

In-Text Concept Questions

- Electrical appliances (TV, stereo) use electric power as input. What happens to the power? Are those heat engines? What does the second law say about those devices?
- Geothermal underground hot water or steam can be used to generate electric power. Does that violate the second law?
- A windmill produces power on a shaft taking kinetic energy out of the wind. Is it a heat engine? Is it a perpetual-motion machine? Explain.
- Heat engines and heat pumps (refrigerators) are energy conversion devices altering amounts of energy transfer between Q and W . Which conversion direction ($Q \rightarrow W$ or $W \rightarrow Q$) is limited and which is unlimited according to the second law?

7.3 THE REVERSIBLE PROCESS

The question that can now logically be posed is this: If it is impossible to have a heat engine of 100% efficiency, what is the maximum efficiency one can have? The first step in the answer to this question is to define an ideal process, which is called a **reversible process**.

A reversible process for a system is defined as a process that, once having taken place, can be reversed and in so doing leave no change in either system or surroundings.

Let us illustrate the significance of this definition for a gas contained in a cylinder that is fitted with a piston. Consider first Fig. 7.12, in which a gas, which we define as the system, is restrained at high pressure by a piston that is secured by a pin. When the pin is removed, the piston is raised and forced abruptly against the stops. Some work is done by the system, since the piston has been raised a certain amount. Suppose we wish to restore the system to its initial state. One way of doing this would be to exert a force on the piston and thus compress the gas until the pin can be reinserted in the piston. Since the pressure on the face of the piston is greater on the return stroke than on the initial stroke, the work done on the gas in this reverse process is greater than the work done by the gas in the initial process. An amount of heat must be transferred from the gas during the reverse stroke so that the system has the same internal energy as it had originally. Thus, the system is restored to its initial state, but the surroundings have changed by virtue of the fact that work was required to force the piston down and heat was transferred to the surroundings. The initial process therefore is an **irreversible** one because it could not be reversed without leaving a change in the surroundings.

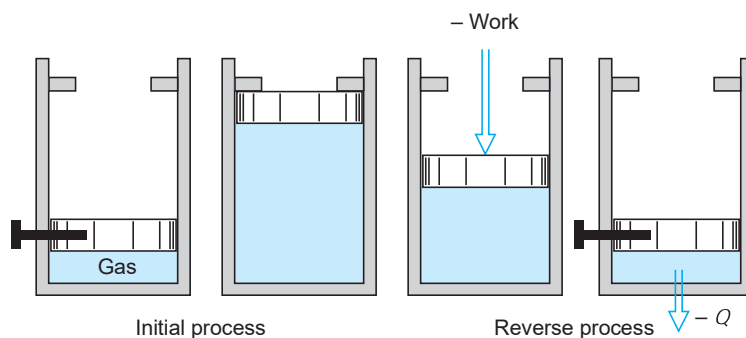


FIGURE 7.12 An example of an irreversible process.

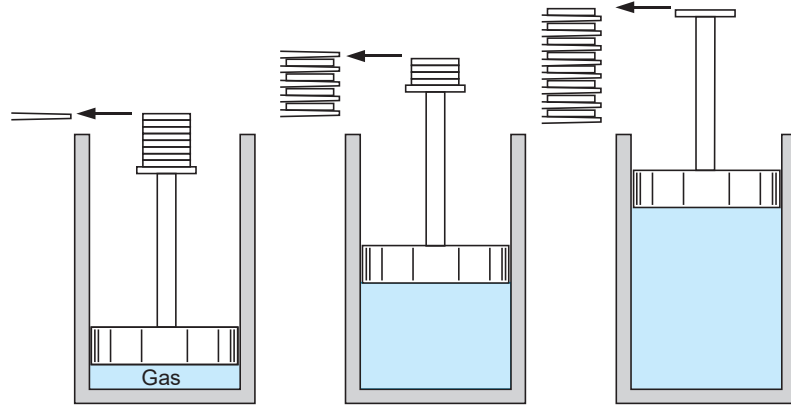


FIGURE 7.13 An example of a process that approaches reversibility.

In Fig. 7.13, let the gas in the cylinder comprise the system, and let the piston be loaded with a number of weights. Let the weights be slid off horizontally, one at a time, allowing the gas to expand and do work in raising the weights that remain on the piston. As the size of the weights is made smaller and their number is increased, we approach a process that can be reversed, for at each level of the piston during the reverse process there will be a small weight that is exactly at the level of the platform and thus can be placed on the platform without requiring work. In the limit, therefore, as the weights become very small, the reverse process can be accomplished in such a manner that both the system and its surroundings are in exactly the same state they were initially. Such a process is a reversible process.

7.4 FACTORS THAT RENDER PROCESSES IRREVERSIBLE

There are many factors that make processes irreversible. Four of those factors—friction, unrestrained expansion, heat transfer through a finite temperature difference, and mixing of two different substances—are considered in this section.

Friction

It is readily evident that friction makes a process irreversible, but a brief illustration may amplify the point. Let a block and an inclined plane make up a system, as in Fig. 7.14, and let the block be pulled up the inclined plane by weights that are lowered. A certain amount

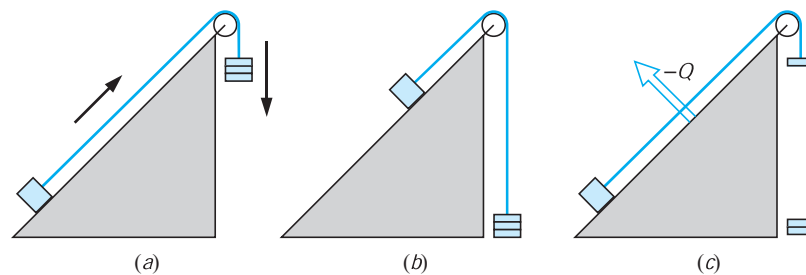


FIGURE 7.14 Demonstration of the fact that friction makes processes irreversible.

of work is needed to do this. Some of this work is required to overcome the friction between the block and the plane, and some is required to increase the potential energy of the block. The block can be restored to its initial position by removing some of the weights and thus allowing the block to slide back down the plane. Some heat transfer from the system to the surroundings will no doubt be required to restore the block to its initial temperature. Since the surroundings are not restored to their initial state at the conclusion of the reverse process, we conclude that friction has rendered the process irreversible. Another type of frictional effect is that associated with the flow of viscous fluids in pipes and passages and in the movement of bodies through viscous fluids.

Unrestrained Expansion

The classic example of an unrestrained expansion, as shown in Fig. 7.15, is a gas separated from a vacuum by a membrane. Consider what happens when the membrane breaks and the gas fills the entire vessel. It can be shown that this is an irreversible process by considering what would be necessary to restore the system to its original state. The gas would have to be compressed and heat transferred from the gas until its initial state is reached. Since the work and heat transfer involve a change in the surroundings, the surroundings are not restored to their initial state, indicating that the unrestrained expansion was an irreversible process. The process described in Fig. 7.12 is also an example of an unrestrained expansion.

In the reversible expansion of a gas, there must be only an infinitesimal difference between the force exerted by the gas and the restraining force, so that the rate at which the boundary moves will be infinitesimal. In accordance with our previous definition, this is a quasi-equilibrium process. However, actual systems have a finite difference in forces, which causes a finite rate of movement of the boundary, and thus the processes are irreversible in some degree.

Heat Transfer Through a Finite Temperature Difference

Consider as a system a high-temperature body and a low-temperature body, and let heat be transferred from the high-temperature body to the low-temperature body. The only way in which the system can be restored to its initial state is to provide refrigeration, which requires work from the surroundings, and some heat transfer to the surroundings will also be necessary. Because of the heat transfer and the work, the surroundings are not restored to their original state, indicating that the process was irreversible.

An interesting question is now posed. Heat is defined as energy that is transferred through a temperature difference. We have just shown that heat transfer through a temperature difference is an irreversible process. Therefore, how can we have a reversible heat-transfer process? A heat-transfer process approaches a reversible process as the temperature difference between the two bodies approaches zero. Therefore, we define a reversible heat-transfer process as one in which the heat is transferred through an infinitesimal temperature

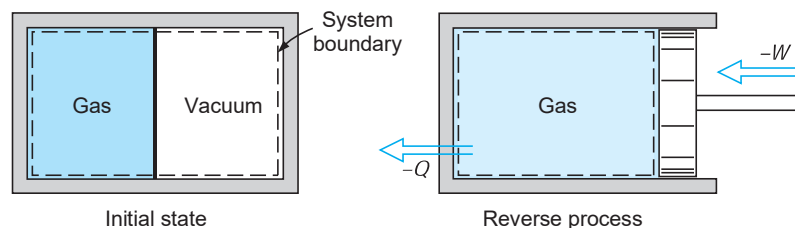
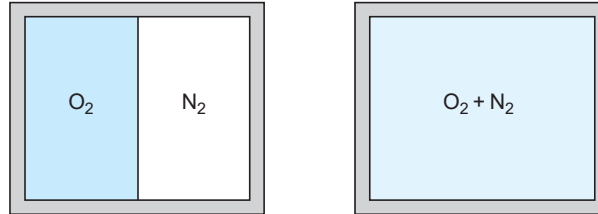


FIGURE 7.15
Demonstration of the fact that unrestrained expansion makes processes irreversible.

FIGURE 7.16

Demonstration of the fact that the mixing of two different substances is an irreversible process.



difference. We realize, of course, that to transfer a finite amount of heat through an infinitesimal temperature difference would require an infinite amount of time or an infinite area. Therefore, all actual heat transfers are through a finite temperature difference and hence are irreversible, and the greater the temperature difference, the greater the irreversibility. We will find, however, that the concept of reversible heat transfer is very useful in describing ideal processes.

Mixing of Two Different Substances

Figure 7.16 illustrates the process of mixing two different gases separated by a membrane. When the membrane is broken, a homogeneous mixture of oxygen and nitrogen fills the entire volume. This process will be considered in some detail in Chapter 13. We can say here that this may be considered a special case of an unrestrained expansion, for each gas undergoes an unrestrained expansion as it fills the entire volume. A certain amount of work is necessary to separate these gases. Thus, an air separation plant such as described in Chapter 1 requires an input of work to accomplish the separation.

Other Factors

A number of other factors make processes irreversible, but they will not be considered in detail here. Hysteresis effects and the I^2R loss encountered in electrical circuits are both factors that make processes irreversible. Ordinary combustion is also an irreversible process.

It is frequently advantageous to distinguish between internal and external irreversibility. Figure 7.17 shows two identical systems to which heat is transferred. Assuming each system to be a pure substance, the temperature remains constant during the heat-transfer process. In one system the heat is transferred from a reservoir at a temperature $T + dT$, and in the other the reservoir is at a much higher temperature, $T + \Delta T$, than the system.

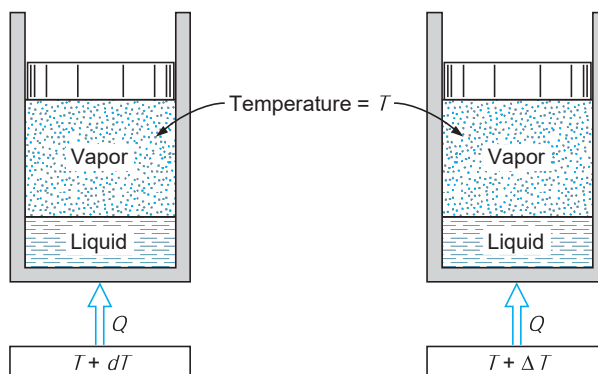
**FIGURE 7.17**

Illustration of the difference between an internally and an externally reversible process.

The first is a reversible heat-transfer process, and the second is an irreversible heat-transfer process. However, as far as the system itself is concerned, it passes through exactly the same states in both processes, which we assume are reversible. Thus, we can say for the second system that the process is internally reversible but externally irreversible because the irreversibility occurs outside the system.

We should also note the general interrelation of reversibility, equilibrium, and time. In a reversible process, the deviation from equilibrium is infinitesimal, and therefore it occurs at an infinitesimal rate. Since it is desirable that actual processes proceed at a finite rate, the deviation from equilibrium must be finite, and therefore the actual process is irreversible in some degree. The greater the deviation from equilibrium, the greater the irreversibility and the more rapidly the process will occur. It should also be noted that the quasi-equilibrium process, which was described in Chapter 2, is a reversible process, and hereafter the term *reversible process* will be used.

In-Text Concept Questions

- e. Ice cubes in a glass of liquid water will eventually melt and all the water will approach room temperature. Is this a reversible process? Why?
- f. Does a process become more or less reversible with respect to heat transfer if it is fast rather than slow? *Hint:* Recall from Chapter 4 that $\dot{Q} = CA \Delta T$.
- g. If you generated hydrogen from, say, solar power, which of these would be more efficient: (1) transport it and then burn it in an engine or (2) convert the solar power to electricity and transport that? What else would you need to know in order to give a definite answer?

7.5 THE CARNOT CYCLE

Having defined the reversible process and considered some factors that make processes irreversible, let us again pose the question raised in Section 7.3. If the efficiency of all heat engines is less than 100%, what is the most efficient cycle we can have? Let us answer this question for a heat engine that receives heat from a high-temperature reservoir and rejects heat to a low-temperature reservoir. Since we are dealing with reservoirs, we recognize that both the high temperature and the low temperature of the reservoirs are constant and remain constant regardless of the amount of heat transferred.

Let us assume that this heat engine, which operates between the given high-temperature and low-temperature reservoirs, does so in a cycle in which every process is reversible. If every process is reversible, the cycle is also reversible; and if the cycle is reversed, the heat engine becomes a refrigerator. In the next section we will show that this is the most efficient cycle that can operate between two constant-temperature reservoirs. It is called the **Carnot cycle** and is named after a French engineer, Nicolas Leonard Sadi Carnot (1796–1832), who expressed the foundations of the second law of thermodynamics in 1824.

We now turn our attention to the Carnot cycle. Figure 7.18 shows a power plant that is similar in many respects to a simple steam power plant and, we assume, operates on the Carnot cycle. Consider the working fluid to be a pure substance, such as steam. Heat is transferred from the high-temperature reservoir to the water (steam) in the boiler. For this process to be a reversible heat transfer, the temperature of the water (steam) must be only infinitesimally lower than the temperature of the reservoir. This result also implies, since the

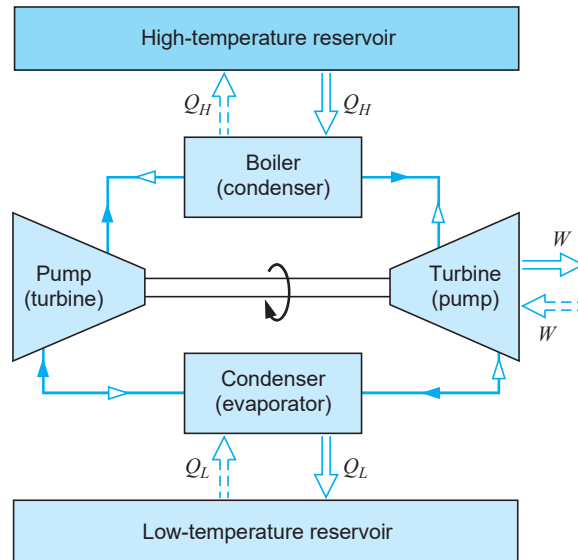


FIGURE 7.18
Example of a heat engine that operates on a Carnot cycle.

temperature of the reservoir remains constant, that the temperature of the water must remain constant. Therefore, the first process in the Carnot cycle is a reversible isothermal process in which heat is transferred from the high-temperature reservoir to the working fluid. A change of phase from liquid to vapor at constant pressure is, of course, an isothermal process for a pure substance.

The next process occurs in the turbine without heat transfer and is therefore adiabatic. Since all processes in the Carnot cycle are reversible, this must be a reversible adiabatic process, during which the temperature of the working fluid decreases from the temperature of the high-temperature reservoir to the temperature of the low-temperature reservoir.

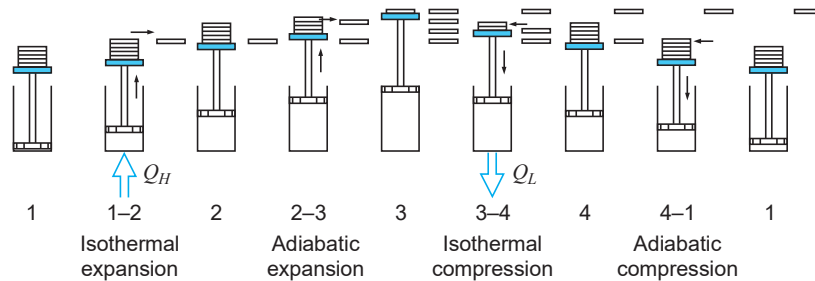
In the next process, heat is rejected from the working fluid to the low-temperature reservoir. This must be a reversible isothermal process in which the temperature of the working fluid is infinitesimally higher than that of the low-temperature reservoir. During this isothermal process some of the steam is condensed.

The final process, which completes the cycle, is a reversible adiabatic process in which the temperature of the working fluid increases from the low temperature to the high temperature. If this were to be done with water (steam) as the working fluid, a mixture of liquid and vapor would have to be taken from the condenser and compressed. (This would be very inconvenient in practice, and therefore in all power plants the working fluid is completely condensed in the condenser. The pump handles only the liquid phase.)

Since the Carnot heat engine cycle is reversible, every process could be reversed, in which case it would become a refrigerator. The refrigerator is shown by the dotted arrows and text in parentheses in Fig. 7.18. The temperature of the working fluid in the evaporator would be infinitesimally lower than the temperature of the low-temperature reservoir, and in the condenser it would be infinitesimally higher than that of the high-temperature reservoir.

It should be emphasized that the Carnot cycle can, in principle, be executed in many different ways. Many different working substances can be used, such as a gas or a thermoelectric device such as described in Chapter 1. There are also various possible arrangements of machinery. For example, a Carnot cycle can be devised that takes place entirely within a cylinder, using a gas as a working substance, as shown in Fig. 7.19.

FIGURE 7.19
Example of a gaseous system operating on a Carnot cycle.



The important point to be made here is that the Carnot cycle, regardless of what the working substance may be, always has the same four basic processes. These processes are:

1. A reversible isothermal process in which heat is transferred to or from the high-temperature reservoir.
2. A reversible adiabatic process in which the temperature of the working fluid decreases from the high temperature to the low temperature.
3. A reversible isothermal process in which heat is transferred to or from the low-temperature reservoir.
4. A reversible adiabatic process in which the temperature of the working fluid increases from the low temperature to the high temperature.

7.6 TWO PROPOSITIONS REGARDING THE EFFICIENCY OF A CARNOT CYCLE

There are two important propositions regarding the efficiency of a Carnot cycle.

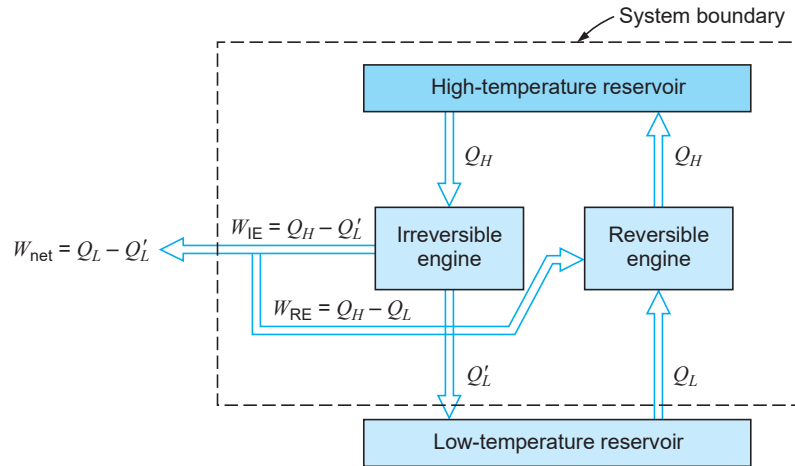
First Proposition

It is impossible to construct an engine that operates between two given reservoirs and is more efficient than a reversible engine operating between the same two reservoirs.

The proof of this statement is provided by a thought experiment. An initial assumption is made, and it is then shown that this assumption leads to impossible conclusions. The only possible conclusion is that the initial assumption was incorrect.

Let us assume that there is an irreversible engine operating between two given reservoirs that has a greater efficiency than a reversible engine operating between the same two reservoirs. Let the heat transfer to the irreversible engine be Q_H , the heat rejected be Q'_L , and the work be W_{IE} (which equals $Q_H - Q'_L$), as shown in Fig. 7.20. Let the reversible engine operate as a refrigerator (this is possible since it is reversible). Finally, let the heat transfer with the low-temperature reservoir be Q_L , the heat transfer with the high-temperature reservoir be Q_H , and the work required be W_{RE} (which equals $Q_H - Q_L$).

Since the initial assumption was that the irreversible engine is more efficient, it follows (because Q_H is the same for both engines) that $Q'_L < Q_L$ and $W_{IE} > W_{RE}$. Now the irreversible engine can drive the reversible engine and still deliver the net work W_{net} , which equals $W_{IE} - W_{RE} = Q_L - Q'_L$. If we consider the two engines and the high-temperature reservoir as a system, as indicated in Fig. 7.20, we have a system that operates in a cycle, exchanges heat with a single reservoir, and does a certain amount of work. However, this would

**FIGURE 7.20**

Demonstration of the fact that the Carnot cycle is the most efficient cycle operating between two fixed-temperature reservoirs.

constitute a violation of the second law, and we conclude that our initial assumption (that the irreversible engine is more efficient than a reversible engine) is incorrect. Therefore, we cannot have an irreversible engine that is more efficient than a reversible engine operating between the same two reservoirs.

Second Proposition

All engines that operate on the Carnot cycle between two given constant-temperature reservoirs have the same efficiency. The proof of this proposition is similar to the proof just outlined, which assumes that there is one Carnot cycle that is more efficient than another Carnot cycle operating between the same temperature reservoirs. Let the Carnot cycle with the higher efficiency replace the irreversible cycle of the previous argument, and let the Carnot cycle with the lower efficiency operate as the refrigerator. The proof proceeds with the same line of reasoning as in the first proposition. The details are left as an exercise for the student.

7.7 THE THERMODYNAMIC TEMPERATURE SCALE

In discussing temperature in Chapter 2, we pointed out that the zeroth law of thermodynamics provides a basis for temperature measurement, but that a temperature scale must be defined in terms of a particular thermometer substance and device. A temperature scale that is independent of any particular substance, which might be called an **absolute temperature scale**, would be most desirable. In the preceding paragraph we noted that the efficiency of a Carnot cycle is independent of the working substance and depends only on the reservoir temperatures. This fact provides the basis for such an absolute temperature scale called the *thermodynamic scale*. Since the efficiency of a Carnot cycle is a function only of the temperature, it follows that

$$\eta_{\text{thermal}} = 1 - \frac{Q_L}{Q_H} = 1 - \psi(T_L, T_H) \quad (7.3)$$

where ψ designates a functional relation.