

ESO201A
Lecture#21
(Class Lecture)

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By

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Example Problem #2

4

The power output of an adiabatic steam turbine is 5 MW, and the inlet and exit conditions of the steam are as indicated in Fig. 1.

- (a) Compare the magnitudes of Δh , Δke and Δpe .
- (b) Determine the work done per unit mass of steam flowing through the turbine.
- (c) Calculate the mass flow rate of steam.

Solution

Assumptions

1. Steady-flow process ($\Delta m_{cv} = 0$, $\Delta E_{cv} = 0$).
2. The system is adiabatic and thus there is no heat transfer.

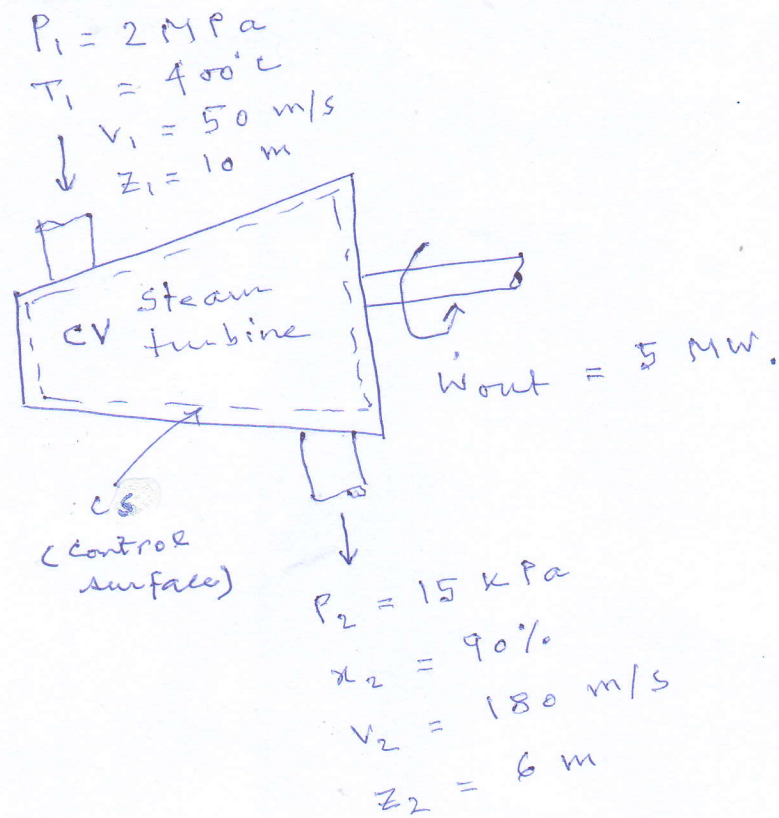


Fig. 1

We take the turbine as the system which is a control volume since mass crosses the system boundary during the process.

(a) At the inlet,
 $P_1 = 2 \text{ MPa}$ (i.e. 2000 kPa)
 $T_1 = 400^\circ\text{C}$

From Table A-5 we see that
 $T_{\text{sat@2MPa}} = 212.38^\circ\text{C}$

Since $T_{1@2\text{MPa}} > T_{\text{sat@2MPa}}$,
 the steam is superheated.

(6)

from
At the inlet, / Table A-6, we
get

$$h_1 = 3248.4 \text{ kJ/kg}$$

At the turbine exit we have a
saturated liquid-vapour mixture at
 $P = 15 \text{ kPa}$ since $x_2 = 0.9$.

From Table A-5,

$$h_{fg @ 15 \text{ kPa}} = 2372.3 \text{ kJ/kg}$$

$$h_f @ 15 \text{ kPa} = 225.94 \text{ kJ/kg}$$

Hence,

$$\begin{aligned} h_2 &= h_f + x_2 h_{fg} \\ &= 225.94 + 0.9 (2372.3) \\ &= 225.94 + 2135.07 \\ &= 2361.01 \text{ kJ/kg} \end{aligned}$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta h &= h_2 - h_1 \\ &= 2361.01 - 3248.4 \\ &= \boxed{-887.39 \text{ kJ/kg}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Delta ke = \frac{V_2^2 - V_1^2}{2}$$

$$= \frac{(180)^2 - (50)^2}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{1000}$$

(since 1000 m/s^2
 $= 1 \text{ kN/kg}$)

$$= \frac{32400 - 2500}{2000}$$

$$= \boxed{14.95 \text{ kN/kg}}$$

$$\Delta pe = g(z_2 - z_1) = \frac{(9.8)(6 - 10)}{1000}$$

$$= \boxed{-0.0392 \text{ kN/kg}}$$

$$\approx \boxed{-0.04 \text{ kN/kg}}$$

Thus, we see $|\Delta pe| \ll |\Delta R|$
 $|\Delta pe| \ll |\Delta ke|$.

This is typical of most engineering devices.

(8)

Second, as a result of low pressure and thus high specific volume, the steam velocity at the turbine exit can be very high. Yet the $|\Delta ke|$ is a small fraction of $|\Delta h|$ (1.68% in this case) and is therefore, often neglected.

(b) The energy ^{balance} for the steady-flow system is:

$$\dot{E}_{in} = \dot{E}_{out}$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{m} \left(h_1 + \frac{V_1^2}{2} + gz_1 \right) = \dot{W}_{out} + \dot{m} \left(h_2 + \frac{V_2^2}{2} + gz_2 \right) \quad (\text{since } \dot{Q} = 0)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \dot{W}_{out} &= - \left[(h_2 - h_1) + \frac{V_2^2 - V_1^2}{2} + g(z_2 - z_1) \right] \\ &= - \left[\Delta h + \Delta ke + \Delta pe \right] \\ &= - \left[-887.39 + 14.95 - 0.04 \right] \\ &= \boxed{872.48 \text{ kJ/kg}} \end{aligned}$$

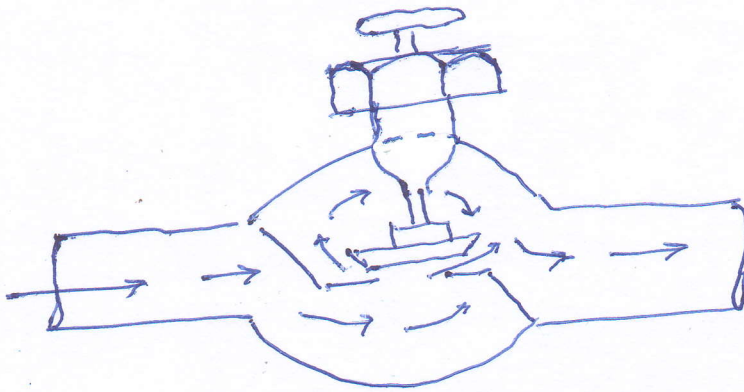
Throttling

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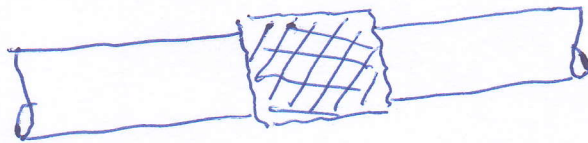
- Throttling valves are any kind of flow-restricting devices that cause a significant pressure drop in the fluid.
- Examples: ordinary adjustable valves, capillary tubes, and porous plugs.
- Unlike turbines, they produce a pressure drop without involving any work.
- The pressure drop in the fluid is often accompanied by a large drop in temperature, and for that reason throttling devices are commonly used in refrigeration and air-conditioning applications.

(2)

- The magnitude of the temperature drop (or sometimes, the temperature rise) during a throttling process is governed by a property called the Joule-Thomson coefficient, $(\partial T / \partial P)_H$.



(a) Flow through a valve



(b) A porous plug



(c) A capillary tube

Fig. 1 Examples of throttling devices

- Throttling devices are usually small and the flow through them may be assumed adiabatic ($\dot{Q}=0$) since there is neither sufficient time nor large enough area for any effective heat transfer to take place.

- Also, there is no work done ($\dot{W}=0$).

- ΔK_e and ΔP_e are also very small and taken to be zero.

- Although the exit velocity is often considerably higher than the inlet velocity, $|\Delta K_e| \ll |\Delta P_e|$.

(5)

Conservation of Energy

$$\dot{E}_{in} = \dot{E}_{out}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \dot{Q}_{in} + \dot{W}_{in} + \dot{m} h_1 + \dot{m} \frac{V_1^2}{2} \\ + \dot{m} g z_1 = \dot{Q}_{out} + \dot{W}_{out} \\ + \dot{m} h_2 + \dot{m} \frac{V_2^2}{2} \\ + \dot{m} g z_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \cancel{\dot{Q}_{in}} + \cancel{\dot{W}_{in}} + \dot{m} h_1 \\ = \cancel{\dot{Q}_{out}} + \cancel{\dot{W}_{out}} + \dot{m} \left(\frac{V_2^2}{2} - \frac{V_1^2}{2} \right) \\ + \dot{m} g (z_2 - z_1) + \dot{m} h_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{h_1 = h_2}$$

(6)

Thus,

$$u_1 + P_1 v_1 = u_2 + P_2 v_2$$

or internal energy + Flow energy
= constant

If $P_2 v_2 > P_1 v_1$, then

$$u_2 < u_1$$

and thus exit temperature will be lower than the inlet temperature usually. This is the case in refrigeration and air-conditioning.

If $P_2 v_2 < P_1 v_1$, then

$$u_2 > u_1$$

and there will be a temperature rise usually.

For ideal gases, since $h = f(T)$ only, $h_1 = h_2$ implies that

$$T_1 = T_2$$

7

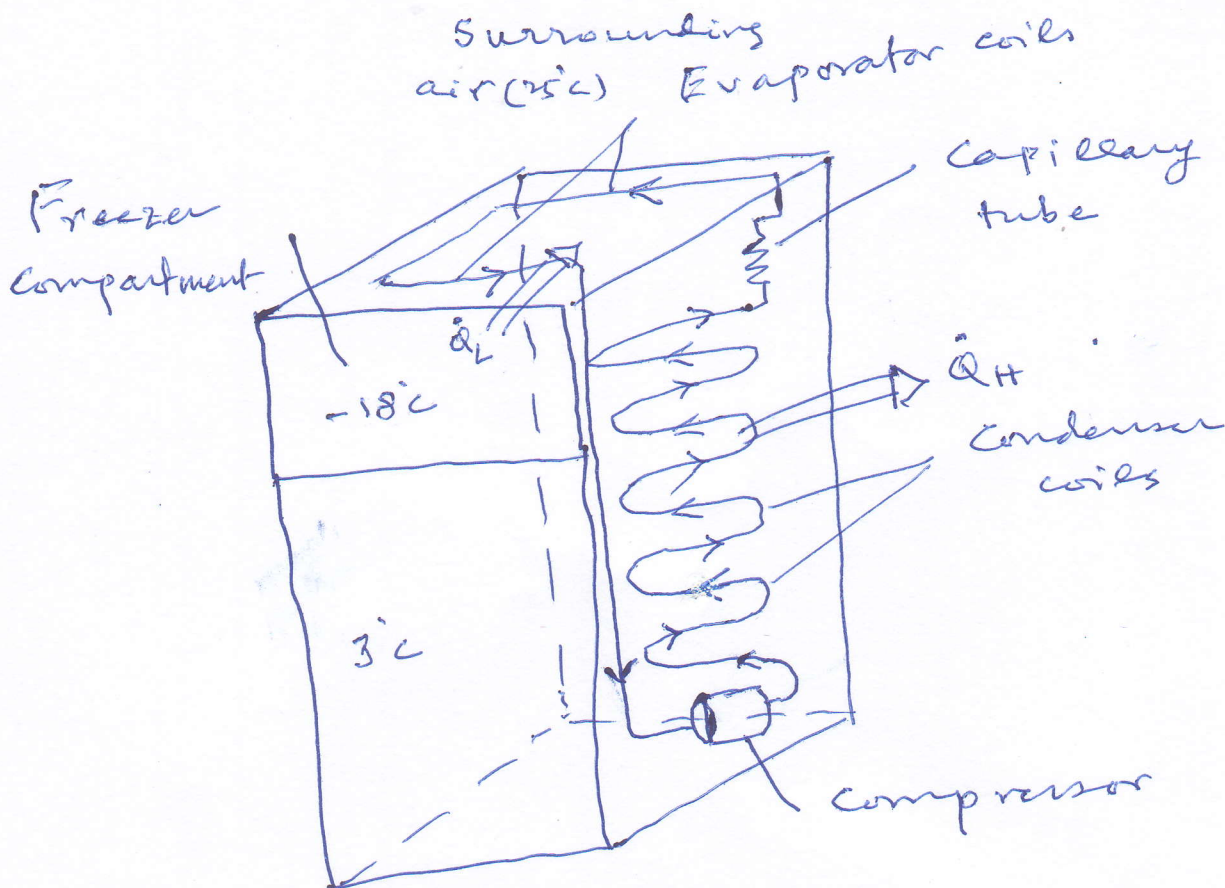


Fig. 2 An ordinary household refrigerator

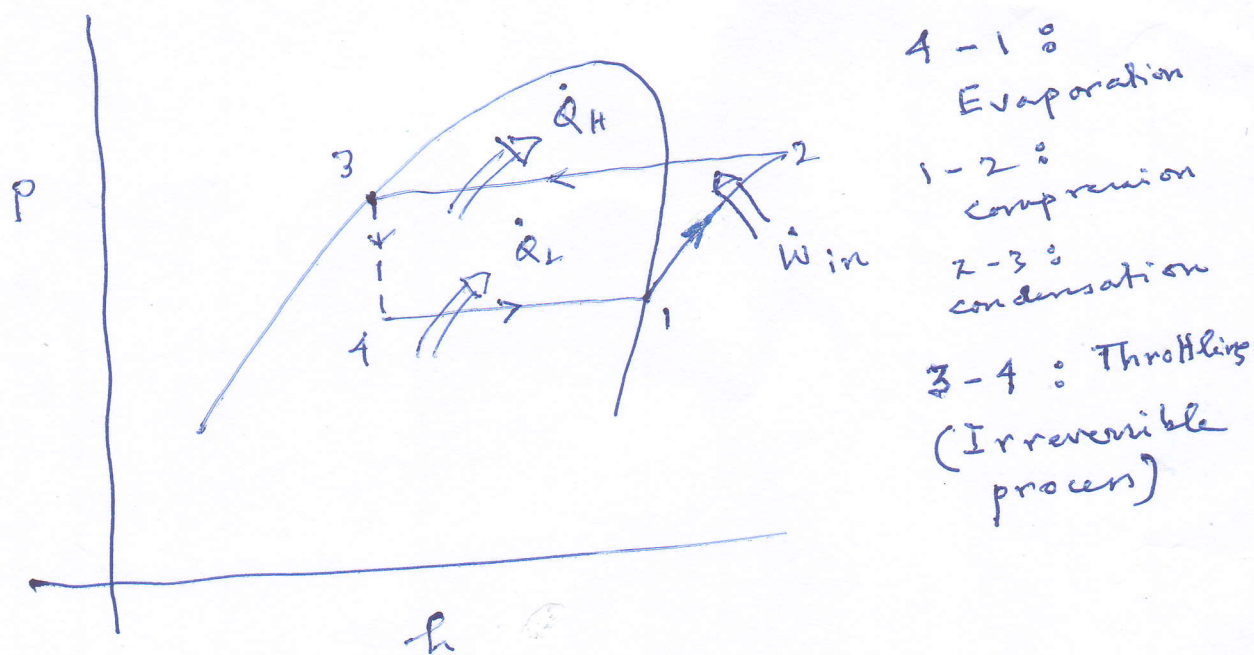


Fig. 3 P-h diagram of ideal vapour compression refrigeration cycle