British ball can be readily determined:

\[ \frac{S_2}{m} = \left( \frac{C_0}{m} \right) \frac{d}{\partial \rho}, \quad A = 0.0143 \text{ ft}^2, \]
\[ \rho = 0.00237 \text{ slugs/ft}^2, \quad m = (1.62/16)/32 \text{ slugs}, \]
\[ C_0 = 0.36. \]

**Latent heat and low-temperature heat capacity experiment for the general physics laboratory**

C. W. Tompson and H. W. White

*Department of Physics, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri 65211*

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An experiment to measure the latent heat of vaporization of liquid nitrogen and the average heat capacities at constant pressure of several materials in the temperature range 77–295 K is described. This exercise uses normally available laboratory apparatus and is suitable for the general physics laboratory.

I. INTRODUCTION

We have recently developed a laboratory experiment for our general physics courses that incorporates the use of a cryogenic fluid (liquid nitrogen—hereafter called LN₂), the measurement of its latent heat of vaporization, and the study of the (average) low-temperature heat capacities of several materials and their relation to the law of Dulong and Petit. The experiment is simple and uses normally available laboratory apparatus (assuming a source of LN₂ is available). Data collection and analysis can be performed in a two-hour laboratory period. The values obtained have small experimental uncertainties and agree well with values calculated from published data.

II. LATENT HEAT OF VAPORIZATION OF LIQUID NITROGEN

A schematic of the apparatus used to measure the latent heat of vaporization of LN₂ is shown in Fig. 1. An electrical heater \( R \) was suspended in a LN₂ bath in a cup assembly which rested on a scale balance pan. As the LN₂ boiled away a background loss rate was determined by measuring \( m(t) \), the mass of the LN₂ plus cup assembly, as a function of time. After a few minutes of observation, switch \( S \) was closed. The current \( I \) and voltage \( V \) were measured. Simultaneously, measurements of \( m(t) \) continued but the rate was, of course, much faster. A good technique to measure \( m(t) \) is to unbalance the scale one or two grams too light and read the time as the pointer passes zero, then unbalance again and repeat. A suitably damped dial-type balance makes this process rapid and simple.

After a few grams of LN₂ had been boiled off by the heater, switch \( S \) was opened again and the heater time interval, \( \Delta t \), carefully noted. A separate timer for this purpose is advantageous. Measurements of \( m(t) \) were continued for a few minutes to re-establish the background. These data were plotted as shown in Fig. 2.

The double-wall styrofoam cup assembly, labeled item \( \mathcal{S} \) in Fig. 1, was made by suspending a 6-oz cup inside a 14-oz cup. A styrofoam ring was used to center the cups and a bead of silicone bathtup-type sealant sealed the joint and stabilized the assembly. The analytical balance had a 0–10 g dial. The heater probe had a 33-Ω, 10-W wire wound resistor (nominal value) mounted on the end of a small stainless steel tube. The power source was a 28-V (nominal) laboratory supply. The 10-W rating of \( R \) was exceeded but the LN₂ cooling compensated. The current and voltage were measured using Keithley Model 130 digital multimeters. Values obtained for the data shown in Fig. 2 were \( V = 28.5 \) V and \( I = 0.871 \) A.

Straight lines were drawn through the data of Fig. 2. From the vertical displacement of the two lines near the center of the heating period the mass of the LN₂ boiled off was determined to be 9.35 g. The heating interval was timed to be 73.4 s. The latent heat of vaporization \( L_v \) was calculated from the relation

\[ L_v = \frac{V I \Delta t}{\Delta M}. \]  

**Fig. 1.** Schematic of the apparatus used to measure the latent heat of vaporization of LN₂. The letters refer to the following items: \( B \), balance; \( C \), styrofoam cup assembly; \( I \), current meter; \( R \), 33 Ω resistor; \( S \), switch; \( V \), voltmeter. The power source was 28 V.
The above data gives

$$L_v = \frac{28.5 \times 0.871 \times 73.4}{9.35} = 195 \text{ J/g.}$$

(2)

The accepted value is 197.7 J/g, or 47.23 cal/g.

III. SPECIFIC HEATS OF LEAD AND BERYLLIUM

Our students measure the molar specific heat capacities, averaged over the temperature range of 77–295 K, for two metals—lead and beryllium. These two metals were chosen since their molar heat capacities at room temperature are quite different. Lead has a value near 3R whereas beryllium is much lower. R is the universal gas constant. If beryllium should be hard to obtain (its toxicity makes cutting pieces to size totally out of the question in most machine shops) or too costly, silicon or carbon would be acceptable substitutes.

The heat capacity measurements were made as follows. The styrofoam cup was filled with LN$_2$, and, together with the metal piece to be measured, placed on the balance pan as illustrated in Fig. 3. As before, the mass $m(f)$ was measured for a few minutes to establish a background loss rate. The metal was then moved from the scale pan and gently placed into the cup of LN$_2$ using tongs. Measurements of $m(f)$ continued until the background rate was re-established. Extrapolation of the background rates permitted determination of the mass of liquid which boiled off in cooling the piece of metal from room temperature to 77 K. The average specific heat was then calculated from the expression

$$C_p = \frac{(198)\Delta m}{m(T_0 - 77)} \text{ J/mole K,}$$

(3)

where $\Delta m$ is the mass of LN$_2$ boiled off in units of grams, $n$ is the amount of sample in moles, and $T_0$ is the original (room) temperature of the metal in degrees Kelvin.

Figure 4 shows data obtained for lead and beryllium samples of masses 57.0 g (0.275 mole) and 3.62 g (0.402 mole), respectively. Based on this data the average specific heats at constant pressure $C_p$ were calculated to be

$$C_p(\text{lead}) = \frac{(198)(7.60)}{(0.275)(295 - 77)} = 25.1 \text{ J/mole K}$$

(4)

$$= 6.00 \text{ cal/mole K}$$

(5)

and

$$C_p(\text{beryllium}) = \frac{(198)(4.30)}{(0.402)(295 - 77)} = 9.72 \text{ J/mole K}$$

(6)

$$= 2.32 \text{ cal/mole K.}$$

(7)

Fig. 4. Plots of the data which show the mass of the sample cup assembly plus LN$_2$ as a function of time for the heat capacity measurements for lead (upper) and beryllium (lower). The background rates have been extrapolated into the region where the cooling of the sample occurred. The mass of the nitrogen boil off $\Delta m$ and the mass of each sample are shown for the two measurements.
Table I. Molar specific heats at constant pressure at several temperatures for Be, C(graphite), Si, Cu, and Pb. The units are cal/mole K and degrees Kelvin.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>T</th>
<th>Be</th>
<th>C(graphite)</th>
<th>Si</th>
<th>Cu</th>
<th>Pb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>0.121</td>
<td>0.221</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>5.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>0.278</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>5.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>0.299</td>
<td>0.339</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>5.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>0.428</td>
<td>0.402</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>3.86</td>
<td>5.84</td>
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<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td>0.743</td>
<td>0.539</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>5.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>140</td>
<td>1.130</td>
<td>0.689</td>
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<td>5.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>160</td>
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<td>2.99</td>
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<td>6.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>180</td>
<td>1.983</td>
<td>1.019</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>6.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
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<td>3.68</td>
<td>5.40</td>
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<tr>
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<td>3.95</td>
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<td>6.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>1.54</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>6.29</td>
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<tr>
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<td>1.71</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>6.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>280</td>
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<td>1.88</td>
<td>4.50</td>
<td>5.78</td>
<td>6.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>5.86</td>
<td>6.44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Similar data were obtained for silicon and carbon. We used samples of 7.20 g of silicon and 9.66 g of carbon (graphite) and determined the specific heats to be 3.31 and 1.13 cal/mole K, respectively.

Dulong and Petit noted that the room temperature specific heats at constant pressure of most metals (except the lightest) were near 3R (24.94 J/mole K, or 5.96 cal/mole K). The value obtained for lead was near 3R, but as expected the values obtained for the other elements were considerably smaller. It is instructive to give the students literature data for \( C_p(T) \) and have them compute \( C_p \) by numerical integration over the appropriate temperature range. For convenience, sets of \( C_p \) and \( T \) data for the materials we have used (and also copper for reference) are given in Table I.

Table II shows the average specific heats that we measured compared to the values calculated from the data in Table I. The agreement is quite good for silicon, lead, and beryllium but not so good for carbon. It should be noted that the samples we used were all of very high purity. (We caution that some lead normally found around the laboratory may be of questionable purity and may give erroneous results.)

We also caution that students must be made aware of the hazards of improper handling of LN\(_2\). In our laboratories, students are required to wear protective eye covers during the experiment. The laboratory instructor is responsible for the main LN\(_2\) storage dewar and dispenses the nitrogen in small styrofoam cups to the students as required.

1Ohaus Dial-O-Gram model 310 balance. Ohaus Scale Corp., 29 Hanover Road, Florham Park, New Jersey 07932.
2Keithley Instruments, Inc., 28775 Aurora Road, Cleveland, Ohio 44139.

Remark on the isotropic form of the Schwarzschild interior metric

H. A. Buchdahl

Department of Theoretical Physics, Faculty of Science, Australian National University, Canberra, A.C.T.

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In the course of determining the Schwarzschild interior solution in isotropic coordinates it turns out that to a given density and coordinate radius there in general correspond two possible spheres which have distinct masses and distinct physical radii. This situation is here described in detail.

I. INTRODUCTION

The well-known "Schwarzschild interior solution" is the metric \((S)\) of a region of space-time occupied by a spherically symmetric static distribution of fluid the density \(\rho = T^4/8\pi\) of which has a fixed positive value, that is, it is independent of position and time. No doubt it is considered so often in expositions of general relativity theory because of the ease with which its explicit form can be found. One should, however, bear in mind that it is formal in character in as far as the required constancy of \(\rho\) is unphysical: it implies that the speed of sound is infinite and causality is violated.\(^2\) At any rate, an appropriate generic form of the metric is\(^2,3\)

\[
ds^2 = -e^\tau \, d\tau^2 - \bar{T}^2 \, e^\nu \, d\Omega^2 + e^\nu \, dt^2,
\]

where \(d\Omega^2 = d\theta^2 + \sin^2\theta \, d\phi^2\) and \(\lambda, \mu, \nu\) are functions of \(\bar{T}\) alone. One of these may be prescribed arbitrarily, subject to

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