

Syllabus: —

- I. Concept of IC Engine.
- II. Otto cycle.
- III. Diesel cycle.
- IV. Dual cycle.
- V. Comparison of Otto, Diesel, & dual cycle.
- VI. 2 stroke and 4-stroke engine and difference thereof.

Introduction of IC Engine: —

The word IC means Internal Combustion.

- Those engine which Combustion takes place inside the engine cylinder is known as Internal Combustion engine.
- The gas engine are designed most frequently as Internal Combustion engine.
- "Air" is working as working fluid.
- The air also serves as the oxidant for the hydrocarbon fluid fuel.
- IC Engine transforms the chemical energy of the fuel to thermal energy, which is then converted by the engine to the mechanical work output.

Otto Cycle: —

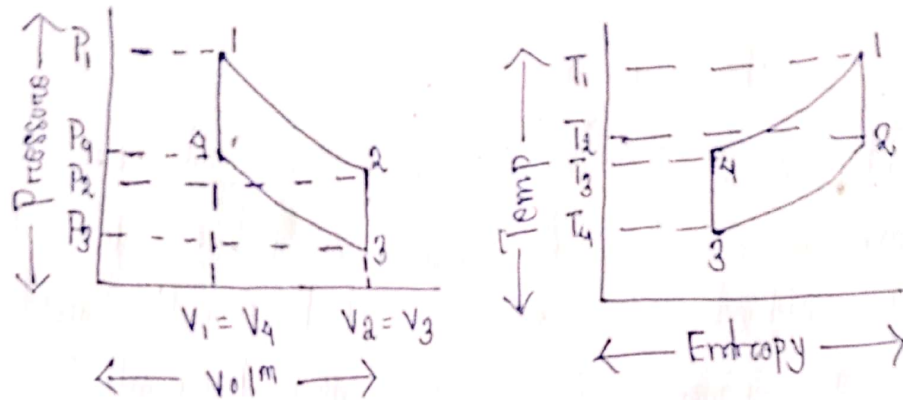
The first successful engine working on this cycle was built by Otto, these days, many gas, petrol and many of the oil engines run on this cycle.

- Otto cycle also known as "Constant Volume cycle" as the heat is received and rejected at a constant volume.
- The air is assumed to be the working substance.
- The engine conceived by Otto has air enclosed in a cylinder, whose walls are perfectly non-conductors.

of heat.

→ There is also a hot body or cold body and an insulating cap. which are alternately brought in contact with the bottom of the cylinders.

→ The ideal Otto cycle consists of two constant Vol^m and two reversible adiabatic or isentropic processes.



Let the engine cylinders contain m kg of air at point 1.
At point 1 —

P_1 = Pressure of air

T_1 = Temperature " "

V_1 = Volume " "

1. 1st stage [Reversible adiabatic or isentropic expansion]

The air is expanded reversibly and adiabatically from initial temp T_1 to a temp T_2 as shown by the curve 1-2. In this process.

→ No heat is absorbed or rejected by the air.

2. 2nd stage [Constant Volume Cooling]

The air is cooled at constant Vol^m from T_2 to T_3 as shown by the curve 2-3.

→ Heat rejected by the air during this process

$$Q_{2-3} = m \cdot C_v [T_2 - T_3]$$

3. Third stage. [Reversible adiabatic or Isentropic Compression]

The wire is compressed reversibly and adiabatically from temp T_3 to T_4 , as shown in Fig by the Curve 3-4.
 → No heat is absorbed or rejected by the wire.

4. Fourth stage [Constant Volume heating]

The wire is now heated at constant vol^m from temp T_4 to T_1 , as shown by the Curve 4-1.
 → Heat absorbed by the wire during this process.

$$Q_{4-1} = m \cdot C_v [T_1 - T_4]$$

We see that the wire has been brought back to its original conditions of p^r, vol^m and temp thus completing the cycle.

$$\text{Workdone} = \text{Heat absorbed} - \text{Heat rejected.}$$

$$\text{Ideal efficiency} = \frac{\text{Workdone}}{\text{Heat absorbed.}}$$

$$= \frac{m \cdot C_v [T_1 - T_4] - m \cdot C_v [T_2 - T_3]}{m \cdot C_v [T_1 - T_4]}$$

$$= \frac{m \cdot C_v [T_1 - T_4]}{m \cdot C_v [T_1 - T_4]} - \frac{m \cdot C_v [T_2 - T_3]}{m \cdot C_v [T_1 - T_4]}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{T_2 - T_3}{T_1 - T_4}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{T_3 \left[\frac{T_2}{T_3} - 1 \right]}{T_4 \left[\frac{T_1}{T_4} - 1 \right]} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Notes:

Oxidant -

In chem oxidizing agent is a substance that has the ability to oxidize other substances. Cause them to lose electrons. Common oxidizing agents are oxygen, hydrogen peroxide & the halogen.

We know that Forc reversible adiabatic orc Isoentropic expansion process 1-2.

$$\frac{T_2}{T_1} = \left(\frac{V_1}{V_2}\right)^{\gamma-1} = \left[\frac{1}{rc}\right]^{\gamma-1} \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

Similarly, Forc reversible adiabatic orc Isoentropic Compression 3-4.

$$\frac{T_3}{T_4} = \left(\frac{V_4}{V_3}\right)^{\gamma-1} = \left[\frac{1}{rc}\right]^{\gamma-1} \quad \text{--- (iii)}$$

$$rc = \text{Expansion ratio} = \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{V_3}{V_4} = \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

From equation (ii) & (iii) We find that ---

$$\frac{T_2}{T_1} = \frac{T_3}{T_4} = \left[\frac{1}{rc}\right]^{\gamma-1} = \frac{1}{(rc)^{\gamma-1}} \quad \text{orc} \quad \frac{T_1}{T_4} = \frac{T_2}{T_3}$$

Substituting the value of T_1/T_4 in eqn (i) ---

$$\eta = 1 - \frac{T_3}{T_4} = 1 - \frac{T_2}{T_1} = 1 - \frac{1}{(rc)^{\gamma-1}}$$

$$\dots \left[\frac{T_3}{T_4} = \frac{T_2}{T_1}\right] \quad \text{--- (iv)}$$

Eg. 1. An engine, working on otto cycle, has a cylindrical diameter of 150 mm and a stroke of 225 mm. The clearance volume is $1.25 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3$. Find the air standard efficiency of this engine. Take $\gamma = 1.4$

Solution \rightarrow Data given as ---

$$d = 150 \text{ mm} = 0.15 \text{ mtr.}$$

$$L = 225 \text{ mm} = 0.225 \text{ mtr.}$$

$$V_c = 1.25 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3.$$

$$\gamma = 1.4.$$

We know that Swept Volume —

$$V_s = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 \times l = \frac{\pi}{4} \times (0.15)^2 \times (0.225) \\ = 3.976 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3.$$

Compression ratio —

$$\boxed{r_c = \frac{V_s + V_c}{V_c}}$$

where V_s = Swept Vol^m.
 V_c = Clearance Vol^m.

$$r_c = \frac{1.25 \times 10^{-3} + 3.976 \times 10^{-3}}{1.25 \times 10^{-3}} = 4.18$$

We know air standard efficiency —

$$\eta = 1 - \frac{1}{(r_c)^{\gamma-1}} = 1 - \frac{1}{(4.18)^{1.4-1}} = 0.436 \times 100 \\ = 43.6\%$$

Eg. 2 A certain quantity of air at a pre. of 1 bar and temp 70°C is compressed reversibly and adiabatically until the pre is 7 bar in an Otto cycle. 460 kJ of heat per kg of air added at const. vol^m.

determine: —

- i. Compression ratio of the engine.
- ii. Temp at the end of compression.
- iii. Temp at the end of heat addition.

Take for air $C_p = 1 \text{ kJ/kg}$.

$$C_v = 0.707 \text{ kJ/kg}\cdot\text{K}.$$

Solⁿ → Data given as.

$$P_3 = 1 \text{ bar}$$

$$T_3 = 70^\circ\text{C} = 70 + 273 = 343 \text{ K}$$

$$P_4 = 7 \text{ bar}.$$

$$Q_{4-1} = 460 \text{ kJ}$$

$$m = 1 \text{ kg}$$

$$C_p = 1 \text{ kJ/kg} \cdot \text{K}$$

$$C_v = 0.707 \text{ kJ/kg} \cdot \text{K}$$

We know that ratio of specific heats.

$$\gamma = \frac{C_p}{C_v} = \frac{1}{0.707} = 1.41$$

1. Compression ratio of the engine: —

Let r_c = Compression ratio of the engine

$$r_c = \frac{V_3}{V_4}$$

We know that $P_3 V_3^\gamma = P_4 V_4^\gamma$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{V_3}{V_4} &= \left(\frac{P_4}{P_3} \right)^{1/\gamma} \Rightarrow r_c = \left(\frac{7}{1} \right)^{1/1.41} \\ &= (7)^{0.709} \\ &= 3.97 \end{aligned}$$

2. Temperature at the end of Compression: —

Let T_4 = Temp at the end of Compression.

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\frac{T_3}{T_4} \right) &= \left(\frac{V_4}{V_3} \right)^{\gamma-1} = \left(\frac{1}{r_c} \right)^{\gamma-1} = \left(\frac{1}{3.97} \right)^{1.41-1} \\ &= 0.568 \end{aligned}$$

$$T_4 = \frac{T_3}{0.568} = \frac{343}{0.568} = 604 \text{ K or } 331^\circ \text{C}$$

3. Temperature at the end of heat addition.

Let T_1 = temp at the end of heat addition.

We know that heat added at Const Volm — (R4-1)

$$460 = m \cdot C_v [T_1 - T_4]$$

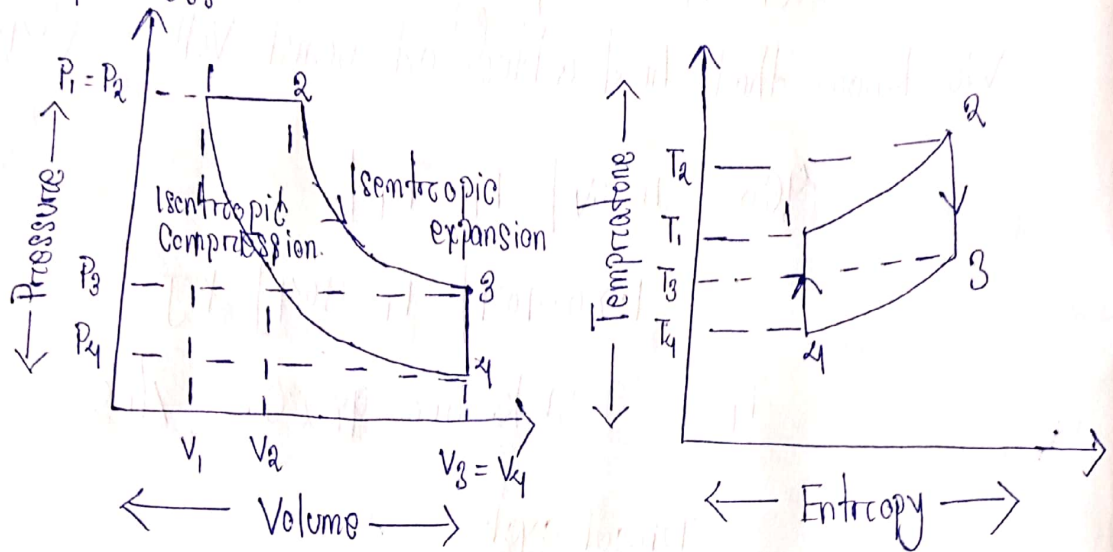
$$= 1 \cdot 0.707 [T_1 - 604] \text{ kJ}$$

$$T_1 = 1255 \text{ k. or } 982^\circ\text{C. } \underline{\underline{\text{Ans}}}$$

Diesel cycle

- This cycle was devised by Dr. Rudolph Diesel in 1893.
- The 1st concept of diesel engine is —
 - ⇒ Higher thermal efficiency.
 - ⇒ Higher compression ratio.
- This is an important cycle on which all the diesel engines work.
- It is also called constant pressure cycle. due to heat is received at constant pressure.
- The engine has air enclosed in the cylinder. whose walls are perfectly non-conductors of heat but bottom is perfect conductor of heat.
- There is an insulating cap, hot body and cold body which are alternately brought in contact with the cylinder.

The Ideal diesel cycle consist of two reversible adiabatic or isentropic, a constant P_{rc} and a constant Vol^m process.



At this point let $P_1 \rightarrow P_{rc}$, $V_1 \rightarrow Vol^m$, T_1 - Temp of the air.

1. First stage - Constant pressure heating.

The air is heated at const P_{rc} from initial temp T_1 to a temp T_2 . represented by the curve 1-2.

2. Second stage: - [Reversible adiabatic or isentropic expansion]

The air is expanded reversibly and adiabatically from temp T_2 to T_3 as shown by curve 2-3.

→ In this process No heat absorbed or rejected by the air.

3. Third stage - Constant Vol^m cooling.

The air is now cooled at constant Vol^m from temp T_3 to T_4 . as shown by curve 3-4.

Heat rejected by the air $Q_{3-4} = m \cdot C_v [T_3 - T_4]$

4. Fourth stage - Reversible adiabatic or Isentropic Compression.

The air is compressed reversibly or adiabatically from temp T_4 to T_1 represented by curve 4-1.

→ In this process no heat is absorbed or rejected by the air,

We see that the air has been brought back to its original condition of p , v , m , & temp, thus completing the cycle.

Workdone = Heat absorbed - Heat rejected.

$$= m \cdot C_p [T_2 - T_1] - m \cdot C_v [T_3 - T_4]$$

Air standard efficiency: —

$$\eta = \frac{\text{Workdone}}{\text{Heat absorbed}} = \frac{m \cdot C_p [T_2 - T_1] - m \cdot C_v [T_3 - T_2]}{m \cdot C_p [T_2 - T_1]}$$

Air standard efficiency = $\eta = \frac{\text{Work done}}{\text{Heat absorbed.}}$

$$= \frac{m \cdot C_p [T_2 - T_1] - m \cdot C_v [T_3 - T_4]}{m \cdot C_p [T_2 - T_1]}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{C_v [T_3 - T_4]}{C_p [T_2 - T_1]} = 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \left[\frac{T_3 - T_4}{T_2 - T_1} \right]$$

L (1).

Now let Compression ratio $r_c = \frac{V_4}{V_3}$

Cut off ratio $\rho = \frac{V_2}{V_1}$

Expansion ratio = $r_{e1} = \frac{V_3}{V_2} = \frac{V_4}{V_2} \quad \therefore (V_3 = V_4)$

$$= \frac{V_4}{V_1} \times \frac{V_1}{V_2} = r_c \times \frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{r_c}{\rho}$$

We know For Constant pr. heating process 1-2 —

$$\frac{V_1}{T_1} = \frac{V_2}{T_2} \Rightarrow T_2 = \frac{V_2 \times T_1}{V_1} = T_1 \times \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

Similarly For reversible adiabatic or Isentropic expansion process 2-3.

$$\frac{T_3}{T_2} = \left(\frac{V_2}{V_3} \right)^{\gamma-1} = \left(\frac{1}{r_{e1}} \right)^{\gamma-1} = \left(\frac{\rho}{r_c} \right)^{\gamma-1}$$

$$T_3 = T_2 \left(\frac{\rho}{r_c} \right)^{\gamma-1} = T_1 \times \rho \cdot \left[\frac{\rho}{r_c} \right]^{\gamma-1} \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

For reversibly adiabatic or Isentropic Compression process 4-1.

$$\frac{T_1}{T_4} = \left(\frac{V_4}{V_1} \right)^{\gamma-1} = (r_c)^{\gamma-1} \quad \text{or} \quad T_1 = (T_4) (r_c)^{\gamma-1} \quad \text{L (iv)}$$

Substituting the value of T_1 in eqn (ii) & (iii) —

$$T_2 = T_4 \cdot (r_c)^{\gamma-1} \times \rho \quad \text{--- (v)}$$

$$T_3 = T_4 \cdot (r_c)^{\gamma-1} \times \rho \cdot \left(\frac{\rho}{r_c} \right)^{\gamma-1} = T_4 \rho^{\gamma} \quad \text{--- (vi)}$$

Now substituting the values of T_1, T_2 and T_3 in eq (v) —

$$\eta = 1 - \frac{1}{\gamma} \left[\frac{(T_4 S^\gamma) - T_4}{T_4 (\gamma^\gamma - 1) (S) - T_4 (\gamma^\gamma - 1)} \right]$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{(\gamma^\gamma - 1)} \left[\frac{S^\gamma - 1}{\gamma (S - 1)} \right] \quad \text{--- (viii)}$$

Notes: —

1) Efficiency of ^{Ideal} diesel cycle is lower than otto cycle if the same compression ratio.

2) Due to cut-off ratio (S) is always greater than 1 and hence the term within the eqn (vii) increases with increase cut off ratio. Thus engine term increases and efficiency reduced.

Eg. 1. In a diesel engine, the compression ratio is 13:1 and fuel is cut-off at 8% of stroke. Find the air standard efficiency of the engine. Take γ for air is 1.4.

Solution \rightarrow Data given as —

$$\gamma = \frac{V_4}{V_1} = 13$$

$$\gamma = 1.4$$

Since cut-off takes place at 8% of the stroke, therefore Vol^m at cut-off.

$$V_2 = V_1 + 8\% \text{ of stroke Vol}^m$$

$$= V_1 + 0.08 [V_4 - V_1]$$

Let us assume clearance Vol^m (V_1) = 1 m³.

$$V_4 = 13 \text{ m}^3$$

$$\left[\frac{V_4}{V_1} = 13 \right]$$

(iv) — and stroke Vol^m $V_4 - V_1 = 13 - 1 = 12 \text{ m}^3$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Volume at Cut-off } V_2 &= V_1 + 0.08[V_4 - V_1] \\ &= 1 + 0.08[12] \\ &= 1.96 \text{ m}^3. \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{We know Cut off ratio } = (\rho) = \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{1.96}{1} = 1.96.$$

Air standard efficiency —

$$\begin{aligned} \eta &= 1 - \frac{1}{(\rho)^{\gamma-1}} \left[\frac{\rho^{\gamma}-1}{\gamma(\rho-1)} \right] \\ &= 1 - \frac{1}{(1.96)^{1.4-1}} \left[\frac{(1.96)^{1.4}-1}{1.4(1.96-1)} \right] = 0.583 \\ &= 58.3\%. \end{aligned}$$

Example-2

In an diesel engine the temp at the beginning and end of compression is 57°C and 603°C . The temp at the beginning and end of expansion are 1950°C and 870°C . Determine the ideal efficiency of the cycle. $\gamma = 1.4$.

If compression ratio is 14 and the prc at the beginning of the compression is 1 bar. Calculate max prc in the cycle.

Solution \rightarrow Data given as —

$$T_4 = 57^\circ\text{C} = 57 + 273 = 330 \text{ K.}$$

$$T_1 = 603^\circ\text{C} = 603 + 273 = 876 \text{ K.}$$

$$T_2 = 1950^\circ\text{C} = 1950 + 273 = 2223 \text{ K.}$$

$$T_3 = 870^\circ\text{C} = 870 + 273 = 1143 \text{ K.}$$

$$\gamma = 1.4.$$

$$\rho = V_4/V_1 = 14.$$

$$P_4 = 1 \text{ bar.}$$

ideal efficiency of the cycle —

$$\begin{aligned} \eta &= 1 - \frac{1}{\rho} \left[\frac{T_3 - T_4}{T_2 - T_1} \right] = 1 - \frac{1}{1.4} \left[\frac{1143 - 330}{2223 - 876} \right] \\ &= 0.569 = 56.9\%. \end{aligned}$$

(ii) Max prc In the cycle: —

Let $P_1 =$ Max prc In the cycle.

We know that Forc reversible. Compression —

$$P_1 V_1^\gamma = P_4 V_4^\gamma$$

$$P_1 = P_4 \cdot \left(\frac{V_4}{V_1}\right)^\gamma = 14(14)^{1.4} = 40.23 \text{ bar.}$$

Ex. 3 An ideal diesel cycle has a dia 150 mm and stroke 200 mm. The clearance vol^m is 10 percent of the swept vol^m. determine the Compression ratio and the air standard efficiency of the engine, if the cut-off takes place at 6% of stroke.

Solution → Data given as: —

$$d = 150 \text{ mm} = 0.15 \text{ m.}$$

$$l = 200 \text{ mm} = 0.2 \text{ m.}$$

$$V_c = 10\% \text{ of } V_s = 0.1 V_s.$$

Compression ratio —

We know that stroke Volume: —

$$V_s = \frac{\pi}{4} d^2 \cdot l = \frac{\pi}{4} \times (0.15)^2 \times 0.2 = 3.53 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3$$

$$V_c = 0.1 V_s = 0.1 \times 3.53 \times 10^{-3} = 0.353 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3$$

We know that Compression ratio —

$$r_c = \frac{\text{Total Vol}^m}{\text{Clearance Vol}^m} = \frac{V_s + V_c}{V_c} = 11.$$

Air standard efficiency —

Since the cut off takes place at 6% of the stroke therefore vol^m of cut off —

$$V_2 = V_1 + 0.06 V_s = V_c + 0.06 V_s$$

$$= 0.353 \times 10^{-3} + 0.06 \times 3.53 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$= 0.565 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}^3.$$

Cut-off ratio $\rho = \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{V_2}{V_c} = \frac{0.565 \times 10^{-3}}{0.353 \times 10^{-3}} = 1.6$

We know that air standard efficiency —

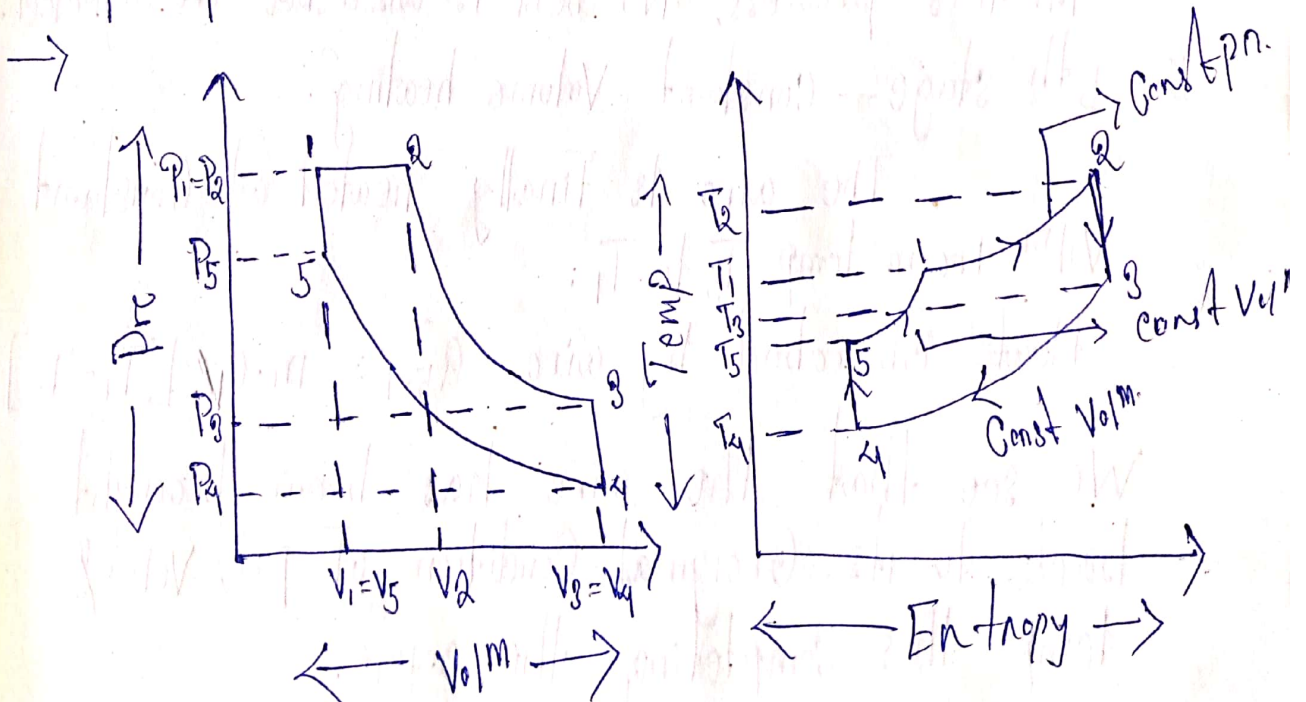
$$\eta = 1 - \frac{1}{(\gamma)^{\gamma-1}} \left[\frac{\rho^{\gamma} - 1}{\gamma(\rho - 1)} \right]$$

$$= 1 - \frac{1}{(1.4)^{1.4-1}} \left[\frac{(1.6)^{1.4} - 1}{1.4(1.6 - 1)} \right] = 0.579$$

57.9% Ans

Dual Combustion cycle:

- This cycle is a combination of Otto and diesel cycle.
- It is sometimes called semi diesel cycle because semi-diesel engine works on this cycle.
- Heat is absorbed partly at a constant volume and partly at a constant pressure.
- Ideal dual combustion cycle consists of two reversible adiabatic or isentropic, two constant volume and a constant pressure process.



Let the engine cylinder contain m kg of air at point 1.
→ At this point let P_1, T_1, V_1 be the pr, vol^m & temp of the air.

1. 1st stage: — Constant pr heating?

The air is heated at constant pr from initial temp T_1 to a temp T_2 represented by Curve 1-2 in Fig.

2. 2nd stage — Reversible adiabatic or isentropic expansion —
Heat absorbed by air = $m \cdot C_p [T_2 - T_1]$

The air is expanded reversibly and adiabatically from temp T_2 to T_3 , as shown by Curve 2-3.

3. 3rd stage — Constant vol^m cooling?

The air is now cooled at constant vol^m from temp T_3 to T_4 , as shown by Curve 3-4.

4. 4th stage — Reversible adiabatic or isentropic compression.
Heat rejected by air 3-4 = $m \cdot C_v [T_3 - T_4]$

The air is compressed reversibly and adiabatically from temp T_4 to T_5 .

In this process, No heat is absorbed or rejected.

5. 5th stage — Constant Volume heating?

The air is finally heated at constant vol^m from temp T_5 to T_1 .

Heat absorbed by air $Q_{5-1} = m \cdot C_v [T_1 - T_5]$

We see that the air has been brought back to its original condition of pr, vol^m & temp thus completing the cycle.

We know Workdone = Heat absorbed - Heat rejected.

$$= m \cdot C_p [T_2 - T_1] + m \cdot C_v [T_1 - T_5] - M C_v [T_3 - T_4]$$

Comparison of Otto, Diesel and Dual Cycle: —

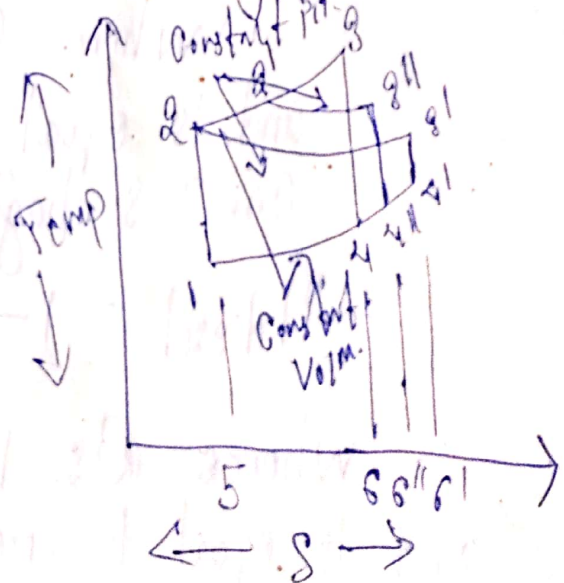
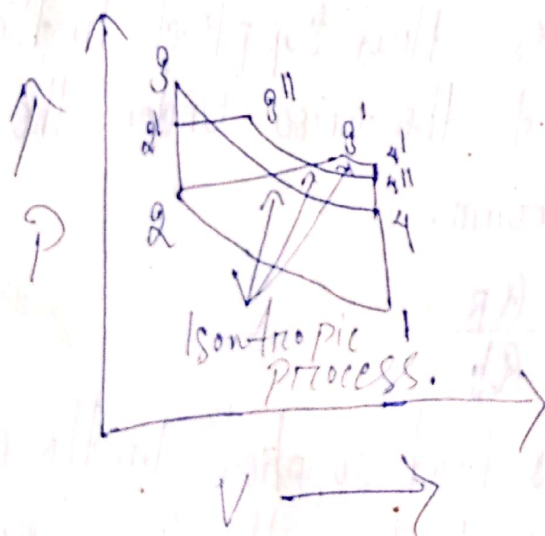
The Important Variable Factors which are used as the basis for Comparison of the cycle.

- i) Compression ratio.
- ii) Peak pressure.
- iii) Heat addition.
- iv) Heat rejection.
- v) Net Work.

Same Compression Ratio and Heat addition: —

The Otto cycle 1-2-3-4-1, the diesel cycle 1-2-3'-4'-1 and the dual cycle 1-2''-3''-4''-1 are shown Fig.

For the T-S diagram it can be seen that the area 5236 = Area 5236' = area 52236'' as this area represents the heat input which is same for all cycles.



All the cycles start from the same initial state point 1 and air is compressed from state 1 to 2. as the compression ratio is same.

- It is seen from the T-S diagram for the same heat input, the heat rejection in Otto cycle (area 5146) is minimum and heat rejection in Diesel cycle (5146) is maximum.
- Otto cycle has highest work output & efficiency.
- Diesel cycle has lowest efficiency. For same compression ratio and heat addition.
- Otto cycle allows the working medium to expand more whereas Diesel cycle is least in respect of expansion. In case of Otto cycle heat is added before expansion. In case of Diesel cycle last portion of heat is supplied to the fluid has relatively shorter expansion in case of Diesel cycle.

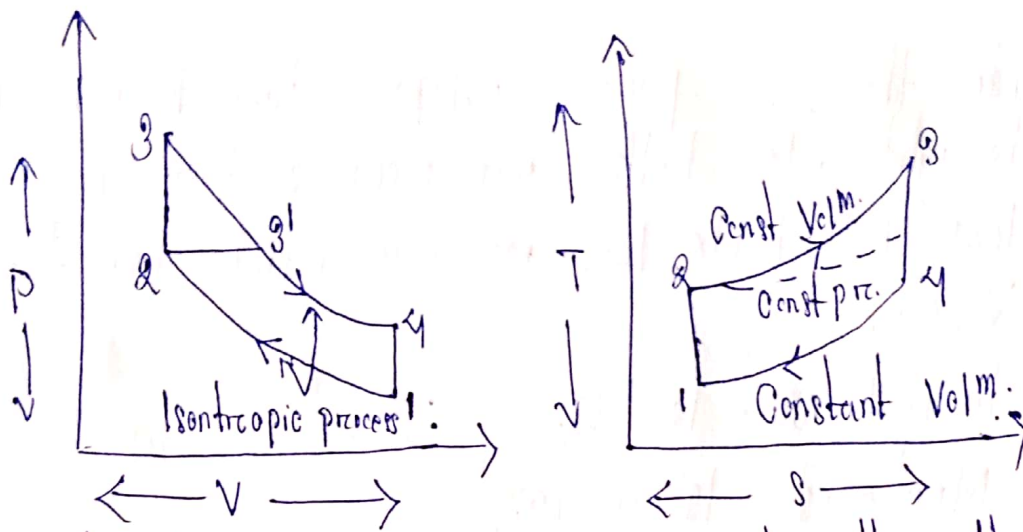
Same Compression ratio and heat rejection: —

$$\eta_{\text{otto}} = 1 - \frac{Q_R}{Q_S}$$

where Q_S = Heat supplied in the Otto cycle and is equal to the area under the curve 23. On T-S diagram.

$$\eta_{\text{diesel}} = 1 - \frac{Q_R}{Q'_S}$$

where Q'_S is heat supplied in the Diesel cycle and is equal to area under the curve 23' on T-S diagram.



The diesel cycle efficiency is greater than the Otto cycle efficiency when both engines are built to withstand the same thermal and mechanical stress, same peak p_{rr} , temp and heat rejection.

Advantages and disadvantages of two stroke over four stroke cycle engine: —

- 1) Two stroke cycle engine gives two power strokes than four stroke cycle engine at same engine speed.

Notes → Two stroke cycle engine develops 1.7 to 1.8 times the power developed by four stroke cycle engine of same dimension and speed.

- 2) For the same power developed a two stroke cycle engine is twice than the four stroke cycle engine. So the turning moment of a two stroke cycle engine is more uniform. two stroke cycle engine lighter flywheel thus it leads higher mechanical efficiency.

iii) For the same power developed two stroke cycle engine is lighter, less bulky, and occupies less floor area, thus it is suitable for marine engine and other light vehicle.

iv) Initial cost is less.

v) Mechanism is simple.

vi) Much easier to start.

Disadvantages: —

i) Due to less compression ratio thermal efficiency is less.

ii) Overall efficiency is also less, inlet and exhaust ports remain open simultaneously.

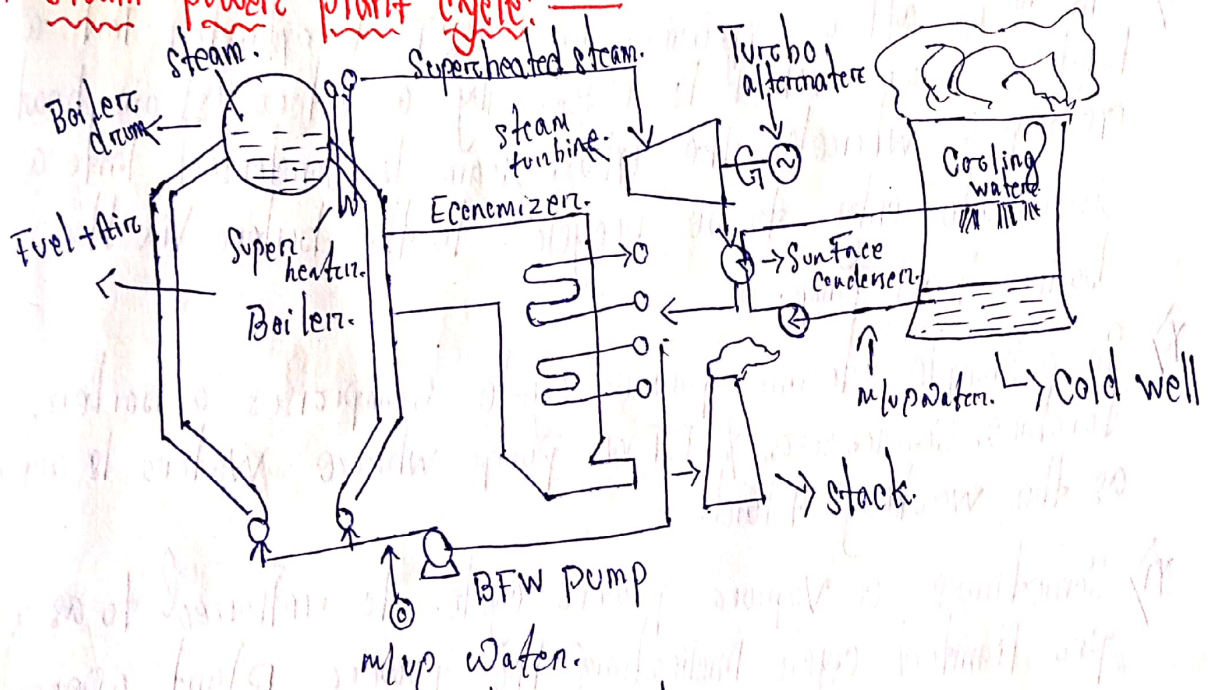
iii) Consumption of lubricating oil is large because of high operation temp.

Chapter - 1 Vapour Power cycle

Syllabus: —

1. Steam power plant layout.
2. Steam power plant cycle.
3. Carnot cycle.
4. Rankine Vapour cycle.
5. Modifications to Rankine Vapour cycle.
6. Qualities of Ideal Working Fluid for Vapour power cycle.
7. Binary Vapour cycle.

1. Steam power plant cycle: —



- i) Water is the working fluid.
- ii) It undergoes a change of phase in the course of cycle.
- iii) Energy is released by the continuous burning of the fuel in the combustion chamber of the steam generating plant that includes a boiler and superheater.
- iv) The working fluid is charged to the boiler via a BFW Feed pump.
- v) Heat is transferred to the water in the boiler when upon a high pr. & high temp saturated steam is generated in the boiler.

- vi) The dry saturated HP steam is converted into a HP superheated steam in the superheater.
- vii) The high pressure and high temperature superheated steam is then allowed to expand through steam turbine.
- viii) As the steam passes over the blades of the turbine it sheds its enthalpy which is converted into shaft work of the turbine which then generates power from the turbo alternator coupled to the turbine.
- ix) The steam after expansion in the S.T is exhausted into a total condenser which is essentially a water steam heat exchanger where in the exhaust steam is condensed into a condensate only to be recycled to the boiler via the boiler feed pump.
- x) So a simple steam power cycle comprises a boiler, turbine, condenser, & BFW pump where water is acting as the working fluid.
- xi) Sometimes a vapour power cycle is referred to as a pressure limited cycle indicating the power plant operates between the pressure limits.

The higher pressure limit is the boiler pressure.

The lowest pressure limit is the condenser pressure.

As the case of first approximation, the steam power plant cycle is idealized as a quasi-static process approximating an ideal heat engine cycle.

$$\sum_{\text{cycle}} Q_{\text{net}} = \sum_{\text{cycle}} W_{\text{net}}$$

$$\text{OR } Q_1 - Q_2 = W_T - W_P$$

Where Q_1 = Heat input to water in the SAP

[BFW preheater + boiler + Superheater] in kJ/kg

Q_2 = Heat rejected from the working fluid.

[In the Surface Condenser] kJ/kg .

W_T = The work output [the shaft work on the steam turbine] kJ/kg .

W_P = The mechanical work input [the BFW pump]

The efficiency of the ideal Vapour Power cycle.

$$\eta_{\text{cycle}} = \frac{W_{\text{net}}}{Q_1}$$

Thermal efficiency: —

Thermal efficiency is an important index of performance of a heat engine or steam power plant cycle.

→ It is obtained from 1st law $\eta = \frac{W}{Q_{\text{input}}}$.

Carnot cycle: —

An ideal vapour cycle would follow a Carnot vap cycle that comprises two isothermal & two adiabatic processes.

→ In the vap cycle the working substance changes phases, these are attainable by two internally reversible isothermal processes in the form of boiling of the liq and condensation of vapour.

→ About the heat transfer from a high temp.

→ Reservoir as well as from the condenser vap to a low temp. reservoir will remain

→ internally irreversible.

Process 4-1 → Isothermal heat addition of water
The water is converted into a dry saturated steam.
Heat added = Q_{add} .

Process 1-2: — Isentropic expansion of the steam in the
steam turbine i.e. the steam is expanding adiabatically.
Heat interaction = Nil.

Positive work output = W .

Process 2-3: — Isothermal heat rejection Heat is extracted
from the waste steam exhausted by the steam turbine to the
Condenser.

Heat rejected = Q_{rej}

Process 3-4: — The steam water mixture is pumped to
the boiler.

Input work = Pump work = W_p .

Net work output $W_{net} = W_{output} - W_p$.

Therefore
$$\eta = \frac{W_{net}}{Q_{add}} = \frac{Q_{add} - Q_{rej}}{Q_{add}} = 1 - \frac{Q_{rej}}{Q_{add}}$$

$$= 1 - \frac{m [h_2 - h_3]}{m [h_1 - h_4]}$$

Also
$$\eta = 1 - \frac{T_2}{T_1}$$

Rankine cycle: —

A Rankine Vapour cycle is based on
a modified Carnot cycle to overcome its limitation
→ it consists of four steady flow processes as follows.

Important Notes: —

1) **Adiabatic process** — An adiabatic process occurs without transfer of heat or mass of substance betⁿ a thermodynamic system and its surrounding.

Only energy transferred to the surrounding only.

2) **Isentropic process** — A process during which the entropy remains constant is called isentropic process.

3) **Reversible adiabatic process** —

Adiabatic process occurs without heat transfer with its surrounding. In isentropic process entropy remain constant it is known as reversible adiabatic process.

4) **Isothermal process**: — An isothermal process is a change of a system in which temp remain constant. ($\Delta T = 0$).

→ This typically occurs when a system in contact with an outside thermal reservoir.

5) **polytropic process**: — In polytropic process any reversible process or any open or closed system of gas or vapour which involves both heat & work transfer. Such that a specified combination of properties were maintained through the process.

Ramkine cycle with Superheated steam: —

Effect of increasing p_{rc} while being temp constant —

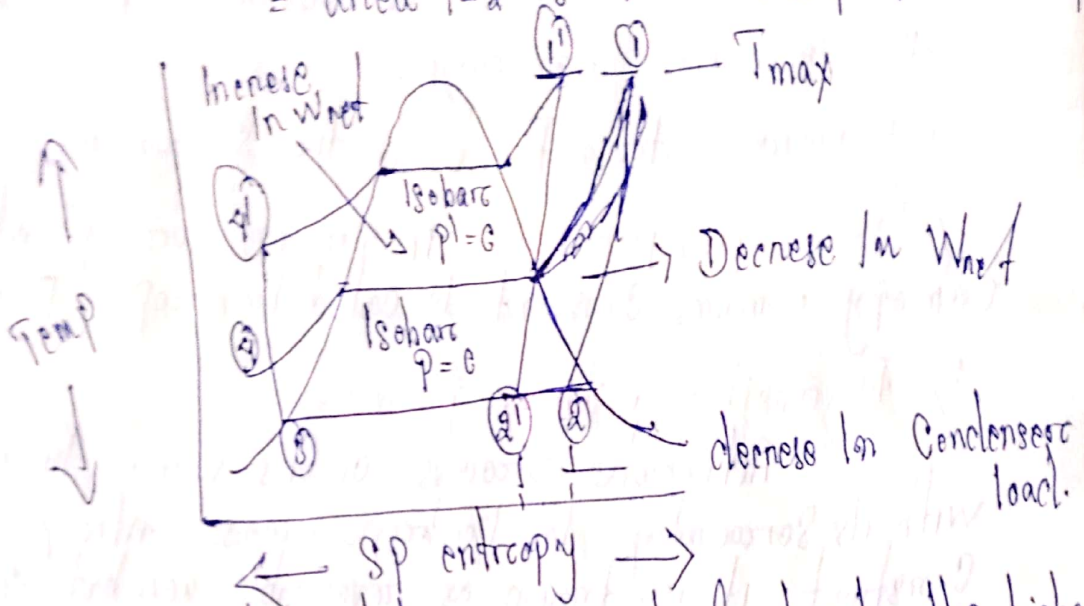
The steam p_{rc} at the SHP exit is increased from p_{top1} while maintaining a constant superheated steam temp i.e. $T_1 = T_1'$.

The operating condition of the Condenser remain unchanged.

The work output remains nearly the same i.e. there is

no drastic gain in the work output.

$\Delta W_{\text{output}} \cdot P = \text{area } 1-2-3-4-1$ A output P'
 $= \text{area } 1'-2'-3'-4'-1'$ $\Delta W_{\text{output}} P \approx \Delta W_{\text{output}}$



However, the heat rejected area is reduced due to the higher P_{con} , steam utilization $2-2'-5-6$.

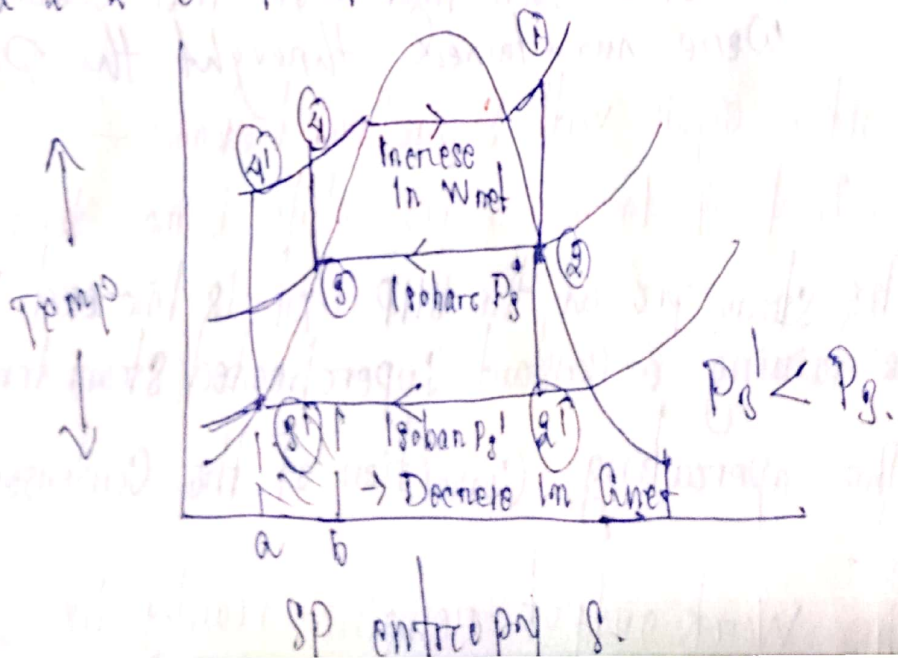
This increases the efficiency of the cycle.

$$\eta = \frac{Q_{\text{add}} - Q_{\text{rej}}}{Q_{\text{add}}} = 1 - \frac{Q_{\text{rej}}}{Q_{\text{add}}}$$

Rankine cycle with superheated steam: —

Effect of reducing P_{con} : —

If the condenser P_{con} is reduced the net work is increased by area $2-2'-2''-3'-4'-4-3-2$.



When the operating p of the Condenser is decreased. The heat added area automatically increases and at the same time R_{12} is also decreased with the net effect. The cycle efficiency increases.

Qualities of Ideal Working Fluid For Vapour power cycle —

The described characteristics of the working fluid in a Vapour power cycle to ensure the best thermal efficiency of the cycle are: —

- 1) The max permissible limits of operating p and temp is set by the metallurgy boiler and super heaters tubes, pipes lines, and headers. The working fluid should better have a high critical temp. So that the saturation p at the max permissible working temp is relatively low. It should have a large enthalpy of evaporation at that p .
- 2) To draw vacuum in the Condenser is another costly setup that calls for adequate maintenance as less than the desired vacuum level will tell on the overall cycle efficiency. So it is better that the saturation p at the temp of heat rejection should lie above the atm p .
- 3) The sp heat of liq should be low so as to boil it out with a relatively little heat transfer. However low sp heat means a low enthalpy content - not a desirable criterion for a high cycle efficiency.
- 4) The Freezing point of the working fluid should be below the ambient temp. to avert pipeline chocking due to Freezing.
- 5) The Working fluid must be abundantly available to buy economy.
- 6) It must be non-toxic, non-corrosive, and not excessively viscous.

Binary Vapour Power cycle: — A binary cycle comprises two different cycle working in tandem with two different fluids so that the sink of one becomes the source of other.

The highest achievable efficiency is that of Carnots —

$$\eta_{\text{thermal}} = \frac{T_1 - T_2}{T_1} = 1 - \frac{T_2}{T_1}$$

Which necessitates heat absorption at a const temp. T_1 .

Heat rejection at a const temp. T_2 .

Now the efficiency is fixed by T_1 as T_2 is fixed by the natural sink.

This makes its impressive nature that T_1 should be as large as possible consisting with the vap being saturated.

Chapter - 3 Fuels & Combustion

- Syllabus:—
- i) Hydrocarbon Fuels.
 - ii) Combustion reaction [Explanation only]
 - iii) Concept of Stoichiometric Combustion, Complete Combustion and Incomplete Combustion.
 - iv) Enthalpy of Formation, enthalpy of reaction.
 - v) Heating Values of Fuels
 - vi) Quality of IC Engine, Fuels octane No & Cetane No.

Hydrocarbon Fuels:—

- Carbon and Hydrogen combine in different proportion and molecular structure to form a hydrocarbon fuels.
- i) The Carbon to hydrogen ratio which is the one of the important parameters and their nature of the bonding determine the energy characteristics of the hydrocarbon fuels.
 - ii) Hydrocarbon fuels depends upon the no of Carbon and hydrogen atoms the petroleum products are classified into different groups.
 - iii) Difference of physical & chemical properties betⁿ the different types of hydrocarbon depend on their chemical composition and affect mainly the combustion process.
 - iv) The properties of fuel and air required in the engine.

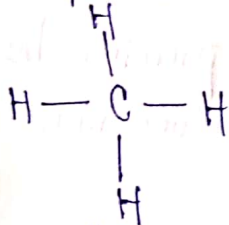
Family of hydrocarbon	General Formula	Mol st	Sat/unsat	Stability
1) Paraffin.	$C_n H_{n+2}$	Chain	Sat	Stable.
2) Olefin	$C_n H_n$	Chain	Unsat	Unstable.
3) Naphthene	$C_m H_n$	Ring	Sat	Stable.
4) Aromatic	$C_n H_{n-6}$	Ring	Highly Unsat.	Most Unstable.

▶ Paraffin Series: —

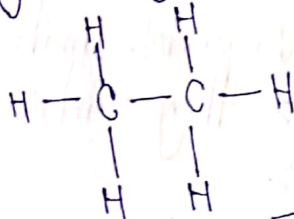
i) Normal paraffin hydrocarbon are of straight chain molecular structures.

ii) Represented by ch Formula $C_n H_{2n+2}$.

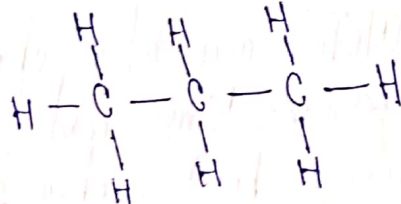
iii) The molecular structures of the 1st few members of the paraffin family of hydro-carbons are —



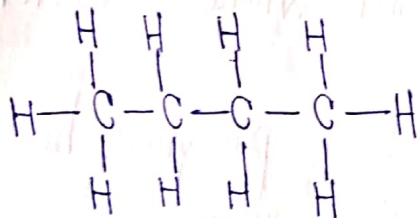
Methane $[CH_4]$



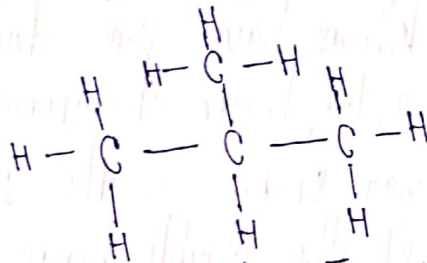
Ethane $[C_2H_6]$



Propane $[C_3H_8]$



Butane $[C_4H_{10}]$



Isobutane $[C_4H_{10}]$

In these hydrocarbon the valency of all the carbon atoms is fully utilized by single bonds with hydrogen atoms.

→ Paraffin hydrocarbons are saturated compounds and are characteristically very stable.

→ A variation of the paraffin family consist of an open chain structure with an attached branch and is usually termed a branched chain paraffin.

→ The hydrocarbons which have the same chemical formula but different structural formulas known as isomers.

→ Isobutane has the same general ch formula and molecular weight as butane but a different molecular structure and physical characteristics.

→ It is called an isomer of butane and is known as isobutane. Isoparaffins are also stable compounds.

Assignment —

- i) What is Molecule.
- ii) What is molecular weight.

ii) Olefin Series —

i) Olefins are also chain compounds. Similar to paraffin because of the presence of unsaturated bonds because they contain one or more double bonds between carbon atoms.

ii) Ch. Formula is C_nH_{2n} .

iii) Mono-olefins have one double bond whereas diolefins have two in their structures.

iv) It is not stable as the single bond paraffins because of the presence of the double bonds in their structures.

v) These are readily oxidized in storage to form gummy deposits.

vi) Hence olefin content in certain petroleum products is kept low by specification.

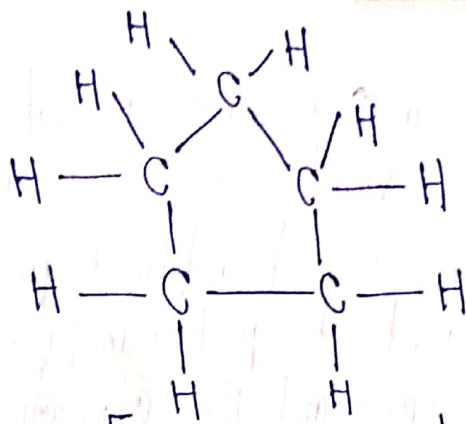
iii) Naphthene series —

i) Naphthenes have the same ch. formula as olefin series of hydrocarbons but have a ring structure and therefore, they are called cyclo-paraffins.

ii) They are saturated and tend to be stable.

iii) Naphthenes are saturated compounds whereas olefins are unsaturated.

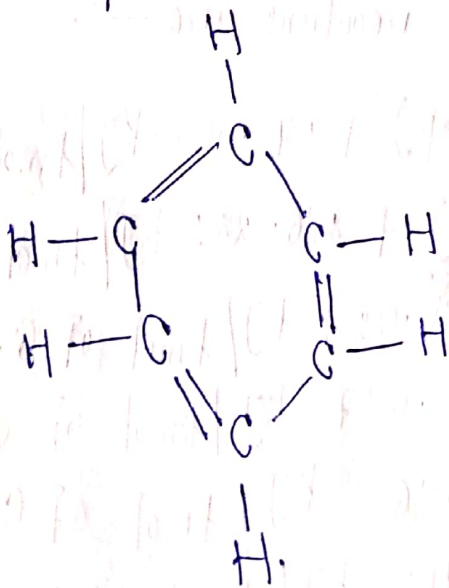
iv) Cyclopentane is one of the naphthene series. [C_nH_{2n}]



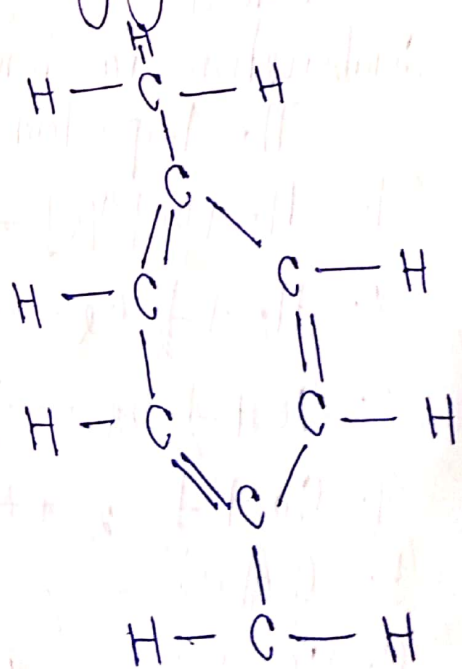
[C_5H_{10} Cyclopentane]

Notes —
 peculiar —
 Toluene —

- v) Atomic structures are ring saturated having a benzene molecule as their central structure and by a ch formula C_nH_{2n-6} .
- vi) presence of double bond indicates that they are unsaturated. peculiar nature of these double bonds cause them to be more stable than other unsaturated compounds.
- vii) Various atomic structures are formed by replacing one or more of the hydrogen atoms of the benzene molecules with an organic radical such as paraffins, Naphthenes, and olefins.
- viii) By adding methyl group (CH_3) benzene is converted to toluene ($C_6H_5CH_3$), the base of the preparation of Trinitrotoluene (TNT) which is a highly explosive compound.



[Benzene]



[Toluene]

The above Families of hydrocarbons show general characteristics due to their molecular structures which are summarised below.

i) Normal paraffins exhibit the poorest antiknock quality when used in an SI engine, but the antiknock quality improves with the increasing no of Carbon atoms and the compactness of the molecular structure. The aromatics offer the best resistance to knocking in SI Engines.

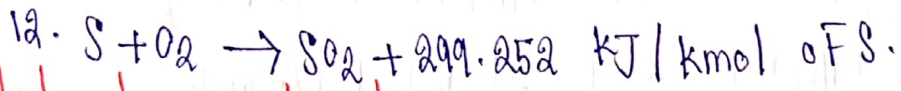
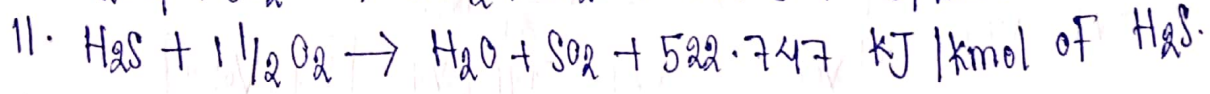
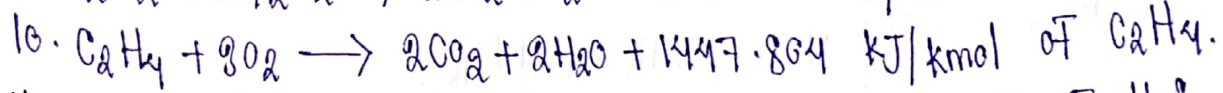
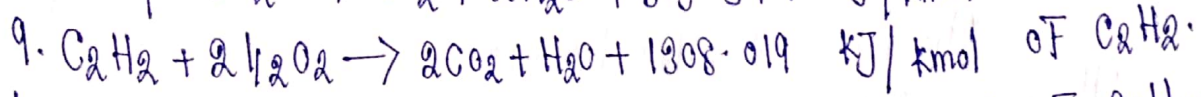
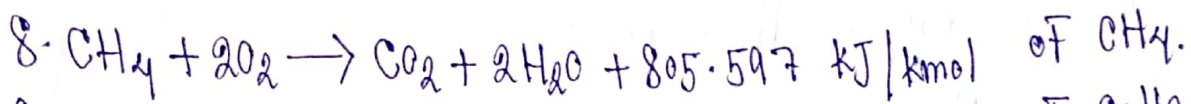
ii) For CI engines, the order is reversed i.e the normal paraffins are the best fuels and aromatic are the least desirable.

iii) As the no of atoms in the molecular structure increases, the boiling temp increases, Thus fuels with fewer atoms in the molecule tend to be more volatile.

iv) The heating value generally increases as the proportion of hydrogen atoms of Carbon atoms in the molecule increases due to higher heating value of hydrogen than Carbon. Thus paraffins have the highest value and the aromatics the least.

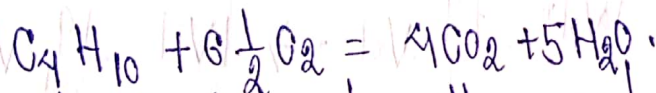
Combustion reactions: —
The important Combustion reactions are —

1. $H_2 + O_2 [1/2] \rightarrow H_2O (vap) + 242.050 \text{ kJ/kmol of } H_2$
2. $H_2 + \frac{1}{2} O_2 \rightarrow H_2O (liq) + 286.223 \text{ kJ/kmol of } H_2$
3. $CO + \frac{1}{2} O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 285.637 \text{ kJ/kmol of } C.$
4. $CO + \frac{1}{2} O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 285.637 \text{ kJ/kmol of } CO.$
5. $C + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 408.860 \text{ kJ/kmol of } C.$
6. $CO_2 + C \rightarrow 2CO - 162.419 \text{ kJ/kmol of } C.$
7. $C + H_2O \rightarrow CO + H_2 - 118.827 \text{ kJ/kmol of } C.$



Stoichiometric Combustion: —

- 1) Stoichiometric Combustion takes place in a stoichiometric mixture of a Fuel & Oxygen.
- 2) A stoichiometric mixture of a Fuel and Oxygen contain the precise amount of oxygen to completely burn out all the Combustion elements present in the Fuel.
- 3) This implies Conversion of all Content to CO_2 and all H Content to H_2O .
- 4) There is neither an excess or more deficiency of oxygen present in the reaction of mixture and as a result there is no free oxygen present in the reaction products. While all the Combustibles in the Fuel are completely Oxidized. For instance the stoichiometric of Combustion of n butane is.



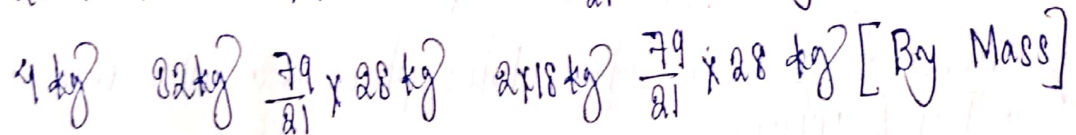
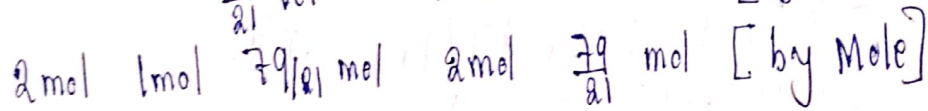
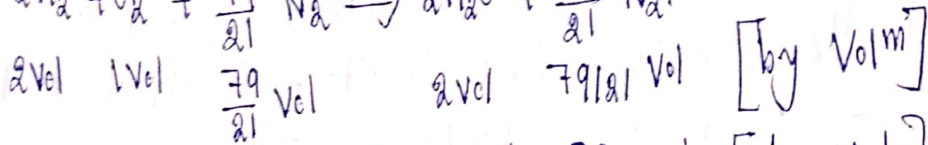
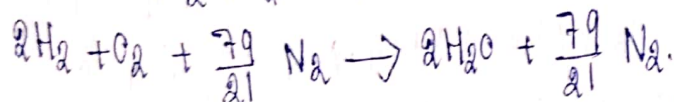
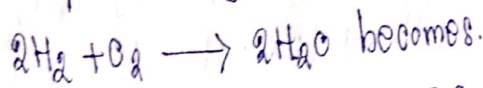
The equation is balanced with respect to all elements and present the prices

Complete Combustion: —

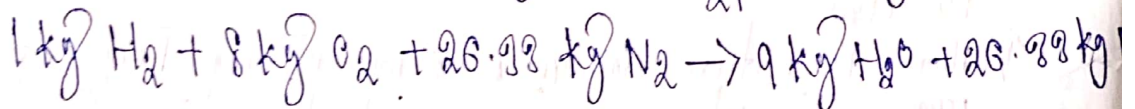
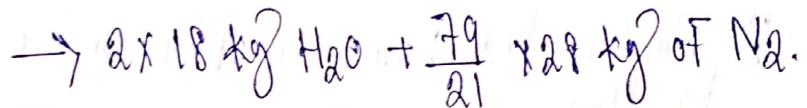
Complete Combustion means Complete Conversion of all Combustible element of a Fuel into its stable Oxides and as such as the entire Carbon of the Fuel now exists CO_2 and hydrogen H_2O in the products of Combustion.

- 1) All practical Combustion process use air as a source of oxygen, the oxidizer of the Fuel, with 1 kmol of oxygen, there are 79/21 kmol of nitrogen.

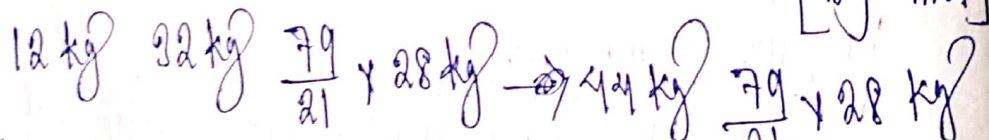
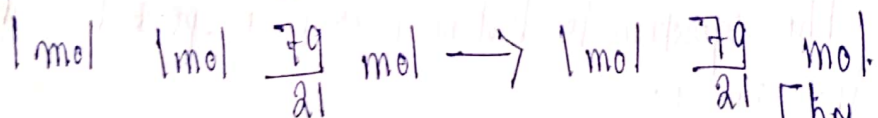
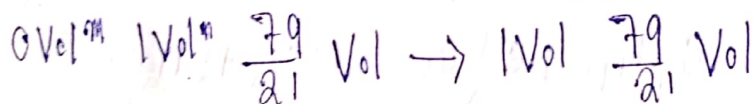
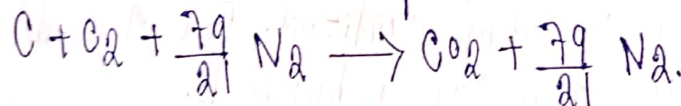
Combustion eqn of Hydrogen: —



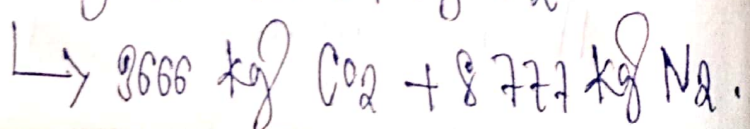
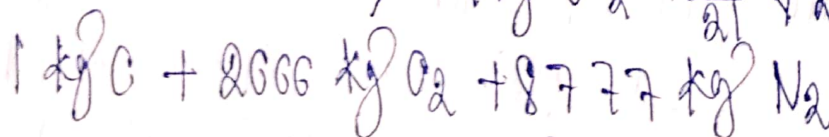
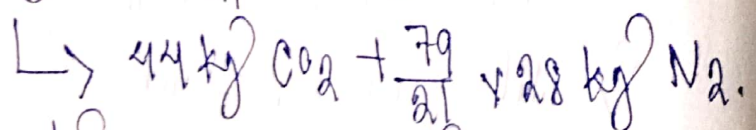
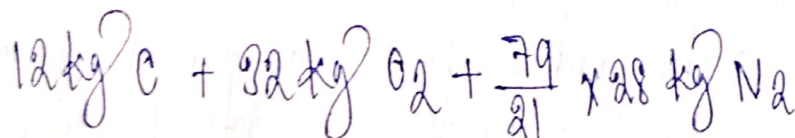
That is



2. The Complete Combustion eqn of Carbon —



That is



Concept of black body — A black body is an object that absorbs all the radiant energy reaching its surface.
→ No actual body is perfectly black, a black body has following properties —

1. It absorbs all the incident radiation falling on it and does not transmit or reflect regardless of wavelength and dirⁿ.
2. It emits max amount of heat radiation at all wavelength at any specified temp.
3. It is a diffuse emitter.

Kirchhoff's law : —

The law states that any temp the ratio of total emissive power E to the total absorptivity α is a constant for all substances which are in thermal equilibrium with environment.

Let us consider a large radiating body of surface area A which encloses a small body of surface area A_1 .

Let the energy fall on unit surface of the body at a rate E_b by considering generality of bodies.

$$E_b = \frac{E_1}{\alpha_1} = \frac{E_2}{\alpha_2} = \frac{E}{\alpha}$$

Also, as per the definition of emissivity, we have

$$\epsilon = \frac{E}{E_b}$$

$$\epsilon = \alpha$$

Absorption, Reflection & Transmission : —

When incident radiation is called irradiation impinges on surface, three things happen, a part is reflected back, a part is transmitted through and the remainder is absorbed, depending upon the characteristics of the body.

By conservation of energy particles $a_i + a_r + a_t = a$.

Dividing both sides by a we get $\frac{a_i}{a} + \frac{a_r}{a} + \frac{a_t}{a} = \frac{a}{a}$.

$$\boxed{\text{So } \alpha + \rho + \tau = 1}$$

Black body \rightarrow For a perfectly absorbing body, $\alpha = 1$, $\rho = 0$, $\tau = 0$.
Such a body is called black body.

\rightarrow It is one in which neither reflect nor transmit any part of the incident radiation but absorb all of it.

White body \rightarrow

If all the incident radiation falling on a body is reflected, it is called white body.

\rightarrow It is one which neither gases such as hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen have a transmissivity of practically unity.

Gray body \rightarrow If the radiative properties of a body are assumed to be uniform over the entire wavelength spectrum, then such a body is called gray body.

- It is also defined as the one whose absorptivity of a surface does not vary with temp and wavelength of the incident radiation.

Planck's law: — In 1900 Max Planck showed by quantum arguments that the spectral distribution of the radiation intensity of a black body is given by —

$$(E_\lambda)_b = \frac{2\pi c^2 h \lambda^{-5}}{\exp\left(\frac{ch}{\lambda kT}\right) - 1}$$

where $(E_\lambda)_b$ = Emisive power of a black body.
 c = vel of light in vacuum, $2.998 \times 10^8 = 3 \times 10^8$ m/s.
 h = Planck's constant = 6.625×10^{-34} J
 λ = Wavelength, mm.
 k = Boltzmann constant = 1.3805×10^{-23} J/K.
 T = abs temp K.

Unit of $(E_\lambda)_b$ = W/m².mm.
 Quite often the Planck's law is written as —

$$(E_\lambda)_b = \frac{C_1 \lambda^{-5}}{\exp\left[\frac{C_2}{\lambda T}\right] - 1}$$

$$C_1 = 2\pi^5 \frac{15}{4} \frac{k^4}{15} = 3.742 \times 10^8 \text{ W} \cdot \text{mm}^4 / \text{m}^2$$

$$C_2 = \frac{ch}{k} = 1.438 \times 10^4 \text{ mm} \cdot \text{K}$$

It provides quantitative results for the radiation from a black body.

Maxwell eqn: —

Now let us derive the Maxwell eqn —
 We know that for a system undergoing an infinitesimal reversible process from one equilibrium state to another.

1. Internal energy — $du = dq - dw.$
 $= T \cdot ds - p \cdot dv. \quad \text{--- (i)}$

The above eqn (i) is of the Form —

$$dz = M \cdot dx + N \cdot dy.$$

$$M = T, N = -P \quad (x = S, \text{ and } y = V).$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V}\right)_S = \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial S}\right)_V \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

2. Enthalpy $dH = du + p \cdot (dv).$

$$= du + p \cdot dv + v \cdot dp.$$

$$= (T \cdot ds - p \cdot dv) + p \cdot dv + v \cdot dp. \quad [du = T \cdot ds - p \cdot dv]$$

$$= T \cdot ds + v \cdot dp. \quad \text{--- (iii)}$$

The above eqn (iii) is of the Form —

$$dz = M \cdot dx + N \cdot dy.$$

$$M = T, N = V, x = S, \text{ and } y = P.$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial P}\right)_S = \left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial S}\right)_P \quad \text{--- (iv)}$$

3. Helmholtz Function (A) —

$$dA = du - T \cdot ds$$

$$= du - T \cdot ds - s \cdot dT$$

$$= (T \cdot ds - p \cdot dv) - T \cdot ds - s \cdot dT$$

$$= -p \cdot dv - s \cdot dT \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} du = T \cdot ds - p \cdot dv \\ \text{--- (v)} \end{array} \right.$$

The above eqn (v) is of the Form —

$$dz = M \cdot dx + N \cdot dy.$$

$$M = -P, N = -S, x = V, y = T$$

$$-\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_V = -\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_T$$

$$-\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_V = -\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V}\right)_T \quad \text{--- (vi)}$$

4. Gibbs Function (G) —

$$dG = dH - d(TS)$$

$$= dH - T \cdot ds - s \cdot dT$$

$$= (T \cdot ds + v \cdot dp) - T \cdot ds - s \cdot dT$$

$$= v \cdot dp - s \cdot dT. \quad \text{--- (vii)}$$

The above eqn (vii) is of Form —

$$dz = M \cdot dx + N \cdot dy.$$

$$M = V, N = -S, x = P, y = T$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial V}{\partial T}\right)_P = -\left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial P}\right)_T \quad \text{--- (viii)}$$

Eq (ii), (iv), (vi), & (viii) known as Maxwell's eqn in thermodynamics.