

**THE DESIGN AND TESTING  
OF A VAPOUR PUMP IN THE  
ABSORPTION REFRIGERATION CYCLE**

BY

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## Synopsis

This thesis presents a new pumping method in absorption refrigeration. A vapour pump, powered by a fraction of the high pressure refrigerant, is proposed to replace the conventionally used electric pump. The only energy required to power the cycle is the heat supplied to the generator. The system thus becomes completely independent of the availability of electricity and can be driven by low grade energy such as waste heat.

The literature review reveals that pumping has been a central problem to the development of absorption refrigeration. Since its inception early in the 18th century, many designs of absorption machines were put forward to overcome the pumping problem. They include the three fluid system ('candle' fridge), systems where circulation is based upon gravity and the thermosyphon effect and some more recent systems (thermal pump, membrane separation). Though having been successful to a varying degree in domestic refrigeration, above systems do either not work reliably or do not have a large refrigeration capacity. For larger applications an externally driven pump (usually electric) has to be relied upon.

The absorption cycle -vapour pump system is modelled by a computer simulation. The simulation investigates the thermodynamic stability of the cycle and predicts how the cycle behaves when changing the operating conditions (generator-, evaporator and sink temperature). The design of a prototype vapour pump is presented together with the results of the experimental investigation

The pump is of the positive displacement type with two 180 degrees opposed pistons doing the pump work. Movement of the

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pistons is achieved by exploiting the pressure difference between generator and absorber. A control mechanism regulates the direction of piston movement.

The simulation shows that the coefficient of performance (COP) is typically around 0.47 as compared to the  $\approx 0.60$  for an absorption machine using an electric pump. The maximum COP for the vapour pump system occurs at higher generator temperatures compared to the electric pump system. The experimental tests confirm in principle that the vapour pump system works and that the COP decreases when changing from an electric pump to the vapour pump.

Future experimental work to verify the simulation predictions is recommended. Various improvements on the cycle and pump, aimed at obtaining more accurate results, are proposed.

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**NOMENCLATURE**

A	area
D	diameter
E	energy
F	force
H	enthalpy
I	moment of inertia
L	stroke length
P	pressure
T	temperature
V	volume
Q	volume flow rate; power
freq	stroke frequency
h	specific enthalpy
m	mass flow rate
x	solution refrigerant concentration
y	vapour refrigerant concentration
st	denotes strong solution
we	denotes weak solution
$\Delta$	difference
$\eta$	efficiency
$\rho$	density
$\sigma$	tensile/compressive stress
$\tau$	shear stress
v	specific volume

# CHAPTER 1

## 1.1 Introduction

A new pumping method in absorption refrigeration is introduced in this study. In conventional absorption refrigeration an externally driven pump returns the strong solution from the absorber to the generator. The proposed new pump, replacing the conventionally used one, is termed 'vapour pump' as it is powered by a fraction of the high pressure vapour mixture that is liberated in the generator. This thesis presents the design and experimental investigation of a vapour pump in the absorption refrigeration cycle.

Absorption refrigeration has to a large extent, especially in domestic refrigeration, given way to compression refrigeration; mainly because of the latter's superiority in energy efficiency and ease of control. With the ever increasing cost of high grade energy, absorption refrigeration is regaining interest, especially where low grade waste heat is available. However, its applicability becomes questionable in areas where electricity is not available because of its externally driven pump. The introduction of the proposed vapour pump allows for an exclusively heat powered cycle, rendering the refrigerator independent of the availability of electricity.

The objectives of the thesis were to design, construct and test a vapour pump for use in absorption refrigeration machines. Testing of the vapour pump was done:

i) by experimentation with the prototype vapour pump. The experiments were conducted in the Mechanical Engineering

department and therefor limited to the absorption refrigeration plant facilities available.

ii) theoretically by a computer simulation. Vicatos [24] has developed a model for the ammonia-water cycle. This simulation, amended to include the vapour pump, is used for the theoretical prediction of the cycle behaviour.

The absorption refrigeration machine in the department was subsequently altered to operate with Freon R22 and tetra ethylene glycol dimethyl ether (E181). Only very limited thermodynamic data has been published on the R22-E181 binary system (Mastrangelo [14] and by Kriebel et al [12]) and it proved beyond the scope of this thesis to produce a simulation for the R22-E181 absorption machine. The refrigerant flow rates of the two systems for equal refrigeration capacity, and the corresponding coefficient of performances, are similar (Pearson [16]). The vapour pump (material, sealing) is designed to operate in a R22-E181 environment.

Refrigeration history with emphasis on absorption refrigeration is presented in the remainder of chapter 1. The development of the absorption refrigeration machine is traced from its origin to modern time. Chapter 2 deals in more detail with the conventional absorption cycle and the working fluids commonly used. Chapter 3 introduces the vapour pump, describing its principle of operation and the modified absorption cycle. A detailed design of the vapour pump is presented in chapter 4, followed by a discussion of the theoretically predicted pump behaviour in chapter 5. Chapter 6 is concerned with the experimental testing of the vapour pump and the performance of the cycle with the vapour pump.

## 1.2 History of absorption refrigeration

### 1.2.1 General

The practice of cooling bodies below the temperature of the atmosphere has been followed for centuries. In earlier times the means of cooling was provided by nature itself: ice that formed on rivers and lakes in the cold winter months and snow. A bulletin entitled "The Romance of Ice", published by the National (American) Association of Ice Industries tells of some very early refrigeration: the early Greek poet Simonides observes at a banquet that the liquor served to guests is cooled by snow; Alexander the Great had trenches dug for storing snow, in which hundreds of kegs of wine were cooled; Emperor Nero had slaves bring down snow from the mountains, also to cool his wines. The bulletin also claims that the ancient Egyptians knew the secret of cooling by evaporation as still practised by the natives of India today (shallow trays of porous material filled with water, exposed to the night winds, produce a thin film of ice on the surface). Up to the last half of the nineteenth century ice, that was harvested in the winter, was stored in caves in the ground for use during the warm summer months. Hull [10] reports that the first record of American delivery of ice to the home was in 1802. In 1805 Frederick Tudor of Boston exported a shipment of natural ice to Martenique in the West Indies to help stay the ravages of yellow fever. It was only around the middle of the nineteenth century that means were devised whereby ice for refrigeration purposes could be manufactured in commercial quantities. And it was only in this very century that machines for direct -that is without having to produce ice first- home refrigeration have been developed. Inventors of the past have proposed a number of cooling machines; the 'Gorrie Air Machine', the 'Kirk Air Machine', the 'Allen Dense Air Machine', 'Absorption Machines' and 'Vapour

Compression Machines' to name a few. All machines function upon the same physical phenomenon, namely cooling by expansion and/or evaporation. Basically all modern day refrigeration machines are either of the compression or absorption type and it is the latter with which this thesis is concerned.

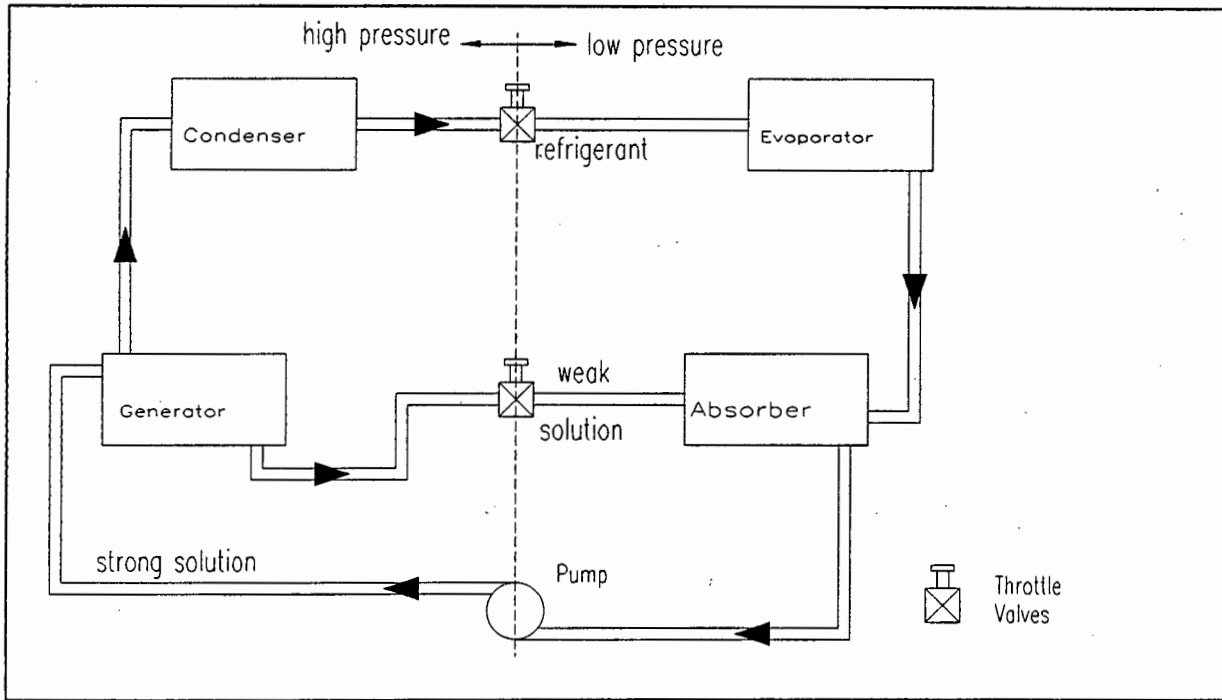
### 1.2.2 Development of absorption refrigeration

In 1824 Michael Faraday, working in the Royal Institution of London, succeeded in condensing ammonia gas to a liquid, which until then was believed to only exist as a vapour. Faraday's experimental apparatus consisted of a closed inverted 'V' tube.

One end of the tube contained silver chloride crystals, which had absorbed some ammonia gas. The other end was immersed into cold water. The silver chloride crystals were then externally heated by a flame. The ammonia gas, that was liberated and driven off, turned into liquid at the opposite end after being cooled by the cold water. Then Faraday removed both the heat source and the cooling water. As a result the liquid ammonia rapidly evaporated back into a vapour which was then reabsorbed by the crystals. The end that had contained the liquid was found to be extremely cold, as the ammonia had drawn heat from the environment while evaporating. It is the latent heat that the surrounding supplies to the substance. And so, while the liquid evaporates at constant pressure and temperature, the environment loses some of its (heat) energy and consequently drops in temperature. It is this experiment of Faraday that is often named as the origin of absorption refrigeration.

Although Ferdinand Carré is usually credited with the development of the first absorption refrigeration machines (about 1858-1860), both Hull [10] and Macintire [13] mention that Professor Leslie already employed the principle in 1810. Those early machines made use of a liquid absorbent; sulphuric

acid to absorb water (Leslie, Carré and Windhausen (1878)) or water to absorb ammonia (Carré). Carré's continuous absorption refrigeration system is schematically shown in the figure 1.1.



**Figure 1.1** Schematic diagram of the Carré absorption refrigeration machine (continuous operation type)

The machine works on the principle of ammonia dissolving in water. Ammonia, having a high affinity for water, is absorbed at low temperature and a pressure considerably above atmospheric. The mixture is returned to the generator by means of a pump. Heat is supplied to the generator and ammonia boils off at high pressure. The ammonia vapour is liquefied in the condenser, then passes the throttle valve to enter the evaporator. Here heat is drawn from the environment to sustain the evaporation process. The remaining liquid in the generator, of low ammonia concentration (weak solution), returns to the absorber, driven by the pressure difference. Once inside the absorber it absorbs the ammonia vapour coming from the evaporator and the cycle repeats itself.



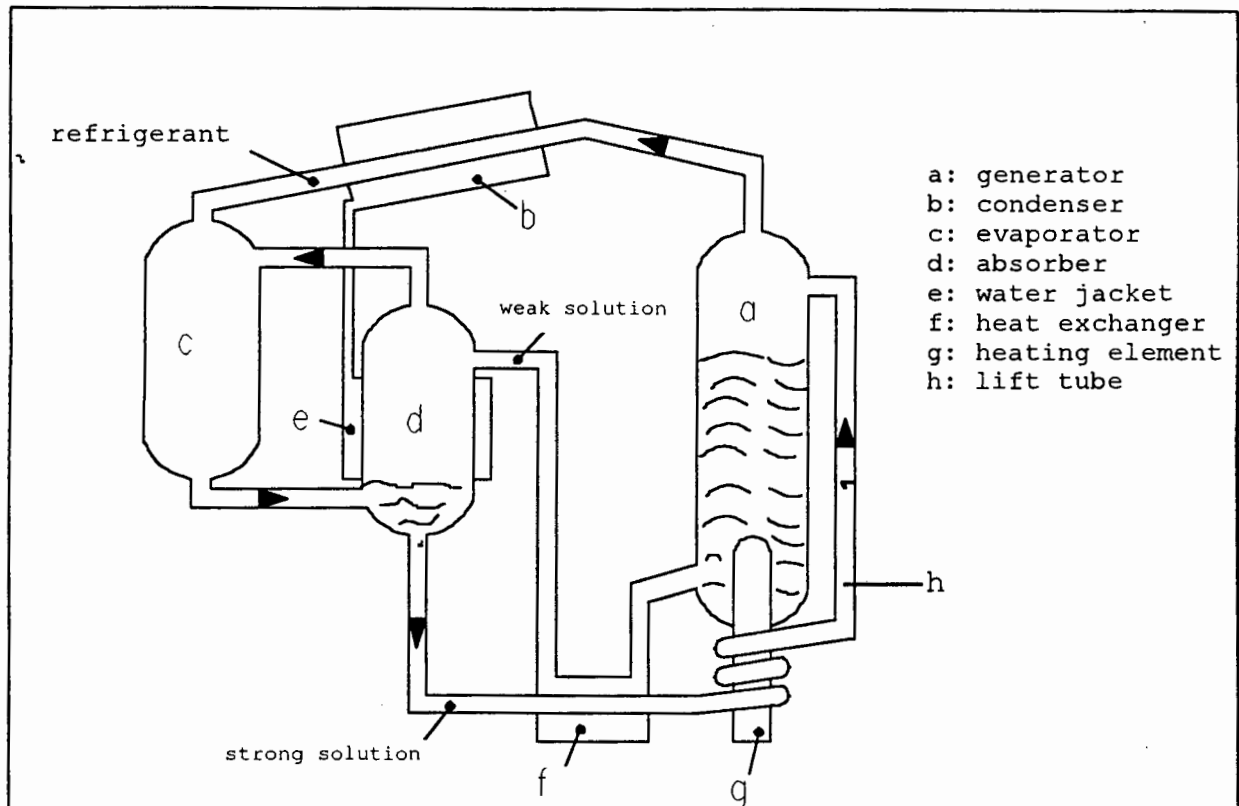
The original Carré machine of 1859 was somewhat more primitive, but was subsequently improved by himself, Mignon and Rouart in France, Vass and Littmann in Germany and Reece, Mort and Nicole in England.

One characteristic problem inherent in the absorption machine since its inception is that of *continuity in operation*. To ensure uninterrupted cooling a liquid pump is required to return the strong solution (refrigerant dissolved in absorbent) to the generator on a continuous basis, that is from a low to a high pressure. At the time this was no easy task and continuous absorption machines tended to be bulky and technically complicated. Plank & Kuprianoff [11] report that for this reason the continuous absorption machine remained in the domain of large industrial application, but was replaced by the absorption machine of the intermittent type on the smaller scale (e.g. home refrigeration). The intermittent machine was not a new idea; in fact both Leslie's (1810) and Faraday's (1824) apparatus was of this type. In machines of this kind a period of heating, during which the refrigerant was driven off the absorbent and then liquefied, was followed by a period of cooling, during which the liquefied refrigerant was evaporated and then reabsorbed by the absorbent. The process was distinctly two- staged, often requiring human presence to change from the one to the other (removing of heat source, closing and opening of valves). While this type of machine could not operate continuously, a liquid return pump was not necessary. Machines of this nature were built on a industrial scale around 1910 in the USA and in 1920 in Germany (by E. Rumpler).

On the whole, absorption refrigeration went out of fashion around the turn of the century. It lost considerable ground to its major competitor, the compression refrigeration machine.

Compression refrigeration proved to be more energy efficient and less bulky.

Around the nineteen thirties the continuous absorption machine experienced a revival, when ways and means were found to avoid the use of a liquid pump. Its development is closely associated with the names of H. Geppert, E. Altenkirch, B. von Platen, C.G. Munters and G. Maiuri. In 1899 Geppert introduced an inert (non-condensing) gas (Geppert used air) into Carré's two-fluid absorption machine to compensate for the pressure difference in the cycle. Because of the generator's higher pressure the air accumulated in the evaporator and absorber, where its partial pressure balanced the previously existing pressure difference. No pump work was required to return the strong solution to the generator since the same total pressure was prevalent throughout the system. The pressure compensating air, however, seriously suppressed evaporation of the refrigerant in the evaporator, thereby stifling the refrigeration effect. The rate of diffusion, and so of evaporation, can significantly be increased when using hydrogen instead of air. According to the kinetic gas theory, the rate of diffusion is related to the average pathlength and velocity of the molecules. Hydrogen is more suited on both accounts. Platen and Munters in Stochholm took up Geppert's idea but used hydrogen as the inert gas. The system in its most basic form is shown in figure 1.2. Heat is supplied to the generator by the electric element or flame (many flame powered absorption machines of this kind remain in operation to this day). The refrigerant, that is driven off, passes through the condenser into the hydrogen filled evaporator



**Figure 1.2** Platen- Munters three fluid absorption machine

The evaporator is arranged above the absorber and since the ammonia rich vapour in the evaporator is heavier than the hydrogen rich vapour in the absorber circulation from one to the other is by gravity and in the direction as shown by the arrows.

With the hydrogen gas cancelling the pressure difference between absorber and generator, circulation of the weak and strong solutions is based upon a percolator type pump. The weak solution flows to the absorber under action of the liquid column in the generator, the top level of which is at the same height as the weak solutions entrance to the absorber. The weak solution absorbs the ammonia (which now becomes the strong solution) and is then returned to the generator after passing through a heat exchanger. The liquid column in the absorber pushes the strong solution into the vertical percolator pipe (h) of the generator. Here liquid is lifted into the generator container (a) under action of rising vapour bubbles (thermosyphon effect).

Machines of this type, also known as *cryotherms* because of the absence of mechanical work input, established themselves in domestic refrigeration. The larger industrial application demand a greater rate of circulation, which can not be met by thermosyphon action alone. Other limitations are that these refrigerators depend on a finely tuned arrangement. They are not very reliable and do often not function properly, especially when not standing upright or when having been transported.

Other absorption machines built around that time used a solid absorbent. They were of the intermittent type and never able to obtain a significant share of the market. Modern time has seen many improved versions of the two fluid absorption machine. While essentially still the Carré machine, successful efforts have been made to increase efficiency, incorporate automatic temperature regulation, decrease the size of the apparatus and exploit various forms of energy as powering source. Recent attention has been focused on systems being powered by waste heat and solar energy (direct or via photovoltaic cells). However, even though the greatest part of the energy input goes to the generator, the pump remains an essential part of the cycle.

### 1.3 Pumping in Absorption Refrigeration

The necessity of circulating the absorbent- refrigerant mixture is a fundamental problem to absorption refrigeration. It hindered development of absorption refrigeration for long periods of time. The already discussed Platen- Munters three fluid system originated from an effort to avoid mechanical pumping. It makes use of a pressure equalising inert gas and achieves circulation by gravity and the thermosyphon effect. Altenkirch

is credited with first having proposed this well known effect for use in absorption machines. Vapour bubbles that rise up the pipe, after some heating by the same source that powers the generator, carry and push the liquid with them.

Plank & Kuprianoff [11] report that Altenkirch has also devised a method to achieve circulation without mechanical pumping in two fluid absorption. Such a system is shown in figure 1.3. The pressure difference between generator and absorber is overcome by the height difference between the two. The absorber is arranged far above the generator, so that the pressure of the liquid column of rich solution is sufficient to bridge the pressure difference. This method only functions in machines with a relatively small pressure difference. Ammonia machines of this kind have not been built, but the principle has successfully been tested using water as refrigerant with  $H_2SO_4$  as absorbent. The generator consists of the pipe coiled around the heat element b and the vessel c, in which the vapour is separated (but not formed) from the remaining (weak) solution. The pipe coiled around the heat source b serves the dual purpose of not only boiling off the refrigerant but also of acting as a percolator-type pump (making use of the thermosyphon effect already encountered in the Platen- Munters system). Machines of this type have been manufactured after the second world war (mainly for air conditioning), but again were severely limited by their small refrigeration capacity.

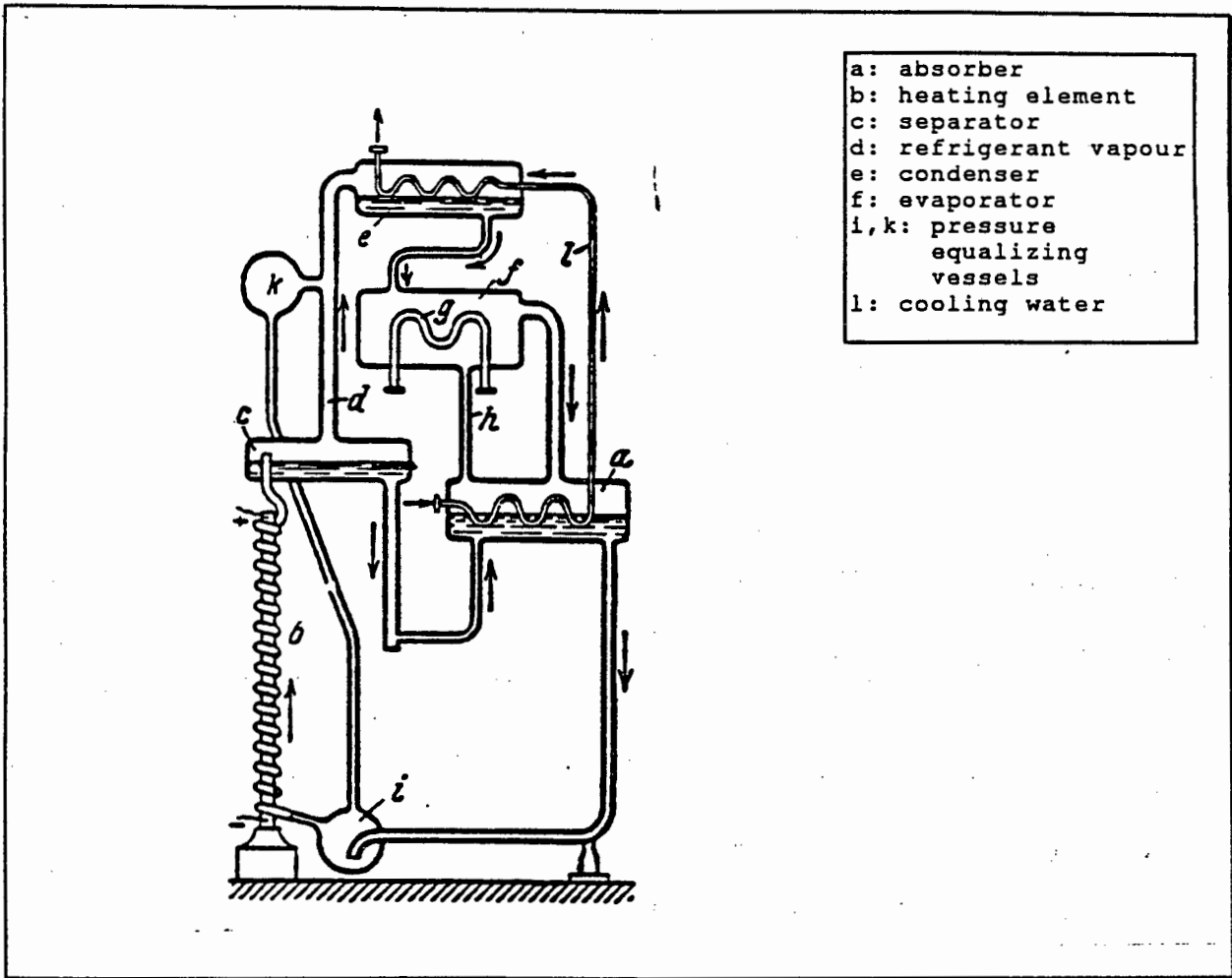


Figure 1.3 Continuous absorption machine of the Altenkirch system (reproduced from Plank & Kuprianoff [11] (page 388))

A more recent invention has been published by Szücs [22]. He proposes to replace the pump with a radiator that is heated by the same source that powers the generator. The radiator is first flooded by the rich solution coming from the absorber. After some heating the pressure in the radiator increases to a level where more of the rich solution is prevented from entering. Once the pressure inside the radiator exceeds the one of the generator, the rich solution will be passed on to the generator. The radiator pressure drops after discharge; rich solution from the absorber floods the radiator once again, and the process repeats itself. Szücs states that the major

advantages of the cycle are the absence of any moving parts and the independence of electrical power. Vicatos [24] has experimented with a thermal pump of this kind. Electrical sensors were used to activate valves and to regulate the heating periods. Vicatos [24] reports that operation of the pump was troublesome. It did work in principle, but the COP was not observed to improve.

A design by Beasley & Hester [4] achieves absorbent- refrigerant separation by a membrane (hyperfiltration). They further recommend that some work should be recovered by the returning weak solution (high to low pressure) and envisage a work recovery turbine (driven by the weak solution) that helps to pump the rich solution. However, a secondary pump is still required and the cycle remains dependent on the availability of electricity. A great number of machines have been proposed where the whole absorber- pump- generator arrangement is replaced with some other mechanism. These machines go beyond the scope of absorption refrigeration and are not dealt with here.

To the present day two-fluid absorption refrigeration requires the presence of a liquid return pump, which means the cycle needs two energy sources (usually of different nature) to function continuously.

## CHAPTER 2

### 2 The conventional absorption refrigeration cycle

#### 2.1 Principle of operation

The absorption cycle shown in figure 1.1 is in its most basic form. In practise a modified cycle is employed to achieve better efficiency. Figure 2.1 shows such a cycle arrangement.

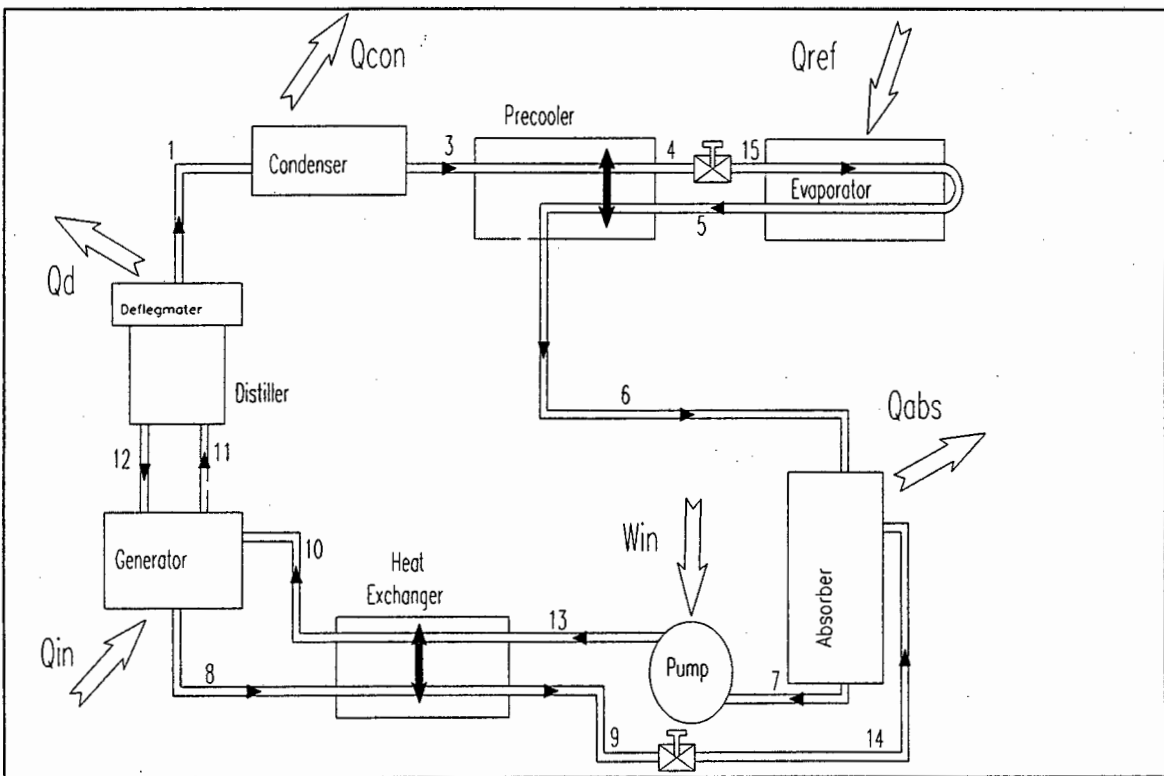


Figure 2.1 The conventional absorption refrigeration cycle

Two distinct pressures exist throughout the system. The generator, heat exchanger, distiller and condenser are on



high pressure side; the evaporator and absorber on the low pressure side. The throttle valve, solution valve and pump separate the high from the low pressure in the respective connection lines. Heat is supplied to the generator ( $Q_{in}$ ) in the form of an electric heating element, a flame, waste heat or solar energy. The generator is filled with a liquid mixture of the absorbent and refrigerant. The energy supplied serves to separate the absorbent-refrigerant pair; the more volatile refrigerant is driven off as a vapour. The liquid remaining behind, of relatively low refrigerant concentration and therefore termed weak solution, returns to the absorber driven by the pressure difference that exists between the two. The vapour driven off in the generator, though of high refrigerant concentration, contains some absorbent, the amount of which depends on the volatility of the absorbent. In the case of the ammonia-water combination a fairly large amount of water vapour is carried along with the refrigerant, which is removed in the distillation column. The refrigerant mixture condenses in the condenser at constant pressure by rejecting heat to the cooling environment ( $Q_{con}$ ). The pre-cooler is a type of heat exchanger, where some heat energy is passed to the cold refrigerant leaving the evaporator. The pre-cooled liquid refrigerant passes through a throttle valve before entering the evaporator. The energy for the evaporation is drawn from the surrounding ( $Q_{ref}$ ), also known as the refrigeration capacity. The vapour refrigerant is drained off to the absorber, where it is reabsorbed by the weak solution. The heat generated during the absorption process (heat of mixing) together with the heat energy of the weak solution is rejected to the medium that cools the absorber ( $Q_{abs}$ ). A pump, usually powered from an external electrical source, returns the resulting rich solution to the generator. Before reaching the generator, the rich solution passes through a

heat exchanger, where heat is transferred from the weak to the rich solution. The dual purpose of this is that less heat has to be supplied to the generator and less heat has to be removed from the absorber. As a result the cycle efficiency increases.

## 2.2 The working fluids

Among the many absorbent-refrigerant pairs that have been experimented with to date the most consistent and widely used are:

Ammonia-Water: Ammonia is the only one of the original classical refrigerants to retain its position. Ammonia is cheap and has excellent thermodynamic properties. Water can absorb vast amounts of ammonia and therefore a relatively low volume of liquid mixture has to be circulated per fixed refrigeration capacity. Ammonia has a very high latent heat (1313.3 kJ/kg at  $-15^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) and a low density as liquid ( $600\text{ kg/m}^3$  at  $30\text{ C}$ ). Its low liquid density is of practical advantage in that static heads due to liquid ammonia columns are minimal.. The disadvantages of the pair are that ammonia is corrosive to copper (in the presence of water or oxygen), zinc, most rubbers and plastics. Iron and steel can safely be used. In addition system leaks have to be prevented as ammonia is highly toxic. Thermodynamically the most important disadvantage of the pair is that a relatively large amount of the water evaporates together with the ammonia during generation. This is undesirable as water (absorbent), reaching the evaporator, holds some ammonia

(refrigerant) in solution, that would otherwise have contributed to the refrigeration capacity. The evaporation of water also increases the heat input to the generator. This necessitates the use of a distiller/ deflagmator to prevent significant amounts of water reaching the condenser. Thermodynamic data for ammonia and water are given in appendix B.

Freon R22-E181: E181, the tradename for tetraethylene glycol dimethyl ether ( $\text{CH}_3(\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2)_4\text{OCH}_3$ ), serves as absorbent, R22 ( $\text{CHClF}_2$ ) as refrigerant. R22 is, together with ammonia, the most common of the primary refrigerants. Although R22 belongs to the chlorofluorocarbon group of refrigerants (CFC's) to be phased out because of their contribution to ozone depletion it is still widely used. Because of the single chlorine atom in the R22 molecule (other CFC's carry two) R22 is considered only minimally damaging to the ozone layer and therefor takes a transitional role in the change from CFC's to new refrigerants (R134a, R152a etc.). R22 has a lower latent heat than ammonia (217.69 kJ/kg at -15 C) but a higher liquid density (1175.15 kg/m<sup>3</sup> at 30 C). The refrigerant vapour flow rate to be circulated is similar to the one for ammonia at the same refrigeration capacity. R22 is non-toxic but corrosive to some rubbers and plastic (Pearson [16] reports a softening effect on electrical insulation). The Parker catalogue [15] states that both chloroprene and ethylene-propylene rubber seals are resistant to R22 while normal nitrile-butadiene seals are not recommended for use with R22. Zellhoefer [26] suggested in 1937 E181 as absorbent, initially in combination with R21. R22 was found to be a more suitable refrigerant for E181

as also reported by Mastrangelo [14] and Kriebel et al [12]. Plank et al [11] state that the R22-E181 pair is harmless to copper, steel and aluminium for temperatures under 175 C. The boiling point of E181 at 1.013 bar is 275 C, that of R22 -40.8 C. The difference of 315.8 C implies that only very small amounts of E181 are driven off in the generator; thus no rectification (distiller) is required. E181 is very expensive and is also known to attack a large range of polymers (sealing rings etc.). The Parker catalogue [15] suggests ethylene-propylene seals for use with E181. Data for R22 and E181 is given in appendix B.

Water-Lithium Bromide: Lithium bromide acts as absorbent, water as refrigerant. The pair is low in cost, chemically stable and non-toxic. Lithium bromide absorbs large quantities of water, therefore only a relatively small amount of liquid must be pumped from the absorber to the generator. It is easy to separate the two in the generator as the boiling point of water is considerably lower than that of lithium bromide. The vapour pressure-temperature characteristics of water are such that the pressure in the evaporator and absorber will be extremely low. This is undesirable as any non-airtight joints will cause air to leak in, increasing the pressure and temperature in the evaporator. Also, water cannot be used as refrigerant for temperatures below zero degrees. Another problem with the pair is what is known as crystallisation. If strong solution at a high temperature is cooled, crystals precipitate out of the liquid. The resulting slush-like liquid is difficult to circulate through the cycle.

### 2.3 Uses and advantages of absorption refrigeration

The early refrigeration machines, of both the compression and absorption type, were mainly designed for large industrial applications. During the first sixty years of this century much attention was focused on the development of smaller refrigeration machines for domestic use. Plank et al [11] report that around the time of the second World War absorption machines were very popular in household refrigeration. The reason given is that simplicity and safety was rated more important than energy efficiency in domestic refrigeration. Absorption machines had no moving parts and did not emit much noise. Compressors at that time were technically challenging, unreliable and seldom leak free. The production costs of compressors did not decrease proportionally with the decrease of displacement volume and it was difficult to regulate refrigerating machines with the small flow rates involved. It was economically not viable to build compression machines below a certain size. For that reason very few compression machines below 100 W cooling capacity were built. The production costs of absorption machines, however, could be lowered considerably by decreasing the cooling capacity from 100 W to 35 W. The picture has since then changed considerably. With the advancement of technology the manufacture of reliable compressors of all sizes does not constitute an obstacle any longer. With the capital cost of compression refrigeration machines having become less than that of an equivalent absorption type refrigerator, the compression refrigerator has entrenched itself firmly as the dominant force in the household market.

Besides production cost, another important criterion is the operational cost. Compression refrigeration is more energy efficient than absorption refrigeration. Pita [17] reports that while the COP of a typical lithium bromide-water chiller is around 0.65 to 0.70, an equivalent vapour compression machine chiller has an COP of 3 to 4. This comparison is not a true reflection of performance and has to be moderated by taking into account the type of input energy used. Considering the energy source for the electric driven compressor improves the situation somewhat. Only about one third of the heat energy of the primary fuel (coal, oil, nuclear) in the power plant is converted into electricity. The absorption machine thus requires approximately twice as much heat energy of primary fuel as does the compressor driven machine. Even though the efficiency of absorption machines can be improved by using the two-stage system (refrigerant is boiled off in two stages in two generators), it remains less efficient than its compression type competitor.

The most important advantage of absorption refrigeration is that it does not require high grade energy as input. Solar energy or industrial energy sources such as otherwise wasted low pressure steam or hot combustion gases can be used to power absorption refrigeration machines. At present, absorption refrigeration is mainly restricted to industrial applications where a free energy source is available or where very large units are required.

The absorption cycle as described above, however, still needs electricity to drive the rich solution return pump. The introduction of a vapour pump renders the cycle independent of the availability of electricity. Absorption refrigeration then gains the added advantage that it can be used in areas where no electricity is available (e.g. clinics, farms and schools in remote areas).

# CHAPTER 3

## 3 The vapour pump in the absorption refrigeration cycle

### 3.1 Cycle arrangement with vapour pump

The vapour pump takes the place of the electrically driven one. All other parts of the cycle remain as shown in figure 2.1. A fraction of the high pressure, hot vapour mixture (11) is channelled to the pump via stream 16. The vapour mixture leaving the pump, after having done work, is purged to the absorber via stream 17. The proposed cycle is schematically shown in figure 3.1.

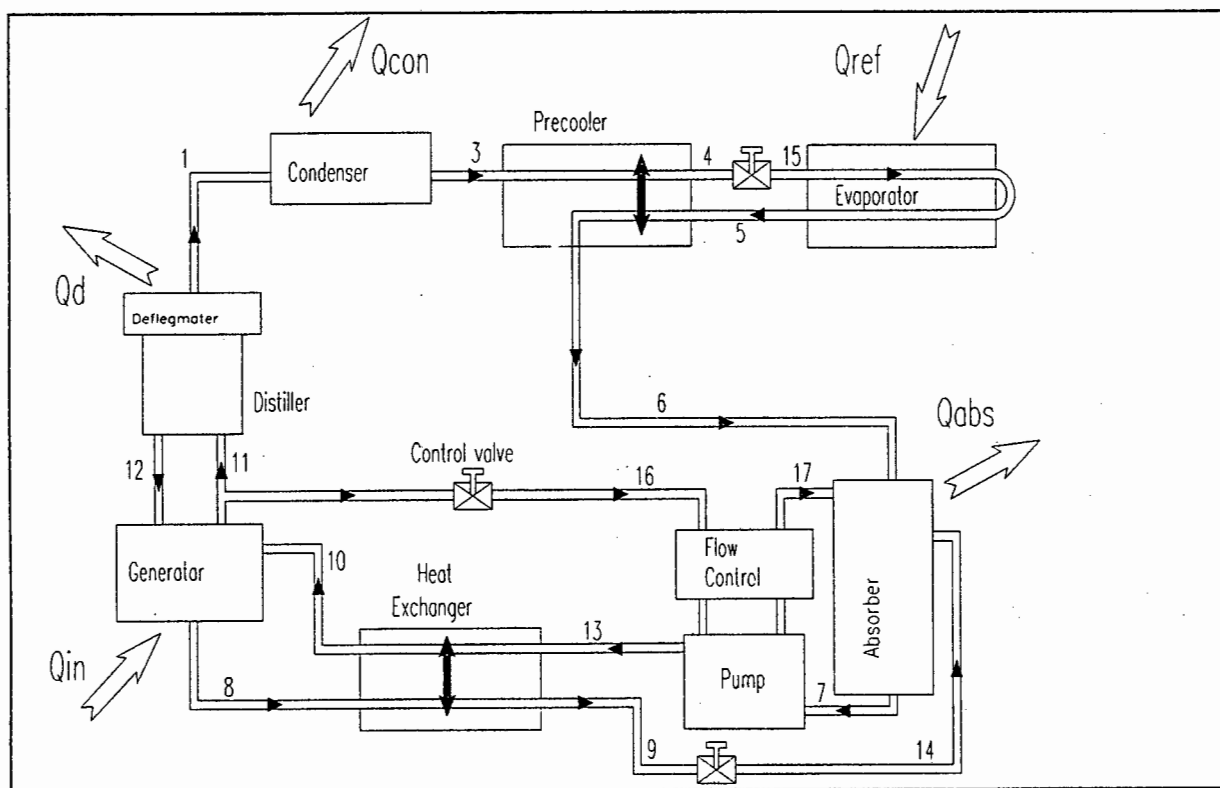


Figure 3.1 Schematic arrangement of cycle with vapour pump

### 3.2 Principle of operation of the vapour pump

Since the pump is driven by the high pressure vapour mixture it draws its power from the heat supplied to the generator. For the refrigeration effect to remain unaffected by the change of pumps the flow rate through the evaporator has to stay constant. An additional amount of vapour mixture -the amount required for the pumping operation- has to be driven off in the generator. This vapour mixture, together with the refrigerant coming from the evaporator (6), is absorbed by the weak solution in the absorber. The mass balance around the absorber shows that the flow rates of both the weak (9) and the strong solution (7) must increase accordingly in order to absorb the surplus vapour to the absorber and supply it to the generator. The additional amount of heat supplied to the generator is exclusively rejected in the absorber. The vapour pump consists of essentially two parts (figure 3.2):

- a pumping mechanism
- a control mechanism

Figure 3.2 shows an assembly view of the pump. Pumping is done by two opposed synchronised double acting pistons. The two pistons are connected by a steel shaft. Each piston has two vapour sides and a liquid side. Each liquid side has a supply line from the absorber and a delivery line to the generator. Non-return valves are fitted to these lines to restrict flow in the directions intended. High and low pressure vapour is applied to the appropriate piston vapour sides. Pumping is achieved by



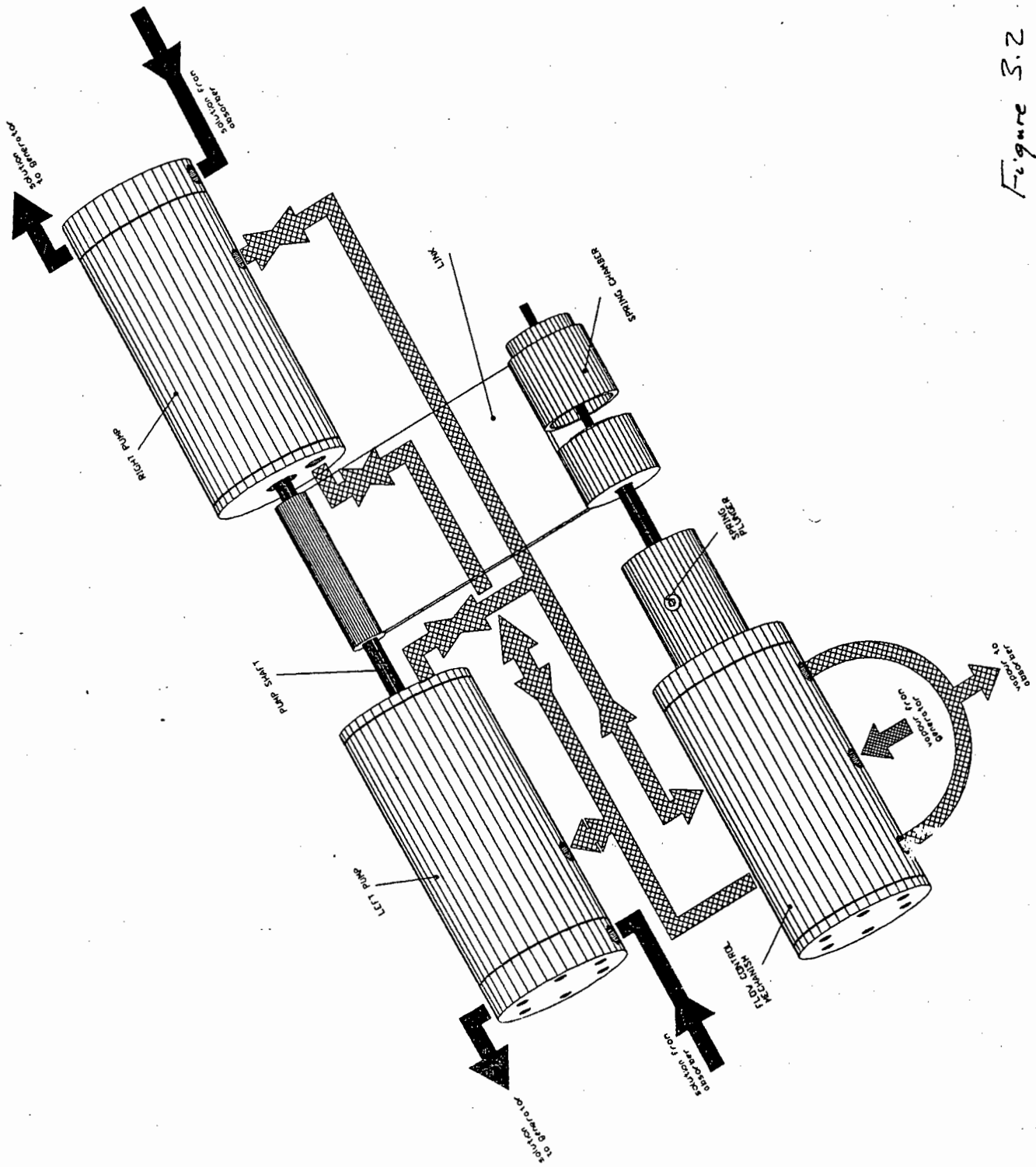


Figure 3.2 The pump assembly

the net force due to the difference in piston area between liquid and vapour sides. The net force exerted by the vapour exceeds the net resisting force of the liquid solution. As the piston arrangement moves, say to the right, the right pump is in delivery mode and the left in suction mode. On the return stroke the reverse action takes place. The double piston arrangement aims at supplying the rich solution to the generator as continuous as possible. To reverse the direction of motion of the pistons the high and low pressure lines are interchanged. This is the function of the control mechanism, that regulates the direction of the flow of the high pressure vapour to the appropriate sides of the pistons in the pumps. Figures 3.3a & 3.3b depict the principle of operation. The shaft in the control mechanism has two distinct positions, one at either end. At these positions the shaft opens and closes the respective channels for forward and return movement of the pistons. The control shaft is held in either of these positions for the duration of the stroke by a spring plunger. A link mechanism (figure 3.2) that is rigidly fixed to the piston shaft, but spring mounted to the control shaft, provides motion to the control mechanism. This enables the control shaft to oscillate between the allowed positions while the pistons undergo reciprocating motion. With the control shaft initially held, say in the 'left' position (figure 3.3a), the vapour is channelled to push the pistons to the right. While the pistons move continuously to the right, the control shaft remains in position until the force, exerted by the increasingly compressed spring in the link, overcomes the force of the spring plunger. Then the control shaft 'jumps' to the 'right' position, switching

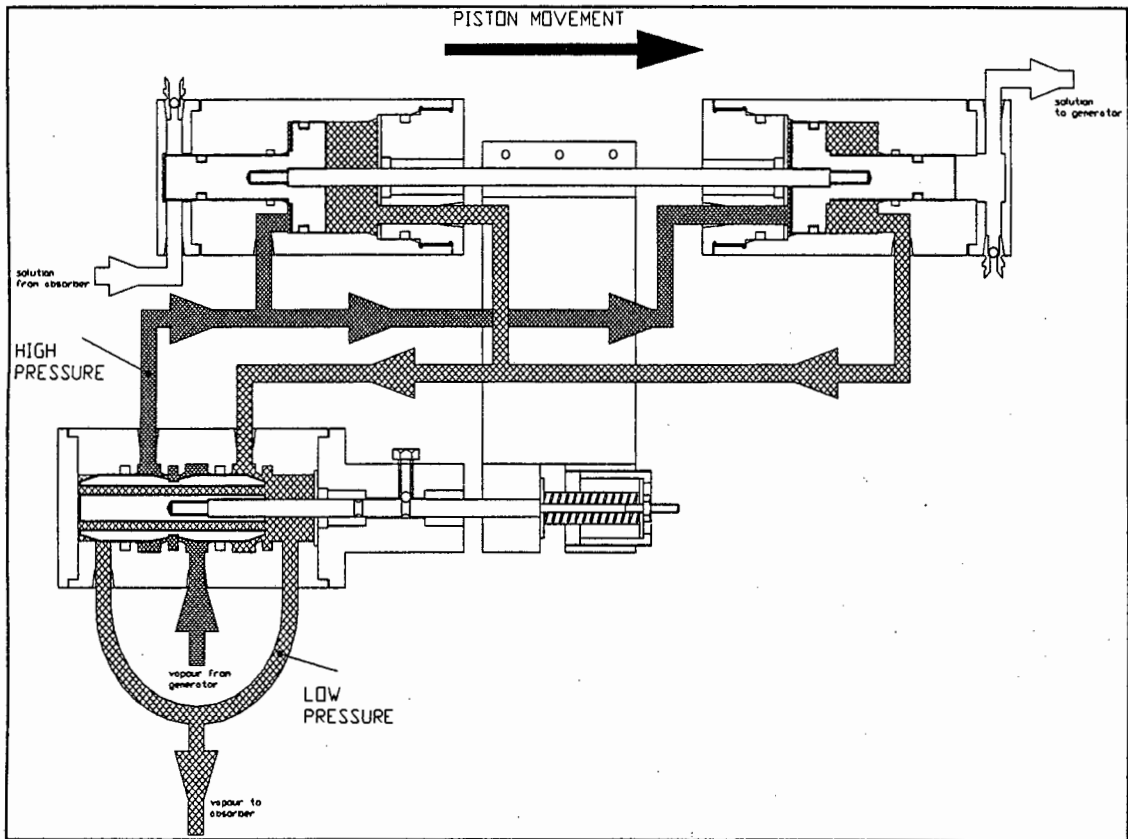


Figure 3.3a Principle of operation (delivery right pump, suction left pump)

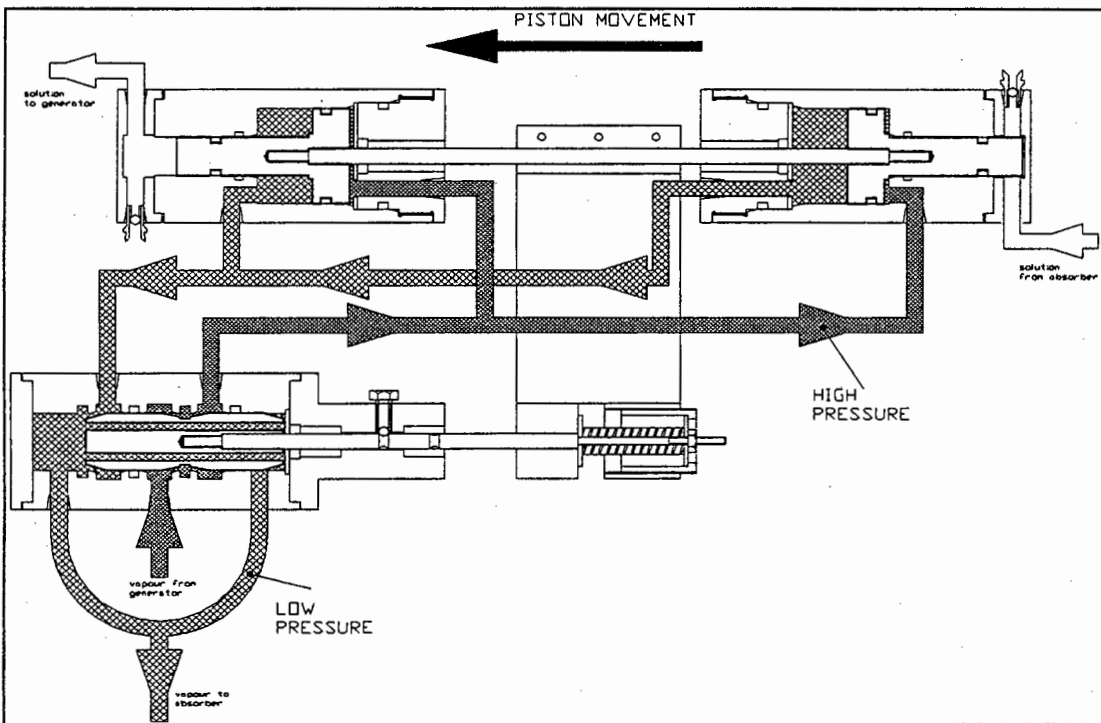


Figure 3.3b Principle of operation (delivery left pump, suction right pump)

over the high and low pressure ports, forcing the return movement of the pump pistons (figure 3.3b).

### 3.3 Energy balance of the pump

The pump draws its energy from the high pressure vapour coming from the generator. Energy is lost due to pipe friction and friction between the moving parts of the pump; then there are thermal losses which can be reduced by insulation of pipes and pump. The energy content of the low pressure vapour leaving the pump via stream 17 is a portion of the incoming energy (16) not converted into pump work. Figure 3.4 shows this in principle, but not to scale. The numerals refer to the position of the respective stream in the absorption cycle of figure 3.1.

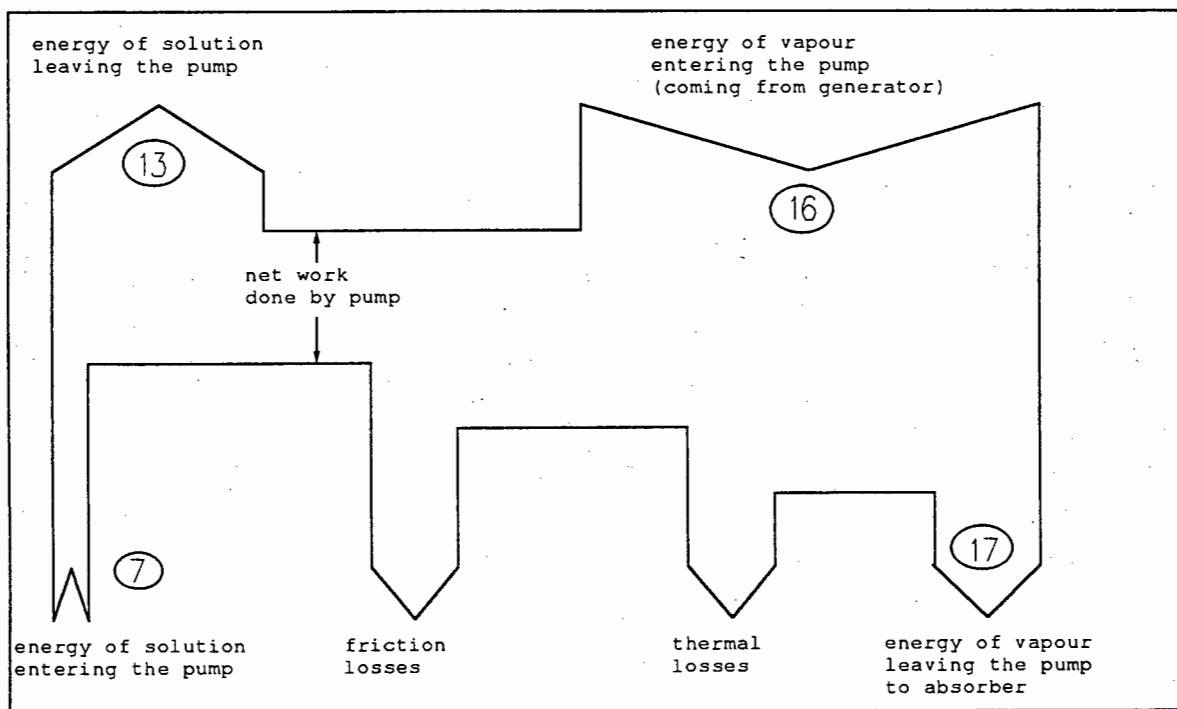


Figure 3.4 Energy balance of the vapour pump

by conservation of mass

$$\dot{m}_{16} = \dot{m}_{17} = \dot{m}_v \quad (\text{vapour})$$

$$\dot{m}_7 = \dot{m}_{13} = \dot{m}_s \quad (\text{solution})$$

by conservation of energy

$$\dot{m}_v h_{16} + \dot{m}_s h_7 = \dot{m}_v h_{17} + \dot{m}_s h_{13} + Q_{fric} + Q_{thermal}$$

$$\dot{m}_v [h_{16} - h_{17}] = \dot{m}_s [h_{13} - h_7] + Q_{fric} + Q_{thermal}$$

$$\dot{m}_v [h_{16} - h_{17}] = W_{pump} + Q_{fric} + Q_{thermal}$$

The specific enthalpies  $h_7$ ,  $h_{13}$  and  $h_{16}$  can be evaluated since at those states two thermodynamic properties (pressure and temperature or temperature and concentration) are known. This is not the case with the exhaust vapour 17; here only the pressure can be assumed to be that of the absorber. The thermal and frictional losses are equally difficult to quantify.

### 3.4 Cycle analysis

Thermodynamic properties of the relevant streams around the vapour pump are summarised in table 3.1. The indices refer to those given in figure 3.1

pressure	$P_{16} = P_h$ $P_{17} = P_l$
temperature	$T_{16} = T_{11}$
enthalpy	$h_{16} = h_{11}$
mass flow rate	$m_{16} = m_{17}$ $m_7 = m_{13} = m_{10}$ $m_8 = m_9 = m_{14}$ $m_1 = m_6$
concentration	$Y_{16} = Y_{11} = Y_{17}$ $x_8 = x_9 = x_{14} = x_{we}$ $x_7 = x_{13} = x_{10} = x_{st}$

Table 3.1 Cycle analysis around the vapour pump

'x' = liquid ammonia concentration [ $m_{NH_3}/m_{tot(lig)}$ ]

'y' = vapour ammonia concentration [ $m_{NH_3}/m_{tot(vap)}$ ]

'we' denotes weak solution

'st' denotes strong solution

mass balance at generator:

total:  $m_{16} + m_{11} + m_8 = m_{12} + m_{10} = m_{12} + m_7$

and  $m_{11} - m_{12} = m_1$

$\Rightarrow m_{16} + m_1 + m_8 = m_7$  ----- (3.1)

ammonia:  $Y_{16}m_{16} + Y_{11}m_{11} + x_8m_8 = x_{12}m_{12} + x_{10}m_{10}$

$Y_{11}m_{16} + Y_{11}m_{11} + x_{we}m_8 = x_{12}m_{12} + x_{st}m_7$

and  $Y_{11}m_{11} - x_{12}m_{12} = Y_1m_1$

$$\Rightarrow Y_{11}m_{16} + Y_1m_1 + X_{we}m_8 = X_{st}m_7$$

substituting (3.1) for  $m_7$

$$Y_{11}m_{16} + Y_1m_1 + X_{we}m_8 = X_{st}(m_{16} + m_1 + m_8)$$

$$m_8(X_{we} - X_{st}) = m_1(X_{st} - Y_1) + m_{16}(X_{st} - Y_{11})$$

$$m_8 = \frac{m_1(X_{st} - Y_1) + m_{16}(X_{st} - Y_{11})}{(X_{we} - X_{st})} \text{-----} (3.2)$$

mass balance at absorber:

total:  $m_{17} + m_{14} + m_6 = m_7$

$$m_{16} + m_8 + m_1 = m_7$$

$$\Rightarrow m_7 - m_{16} - m_1 = m_8 \text{-----} (3.3)$$

ammonia:  $Y_{17}m_{17} + X_{14}m_{14} + Y_6m_6 = X_7m_7$

$$Y_{11}m_{16} + X_{we}m_8 + Y_1m_1 = X_{st}m_7$$

substituting (3.3) for  $m_8$

$$Y_{11}m_{16} + X_{we}(m_7 - m_{16} - m_1) + Y_1m_1 = X_{st}m_7$$

$$m_7(X_{st} - X_{we}) = m_1(Y_1 - X_{we}) + m_{16}(Y_{11} - X_{we})$$

$$m_7 = \frac{m_1(Y_1 - X_{we}) + m_{16}(Y_{11} - X_{we})}{(X_{st} - X_{we})} \text{-----} (3.4)$$

The coefficient of performance (COP) becomes

$$COP = \frac{\text{Refrigeration Effect}}{\text{Heat Input}} = \frac{RE}{Q_{gen}}$$

$$COP = \frac{RE}{(Q_1 + Q_8 + Q_{16} - Q_{10})}$$

$$COP = \frac{RE}{(m_1 h_1 + m_8 h_8 + m_{16} h_{16} - m_7 h_{10})} \text{ ----- (3.5)}$$

The concentration of the strong solution is determined by the pressure and temperature of the absorber. The concentration of the weak solution is determined by the pressure and temperature of the generator. For a fixed set of pressure and temperature conditions, the solution concentrations remain unchanged, irrespective of the type of pump. Introducing an extra amount of refrigerant into the cycle means that a corresponding extra amount of solution has to be circulated between the absorber and generator. The solution flow rates are thus bigger when compared to a cycle with an electrical pump at the same pressures and temperatures.



## CHAPTER 4

### 4 Design of the vapour pump

The vapour pump was designed for experimentation in the Mechanical Engineering Department's absorption refrigeration machine, which at time of the design operated with R22-E181 as working fluids.

#### 4.1 The type of pump

The pump suggested is a double acting positive displacement piston pump. An alternative possible solution briefly considered is a centrifugal pump coupled to one or even two turbines. One turbine would be powered by a fraction of the high pressure vapour mixture, the second one by the flow of the weak solution streaming pressure driven from the generator to the absorber. Purely rotational motion has the added advantage that the driving flow has never to be reversed. However, the flow rates in refrigeration machines of around 1 kW, as the one used for the experiments, are of the order of 1 g/sec. It was felt that with such small flow rates a turbine could not practically be driven. In much larger industrial plants with greater flow rates and pipe sizes the idea might be worth considering. In the case of a positive displacement pump, the small flow rate is of no concern as the pistons are driven by the static pressure difference across them, rather than by the flow momentum. A piston pump with minimal clearance on the suction side, to minimise the likelihood of cavitation, seemed the best prospect for the 1 kW experimental refrigeration plant.

## 4.2 Force analysis

Consider figure 4.1. The forces acting to the right  $F_r$

$$F_r = \frac{1}{4} \pi D_s^2 P_l + \frac{1}{4} \pi [D_v^2 - D_s^2] P_h + \frac{1}{4} \pi [D_v^2 - D_r^2] P_h$$

Forces acting to the left  $F_l$

$$F_l = \frac{1}{4} \pi D_s^2 P_h + \frac{1}{4} \pi [D_v^2 - D_s^2] P_l + \frac{1}{4} \pi [D_v^2 - D_r^2] P_l + F_{sp}$$

Net force to the right  $F_{net} = F_r - F_l$

$$F_{net} = \frac{1}{4} \pi [2 D_v^2 - 2 D_s^2 - D_r^2] \Delta P - F_{sp} \text{ ----- (4.1)}$$

where  $F_{sp}$  = spring force

$$\Delta P = P_h - P_l$$

Alternatively, the driving force exerted by the vapour  $F_{vap}$

$$F_{vap} = \frac{1}{4} \pi [2 D_v^2 - D_s^2 - D_r^2] \Delta P \text{ ----- (4.2)}$$

the resistive force exerted by the liquid  $F_{sol}$

$$F_{sol} = \frac{1}{4} \pi D_s^2 \Delta P \text{ ----- (4.3)}$$

and the net force  $F_{net} = F_{vap} - F_{sol} - F_{sp}$  yields the same result as (4.1)

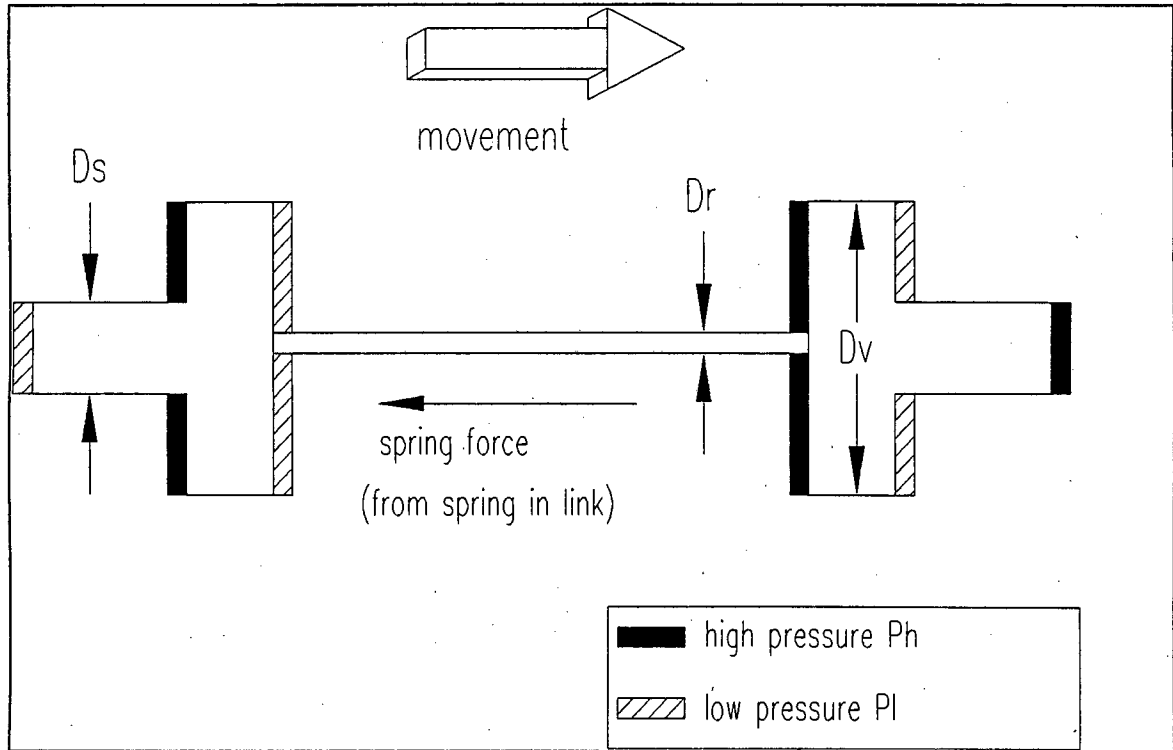


Figure 4.1 Pressure forces acting on the pistons

#### 4.3 The spring force and spring plunger

With reference to the description of the vapour pump in Chapter 3; 'spring plunger' is the spring-pressured ball mechanism to hold the control shaft in position for the duration of the stroke; 'spring' refers to the horizontal spring in the link mechanism. Information on spring plungers is given in appendix F. At the end of the pump stroke the spring must be compressed to such an extent that it exerts a force on the control shaft just big enough to release the spring plunger. Two grooves in the control shaft, separated by one stroke length, correspond to the two allowed rest positions of the shaft. Not only must the compressed spring release the spring plunger, but it must then push the control shaft into the other rest position, one stroke length away. It can be assumed that the spring plunger only resists motion when resting in the grooves.

Its friction on the smooth shaft surface between the two grooves is negligible. The stiffness of the spring has to be such that the spring force only manages to release the spring plunger when compressed by an amount equal or just less than the stroke length. The link mechanism includes an adjustable spring holder to enable fine tuning of the extent of precompression of the spring.

A M8 (WDS No 606-2708) spring plunger was selected. The spring plunger spring exerts a force of 30 N on the 5 mm diameter ball; the groove has a depth of 1.5 mm. The corresponding spring force required is calculated as follows. It is assumed that when the spring pulls the shaft, then the ball exerts a reaction to the top edge of the groove (see figure 4.2).

From figure 4.2

$$\begin{aligned} \sin \gamma &= 1 / 2.5 \\ \Rightarrow \gamma &= 23.578^\circ \\ \tan \gamma &= F_{\text{lift}} / F_{\text{spring}} \\ \Rightarrow F_{\text{spring}} &= F_{\text{lift}} / \tan \gamma \end{aligned}$$

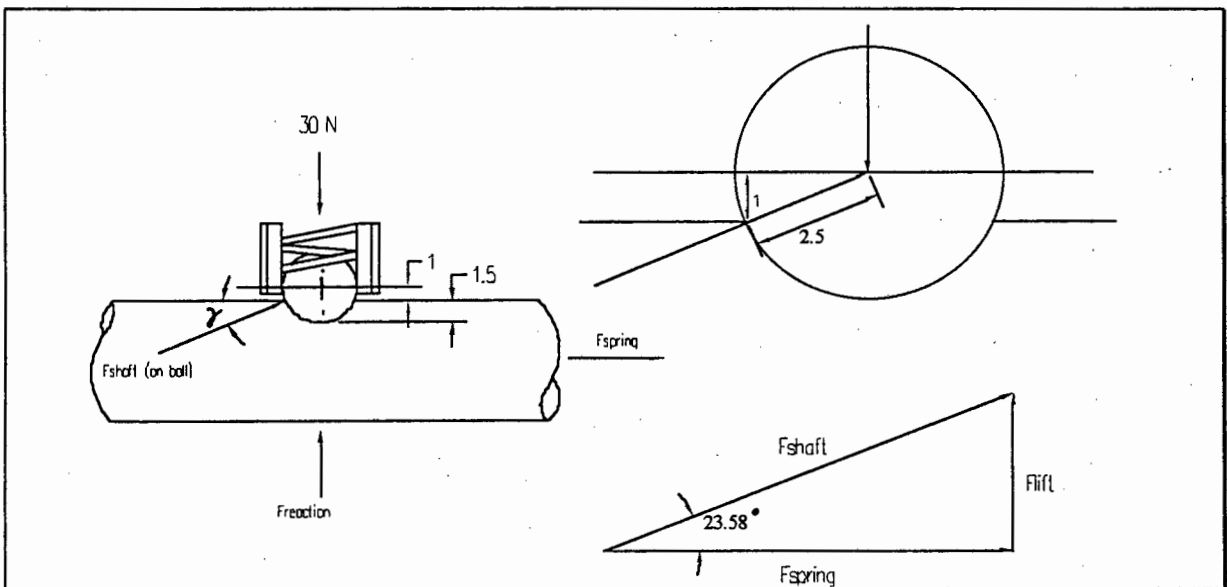


Figure 4.2 Force analysis on the spring plunger

To release the spring plunger, the spring must induce a lift force bigger or equal to 30 N.

$$F_{\text{spring}} \geq 30 / \tan \gamma \quad [\text{N}]$$

$$\Rightarrow F_0 + kx \geq 30 / \tan(23.578)$$

$$\Rightarrow F_0 + kx \geq 68.7 \text{ N}$$

where  $F_0$  = initial force if spring  
is precompressed  
 $k$  = spring stiffness [N/mm]  
 $x$  = displacement from rest  
position

for  $F_0 = 0$  and  $x = L$  (stroke length) = 25mm

$$kL \geq 68.7$$

$$\Rightarrow k \geq 68.7 / 25 \text{ [N/mm]}$$

$$\Rightarrow k \geq 2.75 \text{ N/mm}$$

The required stiffness of the spring in the link mechanism can be reduced by precompressing the spring. A detailed spring design is presented in the following section.

#### 4.3.1 Detailed spring design

The load profile for which the spring has to be designed is displayed in figure 4.3. It has previously been shown that an axial force of about 70 N is required to release the spring plunger. A minimum force of 5 N is chosen to ensure that the spring is in compression at all times. From the

space available, the corresponding lengths of the spring are specified to be 30 mm and 55 mm, the difference between them being the stroke length (25 mm).

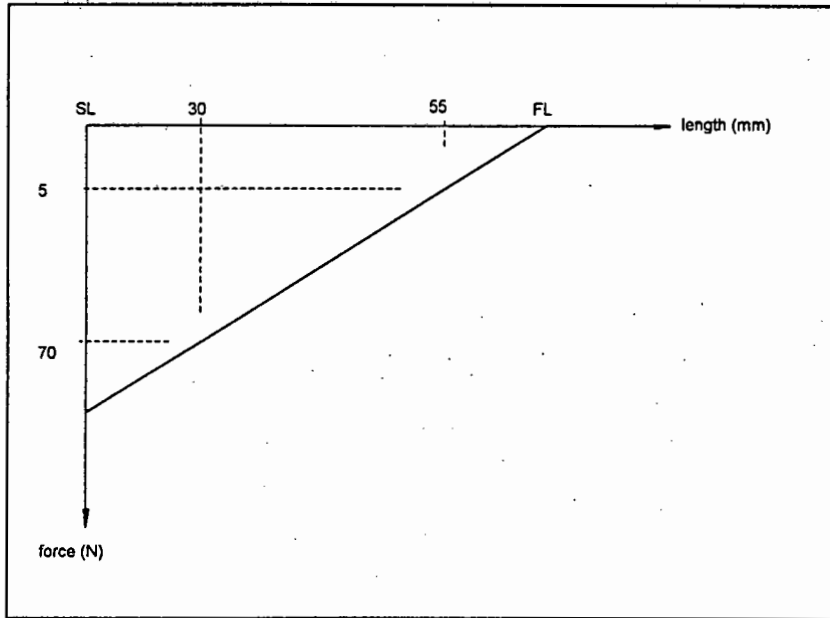


Figure 4.3 The spring load profile

The design procedure is outlined by Shigley [19]. For helical coil compression springs the spring has to be designed against failure in shear and for fatigue. Therefor the maximum shear stress ( $\tau_{max}$ ) has to be smaller than the yield shear stress ( $S_{sy}$ ) and the alternating shear stress ( $\tau_a$ ) has to be smaller than the endurance limit ( $S_{se}$ ). Thus

$$\tau_{max} < S_{sy} \quad \text{----- (4.4)}$$

$$\tau_a < S_{se} \quad \text{----- (4.5)}$$

The shear stress is found by

$$\tau = \frac{8 F C K}{\pi d^2} \quad \text{----- (4.6)}$$

where

F is the axial force. From the load profile  $F_{\max} = 70$  N and the alternating force  $F_a = 0.5 (F_{\max} - F_{\min}) = 32.5$  N

C is the spring index

$$C = \frac{D}{d} \quad \text{----- (4.7)}$$

where D equals the mean outer diameter and d the wire diameter.

K is the Wahl stress correction factor found by

$$K = \frac{4C-1}{4C-4} + \frac{0.615}{C} \quad \text{----- (4.8)}$$

Shigley gives the shear yield stress as a fraction of the tensile yield stress ( $S_y$ )

$$S_{sy} = 0.577 S_y \quad \text{----- (4.9)}$$

and

$$S_y = 0.75 S_{ut} = 0.75 \frac{A}{d^m} \quad \text{----- (4.10)}$$

where from Shigley [19] (table 10.2)  $A = 2160$  MPa and exponent  $m = 0.145$  for cold drawn BS 5216 grade 4 carbon steel.

The endurance limit (for infinite life) is given by Shigley as  $S''_{se} = 310$  MPa for unpeened springs. This result accounts for surface finish and size but needs to be corrected for reliability, temperature and stress concentration.

$$S_{se} = k_c k_d k_e S''_{se} \quad \text{----- (4.11)}$$

and the reliability factor  $k_c = 0.897$  for 90% reliability (Shigley, table 7.7), the temperature factor  $k_d = 1$  for  $T < 350$  °C and  $k_e = 1$  for no stress concentrations.

The spring rate or stiffness ( $k$ ) is found from the load profile:

$$k = \frac{\Delta F}{\Delta y} = \frac{65}{25} = 2.6 \left\langle \frac{N}{mm} \right\rangle \quad \text{----- (4.12)}$$

Now the number of active coils can be found by

$$N = \frac{dG}{8C^3 k} \quad \text{----- (4.13)}$$

where  $G$  is the shear modulus of elasticity (79.3 GPa for steel) and  $k$  the spring rate.

For squared and ground ends the total number of coils equals  $N_t = N + 2$ , and the solid length is given by  $SL = (N + 2) \cdot d$ . The free length (FL) is easily calculated from the slope of the load profile. In this case  $FL = 56.92$  mm. The outer diameter is calculated by  $OD = D + d$  and the inner diameter by  $ID = D - d$ .



Finally the spring must be checked for buckling stability and spring surge. For buckling stability the ratio of deflection to free length must not exceed a certain value which depends upon the ratio of free length to mean diameter. Spring surging occurs when the forced oscillation is too close to the natural frequency of the spring. The natural frequency is given by

$$f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{4\pi} \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}} \quad \text{----- (4.14)}$$

for a spring placed between two flat parallel plates.  $k$  is the spring rate and  $m$  the mass of the helical spring found by

$$m = Al\rho = \frac{\pi d^2}{4} (\pi d N) (\rho) = \frac{\pi^2 d^2 D N \rho}{4} \quad \text{--- (4.15)}$$

All of the above equations and information was stored in a spreadsheet. The procedure was to vary the spring index (C) and the wire diameter (d) such that all conditions were satisfied. The results are tabulated below (table 4.1).

Material: BS 5216 grade 4, cold drawn carbon steel

spring index C	9	$F_{\max}$ [N]	70
mean D [mm]	16.2	$F_{\min}$ [N]	5
d [mm]	1.8	shear yield stress [MPa]	858
rate k [N/mm]	2.6	max shear stress [MPa]	575 safe
ends	squared ground	shear endurance [MPa]	278
active coils N	9.41	alt. shear stress [MPa]	267 safe
total coils Nt	11.41	buckling: FL/D	3.51
ID [mm]	14.4	def/FL	0.47 safe
OD [mm]	18	natural frequency [Hz]	41.64
solid length [mm]	20.54	forced frequency [Hz]	0.2 safe
free length [mm]	56.92		

Table 4.1 Spring design details

#### 4.4 Volume being processed

The volume that is displaced per stroke of length L

$$V = \frac{1}{4} \pi D_s^2 L$$

then for a return stroke frequency of f the flow rate equals

$$Q = 2 f \frac{1}{4} \pi D_s^2 L$$

$$Q = \frac{1}{2} f \pi D_s^2 L \text{ ----- (4.16)}$$

the corresponding mass flow rate

$$\dot{m} = \rho_{sol} Q \text{ ----- (4.17)}$$

where  $\rho_{sol}$  = density of the solution

#### 4.5 Flow rate of vapour through the pump

Volume of vapour passing through pump per stroke L

$$V = \frac{1}{4} \left[ [D_v^2 - D_r^2] + [D_v^2 - D_s^2] \right] L$$

the flow rate for pump frequency f

$$Q = \frac{1}{2} f [2D_v^2 - D_s^2 - D_r^2] L \text{ ----- (4.18)}$$

the mass flow rate of vapour

$$\dot{m} = \rho_{vap} Q \text{ ----- (4.19)}$$

The vapour passing through the pump is more than 95% ammonia (or more than 99% R22 if the R22- E181 combination is used). Vicatos [24] has developed a polynomial that evaluates the specific volume of superheated ammonia vapour as a function of pressure and temperature ( $1/\rho = v = f(P,T)$ ). Details of this are given in appendix B.

#### 4.6 Sizing the pump

The liquid piston side diameter was chosen as  $D_s = 20$  mm. The stroke length was selected to be  $L = 25$  mm. With 25 mm stroke length of the control shaft there is sufficient space in the control mechanism to install the sealing rings (section 4.12). The vapour side piston diameter is calculated as follows. The main obstacle to overcome is the difficulty in quantifying the losses of the pump (refer to figure 3.4). The thermal heat loss, energy loss due to friction between stationary and moving parts and the energy

content of the exhaust vapour remain unknown and varying quantities. The heat loss can be reduced by insulation; friction depends upon the type of seals used and lubrication. The general approach is to group these unquantified losses together and account for them by introducing a safety factor (sf). The approach is based upon the principle that the vapour driving force exceeds the solution resisting force by that safety factor.

$$sf = 10$$

$$F_{vap} = sf F_{sol}$$

from equations (4.2) and (4.3)

$$\frac{\pi}{4}(2D_v^2 - D_s^2 - D_r^2)\Delta P = sf \frac{\pi}{4}D_s^2 \Delta P$$

and solving for  $D_v$  yields

$$D_v = \sqrt{\frac{(sf + 1)D_s^2 + D_r^2}{2}} \quad \text{----- (4.20)}$$

where the diameter of the rod ( $D_r$ ) was chosen to be 8mm.

$$D_v = 47.2 \text{ mm}$$

select

$$D_v = 50 \text{ mm}$$

#### 4.7 The pump frequency

'f' denotes the pump frequency and is defined as the number of return strokes per second. Using equation (4.16) and (4.17) and solving for the frequency yields:

$$f = \frac{2 m v}{\pi L D_s^2} \text{-----} (4.21)$$

where  $v = 1/\phi$

#### 4.8 The pump efficiency

The work that the pump delivers to the system equals

$$W_{out} = \Delta P \Delta V = \Delta P \frac{m_7}{\rho_7} \text{-----} (4.22)$$

and similarly the work going into the pump

$$W_i = \Delta P \Delta V = \Delta P \frac{m_{16}}{\rho_{16}} \text{-----} (4.23)$$

and the efficiency is then evaluated by

$$\eta = \frac{W_{out}}{W_i} = \frac{m_7 \rho_{16}}{m_{16} \rho_7} \text{-----} (4.24)$$

Alternatively, the efficiency can be found by

$$\eta = \frac{W_{out}}{Q_{16}} = \frac{\Delta P m_7}{\rho_7 m_{16} h_{16}} \text{-----} (4.25)$$

Equation (4.25) yields a lower efficiency than equation (4.24).  $W_i$  represents the net energy supplied to the pump while  $Q_{16}$  is the total energy going to the pump via stream 16. Equation (4.24) thus accounts for thermal and friction losses, whereas equation (4.25) incorporates the energy loss associated with stream 17. Equation (4.25) gives the overall pump efficiency, equation (4.24) gives the efficiency of energy transfer inside the pump.

#### 4.9 The control cylinder

The control mechanism serves the purpose of directing the incoming and exhaust vapour into the correct channels. The general principle of operation has already been discussed in section 3.2.

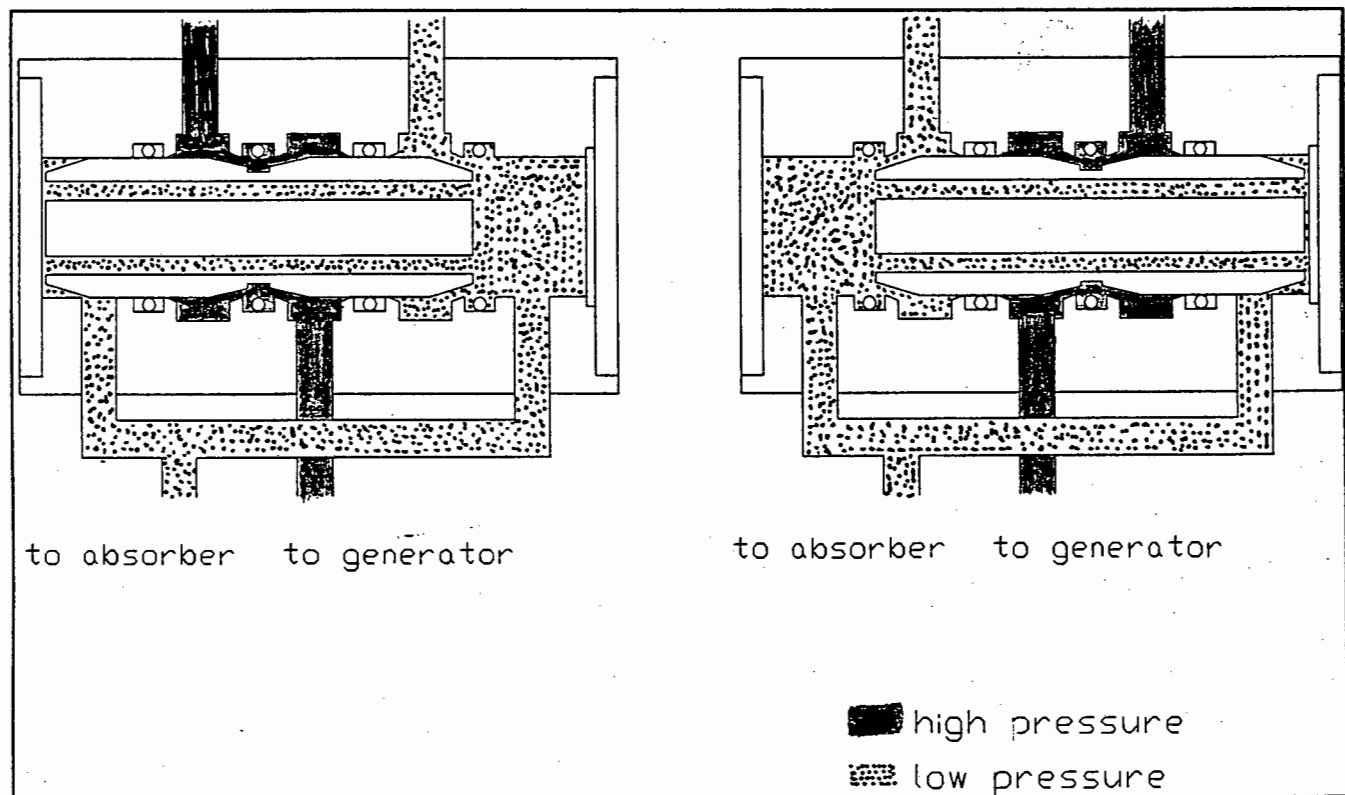


Figure 4.4 Operation of the control mechanism

Assembly drawings are shown in figure 3.3a and 3.3b; appendix D gives detailed drawings. At the end of each stroke both the high pressure vapour and exhaust vapour has to be redirected. This is achieved by interchanging the high pressure and exhaust lines. Two lines are required between control cylinder and pump. Each line has one connection (port) to the control cylinder and one for each of the pump cylinders. The control cylinder has one incoming line from the generator and two outlet ports that lead to the absorber. The movement of the control shaft is provided by the movement of the pump shaft through the spring mounted coupling mechanism. Figure 4.4 depicts the operation of the control mechanism. The figure only shows how the profile of the cylinder core allows for the channelling of the high pressure and exhaust streams, and should be seen in conjunction with figure 3.3a/b. The O-ring seals cannot be placed onto the control core, because O-rings in dynamic applications cannot safely pass over a port. Instead the seals are housed in the control cylinder. The regions of either side of the core are connected to prevent resistance to the movement of the control core due to compression. This is done by passages through the core itself.

#### **4.10 Material selection**

The control cylinder -core and pump cylinder -piston pair, pump ends and pump caps are specified to be made from stainless steel. The reason for this is twofold:

- To prevent surface damage by impurities in the system.

- The cylinder-core and cylinder-piston pairs need to be of the same material to ensure that the clearance gaps remain unchanged during thermal expansion.

Mild steel is specified for most other parts, where tight tolerancing is not essential (link mechanism, control cap). The bushes for both shafts ~~are~~<sup>were</sup> made from brass.

#### 4.11 Strength calculations

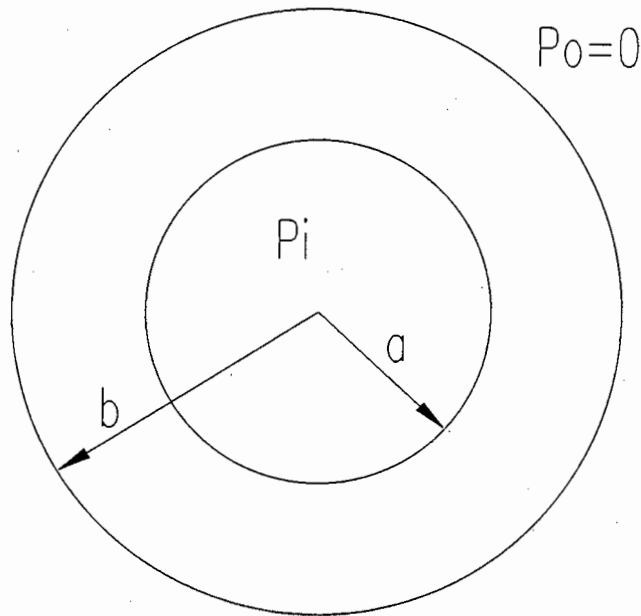
##### a) Cylinder wall thickness

Thick-walled cylinder theory (Shigley [19]) yields the following:

$$\text{tangential stress: } \sigma_t = \frac{a^2 P_i}{b^2 - a^2} \left(1 + \frac{b^2}{r^2}\right) \quad \text{----- (4.26)}$$

$$\text{radial stress: } \sigma_r = \frac{a^2 P_i}{b^2 - a^2} \left(1 - \frac{b^2}{r^2}\right) \quad \text{----- (4.27)}$$





for zero external pressure. The maximum stresses occur at the inner surface, where  $r = a$ . Their magnitudes are obtained by substituting  $a$  for  $r$  in equations (4.26) and (4.27).

$$\sigma_{tmax} = p_i \frac{b^2 + a^2}{b^2 - a^2} \text{ ----- (4.28)}$$

$$\sigma_{rmax} = -p_i \text{ ----- (4.29)}$$

In case of the pump  $a = 25$  mm,  $b = 35$  mm and  $p_i = 10$  bar. Then  $\sigma_{tmax} = 3.08$  MPa and  $\sigma_{rmax} = -1$  Mpa. Stainless steel has an ultimate tensile strength of more than 500 MPa, therefore strength plays no role in specifying the cylinder wall thickness. The cylinder wall has to be of the oversized thickness to accommodate the threaded piping connections.

b) Bolt stresses in end pieces

Pump cap bolts:

Maximum force acting on bolts:  $F = P A$

$$F = 10 \cdot 10^5 \cdot \pi/4 \cdot 0.022^2 \text{ [N]}$$

$$F = 380.13 \text{ N}$$

the stress in each of the six 4 mm bolts:

$$\sigma = (F/6) / A$$

$$\sigma = 63.36 / (\pi/4 \cdot 0.004^2) \text{ [Pa]}$$

$$\sigma = 5.04 \text{ MPa} \Rightarrow \text{safe}$$

Cylinder lid bolts:

Maximum force acting on bolts:  $F = P A$

$$F = 3 \cdot 10^5 \cdot \pi/4 \cdot 0.064^2 \text{ [N]}$$

$$F = 965.10 \text{ N}$$

the stress in each of the six 4 mm bolts:

$$\sigma = (F/6) / A$$

$$\sigma = 160.8 / (\pi/4 \cdot 0.004^2) \text{ [Pa]}$$

$$\sigma = 12.8 \text{ MPa} \Rightarrow \text{safe}$$

c) Strength of pump shaft

For a yield stress of 300 N/mm<sup>2</sup> the maximum axial force that can safely be transmitted through the 8mm shaft equals

$$F = \sigma_y A = 300 \pi/4 \cdot 8^2 = 15079.6 \text{ N} \Rightarrow \text{safe}$$

The forces involved are significantly smaller than this (see the simulation results in appendix G). Buckling is very unlikely to occur because the shaft is guided in bushes and supported by the clamping mechanism. Buckling would be most likely to occur between the two pumping cylinders. Ignoring the clamping, the force at which buckling occurs is given by:

$$\text{Euler buckling } F = \frac{\pi^2 E I}{l_k^2}$$

For the end conditions in this case  $l_k = \frac{1}{2} l$  (Dubbel [8]).

length  $l = 125 \text{ mm}$

modulus of elasticity  $E = 200 \text{ GPa}$

moment of inertia  $I = \pi d^4/64$

Substituting in above equation yields:

$F = 101601 \text{ N}$  at which buckling begins  $\Rightarrow$  safe

#### 4.12 Sealing of the pump

The sealing of the pump and control mechanism is complicated by the fact that the working fluids involved attack normal nitrile rubber seals. In static applications deterioration might not be severe or occur rapidly, but in dynamic uses, such as the pumping pistons, nitrile rubber seals can not be used. It is especially the tetraethylene glycol dimethyl ether (E181) that from past experiments [24] is known to be harmful to standard rubber seals. Initially it was intended to use teflon seals, teflon being a material that is safe to use with R22 and E181. Experts

in the field, however, warn that teflon is too static a seal to effectively seal the volatile R22. Teflon has a low resistance to permanent deformation and any dent or other slight misfit in shape becomes a permanent problem which leads to leakage. Rubber seals have an excellent resistance to permanent deformation. Nitrile and neoprene seals have caused problems before. Viton is resistant to R22 and E181 but is not suitable for dynamic uses. Ethylene propylene (EPDM) seals on the other hand can be operated in the -40 to 160 °C temperature range, have excellent resistance to permanent deformation and can be used with ozone, atmospheric agents, ketones and diluted acids. A piece of EPDM has been soaked in E181 for days and shows no sign of any adverse effects. It was decided to use EPDM seals in the pump. For the double acting pistons either quad- or O-rings have to be used (the quad-ring is similar to a back to back lipseal). For the relatively low pressures involved (<10 bar), the use of O-rings is suggested. The oily nature of the E181 provides lubrication of the O-rings. Seal specifications are given in appendix E.

#### **4.9 Simulation of the vapour pump**

Vicatos [24] has developed a computer program that simulates and optimises the conventional absorption refrigeration cycle, operating with ammonia and water. It requires the evaporator and sink temperatures as input, then determines all relevant thermodynamic properties (such as temperature, pressure, concentration, enthalpy) of the working fluids at every stage of the cycle. A complete simulation is produced by a similar program in which the heat effects of the components, the refrigeration effect and the coefficient of performance is evaluated for varying generator temperature. In other words, for a certain set

of temperature conditions (evaporator & sink), the program predicts the coefficient of performance as a function of the generator temperature.

A routine is incorporated into the original model simulation to include the vapour pump. Its main function is to calculate the pump's stroke frequency and the mass flow rates of the vapour (16) and solution (7) stream. From this the work input and output and efficiency can be determined. The flow chart in figure 4.5 shows how the subroutine functions. The simulation model evaluates all pressures and temperatures and the solution flow rate for the electrical pump as a first estimate. Then the vapour pump subroutine is called to evaluate the amount of vapour ( $m_{16}$ ) required to deliver the solution flow rate ( $m_7$ ). An extra amount of absorbent is required to absorb the vapour, that is driving the pump. Hence the solution flow rate  $m_7$  has to be re-evaluated. The value predicted for the vapour flow rate  $m_{16}$  is fed to equation (3.4) to obtain a corrected value of the solution flow rate  $m_7$ . These calculations are iterated within a loop until convergence of the solution flow rate  $m_7$  occurs. Then the work input, work output and pump efficiency is calculated using equations (4.22) to (4.25). The forces on the pistons are determined by equations (4.1) to (4.3). Finally, the COP is evaluated by equation (3.5).

The complete program, amended to accommodate the vapour pump, is listed in appendix A.

The pump subroutine goes through the following steps:

a) The density of the solution (7) is evaluated. The ammonia and water specific volumes are determined by polynomials; then the mixture specific volume is found by knowing its concentration.

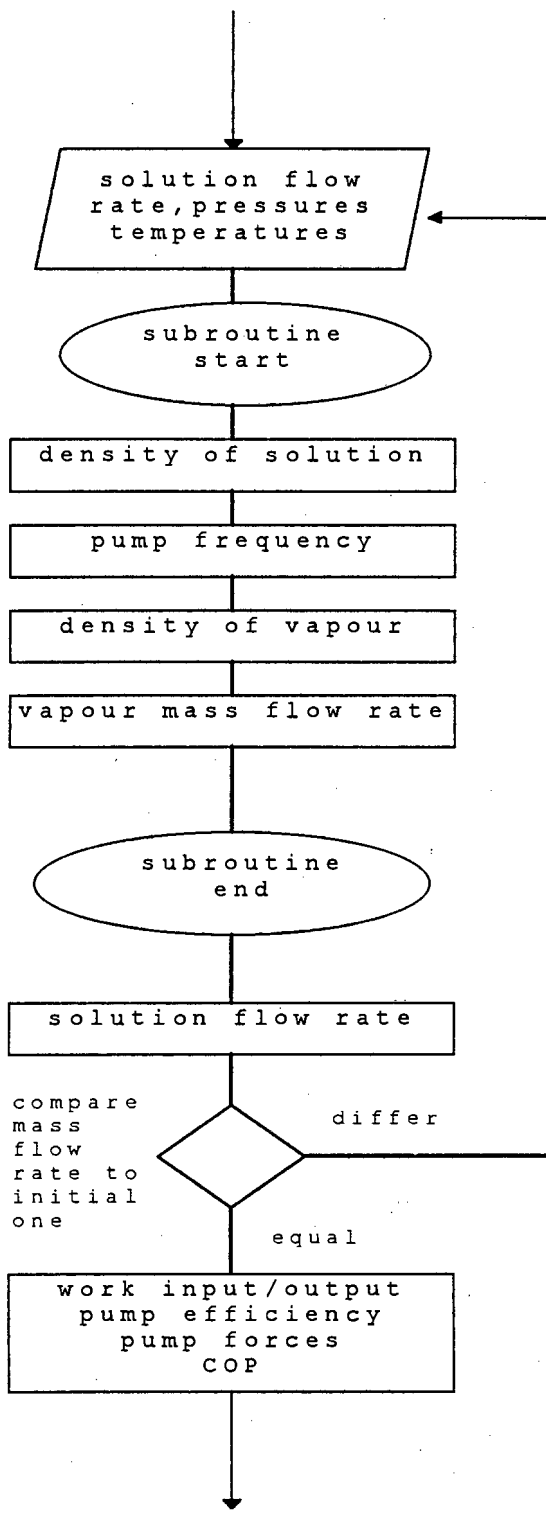
b) The pump frequency is evaluated using equation (4.21).

c) The density of the high pressure hot vapour (16) is evaluated as a function of pressure and temperature.

d) The mass flow rate  $m_{16}$  is now calculated. Using equation (4.18) in (4.19) yields:

$$m_{16} = \frac{1}{2} \rho_{vap} f [ 2D_v^2 - D_s^2 - D_r^2 ] L \quad \text{----- (4.30)}$$

e) The corrected flow rate  $m_7$  is determined by equation (3.4) within an iterative loop.



**Figure 4.5**  
Vapour pump subroutine

## CHAPTER 5

### 5 Pump behaviour as predicted by computer simulation

The simulation was run with varying operating conditions to investigate how they affect pump operation and cycle performance. Operating conditions refer to the generator, evaporator and sink (absorber and condenser) temperatures. The working conditions of the unit were adjusted such that the evaporator would receive a refrigerant flow rate to produce 1kW of cooling capacity in each case. The trends that emerged are shown in the following.

#### 5.1 Varying generator temperature with constant evaporator and sink temperatures for cycle with an electric pump and for cycle with a vapour pump:

Figure 5.1 shows that the coefficient of performance changes with the generator (operating) temperature. For both the electrical and the vapour pump there is a minimum operating temperature  $T_{Gmin}$  for which COP becomes zero; then with increasing generator temperature the COP increases until it reaches a maximum; thereafter the <sup>COP</sup>~~Cop~~ drops off with increasing temperature.



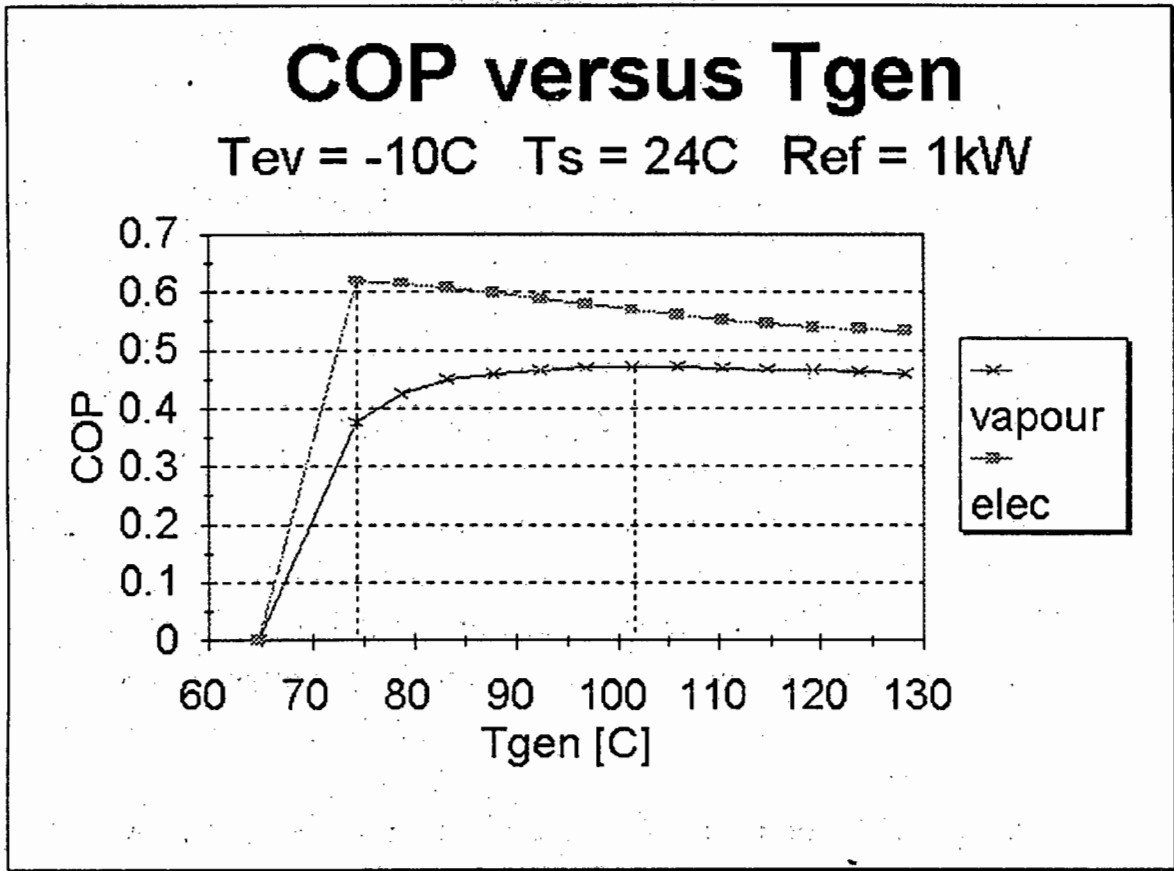


Figure 5.1

For generator temperatures ( $T_{gen}$ ) less or equal to  $T_{Gmin}$  no vapour will be liberated from the solution and thus no refrigeration takes place. The minimum generator temperature ( $T_{Gmin}$ ) is the saturation temperature of the strong solution at the high (generator) pressure. For  $T_{gen}$  equal to  $T_{Gmin}$  the weak solution leaving the generator has the same temperature and concentration as the strong solution entering the generator. Hence, heat is solely transferred from the generator to the absorber with zero flow rate through the evaporator. With increasing  $T_{gen}$  more vapour boils off the solution, increasing the refrigeration effect. The maximum COP is reached at the optimum operating temperature ( $T_{gopt}$ ). The COP drops with further increasing  $T_{gen}$ . Vicatos [24] names various reasons for this reduction of COP:

- ◆ The irreversibility of the processes increases with temperature.
- ◆ Increasing amounts of absorbent are liberated in the generator, which have to be removed in the distillation column.
- ◆ At solution temperatures close to the water boiling point inert gasses (nitrogen) form by dissociation of ammonia. The presence of inert gasses in the evaporator decreases the refrigeration effect. This effect becomes especially significant in the water-ammonia system at temperature in the region of 170 C.

There are two distinct differences between the electrical pump case and the vapour pump case. Generally, for the vapour pump the coefficient of performance is less and the maximum COP occurs at a higher generator temperature. Both these trends were expected, as is explained in the following.

For the same refrigeration effect more heat energy has to be supplied to the system in the case of the vapour pump, thus reducing the COP. To understand why the optimum operating temperature is higher for the vapour pump the flow rates  $m_7$ ,  $m_8$  and  $m_{16}$  have to be considered. With the generator temperature increasing the weak solution concentration decreases. And according to equations (3.2) and (3.4) this decreases the solution flow rates as the difference between strong and weak solution concentration increases. This trend is confirmed by the figures 5.2 and 5.3. The flow rates  $m_7$  and  $m_{16}$  decrease exponentially with increasing generator temperature.

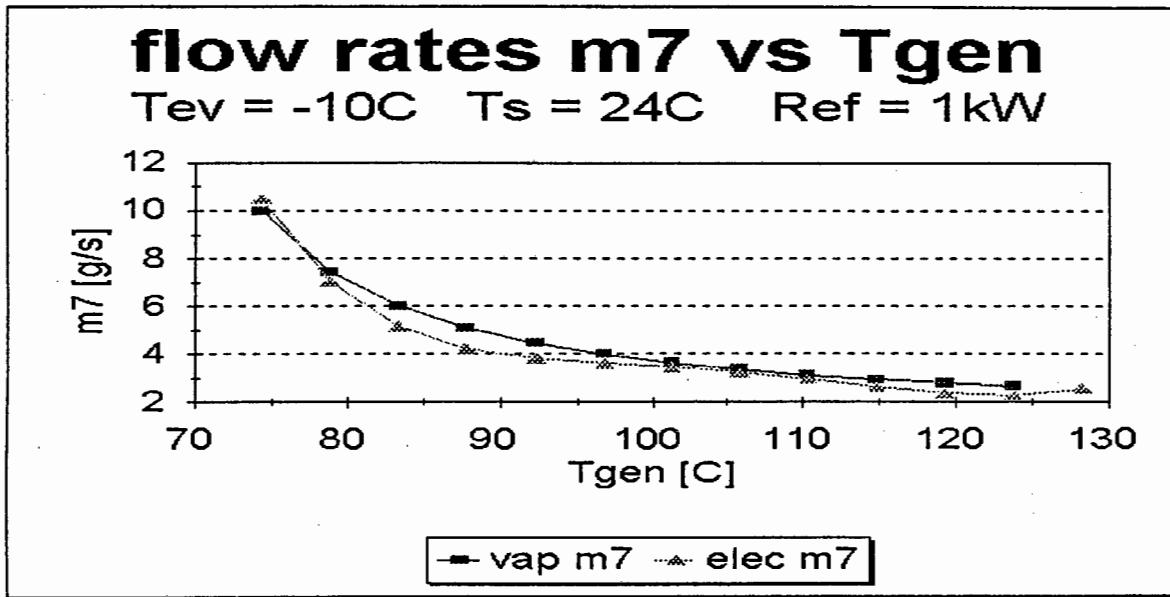


Figure 5.2

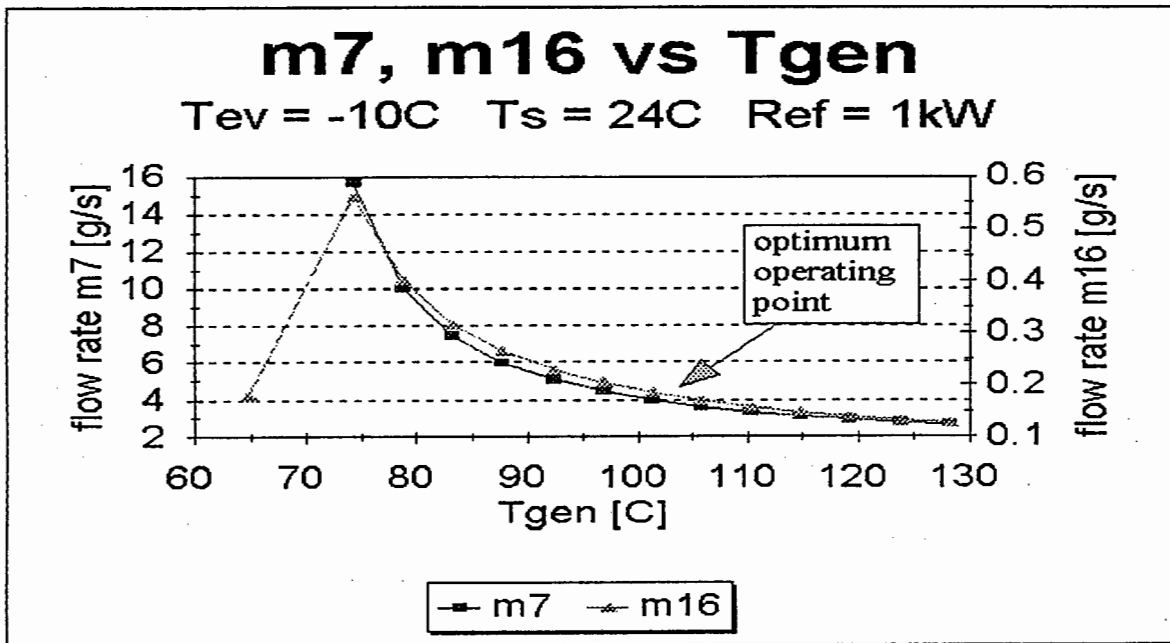


Figure 5.3

Decreased flow rates (m8, m7, m16) mean that less energy has to be supplied to the generator and vapour pump. Therefore the COP increases.

To summarise: Increasing the generator temperature means a decrease in flow rates of weak solution m8, strong

solution  $m_7$  and of the vapour  $m_{16}$  to drive the pump and this, in turn, results in lower heat input to the generator. The COP increases with generator temperature until the adverse effects (irreversibility etc.) become dominant. For the vapour pump the flow rates  $m_7$  and  $m_8$  are higher when compared to the electrical pump because of the additional flow rate of the vapour stream  $m_{16}$  (equation (3.1)) (figure 5.2). And with increased flow rates it pays more to reduce them by increasing the generator temperature. For this reason the optimum generator temperature is higher for the vapour pump when compared to the electric pump (figure 5.1). This concludes the argument.

The stroke frequency follows closely the  $m_7$  and  $m_{16}$  mass flow trends as is reflected in figure 5.4. Changing the generator temperature has no influence on the driving force of the vapour pump since the difference between high and low cycle pressure remains constant.

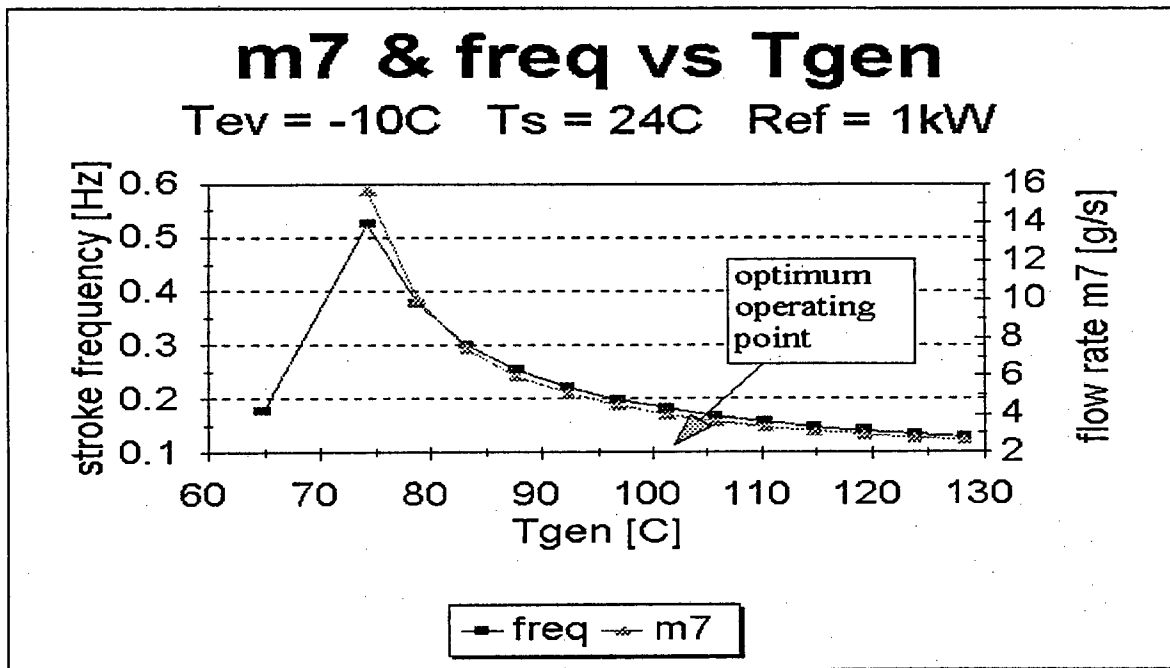


Figure 5.4

5.2 Varying the evaporator temperature while keeping the sink temperature constant and optimising generator temperature in each case

The evaporator temperature dictates the low pressure of the cycle. For a greater pressure difference between generator and absorber, more energy needs to be supplied to the system to achieve the same refrigeration effect. The coefficient of performance therefor decreases with decreasing evaporator temperature, as displayed in figure 5.5.

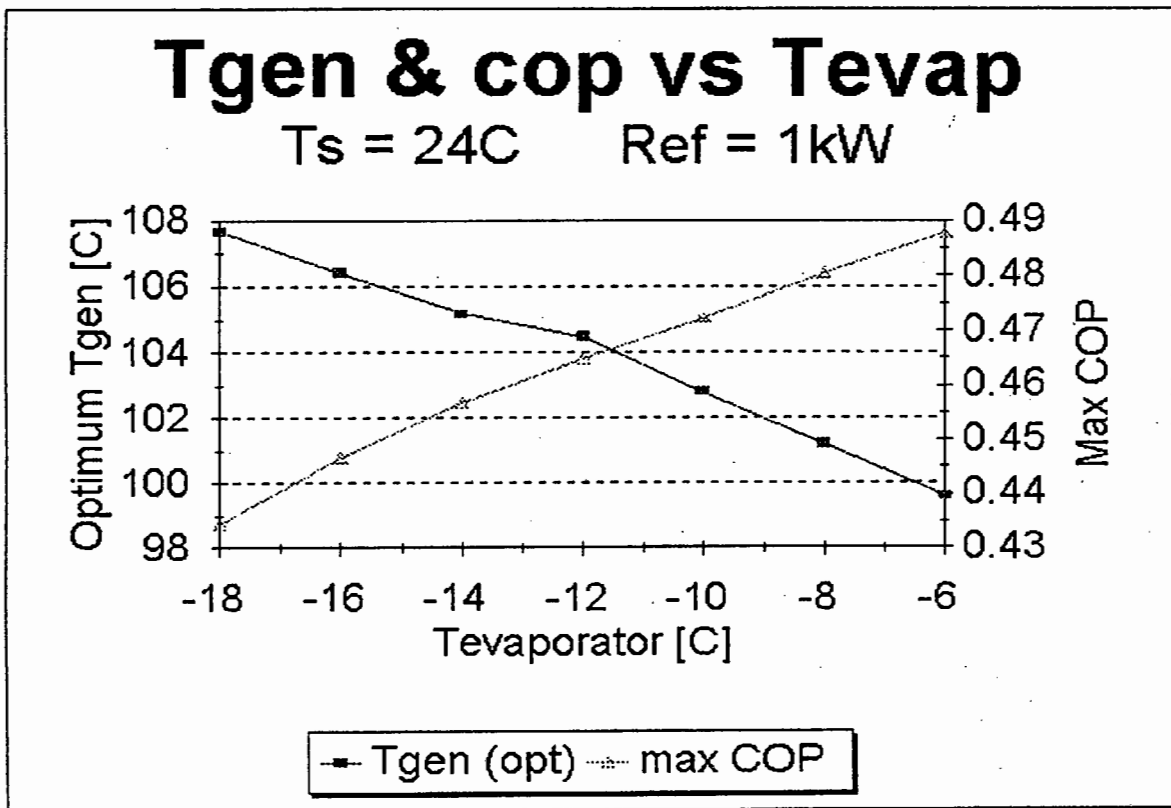


Figure 5.5

The mass flow rates ( $m_8$ ,  $m_7$  &  $m_{16}$ ) for optimum operating conditions increase with decreasing evaporator temperature. The reason is that at lower pressure in the

absorber (i.e. lower evaporator temperature) the absorption capability of the absorbent decreases. Therefor the difference in concentration between weak and strong solution decreases which leads to an increased mass flow rate of  $m_7$ ,  $m_8$  and  $m_{16}$  according to equations (3.4) and (3.2). This is shown graphically in figures 5.6.

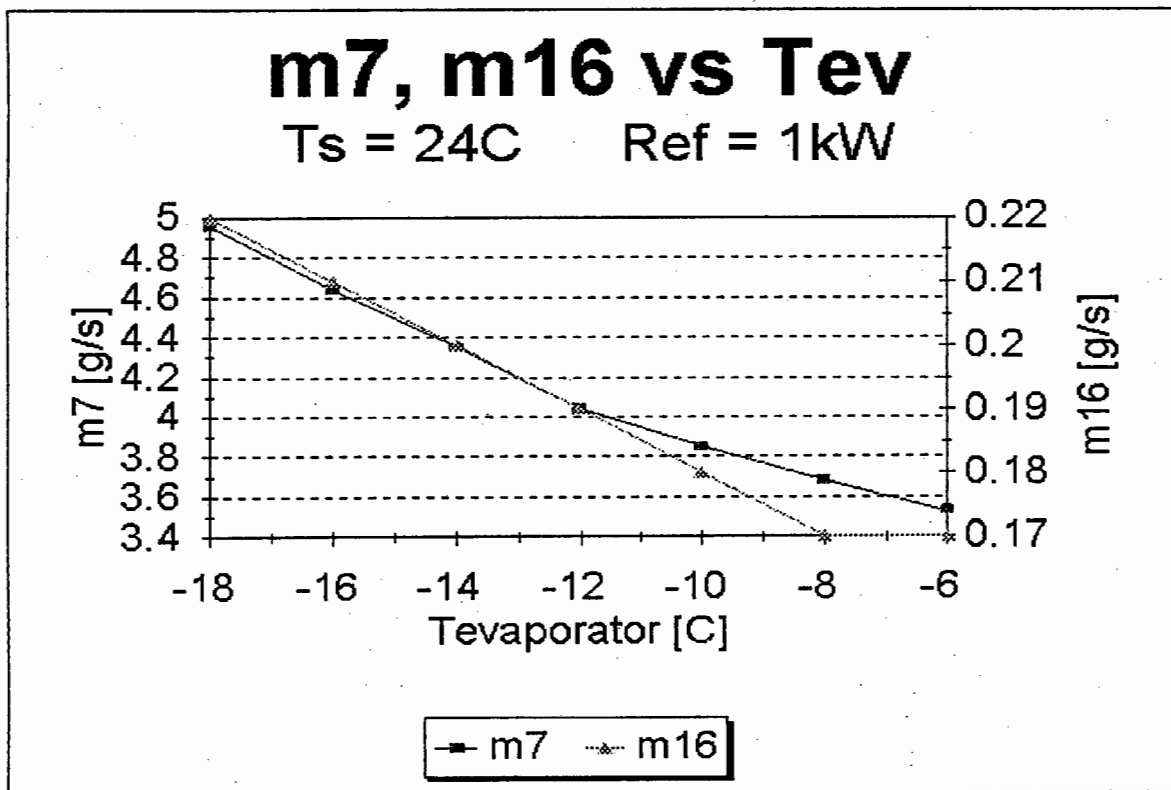


Figure 5.6

The optimum generator temperature (figure 5.5) increases with decreasing evaporator temperature. This is because, at the greater flow rates for lower evaporator temperatures, more input energy is saved by increasing the generator temperature.

# frequency vs Tevaporator

$T_s = 24C$

Ref = 1kW

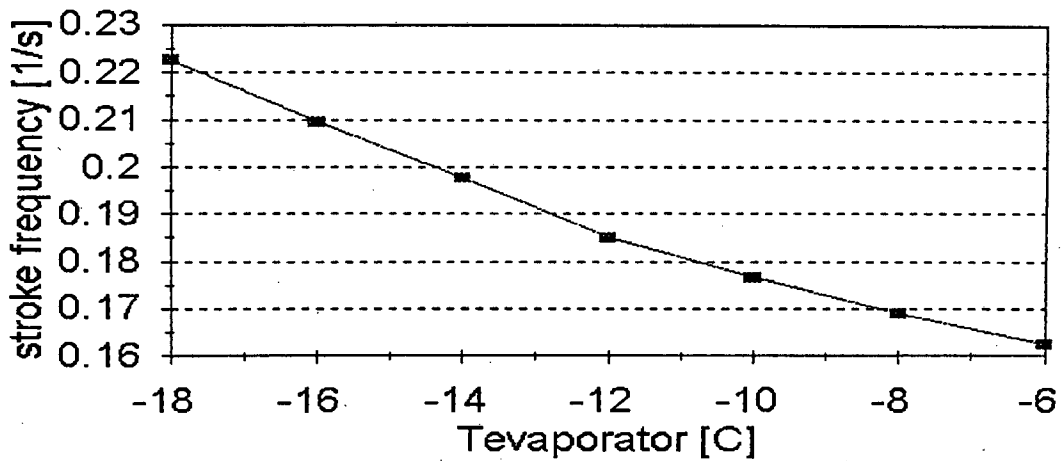


Figure 5.7

The stroke frequency follows the m16/m7 mass flow trend as shown by figure 5.7.

# Fnet vs Tev

$T_s = 24C$

Ref = 1kW

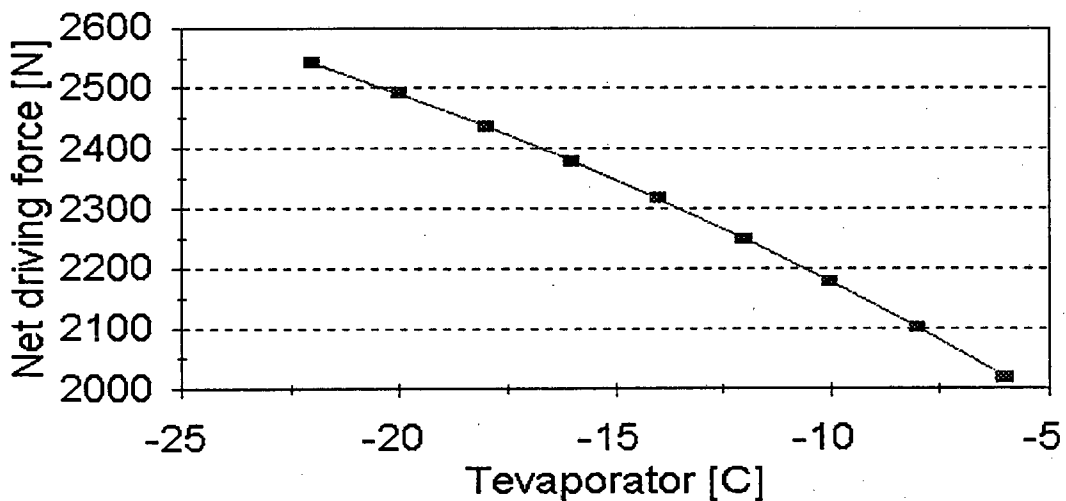


Figure 5.8

The net driving force of the vapour pump increases with decreasing evaporator temperature due to the greater pressure difference across the pistons of the pump.

5.3 Varying the sink temperature while keeping the evaporator temperature constant and optimising the generator temperature in each case

To understand the trends displayed when changing the sink temperature ( $T_s$ ), it must be remembered that the condenser temperature and the absorber temperature are both set to  $T_s$ . Both are water cooled with water off the same source. The condenser temperature dictates the high pressure of the cycle. An increase in condenser temperature means an increase in the high pressure of the cycle.

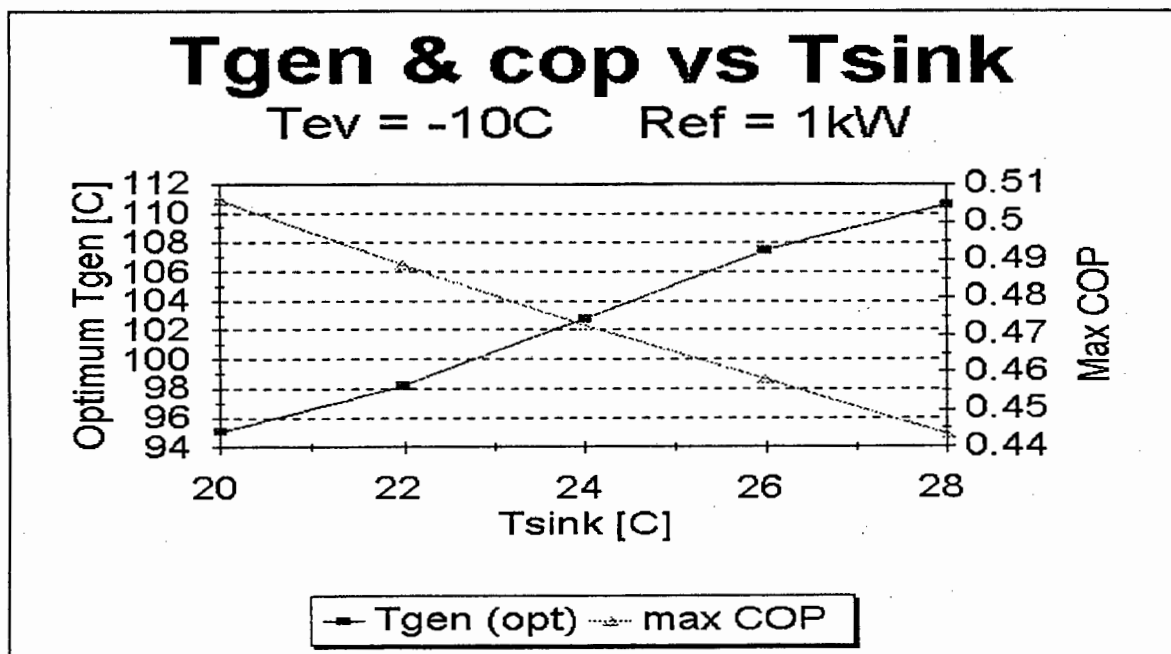


Figure 5.9



The generator pressure increases with condenser temperature and it follows that a greater energy input is needed to liberate the refrigerant vapour. This lets us expect that the maximum coefficient of performance drops with increasing sink temperature and this trend is reflected in figure 5.9.

Figure 5.10 shows that the mass flow rates ( $m_7$ ,  $m_{16}$  and so  $m_8$ ) increase with increasing sink temperatures for optimum generator temperature. During the absorption process gas absorption occurs more readily when the absorber temperature is low. The strong solution concentration increases with decreasing absorber temperature. The difference between strong and weak solution concentration increases and this decreases the flow rates  $m_8$  and  $m_7$  in accordance with equations (3.2) and (3.4).

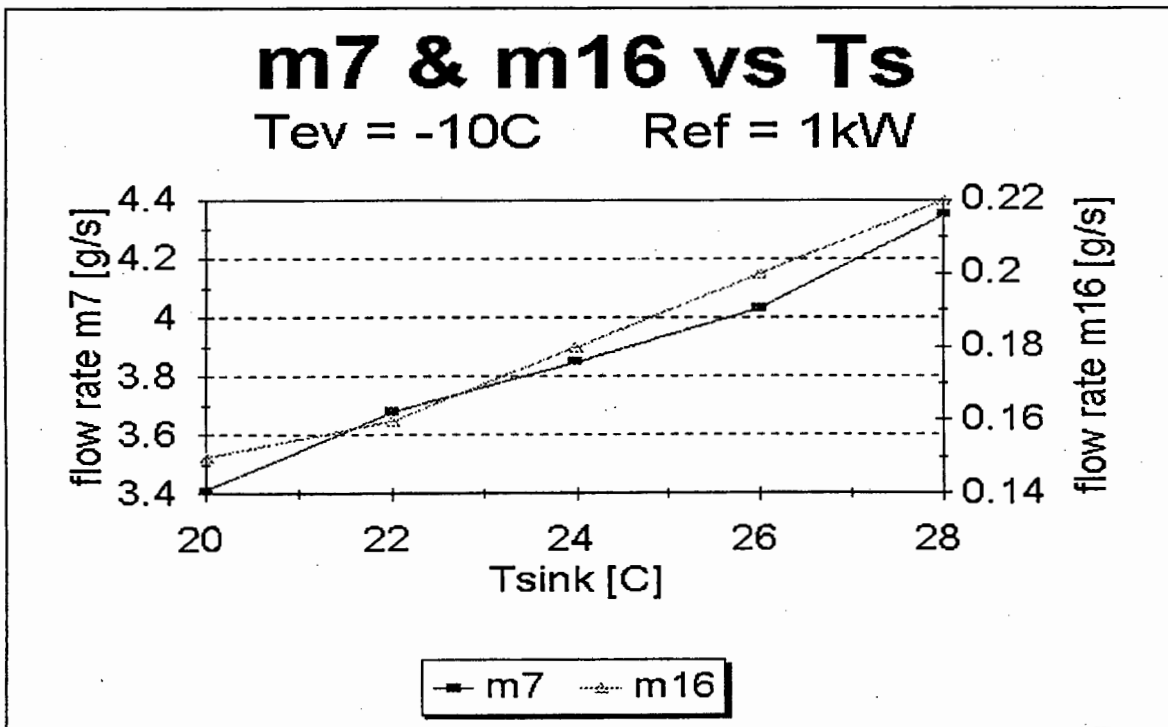


Figure 5.10

And, as before, an increase in mass flow rate  $m_7$  is associated with higher optimum generator temperatures (because it pays more in heat input reduction by increasing  $T_{gen}$ ); therefore the optimum  $T_{gen}$  increases with absorber temperature (figure 5.9).

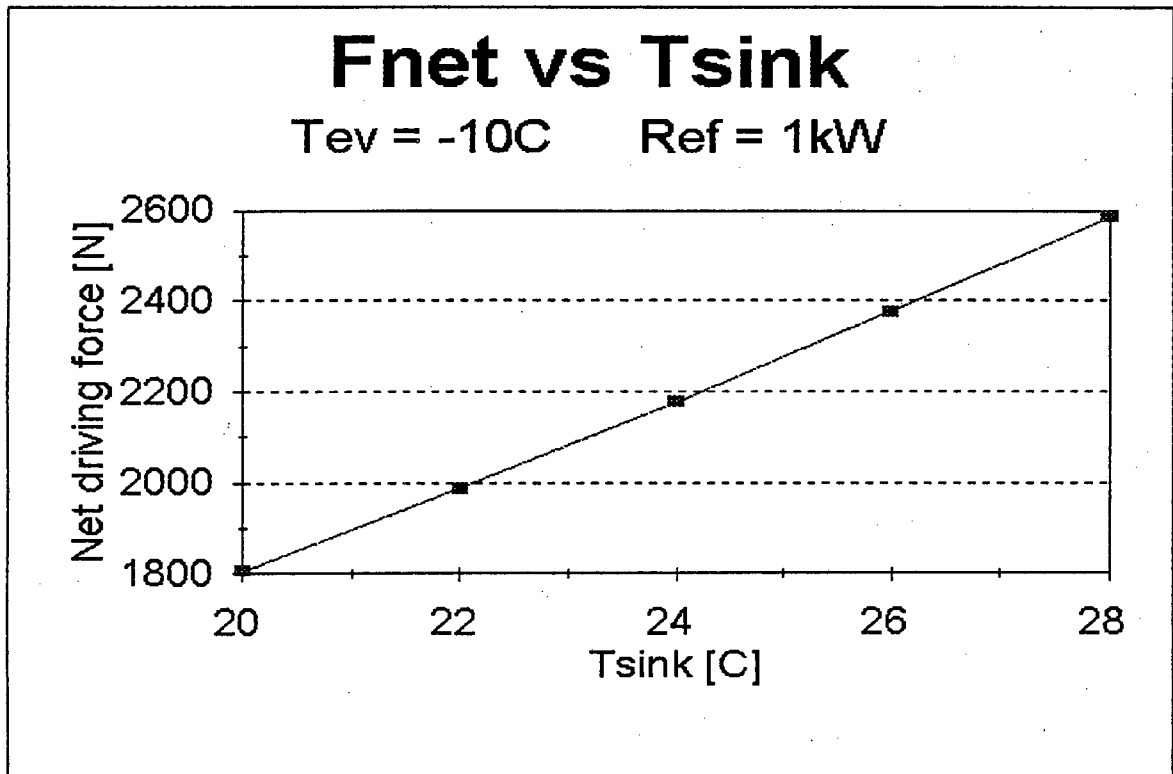


Figure 5.11

Figure 5.11 shows that an increase in sink temperature brings about an increase in net driving force of the vapour pump, due to the increased pressure difference across the pistons of the pump.

Since the mass flow rates  $m_7$  and  $m_{16}$  increase with increasing sink temperatures the vapour pump stroke frequency has to increase accordingly (figure 5.12)

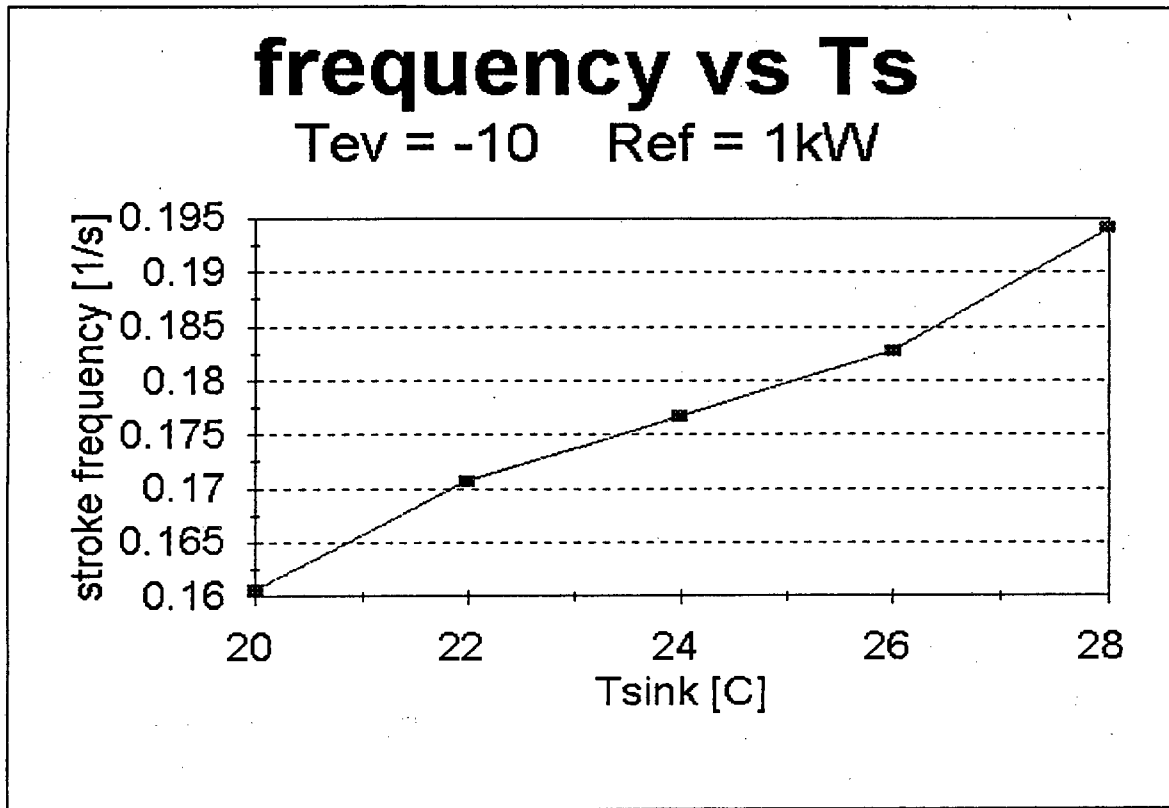


Figure 5.12

## CHAPTER 6

### 6 Experimentation

#### 6.1 Bench test of the vapour pump

The vapour pump was tested prior to installation into the refrigeration rig.

##### 6.1.1 Apparatus

The experimental set up for the bench test is shown schematically in figure 6.1

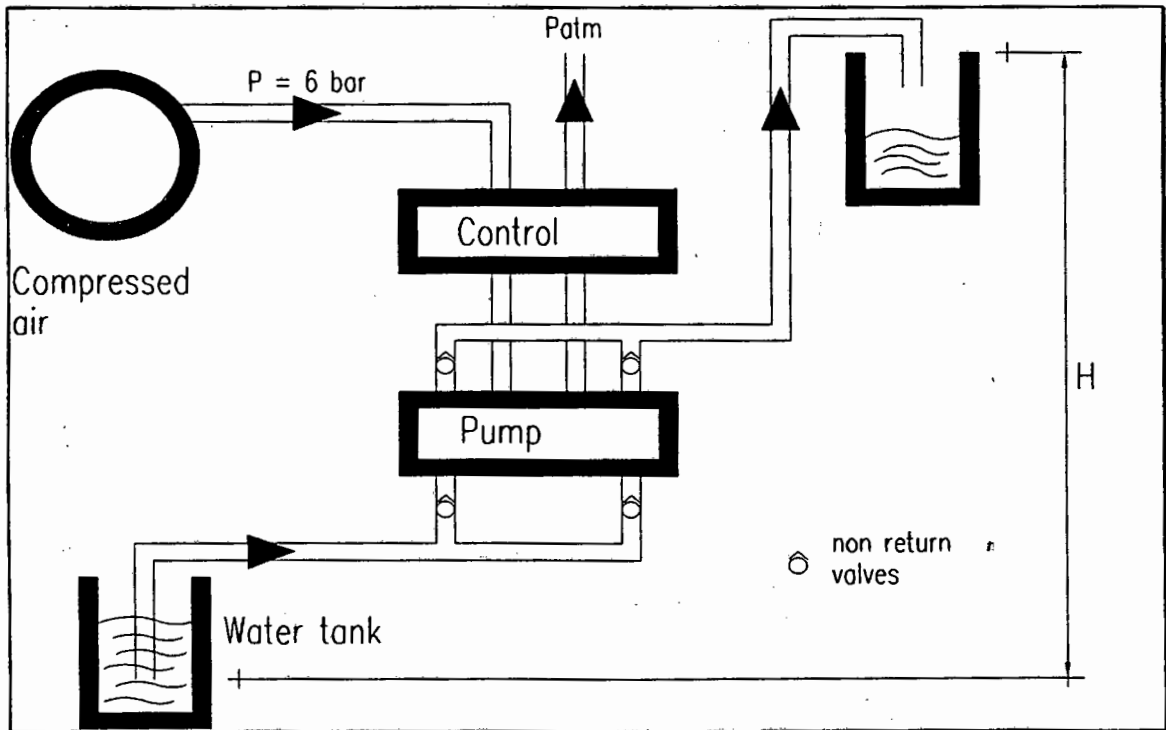
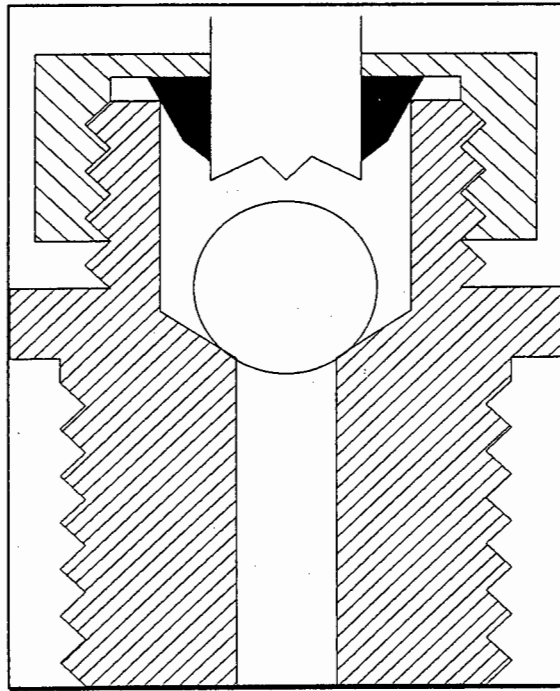


Figure 6.1 The bench test experimental set up

Compressed air of approximately six bar gauge pressure is used to drive the pump. The exhaust air was exposed to atmospheric conditions. This pressure difference corresponds to the one encountered between generator and absorber in the refrigeration machine. The non-return valves were custom made and consist of a steel ball and male connector fitting as shown in figure 6.2.



**Figure 6.2**  
The non- return valve

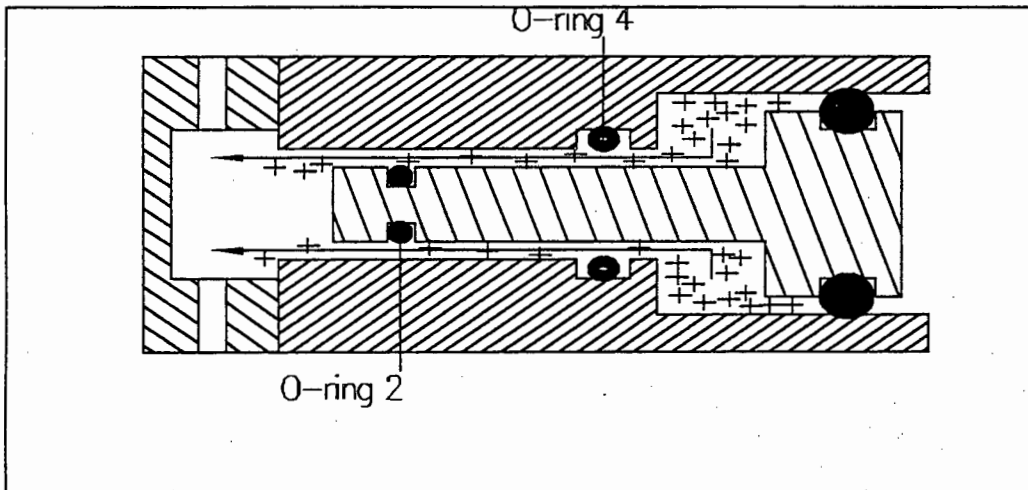
The steel ball blocks flow in one direction by sealing on the smooth seat as shown in figure 6.2. The pipe connected at the top of the valve has an uneven end to prevent the steel ball from sealing the flow in both directions. In upright position, as in figure 6.2, gravity holds the valve closed. A light spring (not shown figure 6.2) to force the ball upon its sealing seat was also used.

### 6.1.2 Troubles encountered with the design of the pump

Initially, the running of the pump was troublesome. The following immediate problems were encountered.

1. Both pump pistons seized repeatedly. This was due to a very fine clearance fit between piston and cylinder and was corrected by increasing the clearance to approximately 150 $\mu$ m.

2. High pressure air from the vapour side leaked through to the liquid side. As the retracting piston tries to create a vacuum, air penetrates the space on the liquid side of the piston and prevents liquid from being drawn in. This type of failure is shown in figure 6.3.



**Figure 6.3** Vapour leak to liquid side

The leaks of this kind were observed with O-ring 4 (figure 6.3 or figure E.1) not being used. O-ring 4 was initially thought superfluous and as such unnecessarily increasing friction. With the installation of O-ring 4 no further leakage was observed.

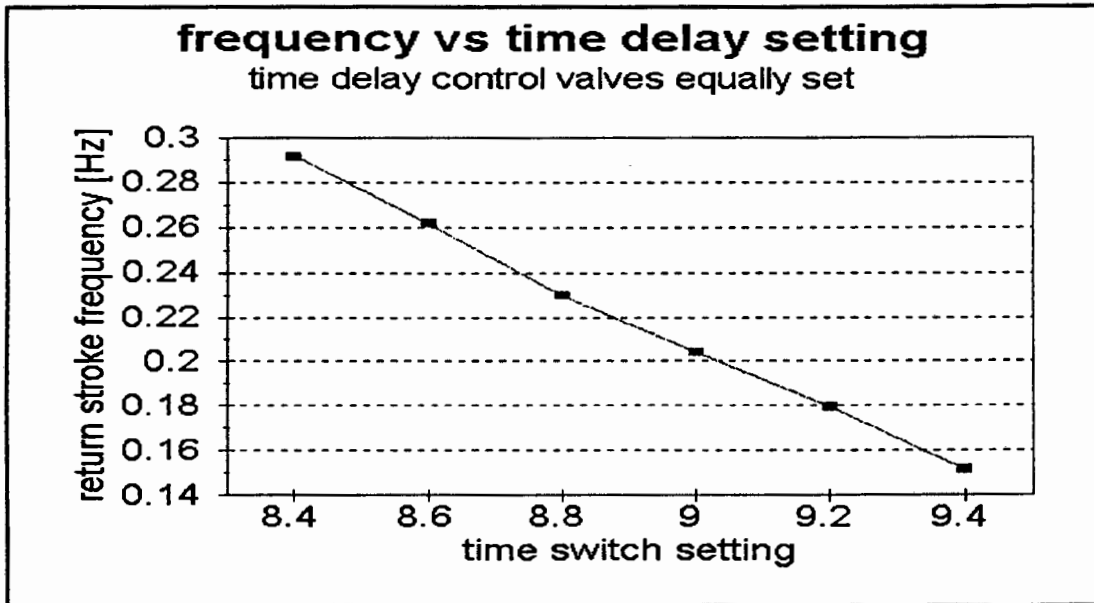
3. The spring in the link mechanism failed to provide motion to the control shaft in a reliable way. Typically, the spring would return the control shaft once and then get stuck in-between the end positions. No spring to satisfy the marginal spring design specifications could be obtained for experimentation. Various springs with characteristics close to those calculated malfunctioned. A detailed analysis of the causes of failure of the spring mechanism is presented in appendix K. As a result of the failure of the spring mechanism a pneumatic system was used to reciprocate the control shaft.

#### 6.1.3 The pneumatic system to simulate the link mechanism

A double acting cylinder with stroke length 25 mm, mounted onto the base plate and coupled to the control shaft, replaces the link mechanism to provide motion to the control mechanism. Thermodynamically, this does not defeat the purpose of the study. Only about 3% of the energy going into the pump is consumed by compressing the spring in the link mechanism. And the pump draws only 1% of the energy supplied to the generator. Overall, the energy associated with the spring action can be considered negligible. The double acting cylinder is connected to the pneumatic cycle. Two time delay control valves in the pneumatic cycle enable the duration between strokes to be adjusted. The frequency of the pump pistons can easily be controlled by changing the time delay control valve settings. Details about the pneumatic system are given in appendix H.

#### 6.1.4 Results and analysis

The graph in figure 6.4 shows how the pump frequency changes with the time delay control valve setting of the pneumatic cycle.



**Figure 6.4**

The pump was run for a minute for various time switch settings and height differences between inlet and outlet of the water line. The flow rates obtained are recorded in tables 6.1 & 6.2.



Switch setting	frequency [Hz]	H [m]	volume pumped [ml/min]	volume pumped [ml/s]	calc. flow rate [ml/s]	flow rate $\eta$ [%]
8.40	0.292	0	541	9.017	4.587	196.6
8.40	0.292	1.8	581	9.683	4.587	211.1
8.80	0.230	0	407	6.783	3.613	187.7
8.80	0.230	1.8	420	7.000	3.613	193.7
9.00	0.204	0	414	6.900	3.204	215.4
9.00	0.204	1.8	404	6.733	3.204	210.2
9.20	0.180	0	390	6.500	2.827	229.9
9.20	0.180	1.8	327	5.450	2.827	192.8
one pump only						
8.80	0.230	0	267	4.450	1.806	246.3

**Table 6.1** Pumping rates (no springs in non-return valves)

Switch setting	frequency [Hz]	H [m]	volume pumped [ml/min]	volume pumped [ml/s]	calc. flow rate [ml/s]	flow rate $\eta$ [%]
8.40	0.292	0	251	4.183	4.587	91.2
8.40	0.292	1.8	264	4.400	4.587	95.9
8.80	0.230	0	223	3.717	3.613	102.9
8.80	0.230	1.8	202	3.367	3.613	93.2
9.00	0.204	0	181	3.017	3.204	94.2
9.00	0.204	1.8	195	3.250	3.204	101.4
9.20	0.180	0	166	2.767	2.827	97.7
9.20	0.180	1.8	166	2.767	2.827	97.7

**Table 6.2** Pumping rates (with springs in non-return valves)

The experimentally obtained flow rate was compared to the theoretical one as calculated using equation 4.16. The

calculated flow rate is based upon the volume displaced by the pump pistons. It came as a surprise to observe that, with no springs in the non-return valves, the actual flow rate is about twice the theoretical one. An explanation for this observation is found when considering the dynamic effects of the fluid flow. The speed by which the fluid is drawn in to the pump is such that its momentum pushes fluid through to the delivery line. This was confirmed when operating the double pump with only one pump in action. It was observed that water was supplied to the outlet tank during the suction stroke. The results displayed in table 6.2 show that by installing springs into the valves the observed discrepancy in flow rates was eliminated.

The above observations might be relevant during start up of the cycle when there is no significant pressure difference between the solution inlet and outlet of the pump.

## 6.2 Cycle test

### 6.2.1 Experimental apparatus

Experiments were conducted on the 1 kW absorption refrigeration plant. Vicatos [24] originally designed the rig for experimentation with ammonia and water as the working fluids. Subsequent experiments were done using Freon R22 and tetraethelene glycol dimethyl ether (E181). A schematic diagram of the experimental apparatus is shown in figure 6.5. All components except for the evaporator, precooler and vapour pump were part of the old rig. A brief description of each component is given in the following:

#### **a) the generator**

The gas fired generator was designed to supply up to 3 kW power to the solution. It consists of a shell and seven U-tubes. Hot gasses of about 700 C, simulating the exhaust gas of an IC engine, are passed through the tubes to heat up the mixture contained inside the shell. An external fan forces air into the exhaust stream to increase the gas flow through the tubes. The generator shell has three outlets: one at the top to carry the liberated vapour to the condenser, one at the bottom for the weak solution and one (at bottom) for draining purposes. The strong solution inlet is situated at the top. The generator is also equipped with a level indicator and a pressure gauge.

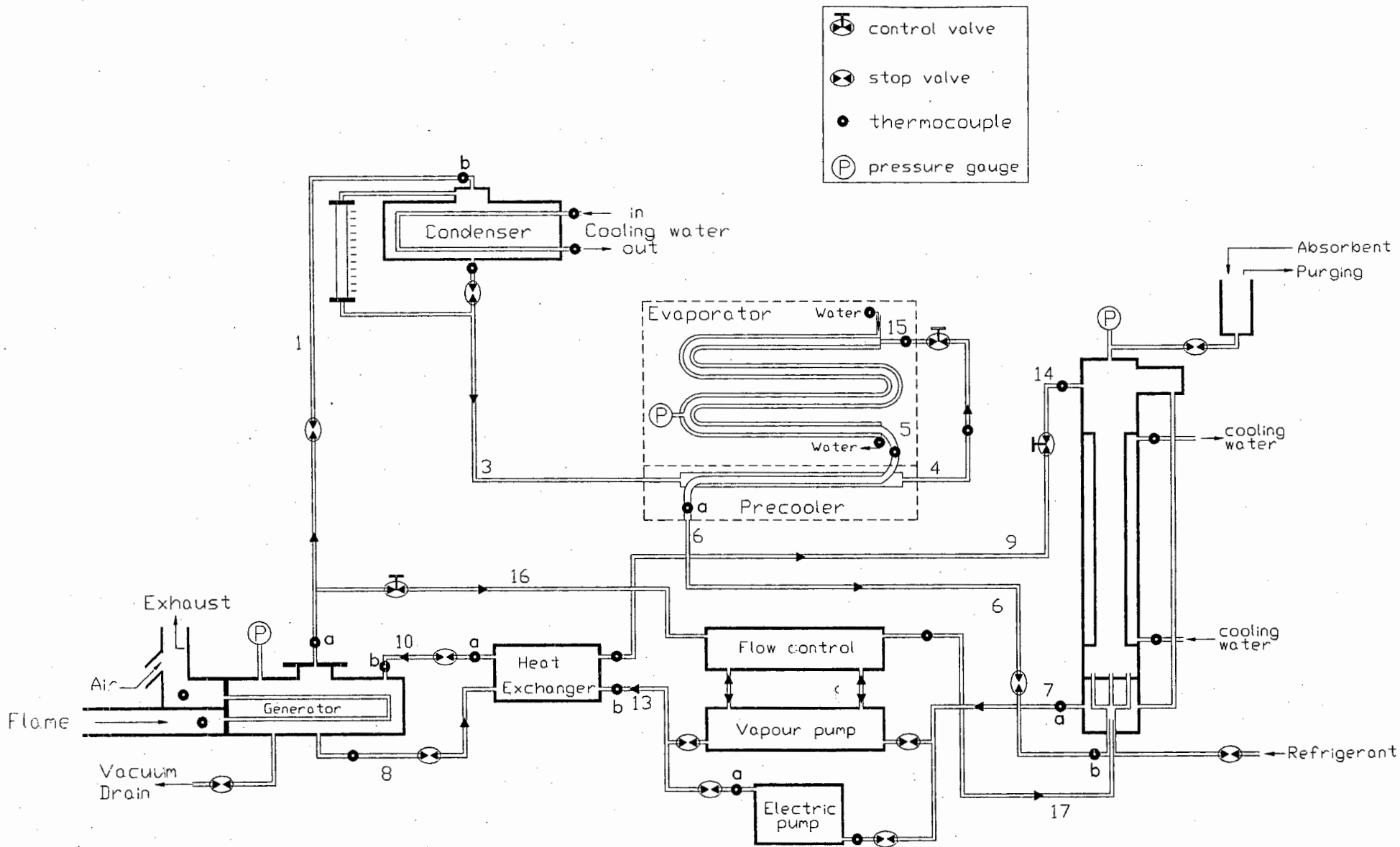


Figure 6.5 Schematic diagram of the experimental apparatus

**b) the condenser**

The condenser is of the shell and tube type and has been designed for a capacity of 1.5 kW. Cooling water, passing through tubes inside a shell, removes heat from the refrigerant inside the shell and the condensate leaves the condenser shell at the bottom. A glass tube bypass serves as level indicator and for mass flow measurement.

**c) the precooler**

The precooler consists of two 50 cm long concentric tubes. Liquid from the condenser flows in the outer tube towards the expansion valve. Vapour refrigerant from the evaporator flows in the opposite direction through the inner tube.

**d) the evaporator**

The evaporator consists of two meter long concentric copper tubes. Water, that supplies energy to the evaporating refrigerant, is passed through the outside tube. The refrigerant flows through the inner tube. For a cooling capacity of 1 kW the water flow rate is calculated as follows.

$$RE = m \cdot c_p \cdot \Delta T$$

where RE = refrigeration effect  
m = water mass flow rate  
c<sub>p</sub> = specific heat = 4.2

kJ/kg

ΔT = difference in water  
temperature

The water should not freeze up and block the passage. The flow rate must therefore be sufficiently high. For a minimum inlet temperature of 20 C the  $\Delta T$  should not exceed 15 C. So

$$[kW] = m [kg/s] \cdot 4.2 [kJ/kg/C] \cdot 15 [C]$$

$$m = 0.01587 [kg/s] = 57.14 [l/h] \quad \text{--- (min)}$$

type	double tube
capacity	1 kW
heating medium	water
total length	2 meter
inner tube OD	22 mm
outer tube OD	28 mm

Table 6.3 Evaporator details

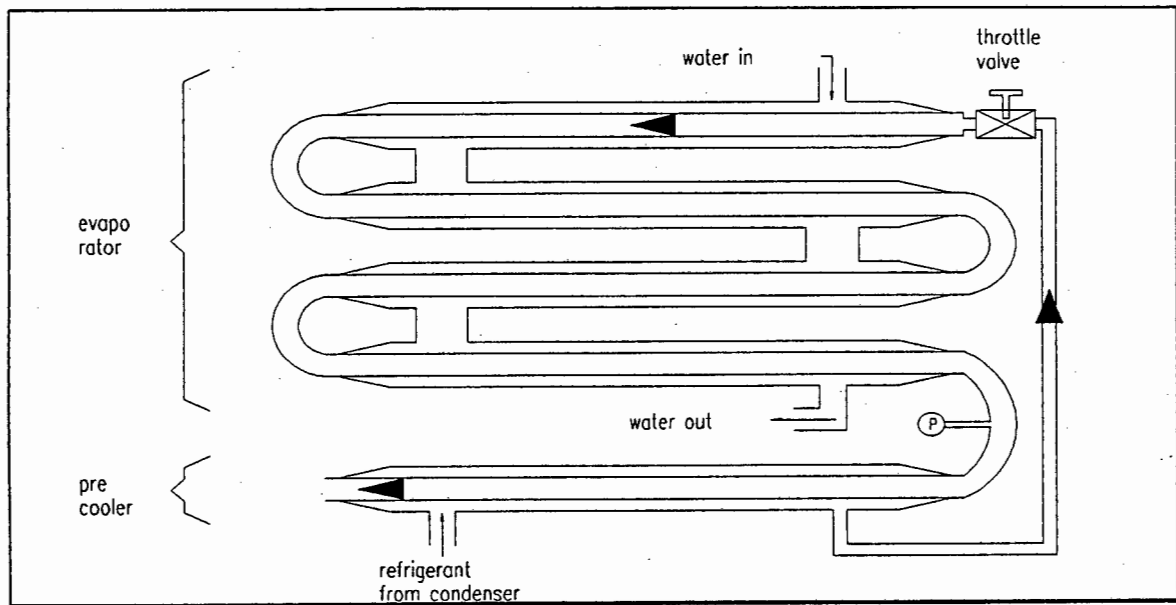


Figure 6.6 Diagram of the evaporator-precooler combination

**e) the absorber**

The absorber is of the tubular type. Weak solution coming in at the top absorbs vapour refrigerant coming in from the bottom end. The liquid mixture accumulates at the bottom, from where it is pumped back to the generator. The heat of mixing, together with the heat carried by the weak solution, is removed by cooling water that flows in the outer jacket. Detailed information is tabulated below (table 6.4). The absorber is also equipped with a level indicator, pressure gauge and an inlet/outlet for draining and refrigerant charging purposes.

type	tubular
heat rejected	3 kW
coolant	water
tube inside diameter	17 mm
tube thickness	1.5 mm
overall tube height	70 cm

**Table 6.4** Absorber details

**f) the pump**

The electric and vapour pumps are connected in parallel. Either of the pumps can be isolated by stop valves. The electric pump is a double acting piston pump, driven by an electric motor through a reduction gear. The stroke length is 25 mm, the piston diameter 30 mm. It is not possible to control the delivery flow rate as the pump operates at one constant speed. Its frequency is 0.52 cycles per second. This corresponds to a nominal flow rate of 18.38 ml per second.

### **g) the heat exchanger**

The heat exchanger consists of a double coil. Weak solution flows through the inside coil (6mm OD). The strong solution flows countercurrent through the outer tube (10mm OD).

### 6.2.2 Experimental procedure

Experimental data is collected from the absorption machine shown schematically in figure 6.5, being operated in two pumping modes: 1) with the electric pump 2) with the vapour pump. The start-up procedure is as follows:

- i. Burner, sink cooling water and electric pump are switched on.
- ii. Once liquid R22 is present in the condenser, the evaporator load water is turned on.
- iii. For vapour pump operation the electric pump is switched off, and the vapour pump switched on.
- iv. The evaporator valve, pressure reducing valve (weak solution line) and vapour pump frequency (when using the vapour pump) are adjusted to achieve equilibrium.

The various control valves affect the cycle behaviour as set out in the following:



a) The *burner gas valve* regulates partly the input power and temperature of the gasses heating the generator.

b) The *evaporator throttle valve* controls the mass flow rate of refrigerant through the evaporator.

c) The *pump frequency* can only be altered when using the vapour pump. This is done by changing the setting of the time delay control valves of the pneumatic system as set out in section 6.1.3. The pump frequency controls the flow rate of the strong solution to the generator. A small flow rate implies a high generator solution temperature. This in turn causes more R22 to be liberated; the weak solution is of lower refrigerant concentration.

d) The *pressure reducing valve* controls the flow rate of the weak solution from the generator to the absorber. The valve is adjusted to keep the liquid level in the absorber constant.

### 6.2.3 Experimental measurements

Measurement of the following variables and properties are taken:

a) The *fuel consumption* of the burner is measured by a volumetric flow meter.

b) The *sink (absorber and condenser) cooling water flow rate* is measured using a calibrated flow meter.

- c) The *evaporator load water flow rate* is measured manually.
- d) The *pressure* is measured by pressure gauges as indicated in figure 6.5.
- e) K-type thermocouples measure the *temperature* at positions as indicated in figure 6.5.

#### 6.2.4 Results and analysis

The running of the absorption machine was very problematic. It was difficult to achieve stability, mainly because the evaporator throttle valve occasionally blocked up, either because of impurities in the stream or because of moisture freezing up the valve. Nitrogen was used for pressure testing before running the cycle; air, however, got into the system during repair work, that had to done on the electric pump (leaks and non-return valves). On the other hand, opening the throttle valve further resulted in increasing the absorber pressure, as not all of the refrigerant could be absorbed. Initially it was observed that high pressure R22 in the control mechanism leaked through to the absorber line, without going through the pump pistons. When the control mechanism was opened, it was found that two of the EPDM sealing rings had been damaged by extrusion. The others were enlarged and softened. Teflon rings were successfully installed instead.

The results are presented in tables 6.5 and 6.6. Although readings were taken at all points indicated in figure 6.6, only those required to evaluate the coefficient of

performance are given. To obtain the COP, the following variables have to be calculated:

a) the *refrigeration capacity*: There are two ways to calculate the refrigeration capacity:

i) measuring the refrigerant flow rate through the evaporator and determining the enthalpies at entry and exit of the evaporator from the pressures and temperatures at those points. Then the cooling capacity equals  $Q_{ref} = m \Delta h$ .

ii) measuring the water flow rate through the outer tube of the evaporator and the temperature difference between inlet and outlet of the water. Then the refrigeration capacity is given by  $Q_{ref} = m_{H_2O} c_p \Delta T$ .

It was decided to use method (ii) since the evaporator water flow rate could be measured more accurately than the refrigerant flow rate.

b) the *heat input*: Ideally the heat input is calculated by measuring the flow rates of the strong solution (10), weak solution (8), refrigerant going to the condenser (1) and the corresponding specific enthalpies. However, due to the lack of thermodynamic data for the R22-E181 combination, the enthalpies could not be determined. Kriebel et al [12] have published data giving the enthalpy as a function of the concentration and pressure (or temperature) for saturated liquid for the temperature range -90C to 70C. The temperatures measured in the experiments range from 58C to 111C for the strong solution and from 107C to 197C for the weak solution.

Alternatively, the heat input calculation is based on the calorific value (heat of combustion) of the gas used in the burner. Capegas, that supplies the gas (town-gas), gives the calorific value as 16.76 MJ/m<sup>3</sup>. A breakdown of the composition of the gas is given in appendix I. Since only a fraction of the heat energy of the gas is transferred to the boiler, a conversion factor ( $\eta$ ) is introduced (appendix J). The heat input is then calculated by:

$$Q_{gen} [kW] = \eta \cdot 16.76 \dot{V}_{gas} [l/sec] \quad \text{----- (6.1)}$$

A third method evaluating the heat input is to make use of the energy balance for the cycle:

$$Q_{gen} = Q_{abs} + Q_{con} - Q_{evap} + Q_{losses}$$

$Q_{abs}$  is difficult to evaluate as the absorber cooling water flow rate is not known. The flow meter in the rig measures the combined flow rate of the absorber and condenser cooling water. Also, the thermal losses cannot be quantified. It was therefor decided to proceed using equation 6.1.

Burner		Pressure		Evaporator			ref	heat	COP	
gas flow rate	solu tion temp.	high	low	entry temp.	water flow rate	water inlet temp.	water outlet temp.	capa city	input	
l/sec	C	bar	bar	C	l/sec	C	C	kW	kW	
0.38	136	11.7	4.6	-3.0	0.020	29.0	24.0	0.42	1.40	0.30
0.49	128	11.6	4.6	-3.9	0.025	27.1	23.6	0.37	1.72	0.21
0.38	107	11.6	5.0	0.0	0.034	25.4	22.6	0.40	1.50	0.27
0.53	158	12.2	5.0	0.2	0.068	26.8	23.9	0.83	1.70	0.49
0.52	197	12.8	5.2	1.4	0.034	28.3	24.2	0.59	1.52	0.39
0.49	168	12.0	5.0	0.2	0.021	27.1	23.4	0.33	1.56	0.21
0.51	111	10.2	4.4	-4.1	0.029	27.7	24.1	0.44	1.86	0.24

Table 6.5 Cycle performance using electric pump

Figure 6.7 and 6.8 depict how the COP's and refrigeration capacities compare for cycles with electric and vapour pump.

Burner		Pressure		Evaporator			pump	ref	heat	COP	
gas flow rate	solu tion temp.	high	low	entry temp.	water flow rate	water inlet temp.	water outlet temp.	freq	capa city	input	
l/sec	C	bar	bar	C	l/sec	C	C	Hz	kW	kW	
0.46	115	9.6	6.0	5.2	0.013	27.6	24.0	0.290	0.19	1.70	0.11
0.46	126	9.6	6.0	5.2	0.013	27.7	23.6	0.290	0.22	1.65	0.13
0.46	115	9.6	6.0	5.2	0.013	27.7	23.8	0.290	0.21	1.70	0.12
0.51	136	9.4	5.8	4.0	0.020	28.1	24.7	0.204	0.26	1.74	0.16
0.53	130	9.4	5.8	4.2	0.019	28.0	24.6	0.204	0.27	1.82	0.15
0.42	129	9.4	6.2	5.0	0.014	27.7	23.4	0.204	0.25	1.53	0.17
0.45	156	9.4	6.2	5.3	0.020	26.9	24.1	0.180	0.24	1.51	0.16
0.54	167	9.4	5.9	4.9	0.019	27.8	24.3	0.180	0.28	1.68	0.17

Table 6.6 Cycle performance using vapour pump

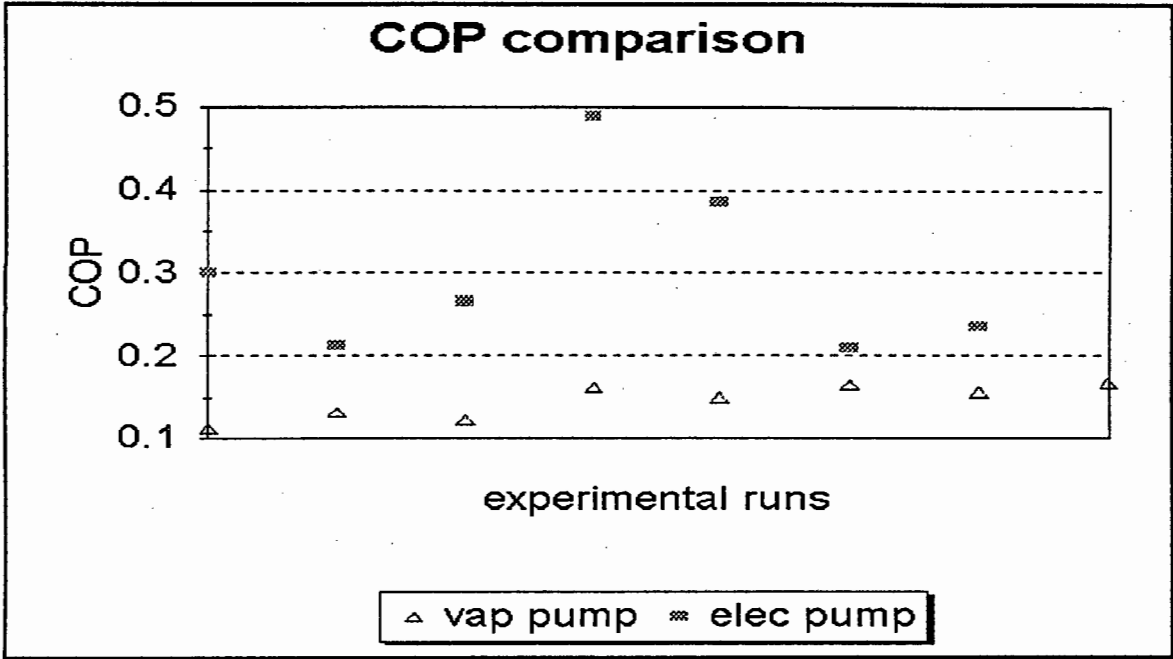


Figure 6.7

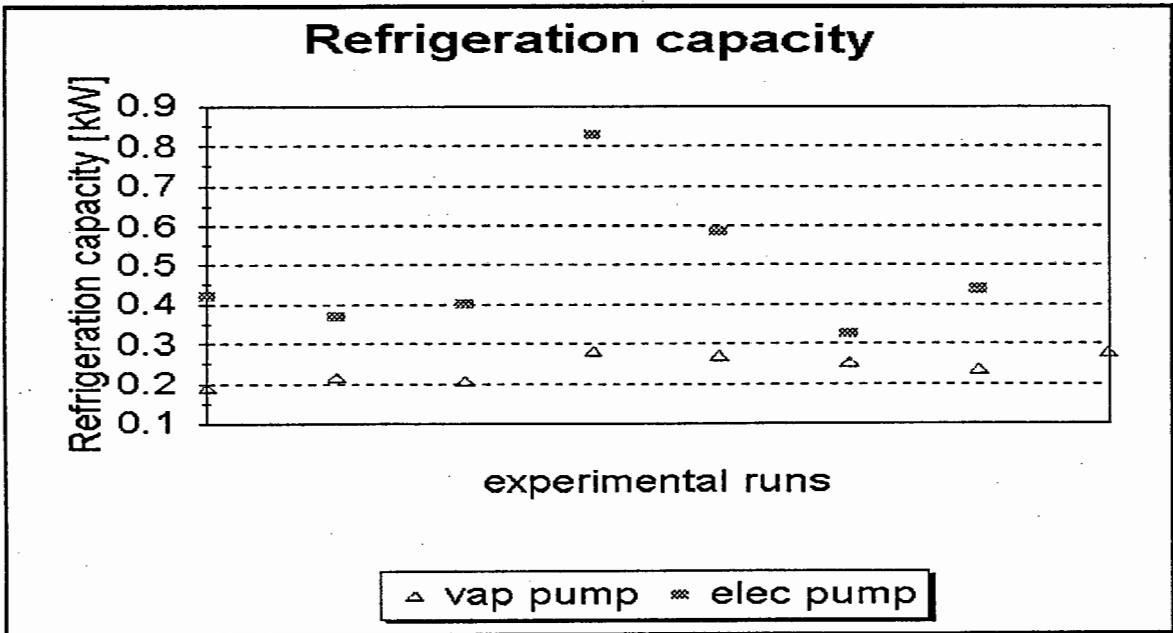


Figure 6.8

### 6.2.5 Discussion

The results show that the vapour pump works in principle. The COP's for the vapour pump ( $\approx 0.15$ ) are approximately half that of the COP's for the electric pump ( $\approx 0.30$ ). The COP's in Vicatos experiments [24] were around 0.4. One reason for this decrease could be that during the frequent repairs on the cycle air has come into the system, reducing the refrigeration capacity. Also, in Vicatos' experiments the cooling water was 21.5 C compared to the  $\approx 23$  C in these experiments. As discussed in section 5.3, an increase in sink temperature leads to a decrease in COP.

Data was not collected at complete stability since it took excessively long (2-2.5 hrs) for the cycle to settle to thermodynamic equilibrium. Although the results for the vapour pump must be considered more of a qualitative nature, the readings clearly show a decrease in COP when using the vapour pump. Performance would increase when insulating the pump and piping.

## CHAPTER 7

### 7.1 Conclusions

Based upon the results of experimentation and the simulation of the cycle with vapour pump, the following conclusions were drawn:

*on the absorption cycle with vapour pump:*

- The vapour pump system works in principle. The simulation of the cycle shows that it is thermodynamically possible to return the strong solution in the absorption cycle by means of a vapour pump. This is confirmed by the experiments.
- The cycle simulation predicts that, when using the vapour pump, :
  - a) the maximum COP decreases by approximately 20% from around 0.60 for the electric pump to 0.47 and occurs at a higher generator temperature.
  - b) the maximum COP increases, while the corresponding optimum generator temperature decreases, with increasing evaporator temperature.
  - c) the maximum COP decreases, while the corresponding optimum generator temperature increases, with increasing sink temperature.
- In the experiments the COP dropped by 50% from around 0.30 to 0.15. The experimentally obtained performance



can be increased by reducing radiation losses by insulating  
vapour pump and piping. <sup>a</sup>  
△

- Complete thermodynamic equilibrium (stability) could not be confirmed when running the cycle with the vapour pump. The cycle behaviour for changing operating conditions as predicted by the simulation (chapter 5) could, for this reason, not be verified by the experiments.

*on the design of the vapour pump:*

- The vapour pump has been overdesigned. The friction forces are less than estimated. The vapour side piston diameter could be reduced. This would allow more refrigerant passing through the evaporator, resulting in an increased COP.
- The spring mechanism to provide motion to the control shaft does not function reliably. The operation of the spring mechanism relies upon very fine tolerancing and adjustment, which practically was not achieved.
- The EPDM sealing rings do not function flawlessly. Some have been damaged by extrusion, other have been enlarged as closer inspection showed. It is not clear whether the enlargement is due to the E181 or the lubrication oil that was used when initially installing the rings. The teflon rings that were subsequently installed into the control mechanism worked satisfactorily.

## 7.2 Recommendations

The vapour pump system was shown to work in principle. More experimental work is required to:

- accurately determine the performance of the absorption cycle with vapour pump
- confirm the trends predicted by the simulation when changing the operating conditions
- operate the vapour pump without the pneumatic system, that was used to provide motion to the control mechanism

For future experimentation the following recommendations are made:

- The refrigeration machine should be completely cleaned. Especially the absorber contains a lot of rust particles, that originate from the time when the system was run with ammonia and water. Ideally, all moisture should be removed from the system. This would solve the throttle valve blocking up problem
- The spring mechanism to provide motion to the control shaft should be replaced with a more reliable system. One possible solution would be a cam shaft type system. The pump shaft could drive a cam shaft. The cam would supply motion to the control shaft in one direction. The return movement could be by spring action.

- All dynamic seals should be replaced with teflon seals.
- Once the absorption-vapour pump system works stably and reliably, work should be carried out to automate the control of the system in an effort to make it more user friendly.

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## Appendix A

### The cycle simulation

**'PROGRAM "AMMONIA"**

**'PREDICTED OPTIMUM CYCLE**

**amended to include vapour pump**

**Thermodynamic and Performance calculations  
of Water-Ammonia  
Absorption Refrigeration Machines**

```
DIM HV(8), X(15), Y(17), COP(150), CPT(150), T15(20), M(8), MS(8)
DIM f(51) AS DOUBLE, Psat(11) AS DOUBLE
DIM K(50, 50) AS DOUBLE, PL(210) AS DOUBLE
DIM PV1(100) AS DOUBLE, PV2(210) AS DOUBLE, Bt(95), SUM(95)
DIM HDE1(8), HDE2(8), P2NEW(8), PDE1(8), PDE2(8), XS(8)
DIM mf(10000)
DIM O(20)

CLS
OPEN "C:\AMMO3\DAT.AMM" FOR INPUT AS #1 ' BLOCK DATA
FOR I = 1 TO 10: INPUT #1, Psat(I): NEXT I 'T=1 to 5 -ammonia ,I=6 to 10 - water
FOR I = 0 TO 49: INPUT #1, f(I): NEXT I 'P-T-x relation data
FOR I = 0 TO 4: INPUT #1, C(I): NEXT I
FOR I = 1 TO 100: INPUT #1, PL(I): NEXT I 'H-x (P=const) data for FOURIER equations
FOR I = 1 TO 50: INPUT #1, PV1(I): NEXT I 'H-y (P=const) data for FOURIER equations (y=0.90 to 0.90)
FOR I = 1 TO 100: INPUT #1, PV2(I): NEXT I 'H-y (P=const) data for FOURIER equations (y=0.90 to 1.00)
FOR I = 0 TO 9
FOR J = 0 TO 42: INPUT #1, K(J, I) 'T-x-y relation data
NEXT J
NEXT I
FOR I = 0 TO 15: INPUT #1, O(I): NEXT I 'Optimum generator temp
FOR I = 1 TO 10: INPUT #1, DNH(I): NEXT I 'DENSITY OF NH3 SUPERHEAT
CLOSE #1

50
INPUT "DO YOU HAVE A DATA FILE ? (Y/N) "; FIL$
IF FIL$ = "Y" OR FIL$ = "y" THEN GOTO 55 ELSE CLS : RUN "C:\AMMO3\DAMMO3F"
55
INPUT "ENTER THE DATA SHEET No TO BE PROCESSED"; TH$
FILEN$ = "C:\AMMO3\AMMON" + TH$
OPEN FILEN$ FOR INPUT AS #3

INPUT #3, NUMEV
FOR IEV = 1 TO NUMEV
INPUT #3, T15(IEV)
NEXT IEV
INPUT #3, NUMAB
FOR IAB = 1 TO NUMAB
INPUT #3, TWA(IAB)
NEXT IAB
INPUT #3, ITN
CLOSE #3

CLS
```

```

INPUT "ENTER THE CONCENTRATION OF THE REFRIGERANT (0.990 is recommended) "; X(15)
X(15) = .99
CLS
INPUT "ENTER THE % INCREASE IN EVAPORATOR'S TEMPERATURE (20% is recommended)"; Dt
Dt = 20
CLS
PRINT
PRINT "TYPE '0' FOR PEAK C.O.P. VALUES "
PRINT
INPUT "TYPE '1' FOR MASS/HEAT BALANCE AND C.O.P. CURVES "; IABS
CLS
PRINT
PRINT "TYPE '0' FOR ELECTRICAL PUMP"
PRINT
INPUT "TYPE '1' FOR VAPOUR PUMP"; PMS

TIMES$ = "00:00:00"
CLS
NOM = 91

```

MAIN PROGRAM STARTS HERE

```

TKEL = 273.15
PI = 3.141529
QIN = 100000
REF = 0
X(3) = X(15)
Dt = Dt / 100

```

```

GOSUB 8210
LOCATE 4, 40: PRINT "AMMO3"
LOCATE 6, 30: PRINT "PREDICTED OPTIMUM CYCLE"
LOCATE 8, 21: PRINT "Thermodynamic and Performance calculations"
LOCATE 9, 17: PRINT "of Water-Ammonia Absorption Refrigeration Machines"

```

```

LOCATE 14, 30: PRINT "THE PROGRAM WILL EXECUTE"
LOCATE 15, 30: PRINT USING "####", ITN * NUMEV * NUMAB;
PRINT "-CYCLES";
INPUT " OK ? (Y/N)"; OK$
IF OK$ = "Y" OR OK$ = "y" THEN GOTO 60 ELSE CLS : GOTO 50

```

```

60 FOR IAB = 1 TO NUMAB
FOR IEV = 1 TO NUMEV
ICY = 1
CLS

```

I = 15

```

LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I, " Evaporator "
GOSUB 2000
T0 = T15(IEV) + TKEL
T(I) = T0
P0 = EXP(Fa + Fb * T0 + Fc / T0 + Fd * T0 ^ 2 + Fe * LOG(T0))
P2 = P0 Low Pressure
GOSUB 4000
Hx15 = ENTHL
GOSUB 3000
Y(15) = X(I) * ALPHA / (1 + X(I) * (ALPHA - 1))
GOSUB 5000
Hy15 = ENTHV
T(5) = T(15) + Dt * ABS(T15(IEV))

X(I) = X(15)
Dx = .005
IFLIP = 1

```



57 I = 5

```
LOCATE 7, 15: PRINT "Adjusting Refrigerant Concentration X(3) =";
LOCATE 7, 58: PRINT USING "#.#####"; X(3)
LOCATE 13, 34: PRINT "PLEASE WAIT"
X(I) = X(3)
T0 = T(5)
GOSUB 2000
P0 = EXP(Fa + Fb * T0 + Fc / T0 + Fd * T0 ^ 2 + Fe * LOG(T0))
GOSUB 4000
HA = ENTHL
```

I = 3

```
LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I, " Condenser "
T(I) = TWA(IAB) + TKEL
T0 = T(I)
GOSUB 2000
P0 = EXP(Fa + Fb * T0 + Fc / T0 + Fd * T0 ^ 2 + Fe * LOG(T0))
P1 = P0      High Pressure
GOSUB 4000   Enthalpy of the liquid mixture
H3 = ENTHL
QprMAX = H3 - HA
QPR = .7 * QprMAX
H4T = H3 - QPR
X3 = (Y(15) - X(15)) * (H4T - Hx15) / (Hy15 - Hx15) + X(15)
```

```
IF ABS(X(3) - X3) < .00001 THEN GOTO 65
IF IFLIP = -1 THEN GOTO 133
IF X(3) > X3 THEN IFLIP = -1: Dx = IFLIP * Dx / 2
IF IFLIP = 1 THEN GOTO 134
```

133 IF X(3) < X3 THEN IFLIP = 1: Dx = -IFLIP \* Dx / 2

134 X(3) = X(3) + Dx  
GOTO 57

65 I = 4

```
H4 = H4T
P0 = P2
Dp = 1
IFLIP = 1
X(I) = X(3)
```

67 GOSUB 4000

```
H4T = ENTHL
IF ABS(H4T - H4) < .01 THEN GOTO 66
IF IFLIP = -1 THEN GOTO 167
IF H4T > H4 THEN IFLIP = -1: Dp = IFLIP * Dp / 2
IF IFLIP = 1 THEN GOTO 168
```

167 IF H4T < H4 THEN IFLIP = 1: Dp = -IFLIP \* Dp / 2

168 P0 = P0 + Dp  
GOTO 67

66 X = X(I)

```
GOSUB 2300
T(I) = T0
H15 = H4
CLS
```

I = 1

```
Y(I) = X(3)
LOCATE 13, 34: PRINT "PLEASE WAIT"
LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I, " Condenser "
T(I) = TWA(IAB) + TKEL
T0 = T(I): P0 = P1
X(I) = .525
XSTEP = .05
```

```

LOCATE 7, 18: PRINT "Y(1) = "; : PRINT USING "#.#####"; Y(I);
PRINT " ..... Hunting for X(1) = ";
IFLIP = 1
9 LogA = 0
LOCATE 7, 58: PRINT USING "#.#####"; X(I)

GOSUB 3000 T-X-alpha relation

T(I) = T0
YTEST = X(I) * ALPHA / (1 + X(I) * (ALPHA - 1))
IF ABS(Y(I) - YTEST) < .000005 THEN GOTO 131
IF IFLIP = -1 THEN GOTO 11
IF YTEST > Y(I) THEN IFLIP = -1: XSTEP = IFLIP * XSTEP / 2
IF IFLIP = 1 THEN GOTO 15
11 IF YTEST < Y(I) THEN IFLIP = 1: XSTEP = -IFLIP * XSTEP / 2
15 X(I) = X(I) + XSTEP
GOTO 9

131
GOSUB 5000 Enthalpy of the vapour
H1 = ENTHV

m3 = 1 / 1202
m5 = m3
M6 = m3
M4 = m3

FOR I = 5 TO 6
LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I; " Evaporator "
P0 = P2
IF I = 6 THEN X(I) = X(3): GOSUB 400: GOTO 132

T0 = T(I)
GOSUB 2500

GOSUB 3000 T-X-alpha relation
Y(I) = X(I) * ALPHA / (1 + X(I) * (ALPHA - 1))

MS(I) = m5 * (Y(I) - Y(1)) / (Y(I) - X(I))
IF MS(I) < 0 THEN GOTO 3300
132 M(I) = m5 - MS(I)
GOSUB 5000 Enthalpy of the vapour
HV(I) = ENTHV
GOSUB 4000 Enthalpy of the liquid mixture
HS(I) = ENTHL
HDE(I) = (MS(I) * HS(I) + M(I) * HV(I)) / m5
GOTO 3495

3300 GOSUB 3000
XS(I) = Y(1) / (ALPHA - Y(1) * (ALPHA - 1))
X = XS(I)
GOSUB 2300
GOSUB 1000
P2NEW(I) = P2SAT * 14.5
PDE2(I) = (17 * P2NEW(I) * (17 - .8 * XS(I)) * (1 - XS(I)) / (17 + XS(I)) ^ 2) / 14.5
PDE1(I) = P0 - PDE2(I)
Y(I) = 1
P0 = PDE1(I)
GOSUB 5000 Enthalpy of ammonia vapour
HDE1(I) = ENTHV
Y(I) = 0
P0 = PDE2(I)
GOSUB 5000 Enthalpy of water vapour

```

```
HDE2(I) = ENTHV
HDE(I) = HDE1(I) * X(I) + HDE2(I) * (1 - X(I))
```

```
3495 NEXT I
```

```
H5 = HDE(5)
REF = H5 - H4
Qref = REF * m3
```

```
I = 7
```

```
P0 = P2
LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I, " Absorber "
X(I) = .3
T(I) = TWA(IAB) + TKEL
T0 = T(I)
```

```
GOSUB 2500
XST = X(I) 'Maximum concentration
```

```
GOSUB 4000 'Enthalpy of the liquid mixture
H7 = ENTHL
```

```
I = 10
```

```
LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I, " H. Exchanger"
X = XST
X(I) = XST
P0 = P1
```

```
GOSUB 2300
T(I) = T0
```

```
GOSUB 4000 'Enthalpy of the liquid mixture
H10 = ENTHL
```

```
T0 = 100 + TKEL
P0 = P1
X = 0
```

```
GOSUB 2300
TGEN = T0 - TKEL 'Generator's maximum temperature
```

```
I = 8
```

```
LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I, " Generator "
X = XST
X(I) = XST
P0 = P1
```

```
GOSUB 2300
T(I) = T0
```

```
TG = T(I) - TKEL 'Generator's minimum temperature
TINCR = (TGEN - TG) / ITN
IF IABS = 0 THEN TINCR = .5: ITN = INT((TGEN - TG) / TINCR)
```

```
CLS
GOSUB 8210
```

```
190 IF PMS = "1" THEN GOTO 635
```

---

ELECTRICAL PUMP

```
I = 8
```

```
LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I, " Generator "
T8 = T(8) - TKEL
T0 = T(8)
P0 = P1
```

GOSUB 2500  
XWE = X(I) 'Weak solution concentration

IF (XST - XWE) < .0001 THEN LOCATE 12, 17: CLS : GOSUB 8210: GOSUB 111: LOCATE 12, 25:  
PRINT "ZERO PERFORMANCE": GOTO 1300

M8 = m3 \* (Y(1) - XST) / (XST - XWE)  
M7 = m3 + M8  
M13 = M7  
M9 = M8  
X(I) = XWE

GOSUB 4000 'Enthalpy of the liquid mixture  
H8 = ENTHL

Q8 = M8 \* H8

I = 12

LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I, " Generator "  
XB = (XST + XWE) / 2 'Generator's bulk solution concentration  
X(I) = XB  
X = XB  
P0 = P1  
GOSUB 2300  
T(I) = T0

GOSUB 4000 'Enthalpy of the liquid mixture  
H12 = ENTHL

I = 11

LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I, " Generator "  
T(I) = T(12)  
T0 = T(I): P0 = P1  
X(I) = X(12)

GOSUB 3000 'T-X-alpha relation  
Y(I) = ALPHA \* X(I) / (1 + (ALPHA - 1) \* X(I))

GOSUB 5000 'Enthalpy of the vapour  
H11 = ENTHV

Q3 = H3 \* m3  
Q5 = H5 \* m5  
Q7 = H7 \* M7  
Q6 = H6 \* M6  
Q4 = H4 \* M4  
GOSUB 4500 'REFLUX

Q1 = H1 \* M1  
Q12 = H12 \* M12  
Q11 = H11 \* M11  
QR = H3 \* MR

630 ELECTRICAL PUMP

T0 = T(7): P0 = P2  
M7 = (1 + (XST - Y(1)) / (XWE - XST)) \* M6  
GOSUB 6910  
QW = WIN \* M7 'Work done at pump  
H13 = H7 + WOUT  
Q13 = M7 \* H13

QEXopt = H10 \* M7 - Q13  
Q10 = Q13 + QEXopt

408

$$QIN = Q8 + Q11 - Q12 - Q10$$

$$COP(ICY) = Q_{ref} / (QIN + QW)(COP)$$

$$CPT(ICY) = T(5) * (T(8) - T(3)) / (T(8) * (T(3) - T(5)))CARNOT (COP)$$

IF IABS = 0 AND COP(ICY) < COP(ICY - 1) THEN CM = COP(ICY): TM = T(8) - TKEL: QM = QIN:  
GOSUB 500

LOCATE 12, 17: PRINT SPACES\$(32)

GOSUB 111

GOTO 1200

-----VAPOUR PUMP

635

I = 8

LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I, " Generator "

$$T8 = T(8) - TKEL$$

$$T0 = T(8)$$

$$P0 = P1$$

GOSUB 2500

XWE = X(I) 'Weak solution concentration

IF (XST - XWE) < .0001 THEN LOCATE 12, 17: CLS : GOSUB 8210: GOSUB 111: LOCATE 12, 25:  
PRINT "ZERO PERFORMANCE": GOTO 1300

$$X(I) = XWE$$

GOSUB 4000 'Enthalpy of the liquid mixture

$$H8 = ENTHL$$

I = 12

LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I, " Generator "

XB = (XST + XWE) / 2'Generator's bulk solution concentration

$$X(I) = XB$$

$$X = XB$$

$$P0 = P1$$

GOSUB 2300

$$T(I) = T0$$

GOSUB 4000 'Enthalpy of the liquid mixture

$$H12 = ENTHL$$

I = 11

LOCATE 23, 2: PRINT "Point "; I, " Generator "

$$T(I) = T(12)$$

$$T0 = T(I): P0 = P1$$

$$X(I) = X(12)$$

GOSUB 3000 'T-X-alpha relation

$$Y(I) = ALPHA * X(I) / (1 + (ALPHA - 1) * X(I))$$

GOSUB 5000 'Enthalpy of the vapour

$$H11 = ENTHV$$

$$Q3 = H3 * m3$$

$$Q5 = H5 * m5$$

$$Q6 = H6 * M6$$

$$Q4 = H4 * M4$$

GOSUB 4500 'REFLUX

Q1 = H1 \* M1  
Q12 = H12 \* M12  
Q11 = H11 \* M11  
QR = H3 \* MR

'V-PUMP

T0 = T(7): P0 = P2

z = 1

mf(z) = (1 + (XST - Y(1)) / (XWE - XST)) \* M6

636 GOSUB 6915

z = z + 1

mf(z) = ((Y(6) - XWE) \* M6 + M16 \* (Y(11) - XWE)) / (XST - XWE)

IF mf(z) - mf(z - 1) > .02 THEN GOTO 636

M7 = mf(z)

Q16 = H11 \* M16

Win = 101.3793 \* (P1 - P2) \* m16 / DENS

Wout = 101.3793 \* (P1 - P2) \* VFX \* m7

TVPEFF = WOUT \* M7 / Q16

VPEFF = WOUT \* M7 / (WIN \* M16)

H13 = H7 + WOUT

Q13 = M7 \* H13

Fright = 100000 \* 3.14159 / 4 \* (P2 \* DS^2 + 1 \* (DV^2 - DS^2) + P1 \* (DV^2 - DR^2))

Fleft = 100000 \* 3.14159 / 4 \* (P1 \* DS^2 + P2 \* (DV^2 - DS^2) + P2 \* (DV^2 - DR^2))

Fvap = (P1 - P2) \* 100000 \* 3.14159 / 4 \* (2 \* DV^2 - DS^2 - DR^2)

Fsol = (P1 - P2) \* 100000 \* 3.14159 / 4 \* DS^2

QEXopt = H10 \* M7 - Q13

Q10 = Q13 + QEXopt

M8 = (m3 \* (Y(1) - XST) + M16 \* (Y(11) - XST)) / (XST - XWE)

M7 = m3 + M8 + M16

M13 = M7

M9 = M8

Q8 = M8 \* H8

Q7 = H7 \* M7

638

QIN = Q8 + Q11 - Q12 - Q10 + Q16

COP(ICY) = Qref / QIN(COP)

CPT(ICY) = T(5) \* (T(8) - T(3)) / (T(8) \* (T(3) - T(5))) \* CARNOT(COP)

IF IABS = 0 AND COP(ICY) < COP(ICY - 1) THEN CM = COP(ICY): TM = T(8) - TKEL: QM = QIN:

GOSUB 500

LOCATE 12, 17: PRINT SPACES(32)

GOSUB 111

1200

T10 = T(10) - TKEL

T13 = T(13) - TKEL

1300

IF IABS = 0 THEN GOTO 1400

FILR\$ = "C:\AMMO3\COPF" + TH\$ + PMS\$ + ".pm"

OPEN FILR\$ FOR APPEND AS #2

PRINT #2, TWA(IAB), T15(IEV), T(8) - TKEL, COP(ICY), QIN

PRINT #2, P1, P2, M7, H7, H13

```
PRINT #2, H11, H12, H1, H17
PRINT #2, REF, Qref, VFX, Q16, QIN
PRINT #2, Q8, Q11, Q12, Q10, QW
PRINT #2, XWE, XST, mf(z), z, M16
PRINT #2, DV, DS, M6, M9, DENS
PRINT #2, Y(6), Y(11), Y(1), VPEFF, TVPEFF
PRINT #2, Fright, Fleft, Fvap, Fsol, fr
CLOSE #2
```

1400

```
T(8) = T(8) + TINCR
IF IABS = 0 AND COP(ICY) < COP(ICY - 1) THEN GOTO 1500
IF ICY = ITN THEN GOTO 1500
IF T(8) > 130 + TKEL THEN GOTO 1500
NOM = NOM + 1
ICY = ICY + 1
IF IABS = 0 AND PMS = "1" AND ICY = 2 THEN T(8) = T(8) + 10
IF IABS = 1 AND PMS = "1" AND ICY = 2 THEN T(8) = T(8) + 5
```

GOTO 190

1500

```
NEXT IEV
NEXT IAB
```

CLS

```
LOCATE 12, 23: PRINT "TOTAL TIME FOR DATA: "; FILENS; " = "; TIMES
LOCATE 20, 20: INPUT "DO YOU WISH TO PROCESS ANOTHER DATA FILE ? Y/N "; PROCESS$
IF PROCESS$ = "N" OR PROCESS$ = "n" THEN GOTO 1800
IF PROCESS$ = "Y" OR PROCESS$ = "y" THEN GOTO 50
```

1800 CLS : END

END OF PROGRAM

```
LOCATE 8, 15: PRINT "(Bars A)"
LOCATE 8, 24: PRINT "L PRESSURE H PRESSURE CAPACITY (KW)"
LOCATE 9, 26: PRINT USING "###.###"; P2
LOCATE 9, 39: PRINT SPACES(5)
LOCATE 9, 39: PRINT USING "###.###"; P1
LOCATE 9, 53: PRINT SPACES(8)
LOCATE 9, 53: PRINT USING "###.###"; Qref
LOCATE 12, 53: PRINT "Time"
LOCATE 12, 58: PRINT TIMES
LOCATE 12, 17: PRINT SPACES(32)
LOCATE 14, 61: PRINT SPACES(5)
LOCATE 14, 16: PRINT "MAXIMUM SOLUTION CONCENTRATION....."
LOCATE 14, 61: PRINT USING "###.###"; XST
LOCATE 15, 16: PRINT "MINIMUM GENERATOR TEMPERATURE. ...."
LOCATE 15, 59: PRINT USING "###.###"; TG
LOCATE 20, 16: PRINT "REFRIGERANT MASS FLOW RATE...(g/sec)..."
LOCATE 20, 58: PRINT USING "###.###"; m3 * 1000
LOCATE 19, 16: PRINT "TEMPERATURE INCREMENT.....(Deg.C)..."
LOCATE 19, 59: PRINT USING "###.###"; TINCR
LOCATE 18, 16: PRINT "HEAT SUPPLY.....(kW)....."
LOCATE 18, 55: PRINT USING "#####.###"; QIN
LOCATE 16, 16: PRINT "GENERATOR'S TEMPERATURE.....(Deg.C)..."
LOCATE 16, 59: PRINT USING "###.###"; T(8) - TKEL
IF (XST0 - XWE) < .0001 THEN GOTO 112
LOCATE 12, 17: PRINT "C.O.P. OF (";
PRINT USING "## "; ICY; IEV; IAB;
```

```

PRINT ") = ";
PRINT USING "#.###"; COP(ICY)
112 RETURN

```

400 ' Precooler evaluation

```

H6 = H3 + HDE(5) - H4
T0 = T(5)
X(I) = X(5)
XSTEP = .05
IFLIP = 1

```

409 X = X(I)

```

P0 = P2
GOSUB 4000
Hx = ENTHL
GOSUB 2300
GOSUB 3000
Y(I) = X * ALPHA / (1 + X * (ALPHA - 1))
GOSUB 5000
Hy = ENTHV
MX = ((Y(I) - X3) / (X3 - X(I))) / (1 + (Y(I) - X3) / (X3 - X(I)))
H6T = Hy * (1 - MX) + Hx * MX
IF ABS(H6 - H6T) < .05 THEN GOTO 420
IF IFLIP = -1 THEN GOTO 411
IF H6 - H6T > 0 THEN IFLIP = -1: XSTEP = IFLIP * XSTEP / 2
IF IFLIP = 1 THEN GOTO 415

```

411 IF H6 - H6T < 0 THEN IFLIP = 1: XSTEP = -IFLIP \* XSTEP / 2

415 X(I) = X(I) + XSTEP

```

T(6) = T0
GOTO 409

```

420 RETURN

500

```

FILES$ = "C:\AMMO3\OPTF-" + TH$ + PMS$ + ".prn"

```

```

LOCATE 23, 52: PRINT "STORING INFORMATION"

```

```

OPEN FILES$ FOR APPEND AS #2

```

```

PRINT #2, USING "#####.##### ", T15(IEV); TWA(IAB); TM; CM; DV; DS; M6; M7; M8; M16; REF;
Qref; QIN; Fright; Fleft; Fvap; Fsol; VPEFF; TVPEFF; VFX; DENS; P1; P2; H7; H13; H11; H12; H1; Q16; Q8;
Q11; Q12; Q10; XWE; XST; mf(z); z; Y(6); Y(11); Y(1); WOUT; WIN; fr; mf(z)

```

```

CLOSE #2

```

```

LOCATE 23, 52: PRINT SPACES(23)

```

```

RETURN

```

1000 'Saturation pressures

```

P1SAT = EXP(Psat(1) + Psat(2) * T0 + Psat(3) / T0 + Psat(4) * T0 ^ 2 + Psat(5) * LOG(T0))

```

```

P2SAT = EXP(Psat(6) + Psat(7) * T0 + Psat(8) / T0 + Psat(9) * T0 ^ 2 + Psat(10) * LOG(T0))

```

```

RETURN

```

2000 'Pressure coefficients

```

X = X(I)

```

```

IF X < .0001 THEN GOSUB 1000: P0 = P2SAT: GOTO 2100

```

```

IF X > .9999 THEN GOSUB 1000: P0 = P1SAT: GOTO 2100

```

2010

```

Fa = f(0) + f(1) * X + f(2) * X ^ 2 + f(3) * X ^ 3 + f(4) * X ^ 4 + f(5) * X ^ 5 + f(6) * X ^ 6 + f(7) * X ^ 7 +
f(8) * X ^ 8 + f(9) * X ^ 9

```

```

Fb = f(10) + f(11) * X + f(12) * X ^ 2 + f(13) * X ^ 3 + f(14) * X ^ 4 + f(15) * X ^ 5 + f(16) * X ^ 6 + f(17)
* X ^ 7 + f(18) * X ^ 8 + f(19) * X ^ 9

```

```

Fc = f(20) + f(21) * X + f(22) * X ^ 2 + f(23) * X ^ 3 + f(24) * X ^ 4 + f(25) * X ^ 5 + f(26) * X ^ 6 + f(27)
* X ^ 7 + f(28) * X ^ 8 + f(29) * X ^ 9

```



```

    Fd = f(30) + f(31) * X + f(32) * X ^ 2 + f(33) * X ^ 3 + f(34) * X ^ 4 + f(35) * X ^ 5 + f(36) * X ^ 6 + f(37)
    * X ^ 7 + f(38) * X ^ 8 + f(39) * X ^ 9
    Fe = f(40) + f(41) * X + f(42) * X ^ 2 + f(43) * X ^ 3 + f(44) * X ^ 4 + f(45) * X ^ 5 + f(46) * X ^ 6 + f(47)
    * X ^ 7 + f(48) * X ^ 8 + f(49) * X ^ 9
2100  RETURN

```

2300 'Simpson's rule (X-P0 known)

```

    GOSUB 2010
2310  UL = LOG(P0) - (Fa + Fb * T0 + Fc / T0 + Fd * T0 ^ 2 + Fe * LOG(T0))
    UL1 = -(Fb - Fc / T0 ^ 2 + 2 * Fd * T0 + Fe / T0)
    T1 = T0 - UL / UL1
    IF ABS(T1 - T0) < .001 THEN GOTO 2320
    T0 = T1
    GOTO 2310
2320  RETURN

```

2500 'Simpson's rule (T-P known)

```

    X = .3
2510  GOSUB 2010
    Fa1 = f(1) + 2 * f(2) * X + 3 * f(3) * X ^ 2 + 4 * f(4) * X ^ 3 + 5 * f(5) * X ^ 4 + 6 * f(6) * X ^ 5 + 7 * f(7) *
    X ^ 6 + 8 * f(8) * X ^ 7 + 9 * f(9) * X ^ 8
    Fb1 = f(11) + 2 * f(12) * X + 3 * f(13) * X ^ 2 + 4 * f(14) * X ^ 3 + 5 * f(15) * X ^ 4 + 6 * f(16) * X ^ 5 + 7
    * f(17) * X ^ 6 + 8 * f(18) * X ^ 7 + 9 * f(19) * X ^ 8
    Fc1 = f(21) + 2 * f(22) * X + 3 * f(23) * X ^ 2 + 4 * f(24) * X ^ 3 + 5 * f(25) * X ^ 4 + 6 * f(26) * X ^ 5 + 7
    * f(27) * X ^ 6 + 8 * f(28) * X ^ 7 + 9 * f(29) * X ^ 8
    Fd1 = f(31) + 2 * f(32) * X + 3 * f(33) * X ^ 2 + 4 * f(34) * X ^ 3 + 5 * f(35) * X ^ 4 + 6 * f(36) * X ^ 5 + 7
    * f(37) * X ^ 6 + 8 * f(38) * X ^ 7 + 9 * f(39) * X ^ 8
    Fe1 = f(41) + 2 * f(42) * X + 3 * f(43) * X ^ 2 + 4 * f(44) * X ^ 3 + 5 * f(45) * X ^ 4 + 6 * f(46) * X ^ 5 + 7
    * f(47) * X ^ 6 + 8 * f(48) * X ^ 7 + 9 * f(49) * X ^ 8
    UL = LOG(P0) - (Fa + Fb * T0 + Fc / T0 + Fd * T0 ^ 2 + Fe * LOG(T0))
    UL1 = -(Fa1 + Fb1 * T0 + Fc1 / T0 + Fd1 * T0 ^ 2 + Fe1 * LOG(T0))
    X1 = X - UL / UL1
    IF ABS(X1 - X) < .00005 THEN GOTO 2540
    X = X1
    GOTO 2510
2540  X(I) = X
    RETURN

```

3000 'Ammonia concentration in the vapour - the T-x-y relation

```

    X = X(I)
    IF I > 1 THEN GOTO 3100
    GOSUB 2300
3100  ALPHA = 0
    LogA = 0
    Xk = X(I) * 10
    Tk = (((T0 - TKEL) * 9 / 5 + 32) + 60) / 10
    FOR M = 0 TO 42
        SUM(M) = 0
    FOR N = 1 TO 9
        Ax = K(M, N) * COS(2 * PI * N * Xk / 20)
        SUM(M) = SUM(M) + Ax
    NEXT N
    Bt(M) = (K(M, 0) + 2 * SUM(M)) / 20
    BB = Bt(M) * COS(2 * PI * M * Tk / 86)
    IF M = 0 THEN GOTO 3500
    LogA = LogA + BB
3500  NEXT M

```

LogA = (Bt(0) + 2 \* LogA) / 86

```
ALPHA = EXP(LogA)
RETURN
```

4000 Enthalpy of the liquid mixture

```
ENTHL = 0
Xk = X(I) * 20
A(0) = PL(1) + PL(2) * P0 + PL(3) / P0 + PL(4) / P0 ^ 2 + PL(5) * LOG(P0)

FOR N = 1 TO 19
  A(N) = PL(5 * N + 1) + PL(5 * N + 2) * P0 + PL(5 * N + 3) / P0 + PL(5 * N + 4) / P0 ^ 2 + PL(5 * N
+ 5) * LOG(P0)
  B = A(N) * COS(2 * PI * N * Xk / 40)
  ENTHL = ENTHL + B
NEXT N
ENTHL = (A(0) + 2 * ENTHL) / 40
RETURN
```

4500 DIST. REFLUX

```
QD = ((Y(1) - X(12)) * (H11 - H12) / (Y(11) - X(12)) - (H1 - H12)) * m3
REFLUX = (QD / m3) / (H1 - H3) Reflux Ratio
MR = REFLUX * m3
M1 = m3 + MR
M12 = m3 * (Y(1) - Y(11)) / (Y(11) - X(12))
M11 = m3 * (Y(1) - X(12)) / (Y(11) - X(12))
RETURN
```

5000 Enthalpy of vapour at "y" between 0.000 and 0.900

```
ENTHV = 0
IF Y(I) > .9 THEN GOTO 6000
Yk = Y(I) * 10
A(0) = PV1(1) + PV1(2) * P0 + PV1(3) / P0 + PV1(4) / P0 ^ 2 + PV1(5) * LOG(P0)

FOR N = 1 TO 9
  A(N) = PV1(5 * N + 1) + PV1(5 * N + 2) * P0 + PV1(5 * N + 3) / P0 + PV1(5 * N + 4) / P0 ^ 2 +
PV1(5 * N + 5) * LOG(P0)
  B = A(N) * COS(2 * PI * N * Yk / 18)
  ENTHV = ENTHV + B
NEXT N
ENTHV = (A(0) + 2 * ENTHV) * .874972 (100/6.34941/18)
GOTO 6050
```

6000 Enthalpy of vapour at "y" between 0.900 and 1.000

```
Yk = 100 * Y(I) - 90
A(0) = PV2(1) + PV2(2) * P0 + PV2(3) / P0 + PV2(4) / P0 ^ 2 + PV2(5) * LOG(P0)

FOR N = 1 TO 19
  A(N) = PV2(5 * N + 1) + PV2(5 * N + 2) * P0 + PV2(5 * N + 3) / P0 + PV2(5 * N + 4) / P0 ^ 2 +
PV2(5 * N + 5) * LOG(P0)
  B = A(N) * COS(2 * PI * N * Yk / 40)
  ENTHV = ENTHV + B
NEXT N
ENTHV = (A(0) + 2 * ENTHV) / 40
6050 RETURN
```

6910 Subroutine "ELECRTICAL PUMP"

```
T = T0 - TKEL
VOLA = C(4) * T0 ^ 4 + C(3) * T0 ^ 3 + C(2) * T0 ^ 2 + C(1) * T0 + C(0)
VOLW = (3.086 - .899017 * (374.1 - T) ^ .147166 - .4 * (P0 - 218.5) * (385 - T) ^ -1.6) * 10 ^ -3
VFX = (1 - XST) * VOLW + .85 * XST * VOLA
```

```

EPEFF = .7
WOUT = (101.37931# * (P1 - P2) * M7 * VFX) / (M7)
WIN = (101.37931# * (P1 - P2) * VFX) / (EPEFF)
RETURN

```

6915 'Subroutine "VAPOUR PUMP"

```

T = T0 - TKEL
VOLA = C(4) * T0 ^ 4 + C(3) * T0 ^ 3 + C(2) * T0 ^ 2 + C(1) * T0 + C(0)
VOLW = (3.086 - .899017 * (374.1 - T) ^ .147166 - .4 * (P0 - 218.5) * (385 - T) ^ -1.6) * 10 ^ -3
VFX = (1 - XST) * VOLW + .85 * XST * VOLA
Dr = .008;
L = .025
DS = .02
fr = (mf(z) * VFX * 2) / (3.14159 * L * DS ^ 2)
DV = .05
DENS = 1 / (DNH(1) + DNH(2) * T(11) + DNH(3) * T(11) * P1 + DNH(4) * T(11) * P1 ^ 2 + DNH(5)
T(11) * P1 ^ 3 + DNH(6) * T(11) / P1 + DNH(7) / T(11) ^ 3 + DNH(8) * P1 / T(11) ^ 11 + DNH(9) /
T(11) ^ 11 + DNH(10) * P1 ^ 3 / T(11) ^ 10)
M16 = DENS * fr * L * 3.14159 / 2 * (2 * DV ^ 2 - DR ^ 2 - DS ^ 2)
RETURN

```

8210

```

ZAZ$ = SPACES$(10)
PRINT ZAZ$, "+"; STRING$(16, 205); "-"; STRING$(26, 205); "-"; STRING$(16, 205); "+"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y +"; STRING$(14, 205); "Y";
PRINT " ABSORPTION REFRIGERATION "; "Y"; STRING$(14, 205); "+ Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(14); "+"; STRING$(26, 205); "+"; SPACES$(14); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y +—"; STRING$(32, 205); "-"; STRING$(17, 205); "—+ Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y—Y"; SPACES$(32); "Y"; SPACES$(17); "Y—Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y +—"; STRING$(32, 205); "-"; STRING$(17, 205); "—+ Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; STRING$(56, 205); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y Y"; SPACES$(56); "Y Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "Y +"; STRING$(22, 205); "-"; STRING$(10, 205); "-"; STRING$(22, 205); "+ Y"
PRINT ZAZ$, "+"; STRING$(24, 205); "Y"; SPACES$(10); "Y"; STRING$(24, 205); "+"
PRINT ZAZ$, SPACES$(25); "+"; STRING$(10, 205); "+"
LOCATE 22, 38: PRINT "DEC 1993"
RETURN

```

## Appendix B

### Specific volume of superheated ammonia

(reproduced from Vicatos)

"v" superheated ammonia vapour

for pressures from 0.1 to 24 bars  
from saturation temperature to 480 K

P in [bars]

T in [K]

v in [m<sup>3</sup>/kg]

$$v = a + bT + cTP + dTP^2 + eTP^3 + fT/P + g/T^3 + hP/T^{11} + i/T^{11} + jP^3/T^{10}$$

a = 1.972067E-03  
b = -5.178901E-06  
c = -5.265812E-08  
d = 1.217014E-09  
e = 3.802621E-11  
f = 4.881826E-03  
g = -4.106189E+05  
h = -2.164457E+23  
i = -1.222804E+23  
j = -1.769827E+18

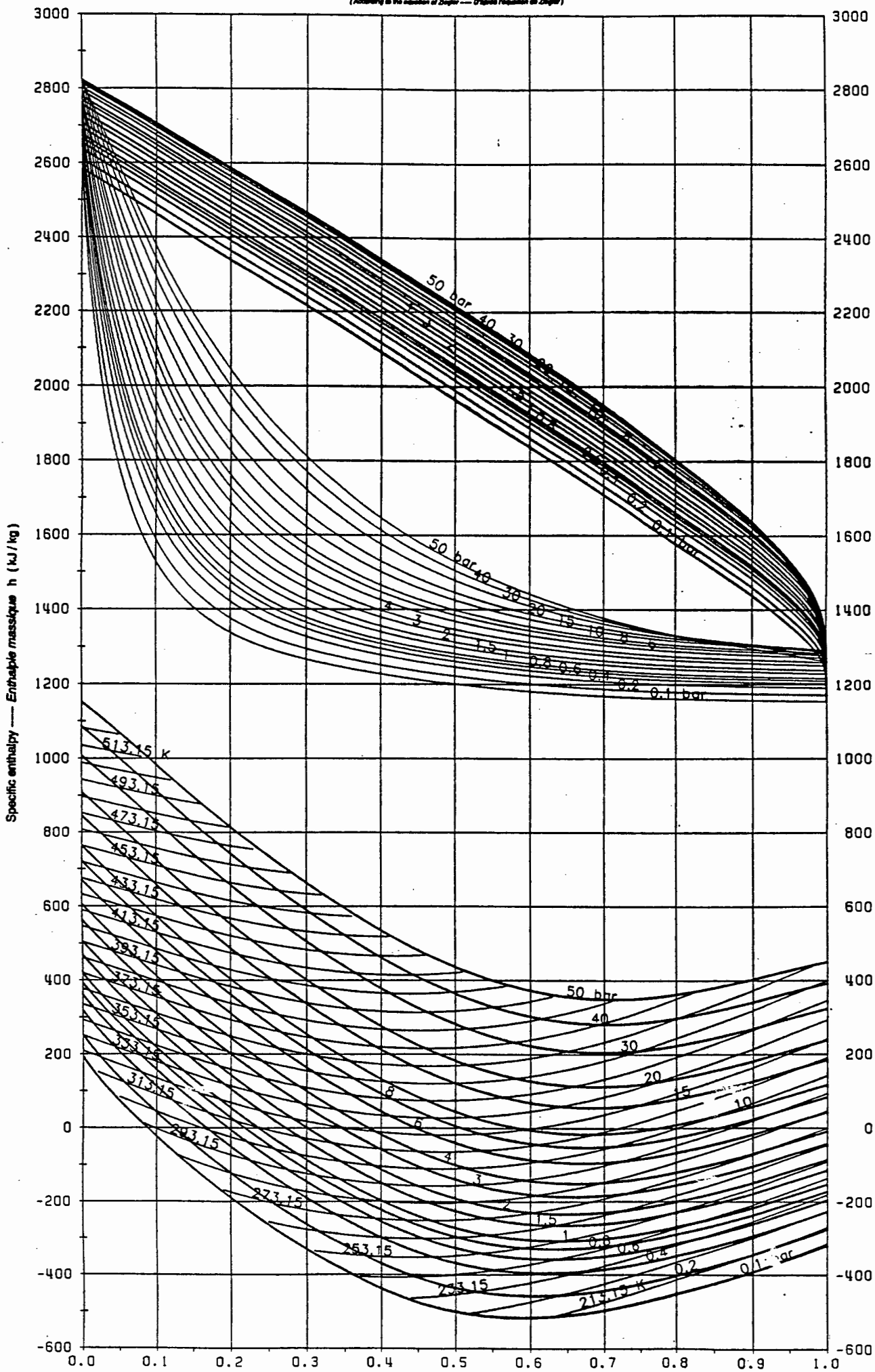
accuracy	-2.6390%	max
	-0.6957%	min
	-0.0824%	average



Enthalpy-Concentration ( Mass fraction ) — Enthalpie-Concentration massique

Ammonia-Water — Ammoniac-Eau

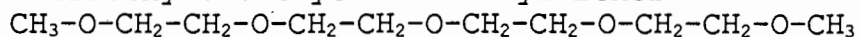
(According to the equation of Ziegler — Equation Niquette de Ziegler)



## Appendix C

### Tetraglyme (E181)

Tetraethylene Glycol Dimethyl Ether

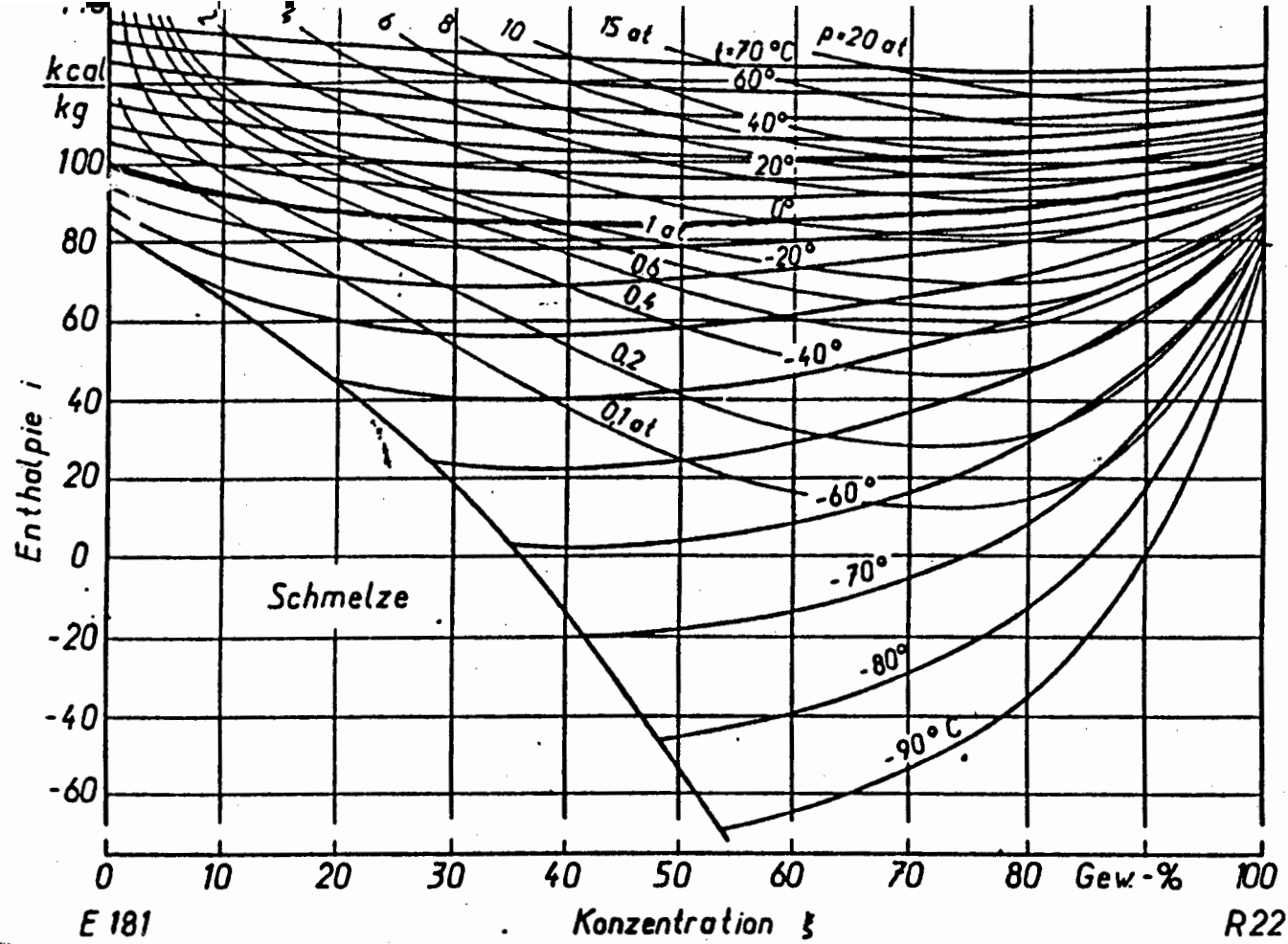


#### Specifications

Purity (by G.C.), wt%	98.0 min	typically 99.0
Acidity (as acetic acid), ppm	150 max	typically 25
Water content, ppm	500 max	typically 100
Peroxide content, ppm	15 max	typically 5
Suspended Matter	nil	
Appearance	clear, colourless	
Odor	very mild, non-residual	

#### Properties

Molecular weight	222.28
Specific Gravity, 20/20°C	1.0132
Pounds per Gallon, 20°C	8.45
Boiling Point, °C, 760mm Hg	275
Freezing Point, °C	-29.7
Vapour Pressure, mm Hg at 20°C	<0.01
Volatility (n-butyl acetate = 100)	<0.1
Azeotrope with water	none
Heat of Vapourization, Kcal/mole, 760mm Hg	18.7
Refractive Index, 20°C	1.4330
Viscosity, centipoise, 20°C	4.1
Solubility in water	complete
Solubility, water in	complete
Flash point, closed cup	141°C (286°F)



Enthalpy-concentration diagram

Source: Krübel et al [12]

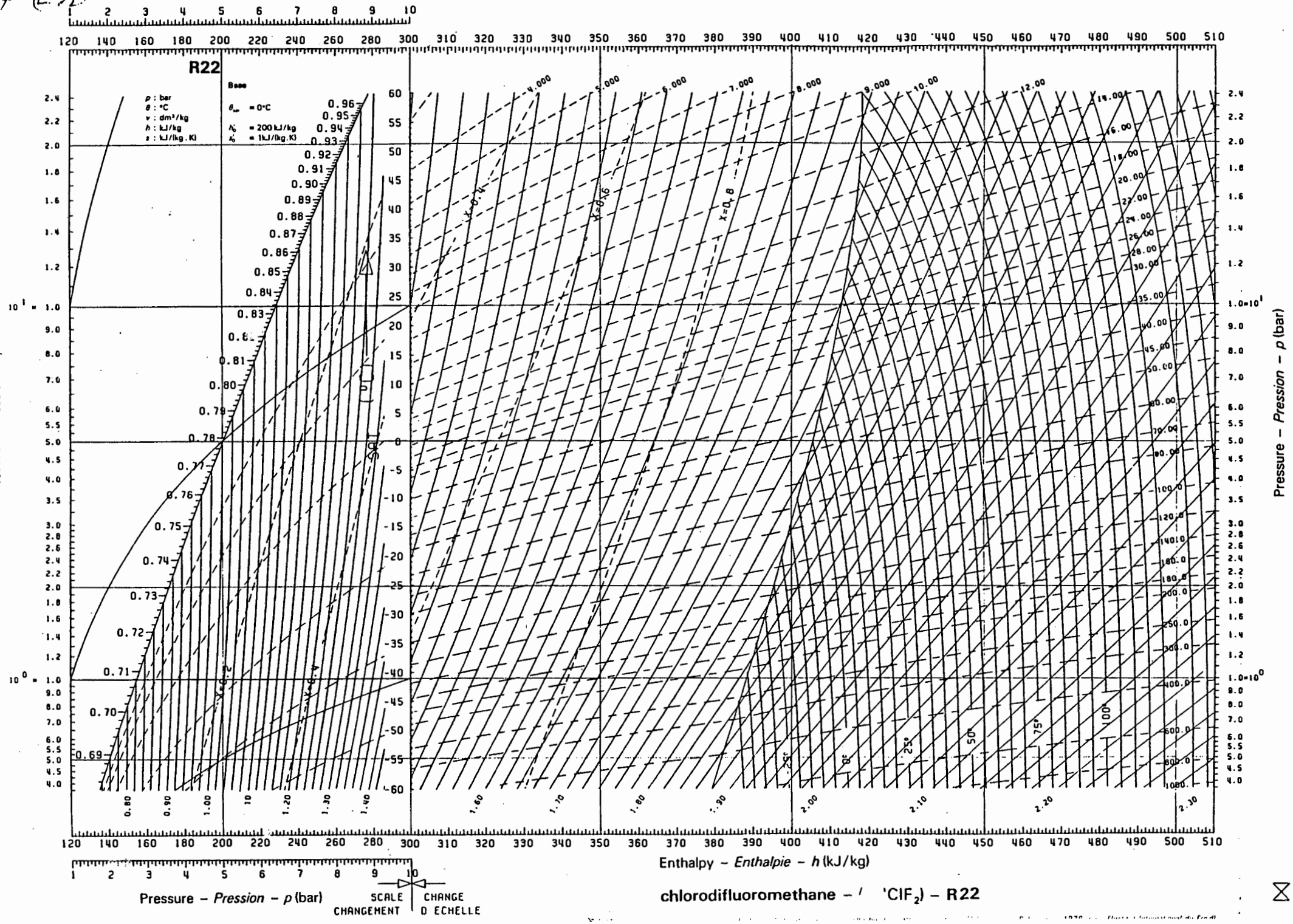
Anh. M1 Tabelle 5. Bevorzugte Kältemittel in Klimakälteanlagen nach Frigen-Fibel, Hoechst AG.

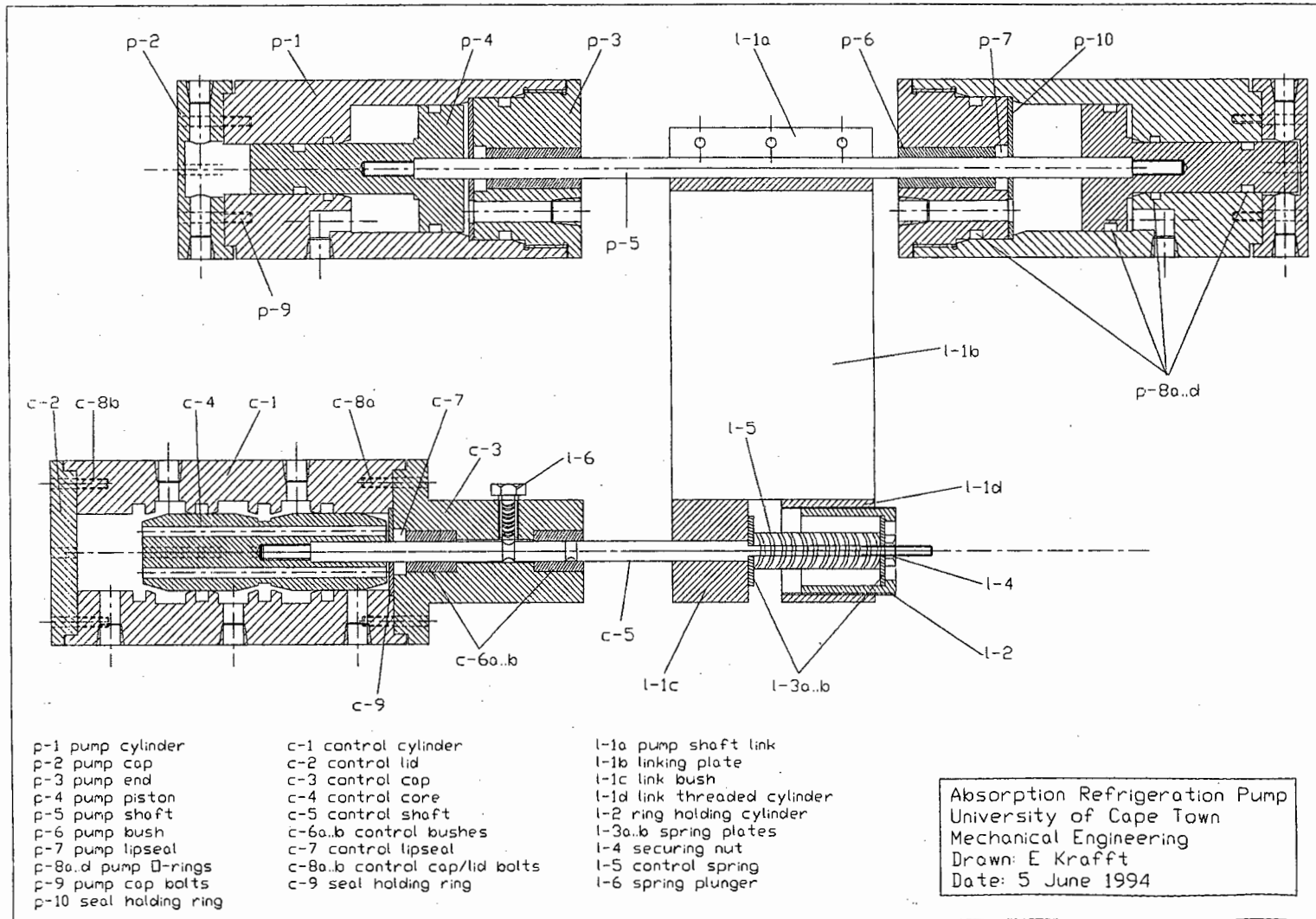
Bezeichnung	Chemische Formel	Internationale Kennziffer	Molmasse	Siedepunkt bei 1,013 bar	Erstarungspunkt	Kritische Temperatur	Kritischer Druck	Verdampfungswärme (Siedepunkt)	Spezifische Wärme der Flüssigkeit (Siedepunkt)	Dichte der Flüssigkeit bei 20 °C	Exponent der Adiabaten 30°: 1,013 bar
Trichlorfluormethan	CCl <sub>3</sub> F	R 11	137,38	23,8	-111	198,0	44,0	182,2	0,871	1,49	1,13
Dichlordifluormethan	CCl <sub>2</sub> F <sub>2</sub>	R 12	120,92	-29,8	-158	112,0	41,6	166,0	0,854	1,328	1,139
Bromtrifluormethan	CBrF <sub>3</sub>	R 13 B1	148,93	-57,8	-168	67,0	39,8	118,2	0,682	1,574	1,143
Chlordifluormethan	CHClF <sub>2</sub>	R 22	86,48	-40,8	-160	96,2	49,9	234,7	1,089	1,213	1,178
1,1,2-Trichlortrifluoräthan	CClF <sub>2</sub> -CCl <sub>2</sub> F	R 113	187,39	47,6	-35	214,1	34,1	144,7	0,946	1,582	1,082
1,2-Dichlortetrafluoräthan	CClF <sub>2</sub> -CClF <sub>2</sub>	R 114	170,93	3,6	-94	145,7	32,6	136,8	0,971	1,473	1,084
Azeotrop aus: Difluoräthan/ Dichlordifluormethan	CH <sub>2</sub> -CHF <sub>2</sub> / CCl <sub>2</sub> F <sub>2</sub>	R 500	99,29	-33,5	-159	105,5	44,3	201,3	1,214	1,173	1,14
Azeotrop aus: Chlordifluormethan/ Chlorpentafluoräthan	CHClF <sub>2</sub> / CClF <sub>2</sub> -CF <sub>3</sub>	R 502	111,6	-45,6	-160	82,2	40,8	172,6	1,277	1,240	1,135

Anh. M1 Tabelle 7. Dampftafel für Kältemittel R 22 (Frigen 22), Naßdampfgebiet (Hoechst AG)

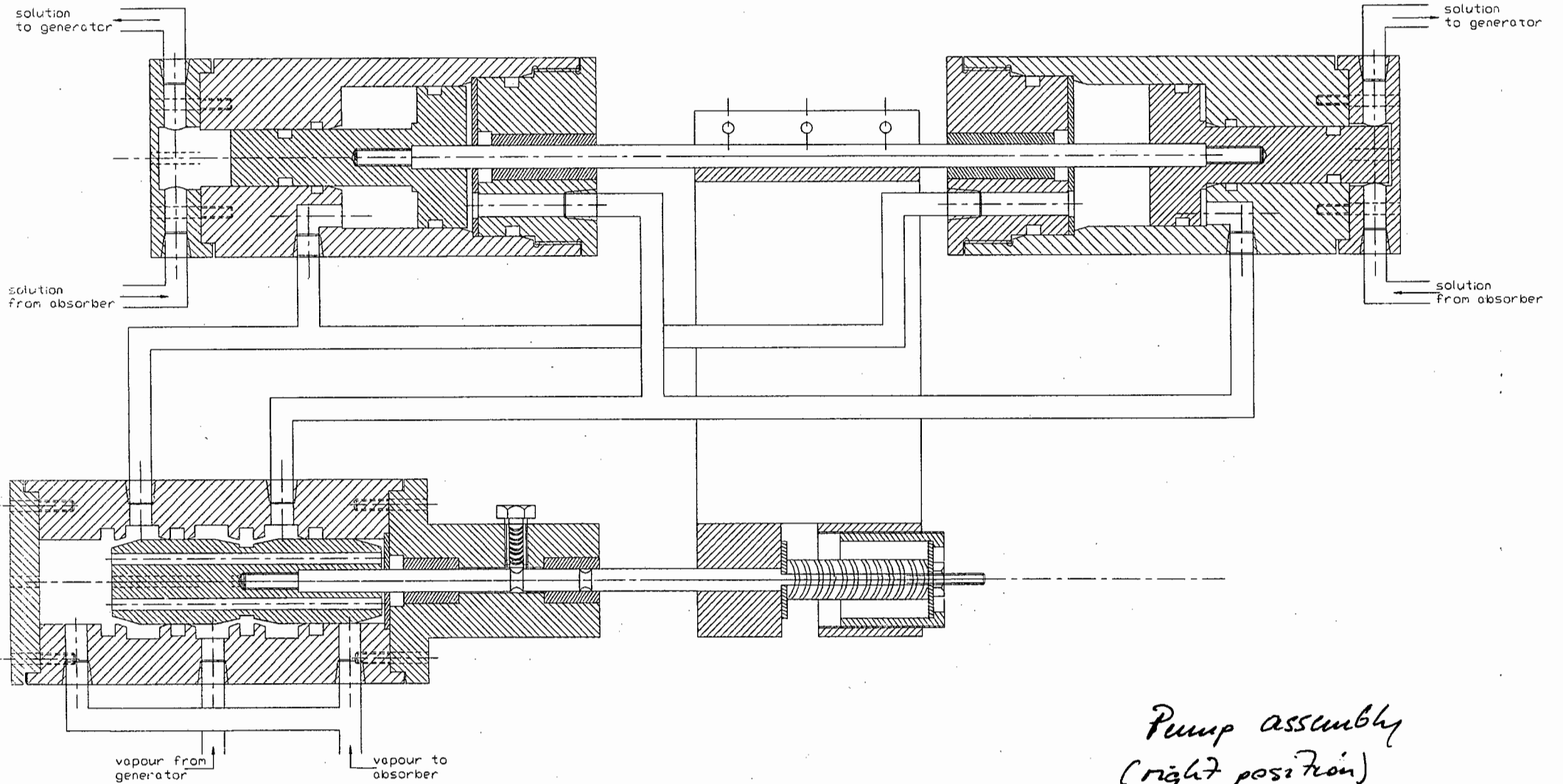
Temperatur t °C	Druck p bar	Spezifisches Volumen		Enthalpie		Entropie	
		der Flüssigkeit v' l/kg	des Dampfes v'' l/kg	der Flüssigkeit h' kJ/kg	des Dampfes h'' kJ/kg	der Flüssigkeit s' kJ/kg·K	des Dampfes s'' kJ/kg·K
-100	0,021	0,639	7906,83	95,95	357,78	0,5339	2,0461
-95	0,033	0,644	5235,42	100,24	360,26	0,5584	2,0179
-90	0,049	0,649	3556,81	104,61	362,77	0,5825	1,9921
-85	0,073	0,654	2473,79	109,08	365,31	0,6065	1,9684
-80	0,105	0,659	1757,88	113,62	367,85	0,6304	1,9466
-75	0,149	0,665	1273,99	118,27	370,41	0,6541	1,9266
-70	0,206	0,671	940,11	123,02	372,97	0,6778	1,9081
-65	0,281	0,677	705,32	127,88	375,53	0,7013	1,8911
-60	0,376	0,683	537,29	132,84	378,07	0,7249	1,8754
-55	0,497	0,689	415,07	137,92	380,60	0,7483	1,8608
-50	0,646	0,695	324,82	143,10	383,09	0,7718	1,8473
-45	0,830	0,702	257,23	148,40	385,55	0,7952	1,8347
-40	1,053	0,709	205,95	153,80	387,97	0,8186	1,8229
-35	1,321	0,717	166,57	159,30	390,34	0,8418	1,8119
-30	1,640	0,724	135,98	164,89	392,65	0,8649	1,8016
-25	2,016	0,732	111,97	170,58	394,90	0,8880	1,7919
-20	2,455	0,740	92,93	176,33	397,07	0,9108	1,7827
-15	2,964	0,749	77,70	182,17	399,17	0,9335	1,7740
-10	3,550	0,758	65,40	188,06	401,18	0,9559	1,7658
-5	4,219	0,768	55,39	194,00	403,10	0,9781	1,7579
0	4,980	0,778	47,18	200,00	404,93	1,0000	1,7502
5	5,839	0,788	40,40	206,03	406,65	1,0216	1,7429
10	6,803	0,799	34,75	212,10	408,27	1,0430	1,7358
15	7,882	0,811	30,03	218,21	409,77	1,0641	1,7289
20	9,081	0,824	26,04	224,34	411,15	1,0848	1,7220
25	10,411	0,837	22,66	230,50	412,39	1,1053	1,7153
30	11,880	0,852	19,78	236,70	413,49	1,1255	1,7086
35	13,496	0,867	17,31	242,93	414,43	1,1454	1,7019
40	15,269	0,884	15,17	249,21	415,19	1,1651	1,6952
45	17,209	0,902	13,32	255,57	415,76	1,1847	1,6882
50	19,327	0,923	11,70	262,03	416,11	1,2043	1,6811
55	21,635	0,945	10,29	268,62	416,20	1,2238	1,6736
60	24,146	0,970	9,03	275,40	415,99	1,2436	1,6656
65	26,873	0,999	7,92	282,44	415,40	1,2638	1,6570
70	29,833	1,032	6,92	289,85	414,35	1,2846	1,6475
75	33,042	1,071	6,01	297,78	412,67	1,3066	1,6366
80	36,520	1,120	5,17	306,50	410,13	1,3304	1,6238
85	40,290	1,185	4,38	316,43	406,22	1,3571	1,6078
90	44,374	1,276	3,59	328,42	399,75	1,3889	1,5833
95	48,802	1,506	2,60	347,63	384,73	1,4397	1,5405
96,18	49,900	1,949	1,95	366,83	366,83	1,4913	1,4913



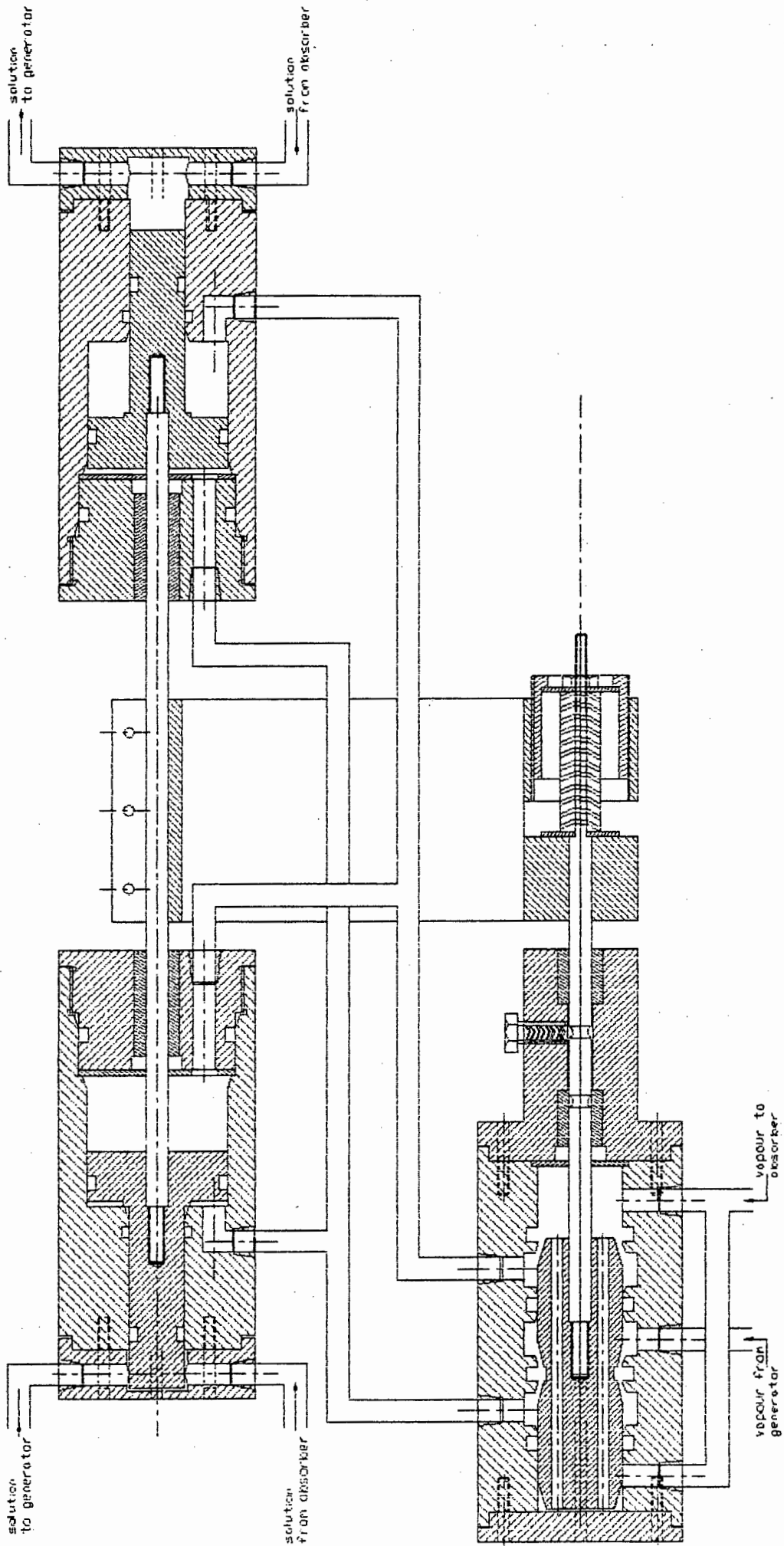




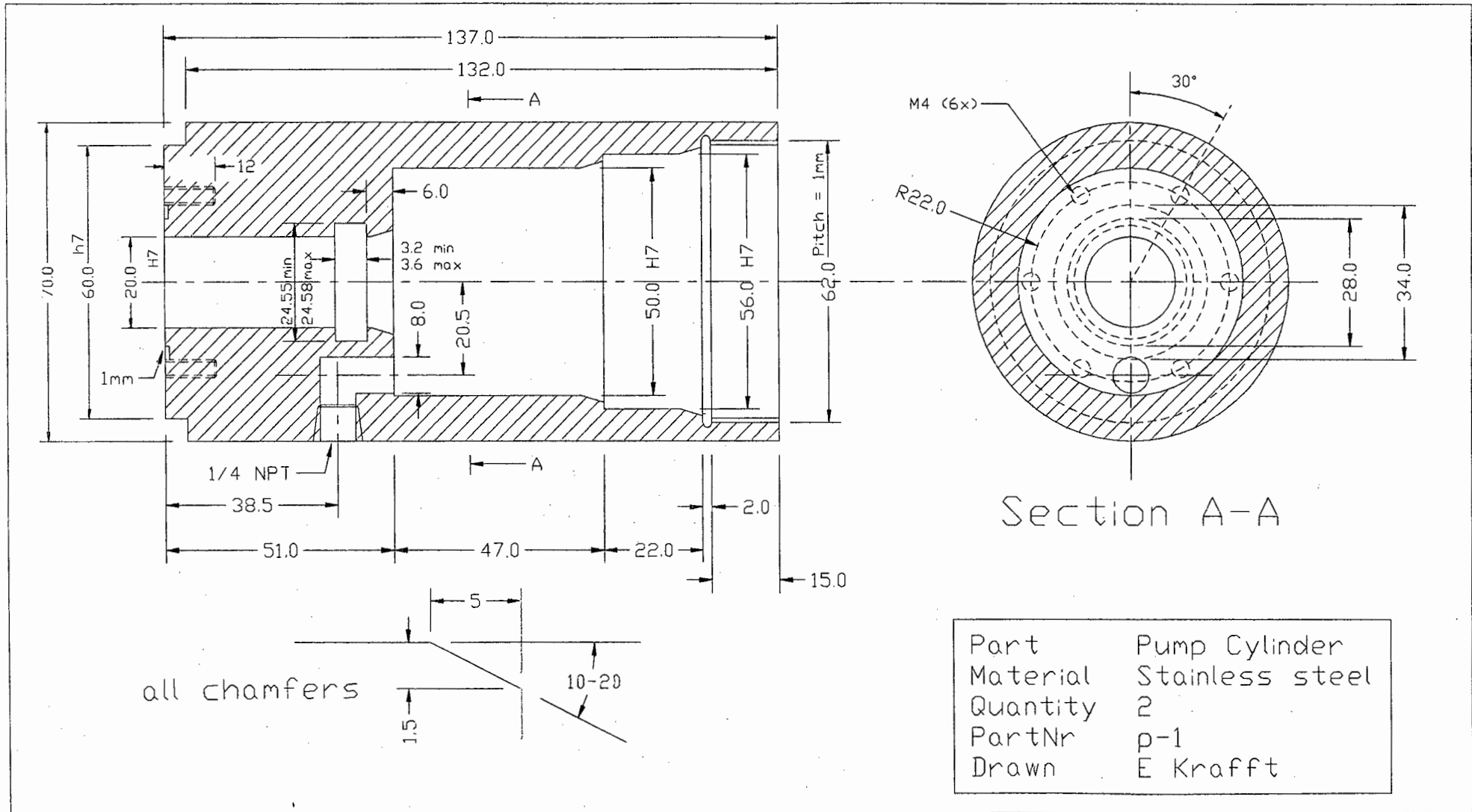
Absorption Refrigeration Pump  
 University of Cape Town  
 Mechanical Engineering  
 Drawn: E Krafft  
 Date: 5 June 1994

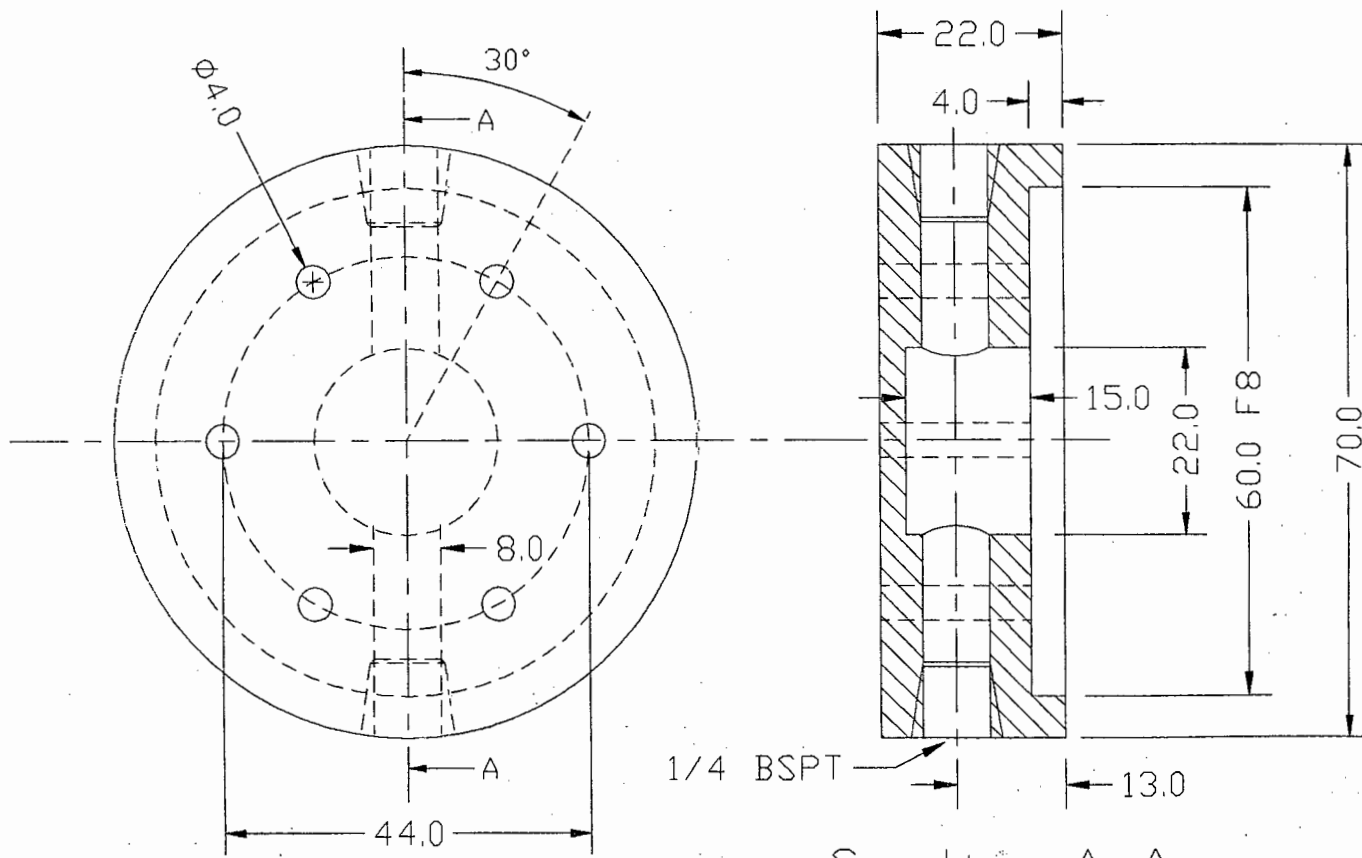


*Pump assembly  
(right position)*



*Pump Assembly  
(left position)*

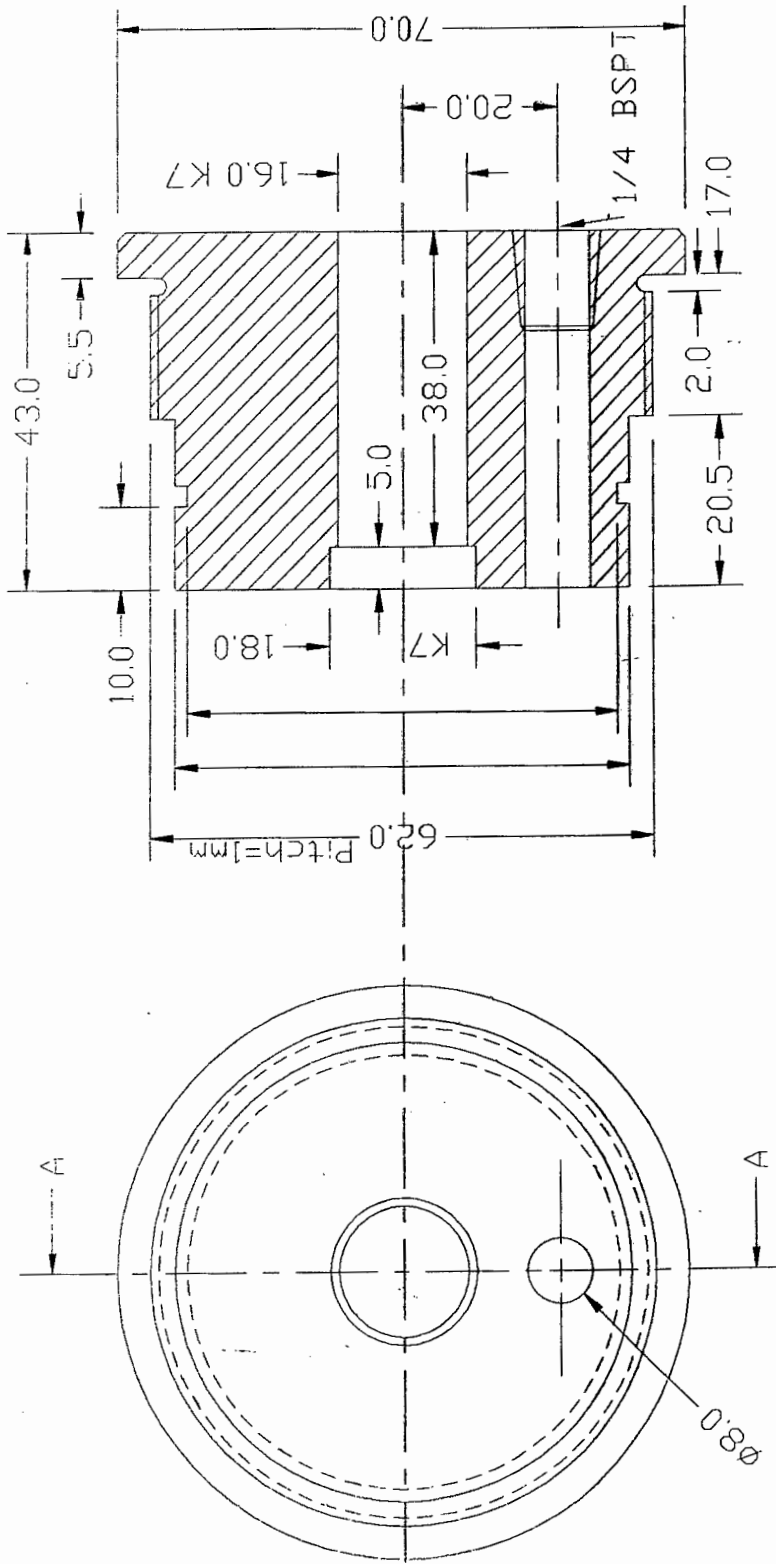




Section A-A

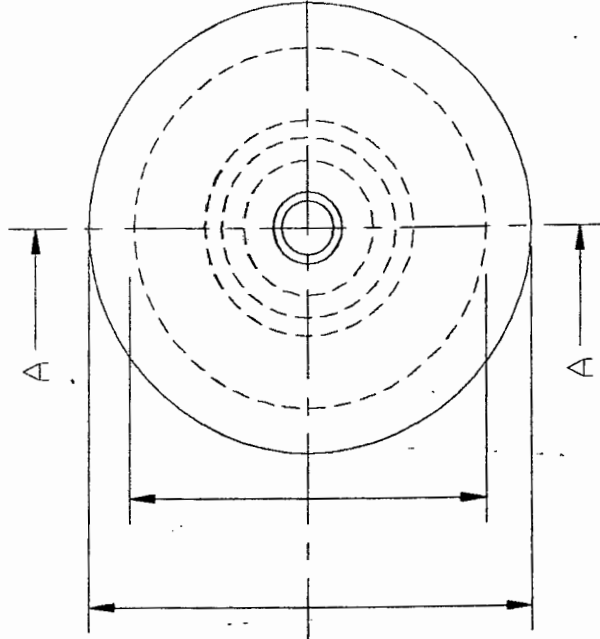
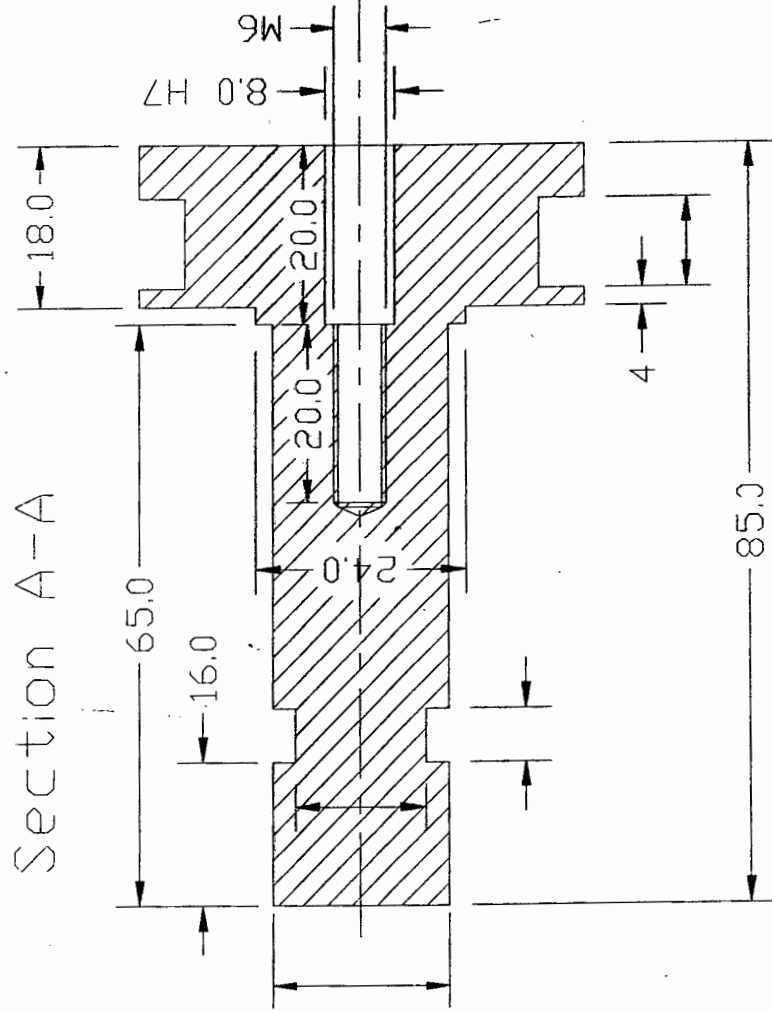
Part	Pump Caps
Material	Stainless steel
Quantity	2
Drawn	E Krafft
Partnr	p-2

# Section A-A



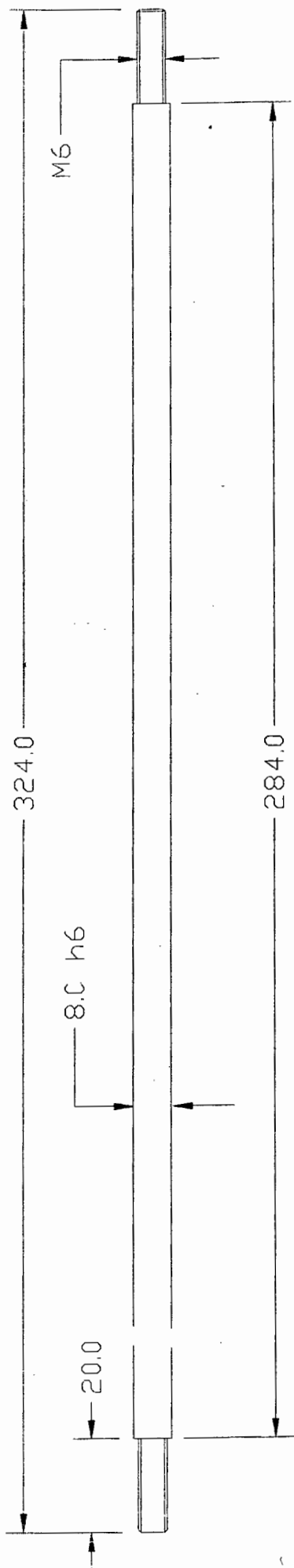
Part	Pump Ends
Material	Stainless steel
Quantity	2
PartNr	P-3
Drawn	E Krafft

Section A-A

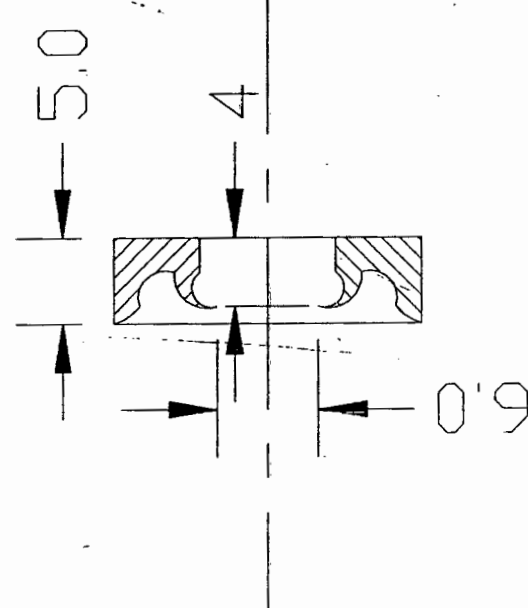
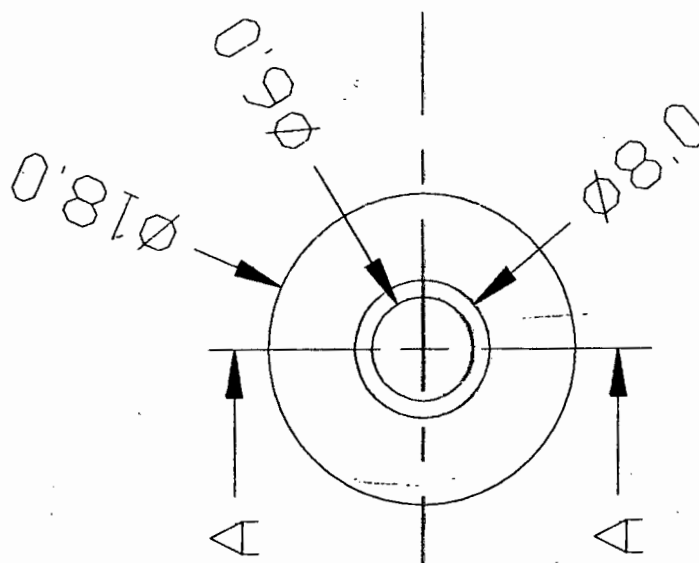


Part	Pump Piston
Material	Stainless steel
Quantity	2
PartNr	P-4
Drawn	E Krafft



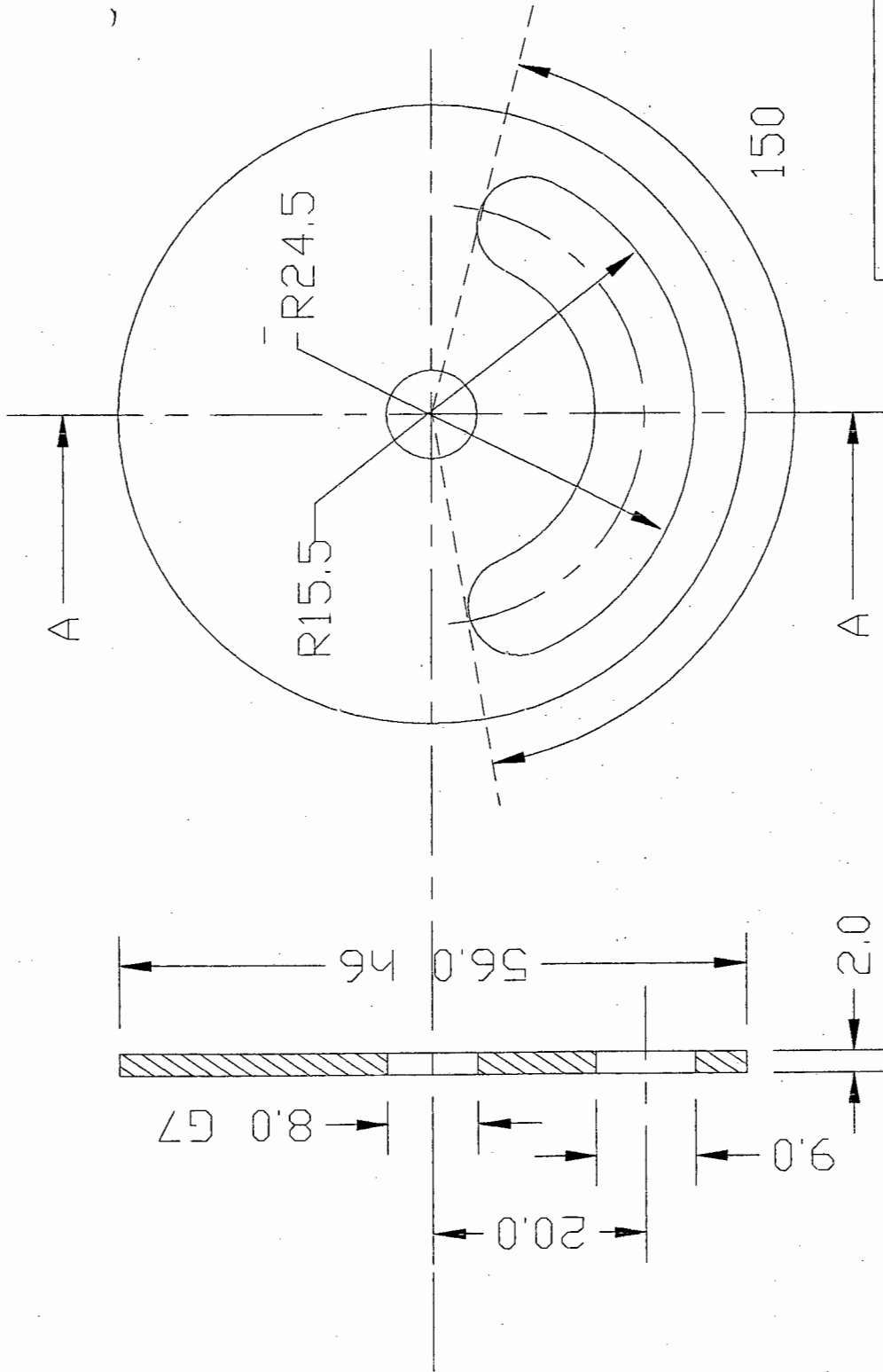


Part	Pump Shaft
Material	Silver steel (polished)
Quantity	1
PartNr	p-5
Drawr	E Krafft



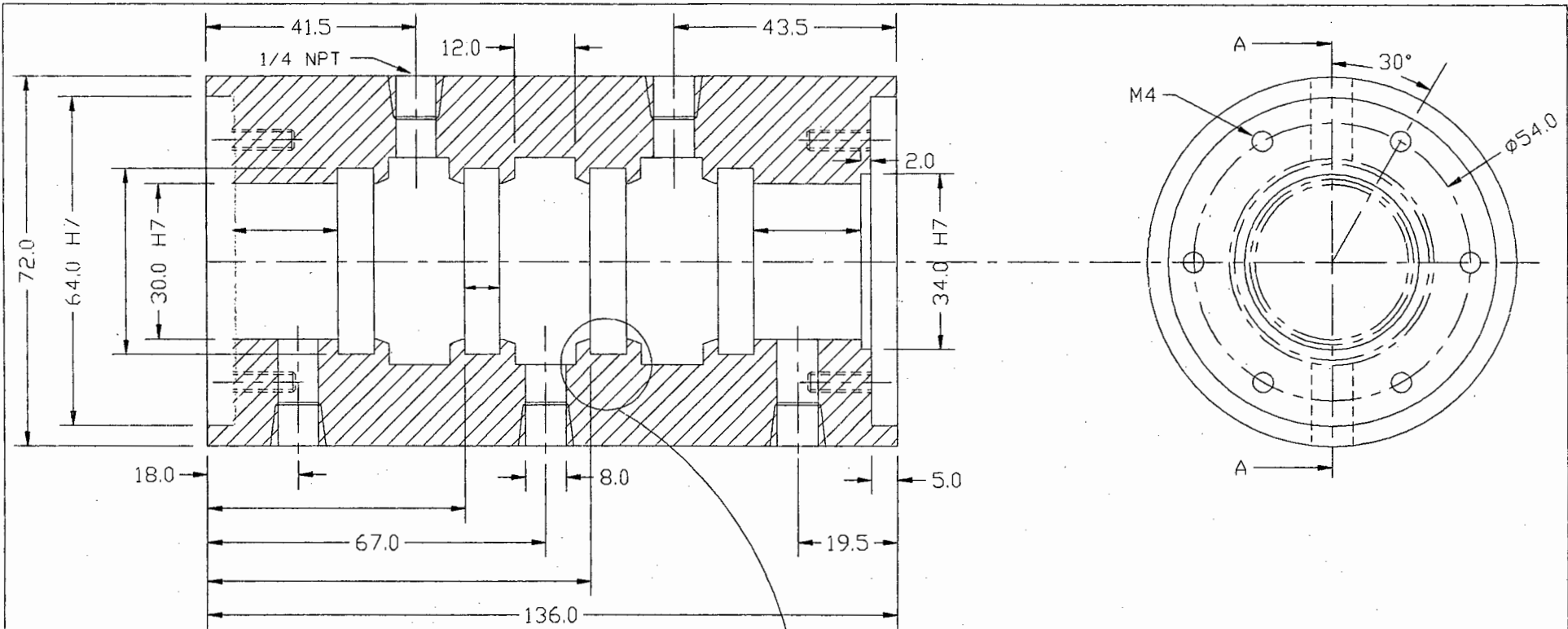
Section A-A

Part	Lipseals
Material	Teflon
Quantity	3
PartNr	P-7 / c-7
Drawn	E Krafft

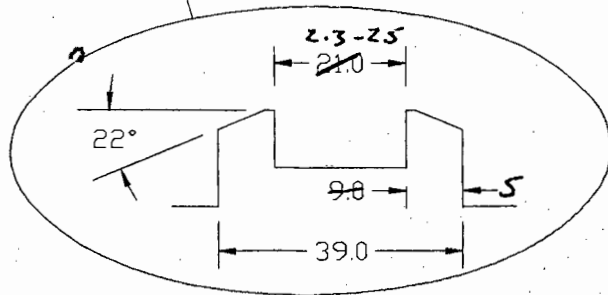


Part	Seal holding ring
Material	Mild steel
Qty	2
PartNr	p-10

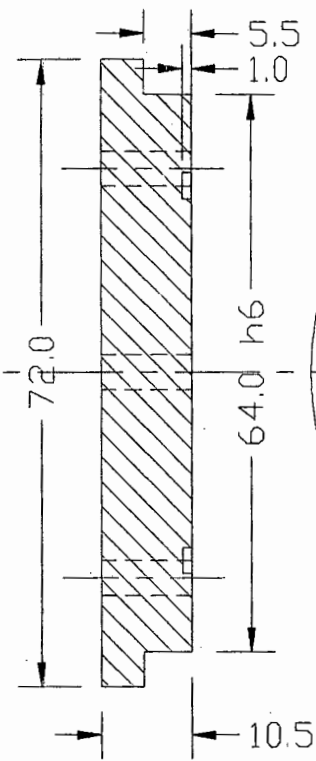
Section A-A



Section A-A

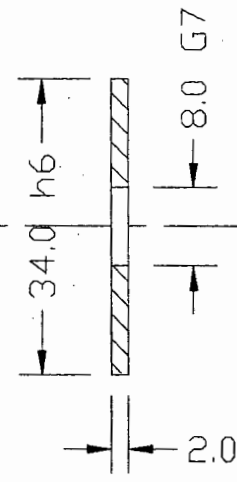
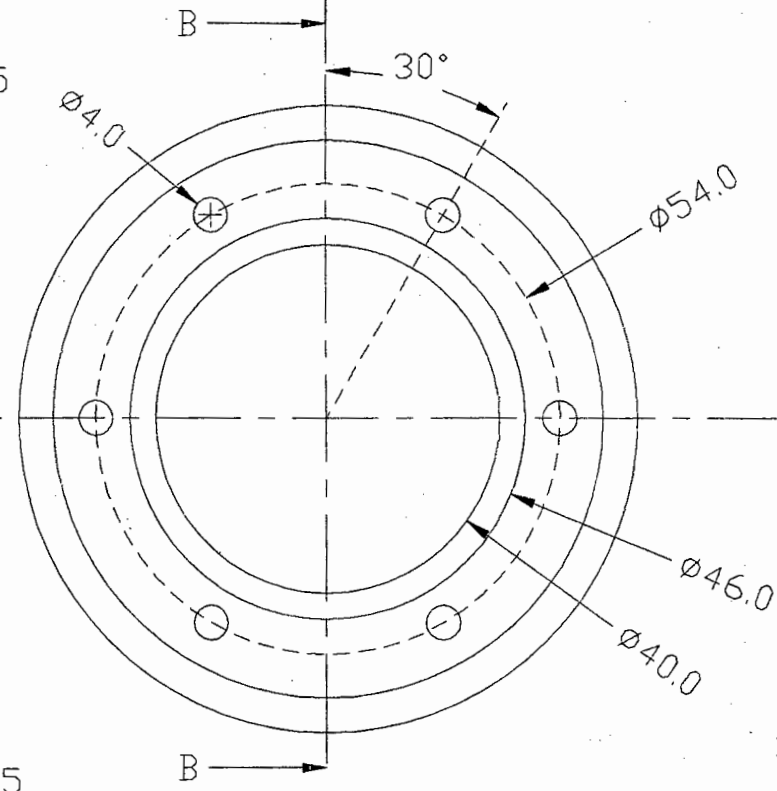


Part	Control Cylinder
Material	Stainless steel
Qty	1
PartNr	c-1
Drawn	E Kraftt



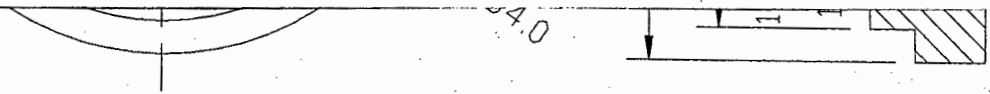
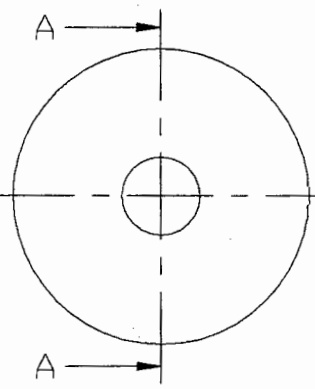
Section B-B

Part	Control Lid
Material	Mild steel
Quantity	1
PartNr	c-2

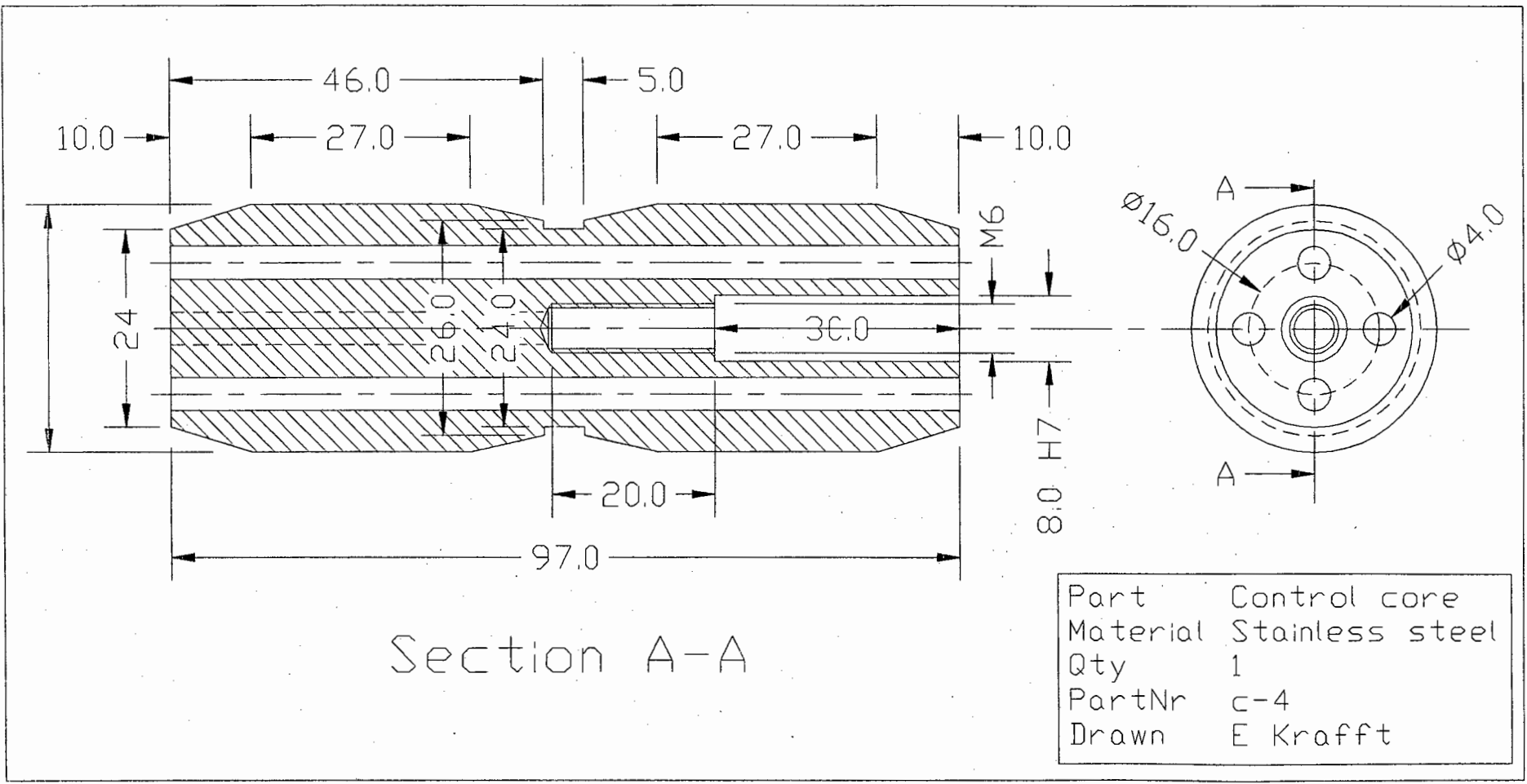


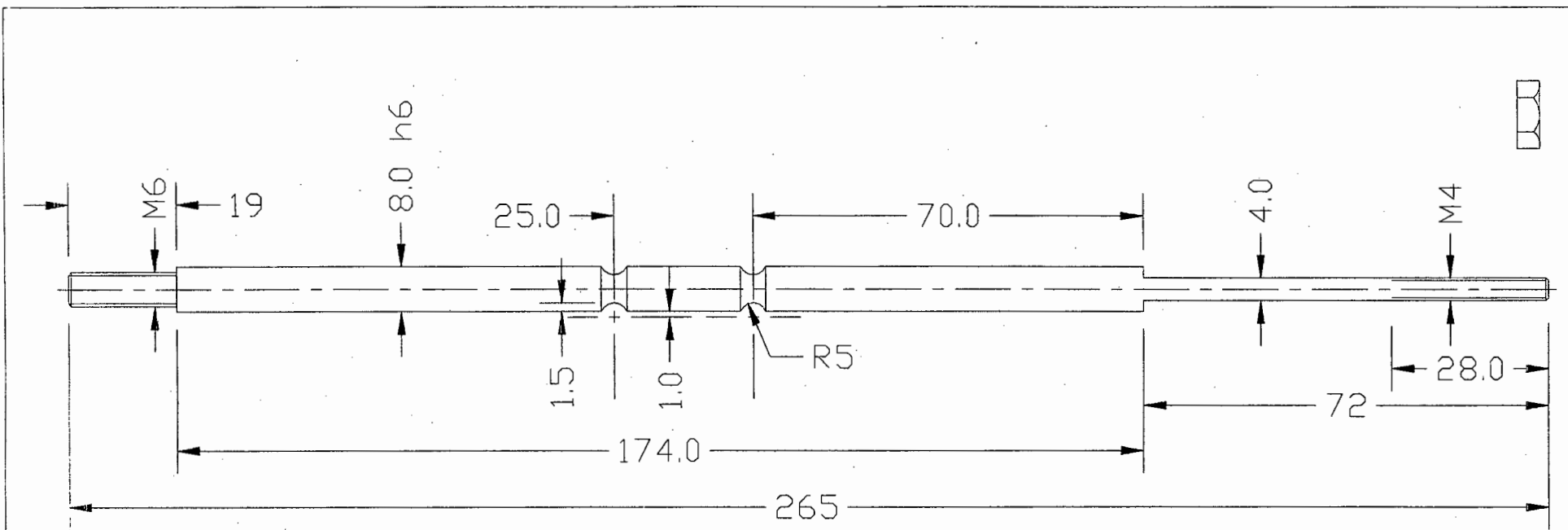
Section A-A

Part	Seal holding ring
Material	Mild steel
Quantity	1
PartNr	c-9

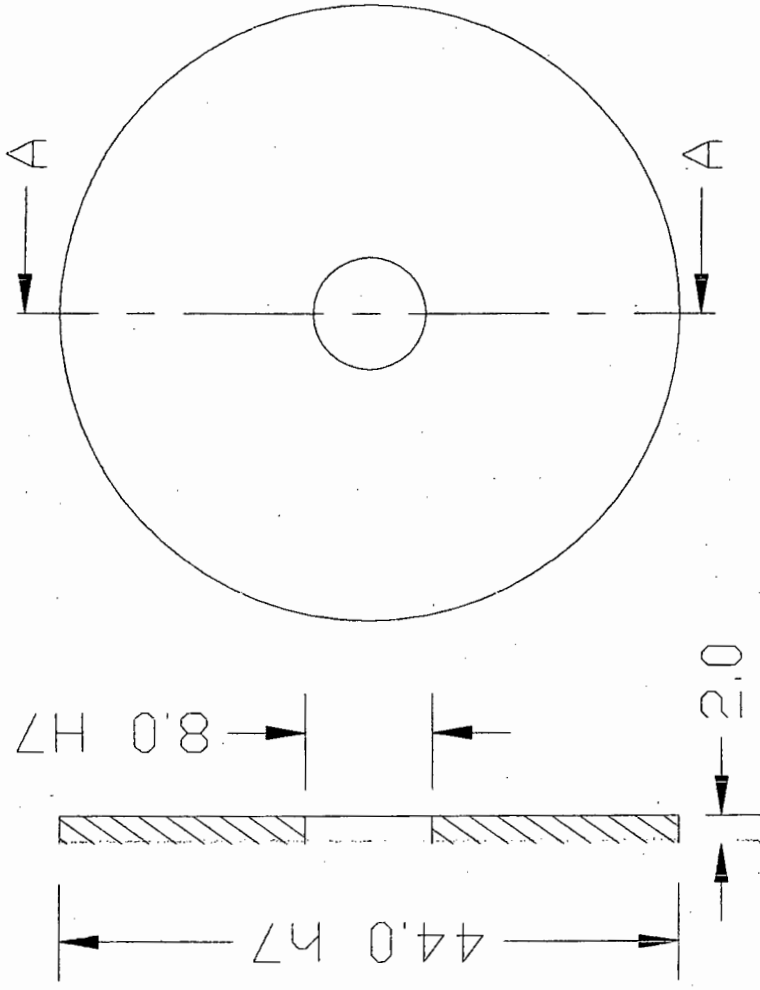


Part	Control Cap
Material	Mild steel
Quantity	1
PartNr	c-3
Drawn	E Krafft





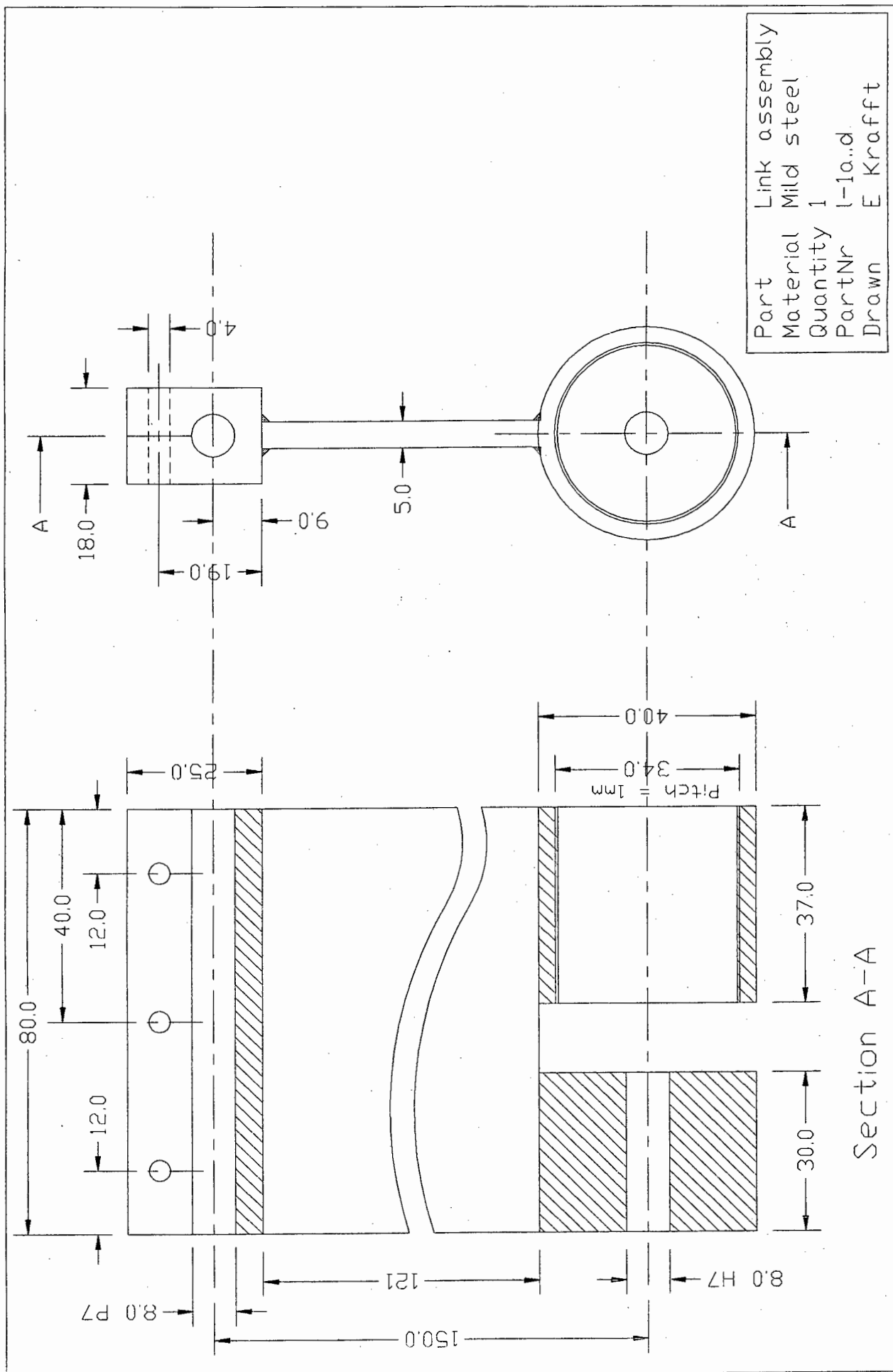
Part	Control Shaft
Material	Silver steel (polished)
Qty	1
PartNr	c-5



Section A-A

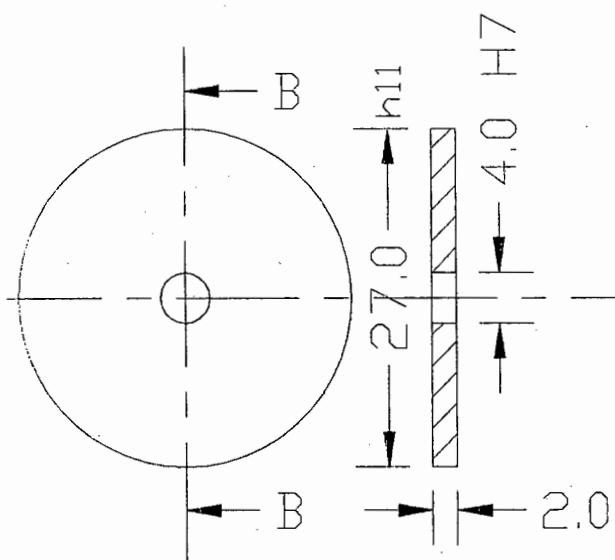
Part	Seal holding ring
Material	Steel
Quantity	1
PartNr	C-9





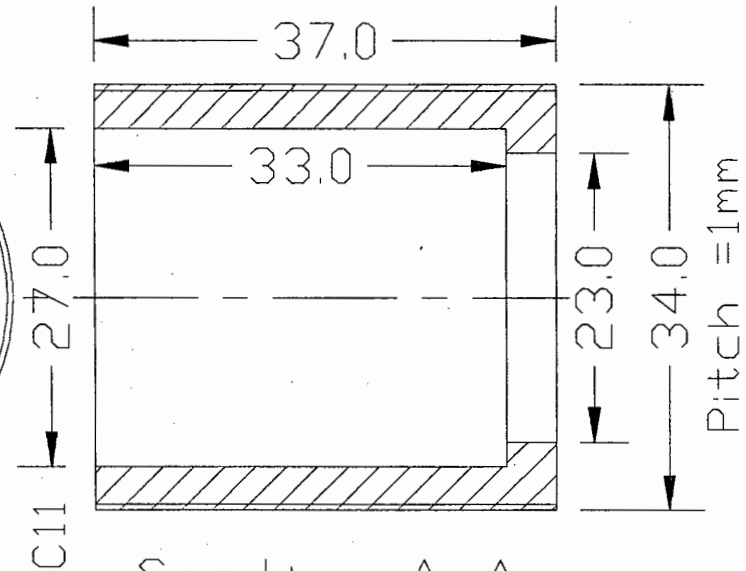
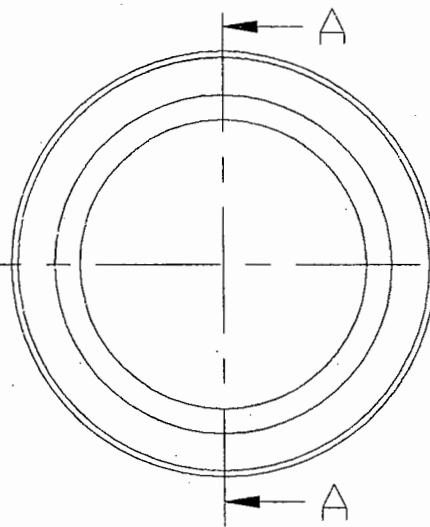
Section A-A

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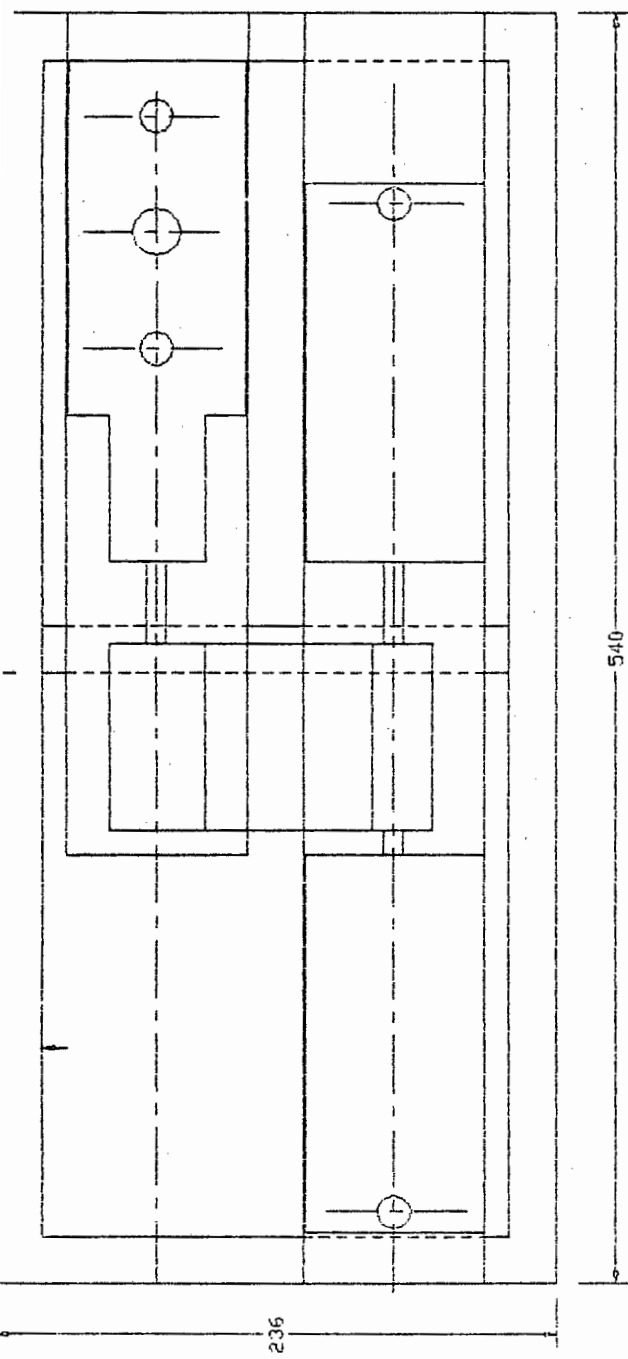
Section B-B

Part	Spring rings
Material	steel
Qty	2
PartNr	1-3a..b

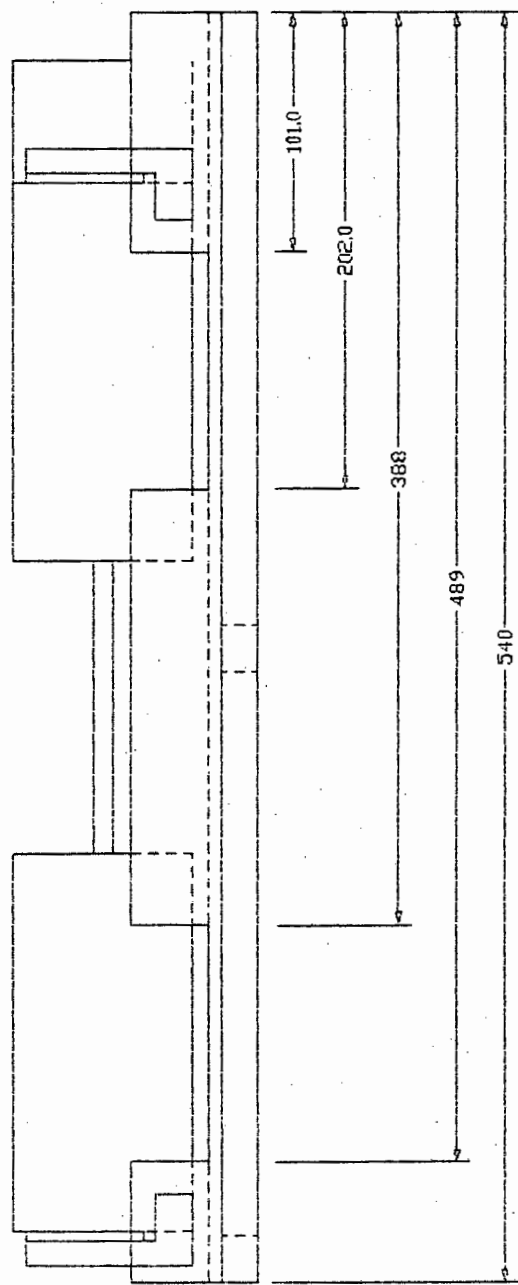


Section A-A

Part	Spring cylinder
Material	steel
Qty	1
PartNr	1-2

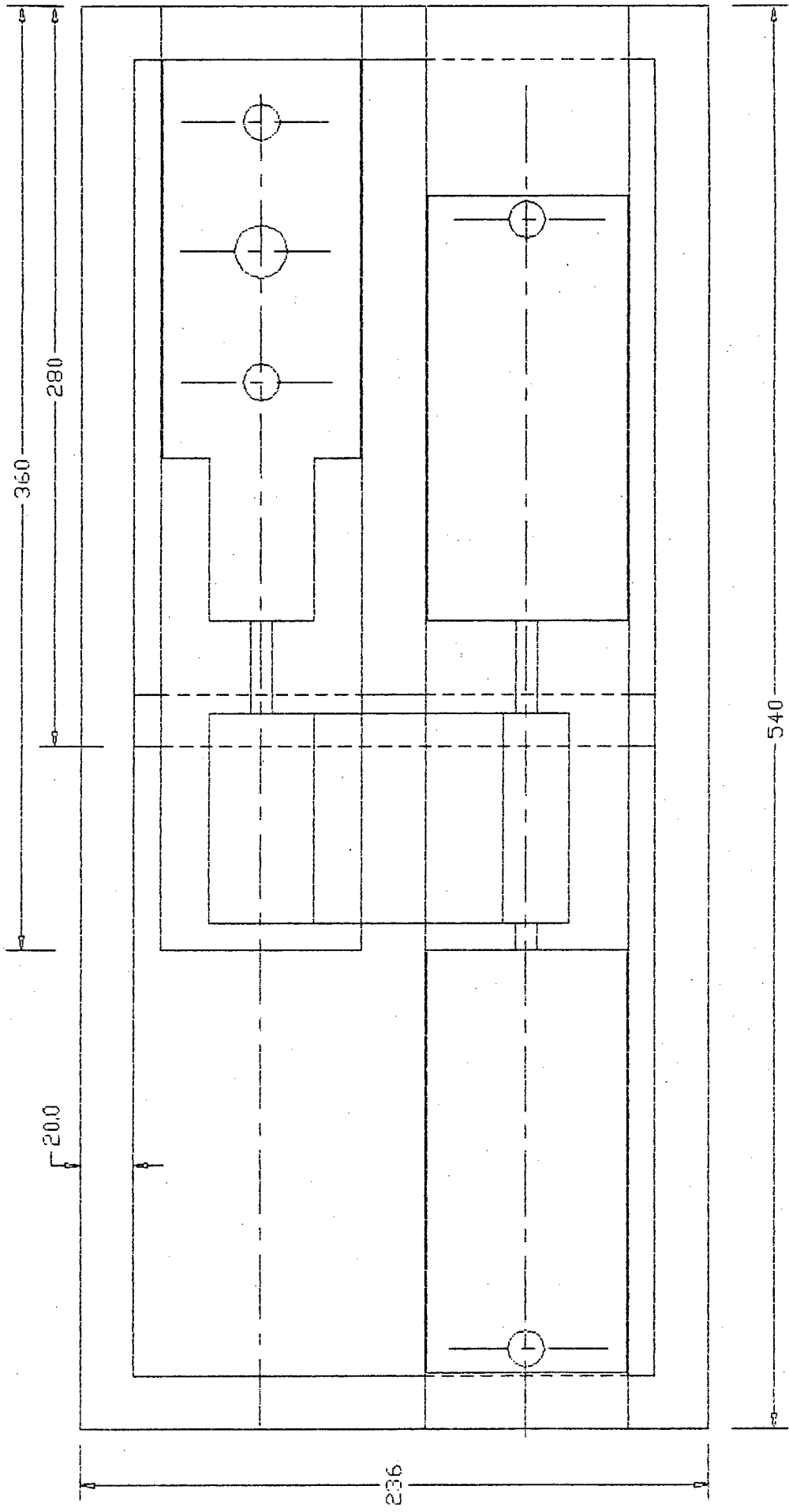


*top view*



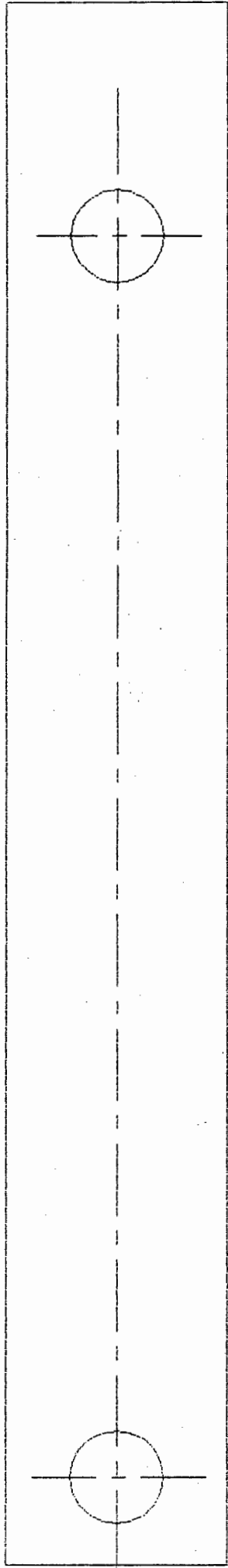
*side view*

*Base plate - Pump  
Assembly*



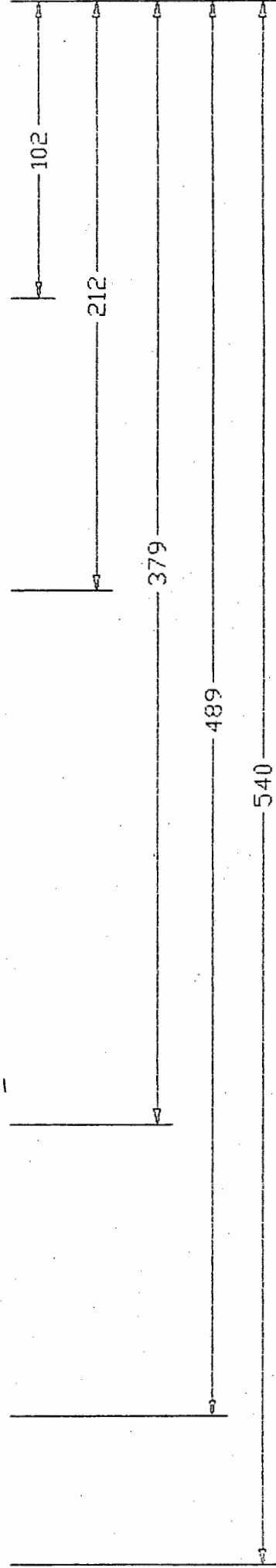
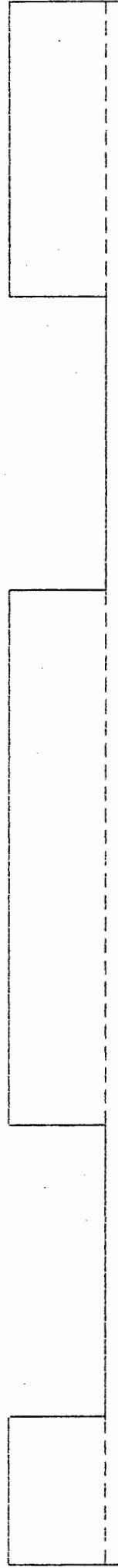
Base Plate - Pump Assembly - top view

1/2" = 1"



305

80,5



Box plate clamp

## Appendix E

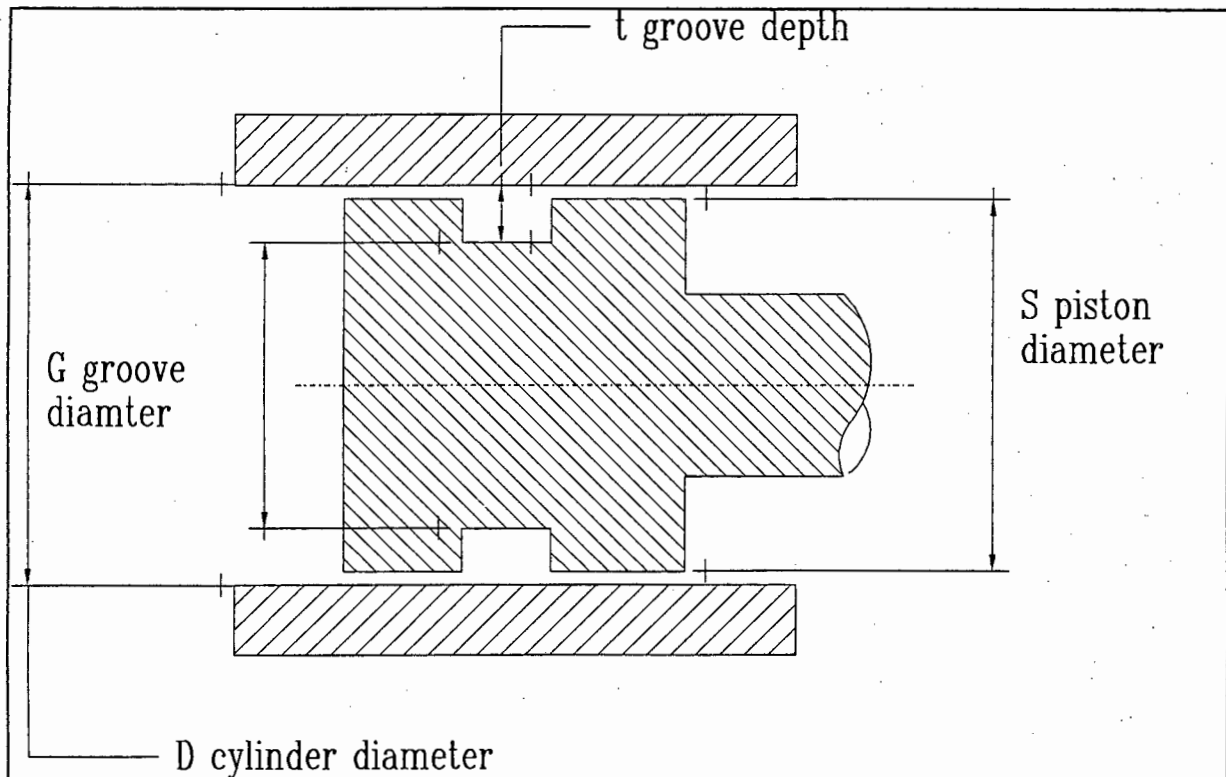
### Seal specifications

Figure E.1 shows the location of seals.

Tables E.1 to E.6 (obtained from Bearing Man, Cape Town) were taken as guidelines for the groove dimensions.

The groove dimensions are calculated as follows:

*for piston grooves*

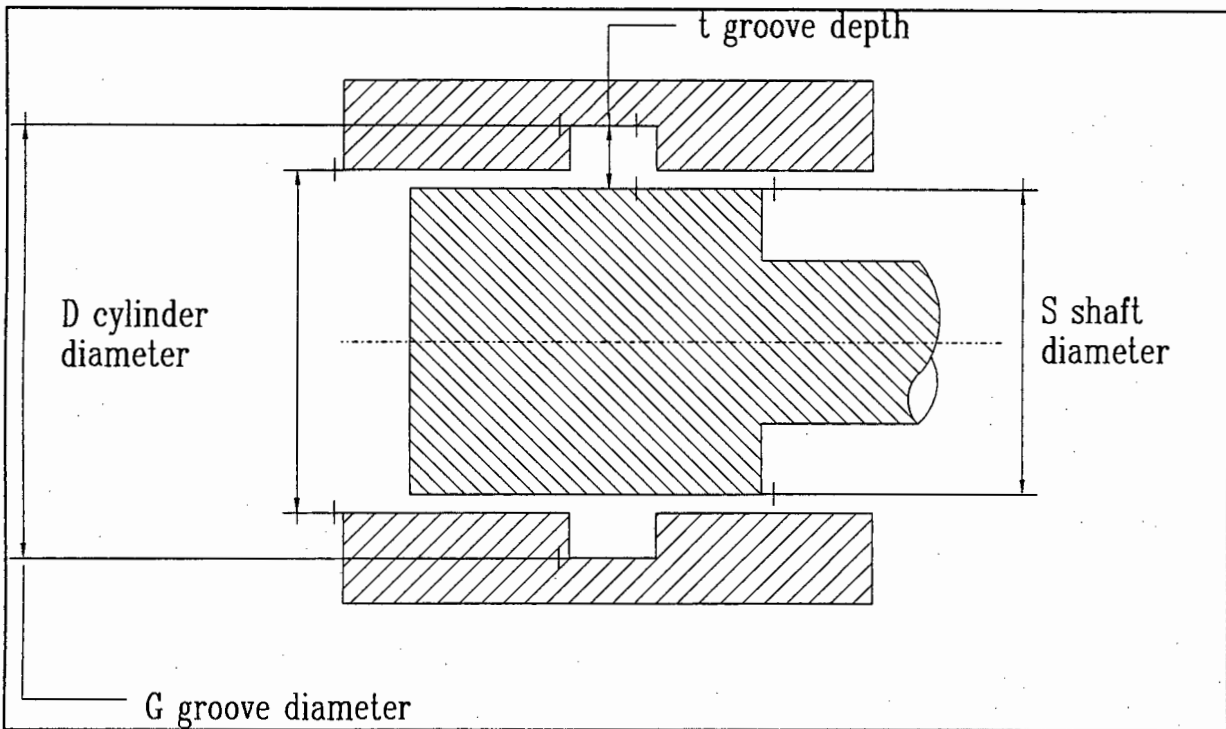


the groove diameter

$$G_{\min} = D_{\max} - 2t_{\max}$$

$$G_{\max} = D_{\min} - 2t_{\min}$$

and for cylinder grooves



the groove diameter

$$G_{\min} = S_{\max} + 2t_{\min}$$

$$G_{\max} = S_{\min} + 2t_{\max}$$

Only British Standard (BS) O-rings were selected. EPDM seals are not readily available in other sizes. The reference surface (cylinder diameter  $D$  in piston grooves and shaft diameter  $S$  in cylinder grooves) are specified to a IT7 tolerance grade.

tolerance grade	nominal size (mm)	tolerance (mm)
IT7	18 - 30	0.021
IT7	30 - 50	0.025

Various O-ring handbooks give different guidelines on the diametrical clearance between the moving parts. Generally, the smaller the clearance the smaller the likelihood of ring failure by extrusion. A diametrical clearance of 50 to 150

µm, as specified for the pump, is on the conservative side and satisfies most guidelines. Using above information and tables the seal dimensions were specified as follows.

Seal material: ethylene propylene (EPDM)

Ring nr	BS nr	ID (mm)	d (mm)	D (mm)	S (mm)	G (mm)	b (mm)	t (mm)
1	826	42.86	3.53	50.00	49.88	43.53	4.2	3.20
				50.03	49.95	43.60		3.25
2	616	15.08	2.62	20.00	19.88	15.32	3.1	2.30
				20.02	19.95	15.40		2.35
3	136	50.47	2.62	56.00	55.90	51.60	3.4	2.10
				56.03	55.95	51.80		2.22
4	116	18.72	2.62	20.00	19.88	24.55	3.1	2.30
				20.02	19.95	24.58		2.32
5	025	29.87	1.78	30.62	30.50	33.57	2.3	1.50
				30.65	30.57	33.60		1.55

Ring nr as indicated on figure E.1

BS = British standard

ID = internal ring diameter

d = ring crosssection diameter

D = cylinder diameter

S = shaft diameter

G = groove diameter

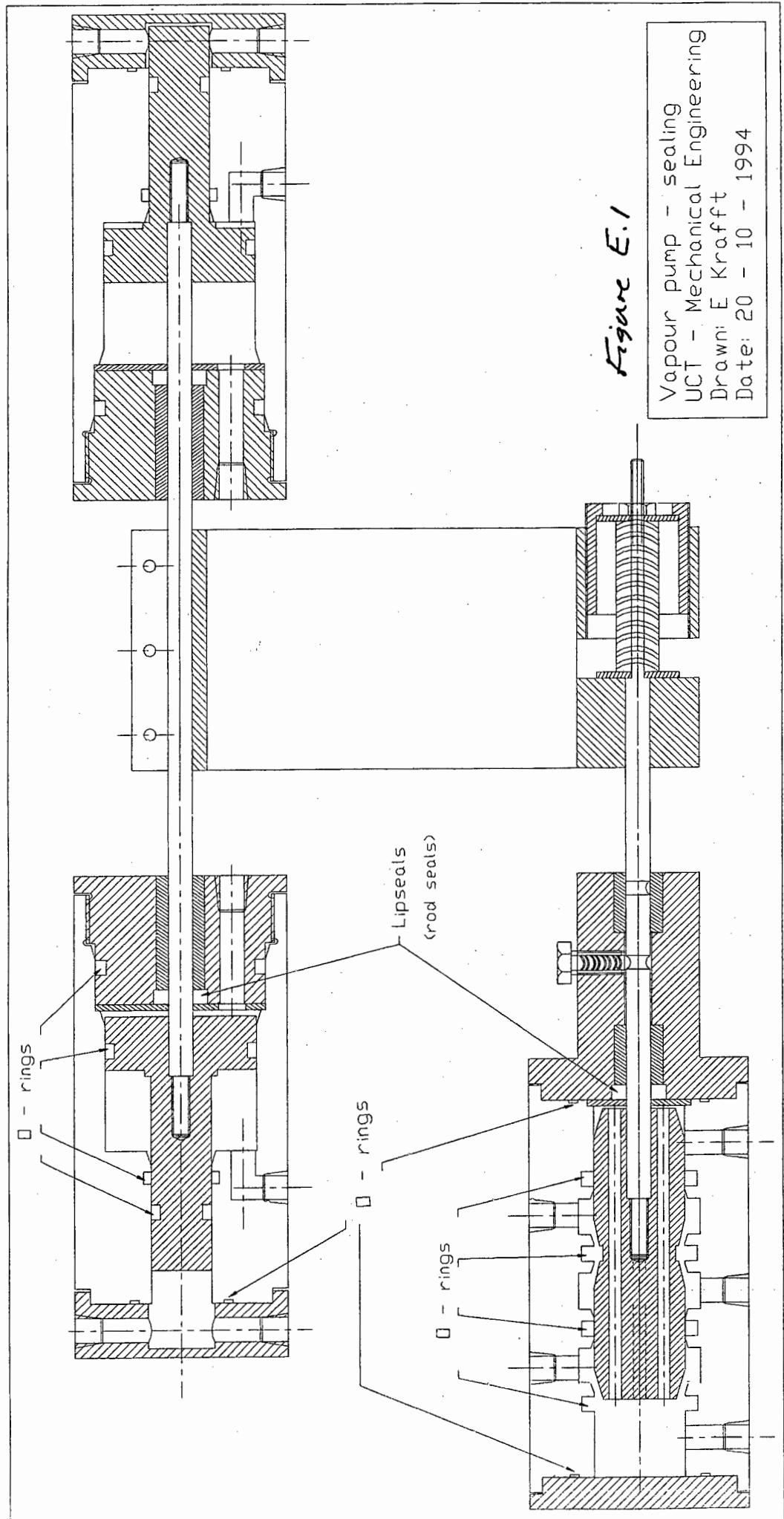
b = groove width

t = groove depth

For the working pressures involved (up to 12 bar) extrusion of the O-rings is unlikely to occur. Should this mode of failure however be observed, back-up rings are required. For no back-up rings a fillet radius in the groove of  $r = 0.5 \text{ max}$  is specified.

Where back-up rings are used the groove can have sharp edges and a square profile.



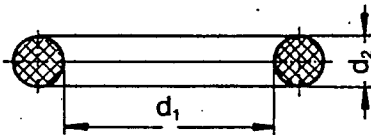


*Figure E.1*

Vapour pump - sealing  
 UCT - Mechanical Engineering  
 Drawn: E Krafft  
 Date: 20 - 10 - 1994

O-Rings are moulded sealing rings with extremely accurate measurements. Shape, material, hardness, sizes and tolerances are laid down as per DIN-Standards 3770 resp. DIN ISO 3601.

### Indication of sizes



$d_1$  — inside diameter in mm

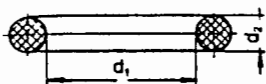
$d_2$  — section diameter in mm

Compounds and their abbreviations  
as per DIN

- NB Nitrile-Butadiene-Rubber
- AC Acrylate-Rubber
- SI Silicone-Rubber
- FP Fluorocarbon-Rubber
- EP Ethylene-Propylene-Rubber
- CR Chloroprene-Rubber
- SB Styrol-Butadiene-Rubber
- BU Butyl-Rubber
- NR Natural Rubber
- FS Fluorosilicone-Rubber

Hardness of compounds is either indicated according to Shore A or to IRHD. Standard hardness is 70 Shore A resp. 73 IRHD.

Hardness Shore A	60	70	80	90
Hardness IRHD	63	73	83	92
Allowed deviation $\pm 5$				
Testing method of hardness acc. to DIN 53 505 resp. DIN 53519				

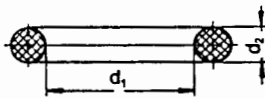


Dimensions of O-Rings have been published in various German and International Standards. Besides, there exists a variety of non-standard sizes (see catalogue pages 17—28).

Approved tolerances reflected in the index shown opposite refer to the compound Nitrile-Butadiene-Rubber in 70 Shore A resp. 73 IRHD.

Other compounds, however, vary considerably in their shrinkage rates and when produced from the same tooling are likely to come out with a wider tolerance. Special tooling can, of course, always be manufactured to produce to exact sizes where application demands such accuracy.

$d_1$	$\pm$ tolerance	$d_2$	$\pm$ tolerance	
-	3	0,14	- 1,8	0,08
3 -	6	0,15	1,8 - 2,6	0,09
6 -	10	0,17	2,6 - 3,5	0,10
10 -	18	0,20	3,5 - 5,3	0,13
18 -	30	0,30	5,3 - 7	0,15
30 -	50	0,40	7 - 8	0,17
50 -	80	0,65	8 - 10	0,20
80 -	100	0,85	10 - 15	0,25
100 -	120	1,0		
120 -	150	1,2		
150 -	180	1,4		
180 -	250	1,8		
250 -	300	2,1		
300 -	350	2,5		
350 -	400	2,8		
400 -	500	3,4		
500 -	650	4,3		
650 -	800	6,5		



Deficiencies normally experienced with O-Rings are shown in the index. We differentiate between two type characteristics.

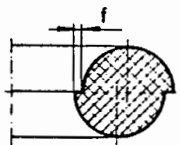
**Type characteristic N**

These O-Rings represent our standard quality which comply with high quality requirements and cover day to day application.

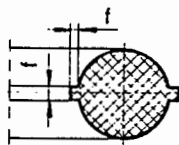
**Type characteristic S**

These O-Rings find their field of application in cases of extremely high requirements regarding the surface finish, naturally, resulting in higher production and controlling expenses.

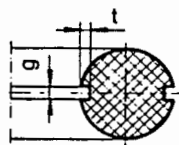
Staggered



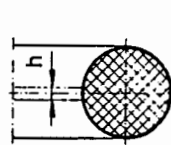
Extent of flash



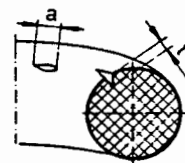
Notches



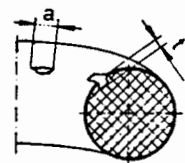
Deburring width



Flow lines



Other deficiencies:

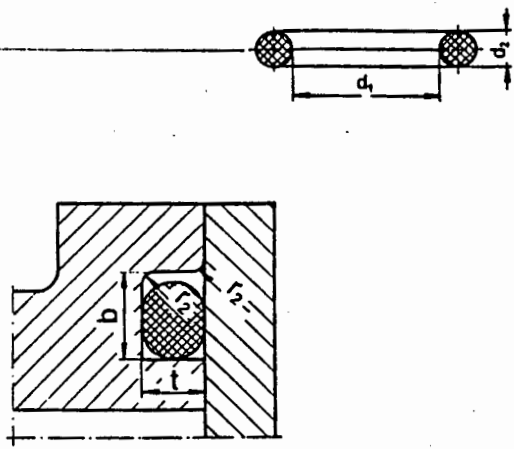


Deficiency	Type characteristics	Permissible extent of deficiency for section $d_2$			
		up to 2,65	>2,65		
Staggered partition line, Extent of flash	f	N S	0,06 0,05	0,12 0,09	
Notches	width depth	g t	N	$0,1 \cdot d_2$ 0,05	$0,1 \cdot d_2$ 0,09
	width depth	g t	S	$0,05 \cdot d_2$ 0,05	$0,05 \cdot d_2$ 0,09
Deburring width (excess amounts permissible, too, provided that tolerance of section is adhered to and surface remains smooth)		h	N S	0,4 0,4	1,2 0,7
	Flow lines in circumferential direction	thickness depth	a t	N	$0,1 \cdot d_1$ 0,03
thickness depth		a t	S	$0,05 \cdot d_1$ 0,03	$0,05 \cdot d_1$ 0,06
Other deficiencies: air-pockets, bubbles, pores, excess rubber, etc.	thickness depth	a t	N	$0,3 \cdot d_2$ 0,05	$0,3 \cdot d_2$ 0,09
	thickness depth	a t	S	$0,1 \cdot d_2$ 0,03	$0,1 \cdot d_2$ 0,06
Surface roughness $R_t$		$\mu\text{m}$	N S	10 5	16 8
	Spots		N S	permissible permissible	

The one and only difference in the two characteristics is the extent of accuracy permissible, whilst tolerances in measurements are identical.

The extent of accuracy as per illustrations determines the extensity of controls in the production and finishing process. This applies to both, the manufacturer and the applicant.

TABLE E.3



The measurement »b«, which is the width of the O-Ring groove, has to be larger than the deformed O-Ring. Depending upon application the groove may be open on one side. However, the pressure applied to the medium to be sealed must have full access to the O-Ring. The surfaces of the groove and the opposed surfaces should have more or less rounded processing traces to permit peak-to-valley-heights of 44 — 25  $\mu\text{m}$ .

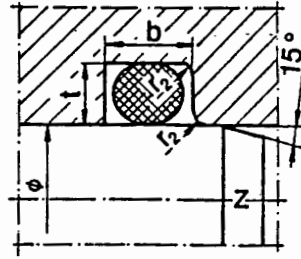
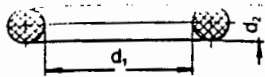
Groove sizes  
Static application

$d_2$	t	b
1	0,8	1,3
1,5	1,1	1,9
1,6	1,2	2,1
1,78	1,3	2,3
1,9	1,4	2,4
2	1,5	2,6
2,4	1,8	3,1
2,5	1,9	3,2
2,62	2,0	3,4
2,7	2,1	3,5
3	2,3	3,9
3,5	2,7	4,5
3,53	2,7	4,5
3,6	2,8	4,7
4	3,15	5,2
4,5	3,6	5,8

$d_2$	t	b
5	4	6,5
5,33	4,3	6,9
5,5	4,5	7,1
5,7	4,65	7,4
6	4,95	7,8
6,5	5,4	8,4
6,99	5,85	9,1
7	5,85	9,1
7,5	6,3	9,7
8	6,75	10,4
8,4	7,15	10,9
8,5	7,25	11,0
9	7,7	11,7
9,5	8,2	12,3
10	8,65	13

In case of applying back-up rings the width of groove »b« is increased by the width of the back-up ring resp. in case of support on either side by the double width of the back-up ring.

TABLE E.4



Groove sizes

Dynamic application — Hydraulics

$d_2$	t	b	z
1	0,9	1,3	1
1,5	1,3	1,9	1
1,6	1,4	2	1,1
1,78	1,5	2,3	1,1
1,9	1,6	2,4	1,2
2	1,7	2,4	1,2
2,4	2,1	2,9	1,4
2,5	2,2	3	1,4
2,62	2,3	3,1	1,5
2,7	2,4	3,2	1,5
3	2,6	3,6	1,6
3,5	3,1	4,2	1,8
3,53	3,1	4,2	1,8
3,6	3,2	4,3	1,8
4	3,5	4,8	2
4,5	4	5,4	2,3

$d_2$	t	b	z
5	4,45	6	2,5
5,33	4,7	6,4	2,7
5,5	4,95	6,6	2,8
5,7	5,1	6,9	3
6	5,4	7,2	3,1
6,5	5,8	7,8	3,3
6,99	6,3	8,4	3,6
7	6,3	8,4	3,6
7,5	6,7	9	3,8
8	7,2	9,6	4
8,4	7,6	10,1	4,2
8,5	7,7	10,2	4,2
9	8,2	10,8	4,3
9,5	8,6	11,4	4,4
10	9,1	12	4,5

Groove sizes

Dynamic application — Pneumatics

$d_2$	t	b	z
1	0,95	1,3	1
1,5	1,35	1,9	1
1,6	1,45	2	1,1
1,78	1,55	2,3	1,1
1,9	1,75	2,4	1,2
2	1,8	2,4	1,2
2,4	2,15	2,9	1,4
2,5	2,25	3	1,4
2,62	2,35	3,1	1,5
2,7	2,45	3,3	1,5
3	2,75	3,6	1,6
3,5	3,25	4,2	1,8
3,53	3,25	4,2	1,8
3,6	3,35	4,3	1,8
4	3,7	4,8	2
4,5	4,2	5,4	2,3

$d_2$	t	b	z
5	4,65	6	2,5
5,33	4,95	6,4	2,7
5,5	5,15	6,6	2,8
5,7	5,35	6,9	3
6	5,65	7,2	3,1
6,5	6,1	7,8	3,3
6,99	6,6	8,4	3,6
7	6,6	8,4	3,6
7,5	7,1	9	3,8
8	7,6	9,6	4
8,4	7,9	10,1	4,2
8,5	8	10,2	4,2
9	8,5	10,8	4,3
9,5	9	11,4	4,4
10	9,5	12	4,5

In case of applying back-up rings the width of groove »b« is increased by the width of the back-up ring resp. in case of support on either side by the double width of the back-up ring.

TABLE E.5

Dichtomatik-Compounds for O-Rings

Elastomer	DIN-Abbrev.	Comp.-No.	Hardn. Shore A	Hardn. IRHD	Colour	Special Field of Application/Characteristics
Nitrile-Butadiene-Rubber	NB	0106	55	57	black	
"	NB	1015	60	63	black	
"	NB	1009	70	73	black	
"	NB	1008	75	78	black	
"	NB	1023	80	83	black	
"	NB	1026	90	92	black	
"	NB	1011	70	73	grey	food applic.
"	NB	1010	70	73	black	low temp.
"	NB	1007	70	73	black	non-sulfurous
"	NB	1004	70	73	black	super gasoline
"	NB	1019	80	83	grey	food applic.
"	NB	1021	80	83	black	low temp.
"	NB	1018	80	83	black	non-sulfurous
"	NB	1020	80	83	black	super gasoline
Fluorocarbon-Rubber	FP	0712	60	63	black	
"	FP	7018	70	73	black	
"	FP	7027	80	83	black	
"	FP	7032	90	92	black	
"	FP	7019	70	73	green	
"	FP	7028	80	83	green	
"	FP	7016	75	78	red	
"	FP	7015	75	78	brown	with lead oxide
Silicone	SI	0804	50	52	red-brown	
"	SI	8007	60	63	red-brown	
"	SI	8008	70	73	red-brown	
"	SI	8006	80	83	red-brown	
Ethylene-Propylene-Rubber	EP	0305	75	78	black	
"	EP	3007	80	83	black	
"	EP	3004	85	88	black	
Chloroprene-Rubber	CR	0207	50	52	black	non-sulfurous
"	CR	2005	60	63	black	
"	CR	2010	70	73	black	
"	CR	2014	70	73	black	frigen-resistant
"	CR	2012	90	92	black	
Natural Rubber	NR	0404	45	47	black	
"	NR	4001	65	68	black	
"	NR	4007	80	83	black	
Butyl-Rubber	BU	0504	65	68	black	
Polyethylene-Rubber sulfonated by Chlorine	CSM	0601	65	68	black	
"	CSM	0602	75	78	black	
Polytetrafluoro-Ethylene	PTFE	0910			white	

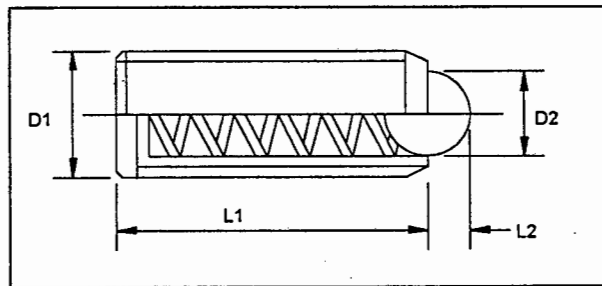
Normally available ex stock

# Appendix F

## Information on spring plungers

Metric sizes [mm]

D1	D2	E	L1	l2	spring force	WDS No
M4	2.5	0.6	9	0.8	10 N	606-2704
M5	3	0.8	12	0.9	11 N	606-2705
M6	3.5	1	14	1	13 N	606-2706
M8	5	1.2	16	1.5	30 N	606-2708
M10	6	1.6	19	2	35 N	606-2710
M12	8	2	22	2.5	55 N	606-2712
M16	10	2.5	24	3.5	125 N	606-2716





# Appendix G

## Computer generated results as predicted by the simulation

varying evaporator temperature

Tev, C	-6	-8	-10	-12	-14	-16
Tab, C	24	24	24	24	24	24
T <sub>opt</sub> , C	99.6	101.2	102.8	104.5	105.2	106.4
cop max	0.488	0.480	0.472	0.465	0.457	0.447
REF, kW	1	1	1	1	1	1
P <sub>h</sub> , bar	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43
P <sub>1</sub> , bar	3.21	2.96	2.72	2.50	2.30	2.10
m <sub>6</sub> , g/s	0.88	0.87	0.86	0.85	0.85	0.84
m <sub>7</sub> , g/s	3.49	3.64	3.82	4.01	4.32	4.61
m <sub>8</sub> , g/s	2.44	2.60	2.78	2.97	3.28	3.56
m <sub>16</sub> , g/s	0.17	0.17	0.18	0.19	0.20	0.21
X <sub>we</sub> , kg <sub>ref</sub> /kg <sub>tot</sub>	0.30	0.29	0.29	0.28	0.27	0.27
X <sub>st</sub> , kg <sub>ref</sub> /kg <sub>tot</sub>	0.51	0.49	0.48	0.46	0.45	0.43
Q <sub>in</sub> , kW	2.051	2.081	2.117	2.151	2.189	2.239
H <sub>11</sub> , kJ/kg	1448.7	1461.0	1472.4	1481.7	1488.8	1498.7
Q <sub>8</sub> , kW	0.601	0.665	0.739	0.823	0.922	1.033
Q <sub>10</sub> , kW	0.105	0.146	0.201	0.268	0.352	0.441
Q <sub>11</sub> , kW	1.314	1.313	1.319	1.327	1.332	1.343
Q <sub>12</sub> , kW	0.003	0.004	0.005	0.007	0.008	0.010
Q <sub>16</sub> , kW	0.243	0.253	0.265	0.277	0.295	0.313
W <sub>in</sub> , kW	0.0185	0.0194	0.0214	0.0235	0.0257	0.0279
W <sub>out</sub> , kW	0.0019	0.0021	0.0023	0.0025	0.0027	0.0030
p-eff, %	10.6	10.6	10.7	10.7	10.9	10.9
tp-eff, %	0.79	0.82	0.86	0.89	0.93	0.97
F <sub>right</sub> , N	3458	3451	3444	3437	3431	3425
F <sub>left</sub> , N	1439	1350	1266	1187	1114	1046
F <sub>vap</sub> , N	2214	2304	2388	2467	2541	2610
F <sub>sol</sub> , N	195	203	211	218	224	230
F <sub>net</sub> , N	2019	2101	2178	2250	2317	2379
freq, Hz	0.163	0.169	0.177	0.185	0.198	0.210
D <sub>vap</sub> , mm	50	50	50	50	50	50
D <sub>sol</sub> , mm	20	20	20	20	20	20

varying evaporator temperature (cont.)

T <sub>ev</sub> , C	-18	-20	-22
T <sub>ab</sub> , C	24	24	24
T <sub>Copt</sub> , C	107.7	101.2	102.8
cop max	0.434	0.480	0.472
REF, kW	1	1	1
P <sub>h</sub> , bar	9.43	9.43	9.43
P <sub>1</sub> , bar	1.92	1.76	1.60
m <sub>6</sub> , g/s	0.84	0.84	0.83
m <sub>7</sub> , g/s	4.93	3.71	4.01
m <sub>8</sub> , g/s	3.87	2.70	2.99
m <sub>16</sub> , g/s	0.22	0.17	0.18
X <sub>we</sub> , kg <sub>ref</sub> /kg <sub>tot</sub>	0.26	0.19	0.19
X <sub>st</sub> , kg <sub>ref</sub> /kg <sub>tot</sub>	0.42	0.40	0.39
Q <sub>in</sub> , kW	2.302	2.346	2.398
H <sub>11</sub> , kJ/kg	1510.7	1564.2	1573.4
Q <sub>8</sub> , kW	1.160	1.100	1.214
Q <sub>10</sub> , kW	0.537	0.453	0.546
Q <sub>11</sub> , kW	1.357	1.458	1.472
Q <sub>12</sub> , kW	0.012	0.024	0.027
Q <sub>16</sub> , kW	0.333	0.266	0.285
W <sub>in</sub> , kW	0.0301	0.0245	0.0266
W <sub>out</sub> , kW	0.0033	0.0026	0.0028
p-eff, %	11.1	10.5	10.6
tp-eff, %	1.0	0.96	0.99
F <sub>right</sub> , N	3420	3415	3410
F <sub>left</sub> , N	982	922	867
F <sub>vap</sub> , N	2674	2733	2789
F <sub>sol</sub> , N	236	241	246
F <sub>net</sub> , N	2428	2492	2543
freq, Hz	0.223	0.177	0.190
D <sub>vap</sub> , mm	50	50	50
D <sub>sol</sub> , mm	20	20	20

varying absorber (condenser temperature)

T <sub>ev</sub> , C	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10
T <sub>ab</sub> , C	20	22	24	26	28
T <sub>gopt</sub> , C	95.1	98.2	102.8	107.5	110.6
cop max	0.506	0.488	0.472	0.458	0.443
REF, kW	1	1	1	1	1
P <sub>h</sub> , bar	8.28	8.84	9.43	10.04	10.68
P <sub>1</sub> , bar	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72
m <sub>6</sub> , g/s	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86
m <sub>7</sub> , g/s	3.38	3.65	3.82	4.00	4.32
m <sub>8</sub> , g/s	2.38	2.62	2.78	2.94	3.24
m <sub>16</sub> , g/s	0.15	0.16	0.18	0.20	0.22
X <sub>we</sub> , kg <sub>ref</sub> /kg <sub>tot</sub>	0.30	0.29	0.29	0.28	0.27
X <sub>st</sub> , kg <sub>ref</sub> /kg <sub>tot</sub>	0.50	0.49	0.48	0.46	0.45
Q <sub>in</sub> , kW	1.978	2.047	2.117	2.184	2.256
H <sub>11</sub> , kJ/kg	1440.1	1454.3	1472.4	1486.9	1499.6
Q <sub>8</sub> , kW	0.539	0.634	0.739	0.856	0.994
Q <sub>10</sub> , kW	0.035	0.111	0.201	0.303	0.430
Q <sub>11</sub> , kW	1.266	1.289	1.319	1.348	1.374
Q <sub>12</sub> , kW	0.002	0.003	0.005	0.008	0.010
Q <sub>16</sub> , kW	0.212	0.240	0.265	0.291	0.328
W <sub>in</sub> , kW	0.0165	0.0183	0.0214	0.0247	0.0281
W <sub>out</sub> , kW	0.0017	0.0020	0.0023	0.0026	0.0030
p-eff, %	10.4	10.6	10.7	10.8	11.0
tp-eff, %	0.79	0.83	0.86	0.89	0.93
F <sub>right</sub> , N	3037	3235	3444	3662	3892
F <sub>left</sub> , N	1230	1248	1266	1285	1305
F <sub>vap</sub> , N	1981	2180	2388	2607	2836
F <sub>sol</sub> , N	175	192	211	230	250
F <sub>net</sub> , N	1807	1988	2178	2377	2586
freq, Hz	0.161	0.171	0.177	0.183	0.194
D <sub>vap</sub> , mm	50	50	50	50	50
D <sub>sol</sub> , mm	20	20	20	20	20

varying generator temperature -vapour pump

Tev, C	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10
Tab, C	24	24	24	24	24	24	24
Tgen, C	64.8	74.3	78.8	83.3	87.8	92.3	96.8
cop	0.000	0.377	0.424	0.448	0.459	0.465	0.470
REF, kW	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Ph, bar	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43
P1, bar	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72
m6, g/s	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86
m7, g/s	3.85	15.67	9.98	7.43	5.99	5.08	4.44
m8, g/s	2.78	14.13	8.65	6.19	4.82	3.95	3.342
m16, g/s	0.18	0.56	0.40	0.32	0.26	0.23	0.20
Xwe, kg <sub>ret</sub> /kg <sub>tot</sub>	0.48	0.42	0.40	0.38	0.36	0.33	0.31
Xst, kg <sub>ret</sub> /kg <sub>tot</sub>	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48
Qin, kW		2.655	2.358	2.231	2.178	2.150	2.129
H11, kJ/kg	1472	1421	1426	1431	1438	1447	1448
Q8, kW	0.739	1.440	1.066	0.913	0.847	0.805	0.769
Q10, kW	0.201	0.816	0.520	0.387	0.312	0.264	0.231
Q11, kW	1.319	1.235	1.244	1.254	1.265	1.280	1.297
Q12, kW	0.005	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.003	0.004
Q16, kW	0.265	0.796	0.570	0.452	0.380	0.332	0.298
p-eff, %	10.7	14.6	13.0	12.1	11.6	11.2	10.9
tp-eff, %	0.86	1.2	1.0	0.97	0.93	0.91	0.91
Fright, N	3444	3444	3444	3444	3444	3444	3444
Fleft, N	1266	1266	1266	1266	1266	1266	1266
Fvap, N	2388	2388	2388	2388	2388	2388	2388
Fsol, N	211	211	211	211	211	211	211
Fnet, N	2178	2178	2178	2178	2178	2178	2178
freq, Hz	0.177	0.525	0.377	0.301	0.254	0.222	0.199
Dvap, mm	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
Dsol, mm	20	20	20	20	20	20	20

varying generator temperature -vapour pump (cont.)

T <sub>ev</sub> , C	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10
T <sub>ab</sub> , C	24	24	24	24	24	24	24
T <sub>gen</sub> , C	101.3	105.8	110.3	114.8	119.3	123.8	128.3
cop	0.472	0.471	0.469	0.466	0.464	0.463	0.460
REF, kW	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
P <sub>h</sub> , bar	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43
P <sub>1</sub> , bar	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72
m <sub>6</sub> , g/s	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86
m <sub>7</sub> , g/s	3.978	3.627	3.351	3.128	2.944	2.79	2.66
m <sub>8</sub> , g/s	2.902	2.569	2.307	2.096	1.922	1.776	1.651
m <sub>16</sub> , g/s	0.19	0.17	0.16	0.15	0.14	0.13	0.13
X <sub>w6</sub> , kg <sub>rot</sub> /kg <sub>tot</sub>	0.29	0.27	0.25	0.23	0.21	0.19	0.17
X <sub>st</sub> , kg <sub>rot</sub> /kg <sub>tot</sub>	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48
Q <sub>in</sub> , kW	2.118	2.121	2.134	2.146	2.153	2.161	2.176
H <sub>11</sub> , kJ/kg	1469	1478	1486	1495	1507	1518	1528
Q <sub>8</sub> , kW	0.744	0.735	0.736	0.734	0.725	0.715	0.714
Q <sub>10</sub> , kW	0.207	0.189	0.175	0.163	0.153	0.145	0.138
Q <sub>11</sub> , kW	1.314	1.330	1.345	1.362	1.382	1.403	1.423
Q <sub>12</sub> , kW	0.005	0.006	0.008	0.009	0.011	0.013	0.016
Q <sub>16</sub> , kW	0.272	0.251	0.235	0.221	0.210	0.201	0.193
p-eff, %	10.7	10.6	10.5	10.3	10.3	10.2	10.1
tp-eff, %	0.87	0.86	0.85	0.84	0.83	0.82	0.82
F <sub>right</sub> , N	3444	3444	3444	3444	3444	3444	3444
F <sub>left</sub> , N	1266	1266	1266	1266	1266	1266	1266
F <sub>vap</sub> , N	2388	2388	2388	2388	2388	2388	2388
F <sub>sol</sub> , N	211	211	211	211	211	211	211
F <sub>net</sub> , N	2178	2178	2178	2178	2178	2178	2178
freq, Hz	0.182	0.168	0.157	0.148	0.141	0.134	0.129
D <sub>vap</sub> , mm	50	50	50	50	50	50	50
D <sub>sol</sub> , mm	20	20	20	20	20	20	20

varying the generator temperature -electrical pump

Tev, C	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10
Tab, C	24	24	24	24	24	24	24
Tgen, C	64.8	69.3	73.8	78.3	82.8	87.3	91.8
cop	0.000	0.616	0.615	0.615	0.609	0.596	0.585
REF, kW	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Ph, bar	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43
P1, bar	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72
m6, g/s	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86
m7, g/s	27.21	18.58	9.912	7.001	5.534	4.645	4.049
m8, g/s	26.35	17.72	9.053	6.141	4.674	3.785	3.189
Xwe, kg.ref/kg.tot	0.476	0.451	0.427	0.404	0.381	0.359	0.337
Xst, kg.ref/kg.tot	0.476	0.476	0.476	0.476	0.476	0.476	0.476
Qin, kW		1.609	1.617	1.619	1.638	1.673	1.706
H11, kJ/kg	1411	1413	1420	1425	1430	1437	1446
Q8, kW	1.797	1.353	0.901	0.742	0.676	0.653	0.641
Q10, kW	1.417	0.967	0.512	0.365	0.288	0.242	0.211
Q11, kW	1.219	1.223	1.234	1.243	1.253	1.264	1.278
Q12, kW	0.000	0.000	0.001	0.001	0.002	0.002	0.003

Tev, C	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10	-10
Tab, C	24	24	24	24	24	24	24
Tgen, C	96.3	100.8	105.3	109.8	114.3	118.8	123.3
cop	0.579	0.570	0.560	0.550	0.542	0.535	0.529
REF, kW	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Ph, bar	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43	9.43
P1, bar	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72	2.72
m6, g/s	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.86
m7, g/s	3.620	3.298	3.047	2.847	2.683	2.546	2.429
m8, g/s	2.760	2.438	2.188	1.987	1.823	1.686	1.569
Xwe, kg.ref/kg.tot	0.316	0.295	0.274	0.253	0.233	0.214	0.194
Xst, kg.ref/kg.tot	0.476	0.476	0.476	0.476	0.476	0.476	0.476
Qin, kW	1.730	1.753	1.782	1.814	1.844	1.868	1.889
H11, kJ/kg	1457	1468	1477	1485	1494	1505	1517
Q8, kW	0.628	0.618	0.618	0.627	0.633	0.631	0.627
Q10, kW	0.189	0.172	0.159	0.148	0.140	0.133	0.126
Q11, kW	1.295	1.312	1.328	1.343	1.360	1.380	1.401
Q12, kW	0.004	0.005	0.006	0.007	0.009	0.011	0.013

## Appendix H

### The pneumatic circuit to drive the control shaft

The circuit employed to drive the control shaft is shown in figure H.1. The double acting cylinder performs reciprocating movements without using limit switches. Instead, time elements are used to effect reversal. The frequency of the stroke can be changed time-dependently.

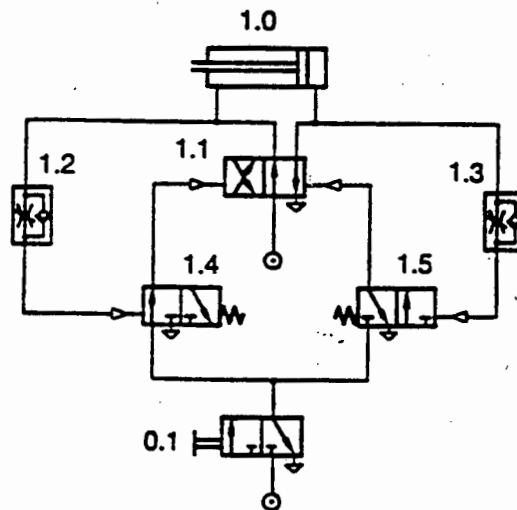


Figure H.1 The pneumatic circuit for a reciprocating cylinder

with the symbols in figure H.1 representing the following components:

- 1.0 differential cylinder with single-ended piston rod
- 1.1 4/2 way valve
- 1.2 throttle relief valve, adjustable
- 1.3 throttle relief valve, adjustable
- 1.4 spring activated 3/2 way valve
- 1.5 spring activated 3/2 way valve
- 0.1 3/2 way valve, neutral position closed

The two time switches were set and the following stroke frequencies recorded.

time switch setting left	time setting setting right	time for 10 return strokes [sec]	frequency [Hz]
8.40	8.40	34.3	0.292
8.60	8.60	38.2	0.262
8.80	8.80	43.5	0.230
9.00	9.00	49.0	0.204
9.20	9.20	55.7	0.180
9.40	9.40	66.1	0.151
9.00	4.00	29.8	0.336
9.00	7.00	34.5	0.290
9.50	4.00	38.7	0.258
9.50	4.50	39.4	0.254
9.50	5.00	39.9	0.251
9.80	5.00	48.5	0.206
9.90	5.00	57.1	0.175
10.00	5.00	63.0	0.159

Table H.1 stroke frequency as a function of time delay valve setting



## Appendix I

### The composition of the burner fuel gas

The gas used in the burner is supplied by the Capegas gas works, Woodstock. The composition of the gas is as follows:

<i>Compound</i>	<i>Chemical formula</i>	<i>percentage</i>
Carbon dioxide	CO <sub>2</sub>	4.2
Oxygen	O <sub>2</sub>	0.6
Carbon monoxide	CO	19.0
Methan	CH <sub>4</sub>	19.0
Hydrogen	H <sub>2</sub>	45.0
Nitrogen	N <sub>2</sub>	9.0
Heavy hydrocarbons		3.2

The calorific value (heat of combustion) of the gas is given as 16.76 MJ/m<sup>3</sup>.

## Appendix J

### The fuel energy conversion factor

The heat input to the generator depends on the gas flow rate through the burner and upon the temperature of the solution in the generator. Vicatos [24] has in his experiments calculated the heat input as a function of the solution temperature, heat transfer coefficient and gas temperature difference. The calculated heat input divided by the calorific value of the gas is defined as the energy conversion factor. Using Vicatos' data a polynomial was created that gives the conversion factor as a function of the gas flow rate and solution temperature.

<i>gas flow rate</i>	<i>calorific value</i>	<i>solution temperature</i>	<i>heat input</i>	<i>conversion factor</i>
<i>l/sec</i>	<i>kW</i>	<i>C</i>	<i>kW</i>	
0.52	8.72	69.0	2.17	0.249
0.53	8.88	71.0	2.17	0.244
0.54	9.05	79.4	2.14	0.237
0.59	9.89	87.5	2.24	0.227
0.72	12.07	93.6	2.58	0.214
0.80	13.41	103.8	2.73	0.203
0.84	14.08	111.4	2.76	0.196
0.88	14.75	117.4	2.82	0.191
1.10	18.44	126.7	3.29	0.179
1.16	19.44	131.4	3.39	0.174
1.28	21.45	133.2	3.65	0.170
1.50	25.14	135.9	4.11	0.163

The polynomial  $\eta = a\dot{V} + \frac{b}{\dot{V}} + cT + \frac{d}{T}$  accurately evaluates the conversion efficiency. A regression was performed to obtain the coefficients:

Regression output:

Constant : 0.192276  
 Std err of y est : 0.000782  
 R squared : 0.999566  
 No of observations: 12  
 Degrees of freedom: 7

X coefficients : -0.01208 a  
 0.021506 b  
 -0.00035 c  
 3.111921 d

## Appendix K

### Analysis of causes for the failure of the link mechanism

The spring fails in either of three ways:

*type 1 failure:* The pump pistons have travelled the full stroke of 25 mm, yet the compressed spring has not released the spring plunger. The precompression of the spring can be increased to the maximum allowed by the dimensions of the link mechanism. If the spring still fails to move the control shaft, the spring stiffness is too low. One method to overcome this problem is shown in figure K.1.

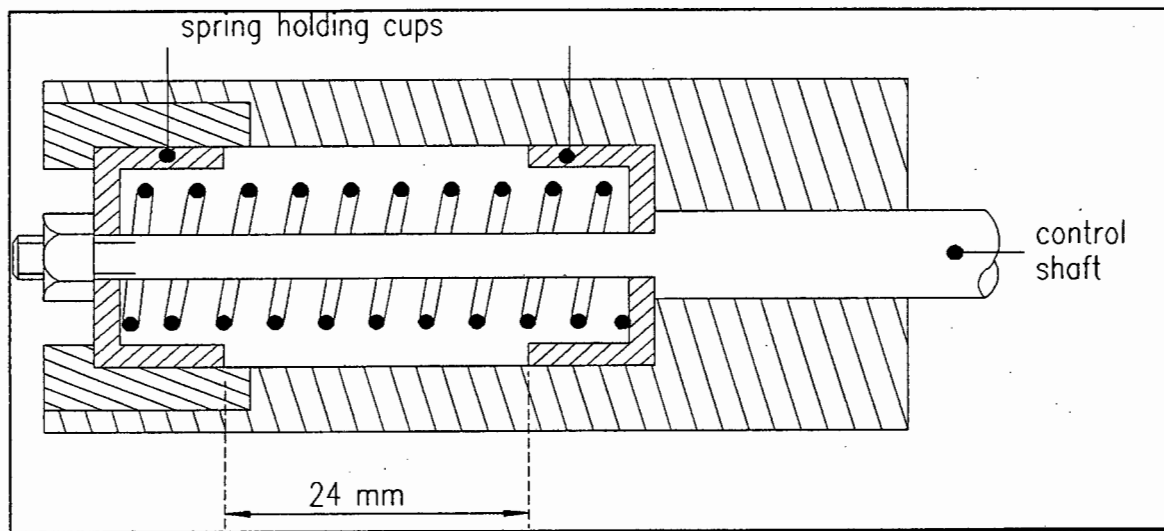


Figure K.1 Spring chamber with spring holding cups

A holding cup at either end holds the spring in place. The cups are dimensioned so that they are apart a distance just less than the stroke length. Just before the pump pistons

reach the end of their stroke the two holding cups come into solid contact and force the spring plunger to release the control shaft from its end position. Once released, the spring might now push the control shaft to the opposite end position or might end up as a type 2 failure.

*type 2 failure:* The pump pistons have travelled the full stroke of 25 mm and the spring plunger has released the control shaft, either because the spring in the link has exerted a force big enough to overcome the resistance of the spring plunger, or by means of the holding cup method. The control shaft, however, does not move all the way to the opposite end position. As a result the pressure ports are not switched over and the pumps stop motion. Nothing can be done to remedy this situation. Precompressing the spring further would result in releasing the spring plunger too early (type 3 failure).

*type 3 failure:* The spring plunger releases the control shaft before the pump pistons reach the end of the stroke. The control shaft cuts off the high pressure line while the pump pistons are still in motion. As a result the pump pistons stop movement and in turn prevent the control shaft from reaching the opposite end position (the control shaft can only move as far as the link mechanism and pump shaft assembly). With the control shaft not being able to move the required 25 mm necessary to open the return high pressure line, movement of pumps and control shaft ceases altogether. The strength of the spring plunger can now be increased to retard the moment of releasing the control shaft. Three spring plungers equally spaced at 120 degrees to each other, instead of the original one, were experimented with.

Numerous springs were experimented with, taking into account all of above considerations. Since the spring can only operate on the fine line between releasing too early (type 3 failure) and not releasing at all (type 1 failure) the spring needs very accurate adjustment of the amount of precompression. The inherent inconsistencies of the system, be it because of misalignment, inaccuracies in the manufacture or asymmetry, proved to be greater than allowed by the successful spring operation. The force required for the forward stroke of the control shaft does not equal that one of the return stroke. Sometimes even the exact same setting of the spring would work for one forward stroke, but not for the next. The spring mechanism never worked reliably, and it was consequently decided to simulate the mechanism by a pneumatic system.