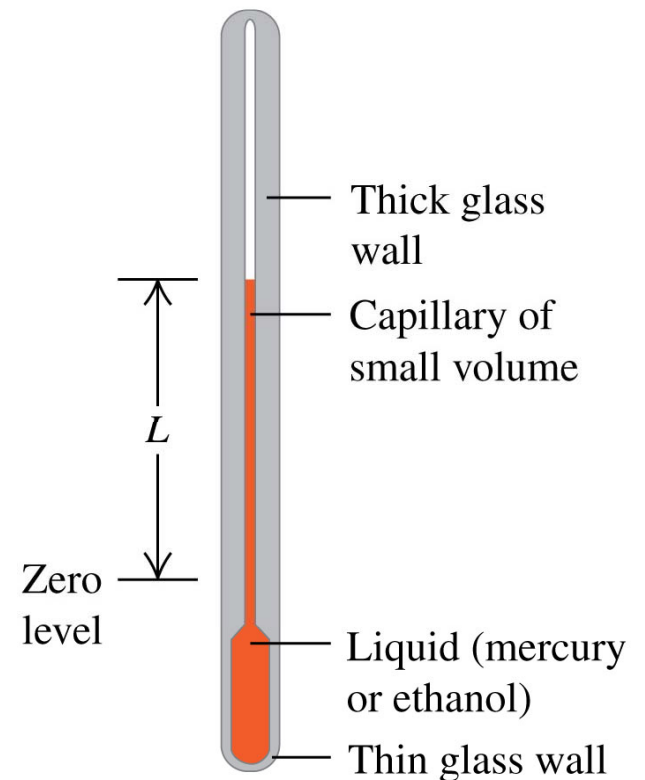


Q17.1

The illustration shows a thermometer that uses a column of liquid (usually mercury or ethanol) to measure air temperature. In thermal equilibrium, this thermometer measures the temperature of

Changes in temperature cause the liquid's volume to change.

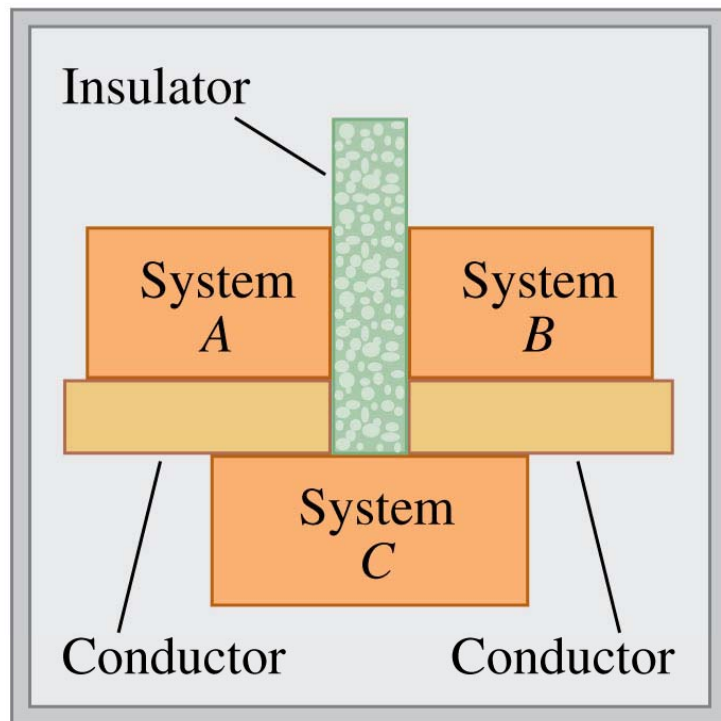
- A. the column of liquid.
- B. the glass that encloses the liquid.
- C. the air outside the thermometer.
- D. both A and B.
- E. all of A, B, and C.



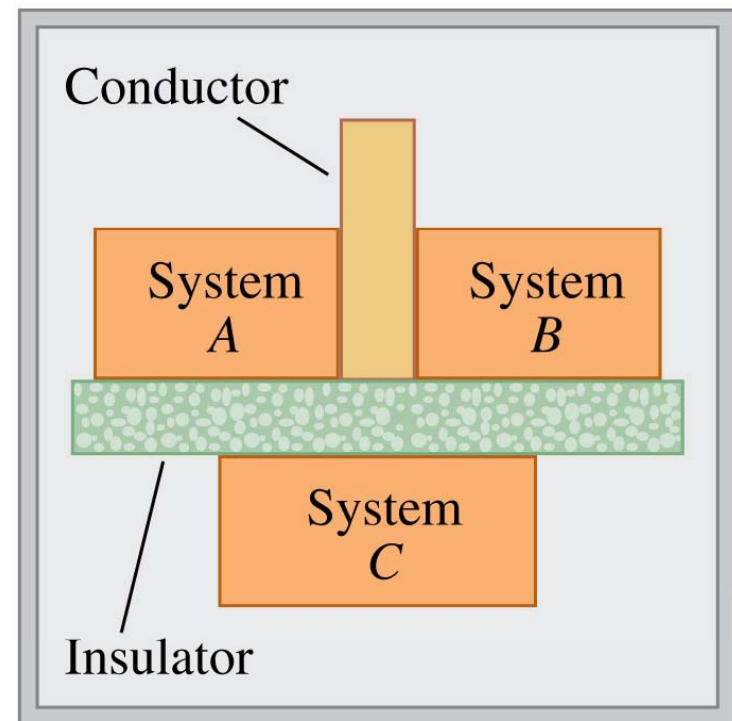
The zeroth law of thermodynamics

- If C is initially in thermal equilibrium with both A and B , then A and B are in thermal equilibrium with each other.

(a) If systems A and B are each in thermal equilibrium with system C ...



(b) ... then systems A and B are in thermal equilibrium with each other.



Temperature scales

- On the *Celsius* (or *centigrade*) *temperature scale*, 0°C is the freezing point of pure water and 100°C is its boiling point.
- On the *Fahrenheit temperature scale*, 32°F is the freezing point of pure water and 212°F is its boiling point.
- To convert from Celsius to Fahrenheit:

$$T_{\text{F}} = \frac{9}{5}T_{\text{C}} + 32^{\circ}$$

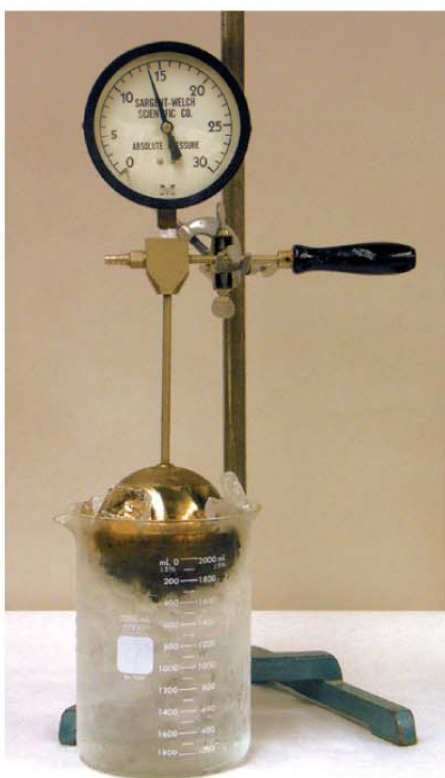
- To convert from Fahrenheit to Celsius:

$$T_{\text{C}} = \frac{5}{9}(T_{\text{F}} - 32^{\circ})$$

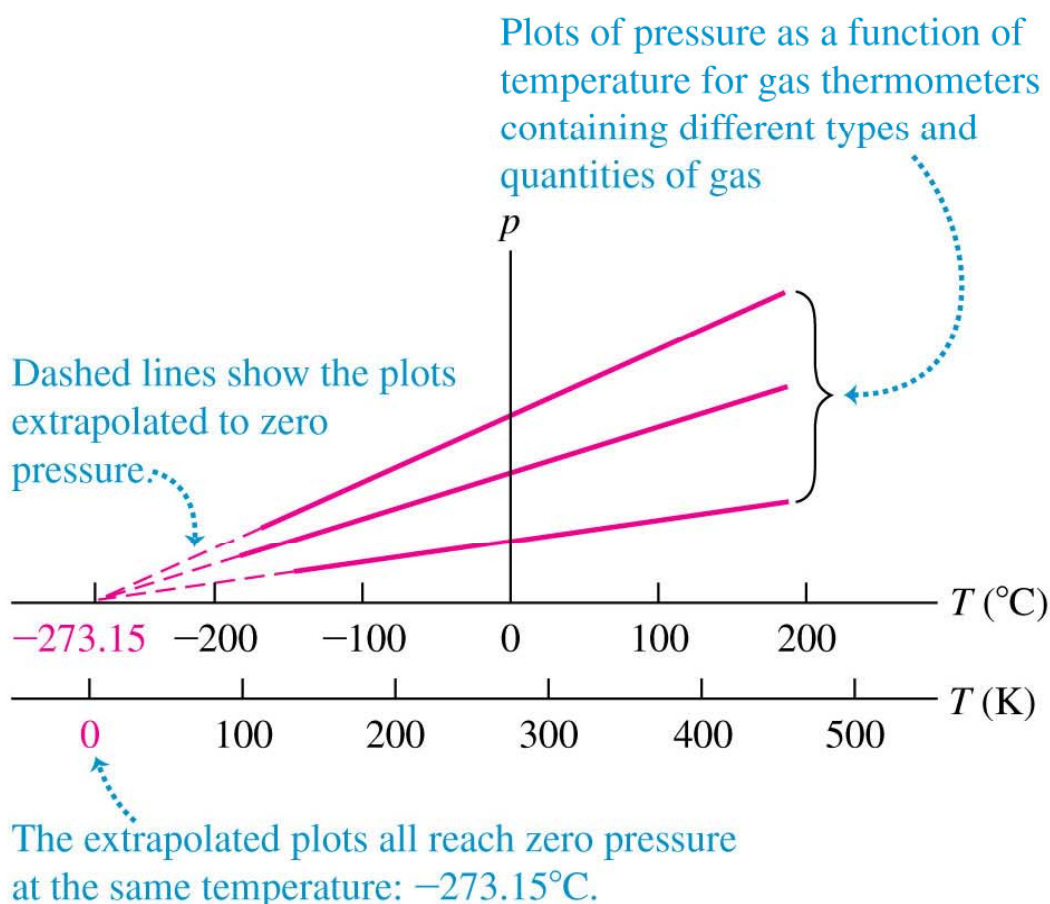
Absolute zero

- There is a temperature, -273.15°C , at which the absolute pressure of any gas would become zero.

(a) A constant-volume gas thermometer



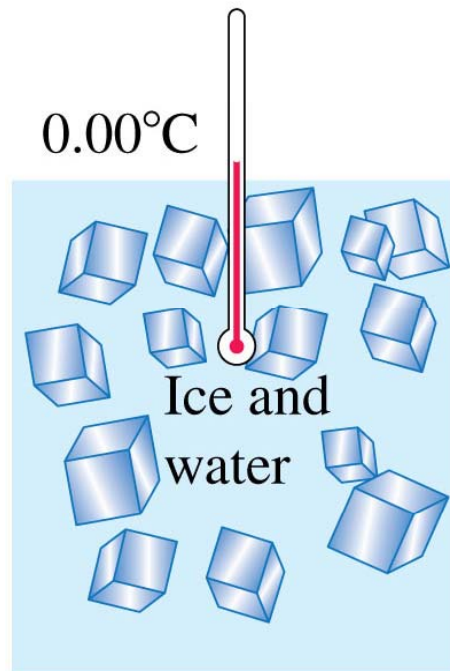
(b) Graphs of pressure versus temperature at constant volume for three different types and quantities of gas



Temperature scales

- On the *Kelvin* (or *absolute*) temperature scale, 0 K is the extrapolated temperature at which a gas would exert no pressure.
- To convert from Celsius to Kelvin:

$$\text{Kelvin temperature} \rightarrow T_K = T_C + 273.15 \leftarrow \text{Celsius temperature}$$



Kelvin temperatures are measured in kelvins ...

$$T = 273.15 \text{ K} \quad \blacktriangleleft \text{RIGHT!}$$

... *not* “degrees” kelvin.

$$T = 273.15 \text{ }^\circ\text{K} \quad \blacktriangleleft \text{WRONG}$$

Temperature conversions

- Below are relationships among Kelvin (K), Celsius (C), and Fahrenheit (F) temperature scales. Temperatures have been rounded off to the nearest degree.

	K	C	F
Water boils	373	100°	212°
	↑ 100 K	↑ 100 C°	↑ 180 F°
Water freezes	273	0°	32°
CO ₂ solidifies	195	-78°	-109°
Oxygen liquefies	90	-183°	-298°
Absolute zero	0	-273°	-460°

Exercise

Rank the following temperatures from highest to lowest.

A. 20.0° F

B. 20.0° C

C. 20.0 K

D. -80.0° F

E. -80.0° C

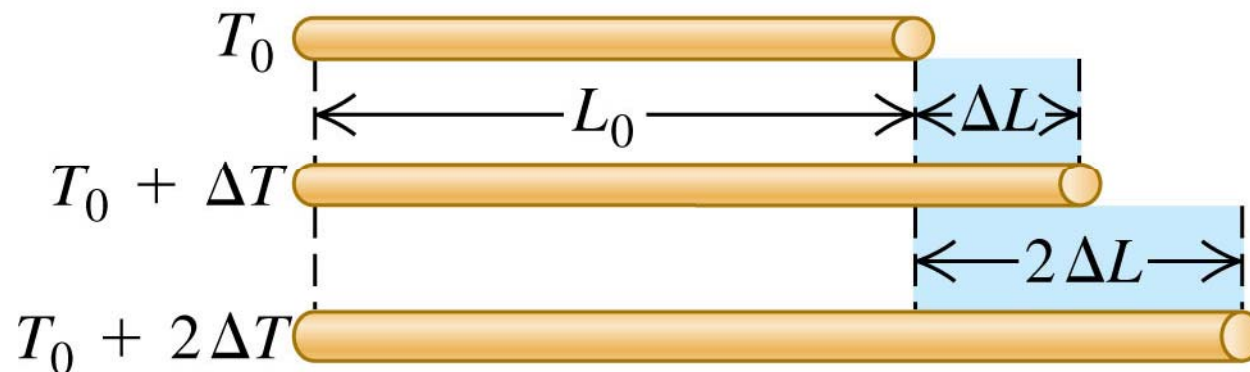
Linear thermal expansion

- Increasing the temperature of a rod causes it to expand.
- For moderate changes in temperature, the change in length is given by:

Linear thermal expansion:
Change in length

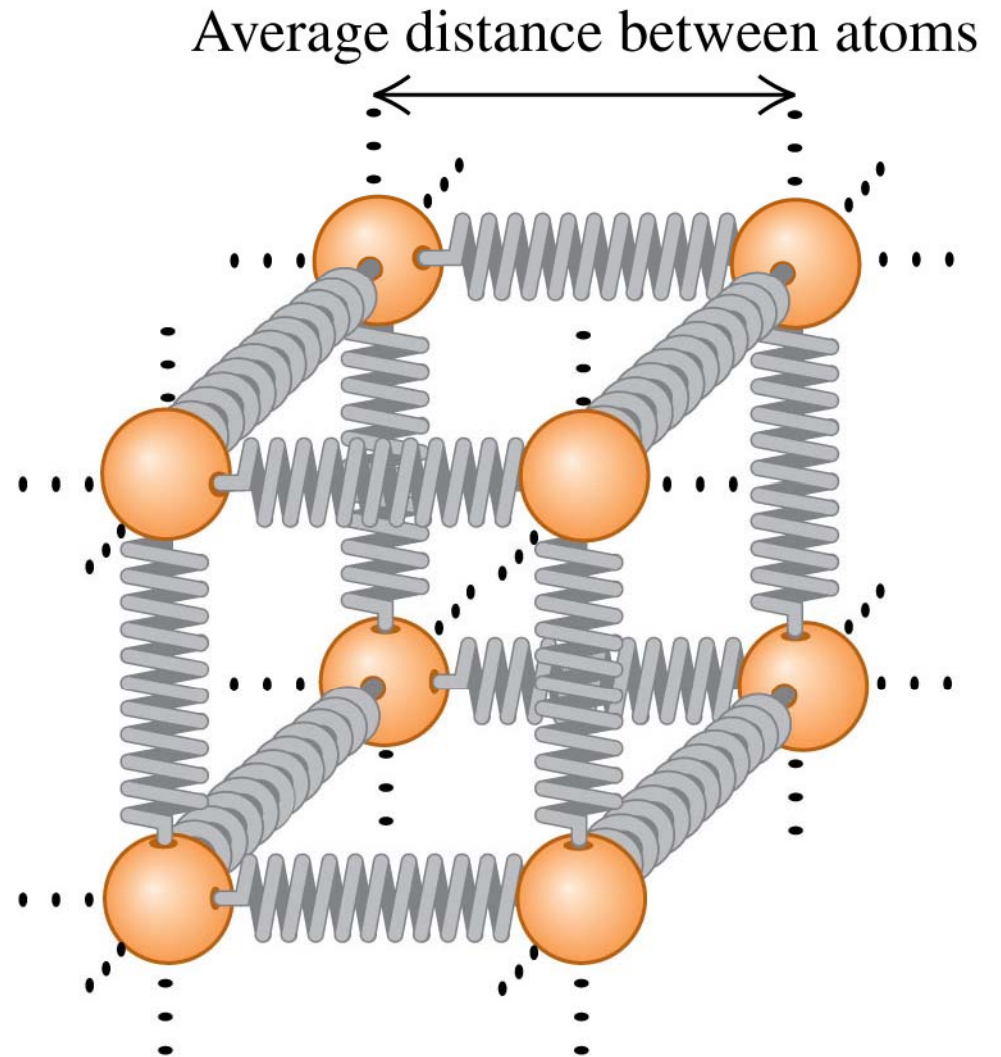
$$\Delta L = \alpha L_0 \Delta T$$

Original length
Temperature change
Coefficient of linear expansion



Molecular basis for thermal expansion

- We can understand linear expansion if we model the atoms as being held together by springs.
- When the temperature increases, the average distance between atoms also increases.
- As the atoms get farther apart, every dimension increases.

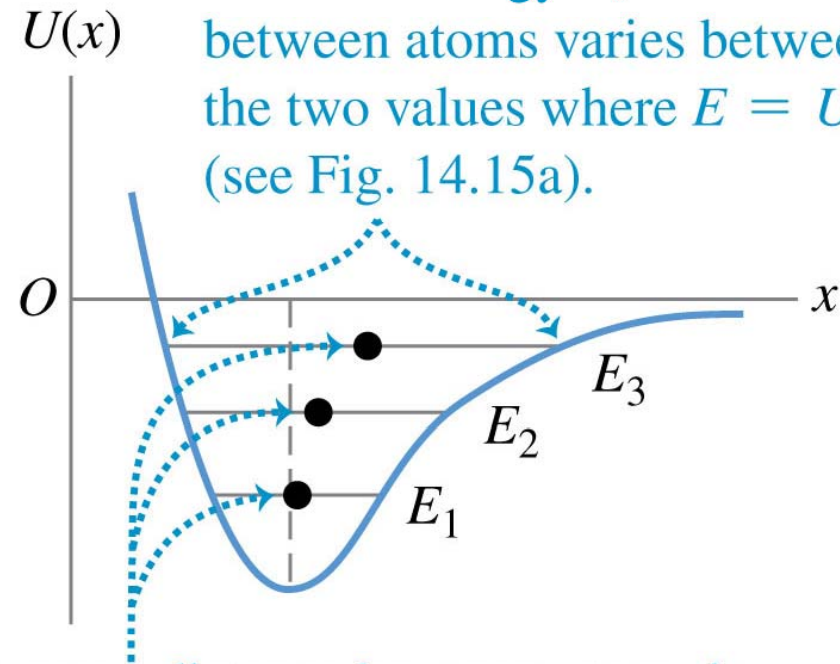


Molecular basis for thermal expansion

- A graph of the “spring” potential energy versus distance between neighboring atoms is not symmetrical.
- As the energy increases and the atoms oscillate with greater amplitude, the average distance increases.

x = distance between atoms
● = average distance between atoms

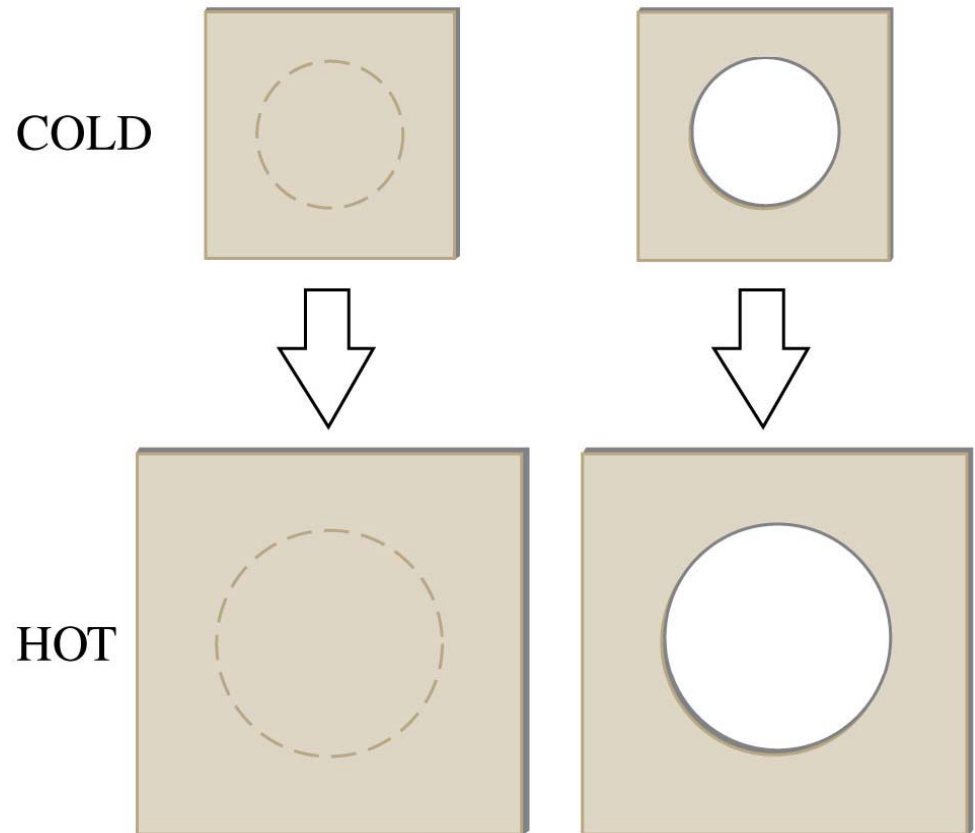
For each energy E , distance between atoms varies between the two values where $E = U$ (see Fig. 14.15a).



Average distance between atoms is midway between two limits. As energy increases from E_1 to E_2 to E_3 , average distance increases.

Expanding holes and volume expansion

- If an object has a hole in it, the hole also expands with the object, as shown.
- The hole does *not shrink*.
- The change in volume due to thermal expansion is given by $\Delta V = \beta V_0 \Delta T$, where β is the **coefficient of volume expansion** and is equal to 3α . (Why?)



A plate expands when heated ...

... so a hole cut out of the plate must expand, too.

Table 17.1: Coefficients of linear expansion

Material	α [K^{-1} or $(\text{C}^\circ)^{-1}$]
Aluminum	2.4×10^{-5}
Brass	2.0×10^{-5}
Copper	1.7×10^{-5}
Glass	$0.4\text{--}0.9 \times 10^{-5}$
Invar (nickel–iron alloy)	0.09×10^{-5}
Quartz (fused)	0.04×10^{-5}
Steel	1.2×10^{-5}

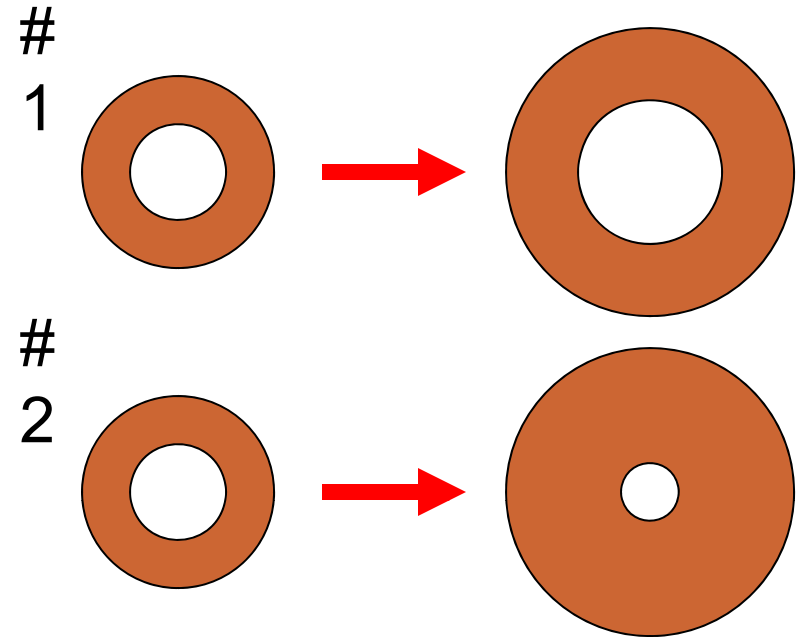
Table 17.2: Coefficients of volume expansion

$$\beta = 3\alpha.$$

Solids	β [K^{-1} or $(\text{C}^\circ)^{-1}$]
Aluminum	7.2×10^{-5}
Brass	6.0×10^{-5}
Copper	5.1×10^{-5}
Glass	$1.2\text{--}2.7 \times 10^{-5}$
Invar	0.27×10^{-5}
Quartz (fused)	0.12×10^{-5}
Steel	3.6×10^{-5}

Q17.3

A solid object has a hole in it. Which of these illustrations more correctly shows how the size of the object and the hole change as the temperature increases?



- A. illustration #1
- B. illustration #2
- C. The answer depends on the material of which the object is made.
- D. The answer depends on how much the temperature increases.
- E. Both C and D are correct.

Q17.4

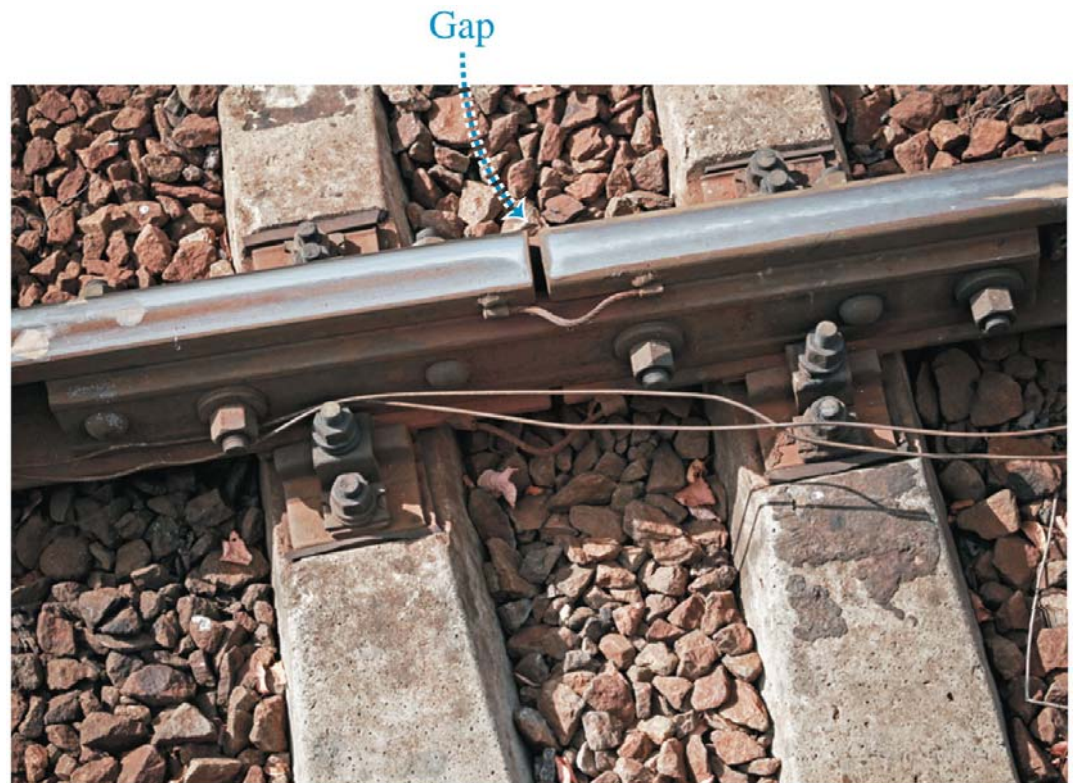
When the temperature of a certain solid, rectangular object increases by ΔT , the length of one side of the object increases by $0.010\% = 1.0 \times 10^{-4}$ of the original length. The increase in *volume* of the object due to this temperature increase is

- A. $0.010\% = 1.0 \times 10^{-4}$ of the original volume.
- B. $(0.010)^3\% = 0.0000010\% = 1.0 \times 10^{-8}$ of the original volume.
- C. $(1.0 \times 10^{-4})^3 = 0.00000000010\% = 1.0 \times 10^{-12}$ of the original volume.
- D. $0.030\% = 3.0 \times 10^{-4}$ of the original volume.
- E. Not enough information is given to decide.

Example of thermal expansion

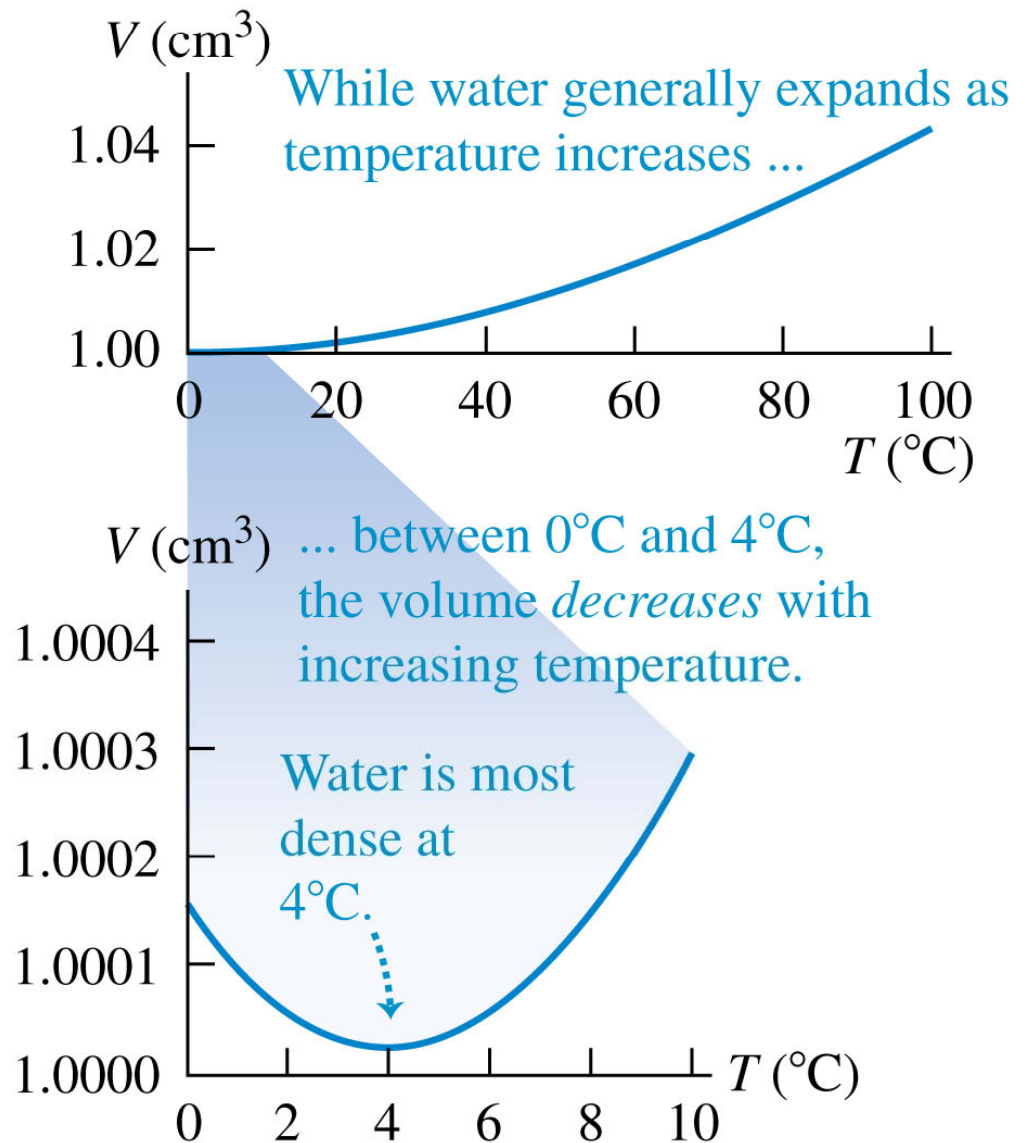
- This railroad track has a gap between segments to allow for thermal expansion.
- On hot days, the segments expand and fill in the gap.
- If there were no gaps, the track could buckle under very hot conditions.

More examples?



Thermal expansion of water

- Between 0°C and 4°C, water *decreases* in volume with increasing temperature.
- Because of this anomalous behavior, lakes freeze from the top down instead of from the bottom up.



Thermal stress

- If we change the temperature of a rod but prevent it from expanding or contracting, *thermal stress* develops.

Thermal stress:

Force needed to
keep length of rod
constant

$$\frac{F}{A} = -Y\alpha \Delta T$$

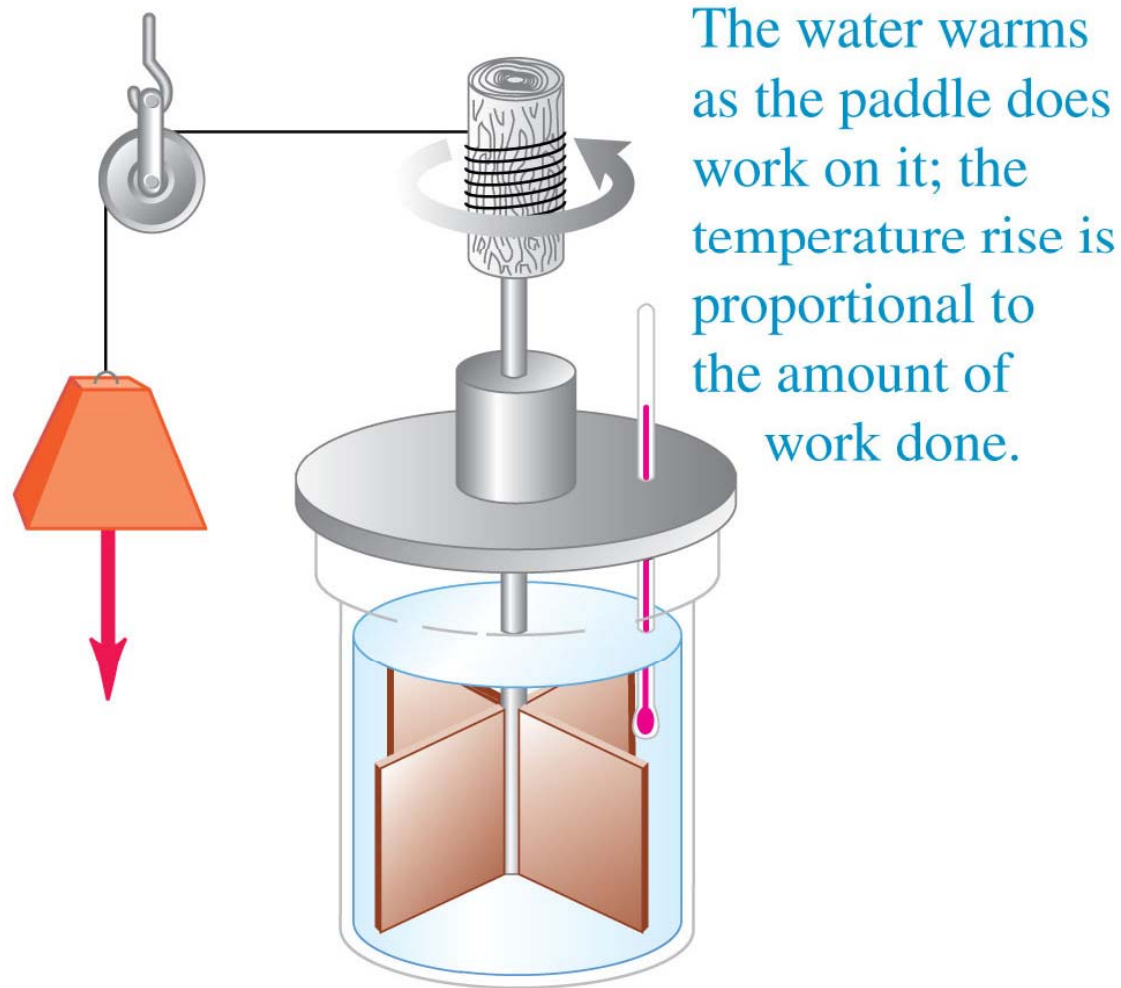
Young's modulus
Temperature change
Coefficient of linear expansion
Cross-sectional area of rod

- Expansion joints on bridges are needed to accommodate changes in length that result from thermal expansion.



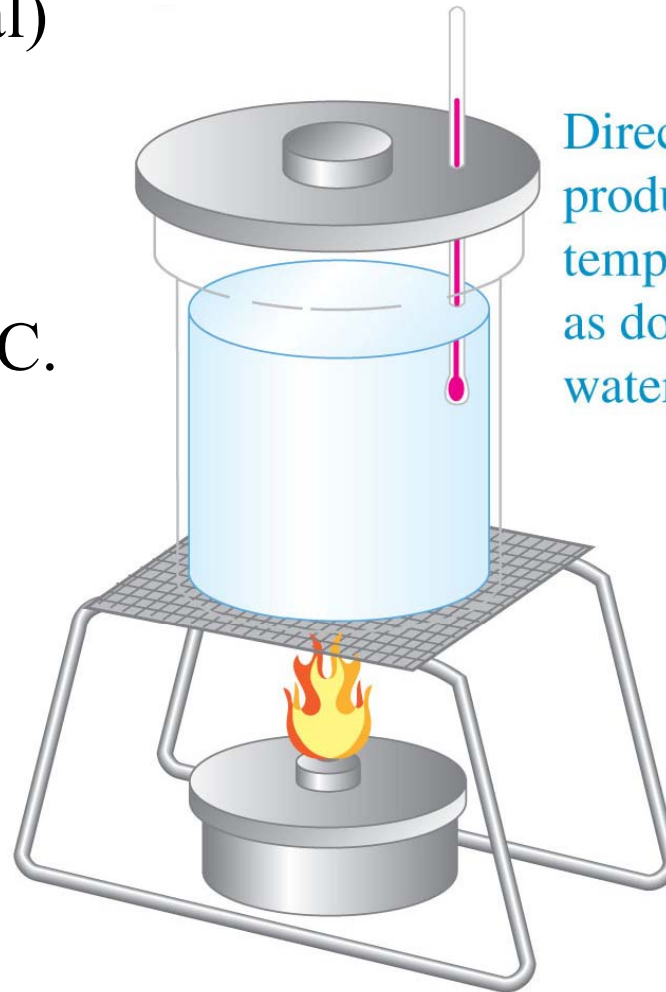
Quantity of heat

- Sir James Joule (1818–1889) studied how water can be warmed by vigorous stirring with a paddle wheel.



Quantity of heat

- The same temperature change caused by stirring can also be caused by putting the water in contact with some hotter body.
- The **calorie** (abbreviated cal) is the amount of heat required to raise the temperature of 1 gram of water from 14.5°C to 15.5°C .



Direct heating can produce the same temperature change as doing work on the water.

Specific heat

- The quantity of heat Q required to increase the temperature of a mass m of a certain material by ΔT is:

Heat required to change temperature of a certain mass

$$Q = mc\Delta T$$

Mass of material

Temperature change

Specific heat of material

The diagram shows the equation $Q = mc\Delta T$ with four labels and arrows pointing to the corresponding terms: 'Heat required to change temperature of a certain mass' points to Q ; 'Mass of material' points to m ; 'Specific heat of material' points to c ; and 'Temperature change' points to ΔT .

- The **specific heat** c has different values for different materials.
- The specific heat of water is approximately $4190 \text{ J/kg} \cdot \text{K}$.

Molar heat capacity

- The quantity of heat Q required to increase the temperature of n moles of a certain material by ΔT is:

Heat required to change temperature of a certain number of moles $\rightarrow Q = nC\Delta T$

Number of moles of material (points to n)

Molar heat capacity of material (points to C)

Temperature change (points to ΔT)

- The **molar heat capacity** C has different values for different materials.
- The molar heat capacity of water is approximately $75.4 \text{ J/mol} \cdot \text{K}$.

Table 17.3: Specific heats and molar heat capacities

Substance	Specific Heat, c (J/kg · K)	Molar Mass, M (kg/mol)	Molar Heat Capacity, C (J/mol · K)
Aluminum	910	0.0270	24.6
Beryllium	1970	0.00901	17.7
Copper	390	0.0635	24.8
Ethanol	2428	0.0461	111.9
Ethylene glycol	2386	0.0620	148.0
Ice (near 0°C)	2100	0.0180	37.8
Iron	470	0.0559	26.3
Lead	130	0.207	26.9
Marble (CaCO ₃)	879	0.100	87.9
Mercury	138	0.201	27.7
Salt (NaCl)	879	0.0585	51.4
Silver	234	0.108	25.3
Water (liquid)	4190	0.0180	75.4

Q17.5

You wish to increase the temperature of a 1.00-kg block of a certain solid substance from 20°C to 25°C . (The block remains solid as its temperature increases.) To calculate the amount of heat required to do this, you need to know

- A. the specific heat of the substance.
- B. the molar heat capacity of the substance.
- C. the heat of fusion of the substance.
- D. the thermal conductivity of the substance.
- E. more than one of the above.

Phase changes

- The **phases** (or states) of matter are solid, liquid, and gas.
- A **phase change** is a transition from one phase to another.
- The temperature does not change during a phase change.
- The **latent heat**, L , is the heat per unit mass that is transferred in a phase change.

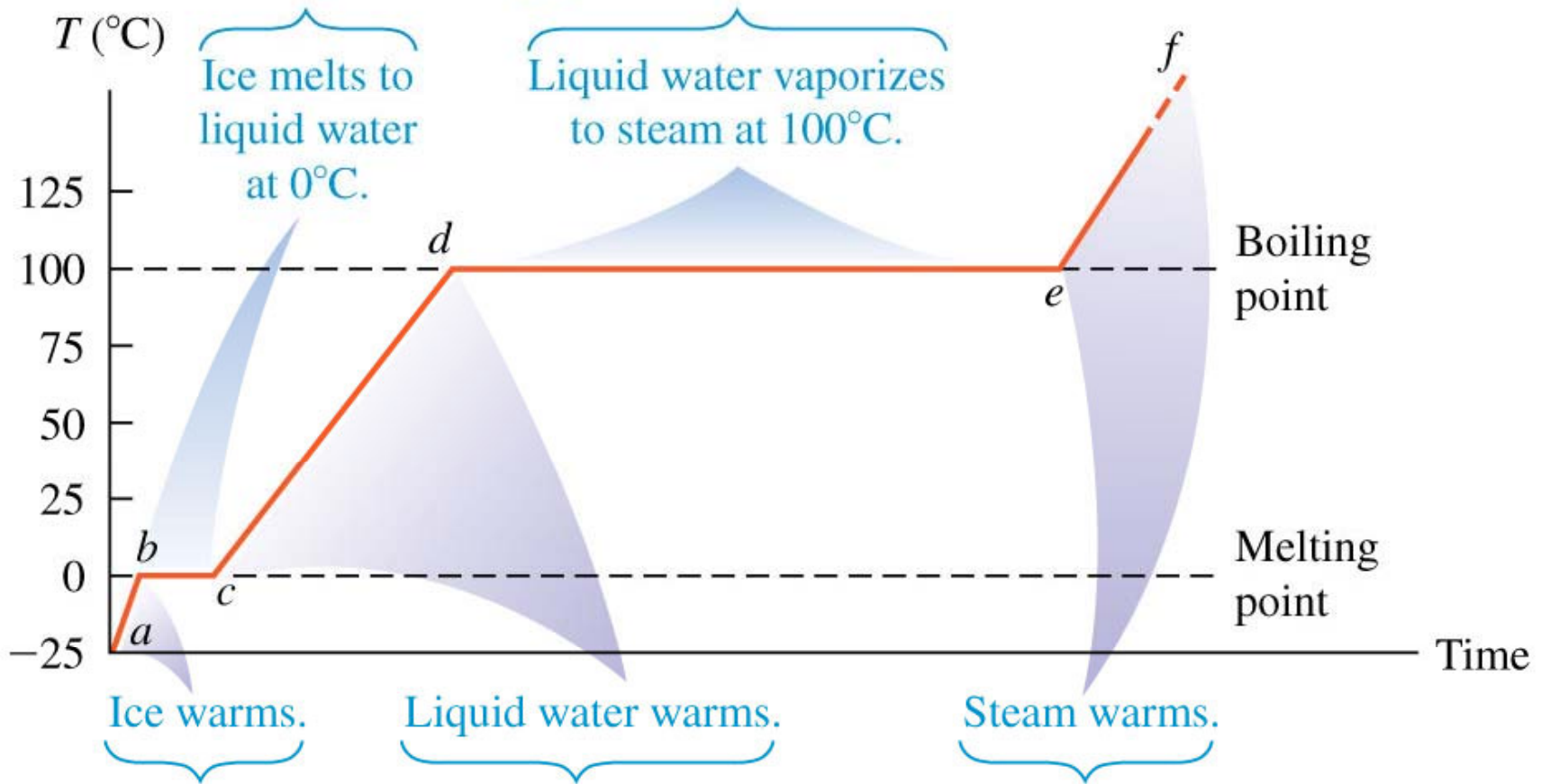


Heat transfer in a phase change $Q = \pm mL$

Mass of material that changes phase
Latent heat for this phase change
+ if heat enters material, - if heat leaves

Heat added to ice at a constant rate

Phase of water changes. During these periods, temperature stays constant and the phase change proceeds as heat is added: $Q = +mL$.



Temperature of water changes. During these periods, temperature rises as heat is added: $Q = mc\Delta T$.

Heat of fusion

- The metal gallium, shown here melting in a person's hand, is one of the few elements that melts at room temperature.
- Its melting temperature is 29.8°C , and its **heat of fusion** is $L_f = 8.04 \times 10^4 \text{ J/kg}$.



Heat of vaporization

- The water may be warm and it may be a hot day, but these children will feel cold when they first step out of the swimming pool.
- That's because as water evaporates from their skin, it removes the **heat of vaporization** from their bodies.
- To stay warm, they will need to dry off immediately.



Heat of fusion and vaporization

TABLE 17.4 Heats of Fusion and Vaporization

Substance	Normal Melting Point		Heat of Fusion, L_f (J/kg)	Normal Boiling Point		Heat of Vaporization, L_v (J/kg)
	K	°C		K	°C	
Helium	*	*	*	4.216	−268.93	20.9×10^3
Hydrogen	13.84	−259.31	58.6×10^3	20.26	−252.89	452×10^3
Nitrogen	63.18	−209.97	25.5×10^3	77.34	−195.8	201×10^3
Oxygen	54.36	−218.79	13.8×10^3	90.18	−183.0	213×10^3
Ethanol	159	−114	104.2×10^3	351	78	854×10^3
Mercury	234	−39	11.8×10^3	630	357	272×10^3
Water	273.15	0.00	334×10^3	373.15	100.00	2256×10^3
Sulfur	392	119	38.1×10^3	717.75	444.60	326×10^3
Lead	600.5	327.3	24.5×10^3	2023	1750	871×10^3
Antimony	903.65	630.50	165×10^3	1713	1440	561×10^3
Silver	1233.95	960.80	88.3×10^3	2466	2193	2336×10^3
Gold	1336.15	1063.00	64.5×10^3	2933	2660	1578×10^3
Copper	1356	1083	134×10^3	1460	1187	5069×10^3

*A pressure in excess of 25 atmospheres is required to make helium solidify. At 1 atmosphere pressure, helium remains a liquid down to absolute zero.

Q17.6

A pitcher contains 0.50 kg of liquid water at 0°C and 0.50 kg of ice at 0°C . You let heat flow into the pitcher until there is 0.75 kg of liquid water and 0.25 kg of ice. During this process, the temperature of the ice-water mixture

- A. increases slightly.
- B. decreases slightly.
- C. first increases slightly, then decreases slightly.
- D. remains the same.
- E. The answer depends on the rate at which heat flows.

Exercises

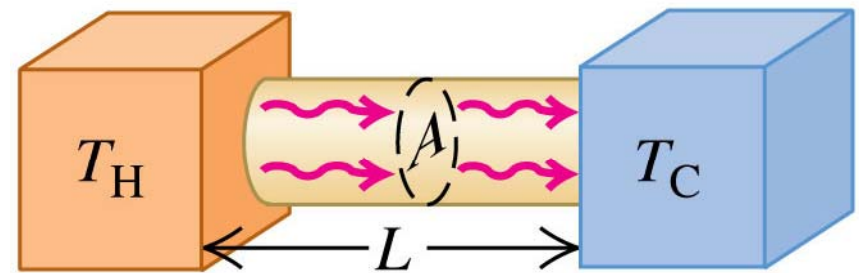
1. You have 750 g of water at 10°C in a large insulated beaker. How much boiling water at 100°C must you add to this beaker so that the final temperature of the mixture will be 75°C ?
2. How much heat is required to convert 18.0 g of ice at -10.0°C to steam at 100.0°C ? Express your answer in joules, calories.
3. A copper pot with a mass of 0.500 kg containing 0.170 kg of water, and both are at 20.0°C . A 0.250-kg block of iron at 85.0°C is dropped into the pot. Find the final temperature of the system, assuming no heat loss to the surroundings.

Mechanisms of heat transfer

- In nature, energy naturally flows from higher temperature objects to lower temperature objects; this is called **heat transfer**.
- The three mechanisms of heat transfer are **conduction**, **convection**, and **radiation**.
- *Conduction* occurs within a body or between two bodies in contact.
- *Convection* depends on motion of mass from one region of space to another.
- *Radiation* is heat transfer by electromagnetic radiation, such as sunshine, with no need for matter to be present in the space between bodies.

Conduction of heat

- In conduction, heat flows from a higher to a lower temperature.
- Consider a solid rod of conducting material with cross-sectional area A and length L .
- The left end of the rod is kept at a temperature T_H and the right end at a lower temperature T_C .
- The rate that heat is transferred is:



Rate of heat flow

Heat current in conduction

Temperatures of hot and cold ends of rod

Length of rod

Thermal conductivity of rod material

Cross-sectional area of rod

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

Thermal conductivities of some common substances

Substance	k (W/m · K)
Silver	406
Copper	385
Aluminum	205
Wood	0.12 – 0.04
Concrete	0.8
Fiberglass	0.04
Styrofoam	0.027

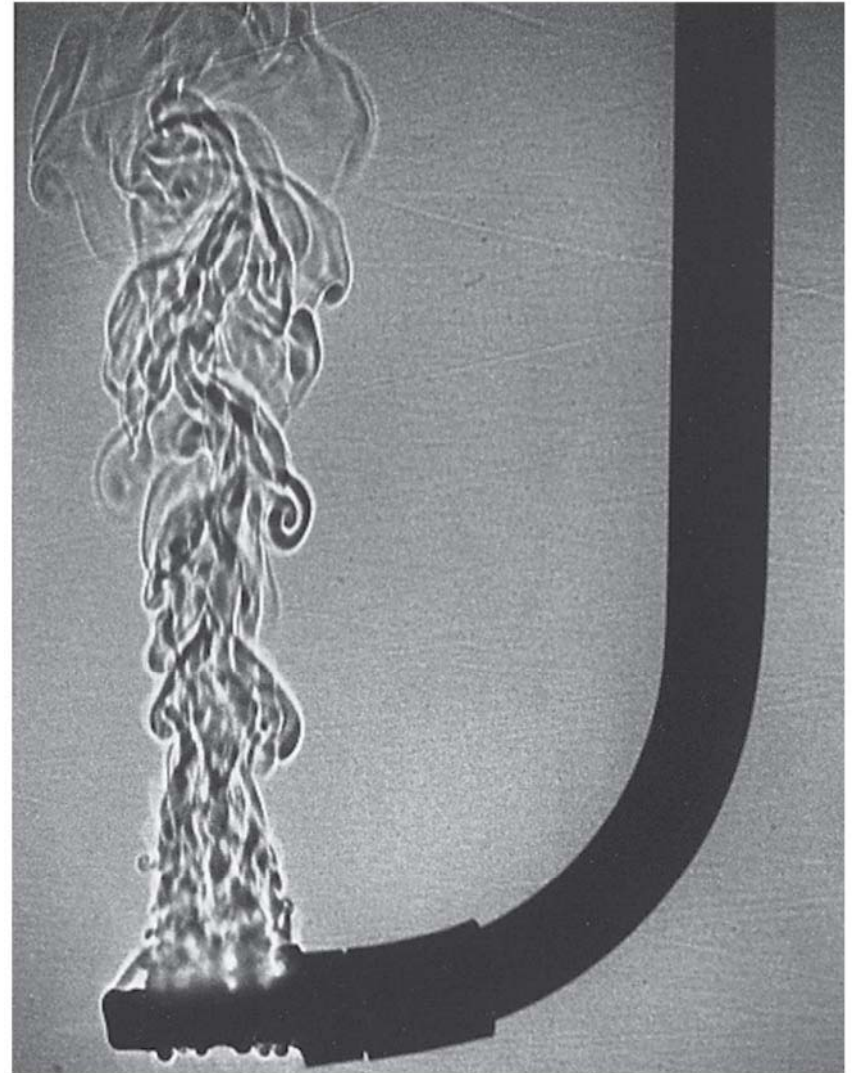
Q17.7

A chair has a wooden seat but metal legs. The chair legs feel colder to the touch than does the seat. Why is this?

- A. The metal is at a lower temperature than the wood.
- B. The metal has a higher specific heat than the wood.
- C. The metal has a lower specific heat than the wood.
- D. The metal has a higher thermal conductivity than the wood.
- E. The metal has a lower thermal conductivity than the wood.

Convection of heat

- **Convection** is the transfer of heat by the mass motion of fluid.
- A heating element in the tip of this submerged tube warms the surrounding water, producing a complex pattern of free convection.



Radiation of heat

- **Radiation** is the transfer of heat by electromagnetic waves, such as visible light or infrared.
- This false-color infrared photograph reveals radiation emitted by various parts of the man's body.
- The strongest emission comes from the warmest areas, while there is very little emission from the bottle of cold beverage.
- **Stefan-Boltzmann law:** The *heat current* in radiation is:



$$H = Ae\sigma T^4$$

Heat current in radiation

Area of emitting surface

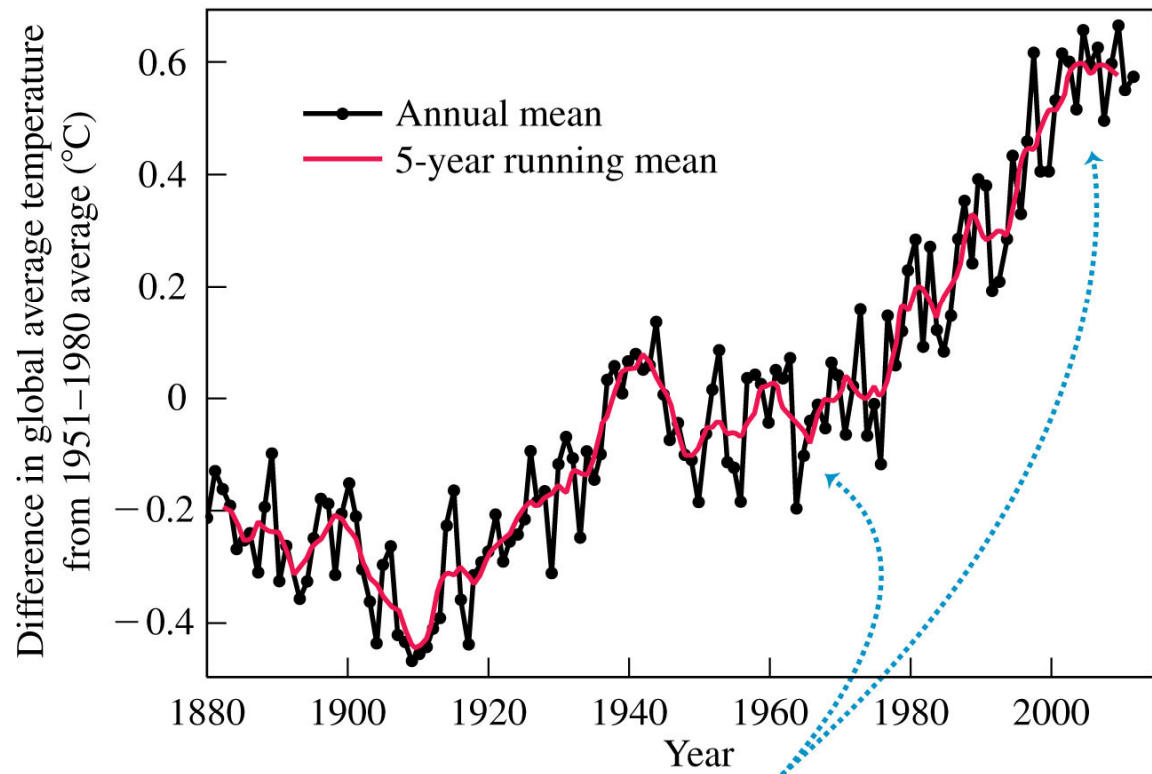
Emissivity of surface

Stefan-Boltzmann constant

Absolute temperature of surface

Radiation and climate change

- The energy radiated by the earth's surface is mostly infrared.
- CO₂ molecules in our atmosphere readily absorb some of this infrared radiation and reradiate part of it back down toward the surface.



Increased atmospheric CO₂ due to burning of fossil fuels is the cause of this continuing increase in global average temperatures.

Exercises

1. One end of an insulated metal rod is maintained at 100.0°C , and the other end is maintained at 0.00°C by an ice-water mixture. The rod is 60.0 cm long and has a cross-sectional area of 1.25 cm^2 . The heat conducted by the rod melts 8.50 g of ice in 10.0 min . Find the thermal conductivity of the metal.
2. A spherical pot contains 0.75 L of hot coffee (essentially water) at an initial temperature of 95°C . The pot has an emissivity of 0.60 , and the surroundings are at 20.0°C . Calculate the coffee's rate of heat loss by radiation.