

A. M. D. G.

ST. JOSEPH'S COLLEGE
TRICHINOPOLY

NOTE BOOK



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Form *B.Sc. (Hons)*

Subject *Properties of matter*

Compound Pendulum

Corrections to be made.

1) Viscous resistance of the air.

Its effect may be represented by introducing a term α to the velocity in the equation of motion. The equation thus becomes $\frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} + v \frac{d\theta}{dt} + \mu \theta = 0$.

μ is known to be $(-\frac{hg}{K^2 + h^2})$ h being distance of the centre of gravity from the axis of rotation, K^2 the radius of gyration about an axis through the C.G. ll to the axis of rotation. v is a constant depending upon the medium.

The indicial eqⁿ for the above differential eqⁿ is $m^2 + vm + \mu = 0$

$$\therefore m = \frac{-v}{2} \pm \sqrt{\frac{v^2}{4} - \mu}$$

$$\therefore \theta = A e^{(-\frac{v}{2} - \sqrt{\frac{v^2}{4} - \mu})t} + B e^{(-\frac{v}{2} + \sqrt{\frac{v^2}{4} - \mu})t}$$

If $\frac{v^2}{4} > \mu$ the indices of e are -ve,
∴ whatever be the value of t , that of θ never reverses its sign, being $\frac{A+B}{n}$ when $t=0$, $n=0$ when $t=a$.

is a constant. This constant is called the logarithmic decrement. The log. Dec. is the diminution of the logarithm (Napierian) of one amplitude below that of the amplitude immediately preceding.

$$\text{Period } T = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{\mu - \frac{v^2}{4}}} = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{\mu}} \left(1 + \frac{v^2}{8\mu}\right) \text{ nearly.}$$

Hence period is increased by the viscosity in the ratio $\left(1 + \frac{v^2}{8\mu}\right) : 1$ [since $\mu = \frac{4\pi^2}{T^2}$ nearly] in the ratio

$$\left(1 + \frac{v^2 T^2}{32\pi^2}\right) : 1 \quad [\text{about } (1 + 6 \times 10^{-9}) : 1]$$

Correction when the periods about the two knife edges are not exactly equal. Let T_1, T_2 be periods about the knife-edges A & B whose distances from the centre of gravity are h_1 & h_2 .

$$T_1^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{g} \frac{k^2 + h_1^2}{h_1}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{g}{4\pi^2} T_1^2 h_1 = k^2 + h_1^2 \quad \text{Similarly } \frac{g}{4\pi^2} T_2^2 h_2 = k^2 + h_2^2$$

$$\therefore \frac{g}{4\pi^2} \frac{T_1^2 h_1 - T_2^2 h_2}{h_1 - h_2} = h_1 + h_2$$

Let $\frac{T_1^2 h_1 - T_2^2 h_2}{h_1 - h_2}$ be put as the T^2 computed time & T may be called the computed time since it is the period of

a simple pendulum of length $h_1 + h_2$.

It may be expressed in a more convenient form as follows.

$$\text{Let } t^2 = \frac{T_1^2 + T_2^2}{2} \text{ or } \alpha^2 = \frac{T_1^2 - T_2^2}{2}$$

$$T^2 = \frac{T_1^2 h_1 - T_2^2 h_2}{h_1 - h_2}$$

$$= \frac{(t^2 + \alpha^2) h_1 - (t^2 - \alpha^2) h_2}{h_1 - h_2}$$

$$= t^2 + \alpha^2 \frac{h_1 + h_2}{h_1 - h_2}$$

$$= \frac{T_1^2 + T_2^2}{2} + \frac{h_1 + h_2}{h_1 - h_2} \cdot \frac{T_1^2 - T_2^2}{2}$$

$$\text{ie } \frac{g T^2}{9} = \frac{T_1^2 + T_2^2}{2} + \frac{T_1^2 - T_2^2}{h_1 - h_2}$$

The value $(h_1 + h_2)$ is measured with great exactitude, but $h_1 - h_2$ is not determined with nearly such accuracy. But the error of observation will have only an inappreciable result effect on the final result since it occurs in the small term $\frac{T_1^2 - T_2^2}{h_1 - h_2}$.

3) Air effect — air drag and buoyancy

We may represent the buoyancy as an upward force acting at the centre of gravity of the displaced air

and equal to its weight mg . Let this
 centre of gravity be at distance s , from
 the knife edge A .

The mass of air flowing with the pendulum
 will have no effective weight to increase
 the restoring couple, for it is buoyed up
 by the surrounding air. But it adds to
 the mass moved and increases the
 moment of inertia by an amount say
 $m_1 d^2$.

$$\therefore T_1 = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{(k^2 + h_1^2)M + m_1 d^2}{Mg h_1 = mgs_1}}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{g}{4\pi^2} T_1^2 h_1 = \frac{(k^2 + h_1^2)M + m_1 d^2}{M + m \frac{s_1}{h_1}}$$

$$= \left(k^2 + h_1^2 + \frac{m_1 d^2}{M} \right) \left(1 + \frac{m s_1}{M h_1} \right)$$

$$= k^2 + h_1^2 + \frac{m_1 d^2}{M} + \frac{m s_1}{M h_1} \cdot k^2 + \frac{m s_1 h_1}{M}$$

neglecting the last term since
 it is the product of two very
 small quantities.

Now if A & B are accurately
 points of suspension and oscillation,

$$h_1 + h_2 = \frac{k^2 + h_1^2}{h_1} \text{ i.e. } h_1 h_2 = k^2.$$

In the above case k^2 is nearly equal to $h_1 h_2$.

Putting this value in the fourth term of the above expression, the error committed would be negligible since the term is small. Thus

$$\frac{g}{4\pi^2} T_1^2 h_1 = k^2 + h_1^2 + \frac{\alpha^2}{r} m_1 + \frac{m_1}{r} k^2 (h_1 + h_2)$$

On inserting the pendulum let the air drag change to $m_2 d^2$ to the centre of gravity of the displaced air be at distance d_2 from the knife-

$$\frac{g}{4\pi^2} T_2^2 h_2 = k^2 + h_2^2 + \frac{\alpha^2}{r} m_2 + \frac{m_2}{r} k^2 (h_1 + h_2)$$

If T is the computed time,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{g}{4\pi^2} T^2 &= \frac{g}{4\pi^2} (T_1^2 h_1 - T_2^2 h_2) / (h_1 - h_2) \\ &= h_1 + h_2 + \frac{\alpha^2}{r(h_1 - h_2)} (m_1 - m_2) \\ &\quad + \frac{m_1 k^2}{r(h_1 - h_2)} (h_1 + h_2) (d_1 - d_2) \end{aligned}$$

The above expression gives the change in the computed time due to the air effect.

This source of error can be eliminated if the pendulum is made

symmetrical in form. Thus $m_1 = m_2$;

$$= S_2 \Rightarrow \frac{g}{4\pi^2} T^2 = h_1 + h_2.$$

The computed time is not altered by the air effect.

2) Rounding of the knife-edge.

Let p_1, p_2 the knife-edges be supposed to be cylindrical in form of radii p_1, p_2 . The moment of inertia is to be calculated about the different axes of contact. But these axes are so near each other that we may consider the moment of in. to be the same. The restoring couple here is not due to the rotation of the centre of gravity in a circle (not of radius h_1 but of radius $h_1 + p_1$). The horizontal travel of the centre of curvature does not alter the amount of work. Hence we have

$$\begin{aligned} T_1 &= 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{(K^2 + h_1^2)}{(h_1 + p_1)g}} \quad \text{ie } \frac{g}{4\pi^2} T_1^2 h_1 = (K^2 + h_1^2) / (1 + \frac{p_1}{h_1}) \\ &= (K^2 + h_1^2) (1 - \frac{p_1}{h_1}) \\ &= K^2 + h_1^2 - \frac{p_1}{h_1} \cdot K^2 - p_1 h_1 \\ &= K^2 + h_1^2 - p_1 (h_1 + h_2) \quad \text{putting } h_1 h_2 \text{ as} \end{aligned}$$

an approximation for k^2 in the 3rd term which is small.

$$\text{Hence } \frac{g}{4\pi^2} T^2 k^2 = k^2 + h_2^2 - p_2 (h_1 + h_2)$$

∴ If T is the Computed time, $\frac{g}{4\pi^2} T^2$

$$\frac{g}{4\pi^2} \frac{T_1^2 h_1 - T_2^2 h_2}{h_1 - h_2} = h_1 + h_2 - \frac{h_1 + h_2}{h_1 - h_2} (p_1 - p_2)$$

Hence the unequal rounding of the knife-edges alters the Computed time.

The error can be eliminated by interchanging the knife-edges. The new Computed time T' is given by

$$\frac{g}{4\pi^2} T'^2 = h_1 + h_2 - \frac{h_1 + h_2}{h_1 - h_2} (p_2 - p_1)$$

$$\therefore \frac{g}{4\pi^2} \frac{T^2 + T'^2}{2} = h_1 + h_2$$

Hence the correct Computed time = $\frac{T^2 + T'^2}{2}$.

5) Yielding of the Support.

Vertical yielding.

At any instant t let the deflection be D . The centrifugal force on the support due to Olan motion is $m h \frac{d^2 D}{dt^2}$ where m is the mass of the

pendulum of length h the depth of the centre of gravity G below the support A .

This force acts along AG .

The tangential force due to

the accel. $\frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2}$ of the body is $mh \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2}$.

The sum of the vertical compo-

nents is $mg - mh \left(\frac{d\theta}{dt}\right)^2 \cos\theta$

$- mh \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} \sin\theta$

ie $mh \left\{ \left(\frac{d\theta}{dt}\right)^2 - \theta \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} \right\}$ Since θ is small.

$\frac{d\theta}{dt}$ is evaluated as follows.

Let α be the maximum ^{amplitude} value of θ .

Then K.E. at instant t is $\frac{1}{2} I \omega^2$ is the

work done in rotating through $\alpha - \theta$

$$\text{ie } \frac{1}{2} I \omega^2 = mgh (\cos\theta - \cos\alpha)$$

$$= mgh \left(\frac{\alpha^2}{2} - \frac{\theta^2}{2} \right)$$

$$\text{ie } \left(\frac{d\theta}{dt}\right)^2$$

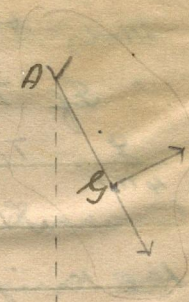
$$= \frac{gh(\alpha^2 - \theta^2)}{k^2 + h^2}$$

\therefore Vertical force

$$\text{in the support} = mgh \left\{ \frac{gh(\alpha^2 - \theta^2)}{k^2 + h^2} - \frac{gh\theta^2}{k^2 + h^2} \right\}$$

$$\alpha^2 \frac{mgh^2}{k^2 + h^2} - 2\theta^2 \frac{mgh^2}{k^2 + h^2}$$

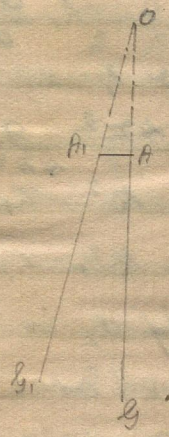
The first part of the force



is constant, & the other term is variable. Upon the variable term depends only on the second two powers of θ which is small θ . \therefore we may consider the force on the support to be practically constant. In other words the support does not move vertically to any appreciable extent during the oscillations.

Horizontal yielding.

As the pendulum swings the support also moves to m ft horizontally. If A, B be the equilibrium positions of the support & the C.G. & A', B' their positions at any instant, $A'B'$ & A, B , produced out will meet at a point O which is fixed relative to the support & the pendulum. The pendulum effectively now swings about the pt O . Thus the effect of the horizontal yield



to increase the less less raise up the point
 of support. make the C.G. swing in an arc of radius $0g$

The force or horizontal force on the foundation
 support is $m h \left(\frac{d\theta}{dt}\right)^2 \cdot D + m h \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} \cos\theta$
 $\approx m h \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2}$ nearly

Let e be the horizontal yielding due to
 this horizontal force

\therefore The yielding d_1 of the support
 $= m h_1 \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} \cdot e$

Now $T_1 = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{R^2 + (h_1 + d_1)^2}{(h_1 + d_1)g}}$

$\therefore \frac{4\pi^2}{4\pi^2} \frac{g}{T_1^2 h_1} = \left\{ \frac{R^2 + (h_1 + d_1)^2}{(h_1 + d_1)} \right\} \left(1 - \frac{d_1}{h_1}\right)$
 $= R^2 + h_1^2 + 2h_1 d_1 - \frac{R^2 d_1}{h_1} + h_1 d_1$

$= R^2 + h_1^2 + d_1 (h_1 + h_2)$ Putting h_1, h_2 for k^2

if d_2 is the yielding about when supported
 the other knife edge

$\frac{g}{4\pi^2} T_2^2 h_2 = R^2 + h_2^2 + d_2 (h_2 + h_1)$

$\therefore \frac{g}{4\pi^2} \frac{T_1^2 h_1 - T_2^2 h_2}{h_1 - h_2} = h_1 + h_2 + (d_1 + d_2) (h_1 + h_2)$

$= h_1 + h_2 - (h_1 + h_2) m e \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2}$

But $d_1 = m e h_1 \frac{d^2\theta}{dt^2} = m e h_1 \frac{h_1 g}{h_1^2 + R^2}$

$= m e \frac{h_1 g}{h_1 + h_2}$ putting h_1, h_2 for k^2 .

$$\therefore \frac{g}{4\pi^2} \cdot \frac{T_1^2 h_1 - T_2^2 h_2}{h_1 - h_2} = (h_1 + h_2) + (h_1 + h_2) \frac{mg}{h_1 + h_2}$$

$$= h_1 + h_2 + mg.$$

Thus the effective increase in length of the simple equivalent pendulum is the yielding due to a horizontal force equal to the mass of the pendulum.

In the case of a simple pendulum the effective increase is calculated more easily.

The tension of the string is

$$mg \cos \theta \text{ or } mg$$

∴ the horizontal pull is

$$mg \sin \theta \text{ or } mg \theta$$

$mg \theta$ causes a yielding of AB

∴ mg causes a yielding $\frac{AB}{\theta}$ or AC .

∴ The effective increase is the horizontal yielding of the support due to a horizontal force equal to the mass of the pendulum.

It can also be calculated by observing periods on this support & a non-yielding one.



Elasticity

This chapter deals with homogeneous strains only, that is strains in which lines which were parallel to each other remain ||l after the strain, parallel planes remain ||l planes, & the ratios between any two lengths, or any two areas remain unaltered.

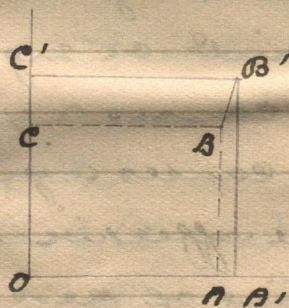
In general it can be proved that any homogeneous strain is a superposition of uniform dilatations and shears. The proposition is proved here in the case of a plane surface $OABC$.

In account of the strain let the surface take up its new position $OA'B'C'$.

Let e & f be the elongations along the x & y axis.

$$AA' = OA \times e = \left\{ \frac{e+f}{2} + \frac{e-f}{2} \right\} OA$$

$$BB' = OC \times f = \left\{ \frac{e+f}{2} - \frac{e-f}{2} \right\} OC.$$



Thus the strain is equivalent to

1) a uniform dilatation $\frac{e+f}{2}$ along the two axes (2) $\log \nu$ an elongation $(e-f)$ along the x axis together with a contraction $(\frac{e-f}{2})$ along the y -axis.

The former strain strain alters the size, but not the shape \therefore hence is a uniform dilatation. The latter strain alters the shape but not the size \therefore is a shear.

Longitudinal elongation without lateral contraction.

We have seen that if a uniform cube is subjected to stress P, Q, R on its three pairs of faces, all outward ν if λ, μ be resp. the constant of elongation due to unit stress in its own direction ν the contraction due to the same in the two \perp directions, then ^{elongation} extension along the x -axis $e = P\lambda - \mu(Q+R)$;
along the y -axis $f = Q\lambda - \mu(P+R)$ ν

along the z axis $q = Q R \lambda - \mu (P + Q)$.

Now longitudinal elongation without lateral contraction can be produced if

$$p = q = 0 \text{ i.e. } R \lambda = \mu (P + Q)$$

$$Q \lambda = \mu (P + R)$$

$$\therefore (R - Q) \lambda = \mu (Q - R) \quad \text{Since } \frac{\lambda}{\mu} = \frac{1}{\sigma}$$

$$(R - Q) = \sigma (Q - R)$$

i.e. $(Q - R)(1 + \sigma) = 0$ Since σ is not negative, $Q - R$ is +ive $\therefore Q - R = 0$

$$Q = R.$$

$$R = \sigma (R + P) \therefore R = \frac{P \sigma}{1 - \sigma}$$

\therefore Elongation along the x-axis

$$= P \lambda - \mu (Q + R)$$

$$= P \lambda \left(1 - \frac{2\sigma^2}{1 - \sigma}\right)$$

If contraction had been permitted

to take place it would have been $P \lambda$

\therefore The new condition to which the body subjected reduces the elongation in

$$\text{ratio } 1 : \left(1 - \frac{2\sigma^2}{1 - \sigma}\right).$$

Torsional Couple. It has been proved

that the torsional couple per unit twist

μ in the case of a wire of circular section is $\frac{1}{2} \pi n a^4 / l$.

$$\therefore \frac{\mu}{\text{sectional area}} = \frac{1}{2} n a^2 / l.$$

In the case of a wire of elliptic section the area being axes being major a , minor b ,

$$\mu = \frac{1}{2} \pi n a b^3 / l.$$

$$\therefore \frac{\mu}{\text{sectional area}} = \frac{1}{2} n b^2 / l.$$

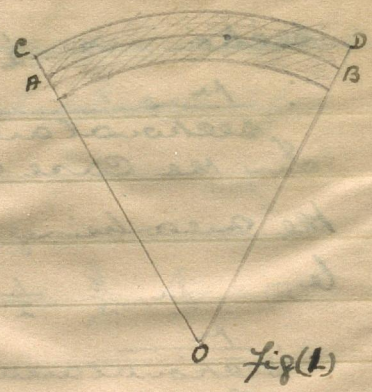
Hence it is seen that beating out a wire into one of elliptic section decreases the torsional couple to a great extent without thereby diminishing its strength. In the phosphor bronze suspenders of galvanometer coils the less μ is the greater becomes the sensibility. Hence the suspenders are thin strips, not fibres.

Bending

To in terms of the two curvatures.

Let the figure represent the section of a bent bar in the plane of the bend AB being neutral axis, O the centre

of curvature. Consider
 any fibre ll to AB , say
 CD at the top most layer.
 From the property of llr



segments $\frac{CD}{AB} = \frac{CO}{OA}$
 $\therefore \frac{CD - AB}{AB} = \frac{CA}{\rho}$ where
 $\rho = \text{the } OA.$

But $\frac{CD - AB}{AB} = \lambda$ elongation
 of the fibre $\therefore \lambda = \frac{CA}{\rho}$.

Similarly, it can be shown that
 every fibre ll to the neutral
 surface undergoes an elon-
 gation which is $= \frac{1}{\rho} \times$ (the
 distance of the fibre
 from the neutral surface)



Now the elongation is
 accompanied by a contraction μ in the
 transverse direction. Fig (2) shows a section of
 a ~~rod~~ ^{bar} taken ~~tr~~ to its lengths, A, B , being
 a section of the neutral surface.

As before $\mu = \frac{A_1 B_1 - C_1 D_1}{A_1 B_1} = \frac{1}{OA'} \times C_1 A_1$

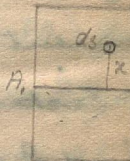
If ρ_1 is the radius of curvature in this case, $\mu = \frac{C.A.}{\rho_1}$ is $\frac{C.A.}{\rho_2}$.

$$\text{But } \sigma = \frac{\mu}{\lambda} \therefore \sigma = \frac{\rho_2}{\rho_1}$$

\therefore Poisson's ratio is the also the ratio of the two radius of curvatures of the neutral surface of a bent rod, the numerator radius being taken in a plane \perp to the plane of bending & the denominator radius in ^{the} a plane of bending.

Bending moment.

Let the figure represent the section of the bar \perp to its length. Elongation of any area ds at distance x from A, B, = $\frac{x}{\rho}$



\therefore Force per unit Stress acting on it = $\frac{g x^2}{\rho}$
 \therefore Force on the area = $\frac{g x^2 ds}{\rho}$.

\therefore Moment of the force is $\frac{g x^3}{\rho} ds$. This gives the restoring couple called into play by the elasticity of the bar material of this element ds . \therefore Total restoring

couple or bending moment = $\frac{q}{p} \int x^2 ds$.

$\frac{qAK^2}{p}$ A being area, K the radius of gyration about AB .

Sag and deflection in a cantilever.

Let the cantilever

let AB be

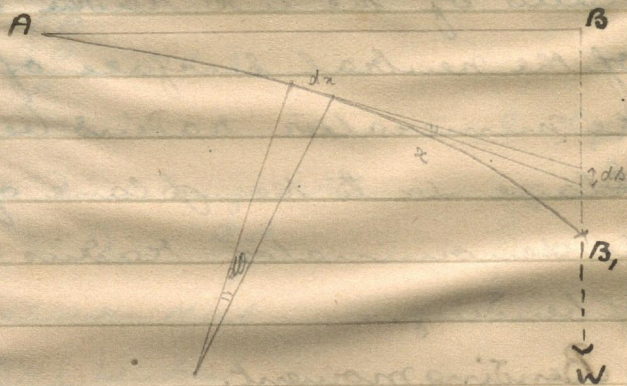
parallel to the

position AB ,

be to a wt w .

Let the element dx

be at distance x



at distance x from B' is ds & $\frac{ds}{x} = dD = \frac{dx}{p}$

$$\therefore dD = \frac{dx}{p} = \frac{wxdx}{gAK^2}$$

If D be the \angle between the tangents

drawn to the bent bar at B , & another

at l distant from B ,

$$D = \int_0^l \frac{wxdx}{gAK^2} = \frac{w}{gAK^2} \cdot \frac{l^2}{2}$$

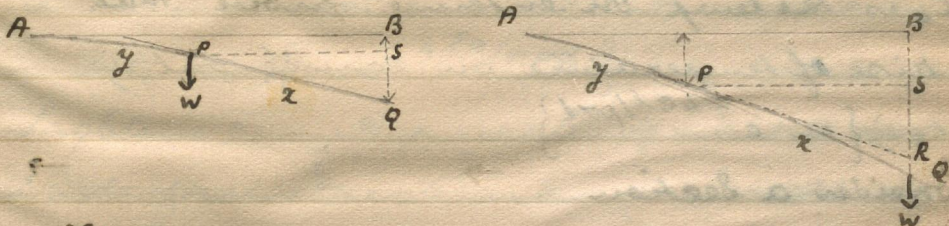
$$= C \frac{l^2}{2} \text{ where } C \text{ is a constant.}$$

$$\text{Sag } ds = \frac{xdx}{p} = C x^2 dx$$

If s be the sag due to the portion of the bar of length l measured from B ,

$$s = \int_0^l C x^2 dx = \frac{Cl^3}{3}$$

Reciprocal relation in a cantilever.



When the cantilever is loaded at P the depression at Q is the same as the depression at P when it is loaded at Q.

Proof Case i Loaded at P. Let $AP = y$, $PQ = x$
 $BQ = BS + SQ = k \frac{y^3}{3} + x \cdot k \frac{y^2}{2} = ky^2 \left(\frac{y}{3} + \frac{x}{2} \right)$

Case ii Loaded at Q.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Depression at P} &= BS = BQ - RQ - SR \\ &= k \frac{(x+y)^3}{3} - k \frac{x^3}{3} - x \left\{ k \frac{(x+y)^2}{2} - k \frac{x^2}{2} \right\} \\ &= k \left\{ xy^2 + xy^2 + \frac{y^3}{3} - x^2y - \frac{xy^2}{2} \right\} \\ &= ky^2 \left\{ \frac{y}{3} + \frac{x}{2} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

Problem I A tube of length l , diameter d through which a liquid is passing with a velocity v is surrounded by steam at temperature t . The heat

abstracted from the steam per unit area
 per unit time = $Cv(t_1 - t_0)$ where t_1 is
 the temperature of the liquid at that point.

If t_0 is the temp on entering prove that
 the rise of temperature on coming out is

$$(t_1 - t_0) \left\{ 1 - e^{-4cl/pod} \right\}$$

Consider a section \rightarrow  \rightarrow

of the tube of thickness dx at distance x from
 the end. The temp. of the liquid that passes
 through this can be considered to be constant
 at t_1 .

Heat conducted per unit area time
 $2\pi r dx \times Cv(t_1 - t_0)$ Calories.

Vol. of liquid that passes through it per unit
 time = $v\pi r^2$

If dt is the rise in temperature,

$$dt \times \sigma \rho v \pi r^2 = 2\pi r dx Cv(t_1 - t_0)$$

$$\frac{dx}{C} = \frac{\sigma \rho r}{2C} \frac{dt}{t_1 - t_0} = - \frac{\sigma \rho r}{2C} \frac{d(t_1 - t_0)}{t_1 - t_0}$$

Let T be the temperature on
 coming out

$$\therefore \int_0^l dx = - \frac{\sigma \rho r}{2C} \int_{t_0}^T \frac{d(t_1 - t_0)}{t_1 - t_0}$$

$$\text{ie } l = \frac{-\sigma p k}{2e} \log_e \frac{t_1 - T}{t_1}$$

$$\therefore \frac{t_1 - T}{t_1 - t_0} = e^{-\frac{4lc}{\sigma p d}}$$

$$\text{ie } t_1 - T = (t_1 - t_0) e^{-4lc/\sigma p d}$$

ie $T - t_0$ or increase in temperature

$$= (t_1 - t_0) \left\{ 1 - e^{-4lc/\sigma p d} \right\}$$

Problem II A particle of unit mass starts from rest, moves in a straight line, under a constant accelerating force f & a retarding force av^2 where v is the velocity. Show that the velocity after passing over a distance x is given by $v^2 = \frac{f}{a} (1 - e^{-2ax})$

The space travelled in time dt when vel. is v is given by $ds = v dt$.

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = f - av^2 \therefore ds = \frac{v dv}{f - av^2}$$

$$\text{ie } ds = \frac{d(f - av^2)}{-2a(f - av^2)}$$

If V is the final velocity

$$\int_0^x dx = \frac{1}{-2a} \int_0^V \frac{d(f - av^2)}{f - av^2}$$

$$\text{ie } x = \frac{1}{-2a} \log_e \left(\frac{f - aV^2}{f} \right)$$

$$\text{ie } 1 - \frac{aV^2}{f} = e^{-2ax}$$

$$\text{ie } V^2 = \frac{f}{a} (1 - e^{-2ax})$$

Problem III A conical vessel radius r , height h , base upwards, filled with water, discharges the water through an orifice of area a at the vertex. Show that the time taken for complete discharge = $\frac{2\pi r^2 \sqrt{2h}}{5a \sqrt{2g}}$

When the level falls by dx

the water that gets out is $\frac{\pi r^2}{R^2} x^2 dx = a v dt$. (1)

The work done by the centre of gravity moving by $\frac{3}{4} dx$ is = the work done in giving velocity v to the water

$$\frac{1}{3} \pi \frac{r^2}{R^2} x^3 \frac{3}{4} dx \cdot g = \frac{1}{2} a v^3 dt. \quad (2)$$

Dividing (2) by one, $v^2 = \frac{2xg}{2}$

Substituting in (1)

$$\pi \frac{r^2}{R^2} x^2 dx = a \frac{\sqrt{2xg}}{\sqrt{2}} dt$$

T is the total time taken for discharge

$$\int_0^T dt = \frac{\pi r^2}{R^2} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{2g}} \cdot \frac{1}{a} \int_0^h x^{3/2} dx$$

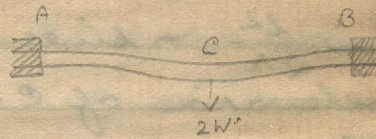
$$T = \frac{\pi r^2 \sqrt{2}}{12 R^2 g a} \frac{1^{5/2} \times 2}{5}$$

$$= \frac{2\pi r^2 \sqrt{2h}}{5 a \sqrt{2g}}$$

Bar clamped at both ends.

Let AB be the bar of length $2l$, loaded at its midpoint with a wt W . If the rod

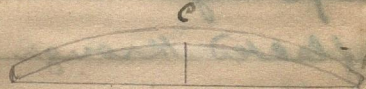
were resting on two
knife-edges at A & B,
the portion CB would
have ^{been} a cantilever. So



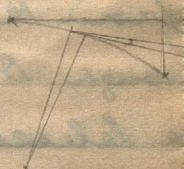
to the portion AC. The tangent at B would
have made an $\angle \frac{2Wl^2}{2gAK^2}$ with the horizontal
(g being young's mod, A area of section,
 K radius of gyration about the neutral
surface) Due to the clamping the \angle is g .

Hence the effect of the clamp is to exert
a couple opposite to the one due to the load
acting in the same plane. Let us sup-
pose it to be a uniform couple ϕ .

If ϕ alone were acting
the rod bar would have
bent upwards as the
arc of a \odot of radius say
 R . The \angle between the
tangents at the end B &



the vertex C is $\int_0^l \frac{dx}{R} = \frac{l}{R}$
 $\therefore \frac{l}{R}$ by supposition = $\frac{Wl^2}{2gAK^2}$



Now the elevation of C due to the couple

$$\text{is } \frac{l^2}{2\kappa} \text{ \& since } \frac{l}{\kappa} = \frac{2ll^2}{29AK^2}$$

$$\text{elevation of C} = \frac{wl^3}{49AK^2}$$

Hence the couple due to the load ^{tends to} depress C by $\frac{wl^3}{49AK^2}$ \& that due to the damp

$$\text{weight C by } \frac{wl^3}{49AK^2}$$

Hence the depression of C is $\frac{wl^3}{29AK^2}$

Young's modulus by bending

Accurate method for determining

the sag.

A, B are two plane mirrors attached to

are just beyond the

knife edges. A telescope T views a scale as

reflected through both the mirrors. Suppose

is the distance AB \& D the distance of

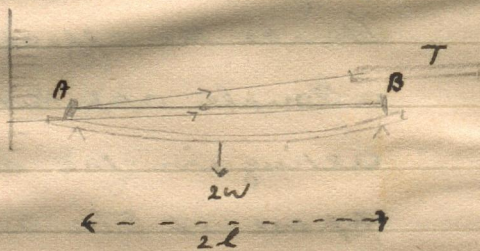
from the scale. When the mirrors rotate

through θ is $\frac{wl^2}{29AK^2}$ there is a shift say S in

the telescope reading.

Due to the rotation of A, the shift is $2d\theta$

if there had been a scale at B, the reading



would have been $2\Delta D$ below the former reading; or if the B also had rotated thro D in the same direction as (A), the reading in T would have been $2\Delta D$ be lower. Now B also rotates, but in the opposite direction. Its equivalent rotation is $2\Delta D$. \therefore the shift due to B is $+ 2\Delta D$. $\therefore S = D(2\Delta D)$. Thus S is known as g is calculated.

Oscillations of a cantilever.

A mass m is ^{hung} ~~fixed~~ _{from} at the end of a cantilever. Consider any instant when the depression of m below its equilibrium position is y .

When the depression is x , the load is w such that $x = \frac{wg x^3}{3gAK^2}$; Cwg C being $\frac{l^3}{3gAK^2}$
 \therefore ~~Work done~~ $wg = \frac{x}{C}$

Work done when force wg works through dx is $\frac{x dx}{C}$. \therefore Work done on the mass to cause the sag $y = \int_0^y \frac{x dx}{C} = \frac{1}{C} \frac{y^2}{2}$

This is equal to the K.E. $\frac{1}{2} m \left(\frac{dy}{dt}\right)^2$ when

system $\frac{1}{2} m \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2$
 neglecting for a first approxi-
 mation the wt. of the cantilever)

$$\frac{1}{2} m \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{y^2}{C} = \text{Constant}$$

$$m \frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{1}{C} dy = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{y}{me} = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } y = A e^{i \sqrt{me} t} + B e^{-i \sqrt{me} t}$$

$$= K \cos \left(\sqrt{\frac{1}{me}} t - \phi \right) \quad K \text{ \& } \phi \text{ being constants.}$$

This is the eqn to S.H.M. of period $2\pi \sqrt{me}$
 Hence the mass at the end of the cantilever
 executes S.H.M. of period $2\pi \sqrt{\frac{ml^3}{3AK^2}}$.

In the actual experiment l must
 be very great if T should be measurable.

The K.E. due to the motion of the particles
 of the bar ^{is} not negligible since it is
 comparable to $\frac{1}{2} m \left(\frac{dy}{dt} \right)^2$. The bar actually

adds to the moving parts of the system a
 mass say m' . $\therefore T = 2\pi \sqrt{(m+m')C}$

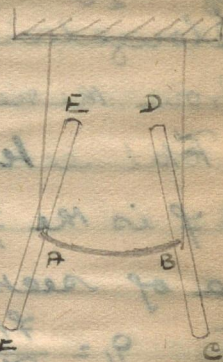
Since m' is ~~not~~ cannot be directly
 measured, the method adopted is to find T when
 two masses M_1 & M_2 are respectively attached

to the end of the bar. $T_1^2 - T_2^2 = 4\pi^2 C (\Pi_1 - \Pi_2)$

Hence C , $\therefore g$ are determined. Success of the expt. requires that Π_1 & Π_2 should be as remote from each other as possible.

Searle's Expt for σ

Two moment of inertia rods are rigidly fixed to the ends of the a wire of the material of which the Poisson's ratio is to be determined. The wire along with the rods form an H. By two strings attached to the centres of the rods the H is hung horizontally. The ends C & D of the rods are drawn together by pass slipping a string loop over them. On twisting the strings, the connecting wire unbends itself, bends in the opposite direction, and so on thus executing oscillation.



Consider the moment when the inclina of either rod to the equil. position is θ .

between the rods, ie l subtended by
 the bent wire at its centre of curvature is
 θ . If l is the length of the wire & ρ radius
 of curvature at this instant, $2\theta = \frac{l}{\rho}$
 $\rho = \frac{l}{2\theta}$

Elongation of any fibre at length distance
 from the neutral axis = $\frac{x}{\rho}$

Total extension of the fibre = $\frac{x l}{\rho}$

If f is the force per unit area, s the
 area of section of the fibre, y the young's

mod $y = \frac{f/s}{x/\rho}$ ie $f = \frac{x y s}{\rho}$

\therefore Work done on the fibre = $\frac{1}{2}$ final
 force \times elongation = $\frac{1}{2} \frac{x y s}{\rho} \times \frac{x l}{\rho}$
 = $\frac{1}{2} \frac{y l}{\rho^2} x^2 s$

\therefore Work done on the whole bent wire

= $\frac{1}{2} \frac{y l}{\rho^2} \int s x^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{y l}{\rho^2} A k^2$ where $A =$

area of section, $k =$ radius of gyration about
 the neutral axis

= $\frac{1}{2} \frac{y l}{\rho^2} \cdot \pi a^2 \times \frac{a^2}{4}$ & since $\rho = \frac{l}{2\theta}$ ie $\frac{1}{\rho^2} = \frac{4\theta^2}{l^2}$

= $\frac{1}{2} \frac{\pi y a^4}{l} \cdot \theta^2$ a being radius of the wire

For P.E Couple = $\frac{y A k^2}{\rho}$; deflection = $\frac{l}{2\rho} = \theta$ \therefore Couple = $\frac{y A k^2 \theta}{l}$

\therefore Work = $\frac{y l}{2\rho} \cdot \frac{y A k^2 \theta}{l}$ $\tau = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}}$ couple per unit defl.
 = $2\pi \sqrt{\frac{y l}{2\rho k^2}}$ = $2\pi \sqrt{\frac{y l}{2\rho} \cdot \frac{1}{k^2}}$

If ω be the \angle lar vel of the rods at this instant, I the mom. of in. of each rod about the axis of oscⁿ, the combine Kin. E. of the system = $\frac{1}{2} \times 2 I \times \omega^2 = I\omega^2$ neglecting the K.E. of the wire as being too small.

Since P.E. + K.E. is constant

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{\pi g a^4}{l} \theta^2 + I\omega^2 = \text{Constant}$$

Differentiating w.r.t. time

$$\frac{1}{2} \frac{\pi g a^4}{l} 2\theta \frac{d\theta}{dt} + 2I\omega \frac{d\omega}{dt} = 0$$

$$\therefore \frac{d\omega}{dt} = - \frac{\pi g a^4 \theta}{2I\omega}$$

If T_1 be the period of oscillation

$$T_1 = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{2I l}{\pi g a^4}}$$

One of the rods is now clamped to a fixed stand & the other is to suspend from it by means of the connecting wire

If T_2 be the period $T_2 = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{2I l}{\pi n a^4}}$ where n is the rigidity modulus.

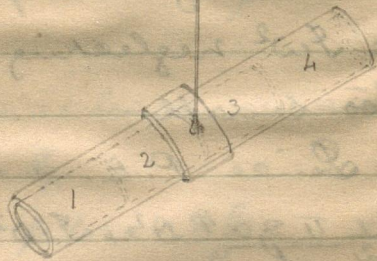
$$\therefore \frac{T_2^2}{T_1^2} = \frac{g}{n} \quad \text{since } g = 2n(\sigma + 1)$$

$$\text{i.e. } \sigma = \frac{g}{2n} - 1$$

$$\sigma = \frac{T_2^2}{2T_1^2} - 1$$

Caxwell's needle.

In the determination of rigidity modulus the chief source of error is the possible inaccuracy in the calculation of the moment of inertia of the rod or disc. Maxwell's



arrangement eliminates this quantity.

The so-called needle is a brass tube into which are fitted 4 perfectly similar cylinders of brass or two of wood. Let their moments of inertia be I (about an axis through the C.G. \perp to the length) be I_1, I_2, I_3, I_4 . Let I be the M. of in. of the tube about its axis of osc. From the usual formula $T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{I}{\mu}}$ we have $I = \frac{4\pi^2}{4\pi^2} \mu$ μ being restoring couple per unit twist of the wire.

Let T_1 be the period when the two extreme rods are brass, or the inner ones wood.

$$\frac{\mu}{4\pi^2} T_1^2 = I + I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4 + m_1(d_1 + a)^2 + m_2(d_1 + b)^2 + m_3(d_2 + c)^2 + m_4(d_2 + d)^2 \dots (1)$$

where m_1, m_2 are the masses of the wood cylinders, m_3, m_4 of the brass cyl.,
 d_1, d_2 Distances of the centres of fig of the wood & brass cylinders from the axis of osc.
 a, b, c, d , Distances of the centres of gravity of the cylinders from their centres of figure.

Now each of the cylinders ^{is} reversed in its own position. If T_2 be the new period we have

$$\frac{\mu}{4\pi^2} T_2^2 = I + I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4 + m_1(d_1 - a)^2 + m_2(d_1 - b)^2 + m_3(d_2 - c)^2 + m_4(d_2 - d)^2 \dots (2)$$

Adding (1) & (2) & dividing by 2

$$\frac{\mu}{4\pi^2} \frac{T_1^2 + T_2^2}{2} = I + I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4 + m_1(d_1^2 + a^2) + m_2(d_1^2 + b^2) + m_3(d_2^2 + c^2) + m_4(d_2^2 + d^2)$$

Next interchanging the positions of the brass & wood cylinders, the expt is repeated. If T_3 & T_4 are the periods,

$$\frac{\mu}{4\pi^2} \frac{T_3^2 + T_4^2}{2} = I + I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4 + m_3(d_1^2 + c^2) + m_4(d_1^2 + d^2) + m_1(d_2^2 + a^2) + m_2(d_2^2 + b^2)$$

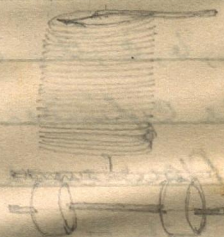
Subtracting (4) from (3)

$$\frac{1}{T^2} \left\{ \frac{T_1^2 + T_2^2}{2} - \frac{T_3^2 + T_4^2}{2} \right\} = (m_3 + m_4)(d_2 - d_1)^2 \\ + (m_1 + m_2)(d_1^2 - d_2^2) \\ = (d_2^2 - d_1^2)(m_3 + m_4 - m_1 - m_2).$$

Hence can be calculated μ & n .

Experiments We consider

here a flat spiral of wire in which the wire is practically \perp to the axis of the spiral. If a



wt. is attached to the end of the spiral, the wt. can be made to execute vertical as well as angular oscillations.

Vertical oscillations.

It is the twisting, untwisting or twisting in the opposite direction ^{of the wire} that maintains the vertical oscillations. At any instant let the displacement of the wt. from its equil. position be x . Let ϕ be the twist per cm of the wire in the spiral. Hence the depression of the

the midpt wt. Due to one cm of the spiral
is a φ a being \propto radius of the spiral.

Depression due to the whole spiral = $l a \varphi$
(l = length of the wire) But $l a \varphi = x$ $\therefore \varphi = \frac{x}{l a}$

$$\text{Couple acting} = \frac{1}{2} \pi n b^4 \varphi$$

where n = rigidity modulus, b = radius of
the wire \therefore Work Done = $\frac{1}{2} \times \text{Couple} \times \text{total}$

$$\text{twist} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \pi n b^4 \varphi \times l \varphi = \frac{1}{4} \pi n b^4 l \varphi^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{4} \pi n b^4 l \cdot \frac{x^2}{l^2 a^2} = \frac{\pi n b^4}{4 l a^2} x^2$$

Hence P. E. stored up in the wire

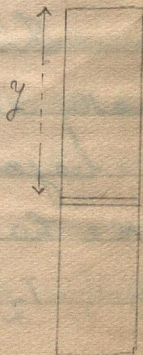
$$= \frac{\pi n b^4}{4 l a^2} x^2.$$

The kinetic energy is partly in the
moving body mass M & partly in the
spiral

K. E. in the mass = $\frac{1}{2} M v^2$ v being
the vel. at the instant under Consider-
ation.

Let L be the length of the
spiral, M its mass.

Consider a portion of the
spiral, of thickness dy at



depth y below the highest pt. Its vel. = $\frac{y}{L}v$

Its mass = $\frac{m}{L} dy$

$$\therefore \text{Its K.E.} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{m}{L} \frac{y^2 v^2}{L^2} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{m v^2}{L^3} y^2 dy$$

K.E. of the whole spiral

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{m v^2}{L^3} \int_0^L y^2 dy = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{m}{3}\right) v^2$$

The sum of the P.E. & K.E. is a constant

$$\frac{\pi n b^4}{4 l a^2} x^2 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{m}{3}\right) v^2 = \text{Constant}$$

Differentiating with respect to t (time)

$$\frac{\pi n b^4}{2 l a^2} x \frac{dx}{dt} + \left(\frac{m}{3}\right) v \frac{dv}{dt} = 0$$

\therefore The linear accel. \propto

$$\frac{dv}{dt} = -x \frac{\pi n b^4}{2 l a^2} / \frac{m}{3}$$

\therefore it is \propto the displacement

directed towards the equil. position.

Hence motion is S.H. \therefore period

$$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{m/3}{\pi n b^4 / 2 l a^2}} = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{a^2 (m/3)}{\mu}}$$

In practice neither μ nor m are

precisely determined. The period is found

before and after placing a wt m ,

in the hanger attached to the spiral

Let T_1 , T_2 be the periods,

$$T_2^2 - T_1^2 = 4\pi^2 \frac{m_1}{\pi n b^4 / 2la^2}$$

b & a are directly measured.

If t be the number of turns in the spiral

$$l = t \times 2\pi a.$$

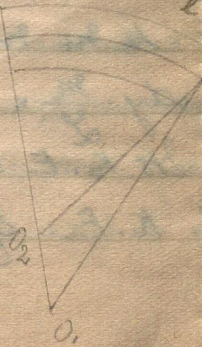
n can hence be calculated.

Angular oscillations.

The rod attached to the spiral is deflected through a small \angle and then let go. The spiral executes \angle lar oscillations the period of which can be determined as follows.

Consider an instant when the deflection is θ . θ is likewise the increase (or decrease) of \angle between the tangents drawn to the neutral surface at the top & bottom. Alteration in curvature per unit length of the wire in the spiral = $\frac{\theta}{l}$ where l is the length of the wire. A

Let AB be unit length of the wire, O_1 or O_2 the centres of curvature before and



After the strain. LO, BO is evidently $\frac{D}{2}$

if it is also equal to the $\frac{l}{\alpha}$ where

the elongation of a fibre at unit distance from the neutral axis. $\therefore \frac{D}{2} = \frac{l}{\alpha}$

$e = \frac{\alpha D}{l}$. Now $q = \frac{f}{s}$ where f is the force & s is the area of section of the fibre.

$\therefore f = q s e = q s \frac{D}{2} \alpha$

$$\text{Bending moment} = \int \frac{q D}{2} s x^2$$
$$= \frac{q A R^2 D}{2}$$

$$\text{P. E. of the wire spiral} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{q A R^2 D}{l} \alpha \times D$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{q A R^2 D^2}{l}$$

Let K. E. of the wire spiral = $\frac{1}{2} I \omega^2$

$$\text{K. E. of the former} = \frac{1}{2} I \omega^2$$

Let dy be the section of a spiral of at depth y below the

$$\text{Its linear vel.} = \omega \times \frac{y}{2}$$

its moment of inertia

$$dy \cdot \frac{m}{L} \times a^2$$

$$\text{Its K. E.} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{m a^2 \omega^2}{L^2} y dy$$

$$\therefore \text{K. E. of the whole spiral} = \int \frac{1}{2} \frac{m a^2 \omega^2}{L^2} y dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{m}{3} a^2 \omega$$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{2} g \frac{AK^2}{L} \theta^2 + \frac{1}{2} \omega (I + \frac{ma^2}{3}) = \text{const}$$

Proceeding in the usual manner, the period can be shown to be

$$2\pi \sqrt{\frac{I + ma^2/3}{gAK^2/L}}$$

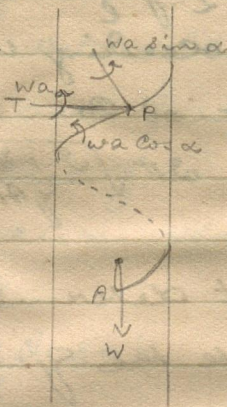
In practice I & m are not determined when it is req^d to calculate the g . There are two moving masses each of wt w on the horizontal bar. They are kept at distance d_1 from the axis & the period T_1 is determined. Next they are moved to distance d_2 & period again determined. $T_1^2 - T_2^2 = \frac{4\pi^2}{gAK^2/L} (d_1^2 - d_2^2) \frac{2w}{g}$

Oblique Spiral

When the wt. acting along the axis of the cylinder on which the spiral is wound, moves vertically downward the torsion alone of the wire is called into play if the spiral be a flat one. But if the spiral is oblique, i.e. the wire is bent ^{inclined} at an $\angle \alpha$ (not zero) to

horizontal, then bending as well as
 torsion ^{are} called into play.

Considering the equilibrium
 of the portion PA of the
 wire, the stresses at P
 are equivalent to a couple
 of moment Wa having as
 axis PT the tangent (horiz-
 ontal) to the cylinder at P.



This can be resolved into two: — (1) one
 of $Wa \cos \alpha$, axis being along the wire PQ, tending
 to twist the spring, (2) the other $Wa \sin \alpha$
 having as axis PN, at right LS to the length
 a , tending to bend the spring.

If ϕ be the twist per unit length
 we have $Wa \cos \alpha = \frac{1}{2} \pi n b^4 \phi$

$$\therefore \phi = \frac{Wa \cos \alpha}{\frac{1}{2} \pi n b^4}$$

If θ be change in the inclination be-
 tween the tangents at ^{P & P+Q} $\frac{1}{n}$ to unit distance a
 very near each other $n \rightarrow$

$$Wa \sin \alpha = \frac{1}{2} \pi n^2 a^2 \times \frac{\theta}{PQ}$$

$$\therefore \theta = \frac{W a \sin \alpha}{g A K^2} \cdot \rho Q.$$

Let us consider the effect of these changes on the radial arm which we imagine fixed to the spring. Due to torsion the relative motion at the end is $\rho Q \phi$ and in consequence of the inclination of the spring this motion takes place at an angle α to the vertical. \therefore Vertical component of the motion = $\rho Q \phi a \cos \alpha$
 $= \frac{W a^2 \cos^2 \alpha}{\frac{1}{2} \pi n b^4} \cdot \rho Q.$

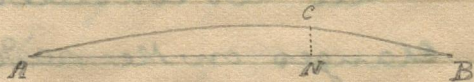
Due to bending the end of the radial arm moves through $\theta \times a$ and its motion is inclined at α to the horizontal or $(90 - \theta)$ to the vertical. \therefore Component along the vertical = $\theta a \sin \alpha$
 $= \frac{W a^2 \sin^2 \alpha}{g A K^2} \cdot \rho Q.$

$$\therefore \text{Total vertical displacement} = W a^2 \left(\frac{\sin^2 \alpha}{g A K^2} + \frac{\cos^2 \alpha}{\frac{1}{2} \pi n b^4} \right) \rho Q.$$

\therefore Due to the whole wire in the spring
 Vertical displacement = $W a^2 l \left(\frac{\sin^2 \alpha}{g A K^2} + \frac{\cos^2 \alpha}{\frac{1}{2} \pi n b^4} \right)$

Elastic Curves or Elastics.

Let ACB repre-
sent a bow bent



by the tension T

along the string ANB . The portion CB is

in equilibrium under the stresses at C

the tension in the string. Hence the

stresses at C must be equivalent to a couple

$T \times CN$ and a force T (CN is the \perp from C to

the line of action of the force in the string).

Taking into consideration the couple alone,

we see that the radius of curvature ρ of

the neutral axis at C is given by

$$Y \frac{Ak^2}{\rho} = T \cdot CN \quad \text{where } Y = \text{young's}$$

modulus, $Ak^2 = \text{mom. of. in. of the cross-section}$

the rod about an axis through its centre at

\perp to the plane of bending. Hence the

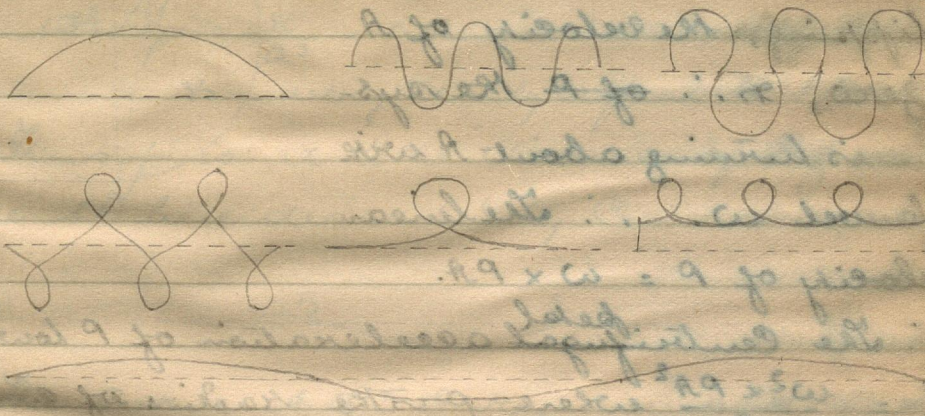
curve into which the bow bends is such

that the reciprocal of the radius of curvature

(or in other words, the curvature) at any

pt. is \propto to the distance of the pt. from the

fixed straight line. Such curves are called elastic curves or elasticas.

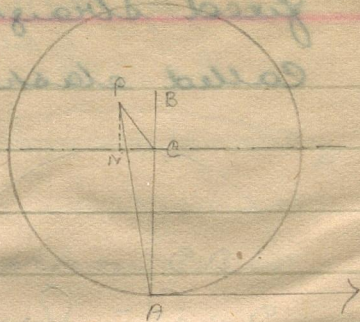


All the curves traced above belong to the group of elasticas. The last one above where the pts on the curve are all very near the fixed line is of special importance. This curve can be shown to be the path of a pt ^{traced by} _{which is} very near the centre of a circle when the \odot rolls without slipping, with a uniform transl. vel. (w) a st. line.

Let C be the centre of the \odot , P the pt. of instantaneous contact of the \odot with the ground, & P' the corresponding position of a

point very near the Centre.

Since the O no rolls without slipping, the velocity of A is zero, \therefore of P the system is turning about A with angular vel ω . \therefore The linear velocity of $P = \omega \times PA$.



\therefore The Centrifugal ^{petal} acceleration of P towards $A = \frac{\omega^2 \times PA^2}{\rho}$ where ρ is the radius of curvature of the path of P at the pt. P .

Now the accel. of P towards $A =$ sum of the components of the accel^{ns} of P to C & of C to A resolved \parallel to PA .

Accel. of P to $C = \omega^2 \times PC$

Its component \parallel to $PA = \omega^2 \times PC \times \cos \angle CPA$

But in the limit P tends to C , $\angle CPA = \angle PCB$

$= \angle CPN$ where $N = \perp r$ from P to the line traced by the Centre C of the O .

\therefore Comp. of the accel. of P to C \parallel to PA

$$= \omega^2 \cdot PC \times \frac{PN}{PC} = \omega^2 PN.$$

Component Acceleration of C to $A = 0$ since the

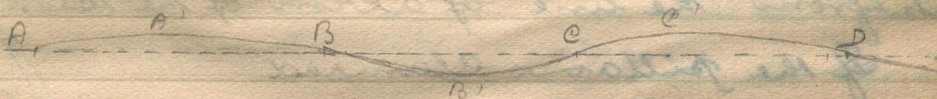
Path of P is a st. line.

$$\therefore \omega^2 \times \frac{PA^2}{\rho} = \omega^2 \times x \quad \text{where } x = PN$$

$$\therefore \omega^2 \frac{\rho}{\rho} = \frac{x}{a^2} \quad \text{where } a = \text{radius of the } \odot$$

$\therefore \rho$ very nearly equal to PA .

Thus ρ is a to the distance of P from the st. line described by C .



The curve $ABCD$ represents the path of the moving pt. P . At positions A, B, C and D , P is at height a above the ground, $\therefore AB = BC = \dots = \pi a$.

A, C are $A, B \dots$ are pts of inflection. At these pts the Curvature $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$ of the curve changes from +ve to -ve or vice-versa. At A', B' etc which are pts most removed from the axis of reference or path of the Centre of the \odot , the tangents drawn to the curves are \parallel to the axis of refer.

It is easily seen that the shape

assumed by a loaded pillar must
 be that of an elastic if the load be
 such as just to make the pillar
 bend, for here $gAK^2 \times \frac{1}{\rho} = Wx$ (where
 ρ is the radius of curvature at any
 pt, W the load, x the distance of the
 pt. from the line of action of the load.

If the pillar is clamped

$$\frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{Wx}{gAK^2}$$

The constant of proportionality

is $\frac{W}{gAK^2}$ which takes the place
 of $(\frac{1}{a^2})$ in the formula for the

elastic.

Hence the curve ^{formed} traced by the
 pillar is that traced by a pt very near
 the centre of a revolving \odot , the radius of
 which is such that $\frac{1}{a^2} = \frac{W}{gAK^2}$
 i.e. $a = \sqrt{\frac{gAK^2}{W}}$.

Let the long pillar be clamped at the
 bottom or let its length be such that it
 just begins to bend. The top must be a



pt of inflection π the bottom a pt on the elastic line that is most removed from the line of action of the force. The pillar corresponds to a quarter of a complete undulation of the elastic \therefore the length

$$l_1 \text{ of the pillar} = \frac{\pi}{2} a = \frac{\pi}{2} \sqrt{\frac{W}{9AK^2}}$$

$$\text{i.e. } l^2 = \frac{\pi^2}{4} \cdot \frac{W}{9AK^2}$$

$$\therefore W = \frac{9AK^2}{4l^2}$$

Next, if both ends are unclamped, (the load ^{being} W), the pillar comprises one half of a complete undulation



$$\therefore l = \pi a = \pi \sqrt{\frac{W}{9AK^2}} \text{ i.e. } W = \frac{9AK^2}{l^2}$$

In the third place, if both ends are clamped, the length load is $\frac{4}{9} \frac{9AK^2}{l^2}$

The bending of beams

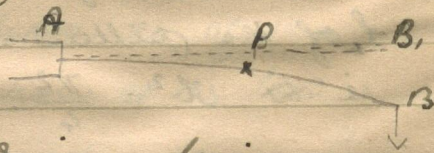
The depression caused any pt on a beam can be investigated as follows.

The curvature at any pt. on a beam

given by $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2} \left\{ 1 + \left(\frac{dy}{dx} \right)^2 \right\}^{3/2}$ In the case of bending

of beams, $\frac{dy}{dx}$ is practically negligible compared to the one, \therefore the curvature can be taken to be $\frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$.

1) Cantilever, clamped at A, loaded at B with



weight W , the axes of coordinates being horizontal & vertical through A.

Let P be the pt (x, y)

Bending moment = $\int AK^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2}$
 $= W(l-x)$ where $l =$ length AB.

$$AK^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = Wl - Wx = W \left(l - x \right)$$

$$\int AK^2 dy = Wl \frac{x^2}{2} - W \frac{x^3}{6} + C_1 x + C_2$$

When $x=0$, $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ i.e. $C_1 = 0$

\therefore also $y=0$ i.e. $C_2 = 0$

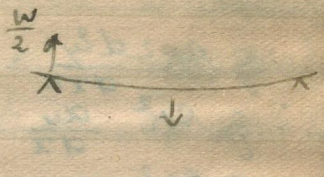
\therefore The sag at any pt distant x from A

given by $\frac{W}{AK^2} \left(\frac{l x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{6} \right)$

at the end of the bar where

$\frac{l}{2}$, the sag is $\frac{W}{AK^2} \left(\frac{l^3}{2} - \frac{l^3}{6} \right) = \frac{Wl^3}{3AK^2}$

2) Beam ^{placed} loaded on two supports and load in the middle.

$$y, AK^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{W}{2} x$$


$$\therefore y, AK^2 \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{Wx^2}{4} + C_1$$

$$\therefore y, AK^2 y = \frac{Wx^3}{12} + C_1 x + C_2$$

When $x = \frac{l}{2}$, $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$ i.e. $0 = \frac{Wl^2}{16} + C_1$

$$\therefore C_1 = -\frac{Wl^2}{16}$$

When $x=0$, $y=0 \therefore C_2 = 0$.

$$y = \frac{W}{8AK^2} \frac{x^3}{12} - \frac{Wl^2}{16AK^2} x = \frac{Wx^3}{48AK^2} \left(\frac{x^2}{3} - \frac{l^2}{4} \right)$$

Hence Depression at the midpt is given by $y = \frac{Wl}{8AK^2} \left(\frac{l^2}{12} - \frac{l^2}{4} \right) = \frac{-Wl^3}{48AK^2}$

The -ve sign shows that y is the direction opposite to that of $\left(\frac{W}{2}\right)$.

3) Beam clamped at both ends.

If the clamps are replaced by knife edges the ends would be inclined to the horizontal at a certain \angle . \therefore The effect of the clamps is to make the ends horizontal, i.e. to exert a couple opposite in direction to that caused by the load. Let this be

equivalent to a uniform couple of moment

$$9AK^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{wx}{2} - \phi$$

$$\therefore 9AK^2 \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{w}{4} x^2 - \phi x + C_1$$

$$9AK^2 y = \frac{w}{12} x^3 - \frac{\phi}{2} x^2 + C_1 x + C_2$$

When $x=0, y=0 \therefore C_2=0$

When $x=0, dy/dx=0 \therefore C_1=0$

When $x = \frac{l}{2}, dy/dx=0 \therefore \frac{w}{16} l^2 - \frac{\phi l}{2} = 0$

ie $\phi = \frac{wl}{8}$

$$\therefore 9AK^2 y = \frac{w}{12} x^3 - \frac{wl}{16} x^2$$

Sag at the midpt is given by

$$y = \frac{w}{4 \cdot 9AK^2} \frac{l^2}{4} \left(\frac{l}{4} - \frac{l}{4} \right) = \frac{wl^3}{192 \cdot 9AK^2}$$

Beam bending under its own wt. - Sup-
ports on two knife-edges. $\frac{wl}{2}$

Thrust on the
knife edges is $\frac{wl}{2}$ where

w is wt. per unit length of the beam.

$$9AK^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = \frac{wl}{2} x - wx \cdot \frac{x}{2}$$

$$= \frac{w}{2} (lx - x^2)$$

$$9AK^2 \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{w}{2} \left(l \frac{x^2}{2} - \frac{x^3}{3} \right) + C_1$$

$$9AK^2 y = \frac{w}{2} \left(l \frac{x^3}{6} - \frac{x^4}{12} \right) + C_1 x + C_2$$

When $x=0$, $y=0 \therefore C_2=0$

When $x=l$, $\frac{dy}{dx}=0$

$$\therefore \frac{w}{2} \left(\frac{l^3}{8} - \frac{l^3}{24} \right) + C_1 = 0$$

$$C_1 = -\frac{wl^3}{8 \times 3}$$

$$\therefore gAK^2 y = \frac{w}{12} \left(lx^3 - \frac{x^4}{2} \right) - \frac{wl^3}{24} x$$

When $x = \frac{l}{2}$, the sag is given by

$$y = \frac{1}{gAK^2} \left[\frac{w}{12} \left(\frac{l^4}{8} - \frac{l^4}{32} \right) - \frac{wl^4}{48} \right]$$
$$= \frac{5wl^4}{384gAK^2}$$

In a similar manner it can be shown that if the rod be clamped at both ends, the sag is $\frac{wl^4}{384gAK^2}$.

Young's Modulus in adiabatic (Saha 9)

It is a universal general fact that thermal changes which take place when ~~we~~ any alteration in the state of a body is caused are such as to oppose the change. Hence suppose the strain of a body is increased, and the nature of the body is such that it

stiffer at a higher temperature
than at a lower one. The body \therefore absorbs
heat from outside in order to resist
change ^{or rises in temperature} ~~if the change is against that~~
~~there is no time to absorb heat from outside~~
~~it takes thermal energy from itself~~
~~and~~ cools.

The thermal effects due to a change
of strain can be calculated from
thermodynamical considerations.
Let us suppose there are two chambers
to be maintained at absolute temperatures
 T_1 & T_0 ($T_1 > T_0$). In the cool chamber
we place a stretched wire under stress.
Let its elongation e be increased by
 Δe . Work done ^{on the wire} = force \times distance
 $P \Delta e$ (a = area of section of
the wire, l = unstretched length).
Now transfer the wire with its
length unaltered into the hot chamber.
We shall suppose that the thermal

Capacity of the wire to be so small that
no work is done in heating up the wire.
If the stiffness of the wire changes
with temperature the new tension T
kept to keep the wire stretched will not
be the same as P . Let the wire
contract in the hot chamber until
its elongation diminishes by $d\epsilon$.
Work done by the wire: $P'd\epsilon$.

Now transfer the wire with length
unaltered into the Cold chamber; it
will be in the same state as before.
The work done by the wire exceeds the
done on it by $(P'-P)d\epsilon$. Hence the
arrangement constitutes a heat
engine. The ~~eng~~ process is evidently
reversible.

Hence it must obey the laws of
reversible engines. These engines
work by absorbing heat dQ from
the hot chamber and giving heat dQ'

The Cold Chamber

$$\frac{dE}{T_1} = \frac{dL}{T_0} = \frac{(P' - P) a l d\epsilon}{T_1 - T_0}$$

Since $dE - dL$ is the net amount of work done.

Now $\frac{P' - P}{T_1 - T_0}$ is the rate of change of stress with temperature when elongation

constant ϵ . Can be written as

$$\left(\frac{dP}{dT}\right)_\epsilon \quad \therefore dL = T_0 \left(\frac{dP}{dT}\right)_\epsilon a l d\epsilon.$$

If instead of giving this heat to the chamber the wire were to absorb it, its temperature would ^{change rise} ~~rise~~ by say dD

$$\text{where } dL = a l \rho \times s \times f \times dD$$

where ρ = density, s = sp. heat, f = joules (equivalent)

$$\text{Hence } dD = T_0 \left(\frac{dP}{dT}\right)_\epsilon d\epsilon / g p s \quad \dots (1)$$

This expression proves the statement

made at first that the change of temp. such as to resist further strain.

$\frac{dP}{dT}$ is +ive dD is +ive i.e. if the

body is stiffer at a higher temperature,

dD rises in temp. due to increase of strain

∴ this resists further strain.

If $\frac{dP}{dT}$ is -ive, the body cools. For in this case the body is stiffer at a lower temperature ∴ cooling at ∴ not heating can offer resistance to further strain.

The expression for dD can be thrown into a more convenient form as follows. If the body is allowed to expand under constant tension, increase in elongation due to a rise dT in temp. ∴ $w dT$ (w being coefft of linear exp_∞) Now diminish the tension keeping temp. constant, until shortening due to tension $dD = w dT$ just compensates for lengthening due to rise in temperature. The necessary diminution in tension is $g w dT$ where ($g =$ young's modulus) ∴ $dP = -g w dT$

$$\therefore dD = - \frac{T_0 g w dT}{E P^2}$$

Now $g dT$ is the additional tension

P rejs to cause the elongation de.

$\therefore dD = - \frac{T \omega dP}{\gamma \rho^2} \dots (2)$

Dr. Joule^{J.P.S} tested the correctness of this formula experimentally. The changes in temperature were measured by thermoelectric couples inserted in the bars on which he experimented.

A qualitative expt can be performed by suddenly stretching a band of India rubber or holding it against the lips.

It is found warmer. dD in this case is +ive because w is -ive. In all other elastic substances increase stress causes a cooling effect.

If the heat dH is not allowed to escape the elongation caused is partly due to the increase in stress partly due to the change of temperature.

Due to stress it is $\frac{dP}{\gamma_i}$ where γ_i is the isothermal ^{young's mod} elasticity. Due to temp. it is $w dD$. Hence the net strain

which is $\frac{d\rho}{g_a}$ (g_i being adiabatic
also young's mod.) = $\frac{d\rho}{g_i} + w \frac{d\theta}{d\rho}$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{g_a} = \frac{1}{g_i} + w \frac{d\theta}{d\rho}$$
$$= \frac{1}{g_i} - \frac{T_0 \omega^2}{g_i \rho^2}$$

$\therefore \frac{1}{g_a} < \frac{1}{g_i}$ (even in the case of
rubber where w is -ve)

$$\therefore g_a > g_i$$

∴ When g_i is known at any temp
 g_a can be calculated. It is seen
that in the case of metals g_a is near
1% greater than g_i .

The value of g_a can also be
experimentally determined, for in all
acoustic experiments the modulus
involved is the adiabatic modulus.

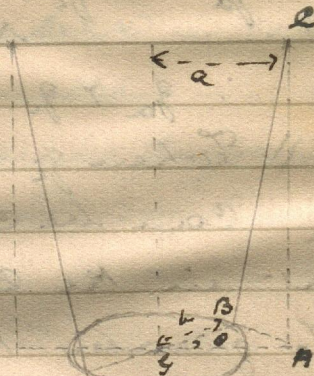
Such experiments however show
that g_a is nearly 20% greater than
 g_i . This discrepancy has not
yet been as satisfactorily accounted
for.

(Notes taken from Poynting's Thermodynamics
Page 131)

Bifilar suspension

The body is suspended by two strings equally long, equally inclined to the vertical, such that the body is symmetrical about a vertical axis through its Centre of gravity.

If I is the moment of inertia about this vert. axis, C the restoring couple per unit angular displacement, the period is $T = 2\pi\sqrt{\frac{I}{C}}$.



C is evaluated as follows.

When the deflection is θ , Couple = $C\theta$,

work done for a further deflection $d\theta = C\theta d\theta$.

y is the depth of the ^{pts of attachment of the body to the string} Centre of gravity G below

level of suspension, or the wt. of the

body, work done = $\int y g dy$

$\therefore \int y g dy = C\theta d\theta$.

Let $2a$ be distance between the strings at

top & $2b$ at the bottom.

The figure gives a perspective view when the deflection = $\theta = \angle BOA$.
 CA is \perp from the C to the line joining the pts of attachment when the body is at rest. C is the midpt of the pts of attachment.

$\angle CAB$ is evidently a rt. \angle , $\therefore CA = y$
 $CB = l$ (the length of the string)

$$y^2 = l^2 - AB^2 = l^2 - (a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \theta)$$

$$\therefore y = (l^2 - a^2 - b^2 + 2ab \cos \theta)^{1/2}$$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{d\theta} = \frac{-2ab \sin \theta}{2(l^2 - a^2 - b^2 + 2ab \cos \theta)^{1/2}}$$

$$= \frac{-ab \sin \theta}{l(1 - \frac{a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \theta}{l^2})^{1/2}}$$

Since usually a & b are very small compared to l , $\frac{a^2}{l^2}$ etc can be neglected

Also θ being small $\sin \theta = \theta$

$$\therefore \frac{dy}{d\theta} = \frac{-ab\theta}{l}$$

$$\therefore C = \frac{mg}{l} \frac{dy}{d\theta} = -\frac{mg \cdot ab}{l}$$

(The -ive sign in the value of $\frac{dy}{d\theta}$ shows that as θ increases, y decreases)

$$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{Fl}{mgab}}$$

Surface Tension

Forces that govern the ^{shape} size of a drop

If the drop is spherical, of radius r

its potential energy due to gravity = $\pi g r^3$.

Due to surface tension = $4\pi r^2 T$.

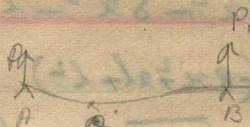
The total energy = $\pi g r^3 + 4\pi r^2 T$

When the drop flattens out the 1st term diminishes, but the 2nd increases. Hence an intermediate shape is taken up where the sum of the two terms is a minimum.

The \angle of contact is ^{the} \angle between the tangent to the liquid surface at a pt. where three media solid, air & the given liquid meet & the interface of liquid & solid.

Problem: - A bar of uniform cross-section supported on ^{three} knife edges, two on the same horizontal level, two at the ends & one in the middle. Show that the pts of maximum sag are ^{nearly} $\frac{1}{5}$ of the length of the bar from each end.

Let P be the thrust
 at A , (x, y) be a
 pt D between A & B
 axes being the horizontal & vertical thro
 A .



$$gAk^2 \frac{d^2y}{dx^2} = P_1x - m \frac{x^2}{2}$$

$$\therefore gAk^2 \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{P_1x^2}{2} - m \frac{x^3}{6} + C_1$$

$$gAk^2 y = P_1 \frac{x^3}{6} - m \frac{x^4}{24} + C_1x + C_2$$

When $x=0$, $y=0 \therefore C_2=0$

When $x=l$, $\frac{dy}{dx}$ (2l being total length)

y & $\frac{dy}{dx}$ are zero

$$\therefore P_1 \frac{l^2}{2} - m \frac{l^3}{6} + C_1 = 0 \dots (1)$$

$$P_1 \frac{l^3}{6} - m \frac{l^4}{24} + C_1 l = 0$$

$$\text{i.e. } P_1 \frac{l^2}{6} - m \frac{l^3}{24} + C_1 = 0 \dots (2)$$

$$\therefore P_1 \frac{l^2}{2} - m \frac{l^3}{6} = P_1 \frac{l^2}{6} - m \frac{l^3}{24}$$

$$\text{i.e. } P_1 = \frac{3ml}{8}$$

Substituting in (1) $l^2 \left(\frac{ml}{6} - \frac{3ml}{16} \right) = C_1$

$$C_1 = - \frac{ml^3}{48}$$

$$\therefore gAk^2 \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{3ml}{8} \frac{x^2}{2} - m \frac{x^3}{6} - \frac{ml}{48}$$

Where sag is maximum $\frac{dy}{dx} = 0$

$$\therefore \frac{3}{16} mlx^2 - \frac{1}{6} mx^3 - \frac{1}{48} ml^3 = 0$$

$$\text{ie } 9lx^2 - 8x^3 - l^3 = 0$$

$$\text{ie } (x-l)(-8x^2 + 9lx + l^2) = 0 \text{ ie } 8x^2 - 9lx - l^2 = 0$$

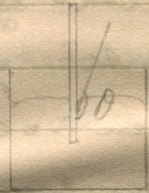
$$\text{ie } x = \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{1+32}}{2 \times 8} l = \frac{6.745}{16} x l$$

$$x = \frac{2}{5} l \text{ nearly}$$

Hence the pts of maximum depression are nearly $\frac{1}{5}$ from either end.

Angle of Contact

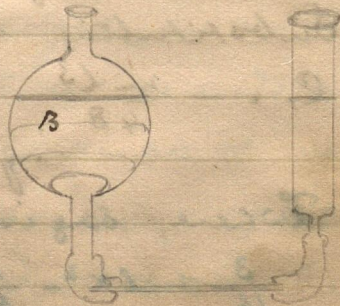
If a glass plate is dipped into a basin of mercury, the mercury ^{surface bends} level goes downwards meets the glass.



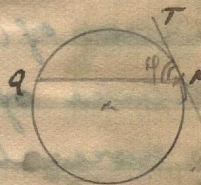
When the glass plate is slowly rotated from the vertical, a position is reached when this bending ceases. If ϕ be \angle of rotation, $(180^\circ - \phi)$ is the \angle of contact.

As however it is not easy to measure rotation, a different method is employed.

A spherical glass bulb B with two orifices has its lower orifice connected to a cylindrical tube through a capillary. The Mercury



is poured into the $\frac{1}{8}$ wide tube, & it
 passes slowly through the capillary into
 the bulb. At first the bent on the bound
 of the mercury surface is very well marked.
 Slowly it lessens, & a limit is reached wh
 the surface is perfectly horizontal. ~~The~~ If
 some printed matter is held above the
 mercury, the disappearance of distortion i
 the image will show clearly when this
^{limit} level is reached. The flow of mercury
 is stopped & a trace of the bulb with
 the mercury level is taken on paper.
 A tangent PT is drawn at
 the pt of contact of the mercury
 level PQ with the bulb.



$180^\circ - \angle QPT$ gives the \angle of Contact.

The wide tube is replaced by a capillary & from the consequent depression
 the surface tension can be calculated,
 assuming the value for \angle of Contact.

For the experiment to be successful

essential that the mercury is pure.
 If impure, it will have to be cleaned by
 dissolving it with nitric acid & heating the
 residue, or again by filtering it several times.

Mercury alone has an \angle of Contact
 above $\frac{\pi}{2}$. Several liquids including water
 wet glass & so the \angle of Contact is zero.

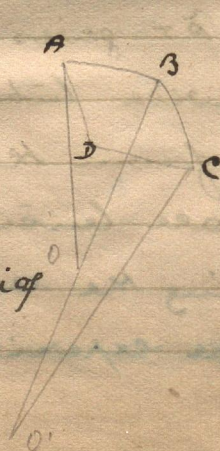
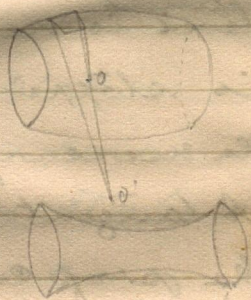
Excess of pressure inside bubbles.

A very small rectangle
 ABCD is taken on the
 surface, AB, BC being
 infinitesimal elements of the
 curves of Principal Cur-
 vature of the surface.

The normals to the sur-
 faces are drawn at

A, B & C. Those at A & B
 meet in O & those at B & C
 meet in O'. BO & BO' are

called the principal radii of
 curvature of the surface.



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If O nO' are on the same side of the surface as in a sphere or ellipsoid, the surface is called synclastic (or κ law: break). If O nO' are on opposite sides the surface is anticlastic. The former class includes ~~spheres~~ spheres & ellipsoids & the latter ~~is~~ is shaped like a saddle or dice-box. In practice anticlastic bubbles are formed by drawing apart two funnels whose mouths are originally together.

To find the excess of pressure in the surface, we employ the principle of virtual work, i.e. when a ^{body} system is in equilibrium under the action of a system of forces, if a slight displacement is given to the body, the algebraic sum of the work done by the various forces is zero.

The film $ABCD$ is displaced through a small distance δ which is \perp normal to itself.

sides AB, BC now

occupying the positions

$B', B'C'$.

$$B' = AB \left(1 + \frac{x}{r_1}\right) \text{ where } r_1 = BO$$

$$B'C' = BC \left(1 + \frac{x}{r_2}\right) \text{ where } r_2 = BO'$$

The new area of the film

$$= S \left(1 + \frac{x}{r_1}\right) \left(1 + \frac{x}{r_2}\right) \text{ } S \text{ being the original area}$$

that area

$$= S \left(1 + 2\frac{x}{r_1} + \frac{x^2}{r_1 r_2}\right) \text{ neglecting}$$

the product $\frac{x^2}{r_1 r_2}$ as too small

\therefore Work done in by against surface

ension = surface energy \times increase in area

$$= T \cdot S \cdot 2 \cdot \frac{x}{r_1} + \frac{x}{r_2} \quad (T \text{ being surface tension})$$

This is equal to the work done by

the excess of pressure P , it by the by

force P acting through an a distance x

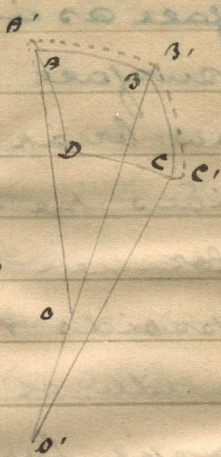
$$\text{is } P \times S \times x$$

$$\therefore P = T \cdot \left(\frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{r_2}\right)$$

In the case of a bubble where there

are two surfaces $P = 2T \left(\frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{r_2}\right)$

In an anelastic drop the proof is



Similar. Only $B'C' = BC(1 - \frac{x}{r_2})$

\therefore we get

$$P = T \left(\frac{1}{r_1} - \frac{1}{r_2} \right).$$

Stability of films that approximate to the cylindrical shape.

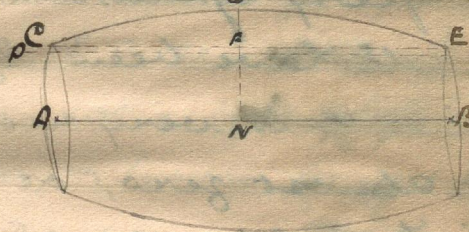
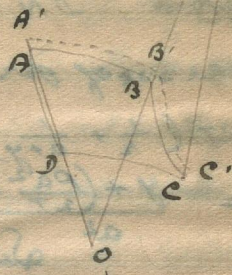
Let the fig. represent the trace of a the film, CDE being one of the principal lines, CFE

the position this line would have occupied if the film were perfectly cylindrical, AB the axis of the cylinder, PQ a line 11k to very close to CFE .

We shall prove that CDE is an ellipse, in other words, that the curvature at any pt on it is \propto to the distance of the pt from PQ .

Consider the curvature k at D .

Drop $DN \perp$ to AB .



The principal radii of curvature at D are

$\propto DN$ $DN = a + y$ where $a = NF$ & $y = FD$.

The excess of press. within the bubble is

$$P = 2T \left(\frac{1}{r} + \frac{1}{a+y} \right) \text{ i.e. } \frac{1}{r} = \frac{P}{2T} - \frac{1}{a+y} = \frac{P}{2T} - \frac{1}{a} \left(1 - \frac{y}{a} \right)$$

$$\frac{1}{r} = \frac{y + \left(\frac{Pa^2}{2T} - a \right)}{a^2}$$

Since if the film had been perfectly cylindrical, excess of press. P_1

would have been $\frac{2T}{a}$ $\therefore \frac{P_1 a^2}{2T} - a^2 = 0$

Since P_1 is very nearly equal to P , $\left(\frac{Pa^2}{2T} - a \right)$

is almost zero, or is a small quantity

The radius of curvature at any pt. is

very nearly \propto to the distance of the pt. from

FE or more accurately

is \propto to the distance of the pt. from PQ .

Hence the two principal lines taken along the axis are elasticas, & since

the constant of proportionality is a^2 , the

radius of the generating \odot is a , \therefore the

points of inflection of the curve are

at distance of πa from each other.

We shall now consider four cases

of nearly cylindrical films. In each
 case ~~Let~~ ^{Let} P be the excess of pres. γ
 P' what the excess would have been if the
 film were perfectly cylindrical.

~~Length $< \pi a$ is kinked~~ ~~isometastic~~

Let AB be the axis of the
 cylinder, CD the principal line
 which is an elastica, EF the
 axis of the elastica, which is
 at distance a from AB , γ let the length EF
 be exactly πa . Let DN be \perp on AB from
 D $CD < \pi a$ is the bubble bulging out
 To calculate P we shall suppose the C
 to extend to F . F is a pt of inflection for
 the curve γ . \therefore Curvature is zero.

$$\therefore P = 2T \left(\frac{1}{a} + 0 \right) = \frac{2T}{a}$$

If the ^{bubble} curve were perfectly cylindrical
 coil, CD would have been a straight line

$$\therefore P' = 2T \left(\frac{1}{DN} + 0 \right) = \frac{2T}{DN}$$

Since $DN > a$, $P > P'$

2) $CD < \pi a$, γ concave

$$P = \frac{2T}{a}; \quad P' = \frac{2T}{DN}$$



$$DN < a \therefore P > P' \quad \underline{P < P'}$$

1) $CD > \pi a$, bulging out

Here $DN < a$

$$\therefore P < P'$$



2) $CD < \pi a$, concave

Here $DN > a$

$$\therefore P > P'$$



Hence when length is less than πa the excess of press is greatest when ~~it is~~ ^{the bubble} is synelastie, less when cylindrical & least when antielastie. In this case a synelastie bubble is first blown & as air is allowed to escape through an orifice, it becomes cylindrical, then antielastie & finally collapses.

On the contrary if the length of the bubble is greater than πa , the allowing the air to get out makes it bulge out more & then collapse. If on the other hand if air is blown into it, it becomes

Cylindrical, then anticlastic & finally collapses. The figure shows how the foregoing results can be experimentally verified, by forming a bubble between two funnels.

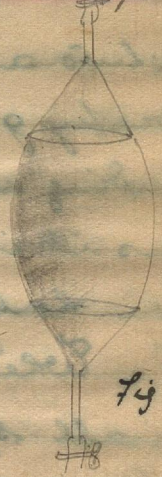


Fig 1

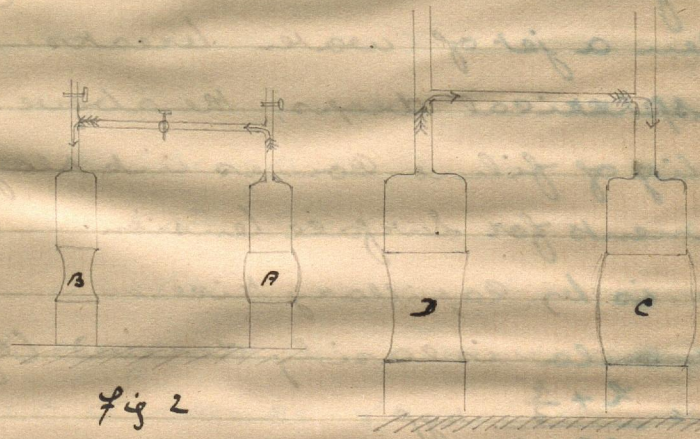


Fig 2

Fig 3

In fig (2) the distance between the upper & lower pairs of funnels is less than half the O.C. & so the excess of press in the film that bulges out is greater than in the other & so when the two are put in communication air flows from A to B & both tend to become cylindrical. In fig (3) ^{where $l > \pi a$} the excess of press in the film

bubble that bends in is greater \therefore when
the two are connected air flows from D to C
thereby giving further swelling to D \therefore greater
tending in to D. If the free bubbles collapse.

As it is seen that films of length ^{bubbles} greater
than half the C_c is are unstable [Newman &
of Stanton
Seante Page 153]

When a jet of water breaks up into
small spherical drops, the above factor
stability of films comes into play.

Experiments for surface tension.

The best is by capillary rise.

The formula is easily derived (cf B. A.


$$T = \frac{h + \frac{r}{3}}{2 \cos \theta} \rho g r$$

Strictly speaking the meniscus is
paraboloidal, not spherical \therefore the
term $\frac{r}{3}$ is only a first approximation.

r is the radius of that portion where
the meniscus is formed, hence it should
be measured by a column small column
mercury introduced at that spot, or else
breaking the capillary there.

72

Theory of ripples and waves.

Let A be any pt on the surface of the wave. 

A, B the L^r dropped from A to the line joining the undisturbed pts on the surface. The wave considered is for convenience sake a plane wave, i. e. one in which the crests and troughs are all st. lines, not oles as when are formed when a stone is dropped on the surface of water. Waves at a great distance from the pt. of disturbance are practically plane waves. The excess of pressure at B is due partly to the curvature of the film, and partly to the height of the water column above B . Due to the height of the water column press = $AB \times g\rho$. Due to curvature of the film, press = $T \left(\frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{r_2} \right)$ Now

in the case of the plane wave one of
the curvatures is zero, & the other
the curvature of the line in the
plane of propagation ($\text{say } k$)

$$\text{Total press at } P = AB \times \rho g + \frac{T}{r}$$

Since the wave surface is an elastic

$\frac{1}{r} = \frac{AB}{a^2}$ where a is the radius of
the circle but by the rotation of which
this curve is generated. If λ is the

$$\text{wavelength } 2\pi a = \lambda \quad \therefore \frac{1}{a^2} = \frac{4\pi^2}{\lambda^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Excess of press at } P &= AB \times \rho g + T \times AB \times \frac{4\pi^2}{\lambda^2} \\ &= AB \rho \left(g + \frac{4T\pi^2}{\rho \lambda^2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

Hence we see that the action of the
surface tension is effectively to increase
the gravity. Stokes has proved that when
wave disturbances are propagated
by gravity alone, their velocity of
propagation is the same as that acquired
by a body falling through $\frac{\lambda}{4\pi}$ Controlled
by gravity. If v is the velocity, $v^2 = 2g \times$
 $\frac{g\lambda}{2\pi}$

In this case we have instead of g the quantity $g + \frac{4\pi^2 T}{\rho \lambda^2}$.

Hence the velocity of propagation is such that $v^2 = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi} (g + \frac{4\pi^2 T}{\rho \lambda^2})$
 $= \frac{\lambda g}{2\pi} + \frac{2\pi T}{\rho \lambda}$

In the case of waves where λ is very small, the second term is the controlling factor, the other one being negligible. The ten surface-tension alone determines the velocity of propagation of the wave. Such waves are called ripples.

If λ is very great, the second term is negligible, gravity alone is the controlling factor, & then the wave is called a gravity wave.

Now the product of the two terms $\frac{\lambda g}{2\pi} + \frac{2\pi T}{\rho \lambda}$ is $\frac{gT}{\rho}$ which is a constant whatever be the wave length. Now the sum of two terms whose product is a constant is a minimum when

The two terms are equal $\therefore v^2$ is a

minimum when $\frac{\lambda g}{2\pi} = \frac{2\pi T}{\lambda \rho}$ i.e. ~~$\lambda^2 = 4\pi^2 T \rho$~~

is the minimum value of v ,

$$v^2 = \frac{\lambda g}{2\pi} = \lambda g \quad \text{Since } \frac{\lambda g}{2\pi} = \frac{2\pi T}{\lambda \rho}$$

$$v^2 = \frac{\lambda \rho g}{4\pi^2 T} \quad \therefore T = \frac{\lambda^2 \rho g}{4\pi^2}$$

$$v^2 = \frac{\lambda g}{2\pi} + \frac{2\pi T}{\lambda \rho} = \frac{\lambda g}{2\pi} + \frac{\lambda g}{\pi} \quad \therefore v^4 = \frac{\lambda^2 g^2}{\pi^2}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{\lambda^2 \rho g}{2\pi} = \frac{v^4 \pi^2}{g^2}$$

$$\therefore \frac{v^4 \pi^2}{g^2} = \frac{4\pi^2 T}{g \rho}$$

$$\therefore v^4 = \frac{4Tg}{\rho}$$

which in the case of water,

the least velocity of propagation

of waves is $\sqrt[4]{4 \times 72 \times 981} = \underline{\underline{23.05 \text{ cm/sec.}}}$

$$\text{The formula } v^2 = \frac{\lambda g}{2\pi} + \frac{2\pi T}{\lambda \rho}$$

can be utilized for the experimental determination of T of a liquid like mercury.

Every is taken in a wide basin

and its waves are continuously

produced in it by a pin which is

attached to one of the prongs of an

electrically maintained tuning fork.

λ is the frequency of the tuning

for $v = n\lambda$

$$\therefore n^2 \lambda^2 = \frac{\lambda g}{2\pi} + \frac{2\pi T}{\lambda \rho}$$

All the quantities are known except λ . λ is observed as follows. Any pt A on the surface of the mercury is a crest n times a second. If an intermittent illumination is caused on the surface n times a second, due to the persistence of vision it will appear as if the mercury surface is formed into a permanent wave. At the crests bright illumination is seen due to reflection (A liquid other than mercury will not show this effect with sufficient clearness) By means of a travelling microscope the distance between successive crests can be measured. The intermittent illumination may be caused in either of the foll

says. 1) A tuning fork with two perpendicular thin lamina attached to each prong allows a spot of light to pass through these perforations $2n$ times a second. Thus illumination is caused when A is a trough \rightarrow when A is a crest. 2) A phonie wheel is one having a number of holes that about each its rim is so adjusted as to rotate with the same frequency as n/m where m is the no. of holes.

If a light is placed above the wheel, illumination is caused n times a sec.
Oscillations of a drop.

We consider the case of drop that is not controlled by gravity, for instance drop of water placed in an enclosed mixture of oils having density one. The factors on which ^{t (the time of osc)} density depends are only surface tension T , radius a , density ρ . Let $t \propto T^x a^y \rho^z$

From the theory of dimensions,
 the dimensions on both sides must be
 identical in length l , time t & mass m
 $\therefore t' \times l^0 \times m^0 = \left(\frac{m \times l}{t^2 \times l}\right)^x \times l^y \times \left(\frac{m}{l^3}\right)^z$
 $= t^{-2x} \times l^{y-3z} \times m^{x+z}$

$$\therefore -2x = 1 \quad \therefore x = -\frac{1}{2}; \quad x+z = 0 \quad \therefore z = \frac{1}{2};$$

$$y-3z = 0 \quad \therefore y = \frac{3}{2}$$

$$\therefore t \propto \sqrt{\frac{a^3 \rho}{T}}$$

The constant of proportionality can
 be determined by experimenting
 on a liquid of known s. t. The constant
 being known, the T for any other liquid
 can be determined.

Lord Rayleigh's expts shows that the
 constant is $\frac{\pi}{\sqrt{2}}$

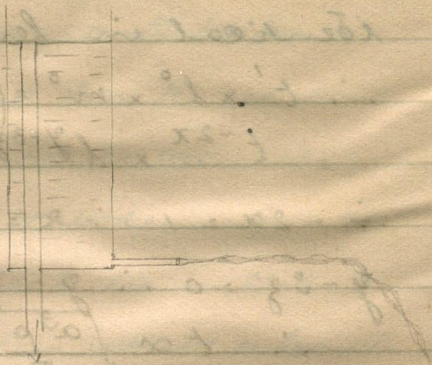
$$\therefore t = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{a^3 \rho}{8T}}$$

In practice it is not necessary
 to eliminate the action of gravity by
 a liquid of the same sp. gravity.

A tube of a radius a is flattened
 out into an elliptical shape, and

water is made to flow out from it under
constant pressure head.

For a certain length
of the column is
horizontal, thereby
showing that the
action of gravity is
non-existent. In this



length, the variations in the shape
are controlled by a, density ρ & surface
tension T . The period of oscillation
is the time taken to travel the
distance between two crests. If λ is this
distance, since velocity is $\sqrt{2gh}$,

$$\lambda = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{2gh}} = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{a^3 \rho}{8T}}$$
 according to the
previous formula.

Surface Tension by Jaeger's Method.

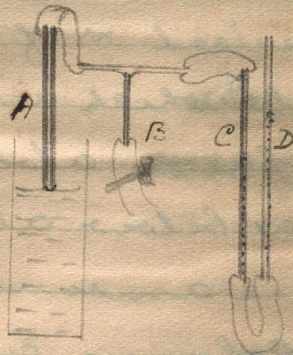
Record Book

The excess of pressure within
 $h'gp + \frac{2T}{r} = h'gp'$ where h' & p' are
height difference in manometer levels &

ρ' = Density of the liquid in the manometer
 Now ~~the~~ at the moment of detaching
 the pressure is slightly greater than
 $h\rho g + \frac{2T}{r}$ by a quantity which is necessary
 to cause the escape of the bubble. Hence
 the eqn written above is not quite correct.
 Also it is to be noted that the method
 is not applicable for finding the variation
 in surface tension over a small
 range of say 10 or 20 degrees. The error
 committed in reading h & h' are is
 ordinarily greater than that the
 variation to be determined.

Modification of Jaeger's method

A is a capillary which
 is connected to a capil
 manometer side tube.
 C and to a rubber
 tubing B which com-
 municates with the
 outside atmosphere.



The communication can be closed with a pinch cock. C is connected to another vertical tube by means of a rubber tubing and some liquid is poured in the two limbs so that the arrangement serves as a manometer. When B is open the capillary dips in the given liquid & level in A rises. B is now closed. Evidently the pressure above the meniscus, the atmospheric press. is ^{greater} less than the press. at a pt in the liquid which is immediately below the meniscus, the difference being $\frac{2T}{r}$ (assuming the meniscus to be spherical of radius r) If now the bulb which is attached to D & C is raised the press. above the meniscus increases; that below also increases by the same amount. Hence the height of the column diminishes. Suppose D is raised till the meniscus is in level

with the liquid in the vessel. Then the
press. below the meniscus is $P + \frac{2T}{r}$
 P being atmospheric press. The press.
above is $P + h\rho g$ where h = difference
in the levels of C + D & ρ is density of
liquid in C + D. The difference between
press. below & above the meniscus must
be $\frac{2T}{r}$ $\therefore \frac{2T}{r} = h\rho g \therefore T = \frac{r}{2} h\rho g$.

This method is used to find surface T
at different temps. That the meniscus
is in level with the liquid can be
easily seen by observing the
image.

Surface Tension and Surface energy.

Sudden alteration in the area of
a film is accompanied by a change
of temp. which makes the film stiffer
to resist the change.

Let us suppose there are two
chambers of temps θ_1 & θ_2 , θ_1 being
> θ_2 , but very near to θ_2 . Let

film be taken of area of small
 heat capacity. 1) At temp. θ_1 , let
 its area be increased by A . Work
 done on the film is $2A\theta_1$, where θ_1
 S. T. at temp. θ_1 . Heat q_1 is absorbed
 by the film. 2) Transfer the film fast to
 the enclosure at temp. θ_2 . No work is
 done on or by the film since by supposi-
 on heat capacity is small. 3) At θ_2
 let the area decrease by a , work done
 by the film being $2A\theta_2$ (θ_2 = S. T. at θ_2)
 heat given out being q_2 . 4) Transfer
 the film to the other θ_1 ; no work is done.

The film is now in its original con-
 dition, & the cycle is reversible. Hence
 by the law of reversible engines

$$\frac{q_1}{\theta_1} = \frac{\text{available work}}{\text{difference of temp}} = \frac{2A(\theta_2 - \theta_1)}{\theta_1 - \theta_2}$$

Writing β for $\frac{\theta_1 - \theta_2}{\theta_1 \theta_2}$

we have $q_1 = -\theta_1 \times 2A\beta$

If β is +ive, that is, if surface tension
 greater at a higher temperature, i.e. if

The film stiffens with temperature,
 then γ is -ve, i.e. heat is not absorbed
 but given out when the film increases
 in area. On the other hand if γ is
 is less at a higher temperature, the
 film absorbs heat from the outside.
 Now for all liquids, the surface tension
 becomes less with temp. \therefore all liquids
 absorb heat from the outside when
 the film increases in area & if the
 change is rapid, so that there is no time
 to absorb heat, then the film cools

In the case of water $\beta = -0.14$

\therefore At 27°C i.e. 300° (abs) heat absorbed
 in order to keep the area temp.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Constant} &= -2A \times \beta, \times \beta = -300 \times 0.14 \times \\
 &= 84A
 \end{aligned}$$

Work done by the external force
 in increasing the area by $2A = 2A \times T$
 $= 150A$ (taking T as 75)

Thus the heat absorbed is nearly

double half of work done by external forces.

At temp. θ , energy if T is the surface tension & $\frac{dT}{d\theta}$ rate of increase of T with temp.

Then heat absorbed per unit increase of area = $\theta \frac{dT}{d\theta}$.

Work done by external forces = T

The increase in surface energy = sum of work done & heat absorbed.

\therefore Surface energy = $T + \theta \frac{dT}{d\theta}$

Since $\frac{dT}{d\theta}$ is +ive

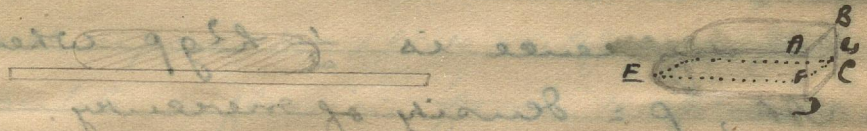
Surface energy is always $> S.T.$

Jinck's drop. The surface tension and angle of contact can be found by means of a drop measuring the dimensions of a drop of the liquid provided it does not spread on the surface of glass.

It ~~rep~~ spreads, say like water, the dimension of a bubble of air formed below a glass plate placed on the surface is to be measured.

The drop must be such that a certain

~~the same or that above it is~~
~~cut by a vertical plane~~
~~at unit distance~~



area, however small, at its top is perfectly horizontal. Let a central slab be cut out of the drop by two vertical planes at unit distance apart, & suppose that this slab is cut in two equal parts by a vertical plane at rt. \perp s to its length. Consider the equilibrium of this portion of the slab above the horizontal section of greatest area, i.e. above EFC. The horizontal forces acting on this portion are $T \times AB$ i.e. T (since $AB = \text{unity}$) & the difference in horizontal components of the pressures over the curved surface & over the plane surface AB & F. Since AB is a

slab, the pressure below the sur-

face is the same as that above it &

the difference is $\frac{1}{2} h^2 g \rho$ where

$T = A \tau$, $\rho =$ density of mercury.

These two forces balance each other

$$T = \frac{1}{2} h^2 g \rho.$$

Considering the equilibrium of the

hole the portion of the slab, &

equating the horizontal forces,

$$T (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \cos \theta) = \frac{1}{2} H^2 g \rho$$

where H is the total height of the

rop.

To find H a spherometer can be

used. For h ,

travelling micro-

scope is directed

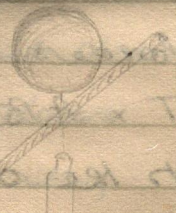
towards the

rop, a glass

slate inclined at

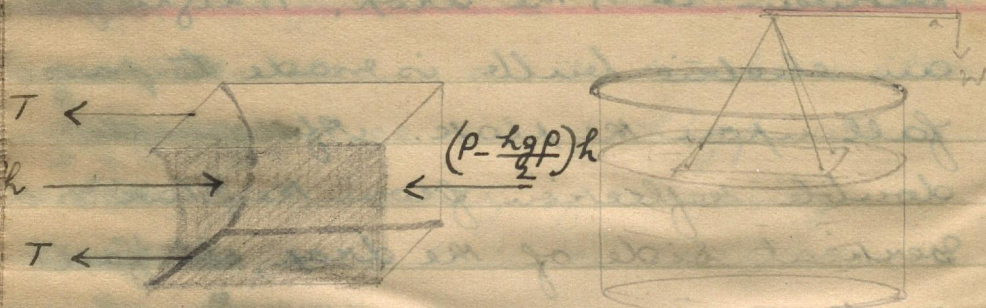
5° to the horizontal axis of

microscope is brought



between it & the drop, & light from an electric bulb is made to pass fall upon the plate. After reflection double reflection from the plate & the vertical side of the drop, it falls on the microscope & a streak of light is seen in the plane of the eyepiece. If the incident and reflected beams are not on both in a horizontal plane a double streak will be seen. They can be made to merge into one by adjusting the light or the glass plate. The microscope reading is taken. Next a ppherometer is placed over the drop, & its central leg is made to touch the top of the drop. The microscope is focussed on to the tip of the leg. The difference between the two readings gives h .

Surface Tension by detachment of an area



As in the case of the Quincke's drop
 it can be shown that $2T = \frac{1}{2} H^2 g \rho$
 hence T can be calculated. But

the theory supposes that the plate
 while being detached is perfectly
 parallel to the surface of water.

if however the plate is ever so
 slightly disturbed it ceases to be

parallel to detachment becomes

easy. Hence the expt. is only theoret-
 ically possible.

$$2T = \frac{1}{2} H^2 g \rho \therefore H = 2\sqrt{\frac{T}{g\rho}}$$

the pressure above the plate just
 before detaching is greater than that
 below by $H g \rho$ \therefore the force which

pulls the plate down to the surface of the liquid is $A\Delta p = wg$, where w is the wt. that balances the detaching plate.

$$\therefore A\Delta p = w \quad \text{ie} \quad Ap \cdot 2\sqrt{\frac{T}{\rho}} = w$$
$$\text{ie} \quad \sqrt{\frac{T}{\rho}} = \frac{w}{2Ap} \quad \text{ie} \quad T = \frac{w^2 \rho A}{4A^2 p}$$

Vapour pressure over a curved surface

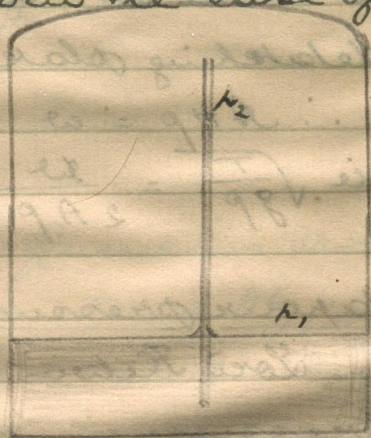
Lord Kelvin showed that vapour pressure in equilibrium with a curved surface is not the same as that the pressure of the vapour in equilibrium with a flat one.

If a spherical drop evaporates, its area of surface, \therefore potential energy decreases \therefore hence, the surface tension is a factor which promotes increased evaporation from a curved surface, \therefore hence we conclude that the pressure of the vapour in equilibrium with a

convex surface must be greater.

The exact value of the difference can be calculated from the case of concave surface.

Let a capillary be dipped in a liquid placed in a closed vessel. When the vapour in the vessel has become saturated,



no more evaporation takes place, thus attaining a state of equilibrium, let p_1, p_2 be the vapour pressures above the flat & concave surfaces of the vessel & capillary respectively

$$p_1 - p_2 = h \sigma g$$

where $\sigma =$ vapour density, assuming to be uniform.

Pressure above the meniscus is greater than the pressure just below the meniscus by $\frac{2T}{r}$.

$$p_2 = h(\rho - \sigma)g = \frac{2T}{r}$$

$$\therefore h = \frac{2T}{r(\rho - \sigma)g}$$

$$\therefore h_1 - h_2 = \frac{\sigma}{\rho - \sigma} \cdot \left(\frac{2T}{r} \right)$$

When h becomes very large on account of r being small, the assumption that σ is uniform becomes untenable, & then we proceed as follows.

If σ be the pressure at a layer thickness dh at height h above the layer, the difference $d\rho$ between vapour pressures above & below the layer ~~is~~ is $-d\rho = dh \sigma g$

Integrating both sides

$$\int_{h_1}^{h_2} -d\rho = g \int_0^h \sigma dh \quad \text{Now } \frac{p}{\sigma} = R\theta$$

where R is the gas constant of the eqn $PV = R\theta$

$$\therefore \frac{d\rho}{\sigma} = \frac{d\rho}{\rho} \times R\theta$$

$$\therefore -\frac{R\theta}{g} \log \frac{h_2}{h_1} = h = \frac{2T}{r(\rho - \sigma)g}$$

$$\therefore \log \frac{h_2}{h_1} = \frac{-2T}{R\theta r(\rho - \sigma)}$$

This eqn can be shown to be a generalized form of I

$$\log \left(\frac{h_2}{h_1} \right) = \log \left(1 + \frac{h_2 - h_1}{h_1} \right)$$

= $\frac{h_2 - h_1}{h_1}$ when $h_2 - h_1$ is ~~the~~ very small compared to h_1 .

$$\therefore h_2 - h_1 = \frac{h_1 \Delta T}{R D k (\rho - \sigma)} = \frac{\sigma}{\rho - \sigma} \cdot \frac{\Delta T}{r}$$

We may assume the formula to hold good in ~~the~~ the case of curved surfaces as well. Here r becomes

we ~~to~~ we have

$$h_2 - h_1 = \frac{\sigma}{\rho - \sigma} \cdot \frac{\Delta T}{r}$$

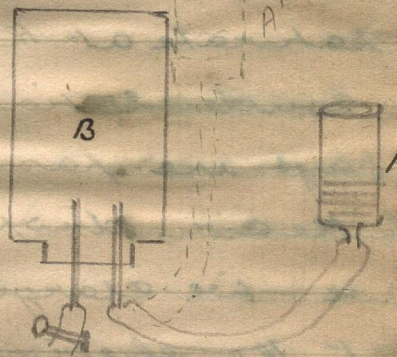
The pressure of vapour in contact with the surface of a drop of dew or a raindrop is greater than the normal pressure of the water vapour by $\frac{\sigma}{\rho - \sigma} \cdot \frac{\Delta T}{r}$. This difference is very great when r is small, \rightarrow infinite when r approximates to zero. Hence we see that ^{even a} very high degree of supersaturation is insufficient to make raindrops in a purely dust-free atmosphere, for in the initial

Stage of formation requires an infinite vapour pressure if no nucleus for formation is present. Actually there are suspended dust particles or at least ionized molecules of air which act as nuclei.

The importance of action of nuclei can be demonstrated by a simple expt. devised by Aitken.

A & B are two closed vessels connected by a flexible pipe.

A is partly filled with water. When A is raised up the



pressure in B is high. If suddenly lowered, pressure decreases, & due to cooling some water vapour condenses & using a part of the suspended dust as nuclei.

By repeating this process, all the

dust can be used up, a stage which is indicated by cessation of the forming of cloud. If more dust is introduced through the extra pipe supplied, cloud is again formed. If the air is dust-free & the temperature lowered to four-fifths so as to make the saturation four-fold (i.e. pressure is 4 times that req'd to saturate at the cold temp.) the no condensation is seen. If now X-rays are passed, causing ionization of the air, droplets are seen which have -ive charges, hereby showing that the electrons act as nuclei. At a further stage of supersaturation, +ive charged drops are seen, which show that protons too have become nuclei. If further saturated, uncharged drops are seen. Thus the condensing power of the

Neutral molecule is less than that of the proton, which again is $< \frac{1}{1836}$ worse ~~mass~~ ^{that of} than the electron. It may be due to ^{difference in} size of electrons or protons or to the attractive property of charges.

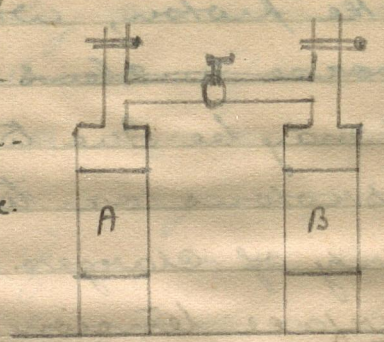
Surface tension of very thin films

If we observe a film that is draining away slowly, certain portions of it are seen coloured, and other portions black. Hence we conclude that films of different thicknesses can have the same surface tension, for if the surface tension of the thinner part were, say, less, it would that part would be pulled by the thicker part & the film ^{would} collapse.

A quantitative investigation of the variation of S.T. with thickness was made by Rucker & Reinold in 1886. The digrammatic representation

The apparatus is shown in the figure.

A & B are cylindrical tubes of equal dimensions, put in communication with each other.



is made to drain away, its upper portion is thereby getting thinner;

but B is maintained at constant thickness by passing an electric current from bottom to top. If A becomes of

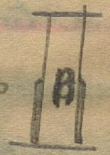
less surface tension than B, the pressure in it would be less, & since it will shrink. But it was

observed that until about 12 μ m thickness when the fiber in its upper part was back stable filament A could be

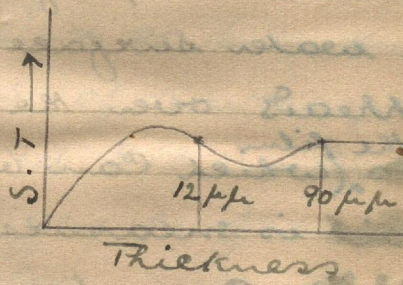
maintained. But at this stage no part of A could be found of thickness between 12 μ m & 90 μ m. There was a

sharp discontinuity shown in the

figure. Hence we conclude that when the thickness decreases from 1350 $\mu\mu$ (the upper limit of the experiments) to 90 $\mu\mu$ the S.T. is constant. After 90 $\mu\mu$ S.T. is less, & the lower parts are pulled away the upper part. When it's thickness is about 50, S.T. again increases, i.e. draining increases the S.T., the film is stable. At 12 $\mu\mu$ S.T. is the same as for thickness above 90. After 12 $\mu\mu$ S.T. again increases for a while & then diminishes indefinitely.



The relation between S.T. & thickness is shown on the



adjoining graph. The methods used for thickness

ere to measure the shifting of the inter-
ference bands or of to find the electric
resistance of the film.

Movement of Camphor on water.

When camphor shavings are
rough on the surface of pure water,
the camphor particles move to & fro
with great velocity. [Camphor dissolves
in water; the solution has a smaller
T. than pure water & ∴ the liquid
in the neighbourhood of a camphor
particle is pulled by the adjacent
water surface; hence the motion]

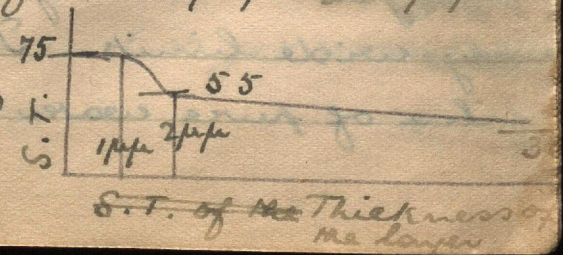
a small drop of oil is thrown
over the water surface, a thin oil
film spreads over the water. Let the
thickness ^{of the film} (which can be known if the
vol. of oil is measured) be less than
10 μ. The camphor moves as before.

the thickness be increased (by confining
the oiled surface between two strips

of metal dipping below the surface) when it reaches a value about 1 $\mu\mu$ the motion appreciably decreases. When thickness is 2 $\mu\mu$ there is no motion at all. Raleigh who performed the above expt concluded that the lessening of motion takes place when one molecular layer of oil completely covers the water surface \therefore that 1 $\mu\mu$ is approximately the diameter of a molecule.

The surface tension of greased surfaces was determined in a series of expts by Miss Pockels & Raleigh. The former employed the method of detaching an area, & the latter employed Wilhelm's method of detaching a plate. The results showed that up to 1 $\mu\mu$ no appreciable difference from the S.T. of pure water, from 1 $\mu\mu$ to 2 $\mu\mu$ a sudden fall,

& hence forward



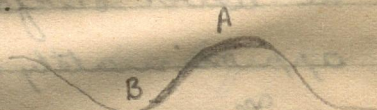
S.T. of the Thickness of the layer

very gradual change until the S.T.

assumed the ~~sea~~ value of the oil used.

Hence we see that so long as the thickness of the ^{oiled} greased layer is less than the minimum ~~keep~~ to give the T. of the oil, any decrease in thickness is accompanied by an increase in T. This explains the action of oil in calming troubled waters.

When a wave tends to be



formed by the action of

wind, the film of oil at the crest is thicker than at the trough B. \therefore S.T. at

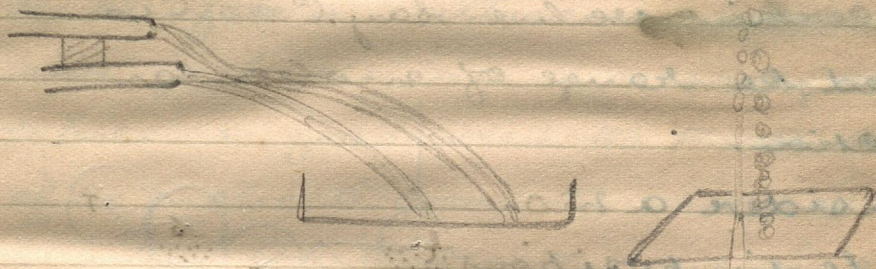
is less than at B \therefore hence B pulls on A.

The action of S.T. forces opposes the deformation \therefore tends to produce level.

A contaminated surface has a greater power of self-adjustment whereby the S.T. adjusts itself within fairly wide limits. Hence where in film of pure water is unstable because

There is no force to counteract its own weight, a film of a mixture of soap & water is stable, for here the S.T. is not exactly the same at all parts. Hence it is that bubbles are often seen in unclean streams than in pure water wells.

Two drops of pure water when meeting against each other do rebound. But the water is greased or electrified

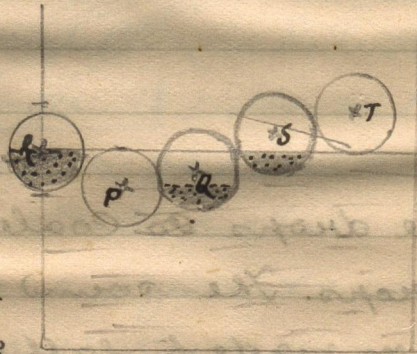


The drops do coalesce & form larger drops. The sound produced if the drops are made to fall on a wooden or metal plate changes appreciably. The same is seen in two jets near each other.

Laplace's Theory of Capillarity.

Laplace developed a theory by which all surface tension & allied phenomena are explained on the assumption that molecules attract each other. So little is known of the relation of this force with the distance between two molecules that we can assume it to be a function of z so that $\phi(z) \rightarrow 0$ when z tends to a certain value say C . C is called the range of molecular attraction.

Consider a molecule in positions P, Q, R, S, T , in a liquid with each of these as centre & with radius spheres are described. When the molecule is at P there are an equal number of molecules on



10

every side of it, & the resultant attraction on P is zero. Part of the sphere about Q is in air or in the vapour of the liquid wherein molecules are very sparsely distributed (almost there are no molecules compared to those in water) Hence there is a resultant attraction towards. At R this attraction is a maximum. When the molecule is above the surface an attraction is still acting, but it is a decreasing one & becomes zero when the distance of the molecule from the surface is $2C$. The total work done on a molecule to carry it from the surface to the space beyond C = that done to bring it from the interior.

A quantity of importance is the work done not on one molecule

out on the molecules compressed within
 unit volume. Let it be K . This quantity
 is usually denoted by K . K is
 defined as the amount of work done
 on unit vol. of a liquid to bring it
 from the surface of the liquid to the
 space beyond the range of molecular attrac-
 tion of the liquid. Since an equal
 amount of work is done to bring the
 volume to the surface of the liquid, $2K$
 is the total work done to change unit
 volume of a liquid into vapour at
 a same temperature. Expressed in
 thermal ^{mechanical} units the work is $L\rho$
 where L is the latent heat & ρ the density.

$$L\rho f = 2K \quad \therefore K = \frac{L\rho f}{2}$$

In the case of water at 100°C , we

$$\text{we get } K = \frac{4.2 \times 10^7 \times 1 \times 538}{2}$$

$$= 1.13 \times 10^{10} \text{ dynes ergs per } ^\circ\text{C}$$

An expression for K can be
 derived analytically as follows.

10

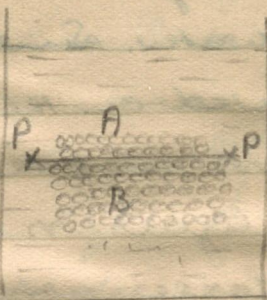
Let z be the height of a molecule at any instant above the surface of the water. Since m is ~~is~~ the force exerted on the molecule is \propto to the mass m of the molecule, density ρ of the liquid is a function of z say $\varphi(z)$.
 \therefore force = $m \rho \varphi(z)$ Let the molecule be carried upwards through a distance dz so small that the force during this interval can be considered uniform. Work done in the process = $m \rho \varphi(z) dz$. Hence total amount of work done in carrying the molecule from the surface to distance c (beyond the range of attraction) = $m \rho \int_0^c \varphi(z) dz$. Let there be n molecules in unit vol. Work done in carrying unit vol is k
 = $n m \rho \int_0^c \varphi(z) dz = \rho^2 \int_0^c \varphi(z) dz$.

The quantity k is equal to what is known as the intrinsic pressure

pull per unit area within the interior of the liquid.

Consider a plane PP

in the interior of a liquid dividing it into two portions A & B.



Region B attracts layers of liquid in A up to a distance z C.

The total force on the layers in A of each of unit area & infinitesimal thickness is the pull per unit area

in A due to B. Consider a layer in A at height z above P, ^{its} thickness dz ^{being} so small that all molecules in it are at the same distance z from P.

Its mass is ρdz \therefore force on it due

$$B = \rho dz \times \rho \times \phi(z)$$

Total force on A due to B

$$= \int_0^{\infty} \rho^2 \phi(z) dz = \rho^2 \int_0^C \phi(z) dz$$

since $\phi(z) \rightarrow 0$ as $z \rightarrow C$.

Thus the pull on A due to B or the in-

11
Kinetic pressure = the Laplace Const.

Vander Waal calculated the value of k from the gas equation $(p + \frac{a}{v^2})(v - b) = RT$. When the correction $\frac{a}{v^2}$ is applied for the value of the pressure, the eqn holds good for liquids as well as for gases. $\frac{a}{v^2}$ is the diminution in pressure caused per unit area due to molecular forces pulling on the surface layer into the interior and is \therefore equal to k . Since $\frac{1}{v^2} = \rho^2$, $\frac{a}{v^2} = \rho^2 a$ $\therefore a = \int_0^{\infty} \phi(z)$
since $k = \rho^2 \int_0^{\infty} \phi(z) dz$.

The value of a can be calculated as follows:-

The density of water is 1 & b is of the dimensions comparable to b \therefore a negligible quantity when compared to the volume in the gaseous state.

Hence the eqn can be written as

$$\left(p + \frac{a}{v^2} \right) v = RT$$

At the boiling pt of water, press = 76 cms or 1.013×10^6 dynes/cm², temp is

$$100 \text{ abs. } \therefore v = \frac{22400}{18} \times \frac{373}{273} = 1672 \text{ CC}$$

When pressure is 14.96 cms of mercury or 1.994×10^5 dynes per cm², water boils at 60°C and the vol. of 18 gm

$$\text{water vapour is } v = \frac{22400}{18} \times \frac{333}{273} \times \frac{76}{14.96} = 7671 \text{ CC}$$

Hence substituting values for p, v, T

$$\left(1.013 \times 10^6 + \frac{a}{1672^2} \right) 1672 = R \times 373 \quad (1)$$

$$\left(1.994 \times 10^5 + \frac{a}{7671^2} \right) 7671 = R \times 333 \quad (2)$$

Dividing (1) by (2) R can be eliminated,

$$\text{Solving for } a \text{ we get } a = 4.7 \times 10^{10}$$

Since a gram of water occupies a vol. of 1 cc at 100°C, we have

$$k = \frac{a}{v^2} = 4.35 \times 10^{10} \text{ dynes/cm}^2$$

This eqn value is of the same order of magnitude as the value obtained above.

Van der Waal employed data
 obtained from a different source
 & got a value nearly 1.05×10^{10} dyne
 Let a ~~gr~~ ^{one} unit gram of a liquid
 at temp T_1 , press p_1 be taken,
 & let the pressure be decreased
 to p_2 the process being isothermal.
 Let the corresponding change in vol.
 be from v_1 to v_2

$$\left(p_1 + \frac{a}{v_1^2}\right)(v_1 - b) = RT_1$$

$$= \left(p_2 + \frac{a}{v_2^2}\right)(v_2 - b)$$

Again let the v_1 c.c. at p_1 press
 be heated to temperature T_2 such
 that the vol. changes to v_2

$$\therefore \left(p_1 + \frac{a}{v_1^2}\right)(v_2 - b) = RT_2$$

$$\therefore \frac{T_1}{T_2} = \frac{\left(p_1 + \frac{a}{v_1^2}\right)(v_1 - b)}{\left(p_1 + \frac{a}{v_2^2}\right)(v_2 - b)}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \left(p_1 + \frac{a}{v_1^2}\right)(v_1 - b) = \frac{T_1}{T_2} \left(p_1 + \frac{a}{v_2^2}\right)(v_2 - b)$$

$$\text{But the L.H.S.} = \left(p_2 + \frac{a}{v_2^2}\right)(v_2 - b)$$

$$\frac{T_1}{T_2} \left(r_1 + \frac{a}{v_1^2} \right) = \left(r_2 + \frac{a}{v_2^2} \right)$$

In this eqn all quantities except a can be directly measured. $\therefore a$ can be calculated.

The value of k thus determined was found to agree with that calculated from latent heat.

Dupré was the first to apply latent heat to calculate ~~the~~ intrinsic pressure. He overlooked the fact that work has to be done to bring a molecule from the interior to the surface of a liquid, & hence wrote down the formula as $k = L p f$. The calculated value for k was evidently double the actual value.

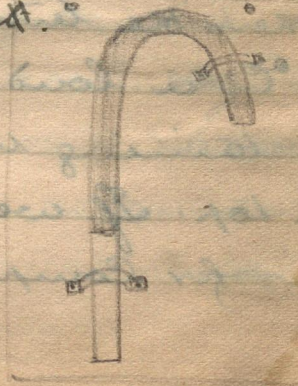
Tensile Strength of a liquid.

When a steel wire is acted by a set of wts the wire extends but does not snap. The forces of attraction between molecules keep them together.

molecules in the
 The portion of the wire below any
 horizontal plane are pulled by those
 molecules above it which are within
 the range of attraction. Laplace's theory
 has shown that such a force exists
 in liquids also and that its magnitude
 per unit area is k . The tensile strength
 of water is about 10000 atmospheres
 which is the same as that of a steel
 wire or half that of a piano wire.

The best known illustration of
 tensile strength in liquids is the stick
 of mercury at the top of a barometer
 tube. If the tube is brought into
 the vertical position slowly, the
 column remains entire through
 more than 76 cms high.

A bent tube fastened
 to a vertical board con-
 tains air free liquid,
 and its vapour.

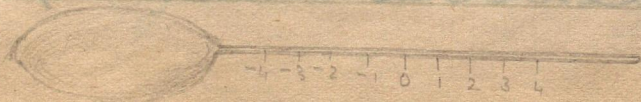


The liquid Column does not break
roughly dropped four meters from
height. The height of dropping is
increased till the Column breaks.
The force that causes the breaking
can be approximately calculated from
the height of falling. Hence the
viscous strength is deduced.

A more accurate method
is what follows. A bulb
filled with liquid completely
is free with no vapour
at the top, the temperature
being about 90°C . The bulb is cooled,
but the water does not contract; in-
stead it remains in a state of tension.
When the temp. has fallen to about
 3°C a loud report is heard & a space
containing water vapour is seen at
the top. If we assume the bulk modu-
lus for compression to be the same as



for dilation, knowing the strain
from the vol. of space produced, the
pressure to which the liquid was
subject, i. e. the tensile strength
can be calculated. The above exp^t
by Berthelot was improved upon by
Prof. Worthington who placed within
the bulb a mercury manometer. The
manometer was an ellipsoidal
vessel fitted with a calibrated capi-
llary & containing mercury. The
cooling caused an outward pressure
to act on the manometer which de-
pressed the mercury level in the capillary.
The sides of the manometer were
thin steel plates. By exerting
1, 2, 3, ... atmospheres the five
divisions could be marked. By
equal divisions were marked below
to read 0, 1, 2, ... etc.



Viscosity

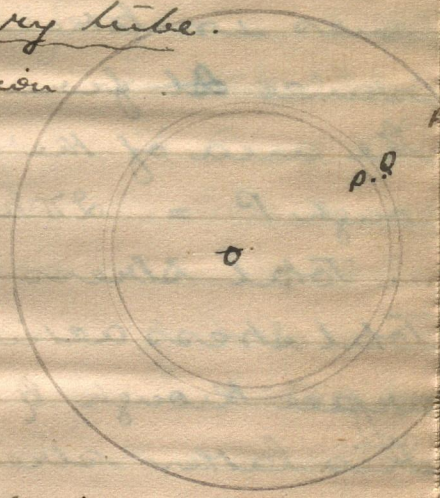
That property of fluids in virtue of which relative motion between adjacent layers is retarded is viscosity. It can easily be explained from the assumption that molecules are carriers of momentum. Let A, B be two parallel planes, A moving to the right, B at rest. When a molecule impinges on A it acquires momentum which after successive impacts is transmitted to B and tends to make B move in the same direction as A . Meanwhile since A loses part of its momentum to the molecules impinging on it A tends to stop. Thus the relative motion between A & B is retarded.

B exerts a tangential stress on A & vice versa which is propor-

twined to the relative velocity gradient is $\frac{F}{A} \propto \frac{dv}{dx}$ or $\frac{F}{A} = \eta \frac{dv}{dx}$. The constant of proportionality η is called the coefft of viscosity, and can be defined as the force per unit area exerted by one layer of the liquid upon another \parallel to it at unit distance, the relative velocity being unity.

Flow of a viscous fluid through a cylindrical capillary tube.

Let the cross section of the tube be a ckt \odot of radius $OA = a$. Let v be the velocity at P ($OP = r$). It is supposed that the motion is not turbulent, \therefore velocity at every pt is \parallel to the axis of the tube and velocity all over the surface of



any cylinder coaxial with the tube is the same. It is evident that since the liquid is practically incompressible, the velocity ^{at one end} on entrance for any such surface is the same as that at the other end.

At P. velocity gradient = $\eta \frac{dv}{dr}$.
Tangential stress causing this gradient $\eta \frac{dv}{dr}$. Consider the portion of the liquid bounded by two coaxial cylinders through P & Q ($OQ = r + \Delta r$) & by two planes \perp to the axis of the tube at distance Δz from Δz from each other.

The area of the surface of the cylinder through P = $2\pi r \Delta z$ Δz

\therefore Total stress on the area = $2\pi r \Delta z \times \eta \frac{dv}{dr}$.

Total stress acting on the area of the surface through Q = $2\pi \eta \left\{ r \frac{dv}{dr} + \frac{d}{dr} \left(r \frac{dv}{dr} \right) \Delta z \right\} \Delta z$

This latter stress acts in the direction \perp to increase the relative velocity, the former acts in the opposite direction. The resultant stress tending to increase

$$v = 2\pi\eta \left\{ \frac{d}{dr} \left(r \frac{dv}{dr} \right) \Delta r \right\} \Delta z$$

Let P denote the pressure gradient i.e. the increase of pressure in the direction of v . The effect of the pressure over the ends of the ring is equivalent to a force $2\pi r \Delta r \times P \Delta z$ tending to diminish v . Since the motion is steady there is no change of momentum on the ring \therefore the two forces must be equal.

$$2\pi\eta \left\{ \frac{d}{dr} \left(r \frac{dv}{dr} \right) \Delta r \right\} \Delta z = 2\pi r \Delta r \times P \Delta z$$

$$\text{Since } \eta \frac{d}{dr} \left(r \frac{dv}{dr} \right) = r P$$

Since the motion of the liquid is \parallel to the axis, pressure must be the same all over a cross-section. $\therefore P$ is independent of r . Again velocity is independent of length, depends only on r . $\therefore P$ is a constant.

Hence integrating

$$\eta r \frac{dv}{dr} = \frac{r^2}{2} P + C$$

$$\therefore \eta \frac{dv}{dr} = \frac{r}{2} P + \frac{C}{r}$$

Integrating again

$$\eta v = \frac{r^2}{4} P + C \log r + C_2$$

C & C_2 are constants of integration.

Since velocity is not infinite when $r=0$,
must vanish.

$$\therefore \eta v = \frac{r^2}{4} P + C_2$$

~~Now~~ Careful expts have shown
at the layer in contact with the
surface of the liquid does not move,
at there is no slipping. Hence when

$$r = a, \quad v = 0 \quad \therefore \quad C_2 = - \frac{P a^2}{4}$$

$$\eta v = P \left(\frac{r^2}{4} - \frac{a^2}{4} \right)$$

Now P is the rate of increase of
pressure in the direction of velocity,

$P = - \frac{P_1 - P_2}{L}$ where P_1 & P_2 are the
static pressures at the two ends where
the liquid enters and leaves the tube,
 L is the length of the tube

~~Flow~~ = Vol. of water that passes
in unit time across a section

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{of the tube} &= \int_0^a 2\pi r dr \times v \\
 &= 2\pi \frac{\rho}{4\eta_0} \int_0^a (r^3 - a^2 r) dr \\
 &= \frac{-\pi \rho a^4}{8\eta l} \\
 &= \frac{\pi (P_1 - P_2) a^4}{8\eta l}
 \end{aligned}$$

Viscous flow of gases through a capillary

Using the same notation as in the previous case we obtain the equation

$$\eta \frac{d}{dr} \left(r \frac{dv}{dr} \right) = r \frac{dp}{dl}$$

Now it can easily be seen that dp/dl is not a constant over the surface of the cylinder of radius r for if through an area ds a volume V enters its pressure on coming out diminishes $\propto \frac{1}{r}$. $\therefore V$ becomes $V \frac{r_2}{r_1}$; the velocity of flow is greater, changing from v_1 to $v_2 \frac{r_1}{r_2}$. Hence, v is not independent of r ; but the product of the velocity v & pressure is a constant independent of r .

\therefore multiplying both sides by r

$$\eta \frac{d}{dr} \left(r \frac{dv}{dr} \right) \rho = r \mu \frac{d\rho}{dl}$$

Now $\frac{d}{dr} (\rho v) = v \frac{d\rho}{dr} + \rho \frac{dv}{dr}$

Now But $\frac{d\rho}{dr} = 0 \therefore \frac{d}{dr} (\rho v) = \rho \frac{dv}{dr}$

∴ again $\frac{d}{2dl} (\rho^2) = \frac{d\rho}{dl} \times \rho$

The above eqn can be written as

$$\eta \frac{d}{dr} \left\{ r \frac{d(\rho^2)}{dr} \right\} = \frac{r}{2} \frac{d\rho^2}{dl}$$

ρ is independent of l & $\frac{d\rho^2}{dl}$ is a constant

∴ Integrating

$$\eta r \frac{d(\rho^2)}{dr} = \frac{r^2}{4} \frac{d\rho^2}{dl} + C_1$$

∴ i.e.

$$\eta d(\rho^2) = \frac{d\rho^2}{dl} \frac{r^2}{4} dr + \frac{C_1}{r} dr$$

Integrating

$$\eta \rho^2 = \frac{d\rho^2}{dl} \frac{r^2}{8} + C_1 \log r + C_2$$

$$C_1 = 0$$

$$\therefore C_2 = - \frac{d\rho^2}{dl} \frac{a^2}{8}$$

Vol. of gas flowing per unit time through a section α

$$= \int_0^a 2\pi r dr \times v$$

$$= \int_0^a 2\pi r dr \cdot \frac{dr^2}{dl} \left(\frac{r^2}{8} - \frac{a^2}{8} \right) \frac{1}{\eta r}$$

$$= \frac{dr^2}{dl} \cdot \frac{1}{\eta r} \cdot \frac{\pi}{4} \int_0^a (r^3 dr - a^2 r dr)$$

$$= \frac{dr^2}{dl} \cdot \frac{\pi}{4\eta r} \cdot -\frac{a^4}{4}$$

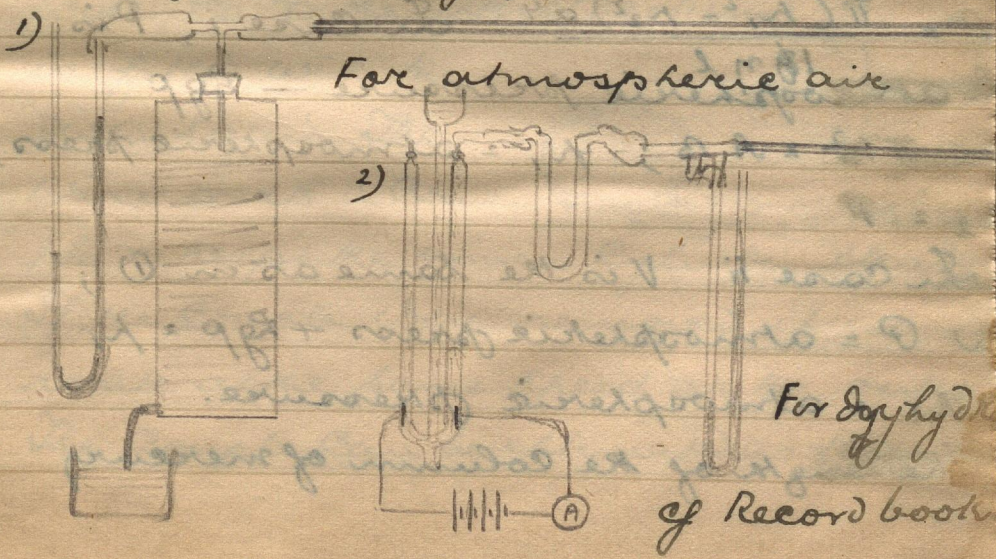
$$= \frac{\pi (r_1^2 - r_2^2) a^4}{16\eta l h}$$

Hence vol V that pass

through any cross-section where pressure is P is given by

$$QV = \frac{\pi (r_1^2 - r_2^2) a^4}{16\eta l}$$

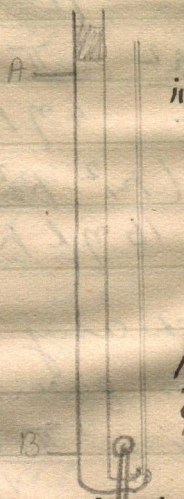
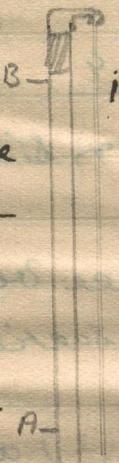
Expts for viscosity of a gas.



The above expt. cannot be employed
 for oxygen since oxygen easily
 attacks the rubber connections supplied.

3)

In expt No 3
 we should be
 taken that mer-
 cury does not
 flow into the
 thin capillary.



Rantines
apparatus

If it does,

even several atmospheres of pressure
 will not be sufficient to drive it out.

$$P = \frac{\pi (r_1^2 - r_2^2) \rho g h}{4}$$

In Case i, P is

atmospheric pressure - $h \rho g$

$$P = \pi r^2 \times A B; \quad r_1 = \text{atmospheric press;}$$

$$r_2 = P$$

In case ii V is the same as in (i);

$$P = \text{atmospheric press} + h \rho g = r_1$$

$$r_2 = \text{atmospheric pressure.}$$

The length of the column of mercury

Should be such as to allow a sufficient long time for descending. But it should not be too small lest after moving for some time it come to a stand still. The bore of the wider tube should be of about 1mm radius.

Revolving Cylinder

The outer cylinder to two ^{Coaxial} Concentric Cylinders can be rotated at a constant speed, say 20 revol. per min. The inner is suspended within it by a torsion wire, & the interspace (1mm) is filled with the given liquid. The wire exerts a couple & keeps the inner cylinder steady. If the couple were removed it would rotate at the same speed as the outer. The couple can be estimated as follows



It is supposed that the motion is not
 turbulent, that the liquid everywhere
 moves in coaxial layers. Let Ω be the
 angular vel. of the outer cylinder,
 and that of any layer of radius r , ω & b
 the radius of the outer & inner cylinders.
 The angular vel. of a layer of radius
 $r + dr$ is $\omega + d\omega$. If the couple were
 not acting its displacement in
 unit time would have been $\omega(r + dr)$;
 the actual displacement is $(\omega + d\omega)(r + dr)$
 Increase in displacement = $d\omega(r + dr)$
 $d\omega \times r$ This is relative velocity
 of the layers of radius r & $r + dr = r d\omega$
 relative velocity gradient = $r \frac{d\omega}{dr}$.

Force Stress per unit area exerted by
 viscosity to cause this relative vel. = $\eta r \frac{d\omega}{dr}$.
 on the surface of the layer of radius
 r & height unity total tangential force
 $2\pi r \times \eta r \frac{d\omega}{dr}$
 Moment of the force about the axis

$= 2\pi\eta r^3 \frac{d\omega}{dr}$ This moment is
 balanced by the couple C

$\therefore C = 2\pi\eta r^3 \frac{d\omega}{dr}$
 i.e. $\frac{C}{2\pi\eta} \int_b^a \frac{dr}{r^3} = \int d\omega$
 Integrating

$\frac{C}{2\pi\eta} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{1}{b^2} - \frac{1}{a^2} \right) = \Omega$

i.e. $C = 4\pi\eta \Omega \frac{a^2 b^2}{a^2 - b^2}$

In practice an end correction is necessary since at the top & bottom of the inner cylinder the layers are not moving ~~at~~ to the axis. If C_1, C_2 be the couples acting when the inner cylinders are of lengths l_1, l_2 & h is supposed to be the effective increase in length (the height of water above & below the inner cylinder being the same in both cases) we have two expressions involving C , whence C can be

eliminated

$$C_1 = 4\pi\eta\Omega(l_1 + l) \frac{a^2 b^2}{a^2 - b^2}$$

$$C_2 = 4\pi\eta\Omega(l_2 + l) \frac{a^2 b^2}{a^2 - b^2}$$

$$\therefore \eta \{l_1 - l_2\} 4\pi\Omega \frac{a^2 b^2}{a^2 - b^2} = C_1 - C_2$$

If ω_1, ω_2 are the Llan velocities
in the two cases, the eqn reduces to

$$\eta \{l_1 - l_2\} 4\pi \frac{a^2 b^2}{a^2 - b^2} = \frac{C_1}{\omega_1} - \frac{C_2}{\omega_2}$$

Searle's Viscometer

In this apparatus the inner cylinder is capable of rotation about its axis under the action of two wts acting downwards at the end of strings wound round an axle. The couple is mgd where m = mass, r = d diameter of the axle. The outer is can be moved up or down, but does not rotate.

Height of the rotating film of water

can thus be adjusted. The wt. m should be such that ~~the~~ it moves down with a constant velocity.

If T is the time for 1 complete revolution of the cyl. $\frac{\Delta}{2\pi} \frac{2\pi}{T} = L$ has vel.

$\therefore \frac{mgd}{l} = \text{Couple per unit length}$

$$\therefore \frac{mgd}{l}$$

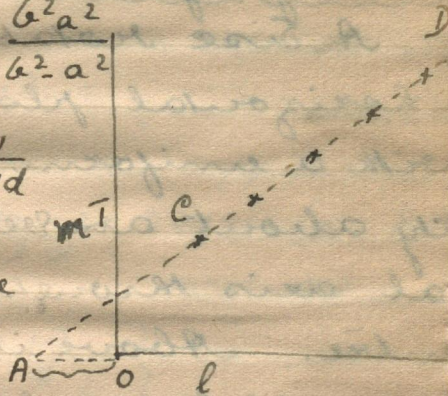
$$= 4\pi\eta \frac{2\pi}{T} \frac{b^2 a^2}{b^2 - a^2}$$

$$\therefore \frac{mT}{l} = 8\pi^2\eta \frac{a^2 b^2}{b^2 - a^2} \frac{1}{gd}$$

(l is the depth of the inner cylinder below water. The

formula holds only if end correction is zero)

If $\frac{mT}{l}$ is taken on the y -axis & l on the x -axis and a ~~one~~ graph is drawn it is seen to be a st. line which meets the x -axis not at the origin but at some other pt. A .



This shows that A_0 is the end correction.

The graph had $l + A_0$ instead of l
graph would have passed through the
origin. The slope of the curve gives
by $\frac{a^2 b^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{1}{g d}$ whence η can be calcu-
lated.

Viscosity by Revolving disc

A disc rotates in
horizontal plane
with a uniform velo-
city about an verti-
cal axis through its



centre. Above it hangs another
plate like to it from a suspension
of fibre which lies in the
same line as the axis of the lower
disc. When the lower rotates,
the upper remains stationary under
the action of the torsional couple which
balances the viscous force exerted by
interceding fluid. If the linear vel.

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of the lower disc at a pt r from
its centre is $\frac{\omega r}{d}$

\therefore The vel. gradient = $\frac{\omega r}{d}$ d being
distance b/w between the plates.

\therefore Viscous force over an area
 $2\pi r dr$ (a narrow ring of radius
 $= 2\pi r dr \times \eta \times \frac{\omega r}{d}$

The moment of the force about
the centre = $\frac{2\pi \eta \omega r^3 dr}{d}$

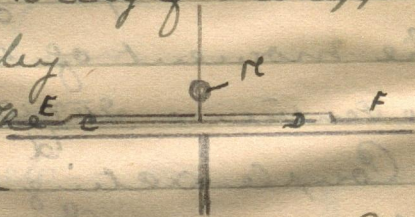
\therefore Couple acting on the upper
plate = $\int_0^a \frac{2\pi \eta \omega}{d} r^3 dr$ ($a = \text{rad}$
of the plate)

$$= \frac{1}{2} \pi \eta a^4 \frac{\omega}{d}$$
$$= \frac{1}{2} \pi \eta b^4 \frac{\theta}{l}$$

where $\frac{1}{2} \pi \eta b^4 / l = \text{torsional couple}$
& θ is the twist measured by a scale
& mirror.

The eqn $\frac{1}{2} \pi \eta a^4 \frac{\omega}{d} = \frac{1}{2} \pi \eta b^4 \frac{\theta}{l}$
shows that viscosity in fluids
is analogous to rigidity in solids.
In deriving the above eqn it has

been tacitly assumed that the viscosity
 grad. gradient $\frac{w}{d}$ is not affected either
 by the end altered even at the outer
 edge of the upper plate, & that there
 is no viscosity drag at the upper
 surface of the plate. These condi-
 tions are satisfied only if the upper
 plate is protected by
 guard ring E F. The



hole in the upper plate C F &
 since the flow is practically the same
 as when there is only one plate C F.
 The viscosity of air can be determined
 very accurately by the above method.

$a = 20 \text{ cms, } d = 3 \text{ mm } \text{ \& } \omega = \frac{2\pi}{3}$

This arrangement has been used to
 evaluate very low pressures, from
 knowledge of the law connecting
 pressure & viscosity.

Effect of pressure & temp. on viscosity

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Viscosity is practically unaffected by pressure, except when the pressure is extremely low. At low pressure viscosity falls very rapidly. Unlike in the case of liquids the ^{viscosity} pressure of vapour gases increases with increase of temperature. Many empirical laws connecting viscosity η & temp. have been formulated one of which is $\eta \propto \sqrt{T}$ where T is the abs. temp. (cf later)

Correction for K.E. in Poiseuille's flow

We have tacitly assumed while calculating q ($= \frac{\pi (h_1 - h_2) a^4}{8 \eta l}$) that all the pressure head h of the liquid is utilized in overcoming viscosity & that $h_1 - h_2 = h \rho g$. But some work is done in imparting K.E. to the outgoing liquid.

Since total work done p.s. = $q h g \rho$,

the work done against viscous resis-

ance = $\pi (h_1 - h_2) q$ where $(h_1 - h_2)$ is

the effective pressure head in $h g \rho$ minus

certain quantity, we have $k \rho g \eta$

$$q h g \rho = k. E + (h_1 - h_2) q.$$

K.E. of the liquid that flows out p.s.

can be evaluated as follows.

Liquid flowing through an annular
section of radius r p.s. is of vol.

$\pi r dr \times v$ & its mass is $2\pi \rho r dr \times v$

$$\text{Its K.E.} = \pi \rho r dr v^3.$$

Now we have seen $v = \frac{h_1 - h_2}{4 l \eta} (a^2 - r^2)$

\therefore K.E. = $\pi \rho$ & again

$$q = \frac{\pi (h_1 - h_2) a^4}{8 \eta l}$$

$$\therefore v = \frac{2q}{\pi a^4} (a^2 - r^2)$$

$$\therefore \text{K.E.} = \pi \rho \times \frac{8q^3}{\pi^3 a^{12}} (a^2 - r^2)^3 \times r dr$$

$$= \frac{8\rho q^3}{\pi^2 a^{12}} \times -\frac{1}{2} d(a^2 - r^2) \times (a^2 - r^2)^3$$

$$\text{Total kinetic E} = \int_0^a -\frac{4\rho g^3}{\pi^2 a^{12}} (a^2 - r^2)^3 d(a^2 - r^2)$$

$$= -\frac{4\rho g^3}{\pi^2 a^{12}} \left(\frac{a^2 - r^2}{4} \right)_0^4 a$$

$$= -\frac{4\rho g^3}{\pi^2 a^{12}} \times -\frac{a^8}{4}$$

$$= \frac{\rho g^3}{\pi^2 a^4}$$

$$\therefore \rho h g p = \frac{\rho g^3}{\pi^2 a^4} + \rho (h_1 - h_2)$$

$$\text{i.e. } h g p = \frac{\rho g^2}{\pi^2 a^4} + (h_1 - h_2)$$

$$\therefore h_1 - h_2 = g p \left\{ h - \frac{g^2}{\pi^2 a^4 g} \right\}$$

Thus on account of K.E. imparted to the liquid the pressure head is effectively decreased by a quantity

$$\frac{g^2}{\pi^2 a^4 g}$$

of air under varying pressure.

A bulb B has two orifices, one above which is in communi

ation with the Cap-
illary C, the other below

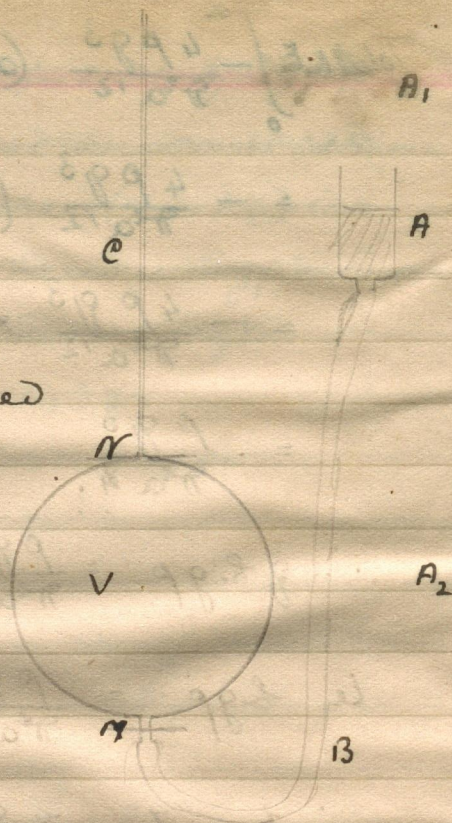
which is connected to
inside vessel A
through a rubber
tubing. Water is poured
into the A until it
reaches a mark π
in the stem of V.

A is lowered below
the π air allowed to
enter into V. Then
the tip of the Capillary

closed, A is raised to a position A_1 ,
the tip is opened. Air escapes thus
tending to lower the pressure in V
raise the level π . Raising of the
level is prevented by lowering A.

Let A be lowered from A_1 to A_2 the
time taken being t seconds.

When A is at A let the pressure



in V be p_1 & when it is at A_2 , pressure be p_2 ; & let p be pressure at any intermediate state. If dv is the volume of air that escapes in time dt , $\frac{dv}{dt} = \text{Vol. that escape}$

p.s. & we have

$$p \cdot \frac{dv}{dt} = \frac{\pi (r^2 - \rho^2) a^4}{16 \eta l}$$

where P is the atmosp. pressure

$$\therefore p dv = \frac{\pi (r^2 - \rho^2) a^4}{16 \eta l} dt$$

Assuming Boyle

law to be true, $p dv = -V dp$ where V is the vol. of air in the bulb, between the mark x & the bottom of the capillary.

$$\therefore -V dp = \frac{\pi (r^2 - \rho^2) a^4}{16 \eta l} dt$$

Integrating $-V \int_{p_1}^{p_2} \frac{dp}{p^2 - P^2} = \frac{\pi a^4}{16 \eta l} \int_0^t dt$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{V}{2P} \int_{p_2}^{p_1} \left(\frac{dp}{p-P} - \frac{dp}{p+P} \right) = \frac{\pi a^4}{16 \eta l} t$$

$$\frac{V}{2P} \left(\log \frac{h_1 - P}{h_2 - P} \right)_{t_2}^{t_1} = \frac{\pi a^4 t}{16\eta l}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \frac{V}{2P} \log \left\{ \frac{h_1 - P}{h_1 + P} \cdot \frac{h_2 + P}{h_2 - P} \right\} = \frac{\pi a^4 t}{16\eta l}$$

All the quantities are known except η
 $\therefore \eta$ can be calculated.

Sometimes V cannot be easily determined. A tube ^{is to} be attached to the bulb & the rubber tubing of which the volume is known. If it is v_1 ,

if first an experiment is conducted with the level of water at h , & then with the level below the given tube.

Thus we can find values for $V\eta$ & $(V+v_1)\eta$.

Subtracting we get $v_1\eta$ & hence calculate η .

Turbulent Motion

Motion of liquid in a capillary tube is turbulent when the velocity

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are not at
different pts
in the cross-
section is
not \parallel to the
axis of the tube. So long as the vel. is
 \parallel , the quantity of flowing out p.s.
is \propto to the pressure head. When
the α -ality is not kept, no motion is
turbulent.

Turbulent motion can be easily
demonstrated by introducing a
fine jet of coloured water within
the capillary bore. When the mean
velocity $\frac{Q}{\pi a^2}$ reaches a certain value
the stream of coloured water ceases
to be a st. line & become sinuous.

This value of the vel. beyond which
motion is turbulent is called the
critical value. Let V_c depends on
density & viscosity of the liquid & on

radius of the bore.

$$v_c \propto r^x \times \eta^y \times \rho^z$$

$$\frac{L}{T} = L^x \cdot \left\{ \frac{(\rho L T^{-2}) T \times L}{L^2 \times L} \right\}^y \times \left(\frac{\rho}{L^3} \right)^z$$

$$-1 = x - y - 3z$$

$$-1 = -y$$

$$0 = y + z$$

$$\therefore y = 1; z = -1; x = -1$$

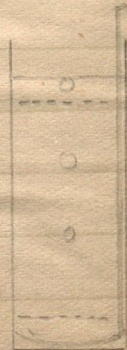
$$\therefore v_c \propto \frac{\eta}{r}$$

Deborah Reynolds to whom the above formula is due exactly determined the value of the constant of slip for water & found it to be nearly 1000.

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Viscous drag at high velocities.

Stokes has proved that when a particle moves through an ocean of a viscous medium, the resisting force is proportional to the first power of the velocity if that velocity is small, & is \propto to the second power of vel. if vel. is great. He has also shown that the force



via the former case is $6\pi a \eta v$.
It is supposed that the walls of the vessel containing the medium fluid do not in any way affect the velocity, hence we have used the word "an ocean" of the fluid.

Let us now consider the case where $vel.$ is large \therefore force $\propto vel.$

Force is a function of viscosity, radius of the moving particle r , density of the fluid.

Force $\propto a^x \times \eta^y \times \rho^z \times v^2$
where a = radius, η = viscosity, ρ = density, x, y, z are constants.

Equating dimension m
 $\frac{m \cdot l}{t^2} = l^x \times \left(\frac{m}{t \cdot l}\right)^y \times \left(\frac{m}{l^3}\right)^z \times \left(\frac{l}{t}\right)^2$

Equating the indices of t

$$2 = y + 2 \text{ i.e. } y = 0$$

\therefore The index of viscosity in the expression for force is zero, in

At high velocities the viscosity of the fluid exerts no drag on the moving particle.

Relation between pressure & viscosity.

The phenomenon of viscosity as already been accounted for on the assumption that molecules are carriers of momentum. The moving layer has molecules impinging upon it,

∴ imparts mom. A → B
to these molecules which
C → D

∝ to its own velocity & the num. of molecules impinging upon it p.s.

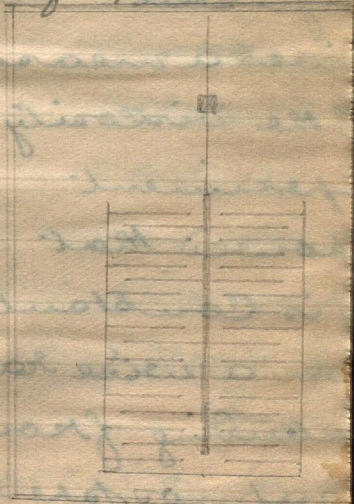
Consider any intermediate layer MN. The transfer of momentum through

p.s. is the viscous drag between

A & B ∴ The Coeff. of viscosity transferred
∝ to the transfer of momentum through unit area of MN. Now

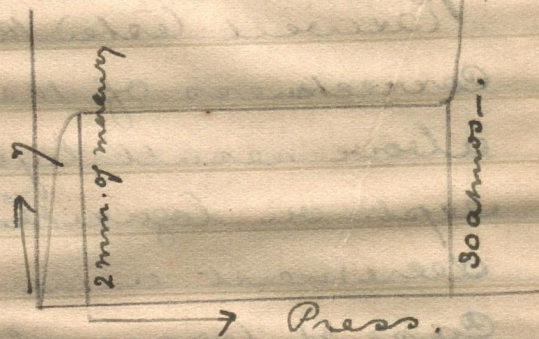
Momentum transferred is \propto
to the no. of molecules per unit
volume and also to the mean
free path, the distance of through
which a molecule travels on an
average unhindered. $\therefore \eta \propto n \lambda$
When pressure is doubled n is
also doubled, but λ is halved,
 \therefore the product $n \lambda$ remains
unchanged. Thus we see that η
is ~~not~~ independent of pressure.

Maxwell tested the
correctness of the
above result by an
expt. on logarithmic
decrement in the
case of torsional
oscillations. Instead
of one oscillating
disc he used several
fixed one above the other about



common axis and he introduced
 a number of vanes midway
 between each pair of discs. The
 vanes were fixed and attached to
 the sides of a vessel. The oscillations
 of the discs were suspended by a
 fine torsion wire of a diameter attached
 to the wire. The whole arrangement
 was enclosed within a chamber
 of which the pressure can be
 adjusted. The logarithmic decrement
 gives a measure
 of the viscosity.

The experiment
 showed that
 the η is constant



over a wide range
 extending from 2 mm Hg to 30 at about
 30 atmospheres. Below 2 mm Hg η
 falls very rapidly being ^{to} zero when
 pressure _{tends to} is zero. Above 30 atmos.

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The pressure η rises slightly.
These two variations are also
natural consequences of the
molecular theory.

Viscosity vs temp.

Theoretical investigations
lead to a result of $\propto \sqrt{T}$ where
 T is the absolute temp. But except
this the result does not hold
good for small variations of
temperature. Several empirical
relations have been suggested
one of which, due to Sutherland is

$$\eta = \frac{a\sqrt{T}}{1 + c/T}$$
 where a & c are
constants. This approximates
very nearly to experimental observations.
Compressibility of liquids.

Compressibility is the reciprocal of bulk
modulus. Its experimental determination
is attended with serious difficulties.

since a liquid cannot be compressed without altering the volume of containing vessel. The amount of this alteration has therefore to be first investigated. We shall consider the case of cylindrical vessel of subject an internal press. p_0 & an external pressure p_1 . Lamé has shown that the strain in this case is

radial displacement ρ given by $\rho = Ar + \frac{B}{r}$ where A & B are constants & r is the distance ^{from the axis} of the pt. of which the displacement is in question. He has further shown that this is the resultant of two displacements, one $\frac{\rho}{r}$ along the radius, and another $\frac{\rho}{r}$ along the a direction at r to the radius & the axis, say the z axis.

I believe seen that when an $\frac{1}{2}$ anisotropic material is subjected to

stresses P, Q, R the elongations e, f, g along the three x, y, z directions are given by

$$e = \lambda P - \mu Q - \mu R$$

$$f = \lambda Q - \mu P - \mu R$$

$$g = \lambda R - \mu P - \mu Q$$

\therefore that $k = \frac{1}{\lambda - 2\mu}$ $\therefore n = \frac{1}{2(\lambda + \mu)}$
 where k \therefore n are the bulk modulus
 \therefore the rigidity modulus.

From the above eqns we can express P, Q, R in terms of e, f, g
 k \therefore n

$$P = \left(k + \frac{4n}{3}\right)e + \left(k - \frac{2n}{3}\right)(f+g)$$

$$Q = \left(k + \frac{4n}{3}\right)f + \left(k - \frac{2n}{3}\right)(g+e)$$

$$\therefore R = \left(k + \frac{4n}{3}\right)g + \left(k - \frac{2n}{3}\right)(f+e)$$

By Lamé's result:

$$\text{Radial elongation} = \frac{dr}{r}$$

$$= A - B/r^2$$

$$\therefore e = A - \frac{B}{r^2}$$

\therefore elongation \perp to the radius
 \therefore to the axis, is along the y -axis

$$p = \frac{P}{r} \quad \text{ie } f = A + \frac{B}{r^2}$$

Consider any pt on the inner surface of the cylinder. The stress at that point is p_0 . The radial elongation $e = A - \frac{B}{a^2}$ where a is the internal radius of the cyl. & the long. $f = A + \frac{B}{a^2}$.

Hence we can equate

$$p_0 = \left(k + \frac{4\eta}{3}\right) \left(A - \frac{B}{a^2}\right) + \left(k - \frac{2\eta}{3}\right) \left\{A + \frac{B}{a^2} + g\right\} \quad (1)$$

Similarly stress at any pt on the outer surface of the cylinder is p_1 , if the external radius is b ,

$$p_1 = \left(k + \frac{4\eta}{3}\right) \left(A - \frac{B}{b^2}\right) + \left(k - \frac{2\eta}{3}\right) \left\{A + \frac{B}{b^2} + g\right\} \quad \dots (2)$$

The pressure acting over the flat bottom along the x -axis is $p_0 \pi a^2$ on the interior, & $p_1 \pi b^2$ on the exterior. The resultant pressure = $\pi (p_0 a^2 - p_1 b^2)$ acts as an area $\pi (b^2 - a^2)$

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Hence the stress along the z-axis
is $R = \frac{\gamma (k\alpha a^2 - k_1 b^2)}{\gamma (b^2 - a^2)} = \frac{k\alpha a^2 - k_1 b^2}{b^2 - a^2}$.

$$R = \left(k + \frac{4\eta}{3}\right)g + \left(k - \frac{2\eta}{3}\right)(e+f)$$

$$(e+f) = \frac{A - \frac{B}{a^2}}{k - \frac{2\eta}{3}} + \frac{A + \frac{B}{a^2}}{k + \frac{4\eta}{3}}$$

$$= 2A$$

Hence

$$\frac{k\alpha a^2 - k_1 b^2}{b^2 - a^2} = \left(k + \frac{4\eta}{3}\right)g + \left(k - \frac{2\eta}{3}\right)2A \quad \dots (3)$$

Thus we have three eqns containing three unknowns viz A, B & g .
 $A, B, \text{ \& } g$ can \therefore be solved for.

Internal vol. initially before the pressure is applied = $\pi a^2 l$ where l is the length of the cylinder.

After applying the pressure a increases to $\left(a + \frac{\Delta a}{a} + \frac{B}{a}\right)$ & l increases to $l(1+g)$

\therefore The change in interior volume

$$\Delta V_1 = \pi \left(a + \frac{\Delta a}{a} + \frac{B}{a}\right)^2 l(1+g) - \pi a^2 l$$

which is an expn containing

A, B, g.

Substituting values for A, B, g
and simplifying we shall have

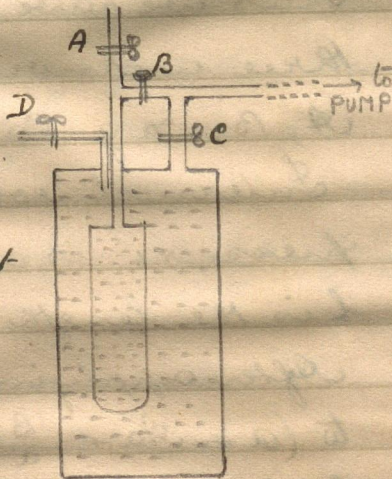
$$dV_1 = \pi a^2 l \left\{ \frac{h_0 a^2 - p_1 b^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{1}{k} + \frac{b^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{h_0 - h_1}{n} \right\}$$

Similarly if dV_2 be the change in ext. vol.

$$dV_2 = \pi b^2 l \left\{ \frac{h_0 a^2 - p_1 b^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{1}{k} + \frac{a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{h_0 - h_1}{n} \right\}$$

Piezometer

The above results
worked out by Lamé
were utilized by Regnault
in his expt. with the
piezometer for deter-
mining the compressi-
bility of liquids.



The apparatus is shown in
the figure. The inner vessel which
contains the liquid is hemi-

spherical bottom though a flat one is assumed in the theory. The error thus introduced is however negligible. The four pinch cocks A B C D can control the pressure inside & outside the inner vessel. The stem of the inner vessel is carefully calibrated and any change in vol. can be directly measured.

(1) Suppose the pinch cocks B & C are open & A & D closed. A pressure p is exerted both inside and outside. i.e. $p_0 = p_1 = p$

The increase in the interior vol.

$$\Delta v_1 = \pi a^2 l \times \frac{-h}{k} = -\pi a^2 l p \times \frac{1}{k}$$

If k is the bulk modulus of the liquid the increase decrease in vol. of water = $\frac{\pi a^2 l p}{k}$ Both these factors depress the level of water the liquid in the stem say by an amount w

$$\therefore w = \pi a^2 l p \left(\frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k} \right)$$

Hence k cannot be calculated unless we know k .

1) If both B & D are open, & A & C closed, pressure is applied in the interior only. $p_0 = p$ & $p_1 = 0$.

Increase in volume of the interior of the inner vessel

$$\Delta v_1 = \pi a^2 l \left\{ \frac{\pi a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{1}{k} + \frac{b^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{\pi}{n} \right\}$$

to decrease in vol. of the liquid

$$= \frac{\pi a^2 l p}{k}$$

* k

~~Net Increase Apparent~~

decrease in vol. of the liquid

$$\Delta v_1 = \pi a^2 l p \left\{ \frac{1}{k} + \frac{1}{k} \cdot \frac{a^2}{b^2 - a^2} + \frac{1}{n} \cdot \frac{b^2}{b^2 - a^2} \right\}$$

2) Let B & D be closed, & A & C open; $p_0 = 0$; $p_1 = p$.

Increase in internal vol. of the

$$\text{vessel} = \pi a^2 l \left\{ \frac{-\pi b^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{1}{k} + \frac{b^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{-\pi}{n} \right\}$$

$$= \pi a^2 l p \left\{ \frac{-b^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{1}{k} - \frac{b^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{1}{n} \right\}$$

Since the liquid undergoes no strain
the above quantity is w_2 the apparent
expansion compression of the liquid.

As is seen above w_1 is not in-
dependent of the elastic constants of
the material of the vessel.

$$w_1 + w_2 = \gamma \Delta^2 l \rho \left\{ \frac{1}{K} - \frac{1}{k} \right\} = w$$

Hence the two latter expts are
a check upon the value of w . Such a
check is necessary to know how far
the conditions assumed in the theory
are realized in the actual experiment.
It may for example happen that the
vessel is not of perfectly isotropic
material & in that case we should
make sure that the defect does not
affect the final value to any appreci-
able extent.

Regnault's expt was conducted
with great care and his obs^{for w} values are
even today considered standard values.

But he had no direct method for
finding ~~the~~ ^{finding} ~~the~~ ^{the} ~~value~~ ^{value} ~~of~~ ^{of} ~~k~~. He made use of the
formula $\frac{9nk}{3k+n} = 2n(\sigma+1)$; found out
n assumed σ to be $\frac{1}{4}$ for all
substances. Hence the final calculated
value for k showed great discrepancy
according as different vessels were used.

Jamin proposed a modification of
the experiment which he said that k could
be eliminated. D was replaced
by a calibrated tube. Pressure
was applied inside. He claimed
that when the vessel expands a vol.

of water is displaced into the stem at
the top. This when ^{this is} subtracted when from
the apparent diminution in vol. in
the stem of the inner vessel, we get
a real compression.

This result can easily be shown
to be incorrect.

The apparent diminution in the

stem is $dV + dV_1$ where dV is the compression of the liquid; but the displaced vol. at D is dV_2

\therefore Jamin's result gives $dV + dV_1 - dV_2$ which is not the same as dV .

$$dV_1 - dV_2 =$$

$$= \pi a^2 l \left\{ \frac{h a^2}{a^2 - a'^2} \cdot \frac{1}{k} + \frac{a'^2}{a^2 - a'^2} \cdot \frac{h}{n} \right\}$$

$$- \pi b^2 l \left\{ \frac{h a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{1}{k} + \frac{a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \cdot \frac{h}{n} \right\}$$

$$= \pi a^2 l p \cdot \frac{1}{k}$$

$$\therefore dV + dV_1 - dV_2 = \pi a^2 l p \left\{ \frac{1}{k} - \frac{1}{k} \right\}$$

The result obtained by Jamin is not $\pi a^2 l p / k$ but $\pi a^2 l p$ the apparent depression when pressure is applied both inside & outside.

S.T. by detachment of a drop

Just before detaching a cylindrical & a spherical drop are in equil. Theory shows $R = 2r$.

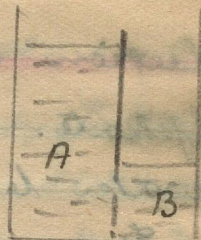


Osmosis and diffusion

Osmosis is the term applied to the selective transmission of certain particles through a semipermeable membrane through which certain other particles are not transmitted. For example a bladder filled with alcohol is immersed in water & becomes distended; when a semipermeable membrane of cupric ferrocyanide separates a vessel into two parts one side having water the other side a sugar solution it is noticed that the level of liquid on the solution side rises until a certain hydrostatic pressure difference is established between the two parts. This pressure difference which prevents further osmosis is called osmotic pressure.

This phenomenon can be explained

on the basis of the kinetic theory of matter. Initially when levels in A & B are equal let no. of impacts per unit area p.s. on both sides be n , of which on side A n_1 are of water & $(n - n_1)$ of sugar. All n_1 water molecules from B are allowed to pass to A; but only n_1 water molecules pass from A to B, & the $(n - n_1)$ sugar molecules are stopped. This net excess raises the level of liquid in A until the pressure is such that on side A the impacts of water alone is n .



The quantitative expts on osmosis were first performed by Pfeffer. The semipermeable membrane he used was a film of cupric ferrocyanide deposited within the pores of a porous pot, prepared by placing the pot filled with potassium ferrocyanide

solution in a vessel of Copper sulphate. The membrane is permeable to water but not to sugar.

But his expts showed that the osmotic pressure is \propto to the concentration.

Van t'Hoff later analyzed Pfeffer's observations & found that for dilute solution osmotic pressure is \propto the absolute temp.

Later it was further noticed that the osmotic pressure of a certain solution ^{is} the same as it would ^{be} if the same amount of solute in gaseous state occupied a volume equal to that of the solution. Thus $P = CRT$.

The osmotic pressure of all solutions containing the same number of gm. molecules of solute per litre is the same. Thus it is seen that a substance in solution exerts an osmotic press. the same as that

if the solvent had been absent.

The above laws refer only to non-electrolytic solutions; but in electrolyte the pressure is always greater than the normal value. If the solution is very dilute the pressure is generally ^{twice} ~~double~~ sometimes three, the normal value. In concentrated solutions pressure is not a simple multiple of the normal value. This phenomenon can also be explained on the Dynamical theory by assuming that the solute exists substance in solution is separated into 2 or more ions; in dilute solutions all molecules are so separated; but in concentrated solutions only a fraction are separated; each ion exerts a force on the pressure due to its impacts, & the net effect is that of an increase in concentration. Vapour pressure over a solution Let a solution contained in a tall cylindrical vessel

is separated by a semipermeable

diaphragm from the pure solvent contained in the vessel

For equilibrium to exist a free surface in A should stand at a certain height h above the free surface in B.

Let both the vessels be contained in an isothermal

enclosure which is empty but for the presence of the vapour of the solvent.

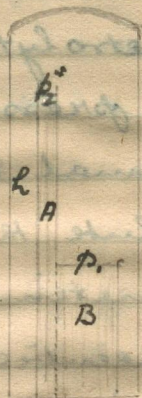
Let p_1 denote the vapour pressure immediately above the free surface of B,

p_2 pressure at a height h above that should be $p_1 - hg\sigma$ where σ is the

density of the vapour & is supposed to be uniform. $p_1 - hg\sigma$ should be equal

to p_2 the vapour pressure of the solution, or if it $p_1 - hg\sigma \neq p_2$ but less, then

some of the solvent will pass into the vapour at the free surface of A, thus cause



more solvent to pass from B to A. A perpetual motion will be caused without the aid of external agency, which is against the 2nd law of thermodynamics. If p_2 were less, then also motion would ensue, but in the opposite direction.

$$\therefore p_2 = p_1 - h g \sigma \quad (1)$$

Since the pressure on side A of the semipermeable diaphragm is greater than that on side B by a quantity equal to the osmotic pressure,

$$p_2 + h g \rho - p_1 = P \quad (2)$$

where ρ is the density of the solution

$$\text{but } h = \frac{p_2 - p_1}{g \sigma} \quad \text{by (1)}$$

$$\therefore (p_2 - p_1) \left\{ 1 + \frac{\rho \sigma}{g \rho} \times \frac{p_2 - p_1}{g \sigma} \right\} = P$$

$$\text{i.e. } p_2 - p_1 \left\{ \frac{\rho - \sigma}{\rho} \right\} = P$$

$$\text{i.e. } p_1 - p_2 = \frac{P \sigma}{\rho - \sigma}$$

Since $\rho > \sigma$, $p_1 - p_2$ is +ive, the vapour pressure over the solution

is less than that of the pure solvent.

If σ cannot be supposed to be uniform, the value of h being great, then the following modification is necessary.

At any height x the difference dp of vapour pressure between layers x distant from each other is

$dp = -\sigma g dx$ where σ is the vapour density at that point

$$\text{But } P/\sigma = RT \therefore \sigma = \frac{P}{RT}$$

$$\therefore -\frac{RT}{g} \frac{dp}{p} = dx \quad \text{ie } \frac{RT}{g} \int_{p_1}^{p_2} = \int_0^h dx$$

$$\text{ie } \frac{RT}{g} \log \frac{p_2}{p_1} = -h$$

$$\text{ie } \frac{RT}{g} \log \frac{p_1}{p_2} = h$$

But P osmotic press. $P = p_2 + h g p - p_1$
 $= h g p - d$ where $d = (p_1 - p_2)$

$$\text{But } h = \frac{RT}{g} \log \left(1 + \frac{d}{p_2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{RT}{g} \log \left(1 + \frac{d}{RT \sigma_2} \right)$$

$\therefore d = \frac{p}{p_0} - p = p_0 \frac{p_0}{p} \log\left(1 + \frac{d}{RT\sigma_2}\right)$
 When d is small this eqn reduces to the one derived above

$$d = pRT \times \frac{d}{RT\sigma} - p$$

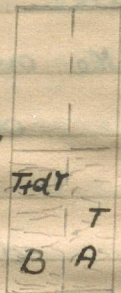
$$= \frac{dp}{p} - \frac{p}{p_0}$$

$$\therefore d = \frac{p \sigma}{p_0 - \sigma} \quad (\text{Edser, Gen Phys})$$

Boiling point of a solution The boiling point is that temp. at which the vapour pressure equals the external pressure. Thus if a solution & a pure solvent in two vessels are raised in temp, the vapour pressure of the solution being less, pure solvent being greater it will begin to boil before the solution. The B.P. of a solution is \therefore greater than that of the pure solvent.

Let a vessel separated into two parts by a semipermeable membrane contain the solvent at its B.P. (T) on one side & the

solution at its B.P. ($T + dT$) on the
 other side B. The upper portions
 in A & B are empty except
 for the vapour of the solvent,
 & since the liquid is at its
 B.P. the ~~of~~ pressures in
 both the parts are ^{the same} equal, both
 being equal to the external pressure.
 Now, suppose the following cycle of opera-
 tions to be performed.



- 1) Force v c.c. of the solvent from
 B to A against osmotic pressure. Work
 done is pv ergs.
- 2) Evaporate this amount of liquid
 in B. Heat absorbed is $L_v v p f$, L_v being
 latent heat at temp. $T + dT$, p density.
- 3) Transfer the vapour from B to A.
 Since pressures on both sides are
 equal, no work is done in this process.
- 4) Condense this vapour in A; the
 heat given out is $L_v v p f$ ergs, L_v being

Let latent heat at temp. T .

The cycle is reversible \therefore applying the I Law of Thermodynamics

$$\frac{pv \Delta f}{T} = \frac{\Delta(pv) \Delta f}{T + dT} = \frac{p \Delta v}{dT}$$

$$\therefore dT = \frac{T P}{L p \Delta f}$$

For a normal solution (i.e. one having one gm molecules of solute per litre of water,

$$P = \frac{8.31 \times 10^7 \times 373}{1000}$$

$$dT = \frac{373^2 \times 8.31 \times 10^7}{96 \times 537 \times 4.2 \times 10^7 \times 1000}$$

$$= 534.$$

The term molecular elevation is often applied to the elevation of B.P. of a solution of concentration 10 times normal

The B.P. deduced in this way agrees perfectly with expt, thereby confirming the theory of osmotic pressure.

The depression of freezing point can

be deduced in a somewhat simi-
lar manner. Let T & T' be the temp. of

1) Transfer v cc ^{of liquid} from A to B. ~~then~~
work $p v$ is done. 2) Freeze this quantity.
Heat L , $p v$ is ^{liberated} absorbed. 3) Transfer
the ice from B to A. No work is done.
4) Melt the ice. Heat L , $p v$ is absorbed.

dT as before: $\frac{\gamma p}{L p f}$

Since L is only 80, the molecular
depression of F. P. is greater ~~the~~

18.4) than the mol. elevation of
F. P. Hence in determinations of os-
motic pressure, the depression of
freezing point is more often utilized
than any other property of solutions.

Osmotic pressure of electrolytes.

The abnormally high value of P
in electrolytic solutions is explained
on the basis of Arrhenius' theory of
electrolytic conduction, that the theory

says that electrolytic molecules are split up into two or more ions. The number of mol. so split up will be a certain fraction β of the total number of mol. present. In very dilute solution β is one; but as concentration increases β becomes less. Each one of the separate ions collides with the semipermeable membrane & replaces one molecule of water. If P is the osmotic pressure of a ^{non-electrolytic} normal solution, P_1 of an electrolytic normal solution of coefft of ionization β , then

$$\frac{P_1}{P} = \frac{n(1-\beta) + \alpha \times n\beta}{n} = \frac{1-\beta + \alpha\beta}{1} = 1 + (\alpha-1)\beta$$

β can be determined from expts on electric conductivity. α is 2 or 3 or 4 according to the nature of the solute & hence the formula

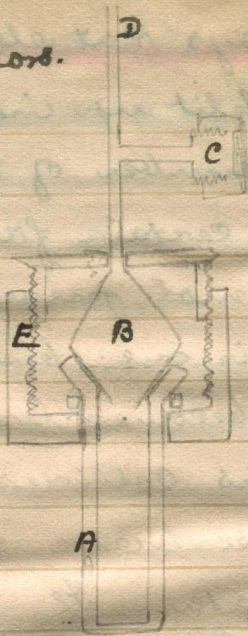
$$P_1/P = 1 + (\alpha-1)\beta \text{ can be verified}$$

Measurement of osmotic pressure.

Pfeffer's direct measurements were

subject to many experimental errors.

Other observers utilized a range of vapour pressure, raising of B. P. & most often lowering of F. P. But the best results obtained are by Morse's direct experiment with a modified form of Pfeffer's apparatus. He took special care to obtain a



lot of uniform porosity; & such a lot was secured after several trials also with different clays. Pfeffer's method of making a chemical precipitate was found undesirable especially at high concentration, since the membrane was too weak. Hence he used a process of electrical endosmosis, which gave a uniform strong semipermeable membrane. The pressure over the surface of the solution was increased to prevent

osmosis by means of a & screw arrangement C. The increase in pressure was measured by a closed nitrogen manometer & previously calibrated. The manometer & the pressure screw are attached to a conical glass bulb B & the glass bulb tightly fitted into the neck of the porous pot A by a steel collar E.

(Newman
March 2, 09)

Diffusion If two fluids are in contact which can mix in all proportions, then they do so due to the migratory movements which characterize fluids & form a uniform mixture. This process is called diffusion. This takes place against gravitation & is not a buoyancy effect as can be shown by placing a solution of $CuSO_4$ at the bottom of a tall vessel & squeezing over a piece of cork floated above it. The line of separation between solution & water is clear at first, but becomes less so in

course of time & finally the whole vessel contains one uniform solution. Graham's pioneer expt in this line showed that rate of diffusion varies with the kind of solute & increases with temperature as well as with concentration.

Fick's expts gave a mathematical eqn

$$q = k A \frac{dc}{dx} t, \text{ where } k \text{ is}$$

called the Coeff. of diffusion.

Expts for the Coeff. of diffusion depend on the application of Fourier's theorem which expresses in a form containing k the concentration at any pt. at a known time subsequent to a known distribution of concentration. Hence the expt. consists in determining the distribution of concentration at any time, & the concentration at any point after an interval t . For this several methods have been adopted. To take out specimens of the

17

liquid at various points is out of the question since that would introduce currents which completely mask the diffusion effects. Kelvin's experiment was simple; he noted the positions of glass beads of varying densities. Later optical methods such as variation of refractive index, rotation of plane of polarization (for sugar solution), bending of a ray as it passed through layers of varying concentrations etc. Clark (in 1924) used a Rayleigh refractometer to obtain very consistent values over a fairly wide range of concentration & for several solutions. (S)

Diffusion & Osmosis

Let C be the concentration (in gm. molecules per cc) at a layer A , & v the upward velocity of molecules in it. The no. of gm. molecules that cross upward in time

$\frac{13}{A}$

It is $dV = vAc dt$ A being area of section. But $dV = ka \frac{dC}{dx} dt \therefore vC = k \frac{dC}{dx}$.

Let A be supposed to be separated by an ideal semipermeable membrane from the layer immediately above. If osmotic pressure at A is P , we see the relative osmotic pressure is dP , i.e. a pressure dP downward (or a force adP) on the semipermeable membrane will prevent molecules from crossing the membrane.

Force acting on each gm molecule in the layer is $\therefore \frac{adP}{aC dx} = \frac{1}{C} \frac{dP}{dx}$.

If F is the viscous drag per gram molecule, i.e. F is the force req^d to give a velocity of one cm per sec. to a gm molecule,

$$v = \frac{1}{CF} \frac{dP}{dx}$$

$$\text{But } P = CRT \quad \therefore dP = RT dC.$$

$$\therefore k \frac{dC}{dx} = vC = \frac{1}{F} RT \frac{dC}{dx}$$
$$\text{i.e. } k = \frac{RT}{F}$$

Since in defining Coeff^t of diffusion a unit of time is a day instead of a

second, we have $F = \frac{24 \times 3600 RT}{R}$

So k for formic acid is $.472$ at $0^\circ C$

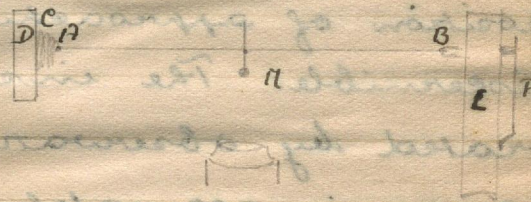
$$F = \frac{24 \times 3600 \times 273 \times 8.315 \times 10^7}{R}$$

$$= 4157 \times 10^5 \cdot 472 \text{ dynes} = \underline{\underline{4.249 \times 10^{12} \text{ gm}}}$$

Gravity Balance.

Foxell & Pollock

A fine quartz
fibre AB, 30 cms
long, is stretched



horizontally between two points A & B from
supports D & E. The fastening at end A is
made by a spring C which keeps the
fibre in tension. At the end B the fibre
can be rotated by a pointer P & the
amount of rotation can be measured.
A small wire n is fastened to the centre
of the ~~strong~~ fibre & weighted at one
end so that its centre of gravity is
on one side of the fibre. Hence to
make the wire horizontal it is necessary
to twist the fibre to by means of the pointer

This position of the wire is only
just stable since a small additional
movement of P makes the wire rotate
completely. A arrestor prevents this excessive
rotation, but its tendency to occur makes the
position of approaching instability readily
discernible. The instrument is cali-
brated by observations at two places
where g is accurately known. Correction
as to be made for the change in rigi-
dity of the fibre due to differences in
temperature. The instrument is portable,
gives readings quickly & has considerable
accuracy. (Newman & Searle)

Compend viscous resist	1	Elastica	42	Viscosity	74	11
Periods not equal	4	Loaded pillar	45	Liquids through caps.	11	
Air effect	5	Bending Catulus	47	Gas through caps.		
Rounding of knife edge	8	adiabatic	51	Cepts for η		
yielding	9	Bifilar suspension	60	Revolving cylinder		
Elasticity	14	Forces governing ^{of a drop} slope	62	Stearle's viscometer		
Elongation without lat- <small>eval contraction</small>	15	Problem	62	Revolving disc		
Torsional couple	16	Angle of Contact	66	η press & temp.		
σ in terms of P_1, P_2	17	Excess of pressure	66	Correction R.E. in Poiseu		13
Bending moment	19	Stability of Cyl. films	69	η with plates. varying		
Sag & defl. in cantilever	20	Ripples & waves	75	Turbulent motion		
Reciprocal relation	21	Oscillations of a drop	80	Viscous drag at high		
Problems	21	Jaggar's method & mod. $\frac{2}{3}$	82	velocities		
Bar clamped at both ends	24	Surface tension & S. energy	85	Relation bet pres & η		
Koenig's method	26	Quincke's Drop	88	bet temp & η		
η oscillations	27	Vapour pres. over ^{Surface} curves	93	Compressibility		
σ Searle	29	S.T. of thin films	99	of liquids		
Maxwell's needle	32	Campton on water	102	Piezometer		
Spiral vertical	34	S.T. of greased surfaces	103	S.T. by detachment of		
Horizontal Angular	37	Laplace's Theory	106	Annular		
Oblique spiral	39	Tensile strength of liquids	114	Vapour pres. over a sol.		

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106. $\frac{P}{4\gamma l} (a^2 - r^2); (h_1 - h_2) = \rho g \left(h - \frac{\gamma^2}{\pi^2 a^2 g} \right)$ $\rho = \frac{\lambda}{4\pi}$

$t = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{a^2 \rho}{8\gamma}}$ (Rif. sup. mgdy. $CBDB$): $\tau = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{a^2 \rho}{g a b}}$ Films $P_i \left(\frac{1}{r_1} + \frac{1}{r_2} \right)$

Nearly expl. films $\frac{1}{r} = \gamma + \frac{(\rho a^2 - a)}{2\tau}$

$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{a^2 \rho}{8\gamma}}$ $\rho = \frac{\lambda}{4\pi}$ $\tau = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{(\rho + \frac{1}{2}) a^2}{2\pi \rho a^2 / l}}$ $\tau = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{\gamma + \frac{1}{2}}{g a b}}$

Ripples vel: appeared by travelling through $\frac{\lambda}{4\pi}$

