

Ventiler och Pumpar

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1974

Document Version: Förlagets slutgiltiga version

Link to publication

Citation for published version (APA): Aström, K. J. (1974). Ventiler och Pumpar. (Research Reports TFRT-3110). Department of Automatic Control, Lund Institute of Technology (LTH).

Total number of authors:

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VENTILER OCH PUMPAR

K.J. Åström

Ersätter rapport 7316(C)

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1. INLEDNING.

Ventiler och pumpar är vanligt förekommande reglerkomponenter. Ett flödessystems karakteristika beror i stor utsträckning på ventildimensioneringen. Ett mindre lämpligt val leder till att systemet kan bli starkt olinjärt med åtföljande svårigheter vid regleringen. Omvänt kan ett klokt val leda till att många problem undvikes. I detta avsnitt ges en kortfattad översikt över fundamenta för ventiler och pumpar. Jag vill framföra mitt hjärtliga tack till Ing. Lars Enfors , Landin & Gyr som låtit mig ta del av hans kunskaper och erfarenheter om reglerventiler. Han har också läst en tidig version av manuskriptet och föreslagit många förbättringar.

2. VENTILKARAKTERISTIK

Vi skall undersöka hur tryckfallet över en rörsträcka med en reglerventil beror av flödet och strypningen.

Idealiserad Analys

För att få insyn i sambandet skall först ett idealiserat fall studeras. Betrakta en inkompressibel fluid som strömmar genom ett rör med en strypning. Strömningsbildens principiella utseende framgår av Fig. 2.1

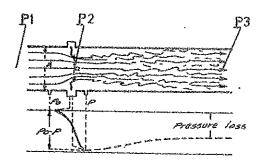


Fig. 2.1 Flöde i ett rör med en strypning. (Efter Prandtl and Tietjens "Applied Hydronamics" Dover 1957 p 245)

Om friktionsförlusterna försummas kan tryckfallet mellan punkterna P_1 och P_3 beräknas ur en energibalans (Bernoullis lag). Vi finner

(1)
$$\frac{1}{2}v_1^2 + \frac{P_1}{\rho} = \frac{1}{2}v_2^2 + \frac{P_2}{\rho}$$

Tryckfallet mellan punkterna P_2 och P_3 kan ej lika lätt bestämmæs; ur en energibalans då det sker en avsevärd energidissipation i form av friktionsförluster i den starkt oregelbundna strömningen efter strypningen. För att beräkna tryckfallet mellan P_2 och P_3 används i stället en balansekvation för rörelsemängden. Ändringen i rörelsemängdär $\rho A_1 v_3 (v_3 v_2)$ där A_1 är rörets tvärsnittsare, ρ fluidens täthet och v_2 och v_3 hastigheterna i P_2 resp. P_3 . Om vi antar att trycken är konstanta över tvärsnitt genom punkterna P_2 och P_3 erhålles då

(2)
$$A_1(P_2-P_3) = \rho A_1 v_3(v_3-v_2)$$

Elimination av P2 mellan ekvationerna (1) och (2) ger

$$P_1 - P_3 = \rho \left[\frac{1}{2} v_2^2 - \frac{1}{2} v_1^2 - v_2^2 v_3 + v_3^2 \right]$$

En massbalans ger vidare

$$v_1 = v_3 = q/A_1$$

 $v_2 = q/A_2$

där q är volumflödet och A₂ ventilens tvärsnittsarea. Tryckfallet kan således skrivas på följande sätt

(3)
$$P = P_1 - P_3 = \frac{\rho}{2} (v_2 - v_1)^2 = \frac{\rho q^2}{2} (\frac{1}{A_2} - \frac{1}{A_1})^2 = \frac{\rho q^2}{A^2}$$
 där

(4)
$$A = A_1 A_2 / (A_1 - A_2)$$

Den förenklade analysen leder således till att tryckfallet är proportionell mot fluidens täthet och mot flödets kvadrat. För en reglerventil är i allmänhet A_2 avsevärt mindre än A_1 och det gäller då att $A\sim A_2$ och tryckfallet är således approximativt omvänt proportionellt mot ventilareans kvadrat.

I formeln (3) brukar talet A hållas ventilens <u>konduktans</u> eller dess <u>flödeskoefficient</u> (flow coefficient). Storheten R som definieras av

(5)
$$R = 1/A^2$$

kallas ventilens <u>resistans</u>. Dessa begrepp är bildade med utgångspunkt från formlerna

(6)
$$P/\rho = Rq^2$$

(7)
$$q = A P/\rho$$

genom analogier med sambanden mellan ström och spänning för en resistans. Observera dock att konduktanser är kvadraten på resistansens invers.

Något om den Bistra Verkligheten.

Den analys som gavs ovan genomfördes under starkt idealiserade förutsättningar. I verkligheten är förhållandena mer komplicerade. Flödeskoefficienten A är således ej given av uttrycket (4) d.v.s.

$$A = A_1 A_2 / (A_1 - A_2)$$

Detta beror bl.a. på kontraktion av stålen vid strypningen. Vidare beror flödet också av temperatur och viskositet. På grund av friktionsförluster fordras också ett
visst tryckfall även då flödet är mycket litet.
I praktiken utgår man därför från ekvationen av typen

$$P = f(q)$$

$$q = f^{-1}(p)$$

där funktionerna f och g och deras parametrar har bestämts empiriskt. För reglerventiler är de funktionsformer som ges av (6) och (7) ofta goda approximationer och överensstämmelse med verkligheten kan erhållas genom lämpligt val av parametern A. I samhand med det internationella standardiseringsarbetet har man därför tagit formeln (7) som utgångspunkt för beskrivning av en reglerventil: Ge t.ex. IEC/TC65/WG9 (July 1972) - Draft 65 Control Valves. En reglerventil beskrivs där av ekvationen

$$d = v \cdot t^{1(h)} \cdot t^{5(x)} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{b}{b}}$$

där f_1 anger viskositetsberoendet och f_2 öppningsareans beroende av ventilläget. Talet A är en karakteristisk konstant vilken kallas flödeskoefficient (flow coefficient) och har dimensionen m^2 . Karakteristika för pumpar av olika slag kan erhållas från pumpleverantörer. Se Appendix. I instrumentkataloger betecknas ofta flödes koefficienten med $C_{\rm v}$ och anges i den intressanta enheten US gallon H_2 0 per minut vid ett tryckfall av l psi. Speciellt bör man här vara vaksam på amerikanska tillverkare med engelska filialer, vilka ibland utnyttjar Imperial gallons i stället för US gallons.

I äldre svensk teknisk litteratur förekommer också att flödeskoefficienten anges som "liter vatten per minut vid ett tryckfall av l atmosfär".

3. KRETSALGEBRA.

Vid analys av elektriska nät är det bekvämt att utveckla en kretsalgebra som gör det möjligt att bestämma strömmar och spänningar i komplexa strömkretsar. Kretsalgebran byggs vanligen upp genom att först härleda formler för enkla kombinationer av resistanser. På analogt sätt kan man utveckla en kretsalgebra för fluida element. Vi skall här i korthet illustrera hur detta kan göras genom att studera serie- och parallellkoppling.

Seriekoppling.

Betrakta två seriekopplade strypningar enligt fig. 1.

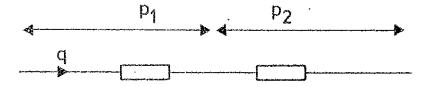


Fig. 1 - Seriekoppling av två strypningar.

Låt tryckfallen över strypningarna vara p_1 och p_2 . Eftersom det går samma flöde q genom båda strypningarna gäller enligt (16)

$$p_1 = \frac{\rho}{A_1^2} q^2$$
 $p_2 = \frac{\rho}{A_2^2} q^2$

Låt p beteckna det totala tryckfallet. Vi finner då

(8)
$$p = p_1 + p_2 = \frac{\rho}{A_1^2} \left(\frac{1}{A_2^2} + \frac{1}{A_2^2} \right) q^2 = \frac{\rho}{(R_1 + R_2) q^2}$$

Vid seriekoppling av två strypningar gäller således formlerna (1) och (2) om p betecknar det totala tryckfallet och A den sammansatta kretsens konduktans. Det gäller att

(9)
$$\frac{1}{A^2} = \frac{1}{A_1^2} + \frac{1}{A_2^2}$$

eller

(10)
$$R = \frac{1}{A^2} = R_1 + R_2$$

Vid seriekoppling adderas således resistanserna helt i analogi med Ohms lag.

Parallellkoppling.

Betrakta två parallellkopplade strypningar enligt fig. 2.

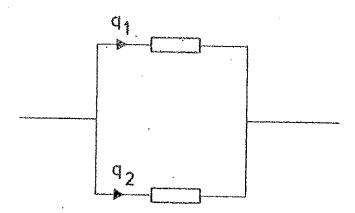


Fig. 2 - Parallellkopplade strypningar.

Låt flödena genom strypningarna vara \mathbf{q}_1 och \mathbf{q}_2 . Då det är samma tryckfall p över båda strypningarna gäller enligt (17)

$$q_2 = A_2 \sqrt{\frac{2p}{p}}$$

Det totala flödet är

(11)
$$q = q_1 + q_2 = (A_1 + A_2)\sqrt{\frac{2p}{\rho}}$$

Vi finner således att vid parallell koppling av strypning-; ar så gäller att "konduktanserna" adderas.

Uppgifter.

- 1. Ange formler för seriekoppling och parallellkoppling av enkla strypningar om det förutsättes att fluiden är kompressibel med a) adiabatisk tillståndsförändring och b) isoterm tillståndsförändring.
- Betrakta en strypning som karakteriseras av ekvationerna

$$p = Rf(q)$$

$$q = f^{-1}(p/R) = Cg(p)$$

där p är trycket över elementet ("tvärsvariabeln") och q är flödet genom elementet ("genomvariabeln"). Ange formler för serie- och parallellkoppling av element.

4. EN ENKEL KRETS.

Som en tillämpning skall vi nu studera flödet i en enkel krets enligt fig. 3 bestående av en fix strypning och en variabel strypning.

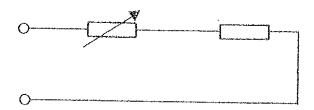


Fig. 3 - En enkel ventilkrets.

Enligt ekv. (4) gäller

(12)
$$q^2 = \frac{p}{p\left(\frac{1}{A^2} + \frac{1}{A_0^2}\right)}$$

där A₀ är flödeskoefficienten (konduktansen) för den fasta strypningen och A flödeskoefficienten för den variabla strypningen. Antag

(13)
$$0 \le A \le A_{\text{max}}$$

För att beskriva flödet genom kretsen införs funktionen

(14)
$$f(A,A_0) = \sqrt{\frac{\frac{1}{A_{max}^2} + \frac{1}{A_0^2}}{\frac{1}{A^2} + \frac{1}{A_0^2}}}$$

Ekv. (12) kan då skrivas

(15)
$$q = \sqrt{\frac{p}{\rho \left(\frac{1}{A_{\max}^2} + \frac{1}{A_0^2}\right)}} f(A, A_0)$$

Funktionen f kallas ventilens karakteristik. För att beskriva karakteristiken är det bekvämt att införa den relativa öppningsarean

(16)
$$x = A/A_{max}$$

och talet

(17)
$$\alpha = \frac{1/A_{\text{max}}^2}{1/A_{\text{max}}^2 + 1/A_0^2} = \frac{A_0^2}{A_{\text{max}}^2 + A_0^2}$$

Talet α kallas <u>ventilauktoritet</u> (valve authority) och anger förhållandet mellan tryckfallet över ventilen och totala tryckfallet vid fullt öppen ventil. Observera att

$$\frac{A^{2}}{A_{\text{max}}^{2} + A_{0}^{2}} = \left(\frac{A}{A_{\text{max}}}\right)^{2} \left[1 - \frac{A_{0}^{2}}{A_{0}^{2} + A_{\text{max}}^{2}}\right] = x^{2} (1-\alpha)$$

Med den nya parametriseringen kan ventilkarakteristiken skrivas

(18)
$$f(A,A_0) = \frac{A}{A_{\text{max}}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha + \left(\frac{A}{A_{\text{max}}}\right)^2 (x-\alpha)}} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{\alpha + x^2 (1-\alpha)}} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{\alpha + x^2 (1-\alpha)}} = \frac{x}{\sqrt{\alpha + x^2 (1-\alpha)}}$$

Ventilkarakteristiken framgår av fig. 4.

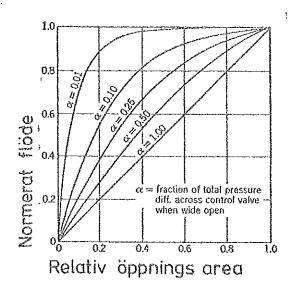


Fig. 4 - Karakteristiken för en ventil i en enkel sluten krets.

Observera att g(x,1) = x, d.v.s. om ventilauktoriteten är l så är ventilkarakteristiken en linjär funktion. För låga värden på ventilauktoriteten a så är karakteristiken starkt krökt. Detta innebär att ventilen fungerar praktiskt taget som en helt öppen eller helt sluten ventil. Mycket små förändringar i ventilläget medför således mycket stora flödesändringar. Om man önskar att en ventil skall fungera som en reglerventil bör man ej välja lägre ventilauktoritet än 0,25. Detta speciella värde är rekommenderat av Eckman (1962). I praktiken händer det ofta att flödessystem och regulatorer dimensioneras av olika personer eller av olika organisationer. Det är ett mycket vanligt fel att flödessystem dimensioneras så att reglerventilerna får för låg ventilauktoritet.

Kurvan i fig. 4 är alltid krökt (konvex) för α < 1. För att motverka denna kæökning kan man utforma ventilkäglan så att öppningsarean är en olinjär funktion av ventilläget. Den funktion som anger flödeskoefficienten som funktion av

ventilslidens läge kallas öppningskarakteristiken. Om öppningskarakteristiken, d.v.s.flödeskoefficientens A beroende av ventilläget y, betecknas med $A = g_1(y)$ blir således flödet

(19)
$$q = q(y) = A_{max} \sqrt{\frac{2p}{\rho\alpha}} \cdot g(g_1(y), \alpha)$$

där g är ventilkarakteristiken som ges av (11). Funktionen

(20)
$$g_2(y,\alpha) = g(g_1(y),\alpha)$$

kallas den totala ventilkarakteristiken. Den anger således hur flödet genom kretsen beror av ventilslidens läge. Genom att välja en kon kav öppningskarakteristik kan man således i viss utsträckning eliminera inverkan av den krökta ventilkarakteristiken i fig. 4. Kvadratiska och exponentialfunktioner är vanliga öppningskarakteristika. Det är självfallet möjligt att välja öppningskarakteristiken tiken så att den totala ventilkarakteristiken blir linjär. Då ventilauktoriteten beror av kretsens utformning blir en sådan öppningskarakteristik starkt knuten till den speciella tillämpningen. Det är således något som kan tillgripas då utrustning skräddarsys.

5. PUMPKARAKTERISTIK.

Förutom ventiler och ledningar ingår också pumpar i fluida system. Centrifugalpumpen, som schematiskt visas i fig. 5, är en vanlig pumptyp.

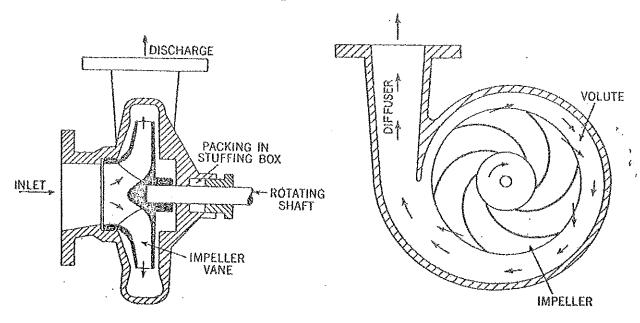


Fig. 5 - Schematisk skiss av centrifugalpump.

För att få en känsla av hur en centrifugalpump fungerar tillämpas Bernoullis lag på en strömlinje som börjar i inloppsröret och slutar i utloppsröret. Om det förutsättes att ingående och utgående rören är lika tjocka gäller enligt Bernoulli

$$(21) \quad \frac{p}{\rho} - \frac{(r\omega^2)}{2} = 0$$

där p är tryckfallet, ρ vätskans täthet, ω pumpens vinkelhastighet och r dess radie. Den andra termen motsvarar
sänkningen i potentiell energi beroende på de yttre krafternas arbete. Vi finner således att tryckfallet bestäms
av

$$p = \frac{1}{2}\rho (r_{\psi})^2$$

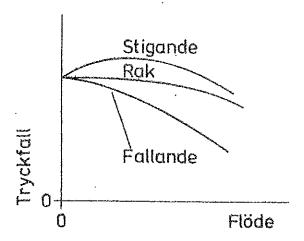
Denna formel är approximativ ty man tar ej hänsyn till tryckförlusterna i pumpen. Detta är proportionellt mot flödets kvadrat och man får då

(22)
$$p = \frac{\rho r}{2} \frac{^2}{\omega^2} - kq^2 = \frac{\rho}{2} (r\omega^2 - R_1 q^2)$$

vilket är en vanlig approximation av karakteristikan för og en centrifugalpump.

Storheten $P_0 = \rho(r\omega)^2/2$ är tryckstegringen vid flödet noll (dämda punkten), vilket är analogin till inre elektromotoriska kraften hos en elektrisk motor.

Uttrycket (22) är också en approximation. Beroende på pumpens utformning kan man få andra karakteristika. Några exempel ges i fig. 6.



<u>Fig. 6</u> - Exempel på karakteristika för några olika centrifugalpumpar.

6. SAMMANSATTA KRETSAR.

Vi har tidigare sett hur man kan göra en kretsalgebra för en krets som endast består av strypningar och vi skall nu undersöka hur man skall behandla en krets som består av pumpar, ventiler och strypningar. Vi nöjer oss med att betrakta ett enkelt exempel och överlåter åt läsaren att generalisera.

Betrakta en krets enligt fig. 7.

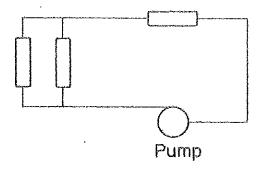


Fig. 7 - Sammansatt krets.

Enligt avsnitt 4 kan allt utanför pumpen beskrivas med karakteristiken (6)

$$p = \rho Rq^2$$

Om vi förutsätter att pumpen har en karakteristik som beskrivs av ekv. (22) gäller för pumpen

$$\mathbf{p} = \frac{\rho}{2} [(\mathbf{r} \mathbf{w})^2 - Riq^2]$$

Flödet genom pumpen sammanfaller med flödet genom den yttre kretsen. Då tryckfallen dessutom måste sammanfalla gäller uppenbarligen

$$Rq^2 = (r\omega^2) - R_{\underline{i}}q^2$$

Vi får således en linjär funktion för q² vilket ger

$$q^2 = \frac{r}{R + R_i} \omega^2$$

eller

$$q = \sqrt{\frac{r}{R_1 + R_1}} \omega$$

7. REFERENSER.

Vid beräkningar av fluida system är det rekommendabelt att repetera hydromekanikens fundament. Se t.ex.

R.C. Binder: "Fluid Mechanics", Prentice Hall, 1955.

En översikt av reglertekniska karakteristika för ventiler och pumpar ges i kap. 7 i

D.P. Eckman: "Automatic Process Control", Wiley, New York, 1962.

En alternativ referens finns i kap. 10 i uppslagsboken

Considine (editor): "Process Instruments and Controls Handbook", Mc Graw Hill, 1957.

Praktiska regler för ventildimensionering finns också 1

- G. R. Kent: "Sizing Control Valves for liquids"

 Control Engineering 13 (1966) May 87-92
- G. Rl Kent: "Sizing Control Valves for gases and 2-phase fluids"
 Control Engineering 13 (1966) June 69-73

En översikt med speciell tonvikt på tillämpningar inom VVS-tekniken ges i

L. Enfors: "Reglerventiler - Några synpunkter på samspelet reglerventil-rörnät-cirkulationspump", VVS (1962):3, sid.

Uppgifter på ventilkarakteristika kan inhämtas i datablad från Masmeilan, Nordarmatur, Källe, Billman, m.fl.

A prevedix - TECHNICAL DATA MINIMUM MI

This appendix is added (I) to provide valuable information which cannot readily be included in the previous sections; and (2) to present a brief discussion of some subjects of a technical nature which may be useful to the student of the art of design and application of control valves in the vast and growing fields of automatic control.

C.-Flow Coefficient

The use of the Flow Coefficient C_v, first introduced by Mason-Neilan in 1944, quickly became accepted as the universal yardstick of valve capacity. So useful has C_v become that practically all discussions of valve design and characteristics, or flow behavior now employ this coefficient.

By definition, the valve flow coefficient C_V is "the number of gallons per minute of water which will pass through a given flow restriction with a pressure drop of 1 psi". For example, a control valve which has a maximum flow coefficient C_V of 12 has an effective port area in the full open position such that it passes 12 gpm of water with a 1 psi pressure drop. Basically it is a capacity index with which the engineer is able rapidly and accurately to estimate the required size of a restriction in any fluid system. By use of formulas (see page 67) a number is obtained which makes engineering sense. It has visual magnitude whereby valve sizing is remarkably simplified.

By use of the formulas, it is possible

- to determine the maximum capacity of any valve, whether in liquid, gas or steam service;
- (2) to determine the required size of a valve;
- (3) to determine the flow coefficient, Cv, of any valve.

The Masoneilan Slide Rule solves directly in terms of $C_{\rm V}$ and also gives capacity information on the more common types of control valves.

The formulas are perfectly general and can be used to determine the data for any control valve, hand valve or other flow restriction.

The basic value of C_V is the same for liquids, gas and steam. If the flow conditions are known for any one of these fluids, C_V may be computed directly. For example, if a valve C_V is determined from a set of conditions on liquid service, the formulas can be used to obtain the capacity of the same valve on gas or steam service.

Flow Characteristics

PERCENTAGE CHARACTERISTICS

The term "Equal Percentage" is commonly used when speaking of control valve flow characteristics. There have been many varieties of definitions for this characteristic,

resulting in confusion as to its basic advantages. The following definition adequately expresses the principle involved:

A valve having an equal percentage characteristic will produce a change in flow for a unit change in lift which is proportional to the quantity flowing just before the change is made.

In other words, when the flow is small, the change in flow is small; when the flow is large, the change in flow is large; and the change is always proportional to the quantity flowing.

Organic growth, decomposition of radium and compound interest are but a few of the multitude of processes following this law - which in mathematics is known as the law of geometric progression.

LINEAR CHARACTERISTICS

In a valve having linear characteristics, the flow is directly proportional to the lift, e.g., 50% lift will produce 50% flow, etc.

When comparing valves having equal percentage characteristics and linear characteristics, it should be remembered that under normal steady operating conditions and where load fluctuations are small, the behavior of the two types is similar. Under absolutely steady conditions, the shape of the port in the valve is not important; it could be spherical, rectangular or triangular, since the valve opening is merely a fixed restriction in the line. In other words, for a given limited range of flow variation, there is an exact size of a linear valve which would give performance almost identical to an equal percentage valve through the same range.

FLOW CURVES

Fig. 1 is a plot of a typical flow curve for Masoneilan Percentage Ported and Percentage Contoured valve plugs, together with that of a Linear plug, on uniform coordinates, i.e., flow and lift scales are evenly divided.

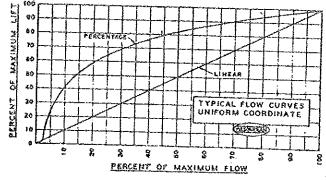


Fig. 1

The linear plug can be thought of as having a rectangular slotted port. Flow is then directly proportional to the lift, e.g., 50% lift giving 50% flow, etc.

July prendez - TECHNICAL DATA INTERNAL DATA

The Percentage Ported and Percentage Contoured curve starts out at a much slower rate; for example, at 50% lift the Percentage curve gives about 13% of maximum flow. These curves show the flow characteristics previously described.

For better comparison, Fig. 2 shows the same two curves plotted on semi-logarithmic coordinates. Note how the flow scale is divided into two sections (1%-10% and 10%-100%) called cycles. Any number of cycles can be used to cover the required flow range. The flow range curve never reaches zero. This type graph gives significant information in exactly the same way that a slide rule does, i.e., regardless of the magnitude of the number, the percentage accuracy is the same.

Fig. 3 These curves show the Percentage Piston (small Percentage Ported) family. One of the important features of this type graph is the clear portrayal of the relative capacities of the various valves. The spacing between the lines is a direct indication of the percentage increase. For example, the 3/4" (orifice) valve is just about as much bigger than the 1/2" as the 1/2" valve is bigger than the 3/4". The much greater spacing between the 1/8" and 1/4" valve indicates a large relative change in capacity as would be expected. The steeper slope (not parallel to others) of the characteristic curve of the 1/8" valve indicates a smaller flow range which is imposed by physical limitations in the design of such an extremely small valve.

Fig. 4 These curves show the 10000 Series double seated Percentage Ported family plotted in continuation of Fig. 3. By moving vertically from the plot of one valve characteristic to another, a comparison may be made of the valve position resulting from the choice of different valves sizes for any flow condition. For example, a 1" valve at 100% lift (i.e. at rated opening) is equivalent to a 1¼" valve at 84% lift; a 1½" valve at 74% lift; a 2" valve at 62% lift, and so on.

Fig. 5 The 10000 Series double seated Percentage Contoured family may be used in the same type of analysis. The major difference is in the sizes available.

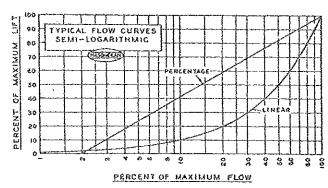


Fig. 2

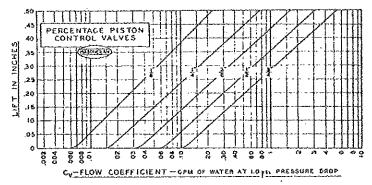
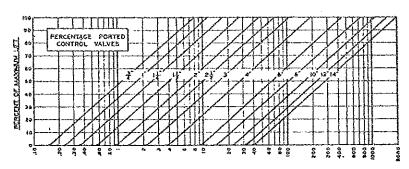


Fig. 3



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Fig. 4

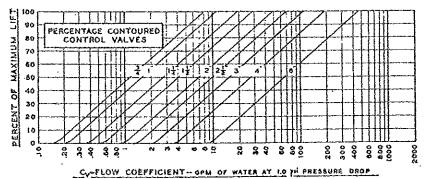


Fig. 5

A plot of valve flow characteristics on these coordinates shows the behavior at low lifts as accurately as at high lifts and a series of characteristic curves may easily be plotted without interference or crowding. The most important property of this graph is that an equal percentage characteristic plots a straight line. The slope of this line is an indication of rate of change of flow for a unit change of lift. Thus we are able to identify the equal percentage flow characteristic.

In Figs. 1 and 2 flow characteristics have been plotted in terms of percent lift and percent flow. By using the flow coefficient C_V , however, a much more comprehensive picture is obtained (Figs. 3-5).

One feature of the preceding graphs is helpful in problems involving reduced capacity trim, or in selection of a valve for a wide range of operating conditions. First, solve for C_v through use of the formulas on page 67. Then locate these values along the lower edge of the appropriate graph and move vertically to the plot of the valve being considered. This method is an aid to engineering judgment on the more difficult applications.

Rangeability

In this brief discussion of a complex subject, rangeability is considered an inherent property of the valve, unaltered by the physical conditions of the installation or operating conditions of the system and unaffected by pressure drop in series with the valve.

Rangeability of a control valve is defined as the ratio of maximum controllable flow to the minimum controllable flow—a definition which is abstract and without qualification. A control valve with a soft seat could be said to have a controllable flow range of from zero to maximum and therefore, by definition, infinite rangeability. This is obviously not the intent, but generally speaking, all control valves have a rangeability limited only by the leakage flow in closed position.

Since the definition considers only minimum and maximum flow, it would have no real meaning unless it included flow characteristic. Thus a more realistic definition would be "the flow range through which a particular flow characteristic is maintained within predetermined limits."

The most common ratio in practical use is 50:1 with Percentage characteristics. Plotted on semilog coordinates the Percentage curve reveals a unit sensitivity, (percent change of flow per percent change of lift) of 4% per %.

Although the linear curve is plotted as having a rangeability of 50:1 and is commonly so considered, the unit sensitivity varies widely between minimum and maximum flow, being 20% at 5% lift and 1% at 100% lift.

It should be remembered that all these curves are idealized. It is physically impossible to produce a perfect 50:1 equal percentage characteristic in all sizes of conventional valves and at the same time maintain demanded flow capacities. This is particularly true in the small sizes because of physical limitations in minimum controllable flow.

Valve Sizing

OPERATING CONDITIONS

The selection of a correct valve size as determined by formula or slide rule is always premised on the assumption of full knowledge of the actual flowing conditions. Frequently, one or more of these conditions is arbitrarily assumed. It is the evaluation of these arbitrary data that really determines the final valve size. No formulas—only good common sense combined with experience—can solve this problem. There is no substitute for good engineering judgment. Most errors in sizing are due to incorrect assumptions as to actual flowing conditions. Generally speaking, the tendency is to make the valve too large to be on the "safe" side. A combination of several of these "safety factors" can result in a valve so much oversize as to be troublesome.

Pressure Drop Across the Valve On a simple backpressure or pressure reducing application, the drop across the valve may be known quite accurately. This may also be true on a liquid level control installation where the liquid is passing from one vessel at a constant pressure to another vessel at a lower constant pressure. If the pressure difference is relatively small, some allowance may be necessary for line friction. On the other hand, in a large percentage of all control applications, the pressure drop across the valve must be chosen arbitrarily.

Any attempt to state a specific numerical rule for such a choice becomes too complex to be practical. The design drop across the valve is sometimes expressed as a percentage of the friction drop in the system exclusive of the valve. A good working rule is that 50% of this friction drop should be available as drop across the valve. In other words, one-third of the total system drop, including

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all heat exchangers, mixing nozzles, etc., as well as piping, is assumed to be absorbed by the control valve. In many cases, especially in high pressure centrifugal pumps, the head characteristic of the pump becomes a major factor. For valves installed in extremely long or high-pressure drop lines, the percentage of drop across the valve may be somewhat lower, but at least 15% – up to 25% where possible – of the system drop should be taken. This relatively low percentage drop is permissible, however, only when the variation in flow is small.

In some cases it may be necessary to make an arbitrary choice of the pressure drop across the valve because meager process data are available. If the valve is in a pump discharge line, for instance, a drop of 10 to 25 psi may be assumed to be sufficient if the pump discharge line is not extremely long or complicated by large drops through heat exchangers or other equipment. The tendency should be to use the higher figure.

In the interest of economy, the engineer tries to keep the control valve pressure drop as low as possible. However, a valve can only regulate flow by absorbing and giving up pressure drop to the system. As the proportion of the system drop across the valve is reduced, its ability further to increase the flow rapidly disappears.

On more complicated systems, consideration should be given to both maximum and minimum operating conditions. Mason-Neilan engineering assistance is available in analysis of such applications.

Flowing Quantity The maximum flowing quantity handled by the valve should be 25% to 100% above the normal flow required by the process. The normal flow and maximum flow used in size calculations should be based on actual operating conditions wherever possible, without any "factors" having been applied.

On many systems, a reduction in flow means an increase in pressure drop and the port area range may be much greater than would be suspected. If, for example, the maximum operating conditions for a valve are 100 gpm at 10 psi drop, and the minimum conditions are 10 gpm at 40 psi drop, the port area range is 20 to 1, not 10 to 1 as would appear at first glance. The required change in valve port area is the product of the ratio of maximum to minimum flow and the square root of the ratio of maximum to minimum pressure drop. In this example

$$\frac{100 \times \sqrt{40}}{10 \times \sqrt{10}} = \frac{20}{1}$$

There are many systems where the increase in pressure drop for this same change in flow is proportionally much greater than in this case.

Specific Gravity In the flow formulas (page 67), the specific gravity is a square root function; therefore small differences in gravity have a minor effect on valve capacity. If the gravity is not known accurately, a reasonable assumption will suffice. The use of .9 specific gravity, for example, instead of .8 would cause an error of less than 5% in value capacity.

Viscosity Some published literature gives various methods of correcting for the effect of viscosity on valve capacity. Generally, the correction factor should be based on Reynolds number which cannot be conveniently determined for the complicated flow pattern through a control valve. Moreover, viscosity correction data available does not extend to high viscosities where valve sizing becomes a difficult problem. It is consequently almost impossible to establish a hard and fast rule for correcting for the effect of viscosity. The relative infrequency of such installations does not warrant the complicated study which would be necessary for full understanding. However, a practical rule to follow is to increase the required flow coefficient by 50% for viscosities up to 10000 SSU.

Vaparization No reliable method, for all liquids, has been advanced for calculating the required valve size when partial or complete vaporization of a liquid takes place in the valve because of pressure reduction. One method of calculating valve capacity for saturated and subcooled water at the valve inlet is presented in Mason-Neilan Technical Data Series No. 10-10 (copy on request). Another method sometimes used involves separate calculations of normal sizes for vapor and liquid and adding the two together on an area basis. This method of combining flow coefficients is effective on low to medium pressure drops, or where it is expected that a large portion of the vaporization will take place upstreum of the valve.

Generally speaking, there is evidence that vaporization at the valve orifice has relatively small effect on valve size as long as the valve outlet piping has ample capacity. A satisfactory working rule is to select a valve one size larger than calculated and rapidly expand the valve outlet to the ultimate pipe size. There are a great many valves in service which have been sized by this method and there is every reason to believe that the results are just as reliable and accurate as those of more complicated methods.

Valve Sizing

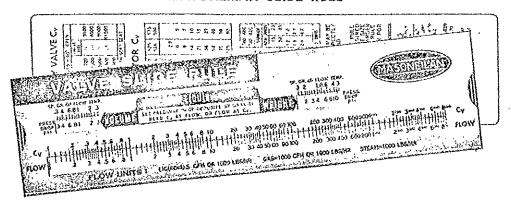
VALVE CAPACITY

As previously stated, the use of C_V (Flow Coefficient) has remarkably simplified valve sizing. It is essentially a capacity index. Any flow problem either for gas, steam or liquid can be converted to the equivalent valve flow coefficient, C_V. Thus the flow of any fluid through a restriction with a known pressure drop can be converted to the equivalent amount of water at 1.0 psi pressure drop.

Using the basic conversion formulas below, the Cr of

any restriction can be determined. Note that C_V does not involve any specific flow restriction. It is based on the fundamental law of fluid flow $(V=\sqrt{2} \text{ gh})$. Under special conditions, such as high pressure drop or use of special plug and body designs, deviation from the simple fundamental law can be substantial. Special rules might be formulated for certain of these flow problems but the extremely complicated tabulation of necessary data is hardly justifiable for practical valve sizing.

MASONEILAN SLIDE RULE



All Masoncilan Control Valves are rated in terms of C_v. The ratings are conservative and are based on pressure drop across the inlet and outlet of the valve. There is no allowance for pressure drop in adjacent piping.

The Masoneilan Slide Rule solves for C_v in most instances with only one setting for either liquid, steam

or gas. Using C_v rating from tabulations in this catalog (or on insert supplied with the Slide Rule) valve capacity for any valve size can be read directly from the rule. If required flowing conditions are known, flow, valve size and C_v are read directly from the rule.

Cy FORMULAS

NOMENCLATURE

V = flow in U.S. gpm Q = cfh @ 14.7 psia and 60°F

₩ = lb/hr

P₁ = inict pressure — psia (14.7 + psi gauge) P₂ = outlet pressure — psia (14.7 + psi gauge) G_t = sp. gr. @ flowing temperature T_t = flowing temperature — °F abs (460 + °F)

G = gas sp. gr. (air = 1.0)

T_{sh} = superheat in °F

| Desired | Known | . Liquid | | Gas | | Saturated | Superbeated |
|---|--|--|--------------------|---|--|--|--|
| | | | U.S. gpm | lb/hr | ① sefli | ①lb/br | OStram lb/hr |
| C _r | V, Qor W G, P ₁ & P ₁ G ₁ | $= \frac{V\sqrt{G_t}}{\sqrt{P_1 - P_1}}$ | W 500√(P₁-P₂)G₁ | $\frac{0}{42.2\sqrt{(P_1-P_2)(P_1+P_2)}}$ | $= \frac{\forall \forall}{3.22\sqrt{(P_1 - P_1)(P_1 + P_2)G_1}}$ | $= \frac{W}{2.1\sqrt{(P_1 - P_2)(P_1 + P_2)}}$ | $\frac{(1+0.0607T_{xh})W}{2.1\sqrt{(P_1-P_2)(P_1+P_2)}}$ |
| C _s Temp. Corrected | 0, թ <u>.</u> & թ. Դ _ք | | · | $\frac{Q\sqrt{GT_{\ell}}}{963\sqrt{(P_1-P_2)(P_1+P_2)}}$ | ÷ | | |
| Willi, hr) V (U.S. gpm) Q (seffi) | C ₇ G, P ₁ & P ₁ G ₁ | _C,√P,−P, √G, | =500C₁√(P₁-P₁)G₁ | $ \frac{\textcircled{0}_{42.2C_{7}\sqrt{(P_{1}-P_{2})(P_{1}+P_{2})}}}{\sqrt{a}} $ | ≈3,22C,√(P,-P ₁)(P ₁ +P ₂)G, | ~2.1C ₁ √(P ₁ -P ₁)(P ₁ +P ₁) | $\frac{2.1C_{\nu}\sqrt{(P_{1}-P_{2})(P_{1}+P_{2})}}{(1+0.0007T_{13})}$ |
| Q (gas) Temp. Consected | C, P, & P, T; | | | $\frac{963C_7\sqrt{(P_1-P_2)(P_1+P_2)}}{\sqrt{(P_1}}$ | - 1 | | |

(1) When P_2 is less than $\frac{P_1}{2}$ the expression $\sqrt{(P_1 - P_2)(P_1 + P_2)}$ becomes 0.87 P_1 .

② On gas flow the effect of flowing temperatures may be neglected for all temperatures between 30°F and 150°F. For higher or lower temperatures a correction should be included.