



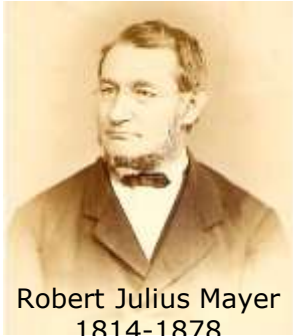
Work, Energy, and Power

Agenda

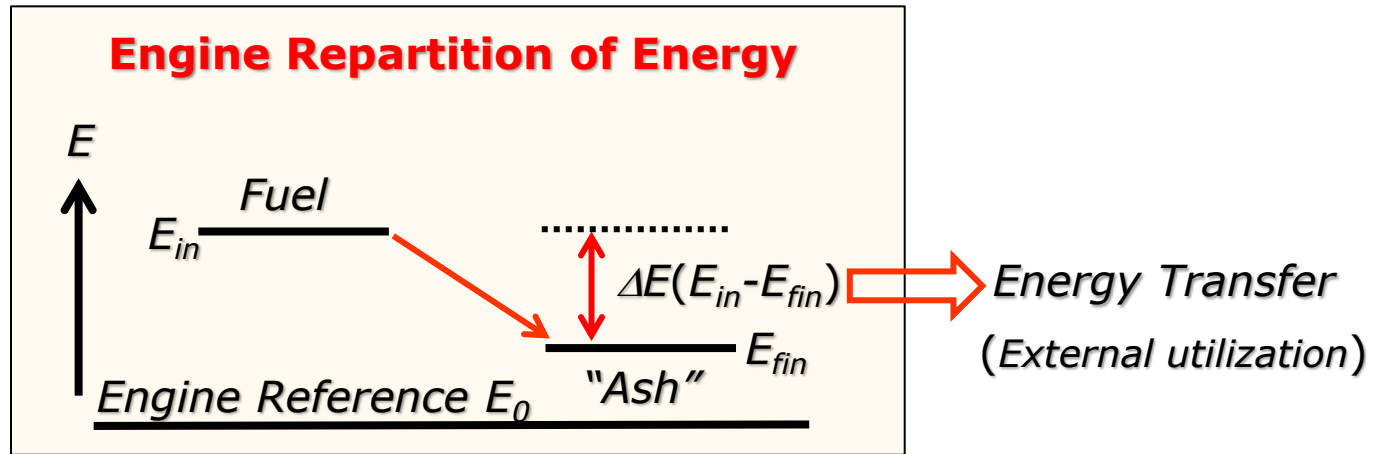
Energy conservation, conversion, and transformation

- Potential energy, kinetic energy, work, and power
Variable force, chemical rearrangement energy (Enthalpy)
Examples
- Kinetic energy transfer,
Dissipation, randomization and spontaneous processes
Examples of thermal motion, Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution
- Electricity and Electromagnetic Power
Electric fields and currents, metallic and semiconductors
Magnetic induction
AC circuits
- Thermodynamics principles and applications
First Law & Second Law of Thermodynamics, Entropy
Transfer of thermal energy (heat)
Conduction, convection, radiation (cooling)
Internal energy, equivalence of work and heat

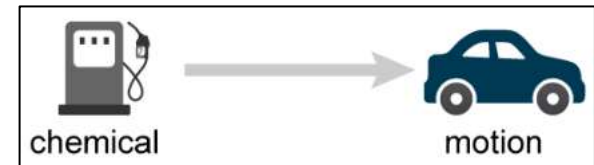
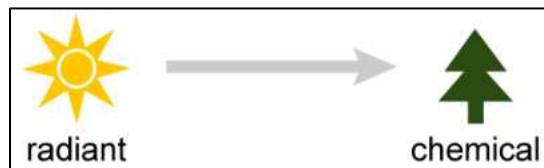
Schematic of Human Energy Utilization



Conservation of Energy = 1st Law of Thermodynamics (TD)
Energy in an isolated system can never be created or destroyed.
It can only be transformed.



Examples
For Energy
Conversion



Mechanical Work & Energy: Weightlifting

Newton's Law → Motion of massive bodies:

$$\boxed{\text{Force} = \text{Mass} \cdot \text{Acceleration}}$$

Balancing gravitational force F_1 requires an equal force F_2 in the opposite direction.

$$\vec{F}_2 = -\vec{F}_1 = -m \cdot g$$

Applying F_2 over an altitude change Δx requires work w

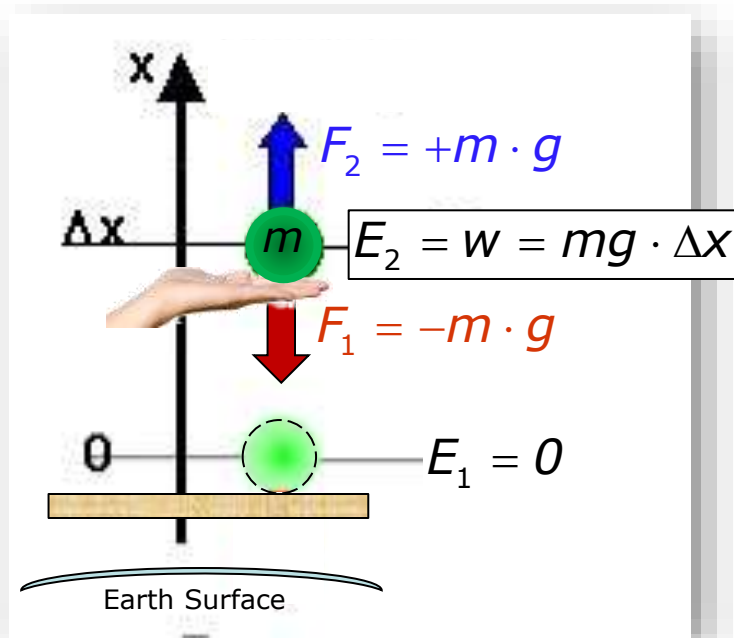
$$w = +F_2 \cdot \Delta x = -F_1 \cdot \Delta x = m \cdot g \cdot \Delta x$$

This increases the intrinsic (potential) energy of the body (= system) by

$$\boxed{\Delta E = m \cdot g \cdot \Delta x \rightarrow w \equiv \Delta E}$$

If the work w is done during time Δt , the mean power applied is

$$\boxed{\Delta P = \Delta E / \Delta t = m \cdot g \cdot (\Delta x / \Delta t)}$$



Only differences ΔE in energy E are measurable →
→ arbitrary energy-zero, $E=0$.

The body gains, as internal energy, the difference in gravitational potential energies at different heights x . Body can do work $w = -mg\Delta x$.

Numerical Example

Q: What is the potential energy (*SI* units) gained by a body of mass $m = 1 \text{ kg}$ lifted vertically up from a table by a distance $h = 1 \text{ m}$?

A: The force resisting the motion of the body is the gravitational force (downwards is the **negative h direction**)

$$F_g = -m \cdot g = -1 \text{ kg} \cdot 9.81 \text{ m/s}^2 = -9.81 \text{ N} \quad \leftarrow \text{unit}$$

To lift the body requires a **force F upwards** of the magnitude 9.81 N .

This force **$F = -F_g = +9.81 \text{ N}$** , applied over the distance of **1 m** does the work $w = F \cdot 1 \text{ m} = 9.81 \text{ Nm} = 9.81 \text{ J} = 6.12 \cdot 10^{19} \text{ eV} > 0$

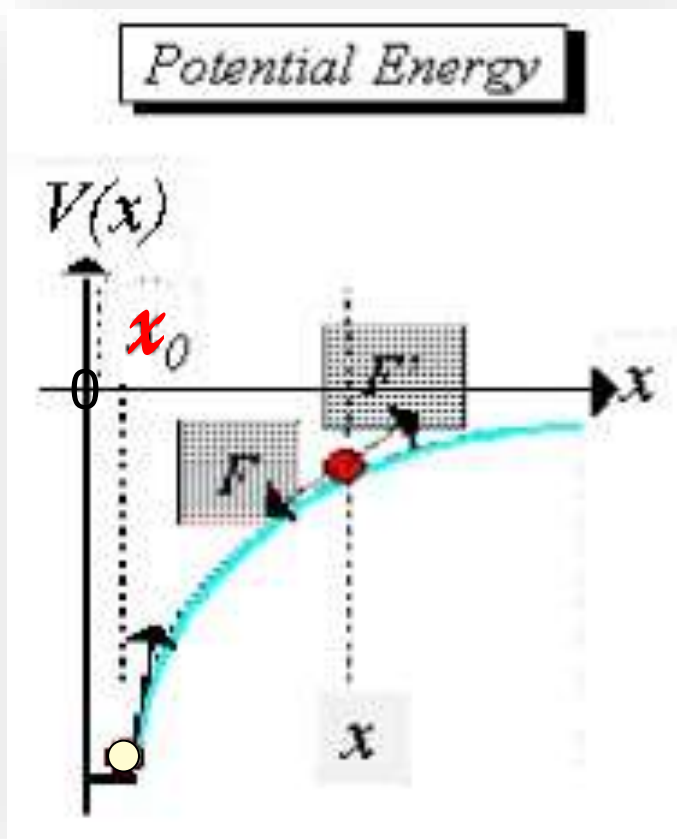
Q: If this work is done within 1 second, what is the power P exerted?

A: $P = w/1 \text{ s} = 9.81 \text{ J/s} = 9.81 \text{ W (Watt)}$

Q: If the body is then dropped from its 1-m height, what is its velocity hitting the table ($h=0$)?

$$w = 9.81 \text{ J} = 0.5 \cdot m \cdot v^2 = 0.5 \text{ kg} \cdot v^2 \rightarrow v = \sqrt{9.81 \text{ Nm} / 0.5 \text{ kg}} = 4.4 \text{ m/s}$$

Work Against a Variable Force



Variable force $F'(x)$, differential work:
Sum over (infinitely) many differentials dw

Lifting: $dw = F'(x) \cdot dx = -F(x) \cdot dx > 0$

→ Total work **done on** particle
in terms of potential energy difference:

$$w = \int_{x_0}^x dw(x') = \int_{x_0}^x F'(x') \cdot dx' = - \int_{x_0}^x F(x') \cdot dx' > 0$$

$$w = - \int_{x_0}^x F(x') \cdot dx' = \int_{x_0}^x \frac{dV(x')}{dx'} \cdot dx' = V(x) - V(x_0) = \Delta V$$

In 3D components: $F \rightarrow \vec{F} = \begin{pmatrix} F_x \\ F_y \\ F_z \end{pmatrix}$; $x \rightarrow \vec{r} = \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix}$

$$w = - \int_{\vec{r}_0}^{\vec{r}} \vec{F}(\vec{r}) \cdot d\vec{r} = \int_{\vec{r}_0}^{\vec{r}} \vec{\nabla} V(\vec{r}) \cdot d\vec{r} = V(\vec{r}) - V(\vec{r}_0)$$

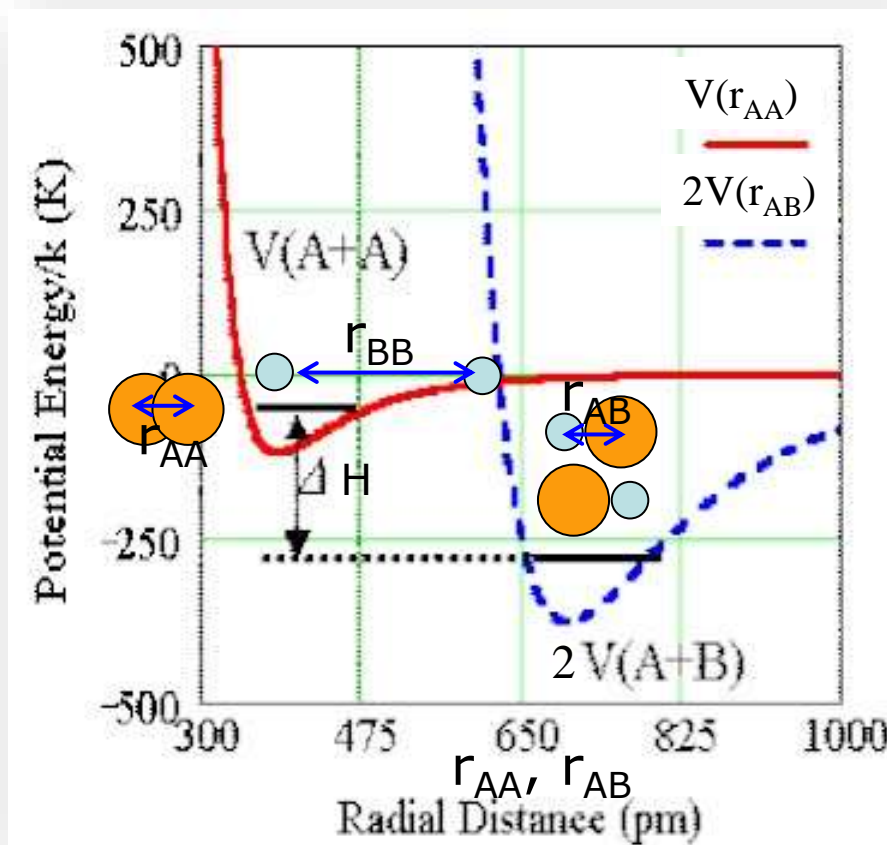
Force =
Negative gradient:

$$F(x) = - \frac{dV(x)}{dx} \rightarrow 3D : \quad \vec{F}(\vec{r}) = - \vec{\nabla} V(\vec{r}) = - \begin{pmatrix} dV(\vec{r})/dx \\ dV(\vec{r})/dy \\ dV(\vec{r})/dz \end{pmatrix}$$

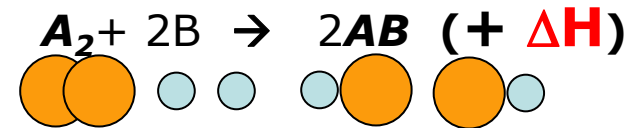
Del or Nabla Operator

Energy Gain in Chemical Configuration Changes

Example: Covalent bonding
(Lennard-Jones potential)



Consider schematic reaction between one bound molecule A_2 and 2 unbound atoms B forming 2 bound molecules AB :



Enthalpy $\Delta H < 0$: energy released from the molecular system ($2AB$)
Since B are individual atoms and not bound together, $V(B) = V_{B+B} = 0$.

Reaction takes place if

$$2V_{A+B} < V_{A+A} + \underbrace{V_{B+B}}_{=0} = V_{A_2}$$

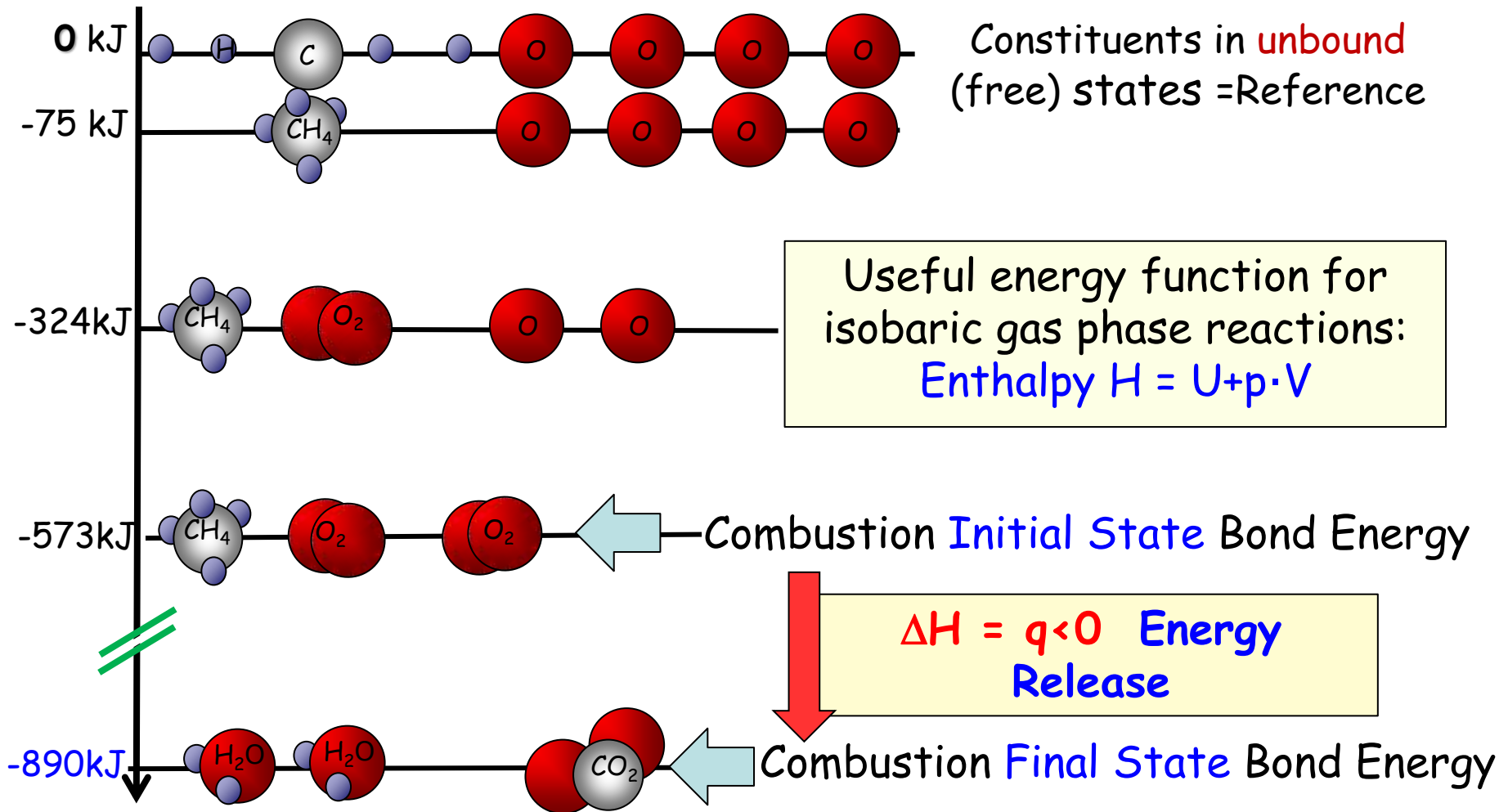
Reaction is exo-thermic (final system is more strongly bound).

Rearrangement of individual constituents of ensemble of atoms and molecules is associated with changes in interaction potential (bonding) energy.

Example: Bond Changes in Combustion

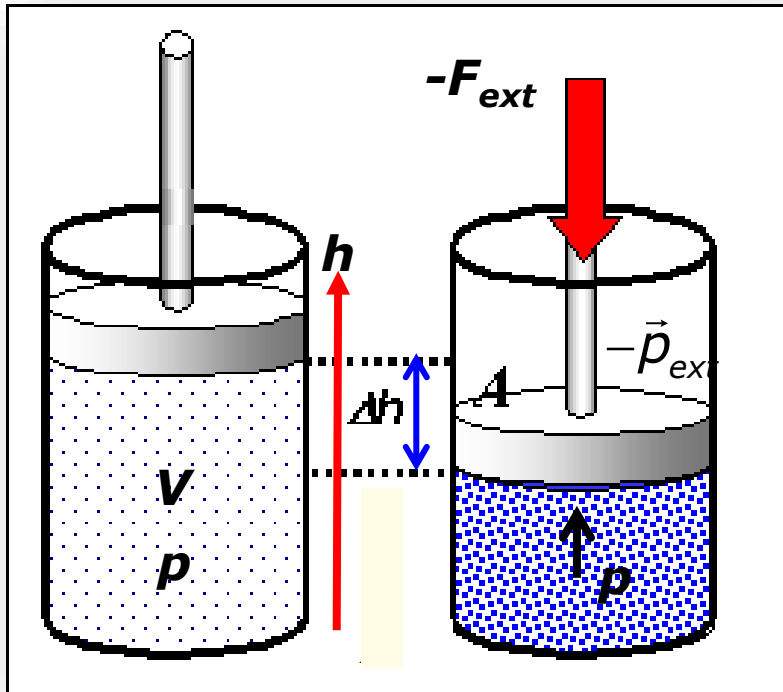
Example: burning natural gas $\text{CH}_4(\text{g}) + 2\text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (not spontaneous)
Methane

Energy (= Enthalpy)



Work-Energy-Power

Kinetic Energy Changes in Compression



Gas=equilibrated **system of independent particles moving in random directions.**

Compression of a gas volume V with a constant force F (e.g., weight) on a constant area A :

→ Pressure $p = \text{Force } F / \text{Area } A$,
at $p = p_{ext} = \text{const.}$

(external, not internal)

$$p = \frac{-F_{ext}}{A} = p_{ext} \rightarrow \Delta V = A \cdot \Delta h < 0$$

Compression work **done on** system

$$w = -F_{ext} \cdot \Delta h = -(p_{ext} \cdot A) \cdot \Delta h = -p_{ext} \cdot \Delta V > 0$$

Sign Convention: Compressional work on a gas volume (=system) increases the internal energy E of the gas .

Therefore, work $w > 0$ is counted as positive (done on gas).

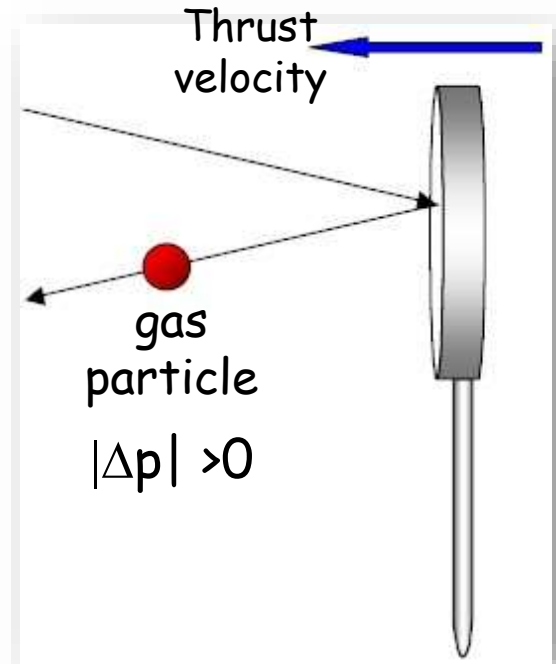
Q: How can we measure the gas pressure?

Q: What happens to the piston, what is the pressure p inside the gas volume?

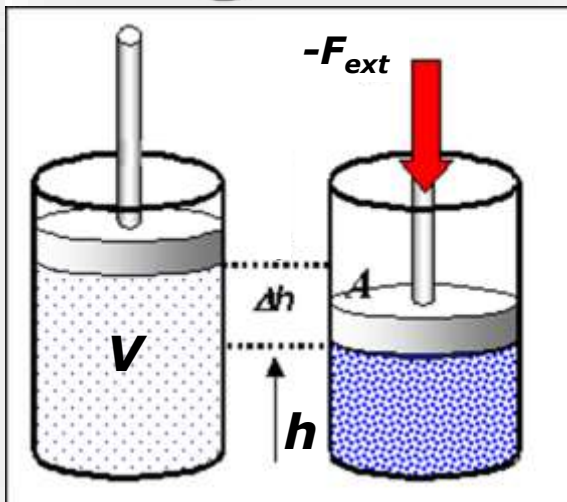
Compression Work as Energy Transfer



Energy and momentum are transferred to gas particles hit by a (collectively) moving piston, depending on the relative velocity of piston and gas particle.

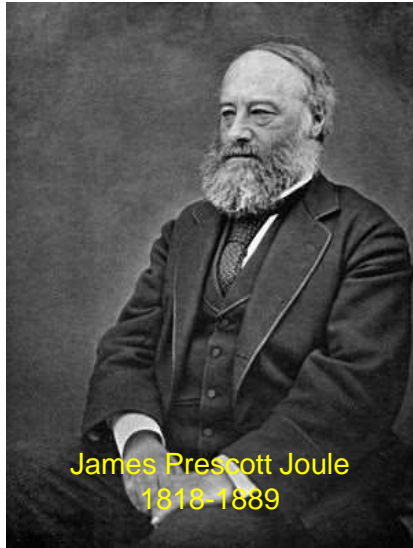


The effect is similar to that driving a tennis ball with a racket.



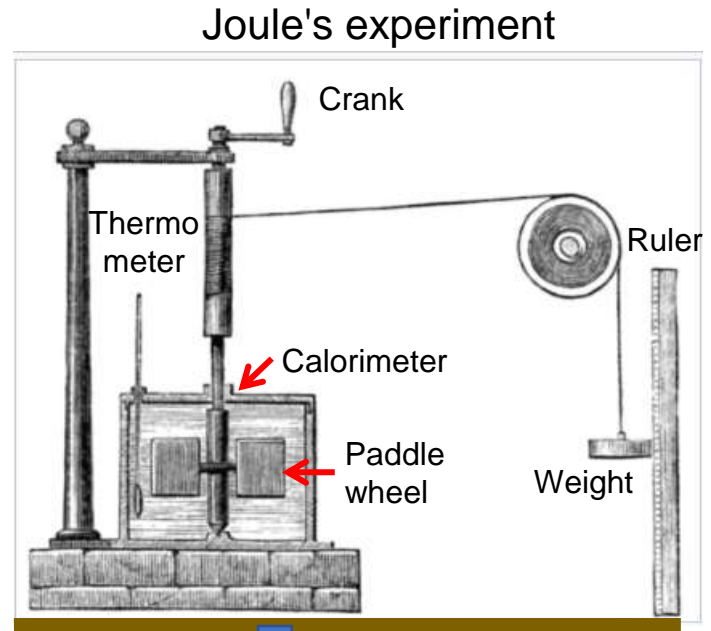
Thermally insulated system (cylinder with gas)
Compressed gas has more energy in random motion than before. Transfer collective \rightarrow random motion = dissipation of collective energy into heat.

Mechanical Equivalent of Heat



"An Experimental Enquiry Concerning the Source of the Heat which is Excited by Friction", (1798), Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society p. 102

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Work } W &\propto Q \text{ Heat} \\ \Rightarrow W &= JQ \\ \Rightarrow J &= \frac{W}{Q} \end{aligned}$$

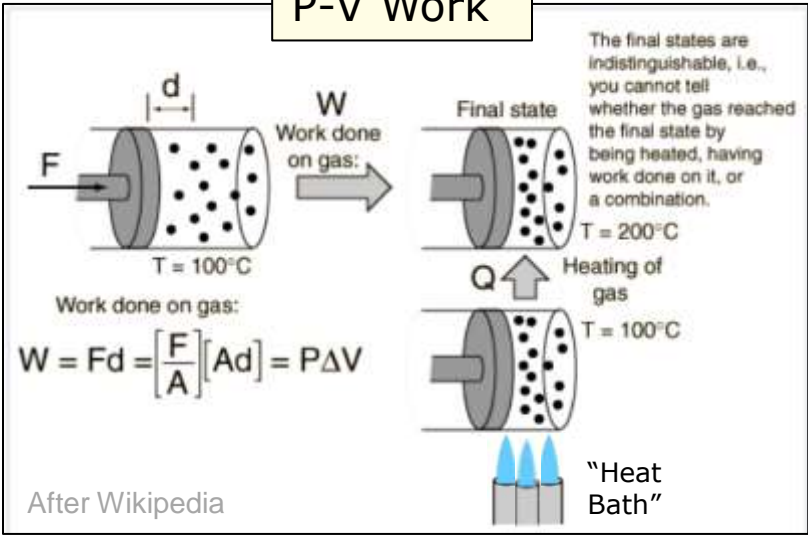


$$J = 4.186 \text{ kJ/kcal}$$

Specific heat \rightarrow Energy(ΔT): $q = C \cdot \Delta T$

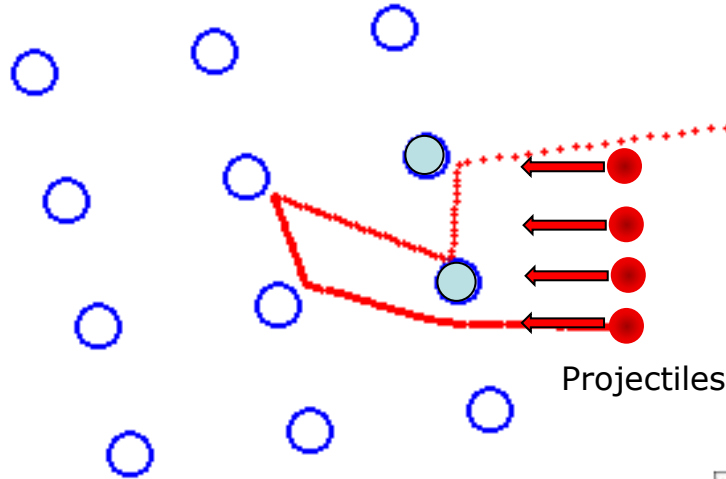
Heat energy q required for heating 1g material by $\Delta T = 1^\circ C$
of H_2O : $C_V(\dots) \approx (4.17 - 4.22) \text{ J/(g} \cdot ^\circ C)$

P-V Work



Energy Dissipation (Randomization)

Multiple Scattering @ Fixed Lattice



A lattice of heavy (M) bound atoms or ions is hit by fast projectiles ($m \ll M$).

A number “projectile” particles enter the system at various initial conditions: positions from the right with identical momenta (e.g., kicked by racket).

Depending on how and where the first lattice particle is hit, the next few collisions and their momentum and energy transfers change.



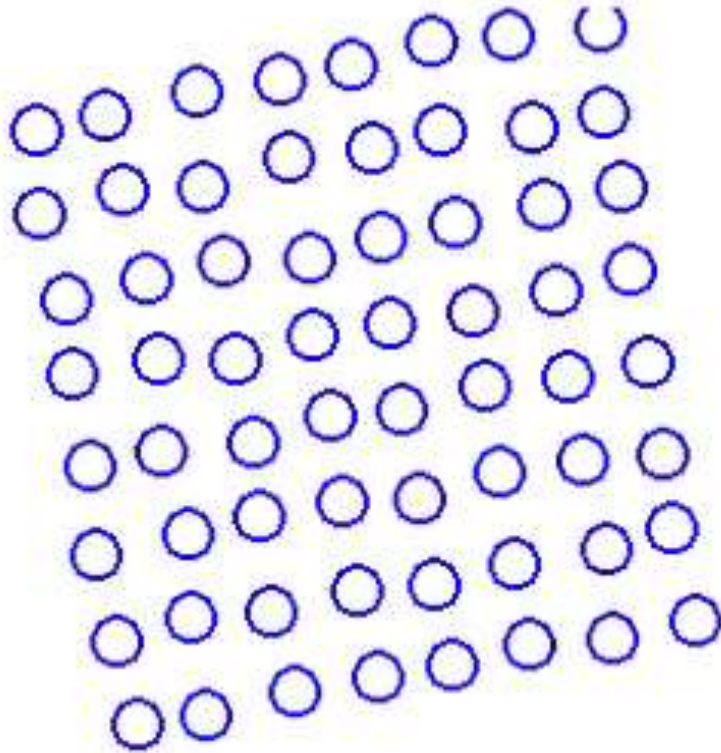
Lattice_Scattering.avi

The result is a random pattern of projectile deflections, momenta and energies. The particles hit by the projectiles are also accelerated and deflected to various extents. They themselves become projectiles and collide with other gas particles. In this fashion, the energy of the projectile is dissipated over all particles in the system.

Collisions with unbound, moving **gas** particles are “much more” random than collisions with a periodic solid-state lattice structure. More complex structures arise naturally (spontaneously) via collisions between particles.

Thermal Motion in Solids

Lattice in Random Motion



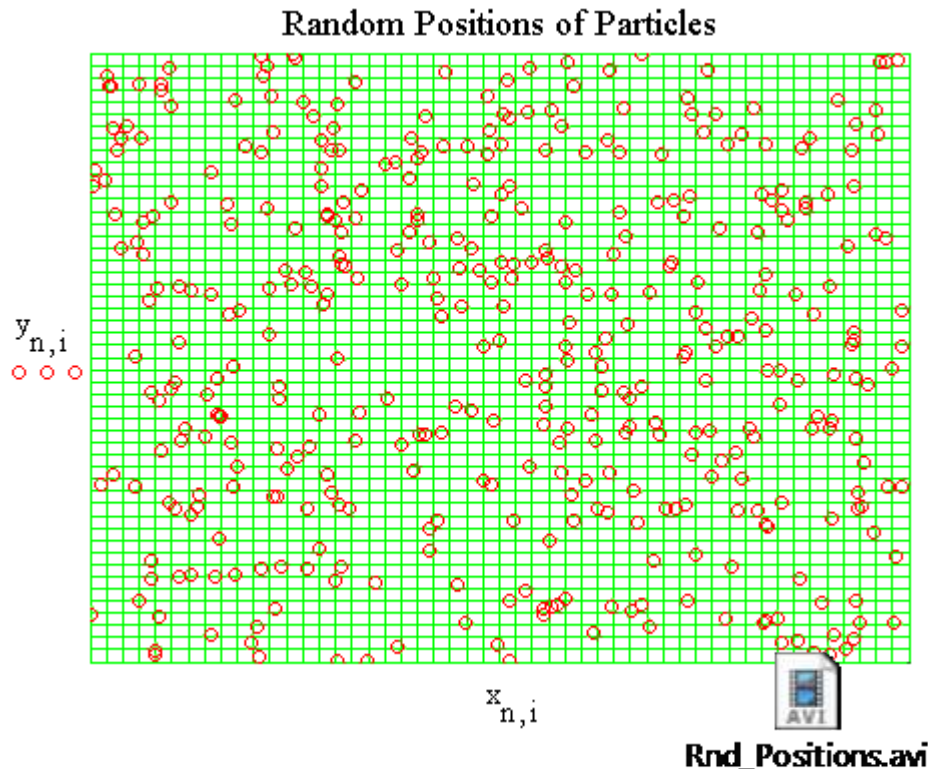
The individual constituents (atoms or ions) of an excited lattice have on average the same thermal energy. If one increases this average energy by introducing energy from the surroundings, the displacements of the particles increase.

At higher excitations, the structure begins to disappear, the lattice is “melting”, becomes a liquid and, eventually, a gas.

The average kinetic energy of each particle is known as “temperature T ” (units of k_B)

$$\langle \varepsilon \rangle = (1/2) \cdot k_B T \quad \textit{per particle} \\ \textit{per degree of freedom}$$

Random (Thermal) Motion in Space



Example: Motion in two dimensions of 300 non-interacting (ideal-gas) particles.

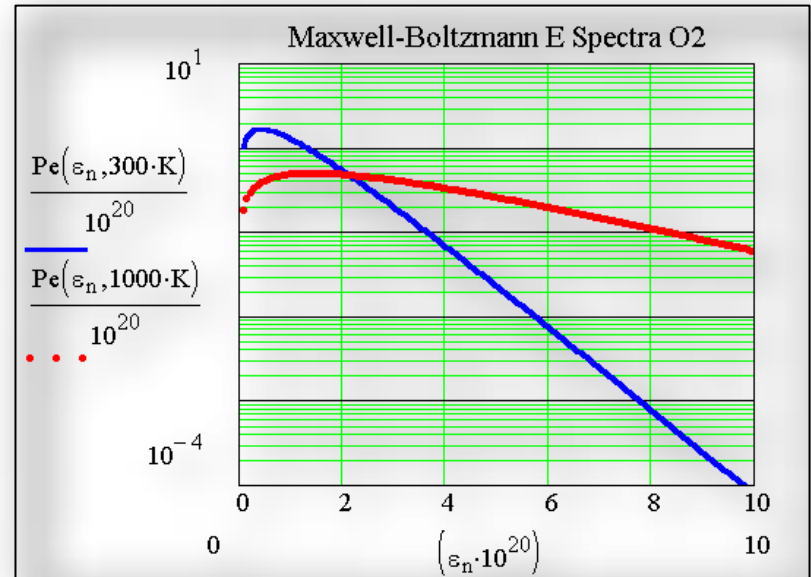
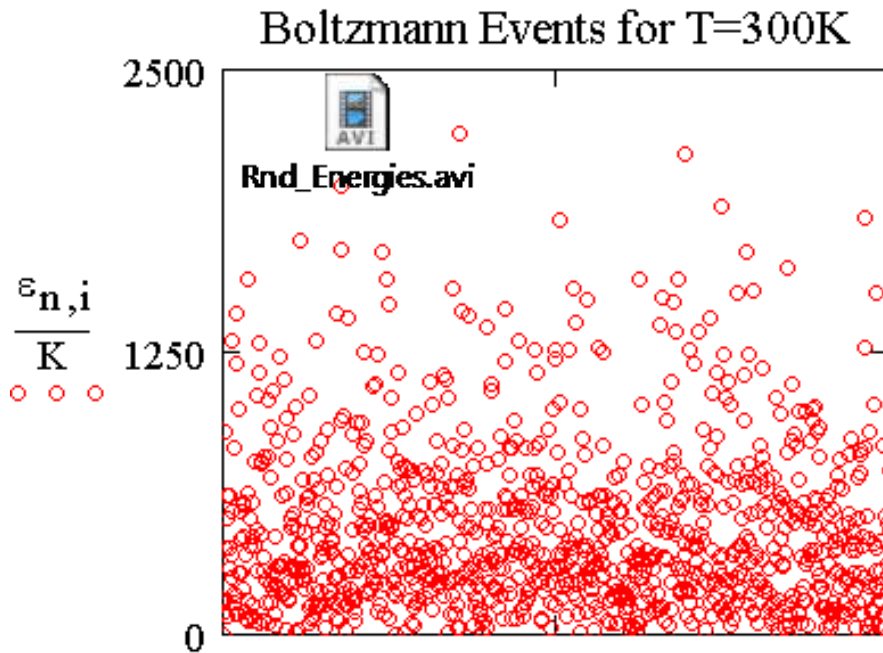
All particles move in random directions because of multiple collisions, which actually do occur but are not explicitly treated here.

Every particle visits every one of the energetically equivalent cells.

Contrast: Collective motion.

Particles in a gas move in different directions and at different speeds, colliding with one another often. Eventually, their positions at any given time are random. All available (accessible) space is visited by all particles, in due time. → **Ergodic Theorem**

Gases in Randomized State (Thermal Equilibrium)

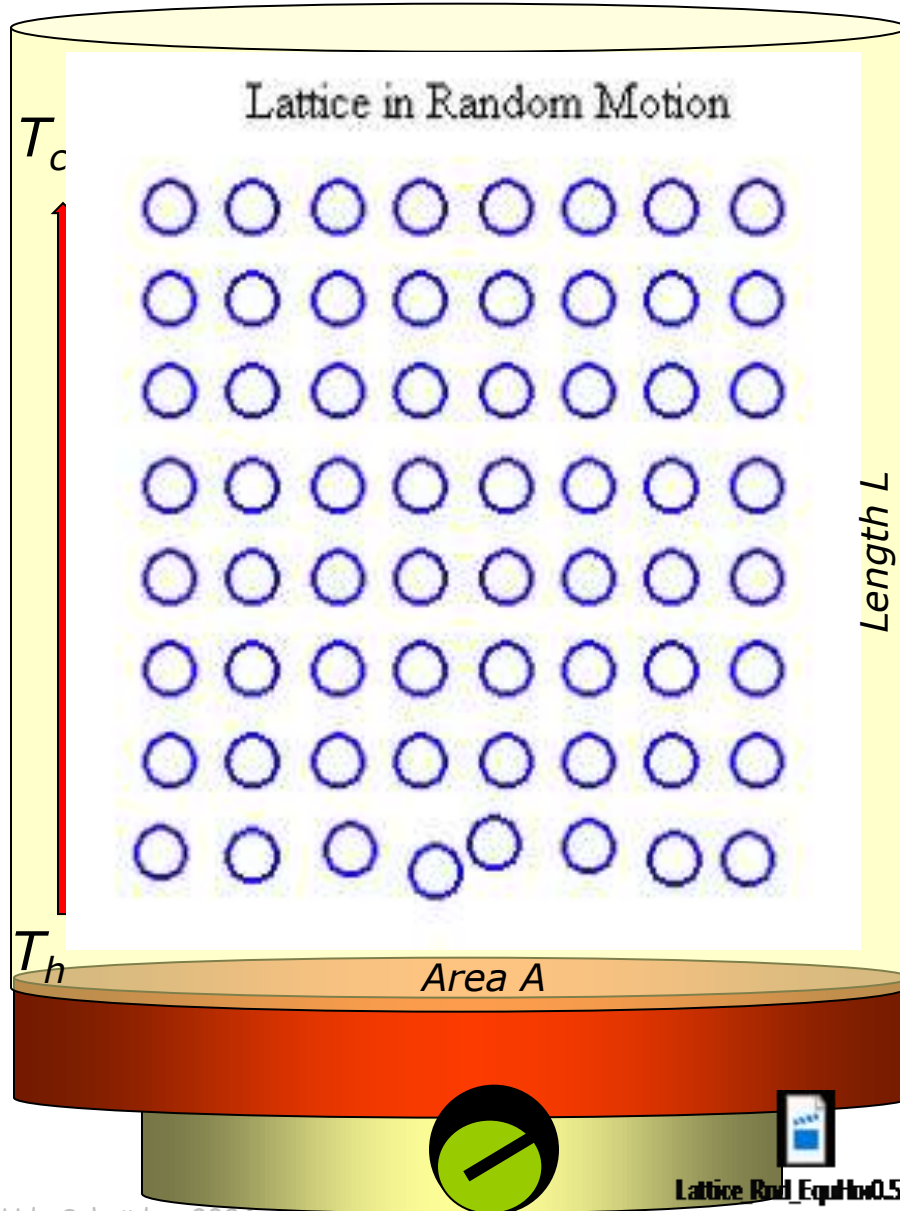


$$P(\varepsilon, T) = \frac{dN}{d\varepsilon} \propto \sqrt{\varepsilon} \cdot e^{-\frac{\varepsilon}{k_B T}}$$

The particles in a gas collide continuously, all the time. In these collisions, different momentum and energy transfers occur, depending on whether the collisions are grazing, head on, or in-between. This leads to a randomly fluctuating ("thermal") "Maxwell-Boltzmann" kinetic-energy spectrum.

(An ideal gas only has internal kinetic energy, no potential energy since no interactions)

Conduction of Thermal Energy in Solids



External energy and/or density disturbances propagate through its volume V , e.g., its solid lattice.

$$\frac{dq}{dt} = -\kappa A \frac{(T_c - T_h)}{L} \rightarrow \text{conductivity } \kappa$$
$$3D: \vec{j}_q = \frac{d\vec{q}}{A \cdot dt} = -\kappa \cdot \vec{\nabla} T$$

Energy flow: hot \rightarrow cold

System expands in spatial dimensions

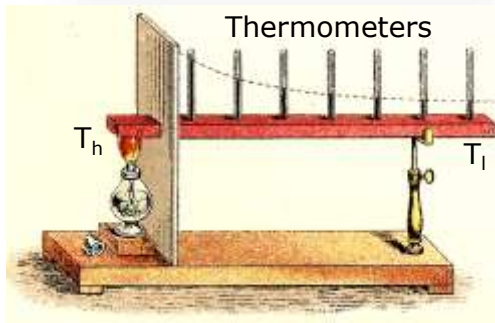
$$dV = V \cdot (1 + \alpha \cdot dT)$$

$\rightarrow \alpha = \text{volume expansion coeff}$

Systems at any temperature emit thermal radiation (IR photons), which can be absorbed (possibly re-emitted) by objects in the environment.

Stefan-Boltzmann Law

Transfer of Randomized Energy: Heat Flow



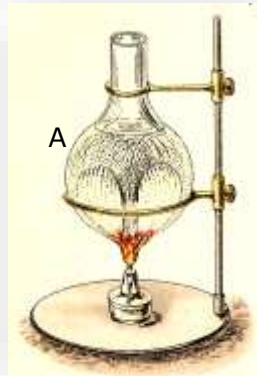
Heat conduction, flux=current density through area A

$$j_q = (dQ/dt) / A$$

$$\text{Fourier's Law: } \vec{j}_q = -\kappa \cdot \vec{\nabla} T(\vec{r}) = -\kappa \cdot \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \vec{i} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \vec{j} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \vec{k} \right)$$

Thermal conductivity κ (W/mK)

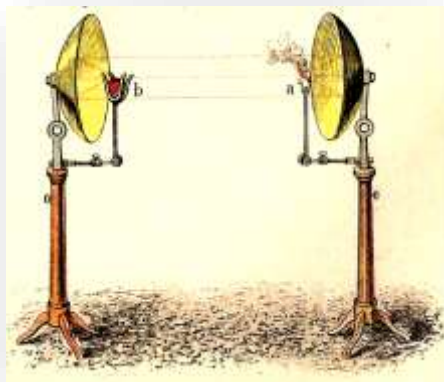
<https://www.schoolmykids.com/learn/interactive-periodic-table/thermal-conductivity-of-all-the-elements>



Heat convection: Heat transfer via particles (mass flow)

$$\text{Newton's Law of cooling } \frac{dQ}{dt} = -h \cdot A \cdot (T - T_{\text{ambient}})$$

Heat transfer coefficient h (W/m²K); area A



Heat radiation: Heat transfer via elm. photons

Stefan – Boltzmann Law

$$\text{Radiated thermal flux } j_Q = \varepsilon \cdot \sigma_{SB} \cdot (T^4 - T_{\text{ambient}}^4)$$

Emissivity ε (often = 1)

Stefan – Boltzmann constant $\sigma_{SB} = 5.6703 \cdot 10^{-8} \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}^4$

	ft lb	kWh	hph	Btu	Calorie	Joule
ft lb	1	3.766×10^{-7}	5.050×10^{-7}	1.285×10^{-3}	0.324	1.356
kWh	2.655×10^6	1	1.341	3.413×10^3	8.606×10^5	3.6×10^6
hph	1.98×10^6	0.745	1	2.545×10^3	6.416×10^5	2.684×10^6
Btu	778.16	2.930×10^{-4}	3.930×10^{-4}	1	252	1.055×10^3
Calorie	3.086	1.162×10^{-6}	1.558×10^{-6}	3.97×10^{-3}	1	4.184
Joule	0.737	2.773×10^{-7}	3.725×10^{-7}	9.484×10^{-4}	0.2390	1

End

Work/Energy/Power I