

CHAPTER

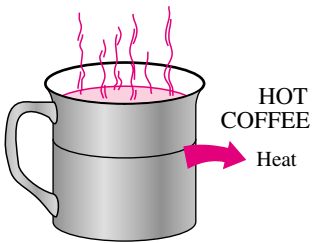
6

THE SECOND LAW OF THERMODYNAMICS

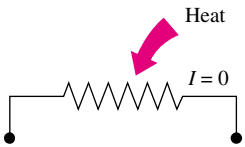
To this point, we have focused our attention on the first law of thermodynamics, which requires that energy be conserved during a process. In this chapter, we introduce the second law of thermodynamics, which asserts that processes occur in a certain direction and that energy has quality as well as quantity. A process cannot take place unless it satisfies both the first and second laws of thermodynamics. In this chapter, the thermal energy reservoirs, reversible and irreversible processes, heat engines, refrigerators, and heat pumps are introduced first. Various statements of the second law are followed by a discussion of perpetual-motion machines and the thermodynamic temperature scale. The Carnot cycle is introduced next, and the Carnot principles, idealized Carnot heat engines, refrigerators, and heat pumps are examined. Finally, energy conservation associated with the use of household refrigerators is discussed.

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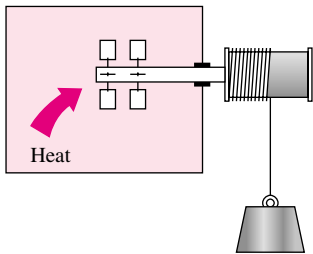
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**FIGURE 6-1**

A cup of hot coffee does not get hotter in a cooler room.

**FIGURE 6-2**

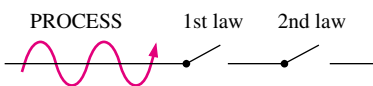
Transferring heat to a wire will not generate electricity.

**FIGURE 6-3**

Transferring heat to a paddle wheel will not cause it to rotate.

**FIGURE 6-4**

Processes occur in a certain direction, and not in the reverse direction.

**FIGURE 6-5**

A process must satisfy both the first and second laws of thermodynamics to proceed.

6-1 ■ INTRODUCTION TO THE SECOND LAW

In Chap. 5, we applied the *first law of thermodynamics*, or the *conservation of energy principle*, to processes involving closed and open systems. As pointed out repeatedly in Chap. 5, energy is a conserved property, and no process is known to have taken place in violation of the first law of thermodynamics. Therefore, it is reasonable to conclude that a process must satisfy the first law to occur. However, as explained here, satisfying the first law alone does not ensure that the process will actually take place.

It is common experience that a cup of hot coffee left in a cooler room eventually cools off (Fig. 6-1). This process satisfies the first law of thermodynamics since the amount of energy lost by the coffee is equal to the amount gained by the surrounding air. Now let us consider the reverse process—the hot coffee getting even hotter in a cooler room as a result of heat transfer from the room air. We all know that this process never takes place. Yet, doing so would not violate the first law as long as the amount of energy lost by the air is equal to the amount gained by the coffee.

As another familiar example, consider the heating of a room by the passage of current through an electric resistor (Fig. 6-2). Again, the first law dictates that the amount of electric energy supplied to the resistance wires be equal to the amount of energy transferred to the room air as heat. Now let us attempt to reverse this process. It will come as no surprise that transferring some heat to the wires will not cause an equivalent amount of electric energy to be generated in the wires.

Finally, consider a paddle-wheel mechanism that is operated by the fall of a mass (Fig. 6-3). The paddle wheel rotates as the mass falls and stirs a fluid within an insulated container. As a result, the potential energy of the mass decreases, and the internal energy of the fluid increases in accordance with the conservation of energy principle. However, the reverse process, raising the mass by transferring heat from the fluid to the paddle wheel, does not occur in nature, although doing so would not violate the first law of thermodynamics.

It is clear from these arguments that processes proceed in a *certain direction* and not in the reverse direction (Fig. 6-4). The first law places no restriction on the direction of a process, but satisfying the first law does not ensure that the process will actually occur. This inadequacy of the first law to identify whether a process can take place is remedied by introducing another general principle, the *second law of thermodynamics*. We show later in this chapter that the reverse processes discussed above violate the second law of thermodynamics. This violation is easily detected with the help of a property, called *entropy*, defined in the next chapter. A process will not occur unless it satisfies both the first and the second laws of thermodynamics (Fig. 6-5).

There are numerous valid statements of the second law of thermodynamics. Two such statements are presented and discussed later in this chapter in relation to some engineering devices that operate on cycles.

The use of the second law of thermodynamics is not limited to identifying the direction of processes, however. The second law also asserts that energy has *quality* as well as quantity. The first law is concerned with the quantity of energy and the transformations of energy from one form to another with no regard to its quality. Preserving the quality of energy is a major concern to engineers, and the second law provides the necessary means to determine the quality as well as the degree of degradation of energy during a process. As discussed later in this chapter, more of high-temperature energy can be converted

to work, and thus it has a higher quality than the same amount of energy at a lower temperature.

The second law of thermodynamics is also used in determining the *theoretical limits* for the performance of commonly used engineering systems, such as heat engines and refrigerators, as well as predicting the *degree of completion* of chemical reactions.

6-2 ■ THERMAL ENERGY RESERVOIRS

In the development of the second law of thermodynamics, it is very convenient to have a hypothetical body with a relatively large *thermal energy capacity* (mass \times specific heat) that can supply or absorb finite amounts of heat without undergoing any change in temperature. Such a body is called a **thermal energy reservoir**, or just a reservoir. In practice, large bodies of water such as oceans, lakes, and rivers as well as the atmospheric air can be modeled accurately as thermal energy reservoirs because of their large thermal energy storage capabilities or thermal masses (Fig. 6-6). The *atmosphere*, for example, does not warm up as a result of heat losses from residential buildings in winter. Likewise, megajoules of waste energy dumped in large rivers by power plants do not cause any significant change in water temperature.

A *two-phase system* can be modeled as a reservoir also since it can absorb and release large quantities of heat while remaining at constant temperature. Another familiar example of a thermal energy reservoir is the *industrial furnace*. The temperatures of most furnaces are carefully controlled, and they are capable of supplying large quantities of thermal energy as heat in an essentially isothermal manner. Therefore, they can be modeled as reservoirs.

A body does not actually have to be very large to be considered a reservoir. Any physical body whose thermal energy capacity is large relative to the amount of energy it supplies or absorbs can be modeled as one. The air in a room, for example, can be treated as a reservoir in the analysis of the heat dissipation from a TV set in the room, since the amount of heat transfer from the TV set to the room air is not large enough to have a noticeable effect on the room air temperature.

A reservoir that supplies energy in the form of heat is called a **source**, and one that absorbs energy in the form of heat is called a **sink** (Fig. 6-7). Thermal energy reservoirs are often referred to as **heat reservoirs** since they supply or absorb energy in the form of heat.

Heat transfer from industrial sources to the environment is of major concern to environmentalists as well as to engineers. Irresponsible management of waste energy can significantly increase the temperature of portions of the environment, causing what is called *thermal pollution*. If it is not carefully controlled, thermal pollution can seriously disrupt marine life in lakes and rivers. However, by careful design and management, the waste energy dumped into large bodies of water can be used to improve the quality of marine life by keeping the local temperature increases within safe and desirable levels.

6-3 ■ HEAT ENGINES

As pointed out earlier, work can easily be converted to other forms of energy, but converting other forms of energy to work is not that easy. The mechanical work done by the shaft shown in Fig. 6-8, for example, is first converted to

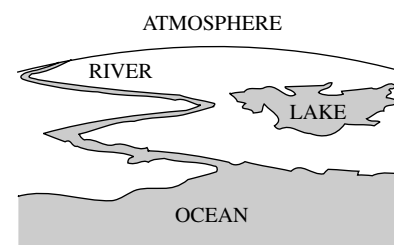


FIGURE 6-6

Bodies with relatively large thermal masses can be modeled as thermal energy reservoirs.

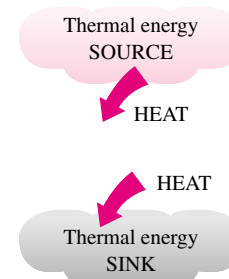


FIGURE 6-7

A source supplies energy in the form of heat, and a sink absorbs it.

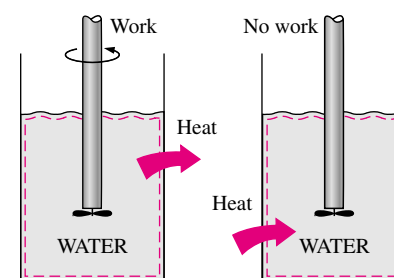
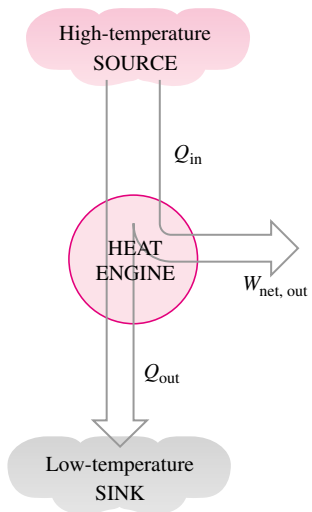


FIGURE 6-8

Work can always be converted to heat directly and completely, but the reverse is not true.

**FIGURE 6–9**

Part of the heat received by a heat engine is converted to work, while the rest is rejected to a sink.

the internal energy of the water. This energy may then leave the water as heat. We know from experience that any attempt to reverse this process will fail. That is, transferring heat to the water will not cause the shaft to rotate. From this and other observations, we conclude that work can be converted to heat directly and completely, but converting heat to work requires the use of some special devices. These devices are called **heat engines**.

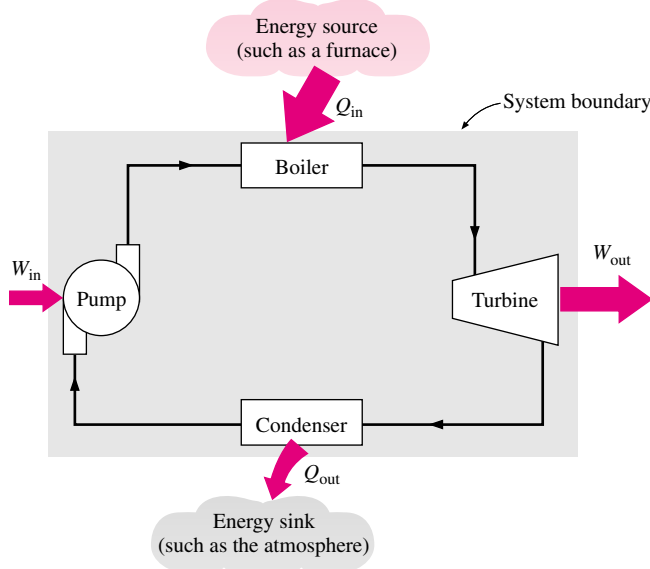
Heat engines differ considerably from one another, but all can be characterized by these statements (Fig. 6–9):

1. They receive heat from a high-temperature source (solar energy, oil furnace, nuclear reactor, etc.).
2. They convert part of this heat to work (usually in the form of a rotating shaft).
3. They reject the remaining waste heat to a low-temperature sink (the atmosphere, rivers, etc.).
4. They operate on a cycle.

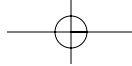
Heat engines and other cyclic devices usually involve a fluid to and from which heat is transferred while undergoing a cycle. This fluid is called the **working fluid**.

The term *heat engine* is often used in a broader sense to include work-producing devices that do not operate in a thermodynamic cycle. Engines that involve internal combustion such as gas turbines and car engines fall into this category. These devices operate in a mechanical cycle but not in a thermodynamic cycle since the working fluid (the combustion gases) does not undergo a complete cycle. Instead of being cooled to the initial temperature, the exhaust gases are purged and replaced by fresh air-and-fuel mixture at the end of the cycle.

The work-producing device that best fits into the definition of a heat engine is the *steam power plant*, which is an external-combustion engine. That is, combustion takes place outside the engine, and the thermal energy released during this process is transferred to the steam as heat. The schematic of a basic steam power plant is shown in Fig. 6–10. This is a rather simplified diagram,

**FIGURE 6–10**

Schematic of a steam power plant.



and the discussion of actual steam power plants is given in later chapters. The various quantities shown on this figure are as follows:

Q_{in} = amount of heat supplied to steam in boiler from a high-temperature source (furnace)

Q_{out} = amount of heat rejected from steam in condenser to a low-temperature sink (the atmosphere, a river, etc.)

W_{out} = amount of work delivered by steam as it expands in turbine

W_{in} = amount of work required to compress water to boiler pressure

Notice that the directions of the heat and work interactions are indicated by the subscripts *in* and *out*. Therefore, all four of the described quantities are always *positive*.

The net work output of this power plant is simply the difference between the total work output of the plant and the total work input (Fig. 6–11):

$$W_{\text{net, out}} = W_{\text{out}} - W_{\text{in}} \quad (\text{kJ}) \quad (6-1)$$

The net work can also be determined from the heat transfer data alone. The four components of the steam power plant involve mass flow in and out, and therefore they should be treated as open systems. These components, together with the connecting pipes, however, always contain the same fluid (not counting the steam that may leak out, of course). No mass enters or leaves this combination system, which is indicated by the shaded area on Fig. 6–10; thus, it can be analyzed as a closed system. Recall that for a closed system undergoing a cycle, the change in internal energy ΔU is zero, and therefore the net work output of the system is also equal to the net heat transfer to the system:

$$W_{\text{net, out}} = Q_{in} - Q_{out} \quad (\text{kJ}) \quad (6-2)$$

Thermal Efficiency

In Eq. 6–2, Q_{out} represents the magnitude of the energy wasted in order to complete the cycle. But Q_{out} is never zero; thus, the net work output of a heat engine is always less than the amount of heat input. That is, only part of the heat transferred to the heat engine is converted to work. The fraction of the heat input that is converted to net work output is a measure of the performance of a heat engine and is called the **thermal efficiency** η_{th} (Fig. 6–12).

Performance or efficiency, in general, can be expressed in terms of the desired output and the required input as (Fig. 6–13)

$$\text{Performance} = \frac{\text{Desired output}}{\text{Required input}} \quad (6-3)$$

For heat engines, the desired output is the net work output, and the required input is the amount of heat supplied to the working fluid. Then the thermal efficiency of a heat engine can be expressed as

$$\text{Thermal efficiency} = \frac{\text{Net work output}}{\text{Total heat input}}$$

or

$$\eta_{th} = \frac{W_{\text{net, out}}}{Q_{in}} \quad (6-4)$$

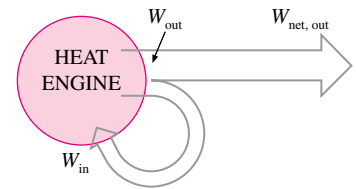


FIGURE 6–11

A portion of the work output of a heat engine is consumed internally to maintain continuous operation.

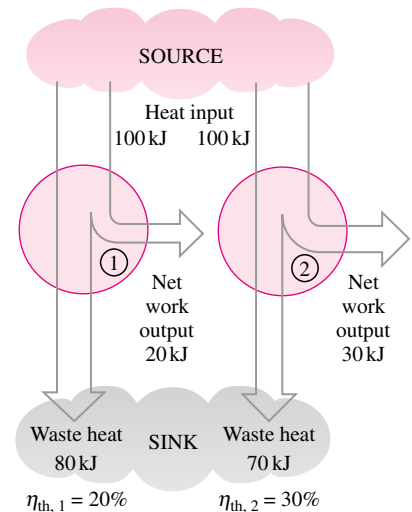


FIGURE 6–12

Some heat engines perform better than others (convert more of the heat they receive to work).

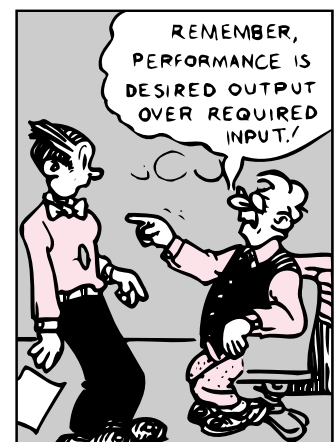
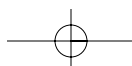


FIGURE 6–13

The definition of performance is not limited to thermodynamics only. (Reprinted with special permission of King Features Syndicate.)



It can also be expressed as

$$\eta_{\text{th}} = 1 - \frac{Q_{\text{out}}}{Q_{\text{in}}} \quad (6-5)$$

since $W_{\text{net, out}} = Q_{\text{in}} - Q_{\text{out}}$.

Cyclic devices of practical interest such as heat engines, refrigerators, and heat pumps operate between a high-temperature medium (or reservoir) at temperature T_H and a low-temperature medium (or reservoir) at temperature T_L . To bring uniformity to the treatment of heat engines, refrigerators, and heat pumps, we define these two quantities:

Q_H = magnitude of heat transfer between the cyclic device and the high-temperature medium at temperature T_H

Q_L = magnitude of heat transfer between the cyclic device and the low-temperature medium at temperature T_L

Notice that both Q_L and Q_H are defined as *magnitudes* and therefore are positive quantities. The direction of Q_H and Q_L is easily determined by inspection. Then the net work output and thermal efficiency relations for any heat engine (shown in Fig. 6–14) can also be expressed as

$$W_{\text{net, out}} = Q_H - Q_L$$

and

$$\eta_{\text{th}} = \frac{W_{\text{net, out}}}{Q_H}$$

or

$$\eta_{\text{th}} = 1 - \frac{Q_L}{Q_H} \quad (6-6)$$

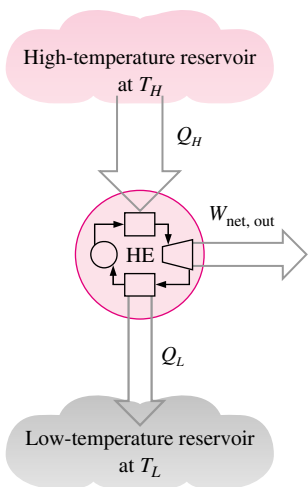


FIGURE 6–14
Schematic of a heat engine.

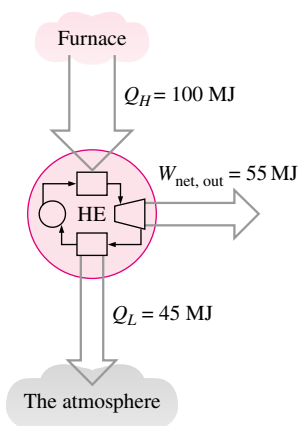


FIGURE 6–15
Even the most efficient heat engines reject almost one-half of the energy they receive as waste heat.

The thermal efficiency of a heat engine is always less than unity since both Q_L and Q_H are defined as positive quantities.

Thermal efficiency is a measure of how efficiently a heat engine converts the heat that it receives to work. Heat engines are built for the purpose of converting heat to work, and engineers are constantly trying to improve the efficiencies of these devices since increased efficiency means less fuel consumption and thus lower fuel bills and less pollution.

The thermal efficiencies of work-producing devices are relatively low. Ordinary spark-ignition automobile engines have a thermal efficiency of about 25 percent. That is, an automobile engine converts about 25 percent of the chemical energy of the gasoline to mechanical work. This number is as high as 40 percent for diesel engines and large gas-turbine plants and as high as 60 percent for large combined gas-steam power plants. Thus, even with the most efficient heat engines available today, almost one-half of the energy supplied ends up in the rivers, lakes, or the atmosphere as waste or useless energy (Fig. 6–15).

Can We Save Q_{out} ?

In a steam power plant, the condenser is the device where large quantities of waste heat is rejected to rivers, lakes, or the atmosphere. Then one may ask,

can we not just take the condenser out of the plant and save all that waste energy? The answer to this question is, unfortunately, a firm *no* for the simple reason that without a heat rejection process in a condenser, the cycle cannot be completed. (Cyclic devices such as steam power plants cannot run continuously unless the cycle is completed.) This is demonstrated next with the help of a simple heat engine.

Consider the simple heat engine shown in Fig. 6–16 that is used to lift weights. It consists of a piston-cylinder device with two sets of stops. The working fluid is the gas contained within the cylinder. Initially, the gas temperature is 30°C . The piston, which is loaded with the weights, is resting on top of the lower stops. Now 100 kJ of heat is transferred to the gas in the cylinder from a source at 100°C , causing it to expand and to raise the loaded piston until the piston reaches the upper stops, as shown in the figure. At this point, the load is removed, and the gas temperature is observed to be 90°C .

The work done on the load during this expansion process is equal to the increase in its potential energy, say 15 kJ . Even under ideal conditions (weightless piston, no friction, no heat losses, and quasi-equilibrium expansion), the amount of heat supplied to the gas is greater than the work done since part of the heat supplied is used to raise the temperature of the gas.

Now let us try to answer this question: *Is it possible to transfer the 85 kJ of excess heat at 90°C back to the reservoir at 100°C for later use?* If it is, then we will have a heat engine that can have a thermal efficiency of 100 percent under ideal conditions. The answer to this question is again *no*, for the very simple reason that heat always flows from a high-temperature medium to a low-temperature one, and never the other way around. Therefore, we cannot cool this gas from 90 to 30°C by transferring heat to a reservoir at 100°C . Instead, we have to bring the system into contact with a low-temperature reservoir, say at 20°C , so that the gas can return to its initial state by rejecting its 85 kJ of excess energy as heat to this reservoir. This energy cannot be recycled, and it is properly called *waste energy*.

We conclude from this discussion that every heat engine must *waste* some energy by transferring it to a low-temperature reservoir in order to complete the cycle, even under idealized conditions. The requirement that a heat engine exchange heat with at least two reservoirs for continuous operation forms the basis for the Kelvin–Planck expression of the second law of thermodynamics discussed later in this section.

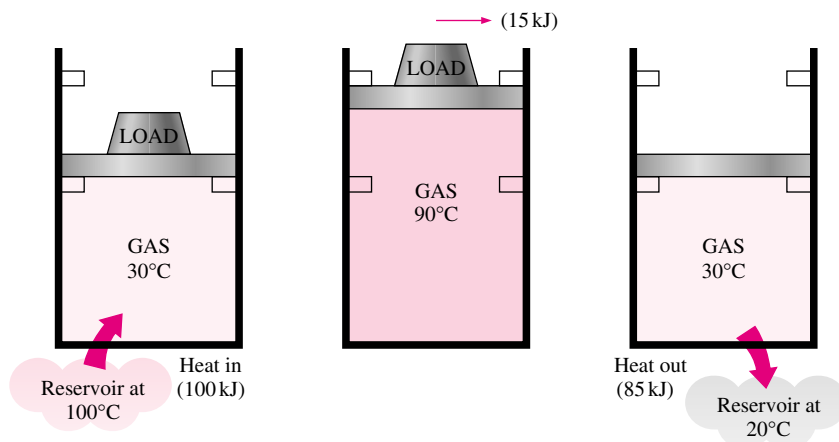


FIGURE 6–16

A heat-engine cycle cannot be completed without rejecting some heat to a low-temperature sink.

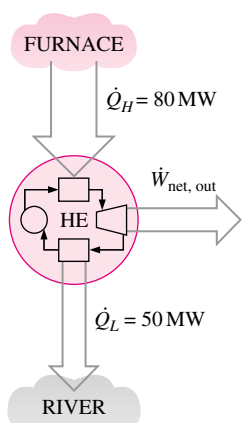


FIGURE 6-17

Schematic for Example 6-1.

EXAMPLE 6-1 Net Power Production of a Heat Engine

Heat is transferred to a heat engine from a furnace at a rate of 80 MW. If the rate of waste heat rejection to a nearby river is 50 MW, determine the net power output and the thermal efficiency for this heat engine.

SOLUTION A schematic of the heat engine is given in Fig. 6-17. The furnace serves as the high-temperature reservoir for this heat engine and the river as the low-temperature reservoir.

Assumptions Heat losses through the pipes and other components are negligible.

Analysis The given quantities can be expressed in rate form as

$$\dot{Q}_H = 80 \text{ MW and } \dot{Q}_L = 50 \text{ MW}$$

The net power output of this heat engine is

$$\dot{W}_{\text{net, out}} = \dot{Q}_H - \dot{Q}_L = (80 - 50) \text{ MW} = \mathbf{30 \text{ MW}}$$

Then the thermal efficiency is easily determined to be

$$\eta_{\text{th}} = \frac{\dot{W}_{\text{net, out}}}{\dot{Q}_H} = \frac{30 \text{ MW}}{80 \text{ MW}} = \mathbf{0.375 \text{ (or 37.5%)}}$$

That is, the heat engine converts 37.5 percent of the heat it receives to work.

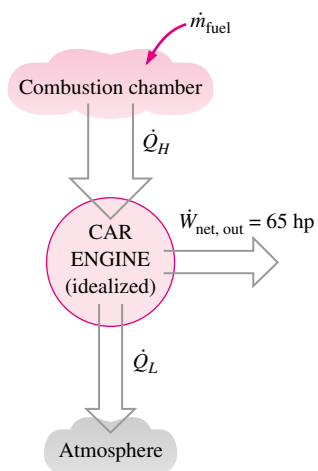


FIGURE 6-18

Schematic for Example 6-2.

EXAMPLE 6-2 Fuel Consumption Rate of a Car

A car engine with a power output of 65 hp has a thermal efficiency of 24 percent. Determine the fuel consumption rate of this car if the fuel has a heating value of 19,000 Btu/lbm (that is, 19,000 Btu of energy is released for each lbm of fuel burned).

SOLUTION A schematic of the car engine is given in Fig. 6-18. The car engine is powered by converting 24 percent of the chemical energy released during the combustion process to work.

Assumptions The power output of the car is constant.

Analysis The amount of energy input required to produce a power output of 65 hp is determined from the definition of thermal efficiency to be

$$\dot{Q}_H = \frac{W_{\text{net, out}}}{\eta_{\text{th}}} = \frac{65 \text{ hp}}{0.24} \left(\frac{2545 \text{ Btu/h}}{1 \text{ hp}} \right) = 689,271 \text{ Btu/h}$$

To supply energy at this rate, the engine must burn fuel at a rate of

$$\dot{m} = \frac{689,271 \text{ Btu/h}}{19,000 \text{ Btu/lbm}} = \mathbf{36.3 \text{ lbm/h}}$$

since 19,000 Btu of thermal energy is released for each lbm of fuel burned.

The Second Law of Thermodynamics: Kelvin–Planck Statement

We have demonstrated earlier with reference to the heat engine shown in Fig. 6–16 that, even under ideal conditions, a heat engine must reject some heat to a low-temperature reservoir in order to complete the cycle. That is, no heat engine can convert all the heat it receives to useful work. This limitation on the thermal efficiency of heat engines forms the basis for the Kelvin–Planck statement of the second law of thermodynamics, which is expressed as follows:

It is impossible for any device that operates on a cycle to receive heat from a single reservoir and produce a net amount of work.

That is, a heat engine must exchange heat with a low-temperature sink as well as a high-temperature source to keep operating. The Kelvin–Planck statement can also be expressed as *no heat engine can have a thermal efficiency of 100 percent* (Fig. 6–19), or as *for a power plant to operate, the working fluid must exchange heat with the environment as well as the furnace*.

Note that the impossibility of having a 100 percent efficient heat engine is not due to friction or other dissipative effects. It is a limitation that applies to both the idealized and the actual heat engines. Later in this chapter, we develop a relation for the maximum thermal efficiency of a heat engine. We also demonstrate that this maximum value depends on the reservoir temperatures only.

6–4 ■ 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 *thermal efficiency* of a heat engine, for example, is the fraction of the thermal energy a heat engine converts to work. Efficiency is also one of the most frequently misused terms in thermodynamics and a source of misunderstandings. This is because efficiency is often used without being properly defined first. Next we will clarify this further, and define some efficiencies commonly used in practice.

If you are shopping for a water heater, a knowledgeable salesperson will tell you that the efficiency of a conventional electric water heater is about 90 percent (Fig. 6–20). You may find this confusing, since the heating elements of electric water heaters are resistance heaters, and the efficiency of all resistance heaters is 100 percent as they convert all the electrical energy they consume into heat. A knowledgeable salesperson will clarify this by explaining that the heat losses from the hot-water tank to the surrounding air amount to 10 percent of the electrical energy consumed, and the **efficiency of a water heater** is defined as the ratio of the *energy delivered to the house by hot water* to the *energy supplied to the water heater*. A clever salesperson may even talk you into buying a more expensive water heater with thicker insulation that has an efficiency of 94 percent. If you are a knowledgeable consumer and have access to natural gas, you will probably purchase a gas water heater whose efficiency is only 55 percent since a gas unit costs about the same as an electric unit to purchase and install, but the annual energy cost of a gas unit will be

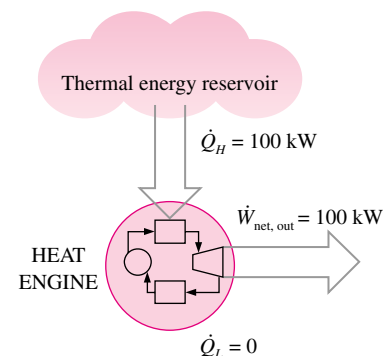
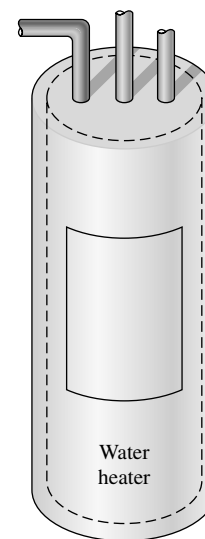


FIGURE 6–19

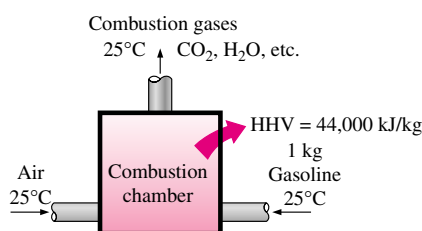
A heat engine that violates the Kelvin–Planck statement of the second law.



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

FIGURE 6–20

Typical efficiencies of conventional and high-efficiency electric and natural gas water heaters.

**FIGURE 6–21**

The definition of the heating value of gasoline.

less than half of that of an electric unit at national average electricity and gas prices.

Perhaps you are wondering how the efficiency for a gas water heater is defined, and why it is much lower than the efficiency of an electric heater. As a general rule, the efficiency of equipment that involves the combustion of a fuel is based on the **heating value of the fuel**, which is *the amount of heat released when a specified amount of fuel (usually a unit mass) at room temperature is completely burned and the combustion products are cooled to the room temperature* (Fig. 6–21). Then the performance of combustion equipment can be characterized by **combustion efficiency**, defined as

$$\eta_{\text{combustion}} = \frac{Q}{HV} = \frac{\text{Amount of heat released during combustion}}{\text{Heating value of the fuel burned}} \quad (6-7)$$

A combustion efficiency of 100 percent indicates that the fuel is burned completely and the stack gases leave the combustion chamber at room temperature, and thus the amount of heat released during a combustion process is equal to the heating value of the fuel.

Most fuels contain hydrogen, which forms water when burned, and the heating value of a fuel will be different, depending on whether the water in combustion products is in the liquid or vapor form. The heating value is called the *lower heating value*, or LHV, when the water leaves as a vapor, and the *higher heating value*, or HHV, when the water in the combustion gases is completely condensed and thus the heat of vaporization is also recovered. The difference between these two heating values is equal to the product of the amount of water and the enthalpy of vaporization of water at room temperature. For example, the lower and higher heating values of gasoline are 44,000 kJ/kg and 47,300 kJ/kg, respectively. An efficiency definition should make it clear whether it is based on the higher or lower heating value of the fuel. Efficiencies of cars and jet engines are normally based on *lower heating values* since water normally leaves as a vapor in the exhaust gases, and it is not practical to try to recuperate the heat of vaporization. Efficiencies of furnaces, on the other hand, are based on *higher heating values*.

The efficiency of space heating systems of residential and commercial buildings is usually expressed in terms of the **annual fuel utilization efficiency**, or **AFUE**, which accounts for the combustion efficiency as well as other losses such as heat losses to unheated areas and start-up and cool-down losses. The AFUE of most new heating systems is close to 85 percent, although the AFUE of some old heating systems is under 60 percent. The AFUE of some new high-efficiency furnaces exceeds 96 percent, but the high cost of such furnaces cannot be justified for locations with mild to moderate winters. Such high efficiencies are achieved by reclaiming most of the heat in the flue gases, condensing the water vapor, and discharging the flue gases at temperatures as low as 38°C (or 100°F) instead of about 200°C (or 400°F) for the conventional models.

For *car engines*, the work output is understood to be the power delivered by the crankshaft. But for power plants, the work output can be the mechanical power at the turbine exit, or the electrical power output of the generator.

A generator is a device that converts mechanical energy to electrical energy, and the effectiveness of a generator is characterized by the **generator efficiency**, which is the ratio of the *electrical power output* to the *mechanical*

power input. The *thermal efficiency* of a power plant, which is of primary interest in thermodynamics, is usually defined as the ratio of the shaft work output of the turbine to the heat input to the working fluid. The effects of other factors are incorporated by defining an **overall efficiency** for the power plant as the ratio of the *net electrical power output* to the *rate of fuel energy input*. That is,

$$\eta_{\text{overall}} = \eta_{\text{combustion}} \eta_{\text{thermal}} \eta_{\text{generator}} = \frac{\dot{W}_{\text{net, electric}}}{\text{HHV} \times \dot{m}_{\text{net}}} \quad (6-8)$$

The overall efficiencies are about 26–30 percent for gasoline automotive engines, 34–40 percent for diesel engines, and 40–60 percent for large power plants.

Electrical energy is commonly converted to *rotating mechanical energy* by electric motors to drive fans, compressors, robot arms, car starters, and so forth. The effectiveness of this conversion process is characterized by the **motor efficiency** η_{motor} , which is the ratio of the *mechanical energy output* of the motor to the *electrical energy input*. The full-load motor efficiencies range from about 35 percent for small motors to over 96 percent for large high-efficiency motors. The difference between the electrical energy consumed and the mechanical energy delivered is dissipated as waste heat.

We are all familiar with the conversion of electrical energy to *light* by incandescent lightbulbs, fluorescent tubes, and high-intensity discharge lamps. The efficiency for the conversion of electricity to light can be defined as the ratio of the energy converted to light to the electrical energy consumed. For example, common incandescent lightbulbs convert about 10 percent of the electrical energy they consume to light; the rest of the energy consumed is dissipated as heat, which adds to the cooling load of the air conditioner in summer. However, it is more common to express the effectiveness of this conversion process by **lighting efficacy**, which is defined as the *amount of light output in lumens per W of electricity consumed*.

The efficacy of different lighting systems is given in Table 6–1. Note that a compact fluorescent lightbulb produces about four times as much light as an incandescent lightbulb per W, and thus a 15-W fluorescent bulb can replace a 60-W incandescent lightbulb (Fig. 6–22). Also, a compact fluorescent bulb lasts about 10,000 h, which is 10 times as long as an incandescent bulb, and it plugs directly into the socket of an incandescent lamp. Therefore, despite their higher initial cost, compact fluorescents reduce the lighting costs considerably through reduced electricity consumption. Sodium-filled high-intensity discharge lamps provide the most efficient lighting, but their use is limited to outdoor use because of their yellowish light.

We can also define efficiency for cooking appliances since they convert electrical or chemical energy to heat for cooking. The **efficiency of a cooking appliance** can be defined as the ratio of the *useful energy transferred to the food* to the *energy consumed by the appliance* (Fig. 6–23). Electric ranges are more efficient than gas ranges, but it is much cheaper to cook with natural gas than with electricity because of the lower unit cost of natural gas (Table 6–2).

The cooking efficiency depends on user habits as well as the individual appliances. Convection and microwave ovens are inherently more efficient than conventional ovens. On average, convection ovens save about *one-third* and microwave ovens save about *two-thirds* of the energy used by conventional

TABLE 6–1

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

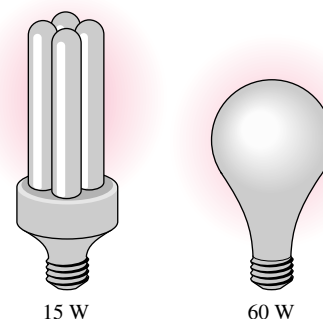
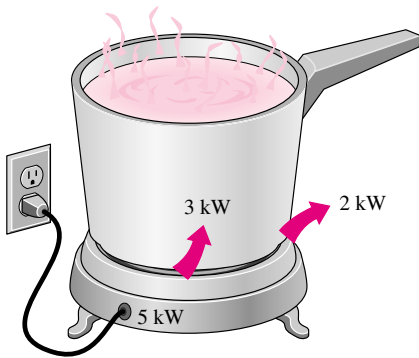


FIGURE 6–22

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

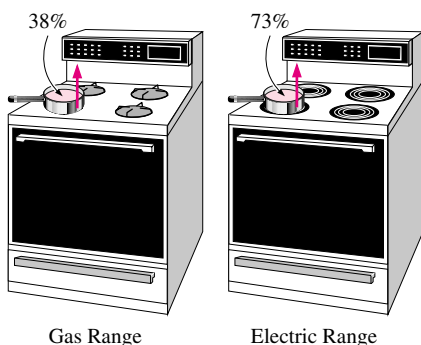


$$\text{Efficiency} = \frac{\text{Energy utilized}}{\text{Energy supplied to appliance}}$$

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

FIGURE 6-23

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

**FIGURE 6-24**

Schematic of the 73 percent efficient electric heating unit and 38 percent efficient gas burner discussed in Example 6-3.

TABLE 6-2

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

*Assumes a unit cost of \$0.08/kWh for electricity and \$0.60/therm for gas.

ovens. The cooking efficiency can be increased by using the smallest oven for baking, using a pressure cooker, using a crockpot for stews and soups, using the smallest pan that will do the job, using the smaller heating element for small pans on electric ranges, using flat-bottomed pans on electric burners to assure good contact, keeping burner drip pans clean and shiny, defrosting frozen foods in the refrigerator before cooking, avoiding preheating unless it is necessary, keeping the pans covered during cooking, using timers and thermometers to avoid overcooking, using the self-cleaning feature of ovens right after cooking, and keeping inside surfaces of microwave ovens clean.

Using energy-efficient appliances and practicing energy conservation measures help our pocketbooks by reducing our utility bills. It will also help the **environment** by reducing the amount of pollutants emitted to the atmosphere during the combustion of fuel at home or at the power plants where electricity is generated. The combustion of *each therm of natural gas* produces 6.4 kg of carbon dioxide, which causes global climate change; 4.7 g of nitrogen oxides and 0.54 g of hydrocarbons, which cause smog; 2.0 g of carbon monoxide, which is toxic; and 0.030 g of sulfur dioxide, which causes acid rain. Each therm of natural gas saved eliminates the emission of these pollutants while saving \$0.60 for the average consumer in the United States. Each kWh of electricity saved will save 0.4 kg of coal and 1.0 kg of CO₂ and 15 g of SO₂ from a coal power plant.

EXAMPLE 6-3 Cost of Cooking with Electric and Gas Ranges

The efficiency of cooking appliances affects the internal heat gain from them since an inefficient appliance consumes a greater amount of energy for the same task, and the excess energy consumed shows up as heat in the living space. The efficiency of open burners is determined to be 73 percent for electric units and 38 percent for gas units (Fig. 6-24). Consider a 2-kW electric burner at a location where the unit costs of electricity and natural gas are \$0.09/kWh and \$0.55/therm, respectively. Determine the rate of energy consumption by the burner and the unit cost of utilized energy for both electric and gas burners.

SOLUTION This example is to demonstrate the economics of electric and gas ranges.

Analysis The efficiency of the electric heater is given to be 73 percent. Therefore, a burner that consumes 2 kW of electrical energy will supply

$$\dot{Q}_{\text{utilized}} = (\text{Energy input}) \times (\text{Efficiency}) = (2 \text{ kW})(0.73) = \mathbf{1.46 \text{ kW}}$$

of useful energy. The unit cost of utilized energy is inversely proportional to the efficiency, and is determined from

$$\text{Cost of utilized energy} = \frac{\text{Cost of energy input}}{\text{Efficiency}} = \frac{\$0.09/\text{kWh}}{0.73} = \mathbf{\$0.123/\text{kWh}}$$

Noting that the efficiency of a gas burner is 38 percent, the energy input to a gas burner that supplies utilized energy at the same rate (1.46 kW) is

$$\dot{Q}_{\text{input, gas}} = \frac{\dot{Q}_{\text{utilized}}}{\text{Efficiency}} = \frac{1.46 \text{ kW}}{0.38} = \mathbf{3.84 \text{ kW}} \quad (= 13,100 \text{ Btu/h})$$

since 1 kW = 3412 Btu/h. Therefore, a gas burner should have a rating of at least 13,100 Btu/h to perform as well as the electric unit.

Noting that 1 therm = 29.3 kWh, the unit cost of utilized energy in the case of a gas burner is determined to be

$$\text{Cost of utilized energy} = \frac{\text{Cost of energy input}}{\text{Efficiency}} = \frac{\$0.55/29.3 \text{ kWh}}{0.38} = \mathbf{\$0.049/\text{kWh}}$$

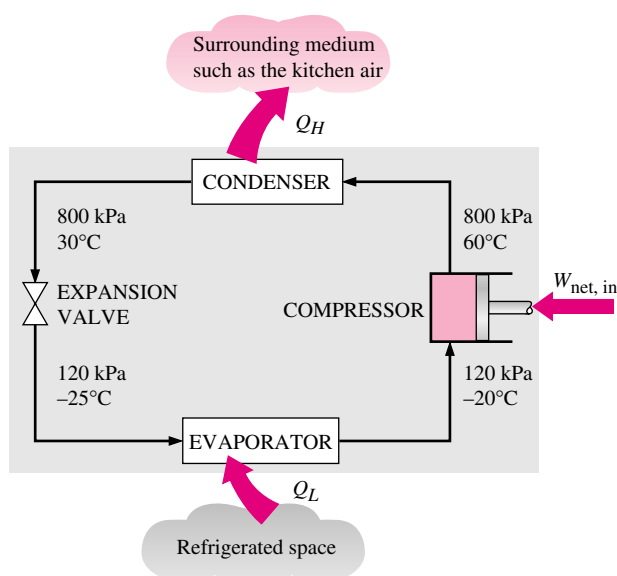
Discussion The cost of utilized gas is less than half of the unit cost of utilized electricity. Therefore, despite its higher efficiency, cooking with an electric burner will cost more than twice as much compared to a gas burner in this case. This explains why cost-conscious consumers always ask for gas appliances, and it is not wise to use electricity for heating purposes.

6-5 ■ REFRIGERATORS AND HEAT PUMPS

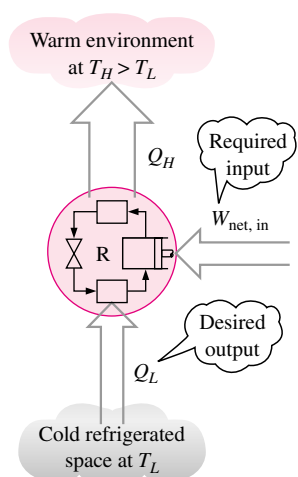
We all know from experience that heat flows in the direction of decreasing temperature, that is, from high-temperature mediums to low-temperature ones. This heat transfer process occurs in nature without requiring any devices. The reverse process, however, cannot occur by itself. The transfer of heat from a low-temperature medium to a high-temperature one requires special devices called **refrigerators**.

Refrigerators, like heat engines, are cyclic devices. The working fluid used in the refrigeration cycle is called a **refrigerant**. The most frequently used refrigeration cycle is the *vapor-compression refrigeration cycle*, which involves four main components: a compressor, a condenser, an expansion valve, and an evaporator, as shown in Fig. 6-25.

The refrigerant enters the compressor as a vapor and is compressed to the condenser pressure. It leaves the compressor at a relatively high temperature and cools down and condenses as it flows through the coils of the condenser by rejecting heat to the surrounding medium. It then enters a capillary tube where its pressure and temperature drop drastically due to the throttling effect. The low-temperature refrigerant then enters the evaporator, where it evaporates by absorbing heat from the refrigerated space. The cycle is completed as the refrigerant leaves the evaporator and reenters the compressor.

**FIGURE 6-25**

Basic components of a refrigeration system and typical operating conditions.

**FIGURE 6-26**

The objective of a refrigerator is to remove Q_L from the cooled space.

In a household refrigerator, the freezer compartment where heat is picked up by the refrigerant serves as the evaporator, and the coils behind the refrigerator where heat is dissipated to the kitchen air serve as the condenser.

A refrigerator is shown schematically in Fig. 6-26. Here Q_L is the magnitude of the heat removed from the refrigerated space at temperature T_L , Q_H is the magnitude of the heat rejected to the warm environment at temperature T_H , and $W_{\text{net, in}}$ is the net work input to the refrigerator. As discussed before, Q_L and Q_H represent magnitudes and thus are positive quantities.

Coefficient of Performance

The *efficiency* of a refrigerator is expressed in terms of the **coefficient of performance** (COP), denoted by COP_R . The objective of a refrigerator is to remove heat (Q_L) from the refrigerated space. To accomplish this objective, it requires a work input of $W_{\text{net, in}}$. Then the COP of a refrigerator can be expressed as

$$\text{COP}_R = \frac{\text{Desired output}}{\text{Required input}} = \frac{Q_L}{W_{\text{net, in}}} \quad (6-9)$$

This relation can also be expressed in rate form by replacing Q_L by \dot{Q}_L and $W_{\text{net, in}}$ by $\dot{W}_{\text{net, in}}$.

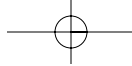
The conservation of energy principle for a cyclic device requires that

$$W_{\text{net, in}} = Q_H - Q_L \quad (\text{kJ}) \quad (6-10)$$

Then the COP relation can also be expressed as

$$\text{COP}_R = \frac{Q_L}{Q_H - Q_L} = \frac{1}{Q_H/Q_L - 1} \quad (6-11)$$

Notice that the value of COP_R can be *greater than unity*. That is, the amount of heat removed from the refrigerated space can be greater than the amount of



work input. This is in contrast to the thermal efficiency, which can never be greater than 1. In fact, one reason for expressing the efficiency of a refrigerator by another term—the coefficient of performance—is the desire to avoid the oddity of having efficiencies greater than unity.

Heat Pumps

Another device that transfers heat from a low-temperature medium to a high-temperature one is the **heat pump**, shown schematically in Fig. 6–27. Refrigerators and heat pumps operate on the same cycle but differ in their objectives. The objective of a refrigerator is to maintain the refrigerated space at a low temperature by removing heat from it. Discharging this heat to a higher-temperature medium is merely a necessary part of the operation, not the purpose. The objective of a heat pump, however, is to maintain a heated space at a high temperature. This is accomplished by absorbing heat from a low-temperature source, such as well water or cold outside air in winter, and supplying this heat to the high-temperature medium such as a house (Fig. 6–28).

An ordinary refrigerator that is placed in the window of a house with its door open to the cold outside air in winter will function as a heat pump since it will try to cool the outside by absorbing heat from it and rejecting this heat into the house through the coils behind it (Fig. 6–29).

The measure of performance of a heat pump is also expressed in terms of the **coefficient of performance** COP_{HP} , defined as

$$\text{COP}_{\text{HP}} = \frac{\text{Desired output}}{\text{Required input}} = \frac{Q_H}{W_{\text{net, in}}} \quad (6-12)$$

which can also be expressed as

$$\text{COP}_{\text{HP}} = \frac{Q_H}{Q_H - Q_L} = \frac{1}{1 - Q_L/Q_H} \quad (6-13)$$

A comparison of Eqs. 6–9 and 6–12 reveals that

$$\text{COP}_{\text{HP}} = \text{COP}_{\text{R}} + 1 \quad (6-14)$$

for fixed values of Q_L and Q_H . This relation implies that the coefficient of performance of a heat pump is always greater than unity since COP_{R} is a positive quantity. That is, a heat pump will function, at worst, as a resistance heater, supplying as much energy to the house as it consumes. In reality, however, part of Q_H is lost to the outside air through piping and other devices, and COP_{HP} may drop below unity when the outside air temperature is too low. When this happens, the system usually switches to a resistance heating mode. Most heat pumps in operation today have a seasonally averaged COP of 2 to 3.

Most existing heat pumps use the cold outside air as the heat source in winter, and they are referred to as *air-source heat pumps*. The COP of such heat pumps is about 3.0 at design conditions. Air-source heat pumps are not appropriate for cold climates since their efficiency drops considerably when temperatures are below the freezing point. In such cases, geothermal (also called ground-source) heat pumps that use the ground as the heat source can

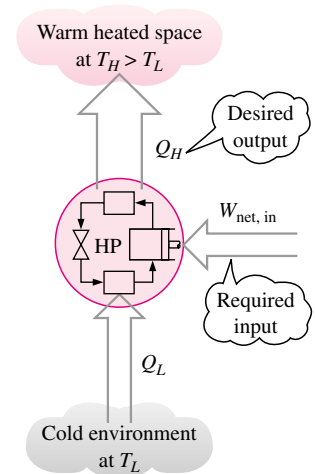


FIGURE 6–27

The objective of a heat pump is to supply heat Q_H into the warmer space.

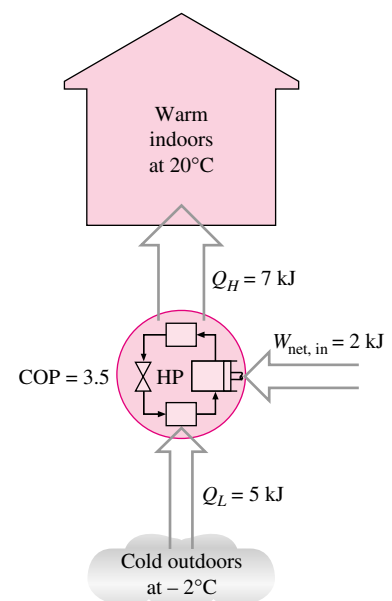
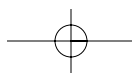


FIGURE 6–28

The work supplied to a heat pump is used to extract energy from the cold outdoors and carry it into the warm indoors.



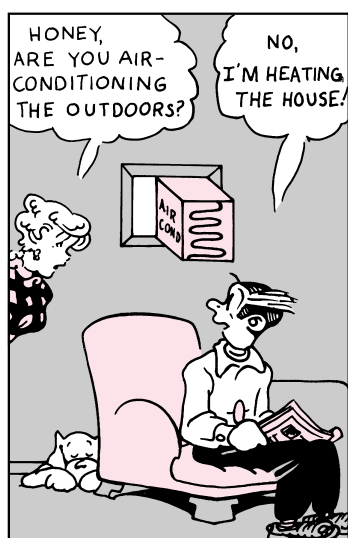


FIGURE 6-29

When installed backward, an air conditioner will function as a heat pump. (Reprinted with special permission of King Features Syndicate.)

be used. Geothermal heat pumps require the burial of pipes in the ground 1 to 2 m deep. Such heat pumps are more expensive to install, but they are also more efficient (up to 45 percent more efficient than air-source heat pumps). The COP of ground-source heat pumps is about 4.0.

Air conditioners are basically refrigerators whose refrigerated space is a room or a building instead of the food compartment. A window air-conditioning unit cools a room by absorbing heat from the room air and discharging it to the outside. The same air-conditioning unit can be used as a heat pump in winter by installing it backwards. In this mode, the unit will pick up heat from the cold outside and deliver it to the room. Air-conditioning systems that are equipped with proper controls and a reversing valve operate as air conditioners in summer and as heat pumps in winter.

The performance of refrigerators and air conditioners in the United States is often expressed in terms of the **energy efficiency rating (EER)**, which is the amount of heat removed from the cooled space in Btu's for 1 Wh (watt-hour) of electricity consumed. Considering that $1 \text{ kWh} = 3412 \text{ Btu}$ and thus $1 \text{ Wh} = 3.412 \text{ Btu}$, a unit that removes 1 kWh of heat from the cooled space for each kWh of electricity it consumes ($\text{COP} = 1$) will have an EER of 3.412. Therefore, the relation between EER and COP is

$$\text{EER} = 3.412 \text{ COP}_R$$

Most air conditioners have an EER between 8 and 12 (a COP of 2.3 to 3.5). A high-efficiency heat pump recently manufactured by the Trane Company using a reciprocating variable-speed compressor is reported to have a COP of 3.3 in the heating mode and an EER of 16.9 (COP of 5.0) in the air-conditioning mode. Variable-speed compressors and fans allow the unit to operate at maximum efficiency for varying heating/cooling needs and weather conditions as determined by a microprocessor. In the air-conditioning mode, for example, they operate at higher speeds on hot days and at lower speeds on cooler days, enhancing both efficiency and comfort.

The EER or COP of a refrigerator decreases with decreasing refrigeration temperature. Therefore, it is not economical to refrigerate to a lower temperature than needed. The COPs of refrigerators are in the range of 2.6–3.0 for cutting and preparation rooms; 2.3–2.6 for meat, deli, dairy, and produce; 1.2–1.5 for frozen foods; and 1.0–1.2 for ice cream units. Note that the COP of freezers is about half of the COP of meat refrigerators, and thus it will cost twice as much to cool the meat products with refrigerated air that is cold enough to cool frozen foods. It is good energy conservation practice to use separate refrigeration systems to meet different refrigeration needs.

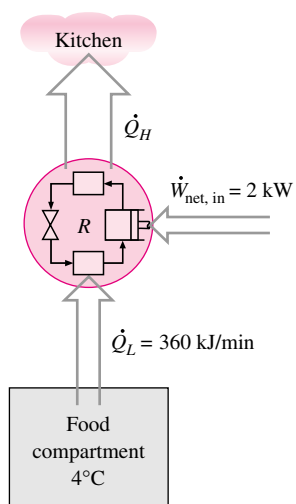


FIGURE 6-30

Schematic for Example 6-4.

EXAMPLE 6-4 Heat Rejection by a Refrigerator

The food compartment of a refrigerator, shown in Fig. 6-30, is maintained at 4°C by removing heat from it at a rate of 360 kJ/min . If the required power input to the refrigerator is 2 kW , determine (a) the coefficient of performance of the refrigerator and (b) the rate of heat rejection to the room that houses the refrigerator.

SOLUTION The power consumption of a refrigerator is given. The COP and the rate of heat rejection are to be determined.

Assumptions Steady operating conditions exist.

Analysis (a) The coefficient of performance of the refrigerator is

$$\text{COP}_R = \frac{\dot{Q}_L}{\dot{W}_{\text{net, in}}} = \frac{360 \text{ kJ/min}}{2 \text{ kW}} \left(\frac{1 \text{ kW}}{60 \text{ kJ/min}} \right) = 3$$

That is, 3 kJ of heat is removed from the refrigerated space for each kJ of work supplied.

(b) The rate at which heat is rejected to the room that houses the refrigerator is determined from the conservation of energy relation for cyclic devices,

$$\dot{Q}_H = \dot{Q}_L + \dot{W}_{\text{net, in}} = 360 \text{ kJ/min} + (2 \text{ kW}) \left(\frac{60 \text{ kJ/min}}{1 \text{ kW}} \right) = 480 \text{ kJ/min}$$

Discussion Notice that both the energy removed from the refrigerated space as heat and the energy supplied to the refrigerator as electrical work eventually show up in the room air and become part of the internal energy of the air. This demonstrates that energy can change from one form to another, can move from one place to another, but is never destroyed during a process.

EXAMPLE 6-5 Heating a House by a Heat Pump

A heat pump is used to meet the heating requirements of a house and maintain it at 20°C. On a day when the outdoor air temperature drops to -2°C, the house is estimated to lose heat at a rate of 80,000 kJ/h. If the heat pump under these conditions has a COP of 2.5, determine (a) the power consumed by the heat pump and (b) the rate at which heat is absorbed from the cold outdoor air.

SOLUTION The COP of a heat pump is given. The power consumption and the rate of heat absorption are to be determined.

Assumptions Steady operating conditions exist.

Analysis (a) The power consumed by this heat pump, shown in Fig. 6-31, is determined from the definition of the coefficient of performance to be

$$\dot{W}_{\text{net, in}} = \frac{\dot{Q}_H}{\text{COP}_{\text{HP}}} = \frac{80,000 \text{ kJ/h}}{2.5} = 32,000 \text{ kJ/h (or 8.9 kW)}$$

(b) The house is losing heat at a rate of 80,000 kJ/h. If the house is to be maintained at a constant temperature of 20°C, the heat pump must deliver heat to the house at the same rate, that is, at a rate of 80,000 kJ/h. Then the rate of heat transfer from the outdoor becomes

$$\dot{Q}_L = \dot{Q}_H - \dot{W}_{\text{net, in}} = (80,000 - 32,000) \text{ kJ/h} = 48,000 \text{ kJ/h}$$

Discussion Note that 48,000 of the 80,000 kJ/h heat delivered to the house is actually extracted from the cold outdoor air. Therefore, we are paying only for

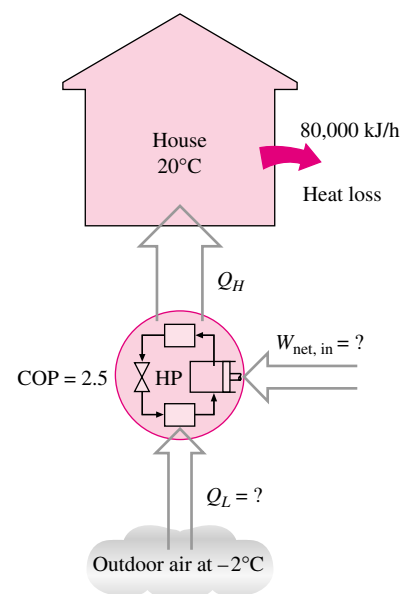


FIGURE 6-31
Schematic for Example 6-5.

the 32,000-kJ/h energy that is supplied as electrical work to the heat pump. If we were to use an electric resistance heater instead, we would have to supply the entire 80,000 kJ/h to the resistance heater as electric energy. This would mean a heating bill that is 2.5 times higher. This explains the popularity of heat pumps as heating systems and why they are preferred to simple electric resistance heaters despite their considerably higher initial cost.

The Second Law of Thermodynamics: Clausius Statement

There are two classical statements of the second law—the Kelvin–Planck statement, which is related to heat engines and discussed in the preceding section, and the Clausius statement, which is related to refrigerators or heat pumps. The Clausius statement is expressed as follows:

It is impossible to construct a device that operates in a cycle and produces no effect other than the transfer of heat from a lower-temperature body to a higher-temperature body.

It is common knowledge that heat does not, of its own volition, flow from a cold medium to a warmer one. The Clausius statement does not imply that a cyclic device that transfers heat from a cold medium to a warmer one is impossible to construct. In fact, this is precisely what a common household refrigerator does. It simply states that a refrigerator will not operate unless its compressor is driven by an external power source, such as an electric motor (Fig. 6–32). This way, the net effect on the surroundings involves the consumption of some energy in the form of work, in addition to the transfer of heat from a colder body to a warmer one. That is, it leaves a trace in the surroundings. Therefore, a household refrigerator is in complete compliance with the Clausius statement of the second law.

Both the Kelvin–Planck and the Clausius statements of the second law are negative statements, and a negative statement cannot be proved. Like any other physical law, the second law of thermodynamics is based on experimental observations. To date, no experiment has been conducted that contradicts the second law, and this should be taken as sufficient evidence of its validity.

Equivalence of the Two Statements

The Kelvin–Planck and the Clausius statements are equivalent in their consequences, and either statement can be used as the expression of the second law of thermodynamics. Any device that violates the Kelvin–Planck statement also violates the Clausius statement, and vice versa. This can be demonstrated as follows.

Consider the heat-engine-refrigerator combination shown in Fig. 6–33a, operating between the same two reservoirs. The heat engine is assumed to have, in violation of the Kelvin–Planck statement, a thermal efficiency of 100 percent, and therefore it converts all the heat Q_H it receives to work W . This work is now supplied to a refrigerator that removes heat in the amount of Q_L from the low-temperature reservoir and rejects heat in the amount of $Q_L + Q_H$ to the high-temperature reservoir. During this process, the high-temperature

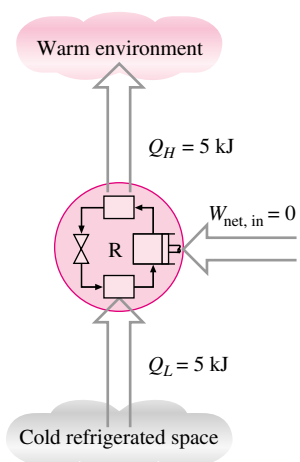


FIGURE 6–32

A refrigerator that violates the Clausius statement of the second law.

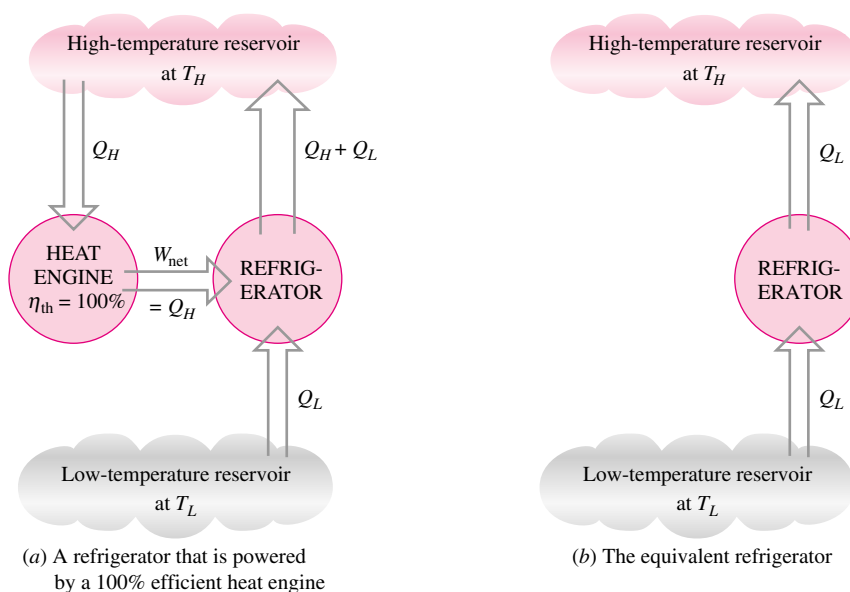


FIGURE 6-33

Proof that the violation of the Kelvin–Planck statement leads to the violation of the Clausius statement.

reservoir receives a net amount of heat Q_L (the difference between $Q_L + Q_H$ and Q_H). Thus, the combination of these two devices can be viewed as a refrigerator, as shown in Fig. 6–33b, that transfers heat in an amount of Q_L from a cooler body to a warmer one without requiring any input from outside. This is clearly a violation of the Clausius statement. Therefore, a violation of the Kelvin–Planck statement results in the violation of the Clausius statement.

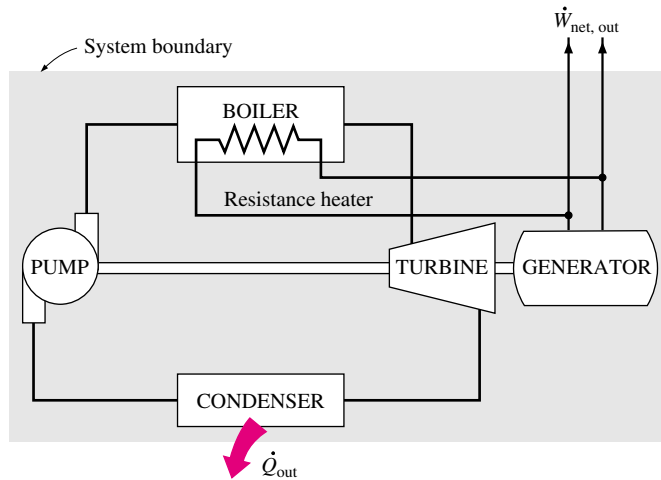
It can also be shown in a similar manner that a violation of the Clausius statement leads to the violation of the Kelvin–Planck statement. Therefore, the Clausius and the Kelvin–Planck statements are two equivalent expressions of the second law of thermodynamics.

6-6 ■ PERPETUAL-MOTION MACHINES

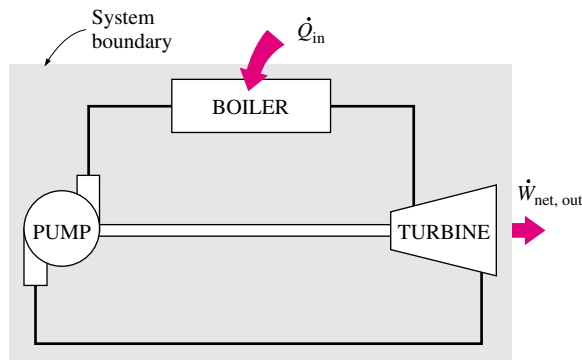
We have repeatedly stated that a process cannot take place unless it satisfies both the first and second laws of thermodynamics. Any device that violates either law is called a **perpetual-motion machine**, and despite numerous attempts, no perpetual-motion machine is known to have worked. But this has not stopped inventors from trying to create new ones.

A device that violates the first law of thermodynamics (by *creating* energy) is called a **perpetual-motion machine of the first kind** (PMM1), and a device that violates the second law of thermodynamics is called a **perpetual-motion machine of the second kind** (PMM2).

Consider the steam power plant shown in Fig. 6–34. It is proposed to heat the steam by resistance heaters placed inside the boiler, instead of by the energy supplied from fossil or nuclear fuels. Part of the electricity generated by the plant is to be used to power the resistors as well as the pump. The rest of the electric energy is to be supplied to the electric network as the net work output. The inventor claims that once the system is started, this power plant will produce electricity indefinitely without requiring any energy input from the outside.

**FIGURE 6–34**

A perpetual-motion machine that violates the first law of thermodynamics (PMM1).

**FIGURE 6–35**

A perpetual-motion machine that violates the second law of thermodynamics (PMM2).

Well, here is an invention that could solve the world's energy problem—if it works, of course. A careful examination of this invention reveals that the system enclosed by the shaded area is continuously supplying energy to the outside at a rate of $\dot{Q}_{\text{out}} + \dot{W}_{\text{net, out}}$ without receiving any energy. That is, this system is creating energy at a rate of $\dot{Q}_{\text{out}} + \dot{W}_{\text{net, out}}$, which is clearly a violation of the first law. Therefore, this wonderful device is nothing more than a PMM1 and does not warrant any further consideration.

Now let us consider another novel idea by the same inventor. Convinced that energy cannot be created, the inventor suggests the following modification that will greatly improve the thermal efficiency of that power plant without violating the first law. Aware that more than one-half of the heat transferred to the steam in the furnace is discarded in the condenser to the environment, the inventor suggests getting rid of this wasteful component and sending the steam to the pump as soon as it leaves the turbine, as shown in Fig. 6–35. This way, all the heat transferred to the steam in the boiler will be converted to work, and thus the power plant will have a theoretical efficiency of 100 percent. The inventor realizes that some heat losses and friction between the moving components are unavoidable and that these effects will hurt the efficiency somewhat, but still expects the efficiency to be no less than 80 percent (as opposed to 40 percent in most actual power plants) for a carefully designed system.

Well, the possibility of doubling the efficiency would certainly be very tempting to plant managers and, if not properly trained, they would probably give this idea a chance, since intuitively they see nothing wrong with it. A student of thermodynamics, however, will immediately label this device as a PMM2, since it works on a cycle and does a net amount of work while exchanging heat with a single reservoir (the furnace) only. It satisfies the first law but violates the second law, and therefore it will not work.

Countless perpetual-motion machines have been proposed throughout history, and many more are being proposed. Some proposers have even gone so far as to patent their inventions, only to find out that what they actually have in their hands is a worthless piece of paper.

Some perpetual-motion machine inventors were very successful in fundraising. For example, a Philadelphia carpenter named J. W. Kelly collected millions of dollars between 1874 and 1898 from investors in his *hydro-pneumatic-pulsating-vacu-engine*, which supposedly could push a railroad train 3000 miles on 1 L of water. Of course, it never did. After his death in 1898, the investigators discovered that the demonstration machine was powered by a hidden motor. Recently a group of investors was set to invest \$2.5 million into a mysterious *energy augmentor*, which multiplied whatever power it took in, but their lawyer wanted an expert opinion first. Confronted by the scientists, the “inventor” fled the scene without even attempting to run his demo machine.

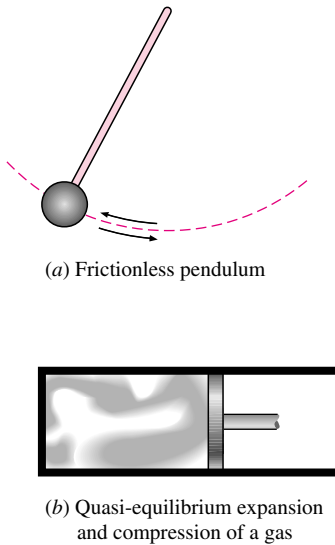
Tired of applications for perpetual-motion machines, the U.S. Patent Office decreed in 1918 that it would no longer consider any perpetual-motion machine applications. However, several such patent applications were still filed, and some made it through the patent office undetected. Some applicants whose patent applications were denied sought legal action. For example, in 1982 the U.S. Patent Office dismissed as just another perpetual-motion machine a huge device that involves several hundred kilograms of rotating magnets and kilometers of copper wire that is supposed to be generating more electricity than it is consuming from a battery pack. However, the inventor challenged the decision, and in 1985 the National Bureau of Standards finally tested the machine just to certify that it is battery-operated. However, it did not convince the inventor that his machine will not work.

The proposers of perpetual-motion machines generally have innovative minds, but they usually lack formal engineering training, which is very unfortunate. No one is immune from being deceived by an innovative perpetual-motion machine. As the saying goes, however, if something sounds too good to be true, it probably is.

6–7 ■ REVERSIBLE AND IRREVERSIBLE PROCESSES

The second law of thermodynamics states that no heat engine can have an efficiency of 100 percent. Then one may ask, What is the highest efficiency that a heat engine can possibly have? Before we can answer this question, we need to define an idealized process first, which is called the *reversible process*.

The processes that were discussed at the beginning of this chapter occurred in a certain direction. Once having taken place, these processes cannot reverse themselves spontaneously and restore the system to its initial state. For this reason, they are classified as *irreversible processes*. Once a cup of hot coffee

**FIGURE 6-36**

Two familiar reversible processes.

cools, it will not heat up by retrieving the heat it lost from the surroundings. If it could, the surroundings, as well as the system (coffee), would be restored to their original condition, and this would be a reversible process.

A **reversible process** is defined as a *process that can be reversed without leaving any trace on the surroundings* (Fig. 6–36). That is, both the system and the surroundings are returned to their initial states at the end of the reverse process. This is possible only if the net heat and net work exchange between the system and the surroundings is zero for the combined (original and reverse) process. Processes that are not reversible are called **irreversible processes**.

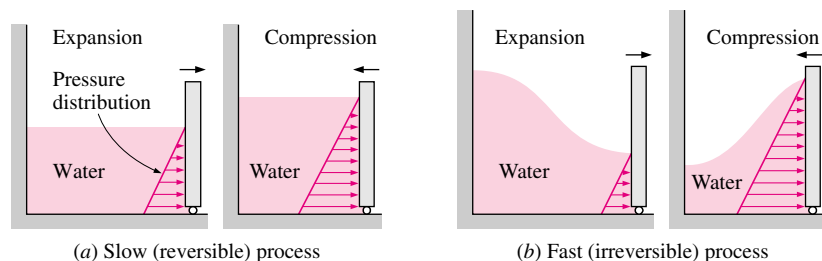
It should be pointed out that a system can be restored to its initial state following a process, regardless of whether the process is reversible or irreversible. But for reversible processes, this restoration is made without leaving any net change on the surroundings, whereas for irreversible processes, the surroundings usually do some work on the system and therefore will not return to their original state.

Reversible processes actually do not occur in nature. They are merely *idealizations* of actual processes. Reversible processes can be approximated by actual devices, but they can never be achieved. That is, all the processes occurring in nature are irreversible. You may be wondering, then, *why* we are bothering with such fictitious processes. There are two reasons. First, they are easy to analyze, since a system passes through a series of equilibrium states during a reversible process; second, they serve as idealized models to which actual processes can be compared.

In daily life, the concepts of Mr. Right and Ms. Right are also idealizations, just like the concept of a reversible (perfect) process. People who insist on finding Mr. or Ms. Right to settle down are bound to remain Mr. or Ms. Single for the rest of their lives. The possibility of finding the perfect prospective mate is no higher than the possibility of finding a perfect (reversible) process. Likewise, a person who insists on perfection in friends is bound to have no friends.

Engineers are interested in reversible processes because work-producing devices such as car engines and gas or steam turbines *deliver the most work*, and work-consuming devices such as compressors, fans, and pumps *consume the least work* when reversible processes are used instead of irreversible ones (Fig. 6–37).

Reversible processes can be viewed as *theoretical limits* for the corresponding irreversible ones. Some processes are more irreversible than others. We may never be able to have a reversible process, but we may certainly approach it. The more closely we approximate a reversible process, the more

**FIGURE 6-37**

Reversible processes deliver the most and consume the least work.

work delivered by a work-producing device or the less work required by a work-consuming device.

The concept of reversible processes leads to the definition of the **second-law efficiency** for actual processes, which is the degree of approximation to the corresponding reversible processes. This enables us to compare the performance of different devices that are designed to do the same task on the basis of their efficiencies. The better the design, the lower the irreversibilities and the higher the second-law efficiency.

Irreversibilities

The factors that cause a process to be irreversible are called **irreversibilities**. They include friction, unrestrained expansion, mixing of two fluids, heat transfer across a finite temperature difference, electric resistance, inelastic deformation of solids, and chemical reactions. The presence of any of these effects renders a process irreversible. A reversible process involves none of these. Some of the frequently encountered irreversibilities are discussed briefly below.

Friction is a familiar form of irreversibility associated with bodies in motion. When two bodies in contact are forced to move relative to each other (a piston in a cylinder, for example, as shown in Fig. 6–38), a friction force that opposes the motion develops at the interface of these two bodies, and some work is needed to overcome this friction force. The energy supplied as work is eventually converted to heat during the process and is transferred to the bodies in contact, as evidenced by a temperature rise at the interface. When the direction of the motion is reversed, the bodies will be restored to their original position, but the interface will not cool, and heat will not be converted back to work. Instead, more of the work will be converted to heat while overcoming the friction forces that also oppose the reverse motion. Since the system (the moving bodies) and the surroundings cannot be returned to their original states, this process is irreversible. Therefore, any process that involves friction is irreversible. The larger the friction forces involved, the more irreversible the process is.

Friction does not always involve two solid bodies in contact. It is also encountered between a fluid and solid and even between the layers of a fluid moving at different velocities. A considerable fraction of the power produced by a car engine is used to overcome the friction (the drag force) between the air and the external surfaces of the car, and it eventually becomes part of the internal energy of the air. It is not possible to reverse this process and recover that lost power, even though doing so would not violate the conservation of energy principle.

Another example of irreversibility is the **unrestrained expansion of a gas** separated from a vacuum by a membrane, as shown in Fig. 6–39. When the membrane is ruptured, the gas fills the entire tank. The only way to restore the system to its original state is to compress it to its initial volume, while transferring heat from the gas until it reaches its initial temperature. From the conservation of energy considerations, it can easily be shown that the amount of heat transferred from the gas equals the amount of work done on the gas by the surroundings. The restoration of the surroundings involves conversion of this heat completely to work, which would violate the second law. Therefore, unrestrained expansion of a gas is an irreversible process.

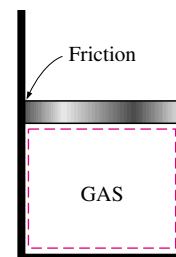
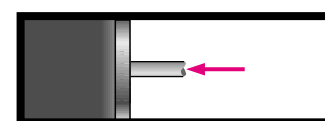


FIGURE 6–38

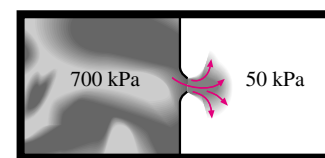
Friction renders a process irreversible.



(a) Fast compression



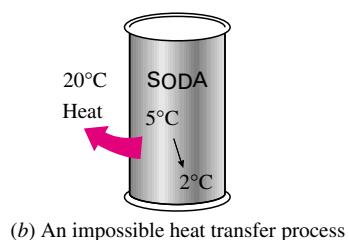
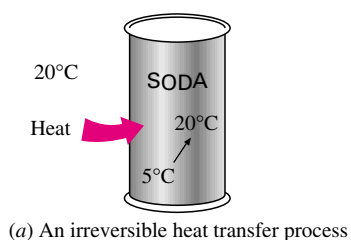
(b) Fast expansion



(c) Unrestrained expansion

FIGURE 6–39

Irreversible compression and expansion processes.

**FIGURE 6-40**

(a) Heat transfer through a temperature difference is irreversible, and (b) the reverse process is impossible.

A third form of irreversibility familiar to us all is **heat transfer** through a finite temperature difference. Consider a can of cold soda left in a warm room (Fig. 6–40). Heat will flow from the warmer room air to the cooler soda. The only way this process can be reversed and the soda restored to its original temperature is to provide refrigeration, which requires some work input. At the end of the reverse process, the soda will be restored to its initial state, but the surroundings will not be. The internal energy of the surroundings will increase by an amount equal in magnitude to the work supplied to the refrigerator. The restoration of the surroundings to the initial state can be done only by converting this excess internal energy completely to work, which is impossible to do without violating the second law. Since only the system, not both the system and the surroundings, can be restored to its initial condition, heat transfer through a finite temperature difference is an irreversible process.

Heat transfer can occur only when there is a temperature difference between a system and its surroundings. Therefore, it is physically impossible to have a reversible heat transfer process. But a heat transfer process becomes less and less irreversible as the temperature difference between the two bodies approaches zero. Then heat transfer through a differential temperature difference dT can be considered to be reversible. As dT approaches zero, the process can be reversed in direction (at least theoretically) without requiring any refrigeration. Notice that reversible heat transfer is a conceptual process and cannot be duplicated in the real world.

The smaller the temperature difference between two bodies, the smaller the heat transfer rate will be. Any significant heat transfer through a small temperature difference will require a very large surface area and a very long time. Therefore, even though approaching reversible heat transfer is desirable from a thermodynamic point of view, it is impractical and not economically feasible.

Internally and Externally Reversible Processes

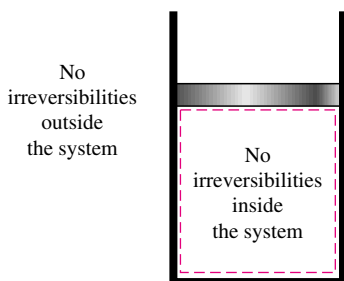
A typical process involves interactions between a system and its surroundings, and a reversible process involves no irreversibilities associated with either of them.

A process is called **internally reversible** if no irreversibilities occur within the boundaries of the system during the process. During an internally reversible process, a system proceeds through a series of equilibrium states, and when the process is reversed, the system passes through exactly the same equilibrium states while returning to its initial state. That is, the paths of the forward and reverse processes coincide for an internally reversible process. The quasi-equilibrium process is an example of an internally reversible process.

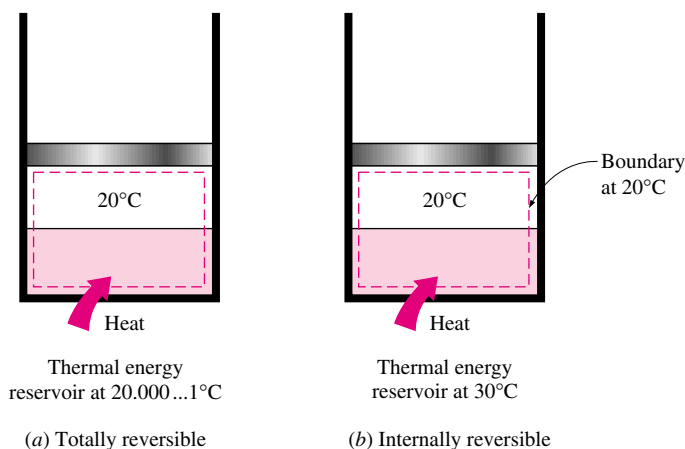
A process is called **externally reversible** if no irreversibilities occur outside the system boundaries during the process. Heat transfer between a reservoir and a system is an externally reversible process if the outer surface of the system is at the temperature of the reservoir.

A process is called **totally reversible**, or simply **reversible**, if it involves no irreversibilities within the system or its surroundings (Fig. 6–41). A totally reversible process involves no heat transfer through a finite temperature difference, no nonquasi-equilibrium changes, and no friction or other dissipative effects.

As an example, consider the transfer of heat to two identical systems that are undergoing a constant-pressure (thus constant-temperature) phase-change

**FIGURE 6-41**

A reversible process involves no internal and external irreversibilities.



process, as shown in Fig. 6–42. Both processes are internally reversible, since both take place isothermally and both pass through exactly the same equilibrium states. The first process shown is externally reversible also, since heat transfer for this process takes place through an infinitesimal temperature difference dT . The second process, however, is externally irreversible, since it involves heat transfer through a finite temperature difference ΔT .

6–8 • THE CARNOT CYCLE

We mentioned earlier that heat engines are cyclic devices and that the working fluid of a heat engine returns to its initial state at the end of each cycle. Work is done by the working fluid during one part of the cycle and on the working fluid during another part. The difference between these two is the net work delivered by the heat engine. The efficiency of a heat-engine cycle greatly depends on how the individual processes that make up the cycle are executed. The net work, thus the cycle efficiency, can be maximized by using processes that require the least amount of work and deliver the most, that is, by using *reversible processes*. Therefore, it is no surprise that the most efficient cycles are reversible cycles, that is, cycles that consist entirely of reversible processes.

Reversible cycles cannot be achieved in practice because the irreversibilities associated with each process cannot be eliminated. However, reversible cycles provide upper limits on the performance of real cycles. Heat engines and refrigerators that work on reversible cycles serve as models to which actual heat engines and refrigerators can be compared. Reversible cycles also serve as starting points in the development of actual cycles and are modified as needed to meet certain requirements.

Probably the best known reversible cycle is the **Carnot cycle**, first proposed in 1824 by French engineer Sadi Carnot. The theoretical heat engine that operates on the Carnot cycle is called the **Carnot heat engine**. The Carnot cycle is composed of four reversible processes—two isothermal and two adiabatic—and it can be executed either in a closed or a steady-flow system.

Consider a closed system that consists of a gas contained in an adiabatic piston-cylinder device, as shown in Fig. 6–43. The insulation of the cylinder

FIGURE 6–42
Totally and internally reversible heat transfer processes.

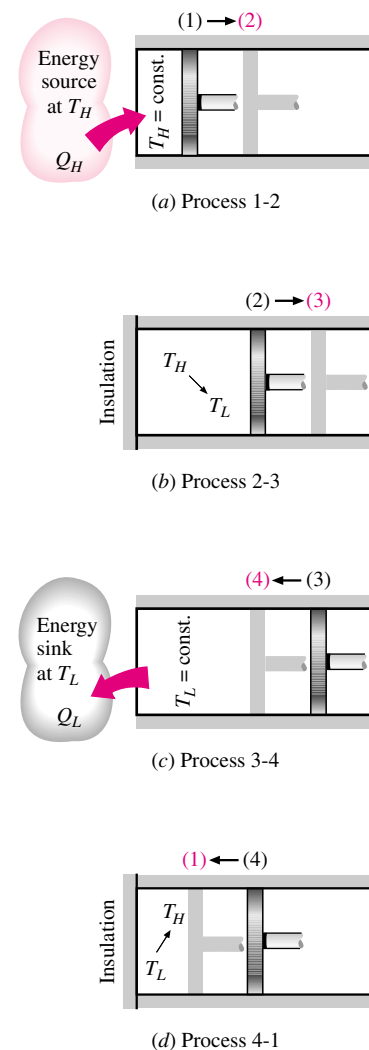


FIGURE 6–43
Execution of the Carnot cycle in a closed system.

head is such that it may be removed to bring the cylinder into contact with reservoirs to provide heat transfer. The four reversible processes that make up the Carnot cycle are as follows:

Reversible Isothermal Expansion (process 1-2, $T_H = \text{constant}$).

Initially (state 1), the temperature of the gas is T_H and the cylinder head is in close contact with a source at temperature T_H . The gas is allowed to expand slowly, doing work on the surroundings. As the gas expands, the temperature of the gas tends to decrease. But as soon as the temperature drops by an infinitesimal amount dT , some heat flows from the reservoir into the gas, raising the gas temperature to T_H . Thus, the gas temperature is kept constant at T_H . Since the temperature difference between the gas and the reservoir never exceeds a differential amount dT , this is a reversible heat transfer process. It continues until the piston reaches position 2. The amount of total heat transferred to the gas during this process is Q_H .

Reversible Adiabatic Expansion (process 2-3, temperature drops from T_H to T_L). At state 2, the reservoir that was in contact with the cylinder head is removed and replaced by insulation so that the system becomes adiabatic. The gas continues to expand slowly, doing work on the surroundings until its temperature drops from T_H to T_L (state 3). The piston is assumed to be frictionless and the process to be quasi-equilibrium, so the process is reversible as well as adiabatic.

Reversible Isothermal Compression (process 3-4, $T_L = \text{constant}$).

At state 3, the insulation at the cylinder head is removed, and the cylinder is brought into contact with a sink at temperature T_L . Now the piston is pushed inward by an external force, doing work on the gas. As the gas is compressed, its temperature tends to rise. But as soon as it rises by an infinitesimal amount dT , heat flows from the gas to the sink, causing the gas temperature to drop to T_L . Thus, the gas temperature is maintained constant at T_L . Since the temperature difference between the gas and the sink never exceeds a differential amount dT , this is a reversible heat transfer process. It continues until the piston reaches state 4. The amount of heat rejected from the gas during this process is Q_L .

Reversible Adiabatic Compression (process 4-1, temperature rises from T_L to T_H). State 4 is such that when the low-temperature reservoir is removed, the insulation is put back on the cylinder head, and the gas is compressed in a reversible manner, the gas returns to its initial state (state 1). The temperature rises from T_L to T_H during this reversible adiabatic compression process, which completes the cycle.

The P - V diagram of this cycle is shown in Fig. 6-44. Remembering that on a P - V diagram the area under the process curve represents the boundary work for quasi-equilibrium (internally reversible) processes, we see that the area under curve 1-2-3 is the work done by the gas during the expansion part of the cycle, and the area under curve 3-4-1 is the work done on the gas during the compression part of the cycle. The area enclosed by the path of the cycle (area 1-2-3-4-1) is the difference between these two and represents the net work done during the cycle.

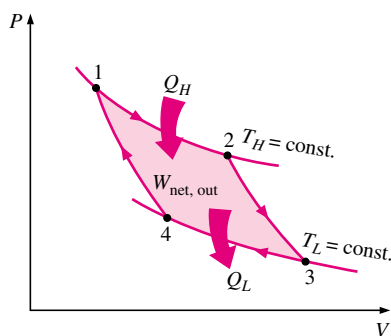


FIGURE 6-44
 P - V diagram of the Carnot cycle.

Notice that if we acted stingily and compressed the gas at state 3 adiabatically instead of isothermally in an effort *to save* Q_L , we would end up back at state 2, retracing the process path 3-2. By doing so we would save Q_L , but we would not be able to obtain any net work output from this engine. This illustrates once more the necessity of a heat engine exchanging heat with at least two reservoirs at different temperatures to operate in a cycle and produce a net amount of work.

The Carnot cycle can also be executed in a steady-flow system. It is discussed in later chapters in conjunction with other power cycles.

Being a reversible cycle, the Carnot cycle is the most efficient cycle operating between two specified temperature limits. Even though the Carnot cycle cannot be achieved in reality, the efficiency of actual cycles can be improved by attempting to approximate the Carnot cycle more closely.

The Reversed Carnot Cycle

The Carnot heat-engine cycle just described is a totally reversible cycle. Therefore, all the processes that comprise it can be *reversed*, in which case it becomes the **Carnot refrigeration cycle**. This time, the cycle remains exactly the same, except that the directions of any heat and work interactions are reversed: Heat in the amount of Q_L is absorbed from the low-temperature reservoir, heat in the amount of Q_H is rejected to a high-temperature reservoir, and a work input of $W_{\text{net, in}}$ is required to accomplish all this.

The P - V diagram of the reversed Carnot cycle is the same as the one given for the Carnot cycle, except that the directions of the processes are reversed, as shown in Fig. 6-45.

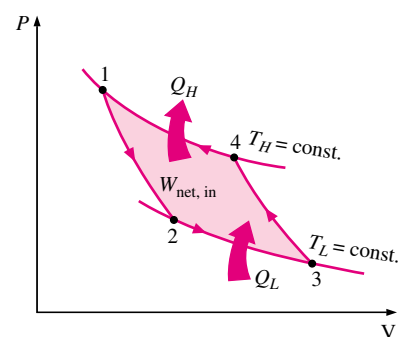


FIGURE 6-45

P - V diagram of the reversed Carnot cycle.

6-9 ■ THE CARNOT PRINCIPLES

The second law of thermodynamics puts limits on the operation of cyclic devices as expressed by the Kelvin–Planck and Clausius statements. A heat engine cannot operate by exchanging heat with a single reservoir, and a refrigerator cannot operate without a net work input from an external source.

We can draw valuable conclusions from these statements. Two conclusions pertain to the thermal efficiency of reversible and irreversible (i.e., actual) heat engines, and they are known as the **Carnot principles** (Fig. 6-46), expressed as follows:

1. The efficiency of an irreversible heat engine is always less than the efficiency of a reversible one operating between the same two reservoirs.
2. The efficiencies of all reversible heat engines operating between the same two reservoirs are the same.

These two statements can be proved by demonstrating that the violation of either statement results in the violation of the second law of thermodynamics.

To prove the first statement, consider two heat engines operating between the same reservoirs, as shown in Fig. 6-47. One engine is reversible and the other is irreversible. Now each engine is supplied with the same amount of heat Q_H . The amount of work produced by the reversible heat engine is W_{rev} , and the amount produced by the irreversible one is W_{irrev} .

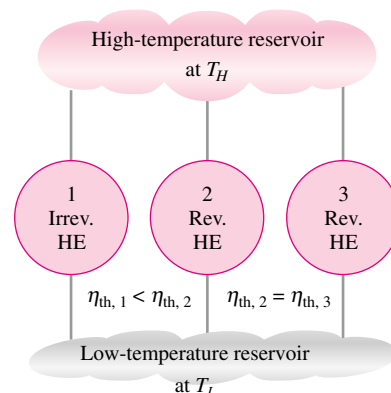
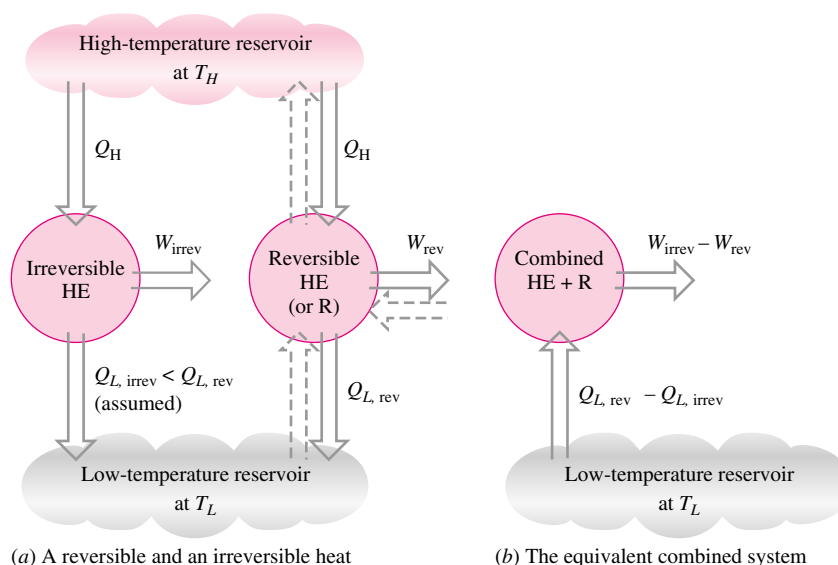


FIGURE 6-46

The Carnot principles.

**FIGURE 6-47**

Proof of the first Carnot principle.

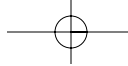
In violation of the first Carnot principle, we assume that the irreversible heat engine is more efficient than the reversible one (that is, $\eta_{\text{th, irrev}} > \eta_{\text{th, rev}}$) and thus delivers more work than the reversible one. Now let the reversible heat engine be reversed and operate as a refrigerator. This refrigerator will receive a work input of W_{rev} and reject heat to the high-temperature reservoir. Since the refrigerator is rejecting heat in the amount of Q_H to the high-temperature reservoir and the irreversible heat engine is receiving the same amount of heat from this reservoir, the net heat exchange for this reservoir is zero. Thus, it could be eliminated by having the refrigerator discharge Q_H directly into the irreversible heat engine.

Now considering the refrigerator and the irreversible engine together, we have an engine that produces a net work in the amount of $W_{\text{irrev}} - W_{\text{rev}}$ while exchanging heat with a single reservoir—a violation of the Kelvin–Planck statement of the second law. Therefore, our initial assumption that $\eta_{\text{th, irrev}} > \eta_{\text{th, rev}}$ is incorrect. Then we conclude that no heat engine can be more efficient than a reversible heat engine operating between the same reservoirs.

The second Carnot principle can also be proved in a similar manner. This time, let us replace the irreversible engine by another reversible engine that is more efficient and thus delivers more work than the first reversible engine. By following through the same reasoning, we will end up having an engine that produces a net amount of work while exchanging heat with a single reservoir, which is a violation of the second law. Therefore, we conclude that no reversible heat engine can be more efficient than a reversible one operating between the same two reservoirs, regardless of how the cycle is completed or the kind of working fluid used.

6-10 ■ THE THERMODYNAMIC TEMPERATURE SCALE

A temperature scale that is independent of the properties of the substances that are used to measure temperature is called a **thermodynamic temperature**



scale. Such a temperature scale offers great conveniences in thermodynamic calculations, and its derivation is given below using some reversible heat engines.

The second Carnot principle discussed in Section 6–9 states that all reversible heat engines have the same thermal efficiency when operating between the same two reservoirs (Fig. 6–48). That is, the efficiency of a reversible engine is independent of the working fluid employed and its properties, the way the cycle is executed, or the type of reversible engine used. Since energy reservoirs are characterized by their temperatures, the thermal efficiency of reversible heat engines is a function of the reservoir temperatures only. That is,

$$\eta_{\text{th, rev}} = g(T_H, T_L)$$

or

$$\frac{Q_H}{Q_L} = f(T_H, T_L) \quad (6-15)$$

since $\eta_{\text{th}} = 1 - Q_L/Q_H$. In these relations T_H and T_L are the temperatures of the high- and low-temperature reservoirs, respectively.

The functional form of $f(T_H, T_L)$ can be developed with the help of the three reversible heat engines shown in Fig. 6–49. Engines A and C are supplied with the same amount of heat Q_1 from the high-temperature reservoir at T_1 . Engine C rejects Q_3 to the low-temperature reservoir at T_3 . Engine B receives the heat Q_2 rejected by engine A at temperature T_2 and rejects heat in the amount of Q_3 to a reservoir at T_3 .

The amounts of heat rejected by engines B and C must be the same since engines A and B can be combined into one reversible engine operating between the same reservoirs as engine C and thus the combined engine will have the same efficiency as engine C. Since the heat input to engine C is the same as the heat input to the combined engines A and B, both systems must reject the same amount of heat.

Applying Eq. 6–15 to all three engines separately, we obtain

$$\frac{Q_1}{Q_2} = f(T_1, T_2), \quad \frac{Q_2}{Q_3} = f(T_2, T_3), \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{Q_1}{Q_3} = f(T_1, T_3)$$

Now consider the identity

$$\frac{Q_1}{Q_3} = \frac{Q_1}{Q_2} \frac{Q_2}{Q_3}$$

which corresponds to

$$f(T_1, T_3) = f(T_1, T_2) \cdot f(T_2, T_3)$$

A careful examination of this equation reveals that the left-hand side is a function of T_1 and T_3 , and therefore the right-hand side must also be a function of T_1 and T_3 only, and not T_2 . That is, the value of the product on the right-hand side of this equation is independent of the value of T_2 . This condition will be satisfied only if the function f has the following form:

$$f(T_1, T_2) = \frac{\phi(T_1)}{\phi(T_2)} \quad \text{and} \quad f(T_2, T_3) = \frac{\phi(T_2)}{\phi(T_3)}$$

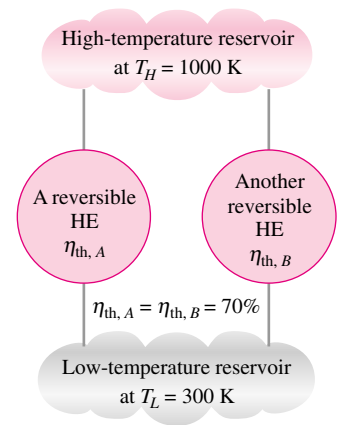


FIGURE 6–48

All reversible heat engines operating between the same two reservoirs have the same efficiency (the second Carnot principle).

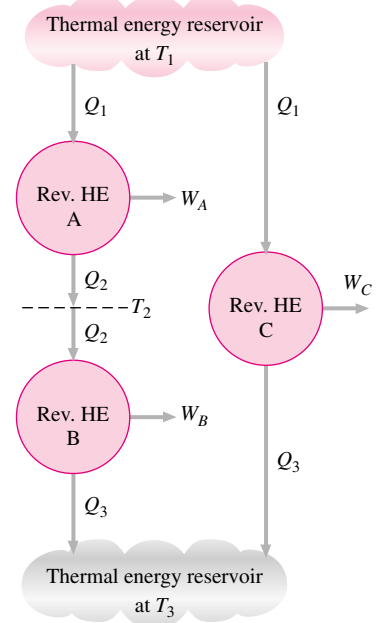
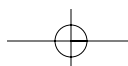
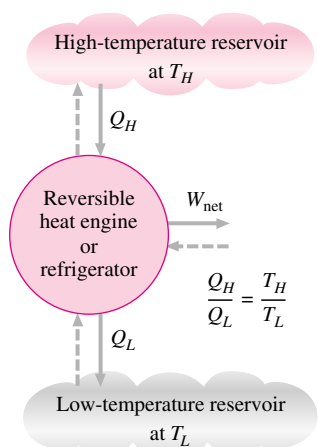


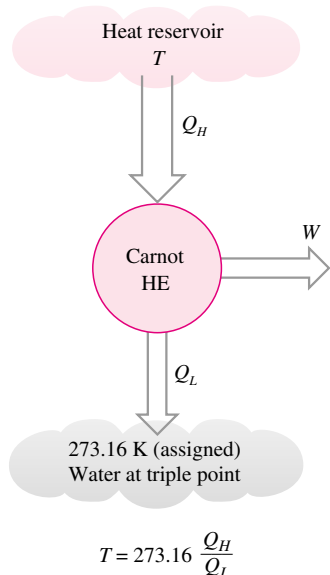
FIGURE 6–49

The arrangement of heat engines used to develop the thermodynamic temperature scale.



**FIGURE 6-50**

For reversible cycles, the heat transfer ratio Q_H/Q_L can be replaced by the absolute temperature ratio T_H/T_L .

**FIGURE 6-51**

A conceptual experimental setup to determine thermodynamic temperatures on the Kelvin scale by measuring heat transfers Q_H and Q_L .

so that $\phi(T_2)$ will cancel from the product of $f(T_1, T_2)$ and $f(T_2, T_3)$, yielding

$$\frac{Q_1}{Q_3} = f(T_1, T_3) = \frac{\phi(T_1)}{\phi(T_3)} \quad (6-16)$$

This relation is much more specific than Eq. 6-15 for the functional form of Q_1/Q_3 in terms of T_1 and T_3 .

For a reversible heat engine operating between two reservoirs at temperatures T_H and T_L , Eq. 6-16 can be written as

$$\frac{Q_H}{Q_L} = \frac{\phi(T_H)}{\phi(T_L)} \quad (6-17)$$

This is the only requirement that the second law places on the ratio of heat flows to and from the reversible heat engines. Several functions $\phi(T)$ will satisfy this equation, and the choice is completely arbitrary. Lord Kelvin first proposed taking $\phi(T) = T$ to define a thermodynamic temperature scale as (Fig. 6-50)

$$\left(\frac{Q_H}{Q_L} \right)_{\text{rev}} = \frac{T_H}{T_L} \quad (6-18)$$

This temperature scale is called the **Kelvin scale**, and the temperatures on this scale are called **absolute temperatures**. On the Kelvin scale, the temperature ratios depend on the ratios of heat transfer between a reversible heat engine and the reservoirs and are independent of the physical properties of any substance. On this scale, temperatures vary between zero and infinity.

The thermodynamic temperature scale is not completely defined by Eq. 6-18 since it gives us only a ratio of absolute temperatures. We also need to know the magnitude of a kelvin. At the International Conference on Weights and Measures held in 1954, the triple point of water (the state at which all three phases of water exist in equilibrium) was assigned the value 273.16 K (Fig. 6-51). The *magnitude of a kelvin* is defined as 1/273.16 of the temperature interval between absolute zero and the triple-point temperature of water. The magnitudes of temperature units on the Kelvin and Celsius scales are identical ($1 \text{ K} \equiv 1^\circ\text{C}$). The temperatures on these two scales differ by a constant 273.15:

$$T(^{\circ}\text{C}) = T(\text{K}) - 273.15 \quad (6-19)$$

Even though the thermodynamic temperature scale is defined with the help of the reversible heat engines, it is not possible, nor is it practical, to actually operate such an engine to determine numerical values on the absolute temperature scale. Absolute temperatures can be measured accurately by other means, such as the constant-volume ideal-gas thermometer together with extrapolation techniques. The validity of Eq. 6-18 can be demonstrated from physical considerations for a reversible cycle using an ideal gas as the working fluid.

6-11 ■ THE CARNOT HEAT ENGINE

The hypothetical heat engine that operates on the reversible Carnot cycle is called the **Carnot heat engine**. The thermal efficiency of any heat engine, reversible or irreversible, is given by Eq. 6-6 as

$$\eta_{\text{th}} = 1 - \frac{Q_L}{Q_H}$$

where Q_H is heat transferred to the heat engine from a high-temperature reservoir at T_H , and Q_L is heat rejected to a low-temperature reservoir at T_L . For reversible heat engines, the heat transfer ratio in the above relation can be replaced by the ratio of the absolute temperatures of the two reservoirs, as given by Eq. 6-18. Then the efficiency of a Carnot engine, or any reversible heat engine, becomes

$$\eta_{\text{th, rev}} = 1 - \frac{T_L}{T_H} \quad (6-20)$$

This relation is often referred to as the **Carnot efficiency**, since the Carnot heat engine is the best known reversible engine. *This is the highest efficiency a heat engine operating between the two thermal energy reservoirs at temperatures T_L and T_H can have* (Fig. 6-52). All irreversible (i.e., actual) heat engines operating between these temperature limits (T_L and T_H) will have lower efficiencies. An actual heat engine cannot reach this maximum theoretical efficiency value because it is impossible to completely eliminate all the irreversibilities associated with the actual cycle.

Note that T_L and T_H in Eq. 6-20 are *absolute temperatures*. Using $^{\circ}\text{C}$ or $^{\circ}\text{F}$ for temperatures in this relation will give results grossly in error.

The thermal efficiencies of actual and reversible heat engines operating between the same temperature limits compare as follows (Fig. 6-53):

$$\eta_{\text{th}} \begin{cases} < \eta_{\text{th, rev}} & \text{irreversible heat engine} \\ = \eta_{\text{th, rev}} & \text{reversible heat engine} \\ > \eta_{\text{th, rev}} & \text{impossible heat engine} \end{cases} \quad (6-21)$$

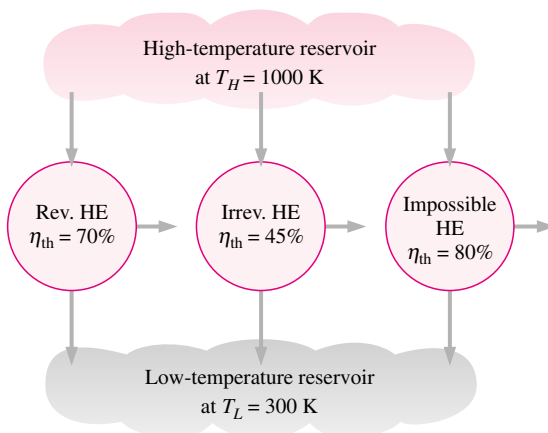


FIGURE 6-53

No heat engine can have a higher efficiency than a reversible heat engine operating between the same high- and low-temperature reservoirs.

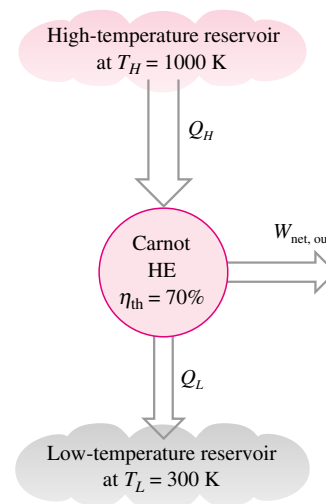


FIGURE 6-52

The Carnot heat engine is the most efficient of all heat engines operating between the same high- and low-temperature reservoirs.

Most work-producing devices (heat engines) in operation today have efficiencies under 40 percent, which appear low relative to 100 percent. However, when the performance of actual heat engines is assessed, the efficiencies should not be compared to 100 percent; instead, they should be compared to the efficiency of a reversible heat engine operating between the same temperature limits—because this is the true theoretical upper limit for the efficiency, not 100 percent.

The maximum efficiency of a steam power plant operating between $T_H = 750$ K and $T_L = 300$ K is 60 percent, as determined from Eq. 6–20. Compared with this value, an actual efficiency of 40 percent does not seem so bad, even though there is still plenty of room for improvement.

It is obvious from Eq. 6–20 that the efficiency of a Carnot heat engine increases as T_H is increased, or as T_L is decreased. This is to be expected since as T_L decreases, so does the amount of heat rejected, and as T_L approaches zero, the Carnot efficiency approaches unity. This is also true for actual heat engines. *The thermal efficiency of actual heat engines can be maximized by supplying heat to the engine at the highest possible temperature (limited by material strength) and rejecting heat from the engine at the lowest possible temperature (limited by the temperature of the cooling medium such as rivers, lakes, or the atmosphere).*

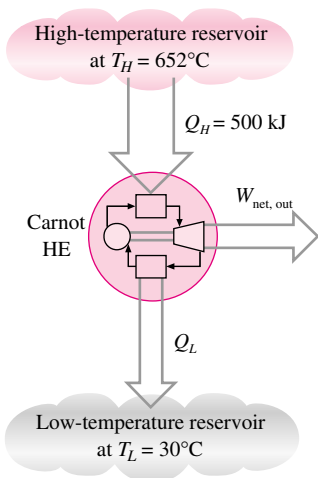


FIGURE 6–54
Schematic for Example 6–6.

EXAMPLE 6–6 Analysis of a Carnot Heat Engine

A Carnot heat engine, shown in Fig. 6–54, receives 500 kJ of heat per cycle from a high-temperature source at 652°C and rejects heat to a low-temperature sink at 30°C . Determine (a) the thermal efficiency of this Carnot engine and (b) the amount of heat rejected to the sink per cycle.

SOLUTION The heat supplied to a Carnot heat engine is given. The thermal efficiency and the heat rejected are to be determined.

Analysis (a) The Carnot heat engine is a reversible heat engine, and so its efficiency can be determined from Eq. 6–20 to be

$$\eta_{\text{th, C}} = \eta_{\text{th, rev}} = 1 - \frac{T_L}{T_H} = 1 - \frac{(30 + 273) \text{ K}}{(652 + 273) \text{ K}} = \mathbf{0.672}$$

That is, this Carnot heat engine converts 67.2 percent of the heat it receives to work.

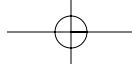
(b) The amount of heat rejected Q_L by this reversible heat engine is easily determined from Eq. 6–18 to be

$$Q_{L, \text{ rev}} = \frac{T_L}{T_H} Q_{H, \text{ rev}} = \frac{(30 + 273) \text{ K}}{(652 + 273) \text{ K}} (500 \text{ kJ}) = \mathbf{164 \text{ kJ}}$$

Discussion Note that this Carnot heat engine rejects to a low-temperature sink 164 kJ of the 500 kJ of heat it receives during each cycle.

The Quality of Energy

The Carnot heat engine in Example 6–6 receives heat from a source at 925 K and converts 67.2 percent of it to work while rejecting the rest (32.8 percent)



to a sink at 303 K. Now let us examine how the thermal efficiency varies with the source temperature when the sink temperature is held constant.

The thermal efficiency of a Carnot heat engine that rejects heat to a sink at 303 K is evaluated at various source temperatures using Eq. 6–20 and is listed in Fig. 6–55. Clearly the thermal efficiency decreases as the source temperature is lowered. When heat is supplied to the heat engine at 500 instead of 925 K, for example, the thermal efficiency drops from 67.2 percent. That is, the fraction of heat that can be converted to work drops to 39.4 percent when the temperature of the source drops to 500 K. When the source temperature is 350 K, this fraction becomes a mere 13.4 percent.

These efficiency values show that energy has **quality** as well as quantity. It is clear from the thermal efficiency values in Fig. 6–55 that *more of the high-temperature thermal energy can be converted to work. Therefore, the higher the temperature, the higher the quality of the energy* (Fig. 6–56).

Large quantities of solar energy, for example, can be stored in large bodies of water called *solar ponds* at about 350 K. This stored energy can then be supplied to a heat engine to produce work (electricity). However, the efficiency of solar pond power plants is very low (under 5 percent) because of the low quality of the energy stored in the source, and the construction and maintenance costs are relatively high. Therefore, they are not competitive even though the energy supply of such plants is free. The temperature (and thus the quality) of the solar energy stored could be raised by utilizing concentrating collectors, but the equipment cost in that case becomes very high.

Work is a more valuable form of energy than heat since 100 percent of work can be converted to heat, but only a fraction of heat can be converted to work. When heat is transferred from a high-temperature body to a lower-temperature one, it is degraded since less of it now can be converted to work. For example, if 100 kJ of heat is transferred from a body at 1000 K to a body at 300 K, at the end we will have 100 kJ of thermal energy stored at 300 K, which has no practical value. But if this conversion is made through a heat engine, up to $1 - 300/1000 = 70$ percent of it could be converted to work, which is a more valuable form of energy. Thus 70 kJ of work potential is wasted as a result of this heat transfer, and energy is degraded.

Quantity versus Quality in Daily Life

At times of energy crisis, we are bombarded with speeches and articles on how to “conserve” energy. Yet we all know that the *quantity* of energy is already conserved. What is not conserved is the *quality* of energy, or the work potential of energy. Wasting energy is synonymous to converting it to a less useful form. One unit of high-quality energy can be more valuable than three units of lower-quality energy. For example, a finite amount of heat energy at high temperature is more attractive to power plant engineers than a vast amount of heat energy at low temperature, such as the energy stored in the upper layers of the oceans at tropical climates.

As part of our culture, we seem to be fascinated by quantity, and little attention is given to quality. However, quantity alone cannot give the whole picture, and we need to consider quality as well. That is, we need to look at something from both the first- and second-law points of view when evaluating something, even in nontechnical areas. Below we present some ordinary events and show their relevance to the second law of thermodynamics.

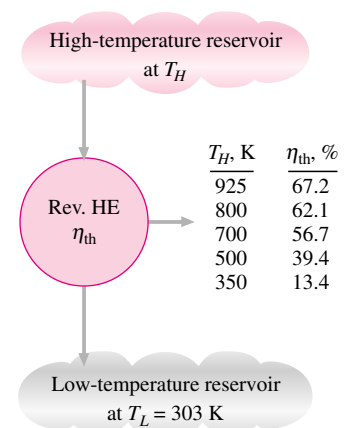


FIGURE 6–55

The fraction of heat that can be converted to work as a function of source temperature (for $T_L = 303$ K).

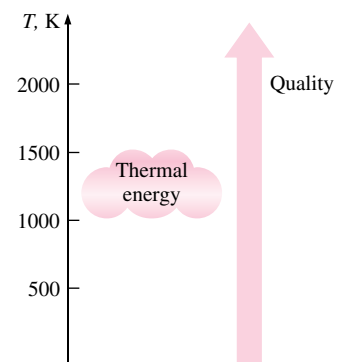
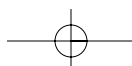


FIGURE 6–56

The higher the temperature of the thermal energy, the higher its quality.



Consider two students Andy and Wendy. Andy has 10 friends who never miss his parties and are always around during fun times. However, they seem to be busy when Andy needs their help. Wendy, on the other hand, has five friends. They are never too busy for her, and she can count on them at times of need. Let us now try to answer the question, *Who has more friends?* From the first-law point of view, which considers quantity only, it is obvious that Andy has more friends. However, from the second-law point of view, which considers quality as well, there is no doubt that Wendy is the one with more friends.

Another example with which most people will identify is the multibillion-dollar diet industry, which is primarily based on the first law of thermodynamics. However, considering that 90 percent of the people who lose weight gain it back quickly, with interest, suggests that the first law alone does not give the whole picture. This is also confirmed by studies that show that calories that come from fat are more likely to be stored as fat than the calories that come from carbohydrates and protein. A Stanford study found that body weight was related to fat calories consumed and not calories per se. A Harvard study found no correlation between calories eaten and degree of obesity. A major Cornell University survey involving 6500 people in nearly all provinces of China found that the Chinese eat more—gram for gram, calorie for calorie—than Americans do, but they weigh less, with less body fat. Studies indicate that the metabolism rates and hormone levels change noticeably in the mid 30s. Some researchers concluded that prolonged dieting teaches a body to survive on fewer calories, making it more *fuel efficient*. This probably explains why the dieters gain more weight than they lost once they go back to their normal eating levels.

People who seem to be eating whatever they want, whenever they want, are living proof that the calorie-counting technique (the first law) leaves many questions on dieting unanswered. Obviously, more research focused on the second-law effects of dieting is needed before we can fully understand the weight-gain and weight-loss process.

It is tempting to judge things on the basis of their *quantity* instead of their *quality* since assessing quality is much more difficult than assessing quantity. However, assessments made on the basis of quantity only (the first law) may be grossly inadequate and misleading.

6-12 ■ THE CARNOT REFRIGERATOR AND HEAT PUMP

A refrigerator or a heat pump that operates on the reversed Carnot cycle is called a **Carnot refrigerator**, or a **Carnot heat pump**. The coefficient of performance of any refrigerator or heat pump, reversible or irreversible, is given by Eqs. 6-11 and 6-13 as

$$\text{COP}_R = \frac{1}{Q_H/Q_L - 1} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{COP}_{HP} = \frac{1}{1 - Q_L/Q_H}$$

where Q_L is the amount of heat absorbed from the low-temperature medium and Q_H is the amount of heat rejected to the high-temperature medium. The COPs of all reversible refrigerators or heat pumps can be determined by

replacing the heat transfer ratios in the above relations by the ratios of the absolute temperatures of the high- and low-temperature reservoirs, as expressed by Eq. 6-18. Then the COP relations for reversible refrigerators and heat pumps become

$$\text{COP}_{\text{R, rev}} = \frac{1}{T_H/T_L - 1} \quad (6-22)$$

and

$$\text{COP}_{\text{HP, rev}} = \frac{1}{1 - T_L/T_H} \quad (6-23)$$

These are the highest coefficients of performance that a refrigerator or a heat pump operating between the temperature limits of T_L and T_H can have. All actual refrigerators or heat pumps operating between these temperature limits (T_L and T_H) will have lower coefficients of performance (Fig. 6-57).

The coefficients of performance of actual and reversible refrigerators operating between the same temperature limits can be compared as follows:

$$\text{COP}_{\text{R}} \begin{cases} < \text{COP}_{\text{R, rev}} & \text{irreversible refrigerator} \\ = \text{COP}_{\text{R, rev}} & \text{reversible refrigerator} \\ > \text{COP}_{\text{R, rev}} & \text{impossible refrigerator} \end{cases} \quad (6-24)$$

A similar relation can be obtained for heat pumps by replacing all COP_{R} 's in Eq. 6-24 by COP_{HP} .

The COP of a reversible refrigerator or heat pump is the maximum theoretical value for the specified temperature limits. Actual refrigerators or heat pumps may approach these values as their designs are improved, but they can never reach them.

As a final note, the COPs of both the refrigerators and the heat pumps decrease as T_L decreases. That is, it requires more work to absorb heat from lower-temperature media. As the temperature of the refrigerated space approaches zero, the amount of work required to produce a finite amount of refrigeration approaches infinity and COP_{R} approaches zero.

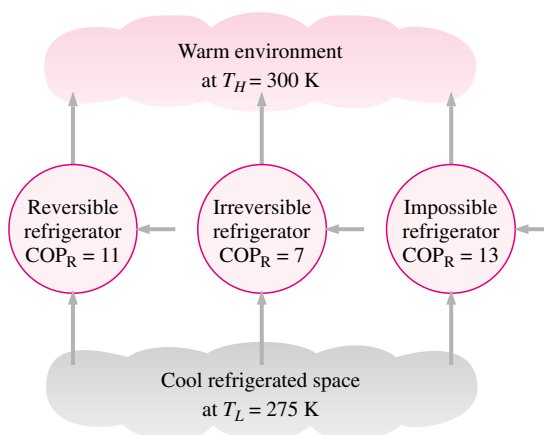


FIGURE 6-57

No refrigerator can have a higher COP than a reversible refrigerator operating between the same temperature limits.

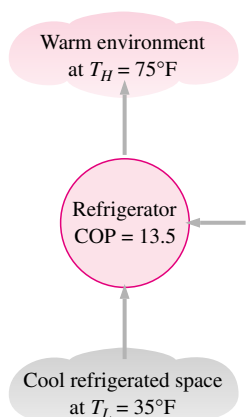


FIGURE 6-58

Schematic for Example 6-7.

EXAMPLE 6-7 A Questionable Claim for a Refrigerator

An inventor claims to have developed a refrigerator that maintains the refrigerated space at 35°F while operating in a room where the temperature is 75°F and that has a COP of 13.5. Is this claim reasonable?

SOLUTION An extraordinary claim made for the performance of a refrigerator is to be evaluated.

Assumptions Steady operating conditions exist.

Analysis The performance of this refrigerator (shown in Fig. 6-58) can be evaluated by comparing it with a reversible refrigerator operating between the same temperature limits:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{COP}_{R, \max} = \text{COP}_{R, \text{rev}} &= \frac{1}{T_H/T_L - 1} \\ &= \frac{1}{(75 + 460 \text{ R})/(35 + 460 \text{ R}) - 1} = 12.4 \end{aligned}$$

This is the highest COP a refrigerator can have when removing heat from a cool medium at 35°F to a warmer medium at 75°F. Since the COP claimed by the inventor is above this maximum value, the claim is *false*.

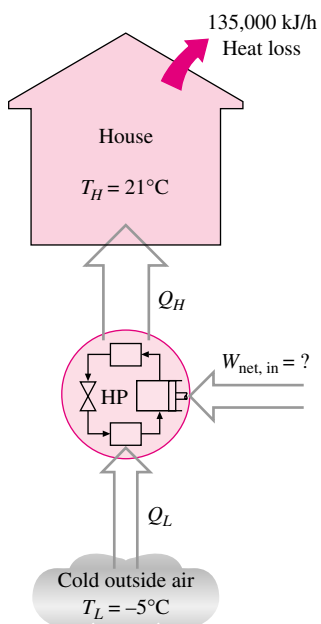


FIGURE 6-59

Schematic for Example 6-8.

EXAMPLE 6-8 Heating a House by a Carnot Heat Pump

A heat pump is to be used to heat a house during the winter, as shown in Fig. 6-59. The house is to be maintained at 21°C at all times. The house is estimated to be losing heat at a rate of 135,000 kJ/h when the outside temperature drops to -5°C. Determine the minimum power required to drive this heat pump.

SOLUTION A heat pump maintains a house at a fixed temperature. The required minimum power input to the heat pump is to be determined.

Assumptions Steady operating conditions exist.

Analysis The heat pump must supply heat to the house at a rate of $\dot{Q}_H = 135,000 \text{ kJ/h} = 37.5 \text{ kW}$. The power requirements will be minimum if a reversible heat pump is used to do the job. The COP of a reversible heat pump operating between the house and the outside air is

$$\text{COP}_{\text{HP, rev}} = \frac{1}{1 - T_L/T_H} = \frac{1}{1 - (-5 + 273 \text{ K})/(21 + 273 \text{ K})} = 11.3$$

Then the required power input to this reversible heat pump becomes

$$\dot{W}_{\text{net, in}} = \frac{\dot{Q}_H}{\text{COP}_{\text{HP}}} = \frac{37.5 \text{ kW}}{11.3} = 3.32 \text{ kW}$$

Discussion This heat pump can meet the heating requirements of this house by consuming electric power at a rate of 3.32 kW only. If this house were to be heated by electric resistance heaters instead, the power consumption would jump up 11.3 times to 37.5 kW. This is because in resistance heaters the electric energy is converted to heat at a one-to-one ratio. With a heat pump,

however, energy is absorbed from the outside and carried to the inside using a refrigeration cycle that consumes only 3.32 kW. Notice that the heat pump does not create energy. It merely transports it from one medium (the cold outdoors) to another (the warm indoors).

SUMMARY

The *second law of thermodynamics* states that processes occur in a certain direction, not in any direction. A process will not occur unless it satisfies both the first and the second laws of thermodynamics. Bodies that can absorb or reject finite amounts of heat isothermally are called *thermal energy reservoirs* or *heat reservoirs*.

Work can be converted to heat directly, but heat can be converted to work only by some devices called heat engines. The *thermal efficiency* of a heat engine is defined as

$$\eta_{\text{th}} = \frac{W_{\text{net, out}}}{Q_H} = 1 - \frac{Q_L}{Q_H}$$

where $W_{\text{net, out}}$ is the net work output of the heat engine, Q_H is the amount of heat supplied to the engine, and Q_L is the amount of heat rejected by the engine.

Refrigerators and heat pumps are devices that absorb heat from low-temperature media and reject it to higher-temperature ones. The performance of a refrigerator or a heat pump is expressed in terms of the *coefficient of performance*, which is defined as

$$\begin{aligned} \text{COP}_R &= \frac{Q_L}{W_{\text{net, in}}} = \frac{1}{Q_H/Q_L - 1} \\ \text{COP}_{\text{HP}} &= \frac{Q_H}{W_{\text{net, in}}} = \frac{1}{1 - Q_L/Q_H} \end{aligned}$$

The *Kelvin–Planck statement* of the second law of thermodynamics states that no heat engine can produce a net amount of work while exchanging heat with a single reservoir only. The *Clausius statement* of the second law states that no device can transfer heat from a cooler body to a warmer one without leaving an effect on the surroundings.

Any device that violates the first or the second law of thermodynamics is called a *perpetual-motion machine*.

A process is said to be *reversible* if both the system and the surroundings can be restored to their original conditions. Any other process is *irreversible*. The effects such as friction, non-quasi-equilibrium expansion or compression, and heat transfer through a finite temperature difference render a process irreversible and are called *irreversibilities*.

The *Carnot cycle* is a reversible cycle that is composed of four reversible processes, two isothermal and two adiabatic. The *Carnot principles* state that the thermal efficiencies of all reversible heat engines operating between the same two reservoirs are the same, and that no heat engine is more efficient than a reversible one operating between the same two reservoirs. These statements form the basis for establishing a *thermodynamic temperature scale* related to the heat transfers between a reversible device and the high- and low-temperature reservoirs by

$$\left(\frac{Q_H}{Q_L} \right)_{\text{rev}} = \frac{T_H}{T_L}$$

Therefore, the Q_H/Q_L ratio can be replaced by T_H/T_L for reversible devices, where T_H and T_L are the absolute temperatures of the high- and low-temperature reservoirs, respectively.

A heat engine that operates on the reversible Carnot cycle is called a *Carnot heat engine*. The thermal efficiency of a Carnot heat engine, as well as all other reversible heat engines, is given by

$$\eta_{\text{th, rev}} = 1 - \frac{T_L}{T_H}$$

This is the maximum efficiency a heat engine operating between two reservoirs at temperatures T_H and T_L can have.

The COPs of reversible refrigerators and heat pumps are given in a similar manner as

$$\text{COP}_{R, \text{rev}} = \frac{1}{T_H/T_L - 1}$$

and

$$\text{COP}_{\text{HP, rev}} = \frac{1}{1 - T_L/T_H}$$

Again, these are the highest COPs a refrigerator or a heat pump operating between the temperature limits of T_H and T_L can have.

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2. D. Stewart. "Wheels Go Round and Round, but Always Run Down." November 1986, *Smithsonian*, pp. 193–208.
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PROBLEMS*

Second Law of Thermodynamics and Thermal Energy Reservoirs

6-1C A mechanic claims to have developed a car engine that runs on water instead of gasoline. What is your response to this claim?

6-2C Describe an imaginary process that satisfies the first law but violates the second law of thermodynamics.

6-3C Describe an imaginary process that satisfies the second law but violates the first law of thermodynamics.

6-4C Describe an imaginary process that violates both the first and the second laws of thermodynamics.

6-5C An experimentalist claims to have raised the temperature of a small amount of water to 150°C by transferring heat from high-pressure steam at 120°C. Is this a reasonable claim? Why? Assume no refrigerator or heat pump is used in the process.

6-6C What is a thermal energy reservoir? Give some examples.

6-7C Consider the process of baking potatoes in a conventional oven. Can the hot air in the oven be treated as a thermal energy reservoir? Explain.

6-8C Consider the energy generated by a TV set. What is a suitable choice for a thermal energy reservoir?

Heat Engines and Thermal Efficiency

6-9C Is it possible for a heat engine to operate without rejecting any waste heat to a low-temperature reservoir? Explain.

6-10C What are the characteristics of all heat engines?

6-11C Consider a pan of water being heated (a) by placing it on an electric range and (b) by placing a heating element in the

water. Which method is a more efficient way of heating water? Explain.

6-12C Baseboard heaters are basically electric resistance heaters and are frequently used in space heating. A home owner claims that her 5-year-old baseboard heaters have a conversion efficiency of 100 percent. Is this claim in violation of any thermodynamic laws? Explain.

6-13C What is the Kelvin–Planck expression of the second law of thermodynamics?

6-14C Does a heat engine that has a thermal efficiency of 100 percent necessarily violate (a) the first law and (b) the second law of thermodynamics? Explain.

6-15C In the absence of any friction and other irreversibilities, can a heat engine have an efficiency of 100 percent? Explain.

6-16C Are the efficiencies of all the work-producing devices, including the hydroelectric power plants, limited by the Kelvin–Planck statement of the second law? Explain.

6-17 A 600-MW steam power plant, which is cooled by a nearby river, has a thermal efficiency of 40 percent. Determine the rate of heat transfer to the river water. Will the actual heat transfer rate be higher or lower than this value? Why?



6-18 A steam power plant receives heat from a furnace at a rate of 280 GJ/h. Heat losses to the surrounding air from the steam as it passes through the pipes and other components are estimated to be about 8 GJ/h. If the waste heat is transferred to the cooling water at a rate of 145 GJ/h, determine (a) net power output and (b) the thermal efficiency of this power plant.

Answers: (a) 35.3 MW, (b) 45.4 percent

6-19E A car engine with a power output of 95 hp has a thermal efficiency of 28 percent. Determine the rate of fuel consumption if the heating value of the fuel is 19,000 Btu/lbm.

6-20 A steam power plant with a power output of 150 MW consumes coal at a rate of 60 tons/h. If the heating value of the coal is 30,000 kJ/kg, determine the overall efficiency of this plant. *Answer: 30.0 percent*


6-21 An automobile engine consumes fuel at a rate of 28 L/h and delivers 60 kW of power to the wheels. If the fuel has a heating value of 44,000 kJ/kg and a density of 0.8 g/cm³, determine the efficiency of this engine. *Answer: 21.9 percent*

*Problems designated by a "C" are concept questions, and students are encouraged to answer them all. Problems designated by an "E" are in English units, and the SI users can ignore them. Problems with a CD-EES icon  are solved using EES, and complete solutions together with parametric studies are included on the enclosed CD. Problems with a computer-EES icon  are comprehensive in nature, and are intended to be solved with a computer, preferably using the EES software that accompanies this text.

6-22E Solar energy stored in large bodies of water, called solar ponds, is being used to generate electricity. If such a solar power plant has an efficiency of 4 percent and a net power output of 200 kW, determine the average value of the required solar energy collection rate, in Btu/h.

6-23 In 2001, the United States produced 51% of its electricity in the amount of 1.878×10^{12} kWh from coal-fired power plants. Taking the average thermal efficiency to be 34%, determine the amount of thermal energy rejected by the coal-fired power plants in the United States that year.

6-24 The Department of Energy projects that between the years 1995 and 2010, the United States will need to build new power plants to generate an additional 150,000 MW of electricity to meet the increasing demand for electric power. One possibility is to build coal-fired power plants, which cost \$1300 per kW to construct and have an efficiency of 34 percent. Another possibility is to use the clean-burning Integrated Gasification Combined Cycle (IGCC) plants where the coal is subjected to heat and pressure to gasify it while removing sulfur and particulate matter from it. The gaseous coal is then burned in a gas turbine, and part of the waste heat from the exhaust gases is recovered to generate steam for the steam turbine. Currently the construction of IGCC plants costs about \$1500 per kW, but their efficiency is about 45 percent. The average heating value of the coal is about 28,000,000 kJ per ton (that is, 28,000,000 kJ of heat is released when 1 ton of coal is burned). If the IGCC plant is to recover its cost difference from fuel savings in five years, determine what the price of coal should be in \$ per ton.

6-25  Reconsider Prob. 6-24. Using EES (or other) software, investigate the price of coal for varying simple payback periods, plant construction costs, and operating efficiency.

6-26 Repeat Prob. 6-24 for a simple payback period of three years instead of 5 years.

6-27 Wind energy has been used since 4000 BC to power sailboats, grind grain, pump water for farms, and, more recently, generate electricity. In the United States alone, more than 6 million small windmills, most of them under 5 hp, have been used since the 1850s to pump water. Small windmills have been used to generate electricity since 1900, but the development of modern wind turbines occurred only recently in response to the energy crises in the early 1970s. The cost of wind power has dropped an order of magnitude from about \$0.50/kWh in the early 1980s to about \$0.05/kWh in the mid-1990s, which is about the price of electricity generated at coal-fired power plants. Areas with an average wind speed of 6 m/s (or 14 mph) are potential sites for economical wind power generation. Commercial wind turbines generate from 100 kW to 3.2 MW of electric power each at peak design conditions. The blade span (or rotor) diameter of the 3.2 MW wind turbine built by Boeing Engineering is 320 ft (97.5 m). The rotation speed

of rotors of wind turbines is usually under 40 rpm (under 20 rpm for large turbines). Altamont Pass in California is the world's largest wind farm with 15,000 modern wind turbines. This farm and two others in California produced 2.8 billion kWh of electricity in 1991, which is enough power to meet the electricity needs of San Francisco.

In 1999, over 3600 MW of new wind energy generating capacity were installed worldwide, bringing the world's total wind energy capacity to 13,400 MW. The United States, Germany, Denmark, and Spain account for over 70 percent of current wind energy generating capacity worldwide. Denmark uses wind turbines to supply 10 percent of its national electricity.

Many wind turbines currently in operation have just two blades. This is because at tip speeds of 100 to 200 mph, the efficiency of the two-bladed turbine approaches the theoretical maximum, and the increase in the efficiency by adding a third or fourth blade is so little that they do not justify the added cost and weight.

Consider a wind turbine with an 80-m-diameter rotor that is rotating at 20 rpm under steady winds at an average velocity of 30 km/h. Assuming the turbine has an efficiency of 35 percent (i.e., it converts 35 percent of the kinetic energy of the wind to electricity), determine (a) the power produced, in kW; (b) the tip speed of the blade, in km/h; and (c) the revenue generated

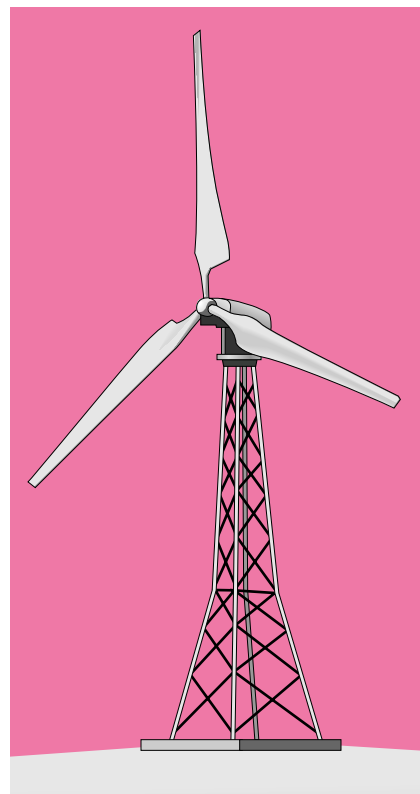


FIGURE P6-27

by the wind turbine per year if the electric power produced is sold to the utility at \$0.06/kWh. Take the density of air to be 1.20 kg/m^3 .

6-28 Repeat Prob. 6-27 for an average wind velocity of 25 km/h.

6-29E An Ocean Thermal Energy Conversion (OTEC) power plant built in Hawaii in 1987 was designed to operate between the temperature limits of 86°F at the ocean surface and 41°F at a depth of 2100 ft. About 13,300 gpm of cold seawater was to be pumped from deep ocean through a 40-in-diameter pipe to serve as the cooling medium or heat sink. If the cooling water experiences a temperature rise of 6°F and the thermal efficiency is 2.5 percent, determine the amount of power generated. Take the density of seawater to be 64 lbm/ft^3 .

Energy Conversion Efficiencies


6-30 Consider a 3-kW hooded electric open burner in an area where the unit costs of electricity and natural gas are \$0.07/kWh and \$0.60/therm, respectively. The efficiency of open burners can be taken to be 73 percent for electric burners and 38 percent for gas burners. Determine the rate of energy consumption and the unit cost of utilized energy for both electric and gas burners.

6-31 A 75-hp motor that has an efficiency of 91.0 percent is worn out and is replaced by a high-efficiency 75-hp motor that has an efficiency of 95.4 percent. Determine the reduction in the heat gain of the room due to higher efficiency under full-load conditions.

6-32 A 75-hp electric car is powered by an electric motor mounted in the engine compartment. If the motor has an average efficiency of 91 percent, determine the rate of heat supply by the motor to the engine compartment at full load.

6-33 A 75-hp motor that has an efficiency of 91.0 percent is worn out and is to be replaced by a high-efficiency motor that has an efficiency of 95.4 percent. The motor operates 4368 hours a year at a load factor of 0.75. Taking the cost of electricity to be \$0.08/kWh, determine the amount of energy and money saved as a result of installing the high-efficiency motor instead of the standard motor. Also, determine the simple payback period if the purchase prices of the standard and high-efficiency motors are \$5449 and \$5520, respectively.

6-34E The steam requirements of a manufacturing facility are being met by a boiler whose rated heat input is $3.6 \times 10^6 \text{ Btu/h}$. The combustion efficiency of the boiler is measured to be 0.7 by a hand-held flue gas analyzer. After tuning up the boiler, the combustion efficiency rises to 0.8. The boiler operates 1500 hours a year intermittently. Taking the unit cost of energy to be \$4.35/ 10^6 Btu , determine the annual energy and cost savings as a result of tuning up the boiler.

6-35E  Reconsider Prob. 6-34E. Using EES (or other) software, study the effects of the unit cost of energy and combustion efficiency on the annual energy used and the cost savings. Let the efficiency vary from 0.6 to 0.9,

and the unit cost to vary from \$4 to \$6 per million Btu. Plot the annual energy used and the cost savings against the efficiency for unit costs of \$4, \$5, and \$6 per million Btu, and discuss the results.

6-36 The space heating of a facility is accomplished by natural gas heaters that are 80 percent efficient. The compressed air needs of the facility are met by a large liquid-cooled compressor. The coolant of the compressor is cooled by air in a liquid-to-air heat exchanger whose airflow section is 1.0 m high and 1.0 m wide. During typical operation, the air is heated from 20°C to 52°C as it flows through the heat exchanger. The average velocity of air on the inlet side is measured to be 3 m/s. The compressor operates 20 h a day and 5 days a week throughout the year. Taking the heating season to be 6 months (26 weeks) and the cost of the natural gas to be \$0.50/therm (1 therm = 105,500 kJ), determine how much money will be saved by diverting the compressor waste heat into the facility during the heating season.

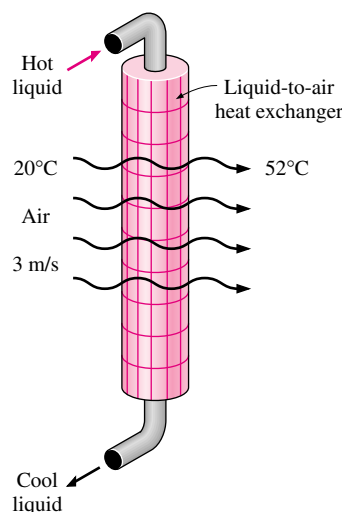


FIGURE P6-36

6-37 An exercise room has eight weight-lifting machines that have no motors and four treadmills each equipped with a 2.5-hp motor. The motors operate at an average load factor of 0.7, at which their efficiency is 0.77. During peak evening hours, all 12 pieces of exercising equipment are used continuously, and there are also two people doing light exercises while waiting in line for one piece of the equipment. Determine the rate of heat gain of the exercise room from people and the equipment at peak load conditions.

6-38 Consider a classroom for 55 students and one instructor, each generating heat at a rate of 100 W. Lighting is provided by 18 fluorescent lightbulbs, 40 W each, and the ballasts consume an additional 10 percent. Determine the rate of internal heat generation in this classroom when it is fully occupied.

6-39 A room is cooled by circulating chilled water through a heat exchanger located in a room. The air is circulated through

the heat exchanger by a 0.25-hp fan. Typical efficiency of small electric motors driving 0.25-hp equipment is 54 percent. Determine the rate of heat supply by the fan–motor assembly to the room.

Refrigerators and Heat Pumps

6–40C What is the difference between a refrigerator and a heat pump?

6–41C What is the difference between a refrigerator and an air conditioner?

6–42C In a refrigerator, heat is transferred from a lower-temperature medium (the refrigerated space) to a higher-temperature one (the kitchen air). Is this a violation of the second law of thermodynamics? Explain.

6–43C A heat pump is a device that absorbs energy from the cold outdoor air and transfers it to the warmer indoors. Is this a violation of the second law of thermodynamics? Explain.

6–44C Define the coefficient of performance of a refrigerator in words. Can it be greater than unity?

6–45C Define the coefficient of performance of a heat pump in words. Can it be greater than unity?

6–46C A heat pump that is used to heat a house has a COP of 2.5. That is, the heat pump delivers 2.5 kWh of energy to the house for each 1 kWh of electricity it consumes. Is this a violation of the first law of thermodynamics? Explain.

6–47C A refrigerator has a COP of 1.5. That is, the refrigerator removes 1.5 kWh of energy from the refrigerated space for each 1 kWh of electricity it consumes. Is this a violation of the first law of thermodynamics? Explain.

6–48C What is the Clausius expression of the second law of thermodynamics?

6–49C Show that the Kelvin–Planck and the Clausius expressions of the second law are equivalent.

6–50 A household refrigerator with a COP of 1.5 removes heat from the refrigerated space at a rate of 60 kJ/min. Determine (a) the electric power consumed by the refrigerator and (b) the rate of heat transfer to the kitchen air.

Answers: (a) 0.67 kW, (b) 100 kJ/min

6–51 An air conditioner removes heat steadily from a house at a rate of 750 kJ/min while drawing electric power at a rate of 6 kW. Determine (a) the COP of this air conditioner and (b) the rate of heat transfer to the outside air.

Answers: (a) 2.08, (b) 1110 kJ/min

6–52 A household refrigerator runs one-fourth of the time and removes heat from the food compartment at an average rate of 800 kJ/h. If the COP of the refrigerator is 2.2, determine the power the refrigerator draws when running.

6–53E Water enters an ice machine at 55°F and leaves as ice at 25°F. If the COP of the ice machine is 2.4 during this operation, determine the required power input for an ice production

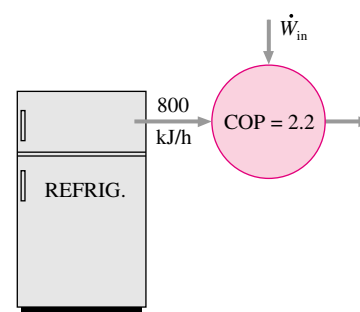



FIGURE P6–52

rate of 20 lbm/h. (169 Btu of energy needs to be removed from each lbm of water at 55°F to turn it into ice at 25°F.)

6–54 A household refrigerator that has a power input of 450 W and a COP of 2.5 is to cool five large watermelons, 10 kg each, to 8°C. If the watermelons are initially at 20°C, determine how long it will take for the refrigerator to cool them. The watermelons can be treated as water whose specific heat is 4.2 kJ/kg · °C. Is your answer realistic or optimistic? Explain.

Answer: 2240 s

6–55  When a man returns to his well-sealed house on a summer day, he finds that the house is at 32°C. He turns on the air conditioner, which cools the entire house to 20°C in 15 min. If the COP of the air-conditioning system is 2.5, determine the power drawn by the air conditioner. Assume the entire mass within the house is equivalent to 800 kg of air for which $C_v = 0.72$ kJ/kg · °C and $C_p = 1.0$ kJ/kg · °C.

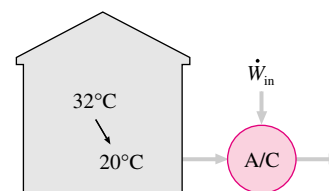



FIGURE P6–55

6–56  Reconsider Prob. 6–55. Using EES (or other) software, determine the power input required by the air conditioner to cool the house as a function for air-conditioner SEER ratings in the range 9 to 16. Discuss your results and include representative costs of air-conditioning units in the SEER rating range.

6–57 Determine the COP of a refrigerator that removes heat from the food compartment at a rate of 6500 kJ/h for each kW of power it consumes. Also, determine the rate of heat rejection to the outside air.

6–58 Determine the COP of a heat pump that supplies energy to a house at a rate of 8000 kJ/h for each kW of electric power it draws. Also, determine the rate of energy absorption from the outdoor air. *Answers: 2.22, 4400 kJ/h*

6–59 A house that was heated by electric resistance heaters consumed 1200 kWh of electric energy in a winter month. If

this house were heated instead by a heat pump that has an average COP of 2.4, determine how much money the home owner would have saved that month. Assume a price of 8.5¢/kWh for electricity.

6-60E A heat pump with a COP of 2.5 supplies energy to a house at a rate of 60,000 Btu/h. Determine (a) the electric power drawn by the heat pump and (b) the rate of heat absorption from the outside air.

Answers: (a) 9.43 hp, (b) 36,000 Btu/h

6-61 A heat pump used to heat a house runs about one-third of the time. The house is losing heat at an average rate of 22,000 kJ/h. If the COP of the heat pump is 3.5, determine the power the heat pump draws when running.

6-62 A heat pump is used to maintain a house at a constant temperature of 23°C. The house is losing heat to the outside air through the walls and the windows at a rate of 60,000 kJ/h while the energy generated within the house from people, lights, and appliances amounts to 4000 kJ/h. For a COP of 2.5, determine the required power input to the heat pump.

Answer: 6.22 kW

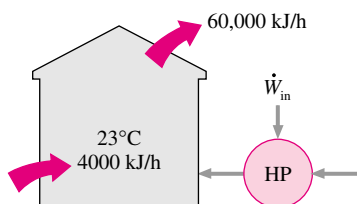


FIGURE P6-62

6-63 Consider an office room that is being cooled adequately by a 12,000 Btu/h window air conditioner. Now it is decided to convert this room into a computer room by installing several computers, terminals, and printers with a total rated power of 3.5 kW. The facility has several 4000 Btu/h air conditioners in storage that can be installed to meet the additional cooling requirements. Assuming a usage factor of 0.4 (i.e., only 40 percent of the rated power will be consumed at any given time) and additional occupancy of four people, each generating heat at a rate of 100 W, determine how many of these air conditioners need to be installed to the room.

6-64 Consider a building whose annual air-conditioning load is estimated to be 120,000 kWh in an area where the unit cost of electricity is \$0.10/kWh. Two air conditioners are considered for the building. Air conditioner A has a seasonal average COP of 3.2 and costs \$5500 to purchase and install. Air condi-

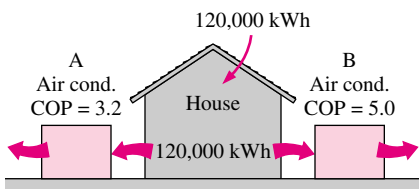


FIGURE P6-64

tioner B has a seasonal average COP of 5.0 and costs \$7000 to purchase and install. All else being equal, determine which air conditioner is a better buy.

Perpetual-Motion Machines

6-65C An inventor claims to have developed a resistance heater that supplies 1.2 kWh of energy to a room for each kWh of electricity it consumes. Is this a reasonable claim, or has the inventor developed a perpetual-motion machine? Explain.

6-66C It is common knowledge that the temperature of air rises as it is compressed. An inventor thought about using this high-temperature air to heat buildings. He used a compressor driven by an electric motor. The inventor claims that the compressed hot-air system is 25 percent more efficient than a resistance heating system that provides an equivalent amount of heating. Is this claim valid, or is this just another perpetual-motion machine? Explain.

Reversible and Irreversible Processes

6-67C A cold canned drink is left in a warmer room where its temperature rises as a result of heat transfer. Is this a reversible process? Explain.

6-68C Why are engineers interested in reversible processes even though they can never be achieved?

6-69C Why does a nonquasi-equilibrium compression process require a larger work input than the corresponding quasi-equilibrium one?

6-70C Why does a nonquasi-equilibrium expansion process deliver less work than the corresponding quasi-equilibrium one?

6-71C How do you distinguish between internal and external irreversibilities?

6-72C Is a reversible expansion or compression process necessarily quasi-equilibrium? Is a quasi-equilibrium expansion or compression process necessarily reversible? Explain.

The Carnot Cycle and Carnot Principles

6-73C What are the four processes that make up the Carnot cycle?

6-74C What are the two statements known as the Carnot principles?

6-75C Somebody claims to have developed a new reversible heat-engine cycle that has a higher theoretical efficiency than the Carnot cycle operating between the same temperature limits. How do you evaluate this claim?

6-76C Somebody claims to have developed a new reversible heat-engine cycle that has the same theoretical efficiency as the Carnot cycle operating between the same temperature limits. Is this a reasonable claim?

6-77C Is it possible to develop (a) an actual and (b) a reversible heat-engine cycle that is more efficient than a Carnot cycle operating between the same temperature limits? Explain.

Carnot Heat Engines


6-78C Is there any way to increase the efficiency of a Carnot heat engine other than by increasing T_H or decreasing T_L ?


6-79C Consider two actual power plants operating with solar energy. Energy is supplied to one plant from a solar pond at 80°C and to the other from concentrating collectors that raise the water temperature to 600°C. Which of these power plants will have a higher efficiency? Explain.

6-80 A Carnot heat engine operates between a source at 1000 K and a sink at 300 K. If the heat engine is supplied with heat at a rate of 800 kJ/min, determine (a) the thermal efficiency and (b) the power output of this heat engine.

Answers: (a) 70 percent, (b) 9.33 kW

6-81 A Carnot heat engine receives 650 kJ of heat from a source of unknown temperature and rejects 200 kJ of it to a sink at 17°C. Determine (a) the temperature of the source and (b) the thermal efficiency of the heat engine.

6-82  A heat engine operates between a source at 550°C and a sink at 25°C. If heat is supplied to the heat engine at a steady rate of 1200 kJ/min, determine the maximum power output of this heat engine.

6-83  Reconsider Prob. 6-82. Using EES (or other) software, study the effects of the temperatures of the heat source and the heat sink on the power produced and the cycle thermal efficiency. Let the source temperature vary from 300°C to 1000°C, and the sink temperature to vary from 0°C to 50°C. Plot the power produced and the cycle efficiency against the source temperature for sink temperatures of 0°C, 25°C, and 50°C, and discuss the results.

6-84E A heat engine is operating on a Carnot cycle and has a thermal efficiency of 55 percent. The waste heat from this engine is rejected to a nearby lake at 60°F at a rate of 800 Btu/min. Determine (a) the power output of the engine and (b) the temperature of the source.

Answers: (a) 23.1 hp, (b) 1156 R

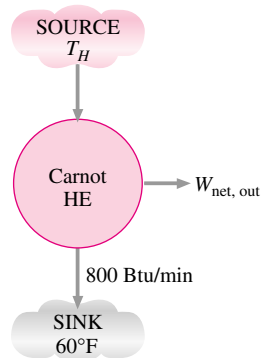


FIGURE P6-84E

6-85 In tropical climates, the water near the surface of the ocean remains warm throughout the year as a result of solar energy absorption. In the deeper parts of the ocean, however,

the water remains at a relatively low temperature since the sun's rays cannot penetrate very far. It is proposed to take advantage of this temperature difference and construct a power plant that will absorb heat from the warm water near the surface and reject the waste heat to the cold water a few hundred meters below. Determine the maximum thermal efficiency of such a plant if the water temperatures at the two respective locations are 24 and 3°C.

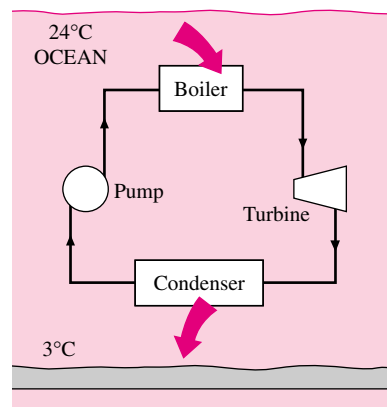


FIGURE P6-85

6-86 An innovative way of power generation involves the utilization of geothermal energy—the energy of hot water that exists naturally underground—as the heat source. If a supply of hot water at 140°C is discovered at a location where the environmental temperature is 20°C, determine the maximum thermal efficiency a geothermal power plant built at that location can have. Answer: 29.1 percent

6-87 An inventor claims to have developed a heat engine that receives 750 kJ of heat from a source at 400 K and produces 250 kJ of net work while rejecting the waste heat to a sink at 300 K. Is this a reasonable claim? Why?

6-88E An experimentalist claims that, based on his measurements, a heat engine receives 300 Btu of heat from a source of 900 R, converts 160 Btu of it to work, and rejects the rest as waste heat to a sink at 540 R. Are these measurements reasonable? Why?

Carnot Refrigerators and Heat Pumps

6-89C How can we increase the COP of a Carnot refrigerator?

6-90C What is the highest COP that a refrigerator operating between temperature levels T_L and T_H can have?

6-91C In an effort to conserve energy in a heat-engine cycle, somebody suggests incorporating a refrigerator that will absorb some of the waste energy Q_L and transfer it to the energy source of the heat engine. Is this a smart idea? Explain.

6-92C It is well established that the thermal efficiency of a heat engine increases as the temperature T_L at which heat is rejected from the heat engine decreases. In an effort to increase

the efficiency of a power plant, somebody suggests refrigerating the cooling water before it enters the condenser, where heat rejection takes place. Would you be in favor of this idea? Why?

6-93C It is well known that the thermal efficiency of heat engines increases as the temperature of the energy source increases. In an attempt to improve the efficiency of a power plant, somebody suggests transferring heat from the available energy source to a higher-temperature medium by a heat pump before energy is supplied to the power plant. What do you think of this suggestion? Explain.

6-94 A Carnot refrigerator operates in a room in which the temperature is 22°C and consumes 2 kW of power when operating. If the food compartment of the refrigerator is to be maintained at 3°C , determine the rate of heat removal from the food compartment.

6-95 A refrigerator is to remove heat from the cooled space at a rate of 300 kJ/min to maintain its temperature at -8°C . If the air surrounding the refrigerator is at 25°C , determine the minimum power input required for this refrigerator.

Answer: 0.623 kW

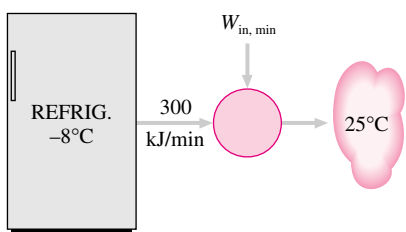


FIGURE P6-95

6-96 An air-conditioning system operating on the reversed Carnot cycle is required to transfer heat from a house at a rate of 750 kJ/min to maintain its temperature at 20°C . If the outdoor air temperature is 35°C , determine the power required to operate this air-conditioning system. *Answer: 0.64 kW*

6-97E An air-conditioning system is used to maintain a house at 72°F when the temperature outside is 90°F . If this air-conditioning system draws 5 hp of power when operating, determine the maximum rate of heat removal from the house that it can accomplish.

6-98 A Carnot refrigerator operates in a room in which the temperature is 25°C . The refrigerator consumes 500 W of power when operating and has a COP of 4.5 . Determine (a) the rate of heat removal from the refrigerated space and (b) the temperature of the refrigerated space.

Answers: (a) 135 kJ/min , (b) -29.2°C

6-99 An inventor claims to have developed a refrigeration system that removes heat from the closed region at -5°C and transfers it to the surrounding air at 25°C while maintaining a COP of 6.5 . Is this claim reasonable? Why?

6-100 During an experiment conducted in a room at 25°C , a laboratory assistant measures that a refrigerator that draws

2 kW of power has removed $30,000\text{ kJ}$ of heat from the refrigerated space, which is maintained at -30°C . The running time of the refrigerator during the experiment was 20 min . Determine if these measurements are reasonable.

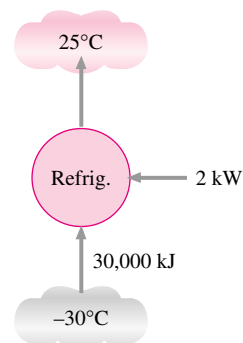


FIGURE P6-100

6-101E An air-conditioning system is used to maintain a house at 75°F when the temperature outside is 95°F . The house is gaining heat through the walls and the windows at a rate of 750 Btu/min , and the heat generation rate within the house from people, lights, and appliances amounts to 150 Btu/min . Determine the minimum power input required for this air-conditioning system. *Answer: 0.79 hp*

6-102 A heat pump is used to heat a house and maintain it at 24°C . On a winter day when the outdoor air temperature is -5°C , the house is estimated to lose heat at a rate of $80,000\text{ kJ/h}$. Determine the minimum power required to operate this heat pump.

6-103 A heat pump is used to maintain a house at 22°C by extracting heat from the outside air on a day when the outside air temperature is 2°C . The house is estimated to lose heat at a rate of $110,000\text{ kJ/h}$, and the heat pump consumes 8 kW of electric power when running. Is this heat pump powerful enough to do the job?

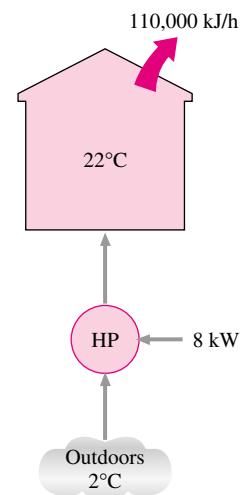


FIGURE P6-103

6-104 The structure of a house is such that it loses heat at a rate of 5400 kJ/h per $^{\circ}\text{C}$ difference between the indoors and outdoors. A heat pump that requires a power input of 6 kW is used to maintain this house at 21°C . Determine the lowest outdoor temperature for which the heat pump can meet the heating requirements of this house. *Answer: -13.3°C*

6-105 The performance of a heat pump degrades (i.e., its COP decreases) as the temperature of the heat source decreases. This makes using heat pumps at locations with severe weather conditions unattractive. Consider a house that is heated and maintained at 20°C by a heat pump during the winter. What is the maximum COP for this heat pump if heat is extracted from the outdoor air at (a) 10°C , (b) -5°C , and (c) -30°C ?

6-106E A heat pump is to be used for heating a house in winter. The house is to be maintained at 78°F at all times. When the temperature outdoors drops to 25°F , the heat losses from the house are estimated to be 55,000 Btu/h. Determine the minimum power required to run this heat pump if heat is extracted from (a) the outdoor air at 25°F and (b) the well water at 50°F .

6-107 A Carnot heat pump is to be used to heat a house and maintain it at 20°C in winter. On a day when the average outdoor temperature remains at about 2°C , the house is estimated to lose heat at a rate of 82,000 kJ/h. If the heat pump consumes 8 kW of power while operating, determine (a) how long the heat pump ran on that day; (b) the total heating costs, assuming an average price of 8.5¢/kWh for electricity; and (c) the heating cost for the same day if resistance heating is used instead of a heat pump. *Answers: (a) 4.19 h, (b) \$2.85, (c) \$46.47*

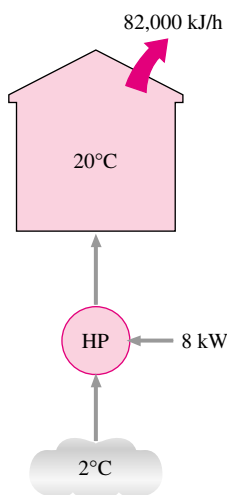


FIGURE P6-107

6-108 A Carnot heat engine receives heat from a reservoir at 900°C at a rate of 800 kJ/min and rejects the waste heat to the ambient air at 27°C . The entire work output of the heat engine is used to drive a refrigerator that removes heat from the

refrigerated space at -5°C and transfers it to the same ambient air at 27°C . Determine (a) the maximum rate of heat removal from the refrigerated space and (b) the total rate of heat rejection to the ambient air. *Answers: (a) 4982 kJ/min, (b) 5782 kJ/min*

6-109E A Carnot heat engine receives heat from a reservoir at 1700°F at a rate of 700 Btu/min and rejects the waste heat to the ambient air at 80°F . The entire work output of the heat engine is used to drive a refrigerator that removes heat from the refrigerated space at 20°F and transfers it to the same ambient air at 80°F . Determine (a) the maximum rate of heat removal from the refrigerated space and (b) the total rate of heat rejection to the ambient air.

Answers: (a) 4200 Btu/min, (b) 4900 Btu/min

Review Problems

6-110 Consider a Carnot heat-engine cycle executed in a steady-flow system using steam as the working fluid. The cycle has a thermal efficiency of 30 percent, and steam changes from saturated liquid to saturated vapor at 300°C during the heat addition process. If the mass flow rate of the steam is 5 kg/s, determine the net power output of this engine, in kW.

6-111 A heat pump with a COP of 2.4 is used to heat a house. When running, the heat pump consumes 8 kW of electric power. If the house is losing heat to the outside at an average rate of 40,000 kJ/h and the temperature of the house is 3°C when the heat pump is turned on, determine how long it will take for the temperature in the house to rise to 22°C . Assume the house is well sealed (i.e., no air leaks) and take the entire mass within the house (air, furniture, etc.) to be equivalent to 2000 kg of air.

6-112 An old gas turbine has an efficiency of 21 percent and develops a power output of 6000 kW. Determine the fuel consumption rate of this gas turbine, in L/min, if the fuel has a heating value of 46,000 kJ/kg and a density of 0.8 g/cm^3 .

6-113 Show that $\text{COP}_{\text{HP}} = \text{COP}_{\text{R}} + 1$ when both the heat pump and the refrigerator have the same Q_L and Q_H values.

6-114 An air-conditioning system is used to maintain a house at a constant temperature of 20°C . The house is gaining heat from outdoors at a rate of 20,000 kJ/h, and the heat generated in the house from the people, lights, and appliances amounts to 8000 kJ/h. For a COP of 2.5, determine the required power input to this air-conditioning system. *Answer: 3.11 kW*

6-115 Consider a Carnot heat-engine cycle executed in a closed system using 0.01 kg of refrigerant-134a as the working fluid. The cycle has a thermal efficiency of 15 percent, and the refrigerant-134a changes from saturated liquid to saturated vapor at 70°C during the heat addition process. Determine the net work output of this engine per cycle.

6-116 A heat pump with a COP of 2.8 is used to heat an airtight house. When running, the heat pump consumes 5 kW of power. If the temperature in the house is 7°C when the heat pump is turned on, how long will it take for the heat pump to

raise the temperature of the house to 22°C? Is this answer realistic or optimistic? Explain. Assume the entire mass within the house (air, furniture, etc.) is equivalent to 1500 kg of air.

Answer: 19.2 min

6-117 A promising method of power generation involves collecting and storing solar energy in large artificial lakes a few meters deep, called solar ponds. Solar energy is absorbed by all parts of the pond, and the water temperature rises everywhere. The top part of the pond, however, loses to the atmosphere much of the heat it absorbs, and as a result, its temperature drops. This cool water serves as insulation for the bottom part of the pond and helps trap the energy there. Usually, salt is planted at the bottom of the pond to prevent the rise of this hot water to the top. A power plant that uses an organic fluid, such as alcohol, as the working fluid can be operated between the top and the bottom portions of the pond. If the water temperature is 35°C near the surface and 80°C near the bottom of the pond, determine the maximum thermal efficiency that this power plant can have. Is it realistic to use 35 and 80°C for temperatures in the calculations? Explain. **Answer:** 12.7 percent

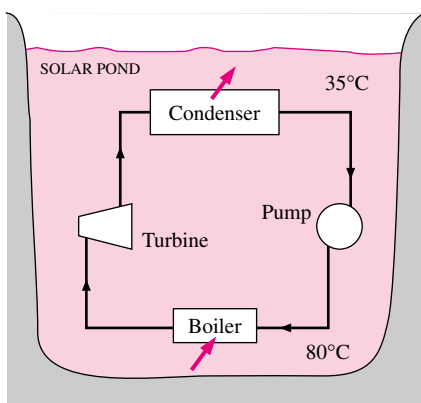




FIGURE P6-117

6-118 Consider a Carnot heat-engine cycle executed in a closed system using 0.0103 kg of steam as the working fluid. It is known that the maximum absolute temperature in the cycle is twice the minimum absolute temperature, and the net work output of the cycle is 25 kJ. If the steam changes from saturated vapor to saturated liquid during heat rejection, determine the temperature of the steam during the heat rejection process.

6-119  Reconsider Prob. 6-118. Using EES (or other) software, investigate the effect of the net work output on the required temperature of the steam during the heat rejection process. Let the work output vary from 15 kJ to 25 kJ.

6-120 Consider a Carnot refrigeration cycle executed in a closed system in the saturated liquid–vapor mixture region using 0.96 kg of refrigerant-134a as the working fluid. It is known that the maximum absolute temperature in the cycle is 1.2 times the minimum absolute temperature, and the net work

input to the cycle is 22 kJ. If the refrigerant changes from saturated vapor to saturated liquid during the heat rejection process, determine the minimum pressure in the cycle.


6-121  Reconsider Prob. 6-120. Using EES (or other) software, investigate the effect of the minimum pressure on the net work input. Let the work input vary from 10 kJ to 30 kJ. Plot the minimum pressure in the refrigeration cycle as a function of net work input, and discuss the results.

6-122 Consider two Carnot heat engines operating in series. The first engine receives heat from the reservoir at 2400 K and rejects the waste heat to another reservoir at temperature T . The second engine receives this energy rejected by the first one, converts some of it to work, and rejects the rest to a reservoir at 300 K. If the thermal efficiencies of both engines are the same, determine the temperature T . **Answer:** 849 K

6-123 The COP of a refrigerator decreases as the temperature of the refrigerated space is decreased. That is, removing heat from a medium at a very low temperature will require a large work input. Determine the minimum work input required to remove 1 kJ of heat from liquid helium at 3 K when the outside temperature is 300 K. **Answer:** 99 kJ

6-124E A Carnot heat pump is used to heat and maintain a residential building at 75°F. An energy analysis of the house reveals that it loses heat at a rate of 2500 Btu/h per °F temperature difference between the indoors and the outdoors. For an outdoor temperature of 35°F, determine (a) the coefficient of performance and (b) the required power input to the heat pump. **Answers:** (a) 13.4, (b) 2.93 hp

6-125 A Carnot heat engine receives heat at 750 K and rejects the waste heat to the environment at 300 K. The entire work output of the heat engine is used to drive a Carnot refrigerator that removes heat from the cooled space at -15°C at a rate of 400 kJ/min and rejects it to the same environment at 300 K. Determine (a) the rate of heat supplied to the heat engine and (b) the total rate of heat rejection to the environment.

6-126  Reconsider Prob. 6-125. Using EES (or other) software, investigate the effects of the heat engine source temperature, the environment temperature, and the cooled space temperature on the required heat supply to the heat engine and the total rate of heat rejection to the environment. Let the source temperature vary from 500 K to 1000 K, the environment temperature vary from 275 K to 325 K, and the cooled space temperature vary from -20°C to 0°C . Plot the required heat supply against the source temperature for the cooled space temperature of -15°C and environment temperatures of 275, 300, and 325 K, and discuss the results.

6-127 A heat engine operates between two reservoirs at 800 and 20°C . One-half of the work output of the heat engine is used to drive a Carnot heat pump that removes heat from the cold surroundings at 2°C and transfers it to a house maintained at 22°C . If the house is losing heat at a rate of 62,000 kJ/h,

determine the minimum rate of heat supply to the heat engine required to keep the house at 22°C.

6-128 Consider a Carnot refrigeration cycle executed in a closed system in the saturated liquid–vapor mixture region using 0.8 kg of refrigerant-134a as the working fluid. The maximum and the minimum temperatures in the cycle are 20°C and –10°C, respectively. It is known that the refrigerant is saturated liquid at the end of the heat rejection process, and the net work input to the cycle is 12 kJ. Determine the fraction of the mass of the refrigerant that vaporizes during the heat addition process, and the pressure at the end of the heat rejection process.

6-129 Consider a Carnot heat-pump cycle executed in a steady-flow system in the saturated liquid–vapor mixture region using refrigerant-134a flowing at a rate of 0.264 kg/s as the working fluid. It is known that the maximum absolute temperature in the cycle is 1.15 times the minimum absolute temperature, and the net power input to the cycle is 5 kW. If the refrigerant changes from saturated vapor to saturated liquid during the heat rejection process, determine the ratio of the maximum to minimum pressures in the cycle.

6-130 A Carnot heat engine is operating between a source at T_H and a sink at T_L . If it is desired to double the thermal efficiency of this engine, what should the new source temperature be? Assume the sink temperature is held constant.

6-131 When discussing Carnot engines, it is assumed that the engine is in thermal equilibrium with the source and the sink during the heat addition and heat rejection processes, respectively. That is, it is assumed that $T_H^* = T_H$ and $T_L^* = T_L$ so that there is no external irreversibility. In that case, the thermal efficiency of the Carnot engine is $\eta_C = 1 - T_L/T_H$.

In reality, however, we must maintain a reasonable temperature difference between the two heat transfer media in order to have an acceptable heat transfer rate through a finite heat exchanger surface area. The heat transfer rates in that case can be expressed as

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{Q}_H &= (hA)_H(T_H - T_H^*) \\ \dot{Q}_L &= (hA)_L(T_L^* - T_L)\end{aligned}$$

where h and A are the heat transfer coefficient and heat transfer surface area, respectively. When the values of h , A , T_H , and T_L are fixed, show that the power output will be a maximum when

$$\frac{T_L^*}{T_H^*} = \left(\frac{T_L}{T_H}\right)^{1/2}$$

Also, show that the maximum net power output in this case is

$$\dot{W}_{C, \max} = \frac{(hA)_H T_H}{1 + (hA)_H / (hA)_L} \left[1 - \left(\frac{T_L}{T_H}\right)^{1/2} \right]^2$$

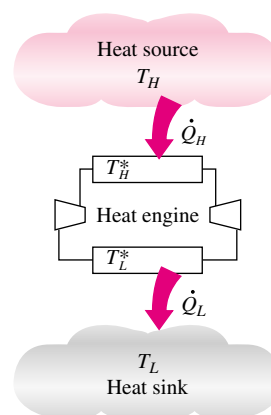


FIGURE P6-131

6-132 Consider a home owner who is replacing his 25-year-old natural gas furnace that has an efficiency of 55 percent. The home owner is considering a conventional furnace that has an efficiency of 82 percent and costs \$1600 and a high-efficiency furnace that has an efficiency of 95 percent and costs \$2700. The home owner would like to buy the high-efficiency furnace if the savings from the natural gas pay for the additional cost in less than 8 years. If the home owner presently pays \$1200 a year for heating, determine if he should buy the conventional or high-efficiency model.

6-133 Replacing incandescent lights with energy-efficient fluorescent lights can reduce the lighting energy consumption to one-fourth of what it was before. The energy consumed by the lamps is eventually converted to heat, and thus switching to energy-efficient lighting also reduces the cooling load in summer but increases the heating load in winter. Consider a building that is heated by a natural gas furnace with an efficiency of 80 percent and cooled by an air conditioner with a COP of 3.5. If electricity costs \$0.08/kWh and natural gas costs \$0.70/therm, determine if efficient lighting will increase or decrease the total energy cost of the building (a) in summer and (b) in winter.

6-134 The cargo space of a refrigerated truck whose inner dimensions are 12 m × 2.3 m × 3.5 m is to be precooled from 25°C to an average temperature of 5°C. The construction of the truck is such that a transmission heat gain occurs at a rate of 80 W/°C. If the ambient temperature is 25°C, determine how

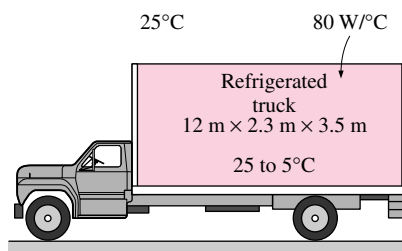


FIGURE P6-134

long it will take for a system with a refrigeration capacity of 8 kW to precool this truck.

6-135 A refrigeration system is to cool bread loaves with an average mass of 450 g from 22°C to -10°C at a rate of 500 loaves per hour by refrigerated air at -30°C. Taking the average specific and latent heats of bread to be 2.93 kJ/kg · °C and 109.3 kJ/kg, respectively, determine (a) the rate of heat removal from the breads, in kJ/h; (b) the required volume flow rate of air, in m³/h, if the temperature rise of air is not to exceed 8°C; and (c) the size of the compressor of the refrigeration system, in kW, for a COP of 1.2 for the refrigeration system.

6-136 The drinking water needs of a production facility with 20 employees is to be met by a bubbler type water fountain. The refrigerated water fountain is to cool water from 22°C to 8°C and supply cold water at a rate of 0.4 L per hour per person. Heat is transferred to the reservoir from the surroundings at 25°C at a rate of 45 W. If the COP of the refrigeration system is 2.9, determine the size of the compressor, in W, that will be suitable for the refrigeration system of this water cooler.

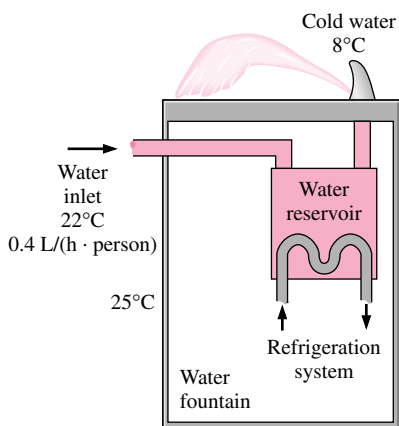



FIGURE P6-136

6-137 The “Energy Guide” label on a washing machine indicates that the washer will use \$85 worth of hot water per year if the water is heated by an electric water heater at an electricity rate of \$0.082/kWh. If the water is heated from 12°C to 55°C, determine how many liters of hot water an average family uses per week. Disregard the electricity consumed by the washer, and take the efficiency of the electric water heater to be 91 percent.

6-138E The “Energy Guide” label on a washing machine indicates that the washer will use \$33 worth of hot water if the water is heated by a gas water heater at a natural gas rate of \$0.605/therm. If the water is heated from 60°F to 130°F, determine how many gallons of hot water an average family uses per week. Disregard the electricity consumed by the washer, and take the efficiency of the gas water heater to be 58 percent.

6-139  A typical electric water heater has an efficiency of 90 percent and costs \$390 a year to operate at a unit cost of electricity of \$0.08/kWh. A typical heat pump-

powered water heater has a COP of 2.2 but costs about \$800 more to install. Determine how many years it will take for the heat pump water heater to pay for its cost differential from the energy it saves.

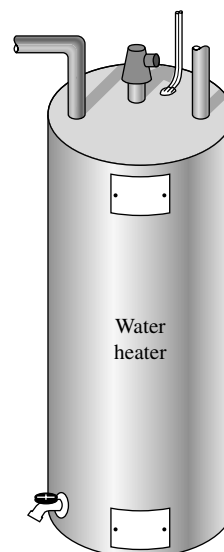



FIGURE P6-139

6-140  Reconsider Prob. 6-139. Using EES (or other) software, investigate the effect of the heat pump COP on the yearly operation costs and the number of years required to break even. Let the COP vary from 2 to 5. Plot the payback period against the COP and discuss the results.

6-141E The energy contents, unit costs, and typical conversion efficiencies of various energy sources for use in water heaters are given as follows: 1025 Btu/ft³, \$0.0060/ft³, and 55 percent for natural gas; 138,700 Btu/gal, \$1.15/gal, and 55 percent for heating oil; and 1 kWh/kWh \$0.084/kWh, and 90 percent for electric heaters, respectively. Determine the lowest-cost energy source for water heaters.

6-142 A home owner is considering these heating systems for heating his house. Electric resistance heating with \$0.09/kWh and 1 kWh = 3600 kJ, gas heating with \$0.62/therm and 1 therm = 105,500 kJ, and oil heating with \$1.25/gal and 1 gal of oil = 138,500 kJ. Assuming efficiencies of 100 percent for the electric furnace and 87 percent for the gas and oil furnaces, determine the heating system with the lowest energy cost.

6-143 A home owner is trying to decide between a high-efficiency natural gas furnace with an efficiency of 97 percent and a ground-source heat pump with a COP of 3.5. The unit costs of electricity and natural gas are \$0.092/kWh and \$0.71/therm (1 therm = 105,500 kJ). Determine which system will have a lower energy cost.

6-144 The maximum flow rate of a standard shower head is about 3.5 gpm (13.3 L/min) and can be reduced to 2.75 gpm (10.5 L/min) by switching to a low-flow shower head that is equipped with flow controllers. Consider a family of four, with

each person taking a 6-minute shower every morning. City water at 15°C is heated to 55°C in an oil water heater whose efficiency is 65 percent and then tempered to 42°C by cold water at the T-elbow of the shower before being routed to the shower head. The price of heating oil is $\$1.20/\text{gal}$ and its heating value is $146,300 \text{ kJ/gal}$. Assuming a constant specific heat of $4.18 \text{ kJ/kg} \cdot ^{\circ}\text{C}$ for water, determine the amount of oil and money saved per year by replacing the standard shower heads by the low-flow ones.


6-145 A typical household pays about $\$1200$ a year on energy bills, and the U.S. Department of Energy estimates that 46 percent of this energy is used for heating and cooling, 15 percent for heating water, 15 percent for refrigerating and freezing, and the remaining 24 percent for lighting, cooking, and running other appliances. The heating and cooling costs of a poorly insulated house can be reduced by up to 30 percent by adding adequate insulation. If the cost of insulation is $\$200$, determine how long it will take for the insulation to pay for itself from the energy it saves.

6-146 The kitchen, bath, and other ventilation fans in a house should be used sparingly since these fans can discharge a houseful of warmed or cooled air in just one hour. Consider a 200-m^2 house whose ceiling height is 2.8 m. The house is heated by a 96 percent efficient gas heater and is maintained at 22°C and 92 kPa. If the unit cost of natural gas is $\$0.60/\text{therm}$ (1 therm = $105,500 \text{ kJ}$), determine the cost of energy “vented out” by the fans in 1 h. Assume the average outdoor temperature during the heating season to be 5°C .

6-147 Repeat Prob. 6-146 for the air-conditioning cost in a dry climate for an outdoor temperature of 28°C . Assume the COP of the air-conditioning system to be 3.2, and the unit cost of electricity to be $\$0.10/\text{kWh}$.

6-148 The U.S. Department of Energy estimates that up to 10 percent of the energy use of a house can be saved by caulking and weatherstripping doors and windows to reduce air leaks at a cost of about $\$50$ for materials for an average home with 12 windows and 2 doors. Caulking and weatherstripping every gas-heated home properly would save enough energy to heat about 4 million homes. The savings can be increased by installing storm windows. Determine how long it will take for the caulking and weatherstripping to pay for itself from the energy they save for a house whose annual energy use is $\$1100$.

6-149 The U.S. Department of Energy estimates that 570,000 barrels of oil would be saved per day if every household in the United States lowered the thermostat setting in winter by 6°F (3.3°C). Assuming the average heating season to be 180 days and the cost of oil to be $\$20/\text{barrel}$, determine how much money would be saved per year.

6-150  Using EES (or other) software, determine the maximum work that can be extracted from a pond containing 10^5 kg of water at 350 K when the temperature of the surroundings is 300 K . Notice that the temperature of water in the pond will be gradually decreasing as energy is ex-

tracted from it; therefore, the efficiency of the engine will be decreasing. Use temperature intervals of (a) 5 K , (b) 2 K , and (c) 1 K until the pond temperature drops to 300 K . Also solve this problem exactly by integration and compare the results.

Design and Essay Problems

6-151 Find out the prices of heating oil, natural gas, and electricity in your area, and determine the cost of each per kWh of energy supplied to the house as heat. Go through your utility bills and determine how much money you spent for heating last January. Also determine how much your January heating bill would be for each of the heating systems if you had the latest and most efficient system installed.

6-152 Prepare a report on the heating systems available in your area for residential buildings. Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each system and compare their initial and operating costs. What are the important factors in the selection of a heating system? Give some guidelines. Identify the conditions under which each heating system would be the best choice in your area.

6-153 The performance of a cyclic device is defined as the ratio of the desired output to the required input, and this definition can be extended to nontechnical fields. For example, your performance in this course can be viewed as the grade you earn relative to the effort you put in. If you have been investing a lot of time in this course and your grades do not reflect it, you are performing poorly. In that case, perhaps you should try to find out the underlying cause and how to correct the problem. Give three other definitions of performance from nontechnical fields and discuss them.

6-154 Devise a Carnot heat engine using steady-flow components, and describe how the Carnot cycle is executed in that engine. What happens when the directions of heat and work interactions are reversed?

6-155 When was the concept of the heat pump conceived and by whom? When was the first heat pump built, and when were the heat pumps first mass-produced?

6-156 Your neighbor lives in a 2500-square-foot (about 250 m^2) older house heated by natural gas. The current gas heater was installed in the early 1970s and has an efficiency (called the Annual Fuel Utilization Efficiency rating, or AFUE) of 65 percent. It is time to replace the furnace, and the neighbor is trying to decide between a conventional furnace that has an efficiency of 80 percent and costs $\$1500$ and a high-efficiency furnace that has an efficiency of 95 percent and costs $\$2500$. Your neighbor offered to pay you $\$100$ if you help him make the right decision. Considering the weather data, typical heating loads, and the price of natural gas in your area, make a recommendation to your neighbor based on a convincing economic analysis.

6-157 Using a thermometer, measure the temperature of the main food compartment of your refrigerator, and check if it is between 1 and 4°C . Also, measure the temperature of the

freezer compartment, and check if it is at the recommended value of -18°C .

6-158 Using a timer (or watch) and a thermometer, conduct the following experiment to determine the rate of heat gain of your refrigerator. First make sure that the door of the refrigerator is not opened for at least a few hours so that steady operating conditions are established. Start the timer when the refrigerator stops running and measure the time Δt_1 it stays off before it kicks in. Then measure the time Δt_2 it stays on. Noting that the heat removed during Δt_2 is equal to the heat gain of the refrigerator during $\Delta t_1 + \Delta t_2$ and using the power consumed by the refrigerator when it is running, determine the average rate of heat gain for your refrigerator, in W. Take the COP (coefficient of performance) of your refrigerator to be 1.3 if it is not available.

6-159 Design a hydrocooling unit that can cool fruits and vegetables from 30°C to 5°C at a rate of 20,000 kg/h under the following conditions:

The unit will be of flood type, which will cool the products as they are conveyed into the channel filled with water. The products will be dropped into the channel filled with water at one end and be picked up at the other end. The channel can be

as wide as 3 m and as high as 90 cm. The water is to be circulated and cooled by the evaporator section of a refrigeration system. The refrigerant temperature inside the coils is to be -2°C , and the water temperature is not to drop below 1°C and not to exceed 6°C .

Assuming reasonable values for the average product density, specific heat, and porosity (the fraction of air volume in a box), recommend reasonable values for (a) the water velocity through the channel and (b) the refrigeration capacity of the refrigeration system.

6-160 The roofs of many homes in the United States are covered with photovoltaic (PV) solar cells that resemble roof tiles, generating electricity quietly from solar energy. An article stated that over its projected 30-year service life, a 4-kW roof PV system in California will reduce the production of CO_2 that causes global warming by 433,000 lbm, sulfates that cause acid rain by 2900 lbm, and nitrates that cause smog by 1660 lbm. The article also claims that a PV-roof will save 253,000 lbm of coal, 21,000 gallons of oil, and 27 million ft^3 of natural gas. Making reasonable assumptions for incident solar radiation, efficiency, and emissions, evaluate these claims and make corrections if necessary.