Chapter Two The First Law of Thermodynamics

2.1 Introduction

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system from its surroundings is equal to the net work done by the system on its
s surroundings.

> In symbols, Where ϕ represent the integral for a complete cycle. Q= heat energy transfer, W= work energy transfer Or, can be written in this form, $\sum dQ = \sum dW$

Example:

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1000kW. The heat supplied to the steam in the

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KJ/kg and the feed

Given :

Work output from the turbine (from the system)= $W_{out} = 1000$ kW

Heat supplied to the steam in the boiler (system)
= Q_{in} = 2800 kJ/kg

Heat rejected by the steam(system) from the condenser $= Q_{out} = 2100 \text{ kJ/kg}$

Work input to the pump= $W_{in} = 5 \text{ kW}$

2.2 Corollaries of the First Law of Thermodynamics:

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consequences(or values) w 2.2 Corollaries of the First Law of Thermodynamics:
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consequences(or values) w

2.2.1 Corollary 1

There exists a property of a closed system called energy such that a change in its value is equal to the difference between the heat supplied and the work done during any change of state. In other words, there exists a point function such that

(2.2) $\delta O - \delta W = \Delta E = E_2 - E_1$

Energy E, is composed of internal energy, U, kinetic energy, K.E. and potential energy, P.E.

- *i.e.,* $E = Internal$ *energy* + *kinetic energy* + *Potential energy*
- $E = U + K.E + P.E$ or.

In a closed system kinetic and potential energy effects generally play a negligible part, equation (2.2) may be simplified to :

The property U is called the internal energy of the system. The property U is the outcome of the first law of thermodynamics. Physically, an increase in U is associated with a rise in the temperature of the system.

2.2.2 Corollary 2:

Conservation of energy The internal energy of a closed system remains unchanged if the system is isolated from its surroundings.

Proof: By definition of an isolated system, $Q = W = 0$, $\Delta U = U_2 - U_1 = 0$

 $Q=0$ α_{s} olated system) $W=0$

 $\Delta U = 0$

2.2.3 Corollary 3, Perpetual motion machine of the first kind

A perpetual motion machine of the first kind (pmmI) is impossible.

Perpetual motion, is the action of a device that, once set in motion, would continue in motion forever, with no additional energy required to maintain it. Such devices are impossible on grounds stated by the first and

second laws of thermodynamics.

Equation (2.1) states, that, if a net amount of heat is not supplied during a cycle, no net amount $\oint \delta Q = \oint \delta W$ of work can be obtained, that is

 $\oint \delta W = 0$, if $\oint \delta Q = 0$

The existence of a pmmI would therefore violate the first law of thermodynamics.

2.2.4 Energy balance

The basis of the first law of thermodynamics is the law of conservation of energy which, for a system, can be expressed as :

Net energy added to a system=Energy in – Energy out= increase in stored energy. But, for a system undergoing a cycle, there is no change in the state of the system so that, the stored energy is zero. Hence :

Energy in $=$ Energy out

2.3 The Perfect Gas

2.3.1 The Characteristic Equation of State for Ideal Gas: .

The equation $\frac{PV}{T} = R$, is called the characteristic equation of a state of a perfect gas. The constant R is called the gas constant. Each perfect gas has a different gas constant. Net energy added to a system=Energy in – Energy out= increase i

cycle, there is no change in the state of the system so that, the st

Energy $\hat{U}V = Energy \text{ out}E$

3.1 The Perfect Gas

3.1 The Characteristic Equation of Sta Usually, the characteristic equation is written as:

or

The kilogram-mole is defined as a quantity of a gas equivalent to M kg of gas,

- The characteristic equation in another form, can be derived by using kilogram mole as a unit.
The kilogram-mole is defined as a quantity of a gas equivalent to M kg of gas,
where M is the molecular weight of the gas (e.g - The characteristic equation in another form, can be derived by using kilogram mole as a unit.
The kilogram-mole is defined as a quantity of a gas equivalent to **M** kg of gas,
where **M** is the molecular weight of the gas oxygen is equivalent to 32 kg of oxygen).

Where m=mass, n= number of mole, $M=$ Molecular mass. Substituting for *m* from eq.(2.6) in eqn.(2.5) gives: $PV = nMRT$, or $MR = \frac{PV}{RT}$

According to Avogadro's hypothesis, the volume of 1 mole of any gas is the same as the volume of 1 mole of any other gas when the gases are at the same temperature and pressure. Therefore $\frac{v}{n}$ is the same for all gases at the same value of p and T. That is the quantity is a constant for all gases. This constant is called the universal

gas constant and is given the symbol, R_o .
 $\therefore MR = R_o = \frac{PV}{nT} \dots \dots \dots 2.7$, or $PV = n R_oT$, since $MR = R_o$, Then $R = \frac{R_o}{M} \dots \dots \dots \dots (2.8)$

It has been found experimentally that the volume of 1 mole of any perfect gas at 1 bar and 0° C is approximately 22.71 m^3 .

There for from eq.(2.7)
$$
R_o = \frac{PV}{nT} = \frac{1 \times 10^5 \times 22.72}{1 \times (0^o C + 273)} = 8314.3 \frac{Nm}{molr.K} = 8.3143 \frac{kJ}{mole.K}
$$

Example : What is the value of gas constant for oxygen that has a molecular weight of 32?

$$
R=\frac{R_0}{M}=\frac{8314}{32}=259.8 \, \text{Nm/kg}.\, \text{K}
$$

2.3.2 Specific Heats

The specific heat of a solid or liquid is usually defined as the heat required to raise unit mass through a one-degree temperature rise. 2.3.2 Specific Heats
The specific heat of a solid or liquid is usua
unit mass through a one-degree temperatur
- for small quantities, we have
 $dQ = m c dT$

Where $m=$ mass, c=specific heat, and $dT=$ temperature rise

Only two specific heats for gases are defined.

- specific heat at constant volume, cv -specific heat at constant pressure, cp

We have $dQ = mc_p dT$ for a reversible non-flow process at constant Pressure \ldots(2.9)

We have $dQ = mc_p dT$ for a reversible non-flow process at constant Pressure \ldots(2.9)

And $d\mathbf{Q} = mc_p dT$ for a reversible non-flow process at constant volume \ldots(2.10) Integrating eqns. (2.9) and (2.10) , we have

Flow of heat in a reversible constant pressure process

 $Q = mc_p(T_2 - T_1)$(2.11)

Flow of heat in a reversible constant volume process

In case of real gases, c_p and c_v vary with temperature. But s suitable average value may be used for most practical purpose.

2.3.3 Joule's Law

Joule's law states that:" The internal energy of a perfect gas is a function of the absolute temperature only"

To evaluate this function let 1 kg of a perfect gas be heated at constant volume According to the non-flow energy equation, *i.e* $u = f(T)$ To evaluate this function let 1 kg of a perfect gas be heated at
 $dQ = du + dW$
 $\therefore Q = du$
 $dQ = c_v dT$
 $dQ = du = c_v dT$
 A tonstant volume for a perfect gas, from
 $\frac{du}{dt} = \frac{C_v T}{c_v T}$
 $\frac{dV}{dt} = 0$
 $\frac{dV}{dt} = c_v d$

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At constant volume for a perfect gas, from

eqn.(2.12), for 1 kg
 $Q = mc_v(T_2 - T_1)$(2.12)

$$
Q = mc_v(T_2 - T_1) \dots (2.12)
$$

$$
\int du = \int c_v dT = u = c_v T + K,
$$

$$
U = m.c_v.T \dots \dots \dots (2.14)
$$

For mass m

Gain in internal energy,

 $U_2 - U_1 = m.c_v (T_2 - T_1) \dots \dots \dots \dots (2.15)$

Equation (2.15) gives the gains of internal energy for a perfect gas between two states for any

process, reversible or irreversible.

2.3.4 Relationship Between two Specific Heats

Consider a perfect gas being heated at *constant pressure* from T1 to T2. According to non-flow equation,

 $Q = (U_2-U_1) + W$

 $U_2 - U_1 = m c_v (T_2 - T_1)$

 $Q = mc_{\nu}(T_2 - T_1) + W$

In a constant pressure process, the work done by the fluid,

 $W = P(V_2 - V_1) = mR(T_2 - T_1)$

 $P_1V_1 = mRT_1$, and $P_2V_2 = mRT_2$

In a constant process $P_1 = P_2 = P$ in this case

 $Q = m c_v (T_2 - T_1) + mR(T_2 - T_1)$

But for constant pressure process,

 $Q = m c_p (T_2 - T_1)$

By equating the two expression, we have

$$
m (c_v + R)(T_2 - T_1) = m c_p (T_2 - T_1)
$$

 \therefore $(c_v + R) = c_p$

divided both sides by c_v

$$
\frac{c_p}{c_v} - 1 = \frac{R}{c_v}, \qquad \qquad \text{if } \frac{c_p}{c_v} = \gamma \text{ (specific ratio)}
$$

$$
\therefore \ \gamma - 1 = \frac{R}{c_v}
$$
\n
\n*or* $c_v = \frac{R}{\gamma - 1} \dots \dots \dots (1.16a)$

Similiarly by dividing eq (2.16) both side by c_p we can get

$$
c_p - c_v = R
$$
 (2.16)

$$
c_p = \frac{\gamma R}{\gamma - 1} \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots (2.16b)
$$

The specific ratio() also varies with temperature, but this variation is very mild. For Similiarly by dividing eq (2.16) both side by c_p we can get
 $c_p - c_v = R (2.16)$
 $c_p = \frac{\gamma R}{\gamma - 1} (2.16b)$

The specific ratio(γ) also varies with temperature, but this variation is very mild. For

monatomic g including air, have a specific heat ratio of about =1.4 at room temperature.

2.3.5 Enthalpy

In thermodynamics is the sum of internal energy(u) and pressure volume product(pv). This sum is called Enthalpy (h)

 $h = u + Pv$ (2.17)

the total enthalpy of mass, m , of a fluid can be

 $H = (U + PV)$, where $H = mh$

For a perfect gas,

 $h = u + pv = c_vT + RT = (c_v + R)T = c_pT$

 $H = mc_pT$,

2.4 Application of first law of thermodynamics to non-flow or closed system

- 1. Réversible constant volume process
	- (v=constant) In a constant volume process: . . Constant-volume process---isochoric process, volume
- (i) the working substance is contained in a rigid does not change during the process.

vessel

(ii) work=0 , since v=constant

1. Réversible constant volume process
\n(v=constant) In a constant volume process: (i) the working substance is contained in a rigid
\nversel
\n(ii) work=0, since v=constant
\nConsidering mass of the working
\nsubstance unity and applying first law
\nof thermodynamics to the process
\n
$$
Q = (u_2-u_1) - W \dots \dots \dots \dots (2.18)
$$
\n
$$
Q = (u_2-u_1) = C_v(T_2-T_1) \dots \dots \dots \dots (2.18a), \qquad [U = mu]
$$
\n
$$
Q = (U_2-U_1) = m c_v(T_2-T_1) \dots \dots \dots \dots (2.18b)
$$

Where h = Enthalpy (specific), and c_p = specific heat at constant pressure

For mass ,m, of working substance

 $Q = H_2 - H_1 = mc_p(T_2 - T_1)$ (2.19)

3. Reversible Temperature or Isothermal Process (pv=constant, T=constant)

A process at a constant temperature is called an isothermal process

Considering unit mass of working substance and applying first law to the process

$$
Q = (u_2 - u_1) + W = c_v(T_2 - T_1) + W = 0 + W
$$

In this case $pv = c$ or $p = \frac{c}{2a}$ the work done, W \mathbf{J} $= \int_{\nu_1}^{\nu_2} c \frac{dv}{v} = c [ln v]_{\nu_1}^{\nu_2} = c ln \frac{\nu_2}{\nu_1}$

Fig.2.6. Reversible isothermal process

The constant C can either be written as p_1v_1 or as p_2v_2 . since

$$
p_1v_1=p_2v_2=constant, C
$$

i.e,
$$
W = p_1 v_1 \ln \frac{v_2}{v_1}
$$
 per unit mass of working substance

$$
\therefore Q = W = p_1 v_1 ln \frac{v_2}{v_1} \qquad \qquad \dots \dots \dots \dots (2-20)
$$

For mass, m, of working substance

$$
\therefore Q = W = p_1 V_1 ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}
$$
 (2 - 20a)

For isothermal process : $p_1V_1 = p_2V_2$

$$
\therefore \quad \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{P_1}{P_2}
$$

Or,
$$
Q = W = p_1 V_1 ln \frac{p_1}{p_2}
$$
 (2-20b)

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4. Reversible Adiabatic Process $pv^{\gamma} = c$

An adiabatic process is one in which no heat is transferred to or from the Fluid (system) during the

4. Reversible Adiabatic Process $pv^{\gamma} = c$
An adiabatic process is one in which no heat is tran
process (i.e Q=0).
Such a process can be reversible or irreversible. The
considered in this section. Such a process can be reversible or irreversible. The reversible adiabatic nonflow process will be considered in this section.

Considering unit mass of working substance and applying first law to the process, or Non-Flow Energy Equation (NFEE):

 $Q = (u_2 - u_1) + W$, Since $Q = 0$, the equation becomes $0 = (u_2 - u_1) + W$ $W = (u_1 - u_2)$ (2.21)

To drive the general law for an adiabatic process : $pv^{\gamma} = c$ To obtain a law relating p and v for a reversible adiabatic process let us consider the non-flow energy equation in differential form,

 $dQ = du + dW$ for a reversible process $dW = pdv$

 $\therefore dQ = du + pdv = 0$

Also for a perfect gas

$$
pv = RT \ or \ p = \frac{RT}{v}
$$

Sub p in previous eq to be

$$
du + \frac{RT}{v} dv = 0, \qquad but \ u = c_v T \qquad or \qquad du = c_v dT
$$

\n
$$
\therefore c_v dT + \frac{RT}{v} dv = 0, \quad or \quad \therefore c_v \frac{dT}{T} + \frac{R}{v} dv = 0 \text{ (dividing all term to T)}
$$

\nBy integral all terms $c_c lnT + Rlnv = \text{Constant}$
\nBy subsidiary $T = \frac{pv}{R}$ in equation to become $c_v ln \frac{pv}{R} + Rlnv = \text{Constant}$
\nDividing both sides by c_v $ln \frac{pv}{R} + \frac{R}{c_v} ln v = \frac{\text{constant}}{c_v} = \text{Constant}$
\nAgain: $c_v = \frac{R}{(y-1)}$ or $\frac{R}{c_v} = y-1$
\nHence substituting

$$
ln \frac{pv}{R} + (\gamma - 1)ln v = constant
$$

\n
$$
ln \frac{pv \times v^{(\gamma - 1)}}{R} = constant
$$

\n
$$
ln \frac{pv \times v^{\gamma} \times v^{-1}}{R} = constant
$$

\n
$$
ln \frac{p \times v^{\gamma}}{R} = constant
$$

\n
$$
\frac{p \times v^{\gamma}}{R} = constant = constant
$$

$$
p \times v^{\gamma} = R \times constant = constant
$$

 $\therefore p \times v^{\gamma} = constant$

Expression for Work W : A reversible adiabatic process for a perfect gas is shown on a $p - v$ diagram in Fig. 2-7 :

Fig. 2.7 : Reversible adiabatic process

Since $R = gas$ constant=constant The work of adiabatic process can be evaluated by integration

$$
W = \int_{v_1}^{v_2} p dv = \int_{v_1}^{v_2} \frac{C}{v^{\gamma}} dv = C \left| \frac{v^{-\gamma+1}}{-\gamma+1} \right|_{v_1}^{v_2}
$$

$$
W = \frac{p_1 v_1 - p_2 v_2}{\gamma - 1} \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots (2.22)
$$

Also from Eqn.(2.25) : Relationship between T, V , and p : By using equation $pv=RT$, the relationship between $T-v$ and $T-p$ $\frac{v_1}{\cdots} = \left(\frac{p_2}{\cdots}\right)$ (2.26) may be driven as follows. $pv = RT$: $p = \frac{RT}{v}$ Substituting Eqn.(2.26) in Eqn. (2.24): substituting this value in the equation $pv^{\gamma} = C$ to get $\frac{RT}{\nu}$. $v^{\gamma} = C$ r_{\dots} (2.27) or $\frac{T}{v}$. $v^{\gamma} = \frac{C}{R} = constant$, this can be written as From eq(2.24) and (2.27) , it can $Tv^{\gamma-1} = constant \dots 2.23$ be written that From equation 2.23, $T_1v_1^{\gamma-1} = T_2v_2^{\gamma-1}$ $\therefore \frac{T_1}{T_2} = \left(\frac{v_2}{v_1}\right)^{\gamma-1} \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots 2.24$ $rac{T_2}{T_1} = \left(\frac{v_1}{v_2}\right)^{r-1} = \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right)^{r}$ (2.28) For an adiabatic process : $p_1v_1^{\gamma} = p_2v_2^{\gamma}$

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From eqn. (2.21), the work done in an adiabatic process per kg of gas is given by

$$
W = (u_1 - u_2)
$$

$$
W = c_v(T_1 - T_2)
$$

Also, we know that

$$
c_v=\frac{R}{\gamma-1}
$$

Hence, substituting, we get

$$
W = \frac{R(T_1 - T_2)}{\gamma - 1}
$$

Using equation $pv = RT$

$$
W = \frac{(p_1v_1 - p_2v_2)}{\gamma - 1}
$$

This is the same expression obtained before as eqn. (2.22)

EXAMPLE 1: EXAMPLE 4–1 Boundary Work for a Constant-Volume Process
A rigid tank contains air at 500 kPa and 150°C. As a result of heat transfer to the s
temperature and pressure inside the tank drop to 65°C and 400 kPa, EXAMPLE 1: EXAMPLE 4–1 Boundary Work for a Constant-Volume Process
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temperature and pressure inside the tank drop to 65°C **EXAMPLE 1: EXAMPLE 4–1 Boundary Work for a Constant-Volume Process**
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A rigid tank contains air at 500 kPa and 150°C. As a result of heat transfer to the surf

temperature and pressure inside the tank drop to 65°C and 400

Solution 1:

$$
W=\int\limits_{v_1}^{v_1}P\;dv=0
$$

A right dark colliding an at 300 Kra and 150 C. As a result of heat
temperature and pressure inside the tank drop to 65°C and 400 kPa, resp
work done during this process that are shown in the following figure. (cv=
Soluti

$$
\therefore Q = (u_2 - u_1) = 0.718 (65 - 150) = -61 \, kJ/kg
$$

$$
Q = (u_2 - u_1) = \frac{kJ}{kg \cdot K} \times K = -61 \frac{kJ}{kg}
$$

EXAMPLE 2: A frictionless piston-cylinder device contains 4.5 kg of steam at 414 kPa and 433 K. Heat is now transferred to the steam until the temperature reaches 477 K. If the piston is not attached to a shaft and its m **EXAMPLE 2:** A frictionless piston–cylinder device contains 4.5 kg of steam at 414 kPa and 433 K. Heat is now transferred to the steam until the temperature reaches 477 K. If the piston is not attached to a shaft and its m **EXAMPLE 2:** A frictionless piston-cylinder device contains 4.5 kg of steam at 414 kPa and 433 K. Heat is now transferred to the steam until the temperature reaches 477 K. If the piston is not attached to a shaft and its **EXAMPLE 2:** A frictionless piston-cylinder device contains 4.5 kg of steam at 414 kPa and 433 K. Heat is now
transferred to the steam until the temperature reaches 477 K. If the piston is not attached to a shaft and its

Solution 2:

$$
W = \int_{v_1}^{v_2} P \, dv = P \int_{v_1}^{v_2} dv = P(v_2 - v_1)
$$
\nwhere, $V = v * m$
\n
$$
W = m * P(v_2 - v_1)
$$
\nwhere, $V = v * m$
\n
$$
\frac{H_2O}{m = 4.5 \times 414 \times 1000 \times (0.52 - 0.467)} = 98739 J = 99 kJ
$$
\n
$$
Q = (u_2 - u_1) + W
$$
\n
$$
u_1 = 0.47 \frac{m^3}{kg}
$$
\n
$$
v_1 = 0.47 \frac{m^3}{kg}
$$
\n
$$
v_2 = 0.52 \frac{m^3}{kg}
$$

 $Q = H_2 - H_1 = mc_p(T_2 - T_1) = 4.5 \times 1.8723 \times (477 - 433) = 370 kJ$

In constant pressure process there are heat transfer, change in internal energy, and work.

EXAMPLE 3: A piston-cylinder device initially contains 0.4 m³ of air at 100 kPa and 80°C. The air is now compressed to 0.1 $m³$ in such a way that the temperature inside the cylinder remains constant. Determine the in such a way that the temperature inside the cylinder remains constant. Determine the process. work done during this process.

Solution 3:

The temperature remains constant so the process is Isothermal compression

 $PV = mRT = C$ or $P = \frac{C}{V}$

$$
W = \int_{V_1}^{V_2} P dV = \int_{V_1}^{V_2} \frac{C}{V} dV = C \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1} = P_1 V_1 \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}
$$

In case we do not have all properties of Air some replacements can be done.

 P_1V_1 can be replaced by P_2V_2 or by mRT. Also, $\frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{P_1}{P_2}$

$$
W = P_1 V_1 ln \frac{V_2}{V_1} = 100 \times 0.4 \times \left(ln \frac{0.1}{0.4} \right) = -55.5 \, \text{kJ}
$$

$$
W = P_1 V_1 \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{kN}{m^2} \times m^3 \times (-) = kN. m = kJ
$$

Example4: A sample of ideal gas is initially at temperature $T_1 = 400$ K, pressure $p_1 = 5$ bar and occupies a volume $V_1 = 0.6$ m³. The gas expands adiabatically to a state 2. The processes is reversible.

Givens: R = 8.31 J/mol K; CV = $(3/2)R$, $V_2 = 3 m³$

1.Draw the thermodynamic process in a PV diagram .

2.Calculate the pressure in state 2 using the adiabatic process equation (between states 1 and 2). What is the temperature in this state?

3.Calculate the work done, the internal energy change and the heat exchanged by the gas.

Solution:

 $P_1V_1^{\gamma} = P_2V_2^{\gamma}$ $P_2 = P_1 \left(\frac{V_1}{V_2}\right)^{\gamma} = 5 \times 10^5 \times \left(\frac{0.6}{3}\right)^{1.67} = 34016 Pa$

We can use the equation of an ideal gas applied to state 2 to calculate the temperature. But first, we need to determine the number of moles in the sample of ideal gas.

By applying the equation of state of an ideal gas to state 1:

$$
P_1V_1 = n R T_1
$$

$$
n = \frac{P_1V_1}{RT_1} = \frac{5 \times 10^5 \times 0.6}{8.31 \times 400} = 90
$$

By applying the same equation to state 2:

$$
T_2 = \frac{P_2 V_2}{nR} = \frac{34016 \times 3}{90 \times 8.31} = 136 K
$$

In adaibatic process $Q = 0$, \therefore $\mathbf{0} = (\mathbf{u}_2 - \mathbf{u}_1) + \mathbf{W}$,

$$
W = -(u_2 - u_1) = (u_1 - u_2)
$$

$$
W_{1-2} = \Delta U = n c_v (T_1 - T_2) = 90 \times \frac{3}{2} \times 8.31 \times (400 - 136) = 296168 = 296 kJ
$$

5. Polytropic Reversible Process ($pv^n = constant$).

The general law of polytropic (General) process is $pv^n = constant$ where, n is a polytropic index that its value is constant.

We know that for any reversible process, $W = \int pdv$

For a process in $pv^n = constant$, we have $p = \frac{C}{m}$, where C is a constant

$$
\therefore W = C \int_{v_1}^{v_2} \frac{dv}{v^n} = C \left| \frac{v^{n+1}}{-n+1} \right|_{v_1}^{v_2} = C \left(\frac{v_2^{-n+1} - v_1^{-n+1}}{-n+1} \right) = C \left(\frac{v_1^{-n+1} - v_2^{-n+1}}{n-1} \right)
$$

Since the constant C can be written as $p_1v_1^n$ or $p_2v_2^n$, substituting for C

$$
W = \left(\frac{p_1 v_1^n v_1^{-n+1} - p_2 v_2^n v_2^{-n+1}}{n-1}\right)
$$

(2.30)

It follows also that for any polytropic process, we can write $\frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left(\frac{v_1}{v_2}\right)^n$ (2.31)

The following relations can be derived (following the same procedure as was done under reversible adiabatic process)

$$
\frac{T_2}{T_1} = \left(\frac{v_1}{v_2}\right)^{n-1} \dots \dots \dots (2.32)
$$

$$
\frac{T_2}{T_1} = \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right)^{\frac{n-1}{n}} \dots \dots \dots (2.33)
$$

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Heat transfer during polytropic process (for perfect gas pv=RT) :

Using non-flow energy equation, the heat flow/transfer during the process can be found,

$$
Q = (u_2 - u_1) + W
$$

= $c_v(T_2 - T_1) + \frac{R(T_1 - T_2)}{n - 1}$

$$
Q = \frac{R(T_1 - T_2)}{n - 1} - c_v(T_1 - T_2)
$$

Also

$$
c_v = \frac{R}{(\gamma - 1)}
$$

On substituting

$$
Q = \frac{R}{n-1}(T_1 - T_2) - \frac{R}{(\gamma - 1)}(T_1 - T_2)
$$

$$
Q = R(T_1 - T_2)\left(\frac{1}{n-1} - \frac{1}{\gamma - 1}\right)
$$

$$
= \frac{R(T_1 - T_2)(\gamma - 1 - n + 1)}{(\gamma - 1)(n-1)} = \frac{R(T_1 - T_2)(\gamma - n)}{(\gamma - 1)(n-1)}
$$

$$
\therefore Q = \frac{(\gamma - n)R(T_1 - T_2)}{(\gamma - 1)(n-1)}
$$

Or

$$
Q = \left(\frac{\gamma - n}{\gamma - 1}\right).W \qquad \left[\therefore W = \frac{R(T_1 - T_2)}{(n - 1)}\right] \dots \dots \dots (2.34)
$$

In a polytropic process, the index **n** depends only on the heat and work quantities during the process.

In a polytropic process, the index n depends only on the heat and work quantities during the process.

The various processes considered earlier are special cases of polytropic process for a perfect gas. For example

(i) when $n=0$ $pv^0 = constant$ i.e, $p = constant$: reversible constant pressure process

(ii) when $n = \infty$ $pv^{\infty} = constant$ $\sqrt[m]{pv^{\infty}}$ = constant $p^{\frac{1}{\infty}}$, $v^{\frac{\infty}{\infty}} = constant$ p^0 . $v = constant$ *i.e,* v=constant: reversible constant volume process

national contracts of the contracts of the

 $pv = constant$ i.e T=constant, since (iii) when $n=1$ $pv/T = constant for gas: reversible isothermal process$

 (iv) when $n = y$, $pv^{\gamma} = constant, i, e, reversible adiabatic process$

(v) when $n=n$, $pv^n = constant$, reversible polytropic process

This is illustrated on a p-v diagram in Fig. 2.8.

(i) state 1 to state A is *constant pressure* cooling $(n=0)$

(ii) state 1 to state B is *isothermal compression* $(n=1)$

(iii) state 1 to state C is *reversible adiabatic compression* $(n = \gamma)$

(iv) state 1 to state D is constant volume heating $(n = \infty)$

Similarly, (i) state 1 to state \vec{A} is constant pressure heating ($n=0$) (ii) state 1 to state \hat{B} is *isothermal expansion* (n=1). (iii) state 1 to state C is reversible adiabatic expansion $(n = y)$. (iv) state 1 to **D** is constant volume cooling $(n = \infty)$