

Fall 2004 Physics 3 Tu-Th Section

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Lecture 3: 30 Sep. 2004

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Sound

- Sound = longitudinal wave in a medium.



- The medium can be anything:
 - a gas, e.g., air
 - a liquid, e.g., water
 - even a solid, e.g., the walls
- The human hear is "sensitive" to frequency range ~ 20 -20,000 Hz
 - "audible range"
 - higher frequency: "ultrasounds"
 - lower frequency: "infrasound"

How do we describe such a wave?

e.g., sinusoidal wave, traveling to the right

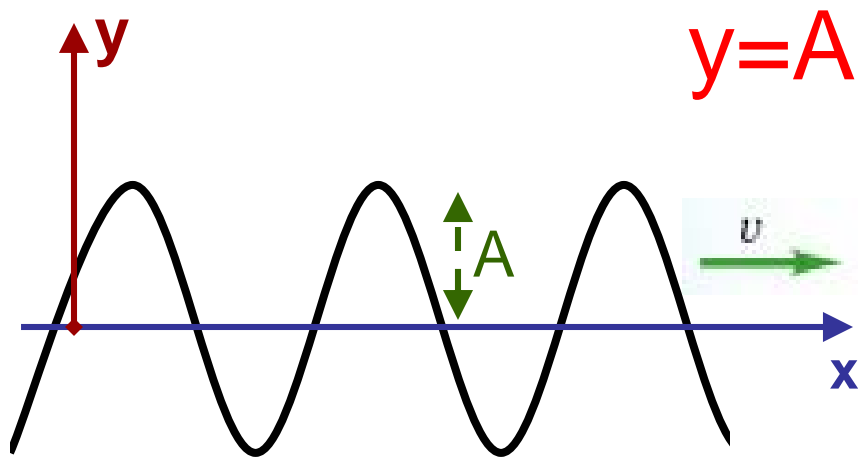
– idealized one dimensional transmission, like a sound wave within a pipe.



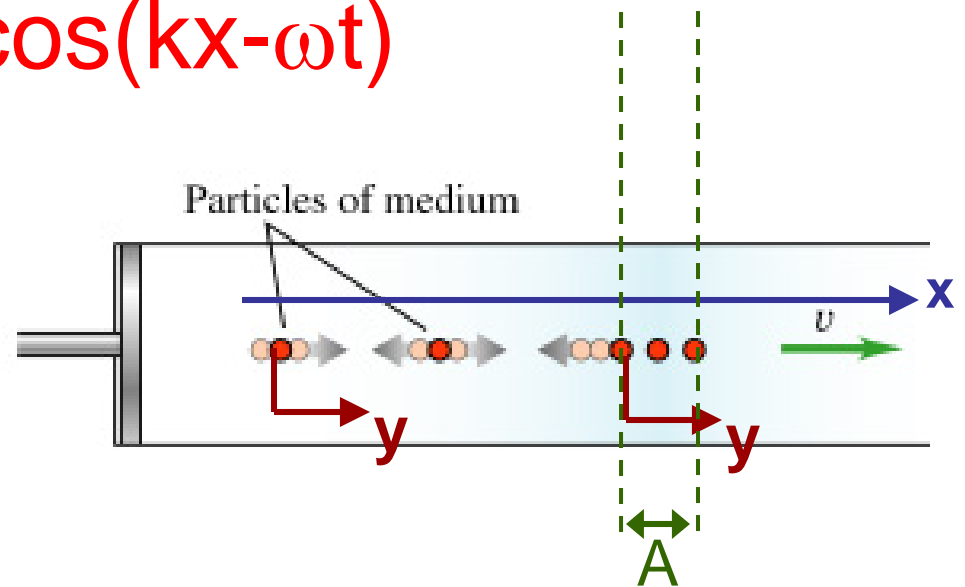
Mathematically, just like transverse wave on string:

$$y(x,t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

But the meaning of this equation is quite different for a wave on a string and a sound wave!!

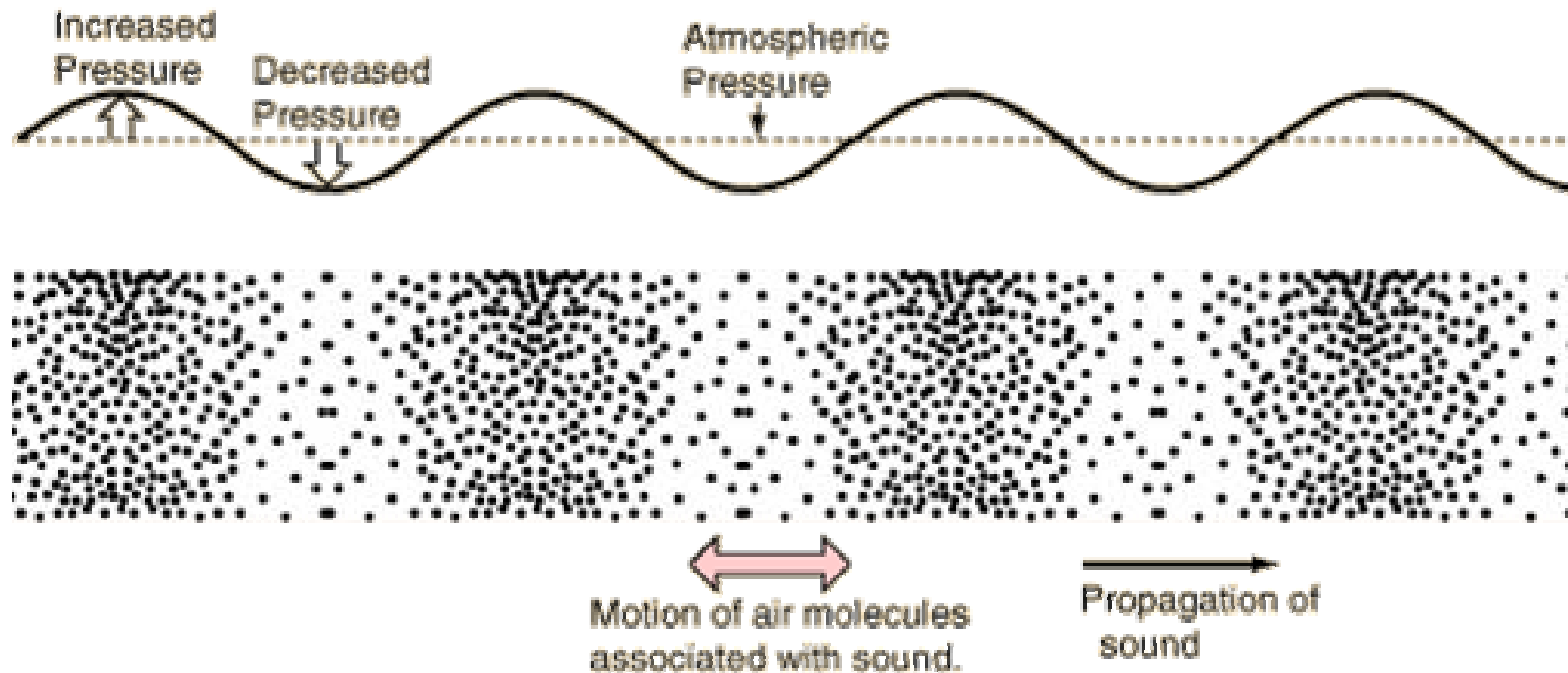


$$y = A \cos(kx - \omega t)$$



- "x" = the direction of propagation of the wave
- "y(x,t)" for string is the displacement at time t of the piece of string at coordinate x perpendicular to the direction of propagation.
- "y(x,t)" for sound is the displacement at time t of a piece of fluid at coordinate x parallel to the direction of propagation.
- "A" is the amplitude, i.e., the maximum value of displacement.

- It is more convenient to describe a sound wave not in term of the displacement of the particles in the fluid, but rather in terms of the pressure in the fluid.
- Displacement and pressure are clearly related:

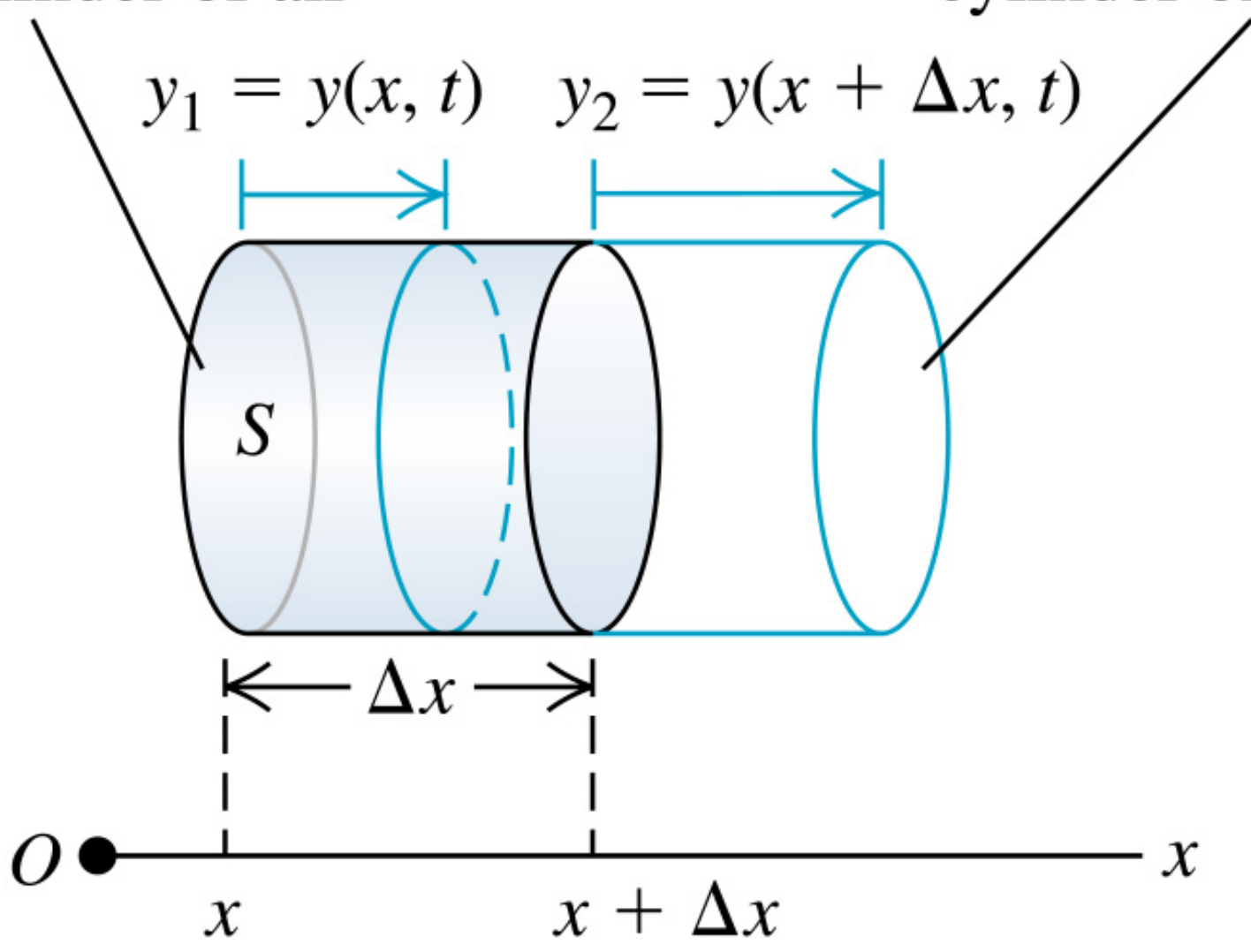


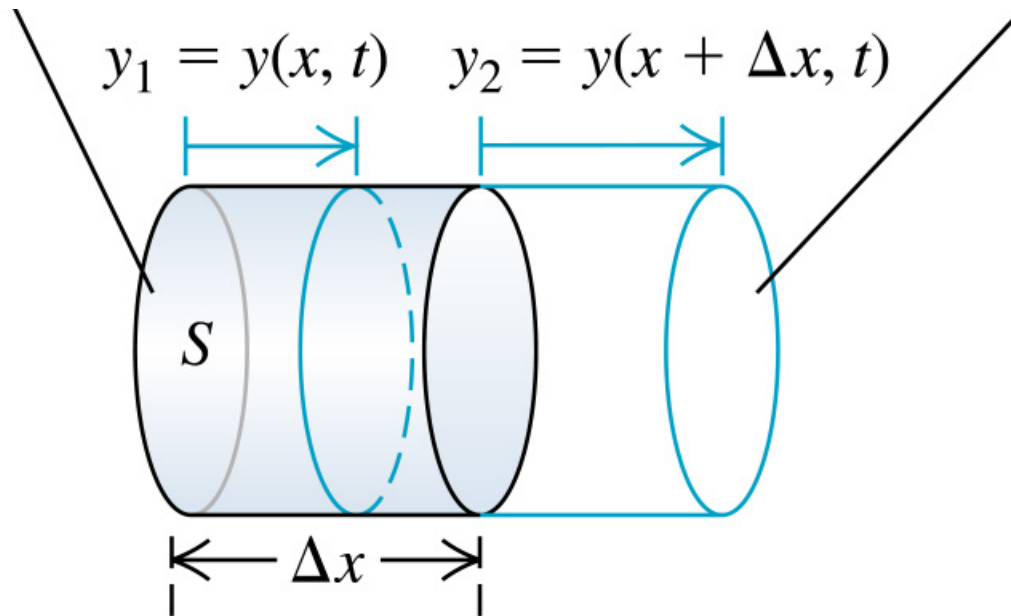
- In a sound wave the pressure fluctuates around the equilibrium value .
 - For air, this would normally be the atmospheric pressure.
 - $p_{\text{absolute}}(x,t) = p_{\text{atmospheric}} + p(x,t)$
- Let's relate the fluctuating pressure $p(x,t)$ to the displacement defined before.

Undisturbed
cylinder of air

Disturbed
cylinder of air

$$y_1 = y(x, t) \quad y_2 = y(x + \Delta x, t)$$





ΔV = change in volume of cylinder:

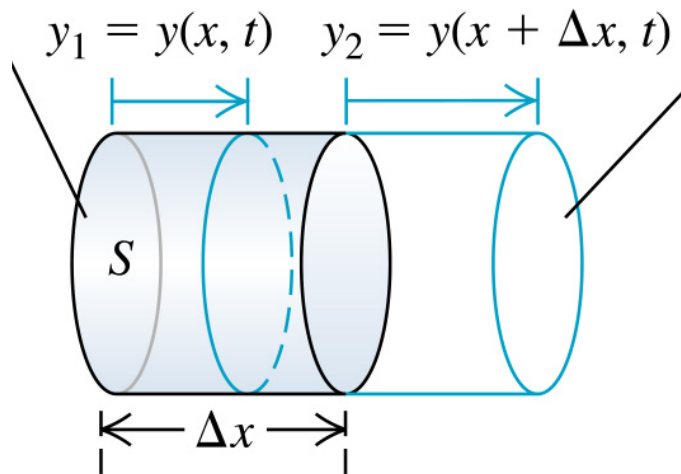
$$\Delta V = S \cdot (y_2 - y_1) = S \cdot [y(x + \Delta x, t) - y(x, t)]$$

Original volume:

$$V = S \cdot \Delta x$$

Fractional volume change:

$$\frac{\Delta V}{V} = \frac{S \cdot [y(x + \Delta x, t) - y(x, t)]}{S \cdot \Delta x}$$



$$\frac{\Delta V}{V} = \frac{S \cdot [y(x + \Delta x, t) - y(x, t)]}{S \cdot \Delta x}$$

Now make Δx infinitesimally small

- Take limit $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$
- ΔV becomes dV

$$\frac{dV}{V} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{S \cdot [y(x + \Delta x, t) - y(x, t)]}{S \cdot \Delta x} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$$

Bulk modulus: B (chapter 11) $B = \frac{-p}{dV/V}$

$$p(x, t) = -B \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial x}$$

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- This is the equation that relates the displacement of the particles in the fluid (y) to the fluctuation in pressure (p).
- They are related through the bulk modulus (B)

Definition of bulk modulus:

The diagram shows the equation $\frac{dV}{V} = -B \cdot p$ where each term is enclosed in a green circle. A green arrow points from the label "Fractional volume change" to the $\frac{dV}{V}$ term. Another green arrow points from the label "Bulk modulus" to the B term. A third green arrow points from the label "Applied pressure" to the p term.

$$\frac{dV}{V} = -B \cdot p$$

Fractional volume change

Bulk modulus

Applied pressure

Sinusoidal wave

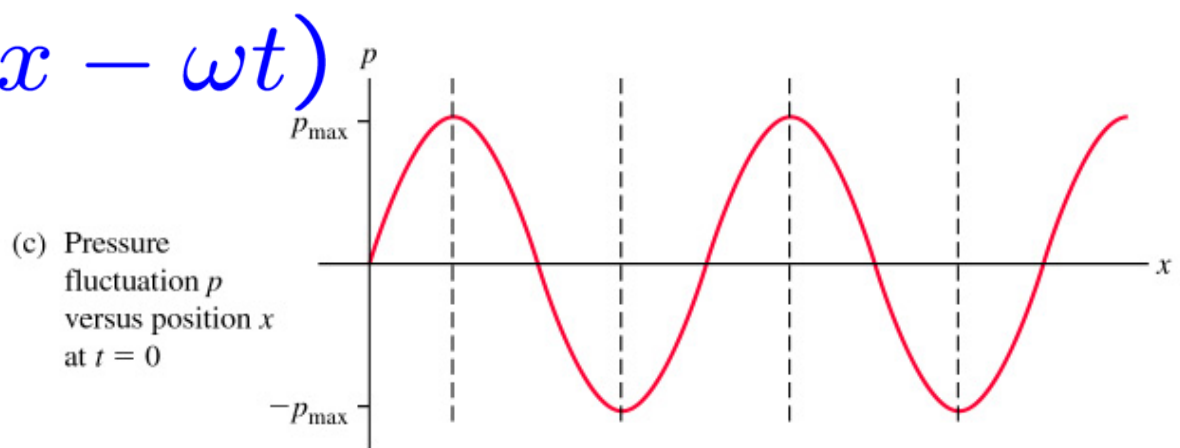
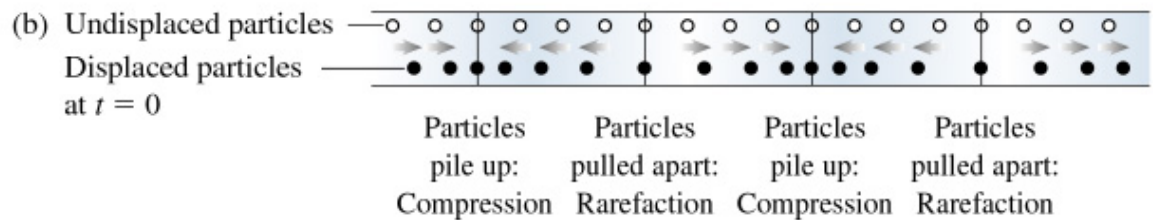
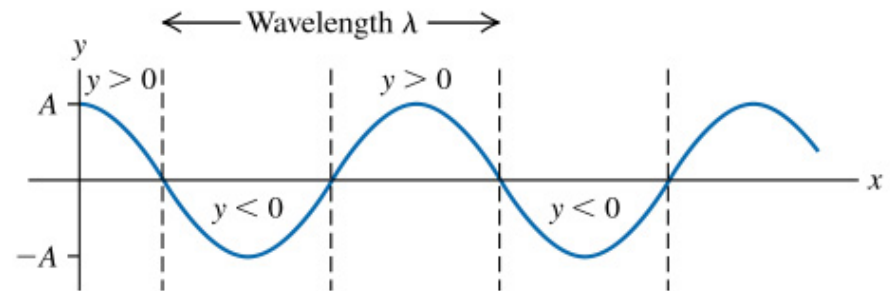
$$y(x, t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

and

$$p(x, t) = -B \frac{\partial y(x, t)}{\partial x}$$

This then gives

$$p(x, t) = (A \cdot B \cdot k) \sin(kx - \omega t)$$



Displacement (y) and pressure (p) oscillations are 90° out of phase ¹¹

Example

1 Pa = 1 N/m²



- "Typical" sinusoidal sound wave, maximum pressure fluctuation 3×10^{-2} Pa.

– Compare $p_{\text{atmospheric}} = 1 \times 10^5$ Pa

- Find maximum displacement at $f=1$ kHz given that $B=1.4 \times 10^5$ Pa, $v=344$ m/sec

$$y(x, t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

$$p(x, t) = (A \cdot B \cdot k) \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$y(x, t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

$$p(x, t) = (A \cdot B \cdot k) \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$y_{max} = A \quad \text{and}$$

$$p_{max} = A \cdot B \cdot k = y_{max} \cdot B \cdot k$$

$$\rightarrow y_{max} = \frac{p_{max}}{B \cdot k}$$

We have p_{max} ($= 3 \times 10^{-2}$ Pa) and B ($= 1.4 \times 10^5$ Pa)

But what about k ?

We have f and $v \rightarrow \lambda = v/f$

And $k = 2\pi/\lambda$

$\rightarrow k = 2\pi/(v/f) = 2\pi f/v$

$$y_{max} = \frac{p_{max}}{B \cdot k} = \frac{p_{max} \cdot v}{2 \cdot \pi \cdot B \cdot f}$$

Now it is just a matter of plugging in numbers:

$$y_{max} = \frac{p_{max}}{B \cdot k} = \frac{p_{max} \cdot v}{2 \cdot \pi \cdot B \cdot f}$$

$$y_{max} = \frac{(3 \cdot 10^{-2} \text{ Pa})(344 \text{ m/sec})}{2 \cdot \pi \cdot (1.4 \cdot 10^5 \text{ Pa}) \cdot (10^3 \text{ sec}^{-1})}$$

$$y_{max} = 1.2 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m} \quad \text{TINY!!!}$$

Aside: Bulk Modulus, Ideal Gas

$$B = \frac{-p}{dV/V} = -V \frac{P}{dV}$$

Careful: P here is not the pressure, but its deviation from equilibrium, e.g., the additional pressure that is applied to a volume of gas originally at atmospheric pressure.

Better notation $P \rightarrow dP$

$$B = -V \frac{dP}{dV}$$

For adiabatic process, ideal gas: $PV^{\gamma} = \text{const.}$

$$\gamma = \frac{C_P}{C_V}$$

Heat capacities at
constant P or V

$\gamma \sim 1.7$ monoatomic molecules (He, Ar,...)

$\gamma \sim 1.4$ diatomic molecules (O_2 , N_2 ,...)

$\gamma \sim 1.3$ polyatomic molecules (CO_2 ,...)

$$PV^{\gamma} = \text{const.}$$

Differentiate w.r.t. V :

$$V^{\gamma} \frac{dP}{dV} + \gamma PV^{\gamma-1} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow V \frac{dP}{dV} = -\gamma P$$

But bulk modulus $B = -V \frac{dP}{dV}$

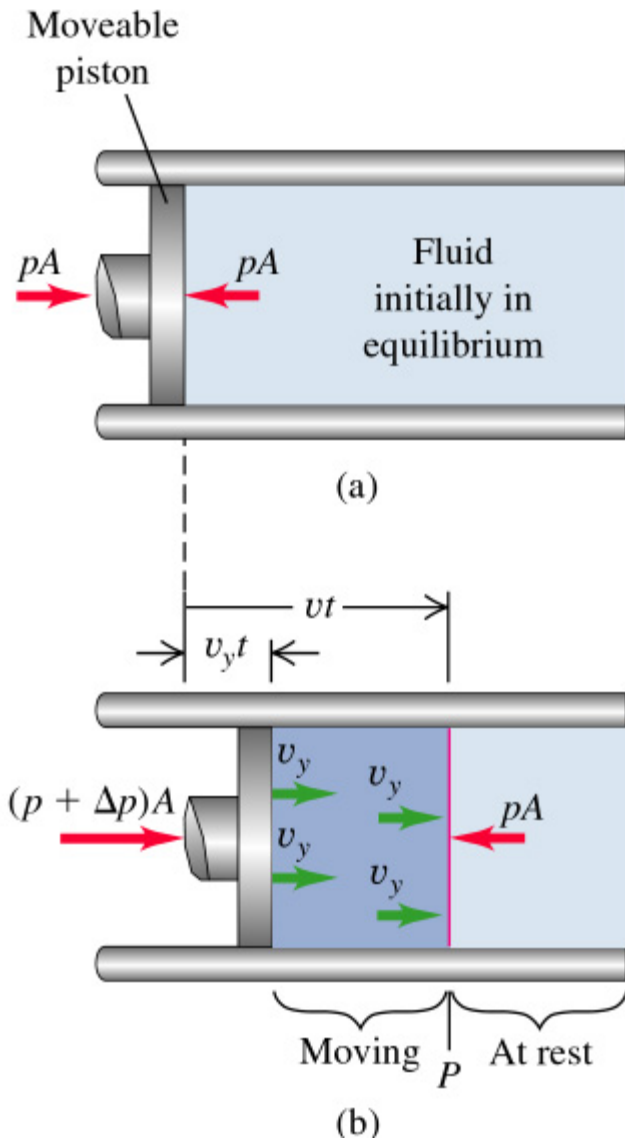
$$\rightarrow B = \gamma P_{16}$$

$$B = \gamma P \approx 1.4 \cdot P \text{ for air}$$

Note: the bulk modulus increases with pressure.

If we increase the pressure of a gas, it becomes harder to compress it further, i.e. the bulk modulus increases (makes intuitive sense)

Speed of sound



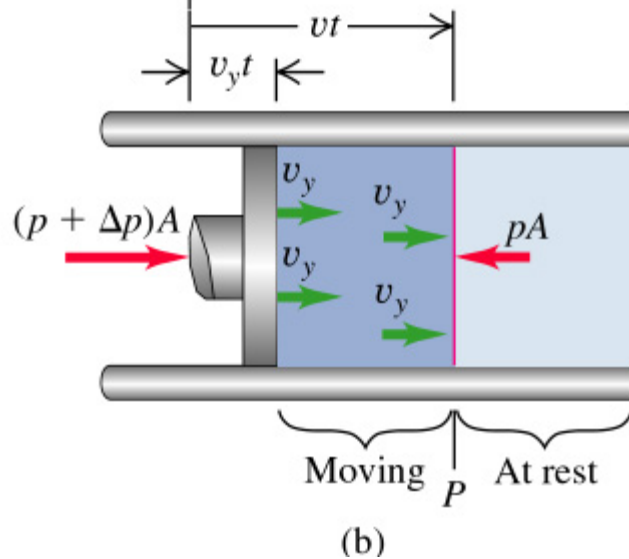
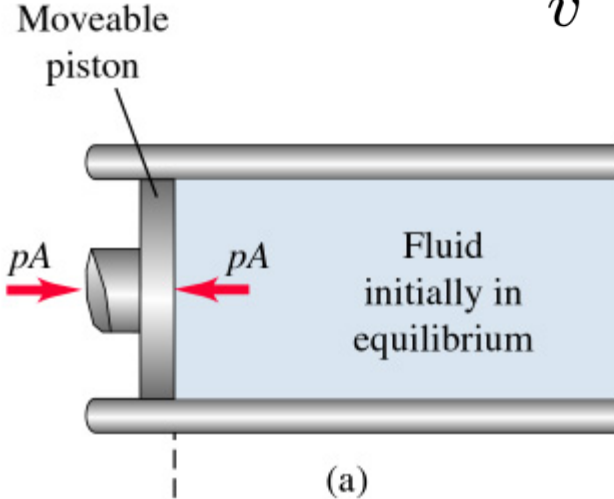
- At $t=0$ push the piston in with constant v_y . This triggers wave motion in fluid
- At time t , piston has moved distance $v_y t$
- If v is the speed of propagation of the wave, i.e. the speed of sound, fluid particles up to distance vt are in motion
- Mass of fluid in motion $M = \rho A v t$
- Speed of fluid in motion is v_y
- Momentum of fluid in motion is $M v_y = \rho A v t v_y$
- ΔP is the change in pressure in the region where fluid is moving

$$B = -V \frac{\Delta P}{\Delta V}$$

$$-V = A v t \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta V = -A v_y t$$

$$\rightarrow \Delta P = B \frac{v_y}{v}$$

$$\Delta P = B \frac{v_y}{v}$$



Net force on fluid is

$$F = (p + \Delta p) \cdot A - p \cdot A = \Delta p \cdot A$$

This force has been applied for time t:

$$\text{Impulse} = F \cdot t = \Delta p \cdot A \cdot t$$

$$\text{Impulse} = B \cdot \frac{v_y}{v} \cdot A \cdot t$$

Impulse = change in momentum

Initial momentum = 0

Final momentum = $\rho A v t v_y$

$$\rho \cdot A \cdot v \cdot t \cdot v_y = B \cdot \frac{v_y}{v} \cdot A \cdot t$$

$$\rightarrow v = \sqrt{\frac{B}{\rho}}$$

Speed of sound: $v = \sqrt{\frac{B}{\rho}}$

Speed of waves on a string: $v = \sqrt{\frac{F}{\mu}}$

B and F quantify the restoring "force" to equilibrium.

ρ and μ are a measure of the "inertia" of the system.

Speed of sound: $v = \sqrt{\frac{B}{\rho}}$

R = gas constant
R ~ 8.3 J/mol K

Bulk modulus: $B = \gamma P$

One mole of ideal gas: $PV = RT$

$\rightarrow B = \gamma \frac{RT}{V} \rightarrow v = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma RT}{V\rho}}$

Since $\rho V = \text{mass per mole} = M$:

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma RT}{M}}$$

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{\gamma RT}{M}}$$

A function of the gas
and the temperature

For air:

– $\gamma = 1.4$

– $M = 28.95 \text{ g/mol}$

→ $v = 20 \text{ m/sec } \sqrt{T}$

At $T = 20^\circ\text{C} = 293^\circ\text{K}$:


$$v = 343 \text{ m/sec} = 769 \text{ mph}$$

He: 1000 m/sec

H₂: 1330 m/sec

Intensity

- The wave carries energy
- The intensity is the time average of the power carried by the wave crossing unit area.
- Intensity is measured in W/m^2



A diagram showing a series of horizontal arrows pointing to the right, representing a wave. These arrows are stopped by a vertical dashed oval, which represents a surface or a unit area. The wave is moving from left to right, and the surface is perpendicular to the direction of propagation.

$$I = \frac{\langle P \rangle}{S} = \frac{\langle dE/dt \rangle}{S}$$

Intensity (cont.)

Sinusoidal sound wave:

$$y(x, t) = A \cos(kx - \omega t)$$

$$p(x, t) = B \cdot k \cdot A \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

Power = Force \times velocity

Particle velocity
NOT
wave velocity

Intensity = \langle Power \rangle /Area

$$= \langle \text{Force} \times \text{velocity} \rangle / \text{Area}$$

$$= \langle \text{Pressure} \times \text{velocity} \rangle$$

$$I = \langle p(x, t) \cdot v_y(x, t) \rangle = \langle p(x, t) \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial t} \rangle$$

$$I = \langle [B \cdot k \cdot A \sin(kx - \omega t)] [\omega A \sin(kx - \omega t)] \rangle$$

$$I = B \cdot \omega \cdot k \cdot A^2 \langle \sin^2(kx - \omega t) \rangle$$

Intensity (cont.)

$$I = B \cdot \omega \cdot k \cdot A^2 \langle \sin^2(kx - \omega t) \rangle$$

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \cdot B \cdot \omega \cdot k \cdot A^2$$

Now use $\omega = vk$ and $v^2 = B/\rho$:

$$I = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\rho B} \omega^2 A^2$$

Or in terms of $p_{\max} = BkA$:

$$I = \frac{\omega p_{\max}^2}{2Bk} = \frac{v p_{\max}^2}{2B}$$

And using $v^2 = B/\rho$:

$$I = \frac{p_{\max}^2}{2v\rho} = \frac{p_{\max}^2}{2\sqrt{\rho B}}$$

Decibel

- A more convenient sound intensity scale
 - more convenient than W/m^2 .
- The sound intensity level β is defined as

$$\beta = (10 \text{ dB}) \log \frac{I}{I_0}$$

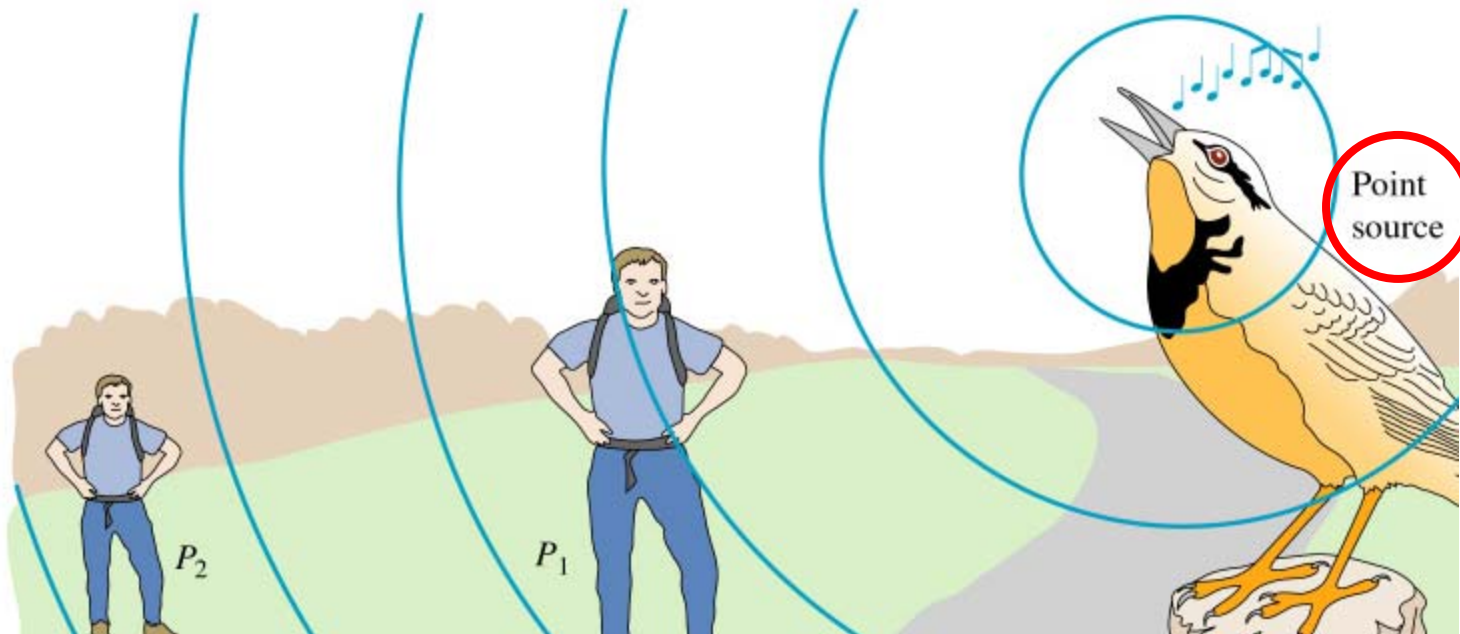
- Where $I_0 = 10^{-12} \text{ W/m}^2$
 - Approximate hearing threshold at 1 kHz
- It's a log scale
 - A change of 10 dB corresponds to a factor of 10

Table 16.2 Sound Intensity Levels from Various Sources (Representative Values)

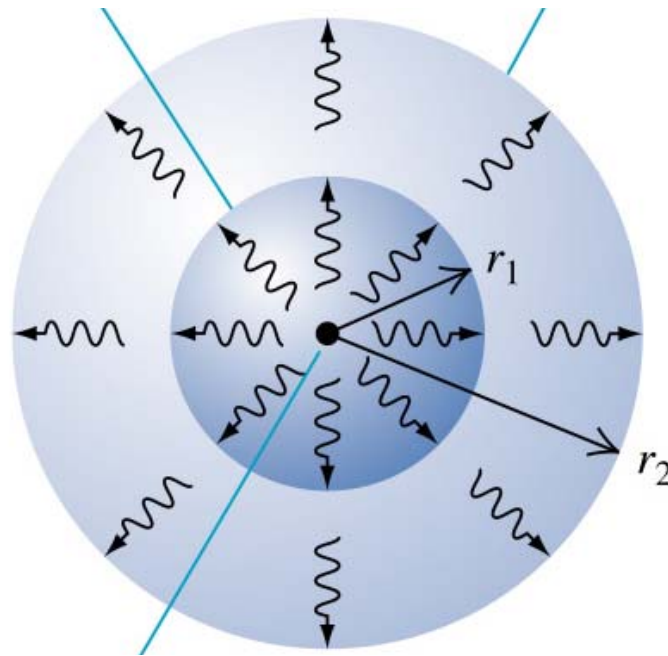
Source or Description of Sound	Sound Intensity Level, β (dB)	Intensity, I (W/m^2)
Military jet aircraft 30 m away	140	10^2
Threshold of pain	120	1
Riveter	95	3.2×10^{-3}
Elevated train	90	10^{-3}
Busy street traffic	70	10^{-5}
Ordinary conversation	65	3.2×10^{-6}
Quiet automobile	50	10^{-7}
Quiet radio in home	40	10^{-8}
Average whisper	20	10^{-10}
Rustle of leaves	10	10^{-11}
Threshold of hearing at 1000 Hz	0	10^{-12}

Example

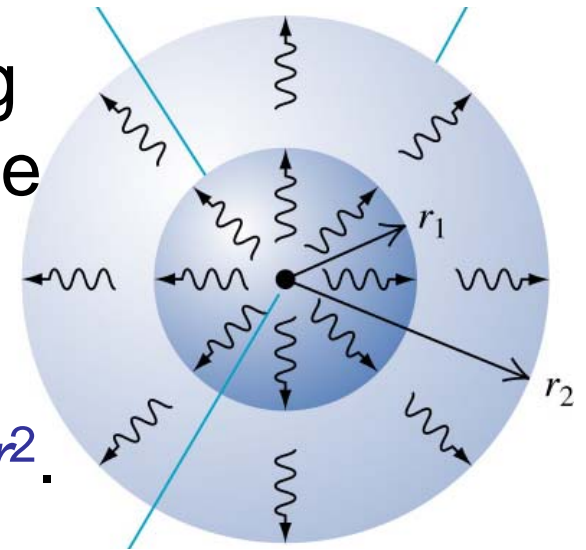
- Consider a sound source.
- Consider two listeners, one of which twice as far away as the other one.
- What is the difference (in decibel) in the sound intensity perceived by the two listeners?



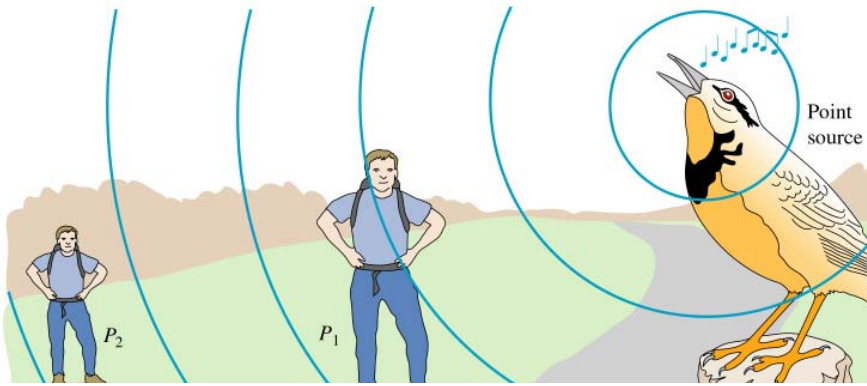
- To answer the question we need to know something about the directionality of the emitted sound.
- Assume that the sound is emitted uniformly in all directions.



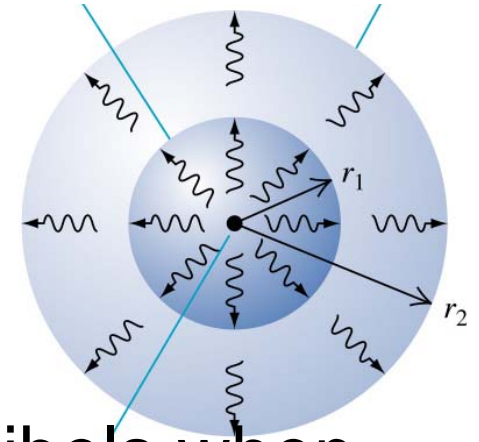
- How does the intensity change with r (distance from the source)?
- The key principle to apply is conservation of energy.
- The total energy per unit time crossing a spherical surface at r_1 must equal the total energy crossing a spherical surface at r_2
- Surface area of sphere of radius r : $4\pi r^2$.
- Intensity = Energy/unit time/unit area.
- $4\pi r_1^2 I_1 = 4\pi r_2^2 I_2$.



$$\frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{r_2^2}{r_1^2}$$



$$\frac{I_1}{I_2} = \frac{r_2^2}{r_1^2}$$



The original question was: change in decibels when second "listener" is twice as far away as first one.

$$r_2 = 2r_1$$

$$I_1/I_2 = 4$$

Definition of decibel : $\beta = (10 \text{ dB}) \log \frac{I}{I_0}$

$$\beta_2 - \beta_1 = (10\text{dB})(\log \frac{I_2}{I_0} - \log \frac{I_1}{I_0})$$

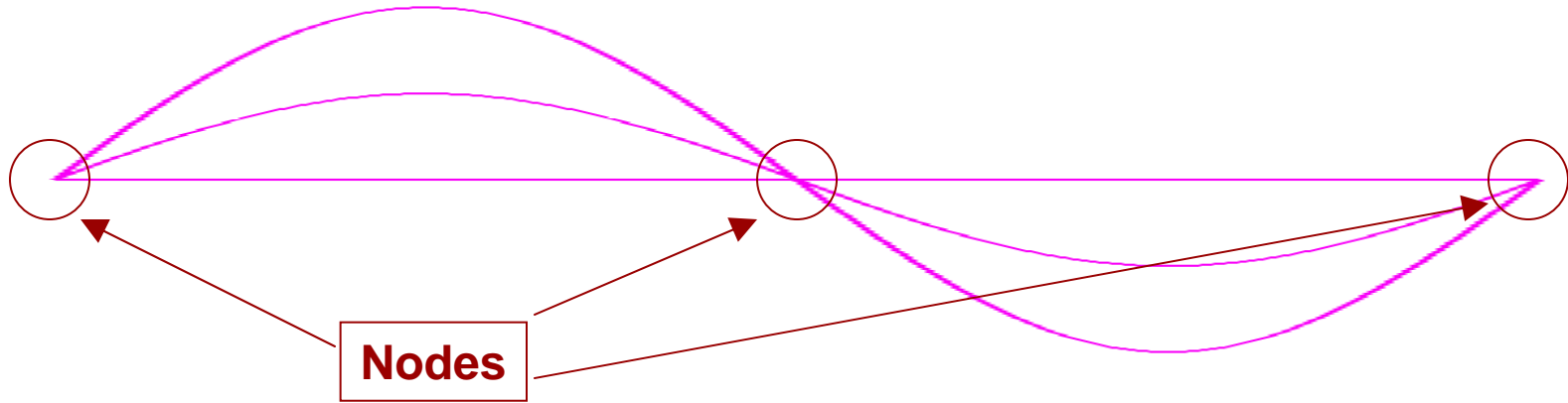
$$\beta_2 - \beta_1 = (10\text{dB})(\log I_2 - \log I_0 - \log I_1 + \log I_0)$$

$$\beta_2 - \beta_1 = (10\text{dB})(\log I_2 - \log I_1) = (10\text{dB}) \log \frac{I_2}{I_1}$$

$$\beta_2 - \beta_1 = (10\text{dB}) \log \frac{1}{4} = -6.0 \text{ dB}$$

Standing sound waves

Recall standing waves on a string



- A standing wave on a string occurs when we have interference between wave and its reflection.
- The reflection occurs when the medium changes, e.g., at the string support.

- We can have sound standing waves too.
- For example, in a pipe.
- Two types of boundary conditions:

1. Open pipe



2. Closed pipe

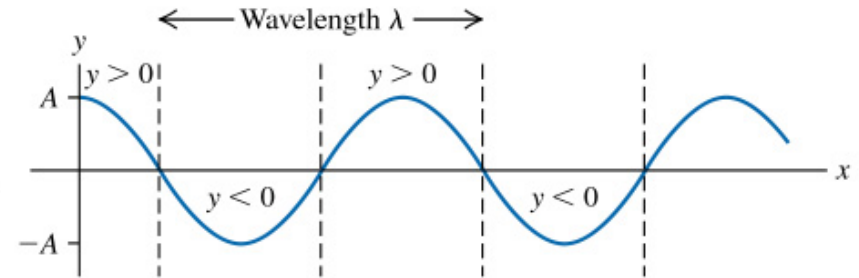


- In an closed pipe the boundary condition is that the displacement is zero at the end
 - Because the fluid is constrained by the wall, it can't move!
- In an open pipe the boundary condition is that the pressure fluctuation is zero at the end
 - Because the pressure is the same as outside the pipe (atmospheric)

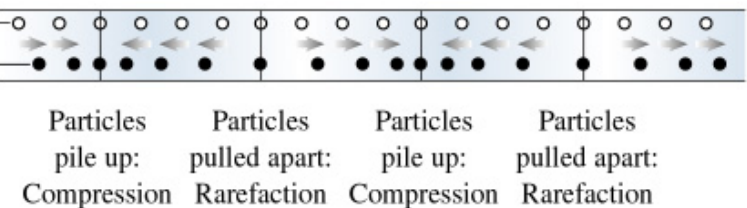
Remember:

- Displacement and pressure are out of phase by 90° .
- When the displacement is 0, the pressure is $\pm p_{\max}$.
- When the pressure is 0, the displacement is $\pm y_{\max}$.
- So the nodes of the pressure and displacement waves are at different positions
 - **It is still the same wave, just two different ways to describe it mathematically!!**

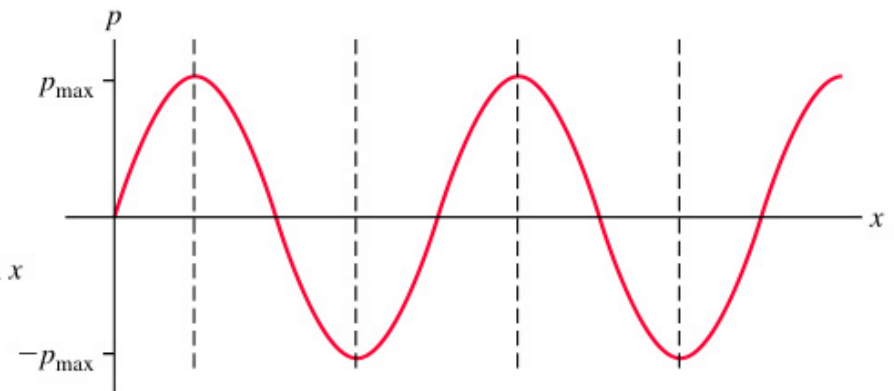
(a) Displacement y versus position x at $t = 0$



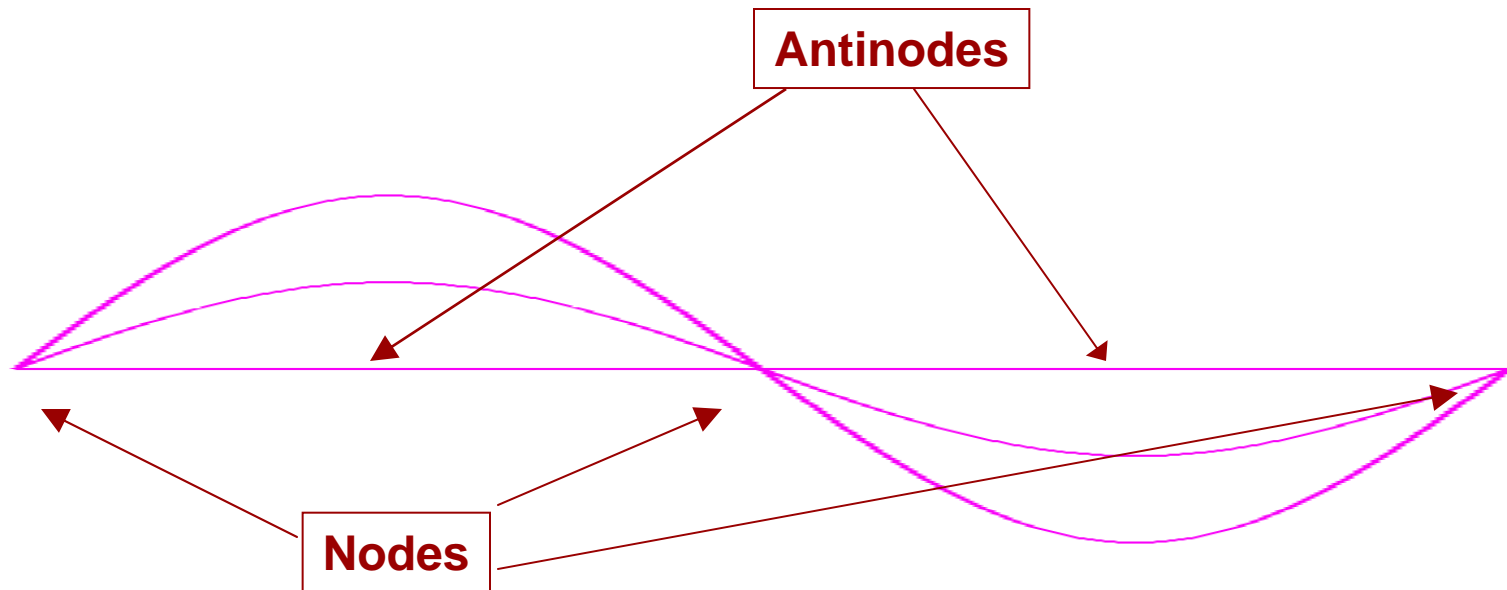
(b) Undisplaced particles
Displaced particles
at $t = 0$



(c) Pressure fluctuation p versus position x at $t = 0$



More jargon: nodes and antinodes



- In a sound wave the pressure nodes are the displacement antinodes and viceversa

Example

- A directional loudspeaker bounces a sinusoidal sound wave off the wall. At what distance from the wall can you stand and hear no sound at all?
- A key thing to realize is that the ear is sensitive to pressure fluctuations
- Want to be at pressure node
- The wall is a displacement node \rightarrow pressure antinode

