MATHEMATICAL TRIPOS PART IIB Prof. E.J. Hinch 'Waves in Fluid and Solid Media' January 2003

Conservation of mass and of momentum give two equations relating the density $\rho(\mathbf{x},t)$ and the velocity $\mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x},t)$. The latter equation introduces another variable, the pressure $p(x,t)$. In a compressible fluid (gas or liquid), an equation of state gives a relation between the pressure and density, which unfortunately introduces a further variable, temperature $T(\mathbf{x},t)$. Hence we need a diversion into thermodynamics. The only result that we need from this diversion is the relationship between pressure and density when entropy is constant

$$
\frac{p}{p_0}=\left(\frac{\rho}{\rho_0}\right)^{\gamma},
$$

1.3 *A little thermodynamics*

The equation of state is in general a relation $F(p, \rho, T) = 0$. For a perfect gas (dilute, spacing between molecules is many molecules, air is 10) it is

$$
p = \rho RT,
$$

with gas constant $R = 8314 \,\mathrm{m}^2\mathrm{s}^{-2}\mathrm{K}^{-1}(\text{mole wt})^{-1}$, mole wt for dry air is 29.

0th law – there exists temperature T

After several collisions with other molecules, the velocity of a molecule becomes randomised and the gas attains thermal equilibrium characterised by a temperature T. The time for air is 10^{-9} s and for water 10^{-12} s. Reversible change means slow compared with above times, so that remain near thermal equilibrium.

1st law – energy is conserved if count all forms

We consider a unit mass of gas. Then specific volume (volume per unit mass) is $V = 1/\rho$, and it has (specific) internal energy $E(\rho, T)$ from kinetic energy of thermal motion of molecules and possibly potential energy of excited vibrational modes; NB depends strongly on temperature and on density **now** and not past values.

Mechanical work done on simple gas against pressure is $-p dV$ (positive work if compress, $dV < 0$. Heat energy input (by molecular conduction) δQ . Then 1st law:

$$
dE = \delta Q - p dV.
$$

Specific heats

Heat input to increase temperature of unit mass by 1 K . Two varieties – inputting heat while keeping volume constant, or while keeping pressure constant

$$
c_V = \left(\frac{\delta Q}{\delta T}\right)_V = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial T}\right)_{V \text{ or } \rho},
$$

$$
c_p = \left(\frac{\delta Q}{\delta T}\right)_p = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial T}\right)_p + p\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_p.
$$

Warning: thermodynamics is full of partial derivatives with different things being held constant. Be careful!

2nd law – chaos increases

Experimentally it is found that the total heat Q is not a well defined function of ρ and T, but depends on path taken to move between two ρ and T values. Instead there is another quantity **entropy** $S(\rho, T)$ which is well-defined independent of path

$$
\delta Q = TdS.
$$

For an isolated system, entropy must increase $\dot{S} \geq 0$. Roughly S is proportional to the number of arrangements of the molecules at a given volume V and temperature T/internal energy E . Thence increasing entropy means increasing chaos, e.g. heat flows from hot to cold.

In our sound, there is not sufficient time to conduct heat from peak to trough of a wave, and so $\delta Q = 0$, equivalent $dS = 0$ which is called isentropic/adiabatic. Actually not quite true, because there is important heat transport across the very thin shock-waves, i.e. $dS > 0$ across a shock.

Maxwell relations – mad maths of partial differentiation

Very important to display what is a function of what, and so what is being held constant during the partial differentiation. One is permitted to take any two as independent variables, e.g. $\rho \& T$ or $\rho \& p$ or $S \& \rho$.

For $dE = T dS - p dV$, viewing all variables (E, T, ρ) as functions of S & V $(=1/\rho)$, so

$$
T = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial S}\right)_V \quad \text{and} \quad p = -\left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V}\right)_S.
$$

But by cross differentiation

$$
\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V}\right)_S = \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial S \partial V} = -\left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial S}\right)_V.
$$

Another Maxwell relation is obtained by the following trick $d(E + pV) = t dS + V dp$, so

$$
\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial p}\right)_S = \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial S}\right)_p.
$$

The combination $H = E + pV$ is important in fluid mechanics, called enthalpy.

3rd law – exists $T = 0$

There is a universal absolute zero where all thermal motion stops. Not useful in acoustics at room temperature.

1.4 *Perfect gas*

For dilute gases, fine for air as $\rho_{\text{air}} = 10^{-3} \rho_{\text{liquid air}}$. This course will only use perfect gas laws, although generalisations to dense gases are not too difficult.

Pressure

Pressure force on a surface is momentum exchanged from collisions in unit time $p = Nm \langle v_x^2 \rangle$, where N is the number of molecules per volume and $m \langle v_x^2 \rangle = kT$ with Boltzmann's constant $k = 1.38 \, 10^{-23} \, \text{J K}^{-1}$. Hence

$$
p = \rho RT
$$

with gas constant $R = N_A k$, with Avogadro's number $N_A = 6.02 10^{23}$ per mole (1 mole of C_{12} weights 12 gm).

Internal energy

In a perfect gas, the internal energy E varies with temperature T but not with density ρ because dilute means the size of the molecules is irrelevant. If we further assume that the specific heats do not vary with temperature (OK for 100-2000 K when do not excite vibrational modes), then

$$
c_V = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial T}\right)_V = \text{constant} \quad \text{and} \quad \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial V}\right)_T = 0
$$

so

 $E = c_V T$

setting constant of integration to zero.

From Kinetic Theory, $E = \frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}kT$ per degree of freedom of the internal motion possessing energy, i.e. $\frac{3}{2}NkT = \frac{3}{2}\overline{R}T$ for monatomic gases He and Ar, and $\frac{5}{2}NkT$ for diatomic gases H_2 , N_2 , O_2 , CO – rigid with rotational KE but no vibrational modes.

The other specific heat is

$$
c_p = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial T}\right)_p + p\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_p = c_V + R
$$

using $E = c_V T$ and $V = 1/\rho = RT/p$. Thence the ratio of specific heats

$$
\gamma = \frac{c_p}{c_V} = \frac{c_V + R}{c_V}
$$

5 $\frac{5}{3}$ for monatomic and $\frac{7}{5}$ for diatomic gases. A useful alternative expression for the internal energy is then

$$
E = c_V \left(T = \frac{pV}{R} \right) = \frac{c_V}{c_V + R} \frac{p}{\rho} = \frac{1}{\gamma - 1} \frac{p}{\rho},
$$

and for enthalpy

$$
H = E + \frac{p}{\rho} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1} \frac{p}{\rho}.
$$

Entropy of a perfect gas

Now $T dS = dE + p dV$ and $E = c_V T$ and $p = RT/\rho$, so

$$
dS = c_V \frac{dT}{T} + \frac{R}{V} dV
$$

Integrating

$$
S - S_0 = c_V \ln \frac{T}{T_0} + R \ln \frac{V}{V_0}
$$

= $c_V \ln \left[\left(\frac{T}{T_0} = \frac{pV}{p_0 V_0} \right) \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^{R/c_V} = \frac{p}{p_0} \left(\frac{V}{V_0} \right)^{1 + R/c_V = \gamma} \right].$

So

$$
S = S_0 + c_V \ln \left[\frac{p}{p_0} \left(\frac{\rho_0}{\rho} \right)^{\gamma} \right].
$$

Adiabatic/isentropic changes

In sound, where there is insufficient time to conduct heat across one wavelength, $\delta Q = 0$, so $dS = 0$, so S is constant, so

$$
\frac{p}{p_0} = \left(\frac{\rho}{\rho_0}\right)^{\gamma},
$$

and also $T/T_0 = (\rho/\rho_0)^{\gamma-1}$ from $p = \rho kT$.

For small changes, we need the differential

$$
\left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial \rho}\right)_S = \gamma \frac{p}{\rho} = \gamma RT,
$$

which will find is c^2 the square of the speed of sound, which is $340 \,\mathrm{m\,s^{-1}}$ for dry air. Newton made a mistake of assuming an isothermal change $(\partial p/\partial \rho)_T = RT$ missing the factor of γ which is 1.4 for dry air. It can be shown for non-perfect gases (exercise in partial differentiation for student) that $(\partial p/\partial \rho)_S = \gamma(\partial p/\partial \rho)_T$.