Chapter Two The First Law of Thermodynamics

2.1 Introduction

When a system undergoes a thermodynamic cycle then the net heat supplied to the system from its surroundings is equal to the net work done by the system on its surroundings.

Example:

In a certain steam plant, the turbine develops 1000kW. The heat supplied to the steam in the boiler is 2800 KJ/kg, the heat rejected by the system to cooling water in the condenser is 2100 KJ/kg and the feed pump work required to pump the condensate back into the boiler is 5 KW. Calculate the steam flow around the cycle in kg/s.

Given :

Work output from the turbine (from the system)=Wout = 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 kJ/kg

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



2.2 Corollaries of the First Law of Thermodynamics: النتائج الطبيعية للقانون الأول للديناميكا الحرارية

The first law of thermodynamics, in the form of equation (2.1), has a number of important consequences(or values) which are stated in the form of corollaries(or results):

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

 $\delta Q - \delta W = \Delta E = E_2 - E1 \qquad or, \quad Q - W = \Delta E = E_2 - E1 \qquad (2.2)$

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
- or, E = U + K.E + P.E

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, $\Delta U = U_2 - U_1 = 0$

 $Q = 0 \qquad (I_{solated_{system}})$ 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 of work can be obtained, that is



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

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:

| $\frac{PV}{T} = constant = R$ |
|-------------------------------|
|-------------------------------|

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. Units of R are Nm/kg.K or kJ/kg.K Usually, the characteristic equation is written as:

- 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., since the molecular weight of oxygen is 32, then 1 kg mole of 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 $MR = \frac{PV}{nT}$

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 .

$$\therefore MR = R_o = \frac{PV}{nT} \dots 2.7, \qquad or \quad PV = n R_o T, \qquad since \ MR = R_o, Then \ R = \frac{R_o}{M} \dots \dots (2.8)$$

It has been found experimentally that the volume of 1 mole of any perfect gas at 1 bar and $0^{\circ}C$ 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?

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

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.

- for small quantities, we have

dQ = mcdT

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(2.9)

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And $dQ = mc_v dT$ for a reversible non-flow process at constant volume(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

 $Q = mc_v(T_2 - T_1)....(2.12)$

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"

i.e u = f(T) To evaluate this function let 1 kg of a perfect gas be heated at constant volume According to the non-flow energy equation,

dQ = du + dW $\therefore Q = du$ $dQ = c_v dT$

 $dQ = du = c_v dT$

At constant volume for a perfect gas, from eqn.(2.12), for 1 kg

$$Q = mc_v(T_2 - T_1)....(2.12)$$

When the volume remains constant the dW = 0

$$\int du = \int c_{v} dT = u = c_{v} T + K,$$

K is integral constant

when
$$T = 0$$
, $u = 0$ (Joule's Law) $\therefore K = 0$

For mass
$$m$$

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

Gain in internal energy,

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,

 $\boldsymbol{Q} = (\boldsymbol{U}_2 - \boldsymbol{U}_1) + \boldsymbol{W}$

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

 $\mathbf{Q} = \boldsymbol{m} \, \boldsymbol{c}_{\boldsymbol{v}} (\boldsymbol{T}_2 - \boldsymbol{T}_1) + \boldsymbol{W}$

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

 $\mathbf{Q} = m \, c_{v} (T_{2} - T_{1}) + m R (T_{2} - T_{1})$

But for constant pressure process,

 $\mathbf{Q} = m \, c_p (T_2 - T_1)$

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

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

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

$$, \quad or \quad c_v = \frac{R}{\gamma - 1} \dots \dots \dots \dots \dots (1.16a)$$

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

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

The specific ratio(γ) also varies with temperature, but this variation is very mild. For monatomic gases, its value is essentially constant at $\gamma = 1.667$. Many diatomic gases, including air, have a specific heat ratio of about $\gamma_{Air} = 1.4$ 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)

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

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

For a perfect gas,

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

 $H = mc_p T$,

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:
- (i) the working substance is contained in a rigid

vessel

(ii) work=0, since v=constant

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

$$Q = (u_2 - u_1) - W \dots (2.18)$$

The work $W = \int_1^2 P dv = P(v_2 - v_1) = 0$, as $dv = 0$
 $\therefore Q = (u_2 - u_1) = c_v (T_2 - T_1) \dots (2.18a)$, $[U = mu]$
 $Q = (U_2 - U_1) = mc_v (T_2 - T_1) \dots (2.18b)$

Constant Volume Process

 Constant-volume process---isochoric process, volume does not change during the process.





2. Reversible constant pressure process (p=constant)



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

For mass ,*m*, of working substance

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 $p = \frac{c}{v}$, the work done, W $= \int_{v_1}^{v_2} c \frac{dv}{v} = c[lnv]_{v_1}^{v_2} = cln \frac{v_2}{v_1}$



Fig.2.6. Reversible isothermal process

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

$$p_1v_1 = p_2v_2 = constanr, C$$

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

For mass ,m, of working substance

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

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)

74

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

process (i.e Q=0).

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 $0 = (u_2 - u_1) + W$ $\therefore W = (u_1 - u_2) \dots \dots \dots \dots (2.21)$

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

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

Sub p in previous eq to be

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

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

By integral all terms $c_c \ln T + R \ln v = Constant$
By subsstituting $T = \frac{pv}{R}$ in equation to become $c_v \ln \frac{pv}{R} + R \ln v = Constant$
Dividing both sides by $c_v \quad \ln \frac{pv}{R} + \frac{R}{c_v} \ln v = \frac{constat}{c_v} = Constant$
Again : $c_v = \frac{R}{(v-1)} \quad or \quad \frac{R}{c_v} = \gamma - 1$
Hence substituting

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

Since R = gas 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 :





The work of adiabatic process can be evaluated by integration

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

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

78

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 surroundings, the temperature and pressure inside the tank drop to 65°C and 400 kPa, respectively. *Determine the boundary work done during this process* that are shown in the following figure. (cv=0.718 kJ/kg.K)

Solution 1:

$$W=\int_{v_1}^{v_1} P \, dv=0$$

Discussion This is expected since a rigid tank has a constant volume and dV = 0 in this equation. Therefore, **there is no boundary work done during this process.**

Heat transfer = the change of internal energy

 \therefore for the constant volume process the $Q = (u_2 - u_1) = m c_v (T_2 - T_1)$

:
$$Q = (u_2 - u_1) = 0.718 (65 - 150) = -61 kJ/kg$$

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



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 mass is constant, *determine the work done by the steam during this process* that are shown in Fig. Also determine the heat add (Q).(Cp=1.8723 kJ/kg.K Cv=1.4108 kJ/kg.K)

Solution 2:

$$W = \int_{v_1}^{v_2} P \, dv = P \int_{v_1}^{v_2} dv = P(v_2 - v_1) \quad \text{or} \quad W = m * P(v_2 - v_1) \\ \text{Where, } V = v * m \quad W = 4.5 \times 414 \times 1000 \times (0.52 - 0.467) = 98739 J = 99 \, kJ \quad W = 4.5 \times 414 \times 1000 \times (0.52 - 0.467) = 98739 J = 99 \, kJ \quad W = 4.5 \times 414 \times 1000 \times (0.52 - 0.467) = 98739 J = 99 \, kJ$$

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

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 work done during this process**.

Solution 3:

The temperature remains constant so the process is Isothermal compression

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

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

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, $\frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{P_1}{P_2}$

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

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





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, $V_2 = 3 m^3$

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:

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



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:

$$P_1 V_1 = n R T_1$$
$$n = \frac{P_1 V_1}{R T_1} = \frac{5 \times 10^5 \times 0.6}{8.31 \times 400} = 90$$

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

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

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

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, $W = \int p dv$

For a process in $pv^n = constant$, we have $p = \frac{c}{v^n}$, 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

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

,
$$\therefore W = \left(\frac{p_1 v_1 - p_2 v_2}{n-1}\right)$$
.....2.29)
or $W = \left(\frac{R(T_1 - T_2)}{n-1}\right)$(2.30)

It follows also that for any polytropic process , we can write $\frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left(\frac{v_1}{v_2}\right)^n \dots \dots (2.31)$ The following relationships and the process is a second state of the process of the proces

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

$$\frac{T_2}{T_1} = \left(\frac{v_1}{v_2}\right)^{n-1} \dots \dots (2.32)$$
$$\frac{T_2}{T_1} = \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right)^{\frac{n-1}{n}} \dots \dots (2.33)$$

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

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

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 pv⁰ = constant i.e, p = constant : reversible constant pressure process

(ii) when $n = \infty$ $pv^{\infty} = constant$ $\sqrt[\infty]{pv^{\infty} = constant}$ $p^{\frac{1}{\infty}} \cdot v^{\frac{\infty}{\infty}} = constant$ $p^{0} \cdot v = constant$ *i.e.*, v = constant: reversible constant volume process (iii) when n=1 pv=constant i.e T=constant, since pv/T = constant for gas : reversible isothermal process

(iv) when $n = \gamma$, $pv^{\gamma} = constant$, 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 is constant pressure heating (n=0)
(ii) state 1 to state B is isothermal expansion (n=1).
(iii) state 1 to state C is reversible adiabatic expansion (n = γ).
(iv) state 1 to D is constant volume cooling (n = ∞)