Advanced Thermodynamics (M2794.007900)

Chapter 5

Consequences of the First Law

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Consider a function of three variables, f(x, y, z) = 0

since only two variables are independent, we can write

$$x = x(y, z), y = y(x, z)$$

Then
$$dx = (\frac{\partial x}{\partial y})_z dy + (\frac{\partial x}{\partial z})_y dz$$
, and

$$dy = \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z dx + \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x dz$$

We obtain,

$$dx = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left\{ \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z dx + \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x dz \right\} + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y dz$$

$$dx = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left\{ \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z dx + \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x dz \right\} + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y dz$$
$$= \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z dx + \left[\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y \right] dz$$

If dz = 0 and $dx \neq 0$,

 $\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)_z}$. This expression is known as the *reciprocal relation*.

If dx = 0 and $dz \neq 0$,

$$\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_{z} \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_{x} = -\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_{y}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_z \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_x = -\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y$$
 (previous slide)

$$\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_y = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_y}$$
 (using reciprocal relation)

Substituting these equations yield,

$$\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_{z}\left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_{x}\left(\frac{\partial z}{\partial x}\right)_{y}=-1$$
. The **cyclical rule**, or **cyclical relation**.

Consider a function u of three variables x, y, z can be written as a function of only two variables and those two variables are independent.

$$u = u(x, y)$$

Alternatively,

$$x = x(u, y)$$

Then

$$dx = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial u}\right)_{y} du + \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_{u} dy.$$

If we divide the equation by dz while holding u constant,

$$\left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial z}\right)_u = \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}\right)_u \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial z}\right)_u$$
. The *chain rule of differentiation*.

In general, u = u (T, v)

using the cyclical and reciprocal relations,

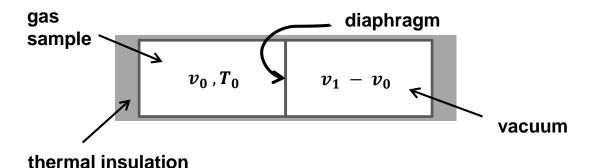
$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial v}\right)_{u} = -\frac{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial v}\right)_{T}}{\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial T}\right)_{v}}$$

for a reversible process, $c_v = (\frac{\partial u}{\partial T})_v$

$$\therefore \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial v}\right)_T = -c_v \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial v}\right)_u$$

Then how can we keep u constant during the expansion?

$$du = \underbrace{\delta q}_{=0} - \underbrace{\delta w}_{=0} \Rightarrow \text{free expansion}$$
(adiabatic) (no work)



$$T_1 = T_0 + \int_{v_0}^{v_1} (\frac{\partial T}{\partial v})_u dv$$
, $\eta \equiv (\frac{\partial T}{\partial v})_u$: Joule's coefficient

From Joule's experimental result,

$$|\eta| = \left| \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial v} \right)_u \right| < 0.001 \text{ K kilomole m}^{-3}$$

for a Van der Waals gas, (Problem 5-3)

$$\eta = -\frac{a}{v^2 c_v}$$

for an ideal gas,

by using the equation du = Tds - Pdv,

$$\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial v}\right)_T = T \left(\frac{\partial s}{\partial v}\right)_T - P = T \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_v - P = T \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial T} \left(\frac{RT}{v}\right)\right]_v - P$$

$$= \frac{RT}{v} - P = 0$$

Then u = u(T)

for a real gas,

by using the equation $dq=\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial T}\right)_v dT+\left[\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial v}\right)_T+P\right] dv$ divide by the temperature T,

$$\frac{dq}{T} = \frac{1}{T} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial T} \right)_{v} dT + \frac{1}{T} \left[\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial v} \right)_{T} + P \right] dv$$

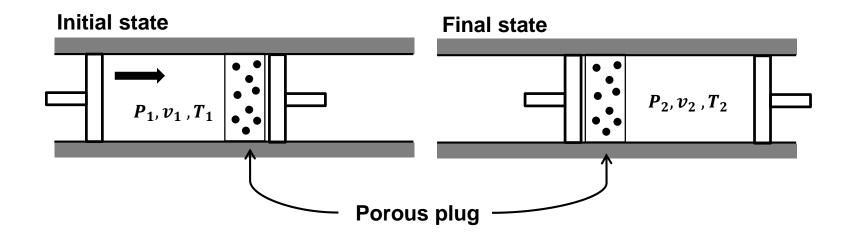
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial v} \left(\frac{1}{T} \frac{\partial u}{\partial T} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial T} \left[\frac{1}{T} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial v} + P \right) \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{T}\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial v \partial T} = -\frac{1}{T^2} \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial v} + P \right) + \frac{1}{T} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial v \partial T} + \frac{1}{T} \frac{\partial P}{\partial T}$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial v}\right)_T = T\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_v - P$$

5.2 The Joule-Thomson Experiment

Since the process takes place in an insulated cylinder,



$$\delta q = 0$$

specific work done in forcing the gas through the plug, $w_1 = \int_{v_1}^{0} P_1 dv = -P_1 v_1$ specific work done by the gas in the expansion, $w_2 = \int_{0}^{v_2} P_2 dv = P_2 v_2$

5.2 The Joule-Thomson experiment

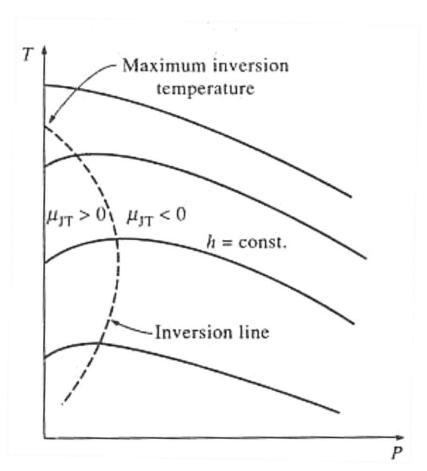
The total work,
$$w = w_1 + w_2 = P_2 v_2 - P_1 v_1 = u_1 - u_2$$

$$u_1 + P_1 v_1 = u_2 + P_2 v_2 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \underline{h_1 = h_2}_{\text{constant}}$$

Thus, a throttling process occurs at constant enthalpy.

5.2 The Joule-Thomson experiment

Joule-Thomson coefficient



$$\mu_{JT} \equiv (\frac{\partial T}{\partial P})_h$$

the point where $\mu_{IT} = 0$ is called inversion point.

from
$$h = h(T, P)$$
,

$$dh = \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial T}\right)_P dT + \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial P}\right)_T dP$$

$$\mu_{JT} \equiv \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial P}\right)_h = \left[\frac{T_2 - T_1}{P_2 - P_1}\right]_h$$

$$T_2 = T_1 - \mu(P_2 - P_1)$$

The gas is cooling when the μ is positive and heating when the μ is negative

5.2 The Joule-Thomson experiment

Joule-Thomson coefficient

$$\mu_{JT} = \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial P}\right)_h = -\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial h}\right)_P \left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial P}\right)_T = \frac{1}{C_P} \left[T\left(\frac{\partial v}{\partial T}\right)_P - v\right]$$

for an ideal gas, $\mu_{IT} = 0$,

$$\left(\frac{\partial h}{\partial P}\right)_T = 0 \text{ and } h = h(T)$$

for a Van der Waals gas, $P = \frac{RT}{v-b} - \frac{a}{v^2}$

$$\mu_{JT} = \frac{1}{c_P} \left[\frac{\frac{2a}{RT} \left(1 - \frac{b}{v} \right)^2 - b}{1 - \frac{2a}{vRT} \left(1 - \frac{b}{v} \right)^2} \right]$$

If
$$\mu_{JT} = 0$$
, $T_i = \frac{2a}{bR} \left(1 - \frac{b}{v} \right)^2$

Carnot cycle

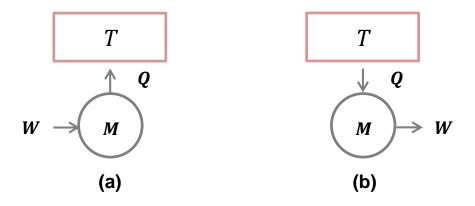


Fig. The concept of a heat engine.

In (a), work is done on the system and is converted to heat.

In (b), heat is extracted from a reservoir and is converted to mechanical work.

This configuration is not possible.

Carnot cycle

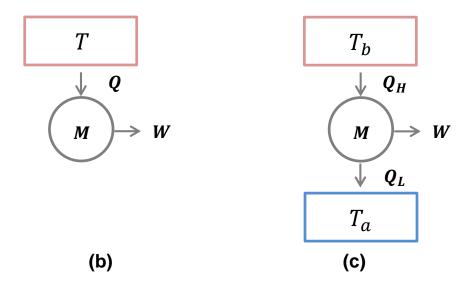


Fig. The concept of a heat engine.

Can the work done by the system be equal to the heat in?

The second law of thermodynamics states *unequivocally* that it is impossible to construct a perfect heat engine.

Thus case (b) must be modified as case (c)

Clausius statement

It is impossible to construct a device that operates in a cycle and whose sole effect is to transfer heat from a cooler body to a hotter body.

Kelvin-Planck statement

It is impossible to construct a device that operates in a cycle and produces no other effect than the performance of work and the exchange of heat with a single reservoir.

Carnot cycle

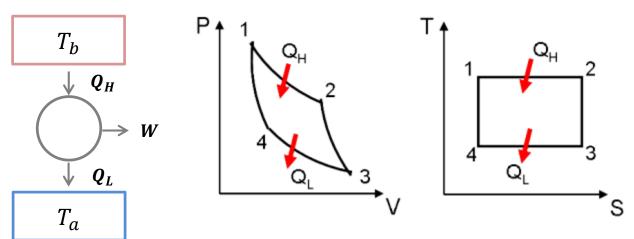


Fig. P-V and T-S diagrams of Carnot cycle.

1-2: isothermal expansion

2 - 3: adiabatic expansion

3-4: isothermal compression

4 – 1 : adiabatic compression

The efficiency of the engine,

$$\eta = \frac{W}{Q_H} = \frac{|W|}{|Q_H|} = \frac{\text{output}}{\text{input}}$$

Applying the first law to the system,

$$\Delta U = Q_H + Q_L - W = |Q_H| - |Q_L| - |W|$$

Since the system is in a cyclical process, $\Delta U = 0$. Then,

$$W = Q_H + Q_L$$
 or $W = |Q_H| - |Q_L|$

Substituting the equations,

$$\eta = \frac{Q_L + Q_H}{Q_H} = 1 + \frac{Q_L}{Q_H} = 1 - \frac{|Q_L|}{|Q_H|}$$

for an ideal gas, Pv = RT, u = u(T),

for isothermal process, $Q_H = W_{12} = n\bar{R} T_b \ln \frac{V_2}{V_1}$

$$Q_L = W_{34} = n\bar{R} T_a \ln \frac{V_4}{V_3}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \frac{Q_H}{Q_L} = -\frac{T_b}{T_a}$$

for adiabatic process, $PV^{\gamma} = constant$,

$$T_b V_2^{\gamma - 1} = T_a V_3^{\gamma - 1}$$

$$T_b V_1^{\gamma - 1} = T_a V_4^{\gamma - 1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{V_3}{V_4}$$

$$\begin{cases} s_2 - s_1 = c_v \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1} + R \ln \frac{v_2}{v_1} \\ = c_p \ln \frac{T_2}{T_1} - R \ln \frac{P_2}{P_1} = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$c_v = \frac{1}{\kappa - 1} R, \quad c_p = \frac{\kappa}{\kappa - 1} R$$

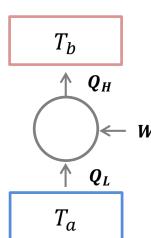
$$\frac{P_2}{P_1} = \left(\frac{v_2}{v_1}\right)^{\kappa}$$

The efficiency of the Carnot cycle, $\eta = 1 + \frac{Q_L}{Q_H} = 1 - \frac{T_a}{T_b}$

Carnot engine has the maximum efficiency for any engine that one might design.

- 1. Carnot engine operates between two reservoirs and that it is reversible.
- 2. If a working substance other than an ideal gas is used, the shape of curves in the P-V diagram will be difference.
- 3. The efficiency would be 100 percent if we were able to obtain a low temperature reservoir at absolute zero. →However this is forbidden by the third law.

Carnot refrigerator



Reverse process of Carnot engine

Coefficient of performance(COP)

$${\rm COP} \equiv -\frac{Q_L}{W} = \frac{|Q_L|}{|W|} = \frac{|Q_L|}{|Q_2| - |Q_L|} = \frac{T_1}{T_2 - T_1}$$

We introduce a minus sign in order to make the COP a positive quantity:

The heat Q_L is extracted from the low temperature reservoir and W is the work done on the system. Q_L is positive (heat flow *into* the system) and W is negative (work done *on* the system)

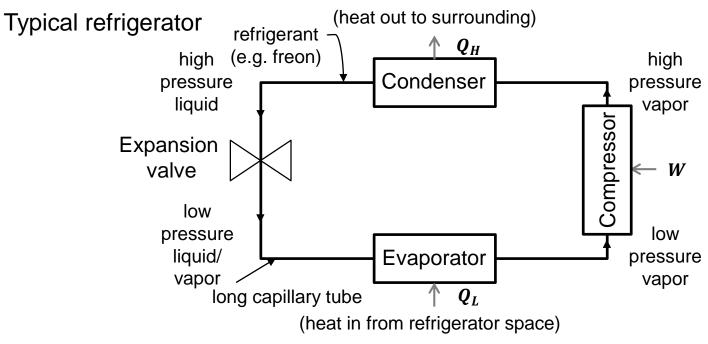


Fig. Schematic diagram of a typical refrigerator

- The refrigerant is a substance chosen to be a saturated liquid at the pressure and temperature of condenser.
- 2. The liquid undergoes a throttling process in which it is cooled and is partially vaporized.



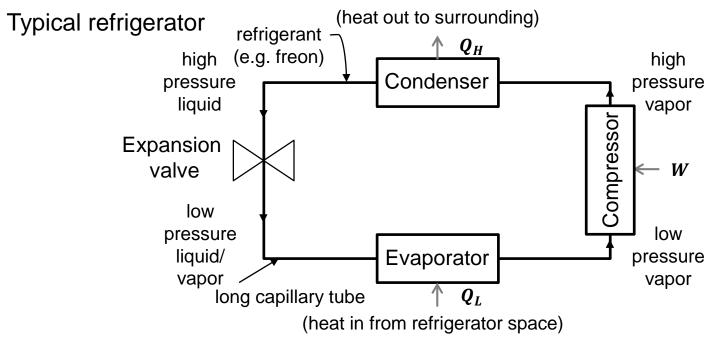


Fig. Schematic diagram of a typical refrigerator

- 3. The vaporization is completed in the evaporator: the heat is absorbed by the refrigerant from the low temperature reservoir (the interior refrigerator space).
- 4. The low pressure vapor is then adiabatically compressed and isobarically cooled until it becomes a liquid once again.



Typical refrigerator

Refrigerator are designed to extract as much heat as possible from a cold reservoir with small expenditure of work.

The coefficient of performance of a household refrigerator is in the range of 5 to 10.