

Thermodynamics: An Engineering Approach, 5th Edition
Yunus A. Cengel, Michael A. Boles
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Chapter 2

ENERGY, ENERGY TRANSFER, AND GENERAL ENERGY ANALYSIS

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ENERGY, ENERGY TRANSFER, AND GENERAL ENERGY ANALYSIS

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Objectives

- Introduce the concept of energy and define its various forms.
- Discuss the nature of internal energy.
- Define the concept of heat and the terminology associated with energy transfer by heat.
- Discuss the three mechanisms of heat transfer: conduction, convection, and radiation.
- Define the concept of work, including electrical work and several forms of mechanical work.
- Introduce the first law of thermodynamics, energy balances, and mechanisms of energy transfer to or from a system.
- Determine that a fluid flowing across a control surface of a control volume carries energy across the control surface in addition to any energy transfer across the control surface that may be in the form of heat and/or work.
- Define energy conversion efficiencies.
- Discuss the implications of energy conversion on the environment.

INTRODUCTION

- If we take the entire room—including the air and the refrigerator (or fan)—as the system, which is an adiabatic closed system since the room is well-sealed and well-insulated, the only energy interaction involved is the electrical energy crossing the system boundary and entering the room.
- As a result of the conversion of electric energy consumed by the device to heat, **the room temperature will rise.**



A refrigerator operating with its door open in a well-sealed and well-insulated room



A fan running in a well-sealed and well-insulated room will raise the temperature of air in the room.

FORMS OF ENERGY

- Energy can exist in numerous forms such as thermal, mechanical, kinetic, potential, electric, magnetic, chemical, and nuclear, and their sum constitutes the **total energy, E** of a system.
 - Thermodynamics deals only with the **change** of the total energy.
 - **Macroscopic forms of energy:** Those a system possesses as a whole with respect to some outside reference frame, such as kinetic and potential energies.
 - **Microscopic forms of energy:** Those related to the molecular structure of a system and the degree of the molecular activity.
 - **Internal energy, U :** The sum of all the microscopic forms of energy.
- **Kinetic energy, KE:** The energy that a system possesses as a result of its motion relative to some reference frame.
 - **Potential energy, PE:** The energy that a system possesses as a result of its elevation in a gravitational field.



The macroscopic energy of an object changes with velocity and elevation.

$$KE = m \frac{V^2}{2} \quad (\text{kJ})$$

Kinetic energy

$$ke = \frac{V^2}{2} \quad (\text{kJ/kg})$$

Kinetic energy per unit mass

$$PE = mgz \quad (\text{kJ})$$

Potential energy

$$pe = gz \quad (\text{kJ/kg})$$

Potential energy per unit mass

Total energy of a system

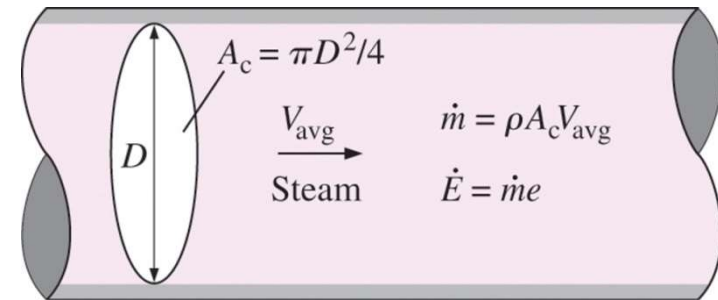
$$E = U + KE + PE = U + m \frac{V^2}{2} + mgz \quad (\text{kJ})$$

Energy of a system per unit mass

$$e = u + ke + pe = u + \frac{V^2}{2} + gz \quad (\text{kJ/kg})$$

Total energy per unit mass

$$e = \frac{E}{m} \quad (\text{kJ/kg})$$



Mass flow rate

$$\dot{m} = \rho \dot{V} = \rho A_c V_{avg} \quad (\text{kg/s})$$

Energy flow rate

$$\dot{E} = \dot{m}e \quad (\text{kJ/s or kW})$$

EXAMPLE 2-1

A site evaluated for a wind farm is observed to have steady winds at a speed of 8.5 m/s. Determine the wind energy (a) per units mass, (b) for a mass of 10 kg, and (c) for a flow rate of 1154 kg/s for air.

Solution A site with a specified wind speed is considered. Wind energy per unit mass, for a specified mass, and for a given mass flow rate of air are to be determined.

Assumptions Wind flows steadily at the specified speed.

(a) Wind energy per unit mass of air is

$$e = ke = \frac{V^2}{2} = \frac{(8.5 \text{ m/s})^2}{2} \left(\frac{1 \text{ J/kg}}{1 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2} \right) = \mathbf{36.1 \text{ J/kg}}$$

(b) Wind energy for an air mass of 10 kg is

$$E = me = (10 \text{ kg})(36.1 \text{ J/kg}) = \mathbf{361 \text{ J}}$$

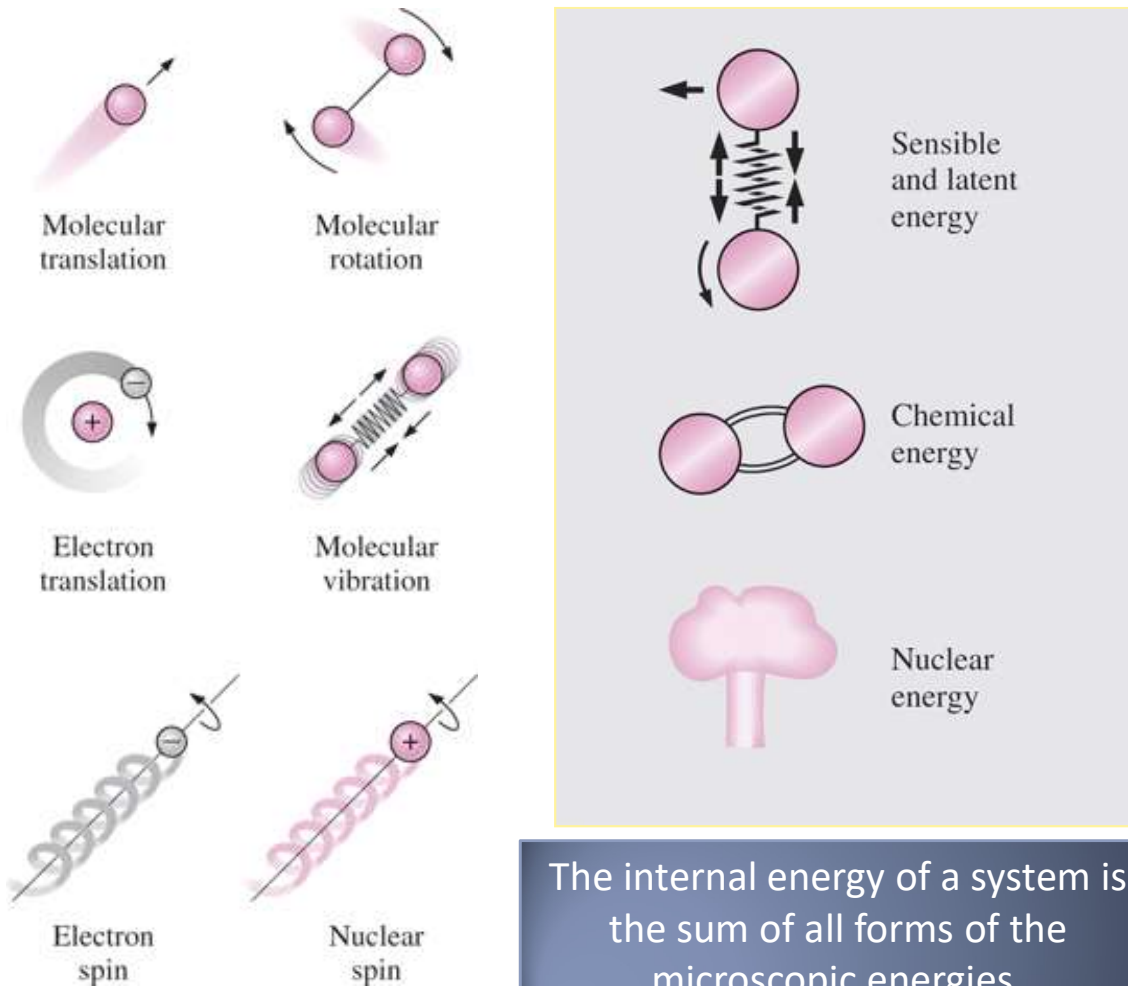
(c) Wind energy for a mass flow rate of 1154 kg/s is

$$\dot{E} = \dot{m}e = (1154 \text{ kg/s})(36.1 \text{ J/kg}) \left(\frac{1 \text{ kW}}{1000 \text{ J/s}} \right) = \mathbf{41.7 \text{ kW}}$$

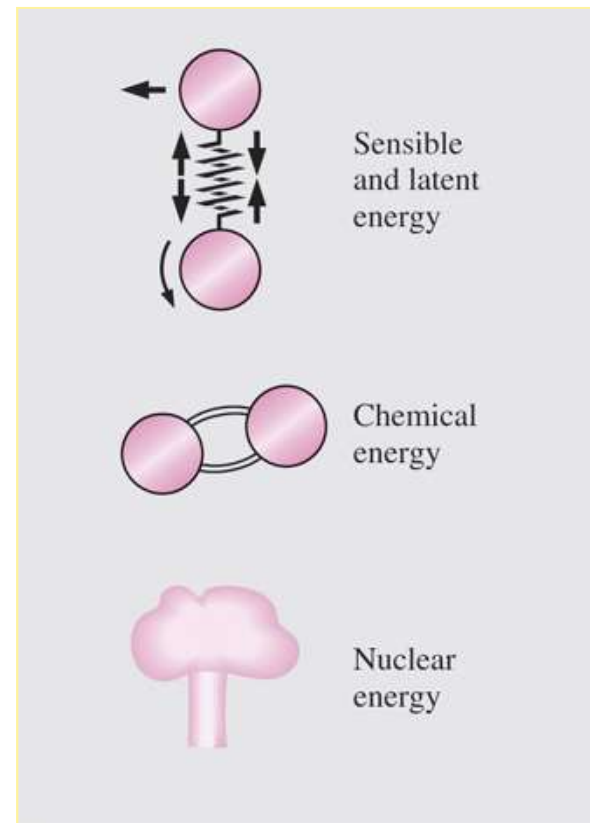
Discussion It can be shown that the specified mass flow rate corresponds to a 12-m diameter flow section when the air density is 1.2 kg/m³. Therefore, a wind turbine with a wind span diameter of 12 m has a power generation potential of 41.7 kW. Real wind turbines convert about one-third of this potential to electric power.



SOME PHYSICAL INSIGHT TO INTERNAL ENERGY



The various forms of microscopic energies that make up *sensible* energy.



The internal energy of a system is the sum of all forms of the microscopic energies.

Sensible energy: The portion of the internal energy of a system associated with the kinetic energies of the molecules.

Latent energy: The internal energy associated with the phase of a system.

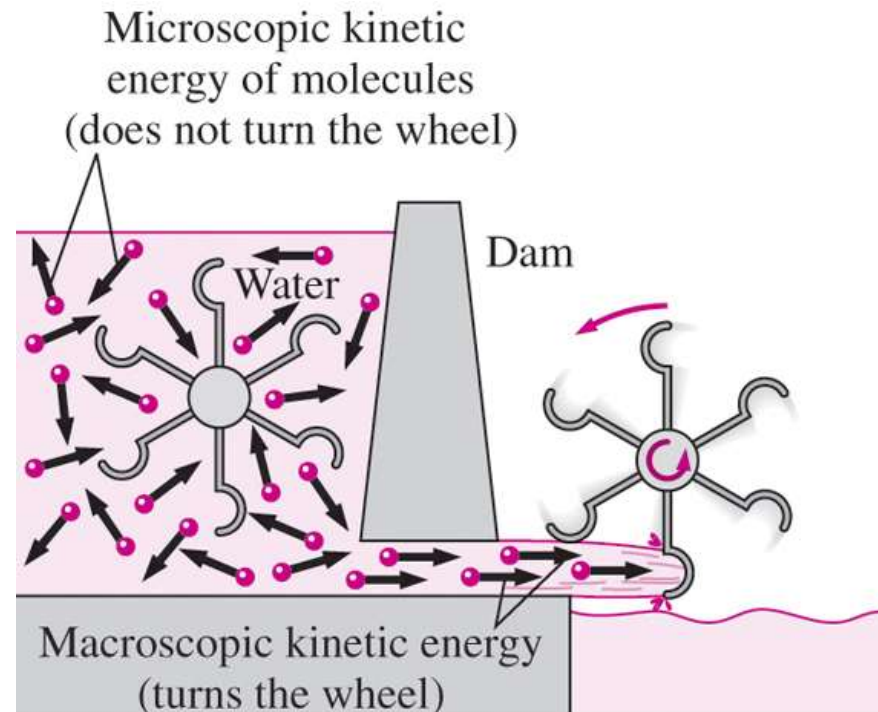
Chemical energy: The internal energy associated with the atomic bonds in a molecule.

Nuclear energy: The tremendous amount of energy associated with the strong bonds within the nucleus of the atom itself.

Thermal = Sensible + Latent

Internal = Sensible + Latent + Chemical + Nuclear

- The total energy of a system, can be *contained* or *stored* in a system, and thus can be viewed as the **static forms of energy**.
- The forms of energy not stored in a system can be viewed as the **dynamic forms of energy** or as **energy interactions**.
- The dynamic forms of energy are recognized at the system boundary as they cross it, and they represent the energy gained or lost by a system during a process.
- The only two forms of energy interactions associated with a closed system are **heat transfer** and **work**.

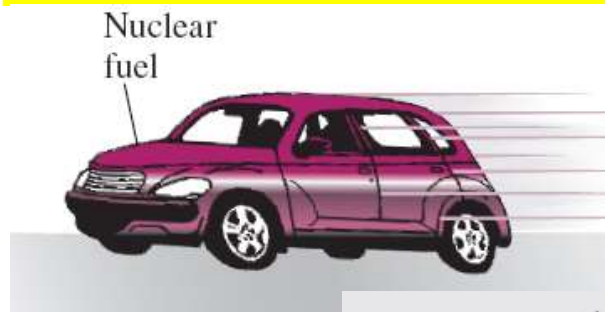


The *macroscopic* kinetic energy is an organized form of energy and is much more useful than the disorganized *microscopic* kinetic energies of the molecules.

The difference between heat transfer and work: An energy interaction is heat transfer if its driving force is a temperature difference. Otherwise it is work.

EXAMPLE 2-2

An average car consumes about 5 L of gasoline a day, and the capacity of the fuel tank of a car is about 50 L. Therefore, a car needs to be refueled once every 10 days. Also, the density of gasoline ranges from 0.68 to 0.78 kg/L, and its lower heating value is about 44,000 kJ/kg (that is, 44,000 kJ of heat is released when 1 kg of gasoline is completely burned). Suppose all the problems associated with the radioactivity and waste disposal of nuclear fuels are resolved, and a car is to be powered by U-235. If a new car comes equipped with 0.1-kg of the nuclear fuel U-235, determine if this car will ever need refueling under average driving conditions.



Solution A car powered by nuclear energy comes equipped with nuclear fuel. It is to be determined if this car will ever need refueling.

Assumptions 1 Gasoline is an incompressible substance with an average density of 0.75 kg/L. 2 Nuclear fuel is completely converted to thermal energy

$$m_{\text{gasoline}} = (\rho V)_{\text{gasoline}} = (0.75 \text{ kg/L})(5 \text{ L/day}) = 3.75 \text{ kg/day}$$

$$E = (m_{\text{gasoline}})(\text{Heating value}) = (3.75 \text{ kg/day})(44,000 \text{ kJ/kg}) = 165,000 \text{ kJ/day}$$

$$(6.73 \times 10^{10} \text{ kJ/kg})(0.1 \text{ kg}) = 6.73 \times 10^9 \text{ kJ}$$

$$\text{No. of days} = \frac{\text{Energy content of fuel}}{\text{Daily energy use}} = \frac{6.73 \times 10^9 \text{ kJ}}{165,000 \text{ kJ/day}} = \mathbf{40,790 \text{ days}}$$

Discussion The necessary critical mass cannot be achieved with such a small amount of fuel. Further, all of the uranium cannot be converted in fission, again because of the critical mass problems after partial conversion.

MECHANICAL ENERGY

Mechanical energy: The form of energy that can be converted to mechanical work completely and directly by an ideal mechanical device such as an ideal turbine.

Kinetic and potential energies: The familiar forms of mechanical energy.

Mechanical energy of a flowing fluid per unit mass

$$e_{\text{mech}} = \frac{P}{\rho} + \frac{V^2}{2} + gz$$

Rate of mechanical energy of a flowing fluid

$$\dot{E}_{\text{mech}} = \dot{m}e_{\text{mech}} = \dot{m}\left(\frac{P}{\rho} + \frac{V^2}{2} + gz\right)$$

Mechanical energy change of a fluid during incompressible flow per unit mass

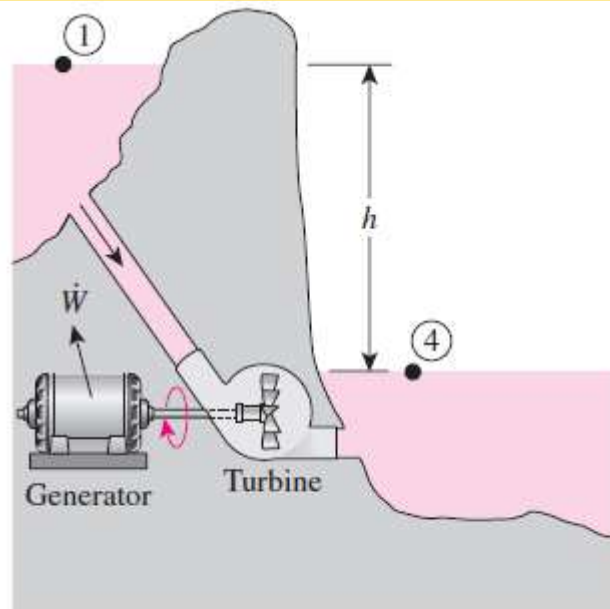
$$\Delta e_{\text{mech}} = \frac{P_2 - P_1}{\rho} + \frac{V_2^2 - V_1^2}{2} + g(z_2 - z_1) \quad (\text{kJ/kg})$$

Rate of mechanical energy change of a fluid during incompressible flow

$$\Delta \dot{E}_{\text{mech}} = \dot{m}\Delta e_{\text{mech}} = \dot{m}\left(\frac{P_2 - P_1}{\rho} + \frac{V_2^2 - V_1^2}{2} + g(z_2 - z_1)\right)$$

Mechanical energy is illustrated by an ideal hydraulic turbine coupled with an ideal generator. In the absence of irreversible losses, the maximum produced power is proportional to

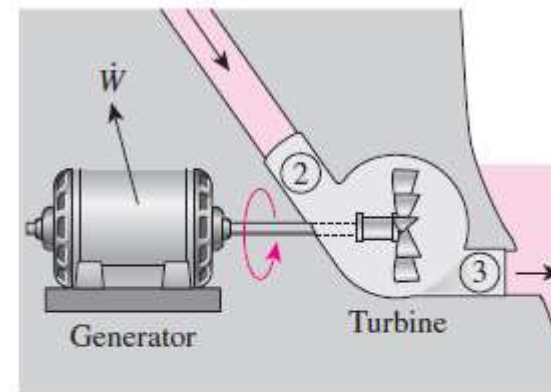
- (a) the change in water surface elevation from the upstream to the downstream reservoir
- (b) the drop in water pressure from just upstream to just downstream of the turbine.



$$\dot{W}_{\max} = \dot{m} \Delta e_{\text{mech}} = \dot{m} g(z_1 - z_4) = \dot{m} g h$$

since $P_1 \approx P_4 = P_{\text{atm}}$ and $V_1 = V_4 \approx 0$

(a)



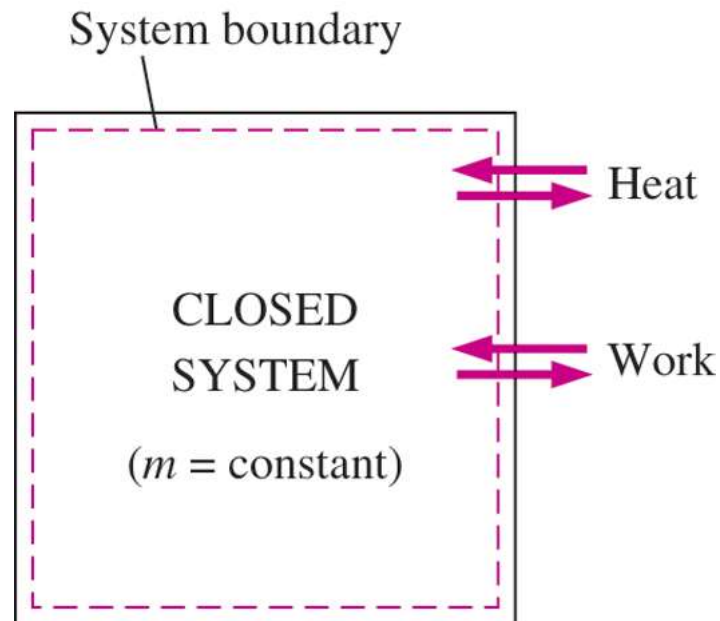
$$\dot{W}_{\max} = \dot{m} \Delta e_{\text{mech}} = \dot{m} \frac{(P_2 - P_3)}{\rho} = \dot{m} \frac{\Delta P}{\rho}$$

since $V_2 \approx V_3$ and $z_2 = z_3$

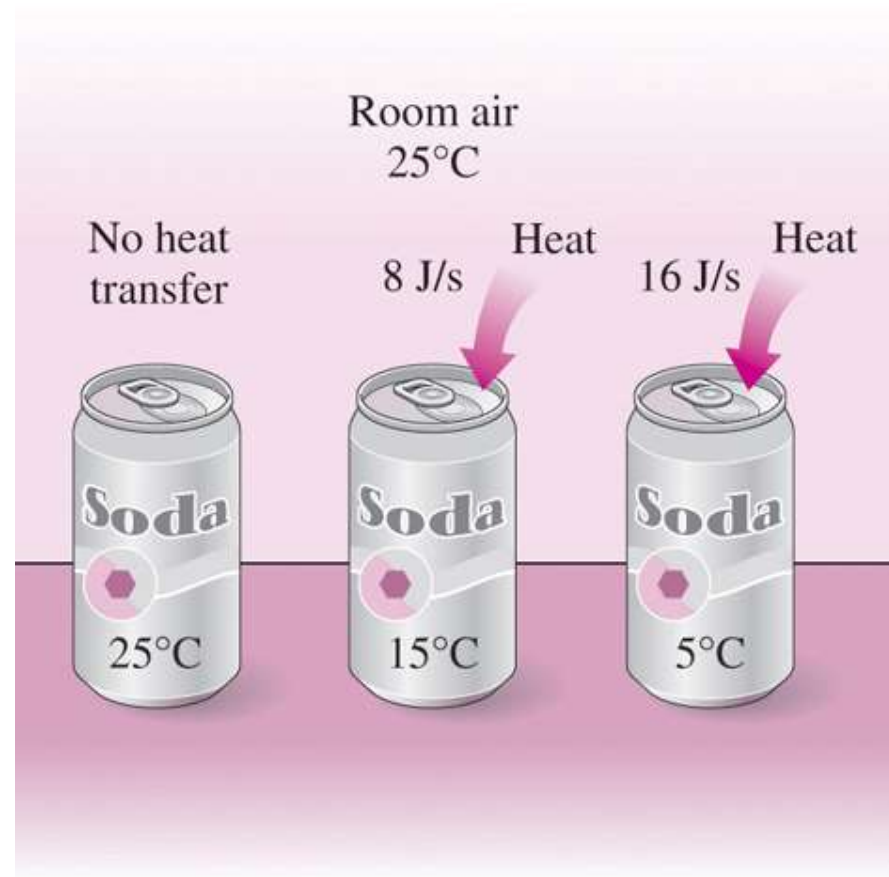
(b)

ENERGY TRANSFER BY HEAT

Heat: The form of energy that is transferred between two systems (or a system and its surroundings) by virtue of a temperature difference.



Energy can cross the boundaries of a closed system in the form of heat and work.



Temperature difference is the driving force for heat transfer. The larger the temperature difference, the higher is the rate of heat transfer.

Heat transfer per unit mass

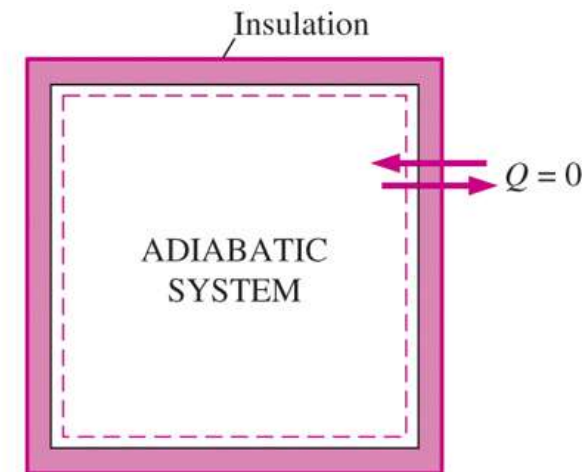
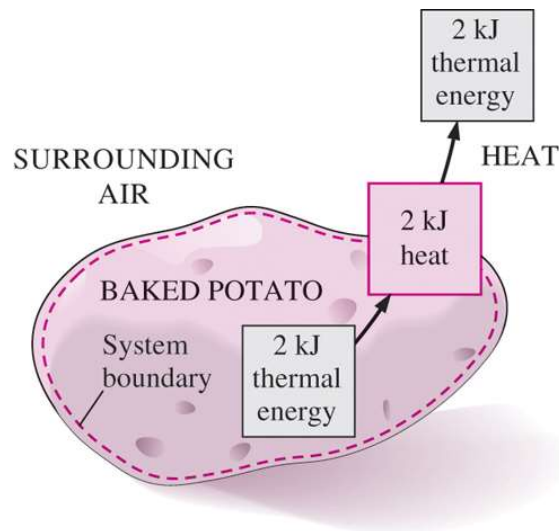
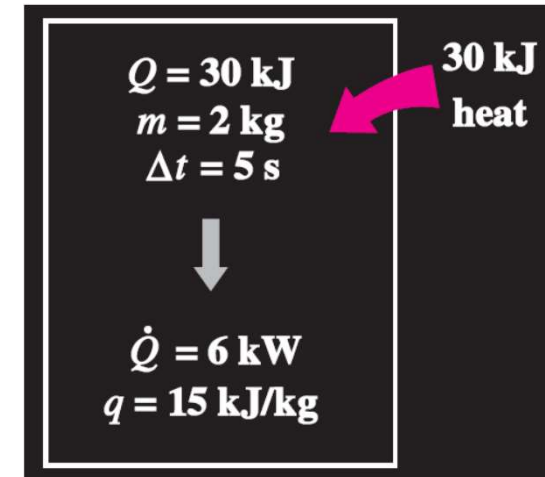
$$q = \frac{Q}{m} \quad (\text{kJ/kg})$$

Amount of heat transfer when heat transfer rate is constant

$$Q = \dot{Q} \Delta t \quad (\text{kJ})$$

Amount of heat transfer when heat transfer rate changes with time

$$Q = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} \dot{Q} dt$$



Energy is recognized as heat transfer only as it crosses the system boundary.

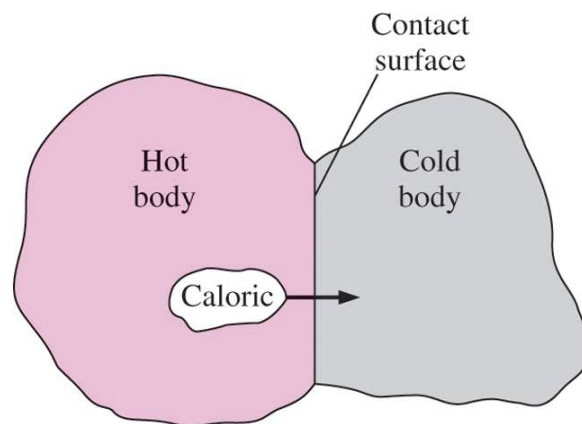
During an adiabatic process, a system exchanges no heat with its surroundings.

HISTORICAL BACKGROUND ON HEAT

- **Kinetic theory:** Treats molecules as tiny balls that are in motion and thus possess kinetic energy.
- **Heat:** The energy associated with the random motion of atoms and molecules.

Heat transfer mechanisms:

- **Conduction:** The transfer of energy from the more energetic particles of a substance to the adjacent less energetic ones as a result of interaction between particles.
- **Convection:** The transfer of energy between a solid surface and the adjacent fluid that is in motion, and it involves the combined effects of conduction and fluid motion.
- **Radiation:** The transfer of energy due to the emission of electromagnetic waves (or photons).



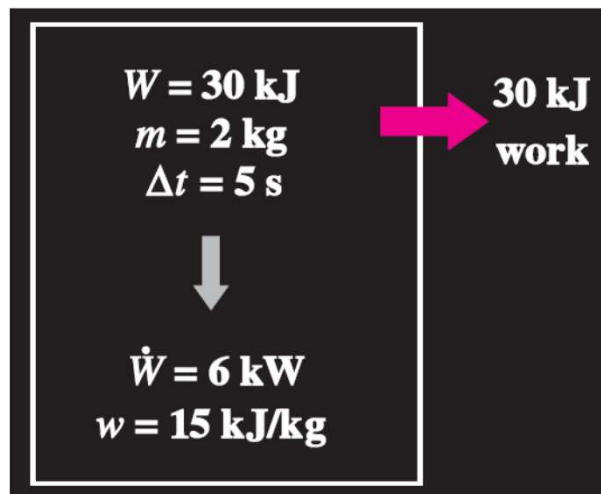
In the early nineteenth century, heat was thought to be an invisible fluid called the *caloric* that flowed from warmer bodies to the cooler ones.

ENERGY TRANSFER BY WORK

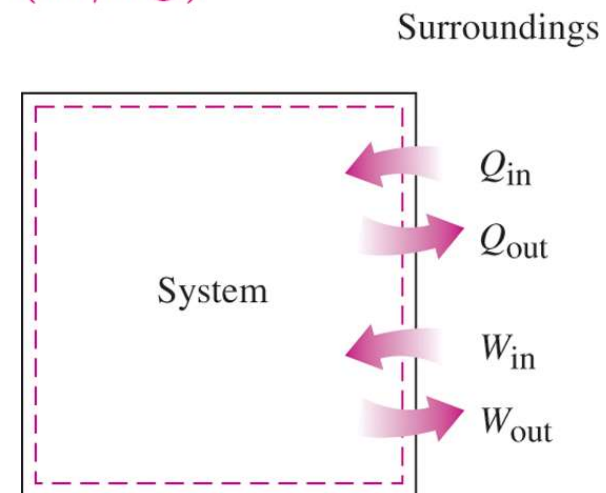
- **Work:** The energy transfer associated with a force acting through a distance.
 - **A rising piston, a rotating shaft, and an electric wire crossing the system boundaries** are all associated with work interactions
- **Formal sign convention:** *Heat transfer to a system and work done by a system are positive; heat transfer from a system and work done on a system are negative.*
- Alternative to sign convention is to use the subscripts **in** and **out** to indicate direction. This is the primary approach in this text.

Work done per unit mass

$$w = \frac{W}{m} \quad (\text{kJ/kg})$$



Power is the work done per unit time (kW)



Specifying the directions of heat and work.

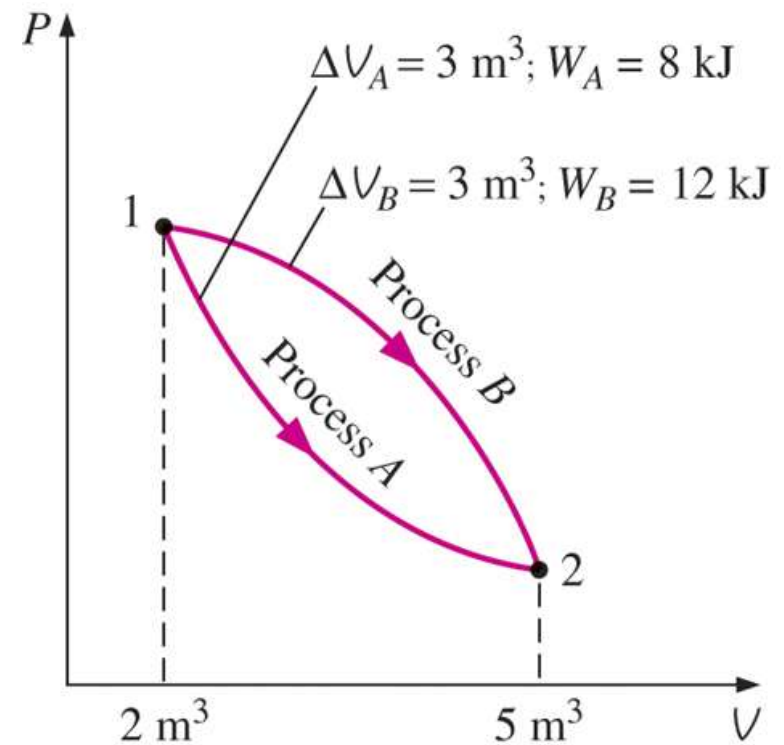
Heat versus Work

- Both are recognized at the boundaries of a system as they cross the boundaries. That is, both heat and work are **boundary** phenomena.
- Systems possess energy, but not heat or work.
- Both are associated with a **process**, not a state.
- Unlike properties, heat or work has no meaning at a state.
- Both are **path functions** (i.e., their magnitudes depend on the path followed during a process as well as the end states).

Properties are point functions have exact differentials (d).

$$\int_1^2 dV = V_2 - V_1 = \Delta V$$

Path functions have inexact differentials (δ)



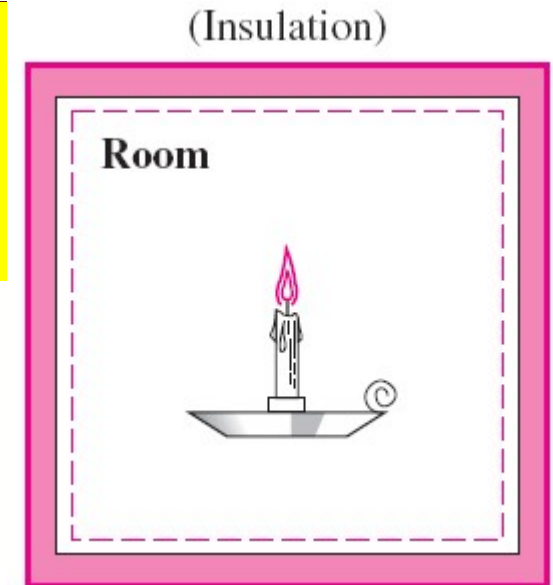
Properties are point functions; but heat and work are path functions (their magnitudes depend on the path followed).

$$\int_1^2 \delta W = W_{12} \quad (\text{not } \Delta W)$$

EXAMPLE 2-3

A candle is burning in a well-insulated room. Taking the room (the air plus the candle) as the system, determine (a) if there is any heat transfer during this burning process and (b) if there is any change in the internal energy of the system.

Solution A candle burning in a well-insulated room is considered. It is to be determined whether there is any heat transfer and any change in internal energy.



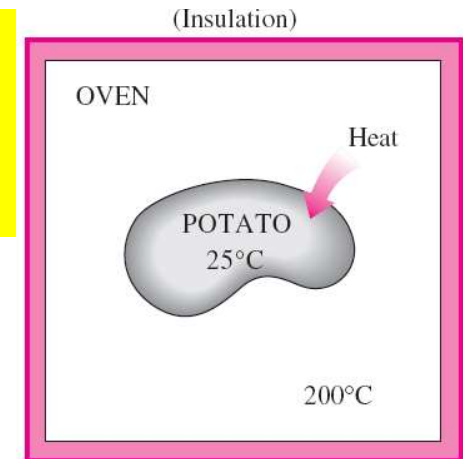
Analysis (a) The interior surfaces of the room form the system boundary, as indicated by the dashed lines in Figure. As pointed out earlier, heat is recognized as it crosses the boundaries. Since the room is well insulated, we have an adiabatic system and no heat will pass through the boundaries. Therefore, $Q = 0$ for this process.

(b) The internal energy involves energies that exist in various forms (sensible, latent, chemical, nuclear). During the process just described, part of the chemical energy is converted to sensible energy. Since there is no increase or decrease in the total internal energy of the system, $\Delta U = 0$ for this process.

EXAMPLE 2-4

A potato initially at room temperature (25°C) is being baked in an oven that is maintained at 200°C , as shown in Figure. Is there any heat transfer during this baking process?

Solution A potato is being baked in an oven. It is to be determined whether there is any heat transfer during this process.

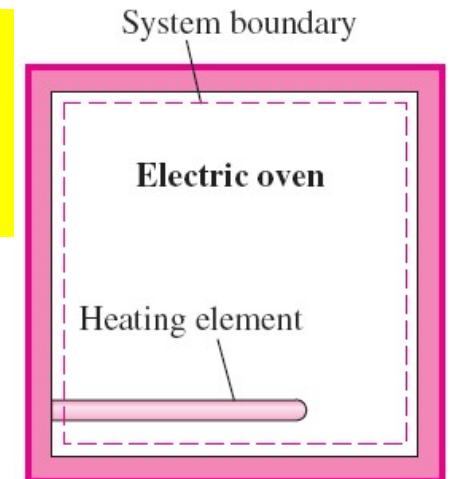


Analysis This is not a well-defined problem since the system is not specified. Let us assume that we are observing the potato, which will be our system. Then the skin of the potato can be viewed as the system boundary. Part of the energy in the oven will pass through the skin to the potato. Since the driving force for this energy transfer is a temperature difference, this is a heat transfer process.

EXAMPLE 2-5

A well-insulated electric oven is being heated through its heating element. If the entire oven, including the heating element, is taken to be the system, determine whether this is a heat or work interaction.

Solution A well-insulated electric oven is being heated by its heating element. It is to be determined whether this is a heat or work interaction.

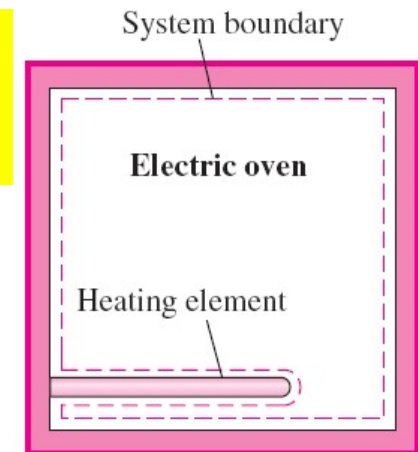


Analysis For this problem, the interior surfaces of the oven form the system boundary, as shown in Figure. The energy content of the oven obviously increases during this process, as evidenced by a rise in temperature. This energy transfer to the oven is not caused by a temperature difference between the oven and the surrounding air. Instead, it is caused by *electrons* crossing the system boundary and thus doing work. Therefore, this is a work interaction.

EXAMPLE 2-6

Answer the question in Example 2–5 if the system is taken as only the air in the oven without the heating element.

Solution The question in Example 2–5 is to be reconsidered by taking the system to be the air in the oven only.



Analysis This time, the system boundary will include the outer surface of the heating element and will not cut through it, as shown in Figure. Therefore, no electrons will be crossing the system boundary at any point. Instead, the energy generated in the interior of the heating element will be transferred to the air around it as a result of the temperature difference between the heating element and the air in the oven. Therefore, this is a heat transfer process.

Discussion For both cases, the amount of energy transfer to the air is the same. These two examples show that the same interaction can be heat or work, depending on how the system is selected.

ELECTRICAL WORK

Electrical work

$$W_e = \mathbf{V}N$$

Electrical power

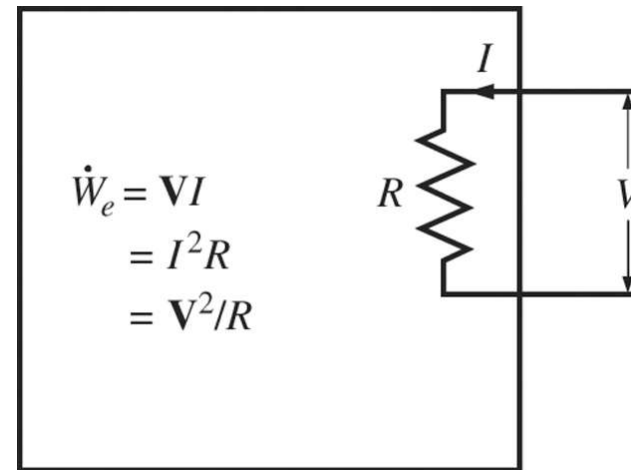
$$\dot{W}_e = \mathbf{V}I \quad (\text{W})$$

When potential difference and current change with time

$$W_e = \int_1^2 \mathbf{V}I \, dt \quad (\text{kJ})$$

When potential difference and current remain constant

$$W_e = \mathbf{V}I \, \Delta t \quad (\text{kJ})$$



Electrical power in terms of resistance R , current I , and potential difference V .

MECHANICAL FORMS OF WORK

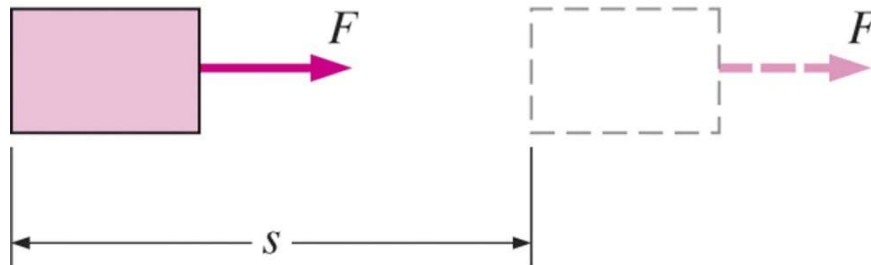
- There are two requirements for a work interaction between a system and its surroundings to exist:
 - there must be a **force** acting on the boundary.
 - the boundary must **move**.

Work = Force \times Distance

$$W = Fs \quad (\text{kJ})$$

When force is not constant

$$W = \int_1^2 F \, ds \quad (\text{kJ})$$



The work done is proportional to the force applied (F) and the distance traveled (s).



If there is no movement, no work is done.

SHAFT WORK

A force F acting through a moment arm r generates a torque T

$$T = Fr \rightarrow F = \frac{T}{r}$$

This force acts through a distance s

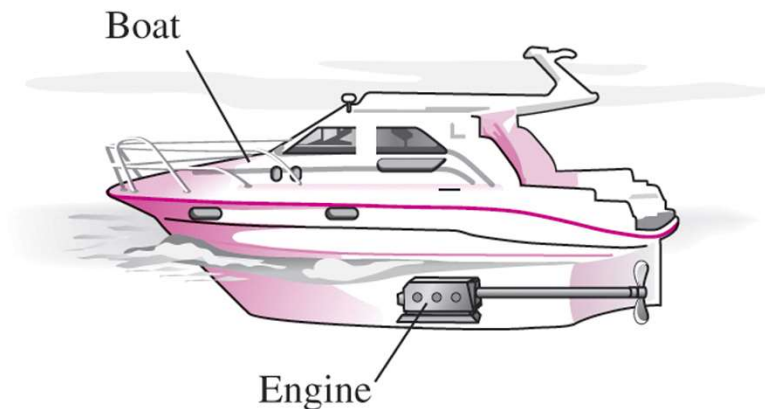
$$s = (2\pi r)n$$

Shaft work

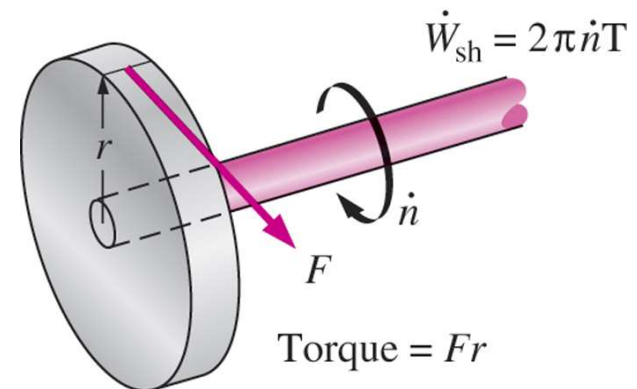
$$W_{\text{sh}} = Fs = \left(\frac{T}{r}\right)(2\pi rn) = 2\pi nT \quad (\text{kJ})$$

The power transmitted through the shaft is the shaft work done per unit time

$$\dot{W}_{\text{sh}} = 2\pi \dot{n}T \quad (\text{kW})$$



Energy transmission through rotating shafts is commonly encountered in practice.

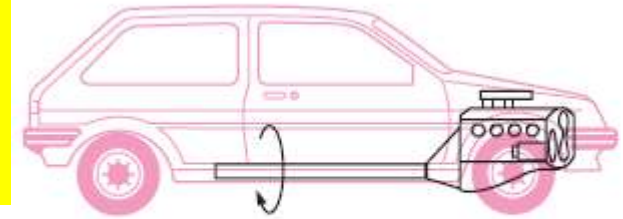


Shaft work is proportional to the torque applied and the number of revolutions of the shaft.

EXAMPLE 2-7

Determine the power transmitted through the shaft of a car when the torque applied is $200 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}$ and the shaft rotates at a rate of 4000 revolutions per minute (rpm).

Solution The torque and the rpm for a car engine are given. The power transmitted is to be determined.



$$\begin{aligned}\dot{W}_{\text{sh}} &= 2\pi nT = (2\pi) \left(4000 \frac{1}{\text{min}} \right) (200 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}) \left(\frac{1 \text{ min}}{60 \text{ s}} \right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ kJ}}{1000 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}} \right) \\ &= \mathbf{83.8 \text{ kW}} \quad (\text{or } 112 \text{ hp})\end{aligned}$$

Discussion Note that power transmitted by a shaft is proportional to torque and the rotational speed.

SPRING WORK

When the length of the spring changes by a differential amount dx under the influence of a force F , the work done is

$$\delta W_{\text{spring}} = F dx$$

Substituting and integrating yield

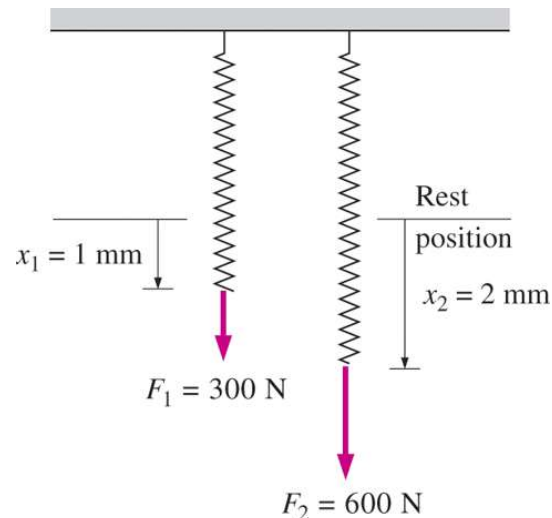
$$W_{\text{spring}} = \frac{1}{2}k(x_2^2 - x_1^2) \quad (\text{kJ})$$

x_1 and x_2 : the initial and the final displacements

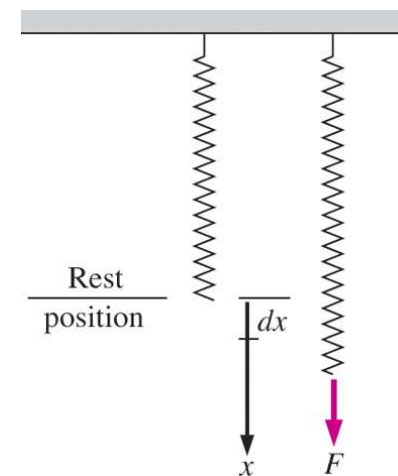
For linear elastic springs, the displacement x is proportional to the force applied

$$F = kx \quad (\text{kN})$$

k : spring constant (kN/m)



The displacement of a linear spring doubles when the force is doubled.



Elongation of a spring under the influence of a force.

WORK DONE TO RAISE OR TO ACCELERATE A BODY

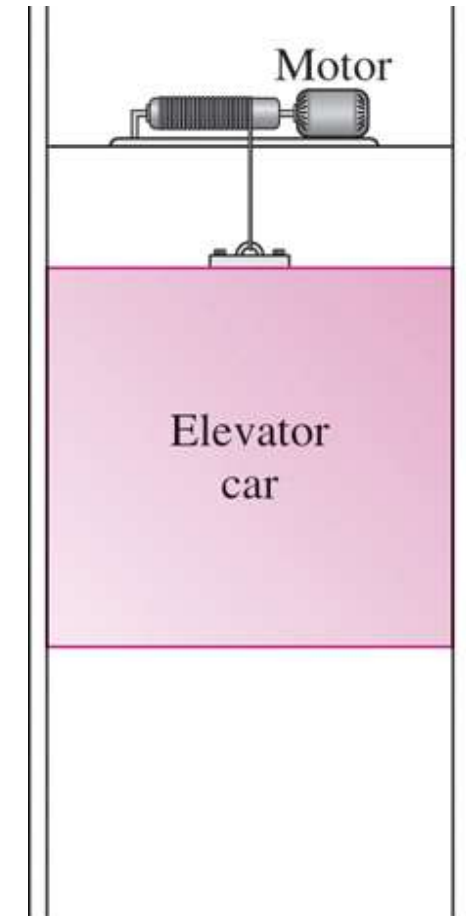
1. The work transfer needed to raise a body is equal to the change in the potential energy of the body.
2. The work transfer needed to accelerate a body is equal to the change in the kinetic energy of the body.

Non-mechanical Forms of Work

Electrical work: The generalized force is the *voltage* (the electrical potential) and the generalized displacement is the *electrical charge*.

Magnetic work: The generalized force is the *magnetic field strength* and the generalized displacement is the total *magnetic dipole moment*.

Electrical polarization work: The generalized force is the *electric field strength* and the generalized displacement is the *polarization of the medium*.



The energy transferred to a body while being raised is equal to the change in its potential energy.

EXAMPLE 2-8

Consider a 1200-kg car cruising steadily on a level road at 90 km/h. Now the car starts climbing a hill that is sloped 30° from the horizontal. If the velocity of the car is to remain constant during climbing, determine the additional power that must be delivered by the engine.

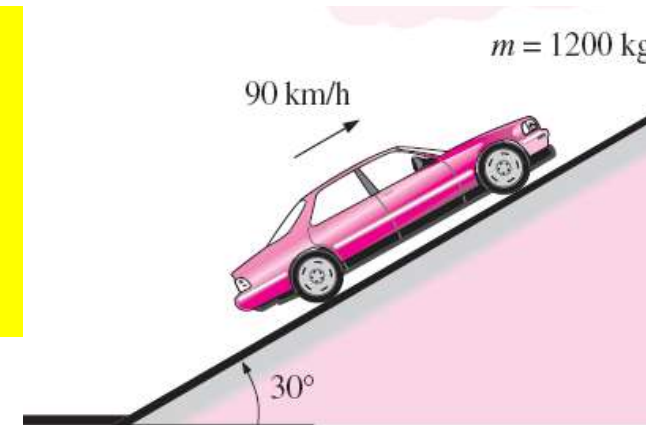
Solution A car is to climb a hill while maintaining a constant velocity. The additional power needed is to be determined.

Analysis The additional power required is simply the work that needs to be done per unit time to raise the elevation of the car, which is equal to the change in the potential energy of the car per unit time:

$$\dot{W}_g = mg \Delta z / \Delta t = mgV_{\text{vertical}}$$

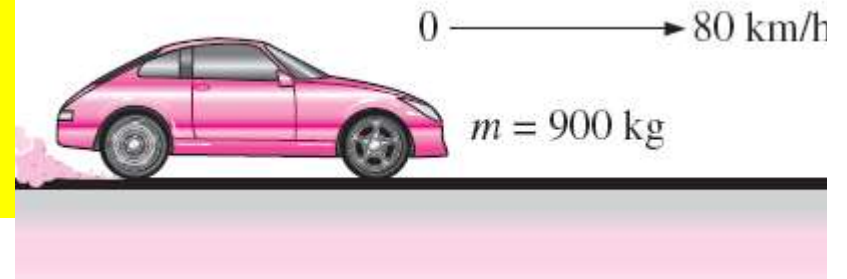
$$\begin{aligned} &= (1200 \text{ kg})(9.81 \text{ m/s}^2)(90 \text{ km/h})(\sin 30^\circ) \left(\frac{1 \text{ m/s}}{3.6 \text{ km/h}} \right) \left(\frac{1 \text{ kJ/kg}}{1000 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2} \right) \\ &= 147 \text{ kJ/s} = \mathbf{147 \text{ kW}} \quad (\text{or } 197 \text{ hp}) \end{aligned}$$

Discussion Note that the car engine will have to produce almost 200 hp of additional power while climbing the hill if the car is to maintain its velocity.



EXAMPLE 2-9

Determine the power required to accelerate a 900-kg car shown in Figure from rest to a velocity of 80 km/h in 20 s on a level road.



Solution The power required to accelerate a car to a specified velocity is to be determined.

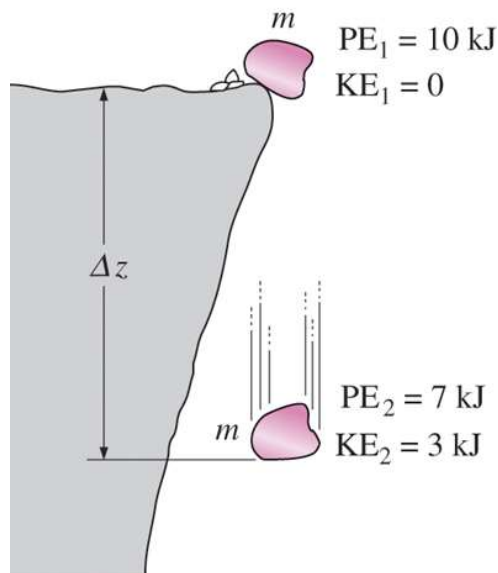
$$W_a = \frac{1}{2}m(V_2^2 - V_1^2) = \frac{1}{2}(900 \text{ kg}) \left[\left(\frac{80,000 \text{ m}}{3600 \text{ s}} \right)^2 - 0^2 \right] \left(\frac{1 \text{ kJ/kg}}{1000 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2} \right)$$
$$= 222 \text{ kJ}$$

$$\dot{W}_a = \frac{W_a}{\Delta t} = \frac{222 \text{ kJ}}{20 \text{ s}} = \mathbf{11.1 \text{ kW}} \quad (\text{or } 14.9 \text{ hp})$$

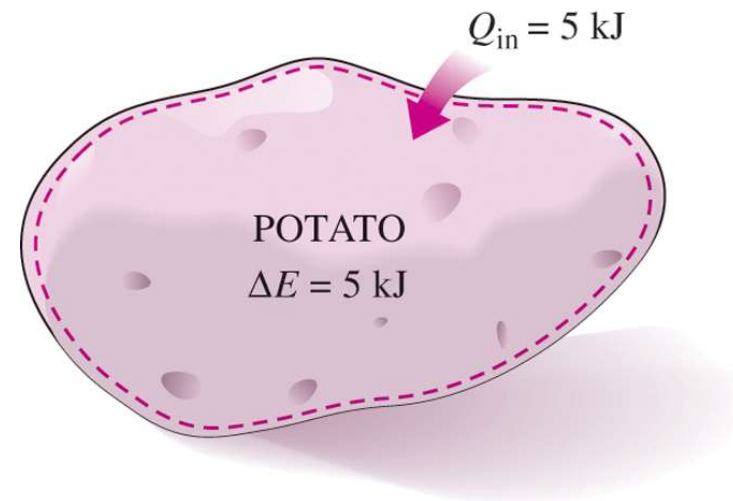
Discussion This is in addition to the power required to overcome friction, rolling resistance, and other imperfections.

THE FIRST LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS

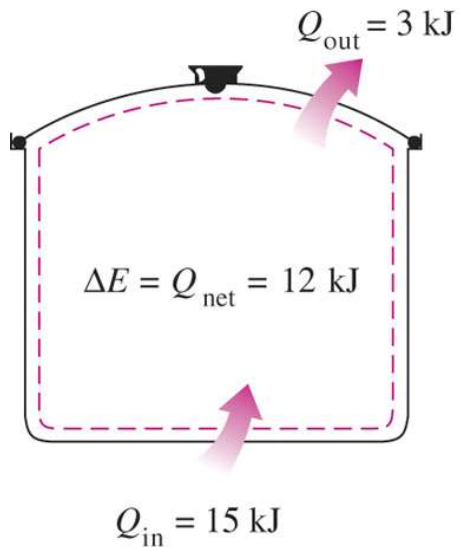
- **The first law of thermodynamics (the conservation of energy principle)** provides a sound basis for studying the relationships among the various forms of energy and energy interactions.
- The first law states that **energy can be neither created nor destroyed during a process; it can only change forms.**
- **The First Law:** For all adiabatic processes between two specified states of a closed system, the net work done is the same regardless of the nature of the closed system and the details of the process.



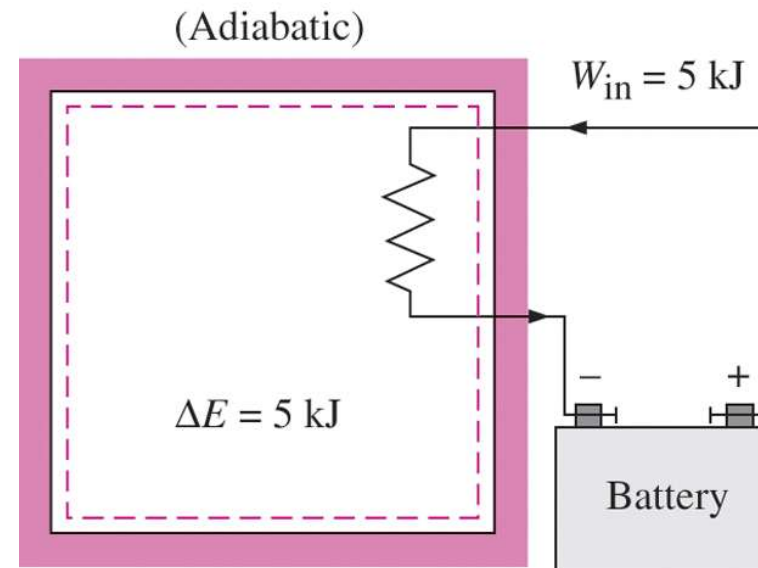
Energy cannot be created or destroyed; it can only change forms.



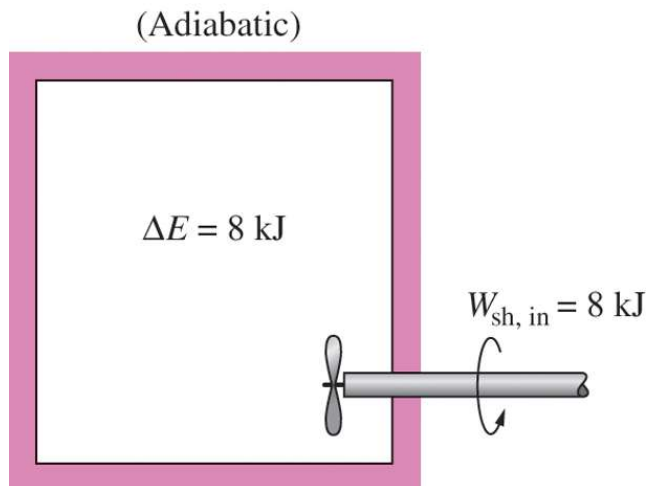
The increase in the energy of a potato in an oven is equal to the amount of heat transferred to it.



In the absence of any work interactions, the energy change of a system is equal to the net heat transfer.



The work (electrical) done on an adiabatic system is equal to the increase in the energy of the system.



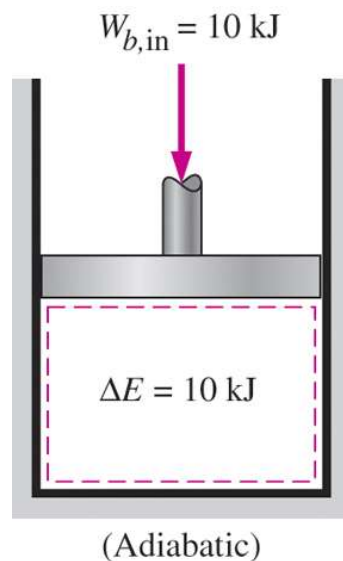
The work (shaft) done on an adiabatic system is equal to the increase in the energy of the system.

ENERGY BALANCE

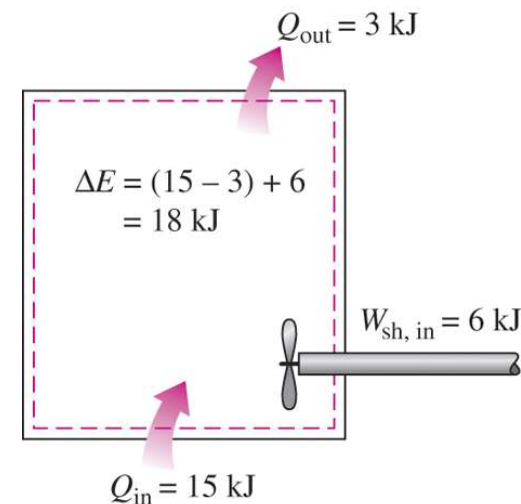
The net change (increase or decrease) in the total energy of the system during a process is equal to the difference between the total energy entering and the total energy leaving the system during that process.

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Total energy} \\ \text{entering the system} \end{array} \right) - \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Total energy} \\ \text{leaving the system} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{Change in the total} \\ \text{energy of the system} \end{array} \right)$$

$$E_{\text{in}} - E_{\text{out}} = \Delta E_{\text{system}}$$



The work (boundary) done on an adiabatic system is equal to the increase in the energy of the system.



The energy change of a system during a process is equal to the *net* work and heat transfer between the system and its surroundings.

ENERGY CHANGE OF A SYSTEM, ΔE_{SYSTEM}

Energy change = Energy at final state – Energy at initial state

$$\Delta E_{\text{system}} = E_{\text{final}} - E_{\text{initial}} = E_2 - E_1$$

$$\Delta E = \Delta U + \Delta \text{KE} + \Delta \text{PE}$$

Internal, kinetic, and potential energy changes

$$\Delta U = m(u_2 - u_1)$$

$$\Delta \text{KE} = \frac{1}{2}m(V_2^2 - V_1^2)$$

$$\Delta \text{PE} = mg(z_2 - z_1)$$

Stationary Systems

$$z_1 = z_2 \rightarrow \Delta \text{PE} = 0$$

$$V_1 = V_2 \rightarrow \Delta \text{KE} = 0$$

$$\Delta E = \Delta U$$

MECHANISMS OF ENERGY TRANSFER, E_{in} AND E_{out}

$$E_{\text{in}} - E_{\text{out}} = (Q_{\text{in}} - Q_{\text{out}}) + (W_{\text{in}} - W_{\text{out}}) + (E_{\text{mass, in}} - E_{\text{mass, out}}) = \Delta E_{\text{system}}$$

Heat transfer Work transfer Mass flow

$$\underbrace{E_{\text{in}} - E_{\text{out}}}_{\text{Net energy transfer by heat, work, and mass}} = \underbrace{\Delta E_{\text{system}}}_{\text{Change in internal, kinetic, potential, etc., energies}} \quad (\text{kJ})$$

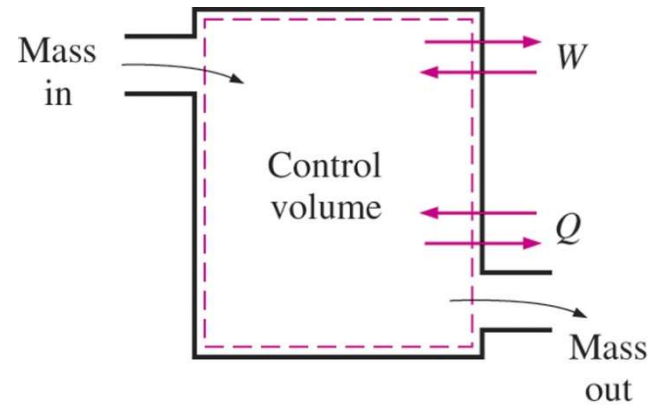
$$\underbrace{\dot{E}_{\text{in}} - \dot{E}_{\text{out}}}_{\text{Rate of net energy transfer by heat, work, and mass}} = \underbrace{dE_{\text{system}}/dt}_{\text{Rate of change in internal, kinetic, potential, etc., energies}} \quad (\text{kW})$$

A closed mass involves only *heat transfer* and *work*.

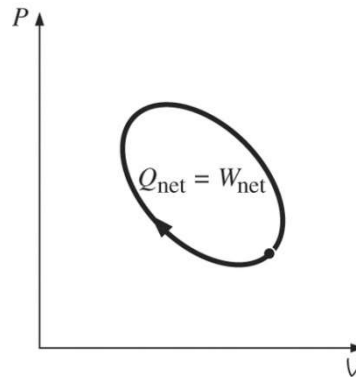
$$Q = \dot{Q} \Delta t, \quad W = \dot{W} \Delta t, \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta E = (dE/dt) \Delta t \quad (\text{kJ})$$

$$e_{\text{in}} - e_{\text{out}} = \Delta e_{\text{system}} \quad (\text{kJ/kg})$$

$$\delta E_{\text{in}} - \delta E_{\text{out}} = dE_{\text{system}} \quad \text{or} \quad \delta e_{\text{in}} - \delta e_{\text{out}} = de_{\text{system}}$$



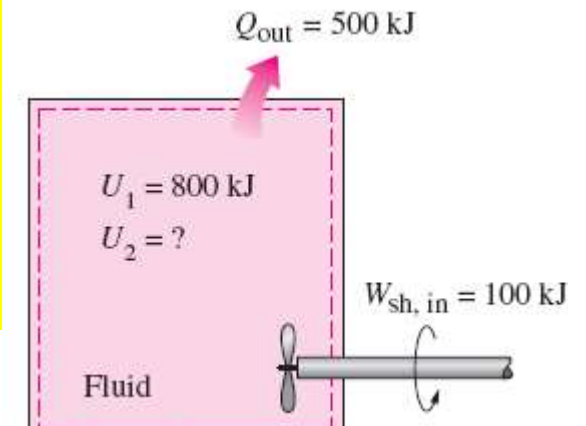
The energy content of a control volume can be changed by mass flow as well as heat and work interactions.



For a cycle $\Delta E = 0$, thus $Q = W$.

EXAMPLE 2-10

A rigid tank contains a hot fluid that is cooled while being stirred by a paddle wheel. Initially, the internal energy of the fluid is 800 kJ. During the cooling process, the fluid loses 500 kJ of heat, and the paddle wheel does 100 kJ of work on the fluid. Determine the final internal energy of the fluid. Neglect the energy stored in the paddle wheel.



Solution A fluid in a rigid tank loses heat while being stirred. The final internal energy of the fluid is to be determined.

Assumptions 1 The tank is stationary and the kinetic and potential energy changes are zero $KE=PE=0$. Therefore $\Delta E=\Delta U$ and internal energy is the only form of the system's energy that may change during this process. 2 Energy stored in the paddle wheel is negligible.

$$\underbrace{E_{\text{in}} - E_{\text{out}}}_{\text{Net energy transfer by heat, work, and mass}} = \underbrace{\Delta E_{\text{system}}}_{\text{Change in internal, kinetic, potential, etc., energies}}$$

$$W_{\text{sh, in}} - Q_{\text{out}} = \Delta U = U_2 - U_1$$

$$100 \text{ kJ} - 500 \text{ kJ} = U_2 - 800 \text{ kJ}$$

$$U_2 = 400 \text{ kJ}$$

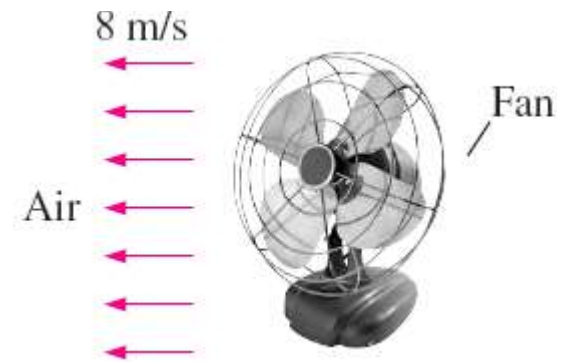
Therefore, the final internal energy of the system is 400 kJ.

EXAMPLE 2-11

A fan that consumes 20 W of electric power when operating is claimed to discharge air from a ventilated room at a rate of 1 kg/s at a discharge velocity of 8 m/s. Determine if this claim is reasonable.

Solution A fan is claimed to increase the velocity of air to a specified value while consuming electric power at a specified rate. The validity of this claim is to be investigated.

Assumptions The ventilating room is relatively calm, and air velocity in it is negligible.



$$\underbrace{\dot{E}_{\text{in}} - \dot{E}_{\text{out}}}_{\text{Rate of net energy transfer by heat, work, and mass}} = \underbrace{\frac{dE_{\text{system}}}{dt}}_{\text{Rate of change in internal, kinetic, potential, etc., energies}} \xrightarrow{0 \text{ (steady)}} 0 \rightarrow \dot{E}_{\text{in}} = \dot{E}_{\text{out}}$$

$$\dot{W}_{\text{elect, in}} = \dot{m}_{\text{air}} ke_{\text{out}} = \dot{m}_{\text{air}} \frac{V_{\text{out}}^2}{2}$$

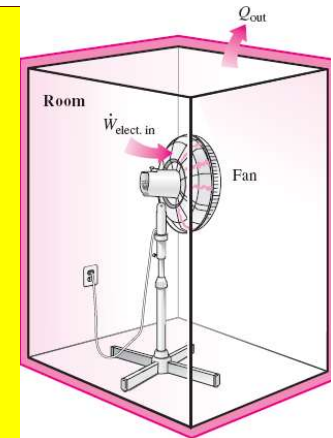
$$V_{\text{out}} = \sqrt{\frac{2\dot{W}_{\text{elect, in}}}{\dot{m}_{\text{air}}}} = \sqrt{\frac{2(20 \text{ J/s})}{1.0 \text{ kg/s}} \left(\frac{1 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2}{1 \text{ J/kg}} \right)} = 6.3 \text{ m/s}$$

which is less than 8 m/s. Therefore, the claim is **false**.

Discussion There is nothing wrong with the conversion of the entire electrical energy into kinetic energy. Therefore, the first law has no objection to air velocity reaching 6.3 m/s but this is the upper limit. Any claim of higher velocity is in violation of the first law, and thus impossible. In reality, the air velocity will be considerably lower than 6.3 m/s because of the losses associated with the conversion of electrical energy to mechanical shaft energy, and the conversion of mechanical shaft energy to kinetic energy of air.

EXAMPLE 2-12

A room is initially at the outdoor temperature of 25°C. Now a large fan that consumes 200 W of electricity when running is turned on. The heat transfer rate between the room and the outdoor air is given as $\dot{Q} = UA(T_i - T_o)$ where $U = 6$ W/m² °C is the overall heat transfer coefficient, $A = 30$ m² is the exposed surface area of the room, and T_i and T_o are the indoor and outdoor air temperatures, respectively. Determine the indoor air temperature when steady operating conditions are established.



Solution A large fan is turned on and kept on in a room that loses heat to the outdoors. The indoor air temperature is to be determined when steady operation is reached.

Assumptions 1 Heat transfer through the floor is negligible.

$$\underbrace{\dot{E}_{\text{in}} - \dot{E}_{\text{out}}}_{\text{Rate of net energy transfer by heat, work, and mass}} = \underbrace{dE_{\text{system}} / dt}_{\text{Rate of change in internal, kinetic, potential, etc., energies}} \xrightarrow{0 \text{ (steady)}} = 0 \rightarrow \dot{E}_{\text{in}} = \dot{E}_{\text{out}}$$

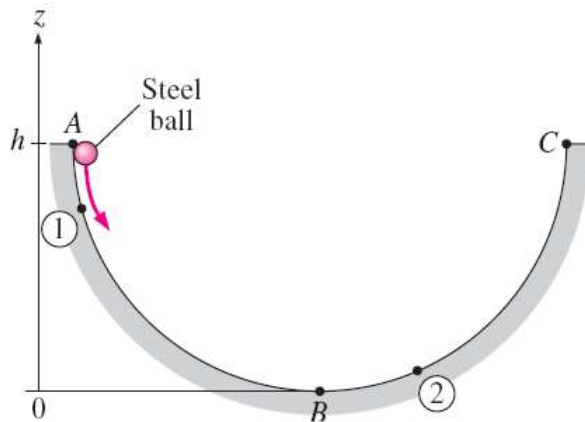
$$\dot{W}_{\text{elect, in}} = \dot{Q}_{\text{out}} = UA(T_i - T_o) \quad 200 \text{ W} = (6 \text{ W/m}^2 \cdot ^\circ\text{C})(30 \text{ m}^2)(T_i - 25^\circ\text{C})$$

$$T_i = 26.1^\circ\text{C}$$

Discussion The motor converts part of the electric energy it draws to mechanical energy in the form of a rotating shaft while the remaining part is dissipated as heat to the room air because of the motor inefficiency. Part of the mechanical energy of the shaft is converted to kinetic energy of air through the blades, which is then converted to thermal energy as air molecules slow down because of friction. The entire electric energy drawn by the fan motor is converted to thermal energy of air, which manifests itself as a rise in temperature.

EXAMPLE 2-14

The motion of a steel ball in a hemispherical bowl of radius h is to be analyzed. The ball is initially held at the highest location at point A, and then it is released. Obtain relations for the conservation of energy of the ball for the cases of frictionless and actual motions.



Solution A steel ball is released in a bowl. Relations for the energy balance are to be obtained.

Assumptions The motion is frictionless, and thus friction between the ball, the bowl, and the air is negligible.

$$\underbrace{E_{\text{in}} - E_{\text{out}}}_{\text{Net energy transfer by heat, work, and mass}} = \underbrace{\Delta E_{\text{system}}}_{\text{Change in internal, kinetic, potential, etc., energies}}$$

$$-w_{\text{friction}} = (ke_2 + pe_2) - (ke_1 + pe_1)$$

$$\frac{V_1^2}{2} + gz_1 = \frac{V_2^2}{2} + gz_2 + w_{\text{friction}}$$

For the idealized case of frictionless motion

$$\frac{V_1^2}{2} + gz_1 = \frac{V_2^2}{2} + gz_2 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{V^2}{2} + gz = C = \text{constant}$$

Discussion This is certainly a more intuitive and convenient form of the conservation of energy equation for this and other similar processes such as the swinging motion of the pendulum of a wall clock.

ENERGY CONVERSION EFFICIENCIES

Efficiency is one of the most frequently used terms in thermodynamics, and it indicates how well an energy conversion or transfer process is accomplished.



The definition of performance is not limited to thermodynamics only.

$$\text{Performance} = \frac{\text{Desired output}}{\text{Required input}}$$

Efficiency of a water heater: The ratio of the energy delivered to the house by hot water to the energy supplied to the water heater.

Type	Efficiency
Gas, conventional	55%
Gas, high-efficiency	62%
Electric, conventional	90%
Electric, high-efficiency	94%

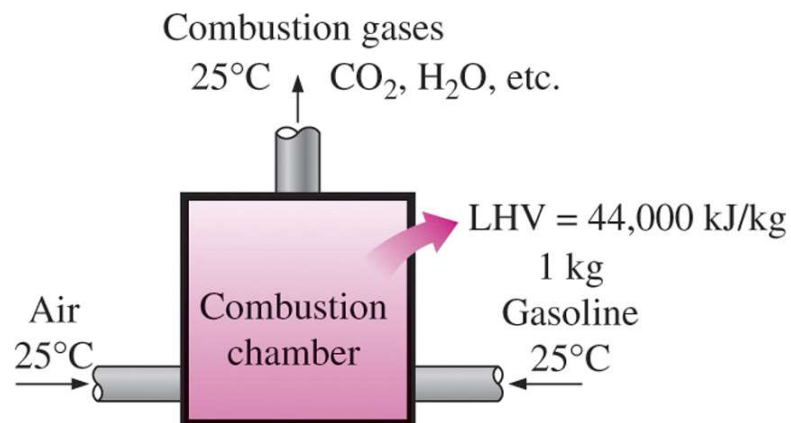


$$\eta_{\text{combustion}} = \frac{Q}{\text{HV}} = \frac{\text{Amount of heat released during combustion}}{\text{Heating value of the fuel burned}}$$

Heating value of the fuel: The amount of heat released when a unit amount of fuel at room temperature is completely burned and the combustion products are cooled to the room temperature.

Lower heating value (LHV): When the water leaves as a vapor.

Higher heating value (HHV): When the water in the combustion gases is completely condensed and thus the heat of vaporization is also recovered.



The definition of the heating value of gasoline.

The efficiency of space heating systems of residential and commercial buildings is usually expressed in terms of the **annual fuel utilization efficiency (AFUE)**, which accounts for the combustion efficiency as well as other losses such as heat losses to unheated areas and start-up and cooldown losses.

- **Generator:** A device that converts mechanical energy to electrical energy.
- **Generator efficiency:** The ratio of the electrical power output to the mechanical power input.
- **Thermal efficiency of a power plant:** The ratio of the net electrical power output to the rate of fuel energy input.

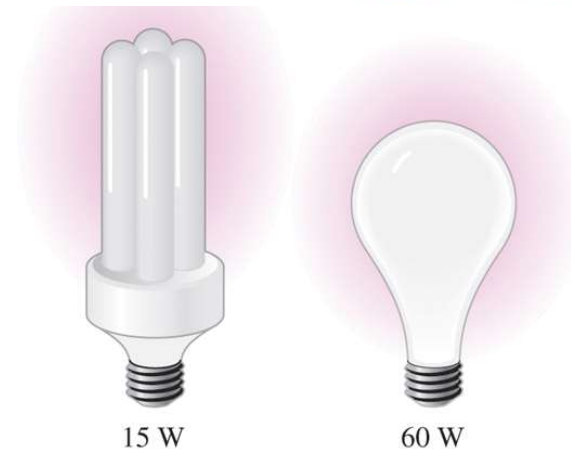
Overall efficiency of a power plant

$$\eta_{\text{overall}} = \eta_{\text{combustion}} \eta_{\text{thermal}} \eta_{\text{generator}} = \frac{\dot{W}_{\text{net, electric}}}{\text{HHV} \times \dot{m}_{\text{net}}}$$

The efficacy of different lighting systems

Type of lighting	Efficacy, lumens/W
<i>Combustion</i>	
Candle	0.2
<i>Incandescent</i>	
Ordinary	6–20
Halogen	16–25
<i>Fluorescent</i>	
Ordinary	40–60
High output	70–90
Compact	50–80
<i>High-intensity discharge</i>	
Mercury vapor	50–60
Metal halide	56–125
High-pressure sodium	100–150
Low-pressure sodium	up to 200

Lighting efficacy:
The amount of light output in lumens per W of electricity consumed.



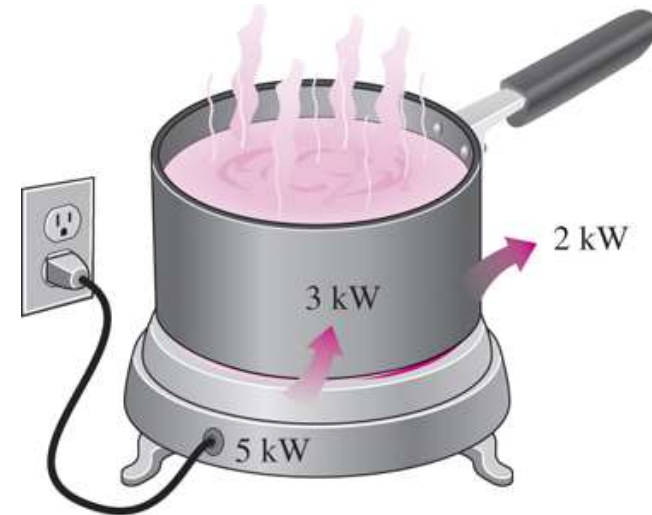
A 15-W compact fluorescent lamp provides as much light as a 60-W incandescent lamp.

Energy costs of cooking a casserole with different appliances*

[From A. Wilson and J. Morril, *Consumer Guide to Home Energy Savings*, Washington, DC: American Council for an Energy-Efficient Economy, 1996, p. 192.]

Cooking appliance	Cooking temperature	Cooking time	Energy used	Cost of energy
Electric oven	350°F (177°C)	1 h	2.0 kWh	\$0.16
Convection oven (elect.)	325°F (163°C)	45 min	1.39 kWh	\$0.11
Gas oven	350°F (177°C)	1 h	0.112 therm	\$0.07
Frying pan	420°F (216°C)	1 h	0.9 kWh	\$0.07
Toaster oven	425°F (218°C)	50 min	0.95 kWh	\$0.08
Crockpot	200°F (93°C)	7 h	0.7 kWh	\$0.06
Microwave oven	"High"	15 min	0.36 kWh	\$0.03

- Using energy-efficient appliances **conserve energy**.
- It helps the **environment** by reducing the amount of pollutants emitted to the atmosphere during the combustion of fuel.
- The combustion of fuel produces
 - **carbon dioxide**, causes global warming
 - **nitrogen oxides** and **hydrocarbons**, cause smog
 - **carbon monoxide**, toxic
 - **sulfur dioxide**, causes acid rain.



$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\text{Energy utilized}}{\text{Energy supplied to appliance}}$$

$$= \frac{3 \text{ kWh}}{5 \text{ kWh}} = 0.60$$

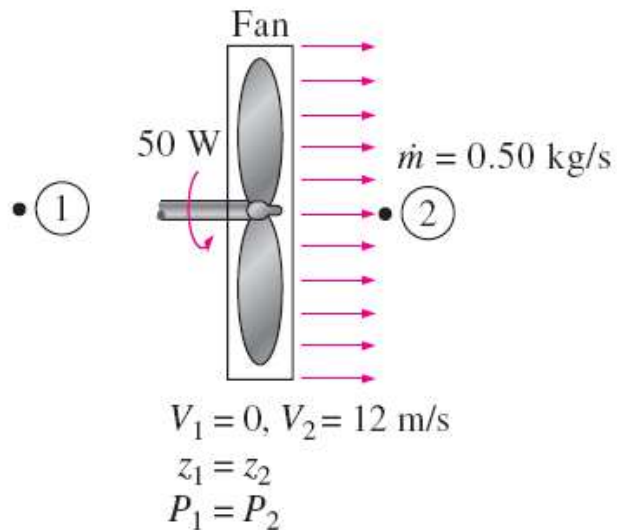
The efficiency of a cooking appliance represents the fraction of the energy supplied to the appliance that is transferred to the food.

EFFICIENCIES OF MECHANICAL AND ELECTRICAL DEVICES

Mechanical efficiency

$$\eta_{\text{mech}} = \frac{\text{Mechanical energy output}}{\text{Mechanical energy input}} = \frac{E_{\text{mech, out}}}{E_{\text{mech, in}}} = 1 - \frac{E_{\text{mech, loss}}}{E_{\text{mech, in}}}$$

The effectiveness of the conversion process between the mechanical work supplied or extracted and the mechanical energy of the fluid is expressed by the **pump efficiency** and **turbine efficiency**.



$$\begin{aligned} \eta_{\text{mech, fan}} &= \frac{\Delta \dot{E}_{\text{mech, fluid}}}{\dot{W}_{\text{shaft, in}}} = \frac{\dot{m} V_2^2 / 2}{\dot{W}_{\text{shaft, in}}} \\ &= \frac{(0.50 \text{ kg/s})(12 \text{ m/s})^2 / 2}{50 \text{ W}} \\ &= 0.72 \end{aligned}$$

$$\eta_{\text{pump}} = \frac{\text{Mechanical energy increase of the fluid}}{\text{Mechanical energy input}} = \frac{\Delta \dot{E}_{\text{mech, fluid}}}{\dot{W}_{\text{shaft, in}}} = \frac{\dot{W}_{\text{pump, in}}}{\dot{W}_{\text{pump}}}$$

$$\eta_{\text{turbine}} = \frac{\text{Mechanical energy output}}{\text{Mechanical energy decrease of the fluid}} = \frac{\dot{W}_{\text{shaft, out}}}{|\Delta \dot{E}_{\text{mech, fluid}}|} = \frac{\dot{W}_{\text{turbine}}}{\dot{W}_{\text{turbine, e}}}$$

The mechanical efficiency of a fan is the ratio of the kinetic energy of air at the fan exit to the mechanical power input.

Pump efficiency

Motor:

$$\eta_{\text{motor}} = \frac{\text{Mechanical power output}}{\text{Electric power input}} = \frac{\dot{W}_{\text{shaft, out}}}{\dot{W}_{\text{elect, in}}}$$

Generator efficiency

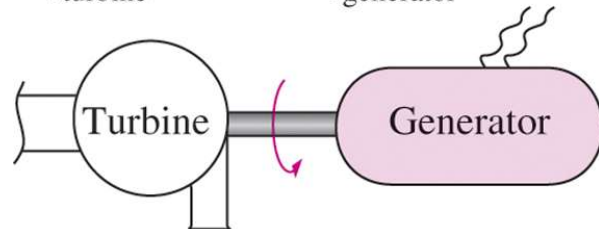
Generator:

$$\eta_{\text{generator}} = \frac{\text{Electric power output}}{\text{Mechanical power input}} = \frac{\dot{W}_{\text{elect, out}}}{\dot{W}_{\text{shaft, in}}}$$

Pump-Motor overall efficiency

$$\eta_{\text{pump-motor}} = \eta_{\text{pump}}\eta_{\text{motor}} = \frac{\dot{W}_{\text{pump, u}}}{\dot{W}_{\text{elect, in}}} = \frac{\Delta \dot{E}_{\text{mech, fluid}}}{\dot{W}_{\text{elect, in}}}$$

$$\eta_{\text{turbine}} = 0.75 \quad \eta_{\text{generator}} = 0.97$$



Turbine-Generator overall efficiency

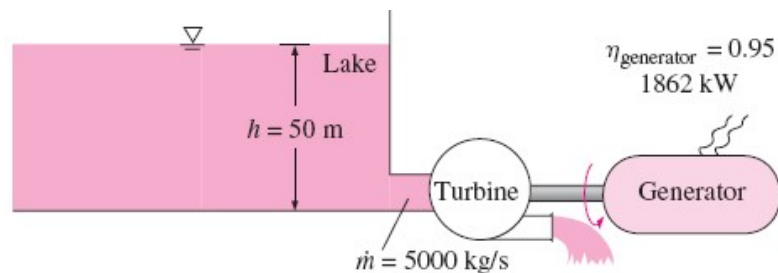
$$\begin{aligned} \eta_{\text{turbine-gen}} &= \eta_{\text{turbine}}\eta_{\text{generator}} \\ &= 0.75 \times 0.97 \\ &= 0.73 \end{aligned}$$

$$\eta_{\text{turbine-gen}} = \eta_{\text{turbine}}\eta_{\text{generator}} = \frac{\dot{W}_{\text{elect, out}}}{\dot{W}_{\text{turbine, e}}} = \frac{\dot{W}_{\text{elect, out}}}{|\Delta \dot{E}_{\text{mech, fluid}}|}$$

The overall efficiency of a turbine-generator is the product of the efficiency of the turbine and the efficiency of the generator, and represents the fraction of the mechanical energy of the fluid converted to electric energy.

EXAMPLE 2-16

The water in a large lake is to be used to generate electricity by the installation of a hydraulic turbine–generator at a location where the depth of the water is 50 m. Water is to be supplied at a rate of 5000 kg/s. If the electric power generated is measured to be 1862 kW and the generator efficiency is 95 %, determine (a) the overall efficiency of the turbine–generator, (b) the mechanical efficiency of the turbine, and (c) the shaft power supplied by the turbine to the generator.



Solution A hydraulic turbine–generator is to generate electricity from the water of a lake. The overall efficiency, the turbine efficiency, and the shaft power are to be determined.

Assumptions 1 The elevation of the lake remains constant. 2 The mechanical energy of water at the turbine exit is negligible.

(a) the overall efficiency of the turbine–generator

$$e_{\text{mech, in}} - e_{\text{mech, out}} = \frac{P}{\rho} - 0 = gh = (9.81 \text{ m/s}^2)(50 \text{ m}) \left(\frac{1 \text{ kJ/kg}}{1000 \text{ m}^2/\text{s}^2} \right) \\ = 0.49 \text{ kJ/kg}$$

$$|\Delta \dot{E}_{\text{mech, fluid}}| = \dot{m}(e_{\text{mech, in}} - e_{\text{mech, out}}) = (5000 \text{ kg/s})(0.491 \text{ kJ/kg}) = 2455 \text{ kW}$$

$$\eta_{\text{overall}} = \eta_{\text{turbine-gen}} = \frac{\dot{W}_{\text{elect, out}}}{|\Delta \dot{E}_{\text{mech, fluid}}|} = \frac{1862 \text{ kW}}{2455 \text{ kW}} = \mathbf{0.76}$$

(b) the mechanical efficiency of the turbine

$$\eta_{\text{turbine-gen}} = \eta_{\text{turbine}} \eta_{\text{generator}} \rightarrow \eta_{\text{turbine}} = \frac{\eta_{\text{turbine-gen}}}{\eta_{\text{generator}}} = \frac{0.76}{0.95} = \mathbf{0.80}$$

(c) the shaft power supplied by the turbine to the generator.

$$\dot{W}_{\text{shaft, out}} = \eta_{\text{turbine}} |\Delta \dot{E}_{\text{mech, fluid}}| = (0.80)(2455 \text{ kW}) = \mathbf{1964 \text{ kW}}$$

Discussion Note that the lake supplies 2455 kW of mechanical energy to the turbine, which converts 1964 kW of it to shaft work that drives the generator, which generates 1862 kW of electric power. There are irreversible losses through each component.

SUMMARY

- Forms of energy
 - Macroscopic = kinetic + potential
 - Microscopic = Internal energy (sensible + latent + chemical + nuclear)
- Energy transfer by heat
- Energy transfer by work
- Mechanical forms of work
- The first law of thermodynamics
 - Energy balance
 - Energy change of a system
 - Mechanisms of energy transfer (heat, work, mass flow)
- Energy conversion efficiencies
 - Efficiencies of mechanical and electrical devices (turbines, pumps)