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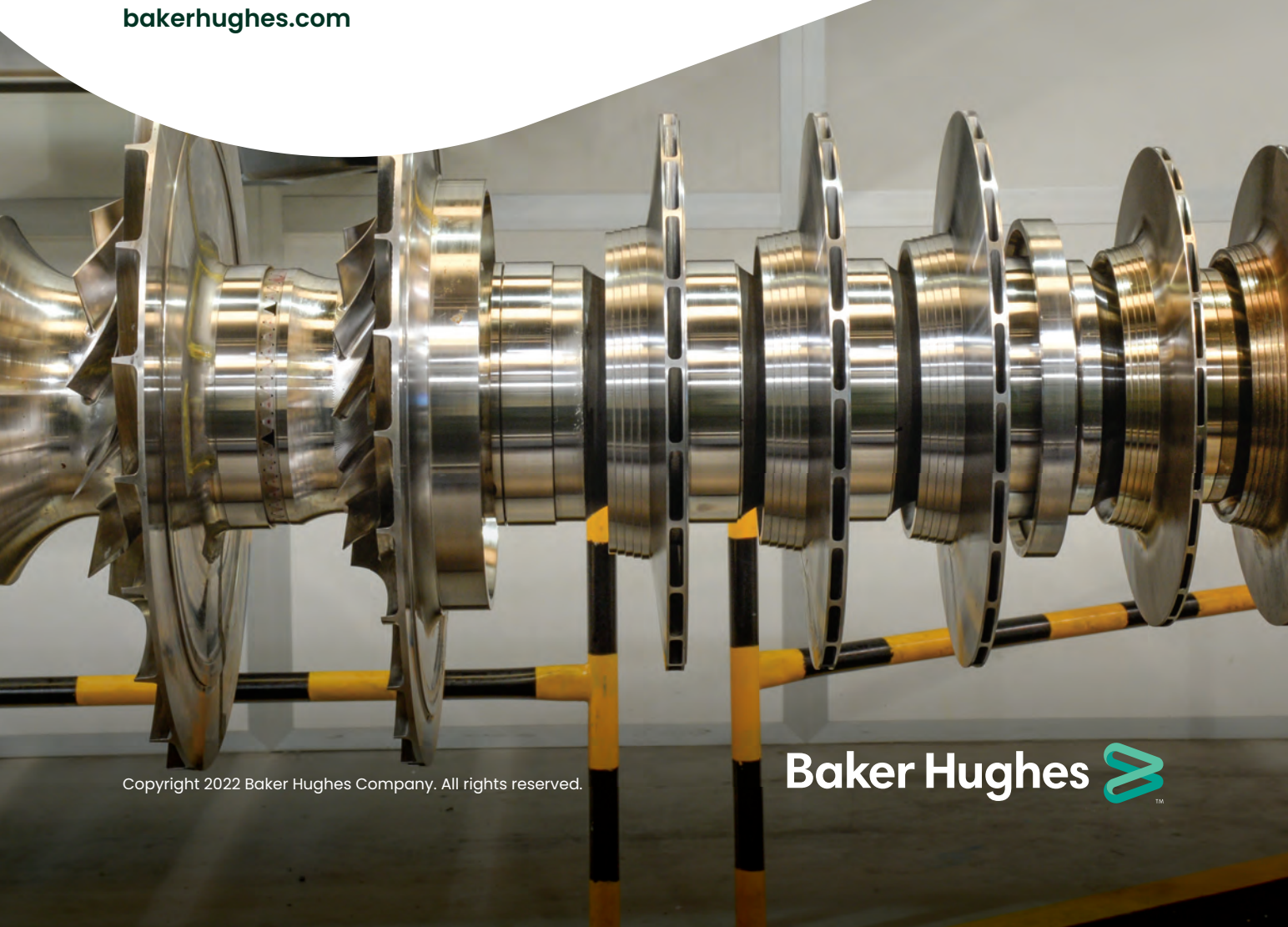
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A trustworthy reference in a familiar package

As the world spends more and more time online staring at a screen, there are many readers who still believe in the value of the printed page. We publish and distribute content digitally on a daily basis, but still hear of a demand for ink and paper. For those readers, we offer the 2022 **COMPRESSORTECH² SOURCING GUIDE**.

This is a popular product, one which comes from an ongoing demand for updated relevant information in one place. The publication has become the industry go-to guide for all players in the gas compression industry. Think of it as a who's who of the gas compression world.

The **COMPRESSORTECH² SOURCING GUIDE** is still widely used as a reference and teaching tool at colleges, tech schools and educational conferences that offer compression training programs. (To get a physical copy of the guide for education or training programs, email us at CTSG.info@KHL.com.)

Print media has survived into the digital age and by some standards, it is thriving. Publishers moved aggressively into the digital space a couple of decades ago, but print continues to have a place.

By its very nature, print forces readers to engage. They flip pages, thumb through an issue or carry it around as a reference. The ongoing longevity of the printed word is akin to the revival of vinyl records.

Some readers absorb complex information more readily when it is in print. For many readers, the tangibility of print forces them to engage more actively and they recall content more vividly. They recall the content, its location on the page and its location in the overall text.

For some, the heft of a given publication gives its contents additional gravitas that the ephemeral word on a screen does not carry. Print is a means of communication that does not require a separate device and internet access. No booting up, no log-ins and no annoying cookies or pop-ups.

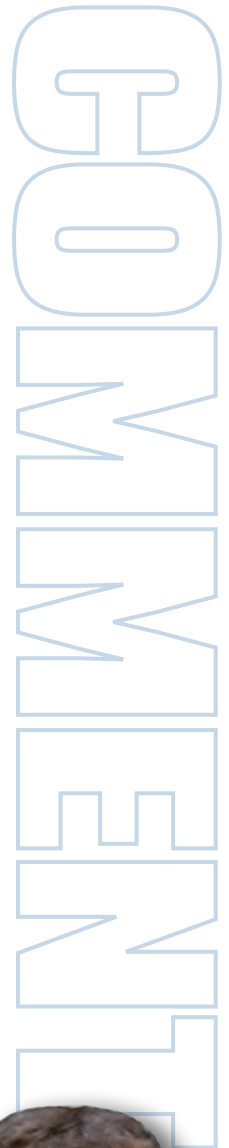
To be sure, digital has its benefits. It's easy to do a quick search for a specific piece of information. It can be updated more easily. It can be sent to another location with a few strokes on the keyboard.

And happily, the **COMPRESSORTECH² SOURCING GUIDE** is available in that format as well. It's your choice as to how you wish to access the information.

Whatever format you choose, we hope you enjoy the 2022 edition of the **COMPRESSORTECH² SOURCING GUIDE**. **CT2**

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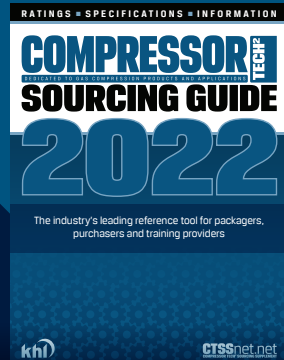
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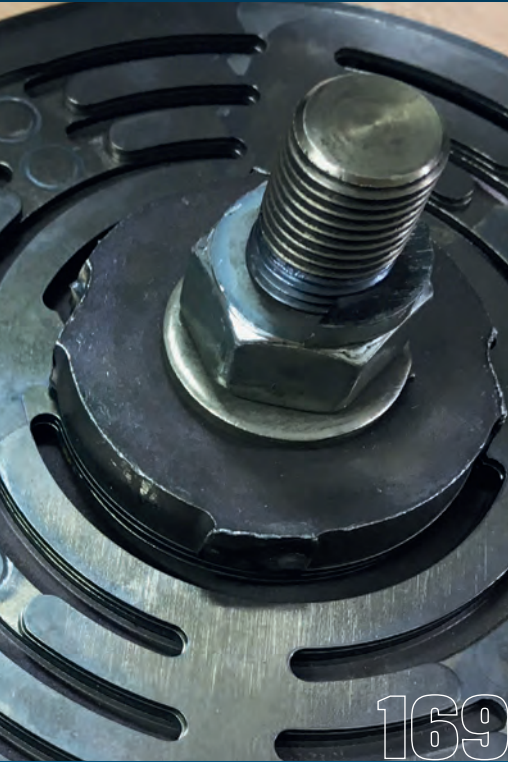
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Additional copies of the **COMPRESSORTECH²
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 Services, Gas Turbine Overhaul & Repair
 Services, Turbomachinery Overhaul & Repair
 Steam Turbines
 Turbochargers, Repairs

G



**GPA Midstream Suppliers
 Components Tab**

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 Tulsa, Oklahoma 74135
 USA
 Phone: +1 918?493?3872
 Email: cmyers@GPAmidstream.org
 gpsamidstreamsuppliers.org
 Association
 Education

H

Hofer Kompressoren 92, 93

Ruhrorter Strasse 45
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 Phone: +49 208 46996 0
 Fax: +49 208 46996 11
 Email: info@andreas-hofer.de
 www.andreas-hofer.de
 Compressor Sets, Electrically Engine-Driven
 Compressors, Diaphragm
 Compressors, Gas
 Compressors, Oil-Free
 Compressors, Oil-Injected
 Compressors, Piston
 Compressors, Reciprocating
 Valves, Pressure
 Valves, Relief & Safety
 Valves, Shut-Off



Howden

Howden Compressors Ltd. 104, 105

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 Renfrew, PA4 8XJ
 U.K.
 Phone: +44 141 885 7500
 Fax: +44 141 885 7444
 Email: screw.bareshaft@howden.com OR
 screw.aftermarket@howden.com
 www.howden.com/products/compressors
 Compressor Sets, Electrically Engine-Driven
 Compressor Sets, Gas Turbine-Driven
 Compressor Sets, Natural Gas Engine-Driven
 Compressors, Centrifugal
 Compressors, Diaphragm
 Compressors, Gas
 Compressors, Integral
 Compressors, Oil-Free
 Compressors, Oil-Injected
 Compressors, Piston
 Compressors, Reciprocating
 Compressors, Reconditioned
 Compressors, Rotary Screw
 Compressors, Screw
 Compressors, Skid-Mounted
 Expanders
 Packages, Engineering & Design
 Packages, Foundation, Platform Deck, FPSO
 Module Design
 Services & Training
 Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair
 Services, Diagnostics
 Services, Product Research
 Services, Turbomachinery Overhaul & Repair

Howden BC Compressors 104, 105
 62 - 66 Rue Roland Vachette
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 Phone: +33 (0) 3 44 74 41 00
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 Email: hbc.sales@howden.com OR hbc.
 spares@howden.com
 www.howden.com/products/compressors
 ■ For product listing see
Howden Compressors Ltd.

Howden Compressors Inc. 104, 105

7204 Harms Road
Houston, Texas 77041
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Phone: +1 716-817-6900
Email: inquiries.USA@howden.com
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■ For product listing see
Howden Compressors Ltd.

**Howden Process Compressors
..... 104, 105**

Park Road
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Chesterfield S42 5UY
U.K.
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Fax: +44 (0) 141 885 7444
Email: turbo.HCO@howden.com OR
turboAFM.HCO@howden.com

www.howden.com/products/compressors
■ For product listing see
Howden Compressors Ltd.

**Howden Process Compressors
Screw Compressors 104, 105**

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Phone: +44 141 885 7500
Fax: +44 141 882 8648
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screw.aftermarket@howden.com
www.howden.com/products/compressors

■ For product listing see
Howden Compressors Ltd.

Howden Roots 104, 105

900 W. Mount St.
Connersville, Indiana 47331
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Phone: 800-55-ROOTS, +1 765 827 9200
Email: inquiries.USA@howden.com
www.howden.com/products/blowers

■ For product listing see
Howden Compressors Ltd.

**Howden Thomassen Compressors
..... 104, 105**

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Fax: +31 (0) 26 4975201
Email: info@thomassen.com
www.howden.com/products/compressors

■ For product listing see
Howden Compressors Ltd.

Howden Turblex 104, 105

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Springfield, Missouri 65802
USA
Phone: +1 417 864 5599
Fax: +1 417 866 0235
Email: inquiries.USA@howden.com
www.howden.com/products/blowers

■ For product listing see
Howden Compressors Ltd.

Howden Turbo GmbH 104, 105

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67227 Frankenthal
GERMANY
Phone: +49 6233 850
Fax: +49 6233 852660
Email: howdenturbo-de@howden.com
www.howden.com/products/compressors
*Compressors, Centrifugal
Steam Turbines*

K



KoHo (Köhler & Hörter GmbH) 81

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www.koho-kompressor.com
*Compressors, Gas
Compressors, Oil-Free
Compressors, Oil-Injected
Compressors, Piston
Compressors, Reciprocating
Compressors, Stationary*

KoHo China 81

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L



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..... 112, 113**

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AUSTRIA
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Compressors, Gas
Compressors, Oil-Free
Compressors, Oil-Injected*

Compressors, Piston
 Compressors, Reciprocating
 Compressors, Rotary Screw
 Compressors, Screw
 Compressors, Single Screw
 Compressors, Skid-Mounted
 Compressors, Stationary

M



MAN Energy Solutions SE118, 119

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 Compressor Sets, Gas Turbine-Driven
 Compressors, Air
 Compressors, Axial
 Compressors, Centrifugal
 Compressors, Gas
 Compressors, Integral
 Compressors, Oil-Free
 Compressors, Rotary Screw
 Compressors, Screw
 Compressors, Skid-Mounted
 Compressors, Stationary
 Controls, Compressor
 Drives, Compressor
 Engine Maintenance, Overhaul & Parts
 Services
 Engines, Gas Turbine
 Expanders
 Monitors, Compressor Systems
 Monitors, Engine System
 Packages, Engine Compressor
 Packages, Motor Compressor
 Power Turbines
 Protective Controls
 Reactor Systems
 Rotors, Turbomachinery
 Service Systems & Training, Gas Turbines
 Services & Training
 Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair

Services, Engineering
 Services, Gas Turbine Overhaul & Repair
 Steam Turbines

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 www.man-es.com
 ■ For product listing see
MAN Energy Solutions SE

N



NEAC Compressor Service USA, Inc.92, 93

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 www.neacusa.com
 Compressors, Reconditioned
 Controls, Vibration
 Cylinders, Reconditioning
 Monitors, Compressor Systems
 Monitors, Load
 Monitors, Pressure
 Monitors, Temperature
 Monitors, Vibration
 Pistons, Reconditioning
 Project Management
 Rings, Packing
 Rings, Piston
 Service Tools & Equipment
 Services & Training
 Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair
 Services, Diagnostics

Services, Engineering
 Services, Failure-Analysis
 Services, Field Pulsation, Vibration-Analysis
 Services, Laser Measurements
 Services, Shutdown
 Valves, Check
 Valves, Compressor
 Valves, Overhaul

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NEA Al-Hotta Industrial Est.92, 93
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 Compressor Sets, Electrically Engine-Driven

Compressor Sets, Natural Gas Engine-Driven
Compressors, Air
Compressors, Capacity Control Devices
Compressors, Diaphragm
Compressors, Oil-Free
Compressors, Oil-Injected
Compressors, Piston
Compressors, Reciprocating
Compressors, Reconditioned
Compressors, Skid-Mounted
Packing Assemblies
Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair
Services, Shutdown
Valves, Check
Valves, Compressor
Valves, Overhaul

NEUMAN & ESSER USA Inc.92, 93

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Compressors, Reciprocating
Compressors, Reconditioned
Compressors, Skid-Mounted
Compressors, Stationary
Packages, Engineering & Design
Packages, Piping, Structural Analysis
Packing Assemblies
Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair

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Compressors, Skid-Mounted
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Packages, Piping, Structural Analysis
Packing Assemblies
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Compressors, Oil-Injected
Compressors, Piston
Compressors, Reciprocating
Compressors, Skid-Mounted
Packing Assemblies
Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair
Services, Shutdown
Valves, Overhaul

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Compressors, Oil-Injected
Compressors, Piston
Compressors, Reciprocating
Compressors, Skid-Mounted
Packing Assemblies
Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair
Services, Shutdown
Valves, Check
Valves, Overhaul

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 Fax: +39 02 3551529
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 www.neuman-esser.com, www.neac.net
Compressor Sets, Electrically Engine-Driven
Compressor Sets, Natural Gas Engine-Driven
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Compressors, Diaphragm
Compressors, Gas
Compressors, Oil-Free
Compressors, Oil-Injected
Compressors, Piston
Compressors, Reciprocating
Compressors, Skid-Mounted
Controls, Vibration
Cylinders, Reconditioning
Monitors, Compressor Systems
Monitors, Load
Monitors, Pressure
Monitors, Temperature
Monitors, Vibration
Packages, Engineering & Design
Packages, Piping, Structural Analysis
Packing Assemblies
Pistons, Reconditioning
Project Management
Rings, Packing
Rings, Piston
Service Tools & Equipment
Services & Training
Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair
Services, Diagnostics
Services, Engineering
Services, Failure-Analysis
Services, Field Pulsation, Vibration-Analysis
Services, Laser Measurements
Services, Shutdown
Valves, Check

Valves, Compressor
Valves, Overhaul

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Compressors, Air
Compressors, Capacity Control Devices
Compressors, Diaphragm
Compressors, Gas
Compressors, Oil-Free
Compressors, Oil-Injected
Compressors, Piston
Compressors, Reciprocating
Compressors, Skid-Mounted
Packing Assemblies
Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair
Services, Shutdown
Valves, Check
Valves, Compressor
Valves, Overhaul

**NEUMAN & ESSER
Engineering (India) Pvt. Ltd.92, 93**

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Compressors, Oil-Injected
Compressors, Piston
Compressors, Reciprocating
Compressors, Skid-Mounted
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Packages, Piping, Structural Analysis
Packing Assemblies
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Services, Shutdown
Valves, Check
Valves, Overhaul

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Services, Shutdown
Valves, Check
Valves, Overhaul

**NEUMAN & ESSER
Engenharia e Soluções Ltda92, 93**

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Component Reconditioning
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Compressors, Capacity Control Devices
Compressors, Diaphragm
Compressors, Gas
Compressors, Oil-Free
Compressors, Oil-Injected
Compressors, Piston
Compressors, Reciprocating
Compressors, Reconditioned
Compressors, Skid-Mounted
Controls, Vibration

Cylinders, Reconditioning
Monitors, Compressor Systems
Monitors, Load
Monitors, Pressure
Monitors, Temperature
Monitors, Vibration
Packages, Engineering & Design
Packages, Piping, Structural Analysis
Packing Assemblies
Pistons, Reconditioning
Project Management
Rings, Packing
Rings, Piston
Service Tools & Equipment
Services & Training
Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair
Services, Diagnostics
Services, Engineering
Services, Failure-Analysis
Services, Field Pulsation, Vibration-Analysis
Services, Laser Measurements
Services, Shutdown
Valves, Check
Valves, Compressor
Valves, Overhaul

**NEUMAN & ESSER South East Asia Ltd.
NEAC Compressor Service92, 93**

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Compressors, Diaphragm
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Compressors, Oil-Injected
Compressors, Piston
Compressors, Reciprocating
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Cylinders, Reconditioning
Monitors, Compressor Systems
Monitors, Load
Monitors, Pressure
Monitors, Temperature
Monitors, Vibration

Packages, Engineering & Design
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 Packing Assemblies
 Pistons, Reconditioning
 Project Management
 Rings, Packing
 Rings, Piston
 Service Tools & Equipment
 Services & Training
 Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair
 Services, Diagnostics
 Services, Engineering
 Services, Failure-Analysis
 Services, Field Pulsation, Vibration-Analysis
 Services, Laser Measurements
 Services, Shutdown
 Valves, Check
 Valves, Compressor
 Valves, Overhaul

Norwalk Compressor Company, Inc.
92, 93

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 www.norwalkcompressor.com
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 Compressors, Air
 Compressors, Gas
 Compressors, Oil-Free
 Compressors, Oil-Injected
 Compressors, Piston
 Compressors, Reciprocating
 Compressors, Skid-Mounted
 Rings, Packing
 Rings, Piston
 Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair

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 www.arcanum-energy.de
 ■ Affiliated with Neuman & Esser
 Services, Engineering

Service provider
 Consultant
 Projecting of Biogas Plants
 Biogas Treatment Facilities
 Biogas Production / Biomethane Feeding
 into the Grid

**AE Driven Solutions GmbH
 (Start up with 50% share)**92, 93

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 52072 Aachen
 GERMANY
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 Email: info@alternative-energy.solutions
 alternative-energy.solutions
 ■ Affiliated with Neuman & Esser
 H2 Mobility Logistics
 Fuel Cells Technology
 H2-Infrastructure

HYTRON Energy & Gas92, 93

Eritrina, 181
 Condominio Industrial Vecon Zeta
 Sumaré - SP - Brasil CEP.: 13.178
 BRAZIL
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 Email: hytron@hytron.com.br
 www.hytron.com.br
 ■ Affiliated with Neuman & Esser
 Alkaline Electrolyzers
 PEM Electrolyzers
 Natural Gas and Methanol Reformers

S



**SIAD Macchine Impianti SpA
 Compressors Division** 107

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 www.siadmi.com
 Compressor Frame End Parts
 Compressor Sets, Gas Turbine-Driven
 Compressor Sets, Natural Gas Engine-Driven
 Compressors, Air
 Compressors, Gas
 Compressors, Oil-Free

Compressors, Oil-Injected
 Compressors, Piston
 Compressors, Reciprocating
 Compressors, Reconditioned
 Compressors, Skid-Mounted
 Compressors, Stationary
 Cylinders, Reconditioning
 Services & Training
 Services, Compressors Overhaul & Repair
 Services, Engineering
 Services, Failure-Analysis

Solar® Turbines

A Caterpillar Company

Solar Turbines Incorporated
Prime Movers Tab

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 Compressor Sets, Gas Turbine-Driven
 Compressors, Centrifugal
 Compressors, Gas
 Engines, Gas Turbine
 Packages, Engine Compressor
 Packages, Foundation, Platform Deck, FPSO
 Module Design

T



Termomeccanica Industrial Compressors
 Termomeccanica Group

**TM.I.C. Termomeccanica Industrial
 Compressors**86, 87

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 19126 La Spezia
 Italy
 Phone: +39 0187 552 1
 Email: industrialcompressors@
 termomeccanica.com
 www.tmic.termomeccanica.com
 Compressors, Air
 Compressors, Gas
 Compressors, Oil-Injected
 Compressors, Screw

COMPRESSOR HORSEPOWER SELECTION CHART

(Brake Horsepower Per Million Cu. Ft.)

		DISCHARGE PRESSURE (PSIG)																											
		25	50	75	100	125	150	175	200	250	300	350	400	450	500	550	600	650	700	750	800	850	900	950	1000	1050	1100	1150	1200
SUCTION PRESSURE	0	65	99	128	144	156	168	178	187	203	218	233	241	248	254	260	266	272	277	282	286	291	295	299	303	307	311	315	
	10	35	63	85	104	121	131	140	149	163	175	186	196	205	214	223	231	238	243	247	250	253	257	260	264	267	270		
	20		43	62	78	92	106	118	126	139	151	160	170	178	186	193	199	206	212	218	225	231	226	229	232	236	239	242	245
	30		29	47	62	74	85	96	107	123	133	143	152	159	167	173	179	185	191	196	201	206	211	216	221	226	230	224	227
	40			36	50	61	72	81	90	107	121	130	138	145	152	158	164	170	175	180	185	190	194	198	202	206	210	214	218
	50			26	41	52	61	70	78	93	106	119	127	134	141	147	153	158	163	168	173	177	181	185	189	193	196	200	203
	60				32	44	53	61	69	83	95	108	118	125	131	137	143	148	153	158	162	166	170	174	178	182	185	188	192
	70				25	37	46	54	61	74	86	97	109	117	123	129	135	140	145	149	153	157	161	165	169	172	176	179	182
	80				30	40	47	54	61	74	86	98	109	117	122	127	132	137	142	146	150	153	157	161	164	167	171	174	
	90				24	34	42	49	56	69	81	91	100	109	116	121	126	131	135	139	143	147	150	154	157	160	163	166	
	100				28	37	44	51	58	71	84	92	100	109	116	120	125	129	133	137	141	144	148	151	154	157	160		
	125							25	32	44	54	63	71	78	85	92	99	106	113	117	121	124	128	131	134	137	140	143	146
	150								22	35	45	53	60	67	74	80	86	92	98	103	110	114	118	121	124	127	130	133	135
	175									27	37	45	52	57	60	71	76	82	87	92	97	102	107	112	115	118	121	123	126
	200										30	38	45	52	58	63	68	73	78	83	88	92	96	101	105	110	113	116	119
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3
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2
STAGE

1
STAGE

NOTE: 1 MMSCFD MEASURED 14.7 AND 60°F NOT CORRECTED FOR COMPRESSIBILITY 2 "N"=1.26 3 SUCTION TEMPERATURE 100°F 4 NATURAL GAS

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ABBREVIATIONS

abs	absolute	m	meter
ata	atmosphere	mm	millimeter
	absolute	m ²	square meter
Btu	British thermal unit	m ³	cubic meter
Btu/hr	British thermal unit/hour	m ³ /min	cubic meter/minute
°C	Celsius	mph	mile per hour
cfm	cubic foot/minute	N	Newton
cm	centimeter	N/m ²	Pascal
cm ²	square centimeter	Nm ² /hr	normal* cubic meter/hour
cm ³	cubic centimeter	psi	pound/square inch
cu.ft.	cubic foot	psia	pound/square inch absolute
°F	Fahrenheit	psig	pound/square inch gage
ft/sec	foot/second	scf	standard* cubic foot
ft-lb	foot-pound	scfm	standard* cubic foot/minute
gal	gallon	sq	square
hp	horsepower		
in	inch		
in. Hg	inch mercury		
in. H ₂ O	inch water		
kcal	kilocalorie		
kg	kilogram		
KJ	kilojoule		
kPa	kilopascal		
KW	kilowatt		
L	liter		

* "Normal" = 0°C and 1.01325 x 10⁵ Pascals
 * "Standard" = 59°F and 14.73 psia

CONVERSION FACTORS

TO CONVERT FROM ENGLISH	TO S.I. METRIC	MULTIPLY BY	TO OLD METRIC	MULTIPLY BY
sq. in.	mm ²	645.16	cm ²	6.4516
sq. ft.	m ²	0.0929	m ²	0.0929
lb/cu.ft.	kg/m ³	16.0185	kg/m ³	16.0185
lb _f	N	4.4482	N	4.4482
lb _f /ft	N/m	14.5939	N/m	14.5939
Btu	kJ	1.0551	kcal	0.252
Btu/hr	W	0.2931	kcal/hr	0.252
Btu/scf	kJ/mm ³	37.2590	kcal/nm ³	0.1565
in	mm	25.400	cm	2.540
ft	m	0.3048	m	0.3048
yd	m	0.914	m	0.914
lb	kg	0.4536	kg	0.4536
hp	kW	0.7457	kW	0.7457
psi	kPa	6.8948	kg/cm ²	0.070
psia	kPa abs	6.8948	bars abs	0.0716
psig	kPa gage	6.8948	ata	0.070
in. Hg	kPa	3.3769	cm Hg	2.540
in. H ₂ O	kPa	0.2488	cm H ₂ O	2.540
°F (Interval)	°C =	(°F - 32) / 5/9	°C =	(°F - 32) / 5/9
ft-lb	N • m	1.3558	°C (Interval)	5/9
mph	km/hr	1.6093	N • m	1.3558
ft/sec	m/sec	0.3048	km/hr	1.6093
cu. ft.	m ³	0.0283	m/sec	0.3048
gas (US)	L	3.7854	m ³	0.0283
cfm	m ³ /min	0.0283	L	3.7854
scfm	nm ³ /min	0.0268	m ³ /min	0.0283
			nm ³ /hr	1.61

TO CONVERT FROM OLD METRIC	TO S.I. METRIC	MULTIPLY BY
cm ²	mm ²	100.
kcal	kJ	4.1868
kcal/hr	W	1.16279
cm	mm	10.
kg/cm ²	kPa	98.0665
bars	kPa	100.
atm	kPa	101.325
cm Hg	kPa	1.3332
cm H ₂ O	kPa	9.8064
nm ³ /hr	nm ³ /min	0.0176

MILLIMETERS (mm) TO INCHES (in)

(1 millimeter = 0.03937 inch)

mm in	mm in	mm in	mm in	mm in
1 0.039	21 0.827	41 1.614	61 2.402	81 3.189
2 0.079	22 0.866	42 1.654	62 2.441	82 3.228
3 0.118	23 0.906	43 1.693	63 2.480	83 3.268
4 0.157	24 0.945	44 1.732	64 2.520	84 3.307
5 0.197	25 0.984	45 1.772	65 2.559	85 3.346
6 0.236	26 1.024	46 1.811	66 2.598	86 3.386
7 0.276	27 1.063	47 1.850	67 2.638	87 3.425
8 0.315	28 1.102	48 1.890	68 2.677	88 3.465
9 0.354	29 1.142	49 1.929	69 2.717	89 3.504
10 0.394	30 1.181	50 1.968	70 2.756	90 3.543
11 0.433	31 1.220	51 2.008	71 2.795	91 3.583
12 0.472	32 1.260	52 2.047	72 2.835	92 3.622
13 0.512	33 1.299	53 2.087	73 2.874	93 3.661
14 0.551	34 1.339	54 2.126	74 2.913	94 3.701
15 0.591	35 1.378	55 2.165	75 2.953	95 3.740
16 0.630	36 1.417	56 2.205	76 2.992	96 3.779
17 0.669	37 1.457	57 2.244	77 3.032	97 3.819
18 0.709	38 1.496	58 2.283	78 3.071	98 3.858
19 0.748	39 1.535	59 2.323	79 3.110	99 3.898
20 0.787	40 1.575	60 2.362	80 3.150	100 3.937

KILOGRAMS (kg) TO POUNDS (lb)

(1 kilogram = 2.20462 pounds)

kg lb	kg lb	kg lb	kg lb	kg lb
1 2.204	21 46.297	41 90.390	61 134.482	81 178.574
2 4.409	22 48.502	42 92.594	62 136.687	82 180.779
3 6.614	23 50.706	43 94.799	63 138.891	83 182.984
4 8.819	24 52.911	44 97.003	64 141.096	84 185.188
5 11.023	25 55.116	45 99.208	65 143.300	85 187.393
6 13.228	26 57.320	46 101.413	66 145.505	86 189.598
7 15.432	27 59.525	47 103.617	67 147.710	87 191.802
8 17.637	28 61.729	48 105.822	68 149.914	88 194.007
9 19.843	29 63.934	49 108.026	69 152.119	89 196.211
10 22.046	30 66.139	50 110.231	70 154.324	90 198.416
11 24.251	31 68.343	51 112.436	71 156.528	91 200.621
12 26.455	32 70.548	52 114.640	72 158.733	92 202.825
13 28.660	33 72.753	53 116.845	73 160.937	93 205.030
14 30.865	34 74.957	54 119.050	74 163.142	94 207.235
15 33.069	35 77.162	55 121.254	75 165.347	95 209.439
16 35.274	36 79.366	56 123.459	76 167.551	96 211.644
17 37.479	37 81.571	57 125.663	77 169.756	97 213.848
18 39.683	38 83.776	58 127.868	78 171.961	98 216.053
19 41.888	39 85.980	59 130.073	79 174.165	99 218.258
20 44.093	40 88.185	60 132.277	80 176.370	100 220.462

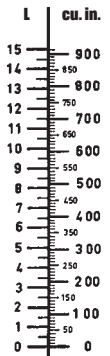
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0 TO 100		2.78	37	98.6	23.9	75	167.0	93	200	392	299	570	1058	510	950	1742	
-17.8	0	32	3.33	38	100.4	24.4	76	168.8	99	210	410	304	580	1076	516	960	1760
-17.2	1	33.8	3.89	39	102.2	25.0	77	170.6	100	212	413	310	590	1094	521	970	1778
-16.7	2	35.6	4.44	40	104.0	25.6	78	172.4	104	220	428	316	600	1112	527	980	1796
-16.1	3	37.4	5.00	41	105.8	26.1	79	174.2	110	230	446	321	610	1130	532	990	1814
-15.6	4	39.2	5.56	42	107.6	26.7	80	176.0	116	240	464	327	620	1148	538	1000	1832
-15.0	5	41.0	6.11	43	109.4	27.2	81	177.8	121	250	482	332	630	1166			
-14.4	6	42.8	6.67	44	111.2	27.8	82	179.6	127	260	500	338	640	1184			
-13.9	7	44.9	7.22	45	113.0	28.3	83	181.4	132	270	518	343	650	1202			
-13.3	8	46.4	7.78	46	114.8	28.9	84	183.2	138	280	536	349	660	1220			
-12.8	9	48.2	8.33	47	116.6	29.4	85	185.0	143	290	554	354	670	1238			
-12.1	10	50.0	8.89	48	118.4	30.0	86	186.8	149	300	572	360	680	1256	554	1030	1886
-11.7	11	51.8	9.44	49	120.0	30.6	87	188.6	154	310	590	366	690	1274	560	1040	1904
-11.2	12	53.6	10.00	50	122.0	31.1	88	190.4	160	320	608	371	700	1292	566	1050	1922
-10.6	13	55.4	10.6	51	123.8	31.7	89	192.2	166	330	626	377	710	1310	571	1060	1940
-10.0	14	57.2	11.1	52	125.6	32.2	90	194.0	171	340	644	382	720	1328	577	1070	1958
-9.44	15	59.0	11.7	53	127.4	32.8	91	195.8	177	350	662	388	730	1346	582	1080	1976
-8.89	16	60.8	12.2	54	129.2	33.3	92	197.6	182	360	680	393	740	1364	588	1090	1994
-8.33	17	62.6	12.8	55	131.0	33.9	93	199.4	188	370	698	399	750	1382	593	1100	2012
-7.78	18	64.4	13.3	56	132.8	34.4	94	201.2	193	380	716	404	760	1400	599	1110	2030
-7.22	19	66.2	13.9	57	134.6	35.0	95	203.0	199	390	734	410	770	1418	604	1120	2048
-6.67	20	68.0	14.4	58	136.4	35.6	96	204.8	204	400	752	416	780	1436	610	1130	2066
-6.11	21	69.8	15.0	59	138.2	36.1	97	206.6	210	410	770	421	790	1454	616	1140	2084
-5.56	22	71.6	15.6	60	140.0	36.7	98	208.4	216	420	788	427	800	1472	621	1150	2102
-5.00	23	73.4	16.1	61	141.8	37.2	99	210.2	221	430	806	432	810	1490	627	1160	2120
-4.44	24	75.2	16.7	62	143.6	37.8	100	212.0	227	440	824	438	820	1508	632	1170	2138
-3.89	25	77.0	17.2	63	145.4				232	450	842	443	830	1526	638	1180	2156
-3.33	26	78.8	17.8	64	147.2				238	460	860	449	840	1544	643	1190	2174
-2.78	27	80.6	18.3	65	149.0				38	100	212	243	470	878	649	1200	2192
-2.22	28	82.4	18.9	66	150.8				43	110	230	249	480	896	654	1210	2210
-1.67	29	84.2	19.4	67	152.6				49	120	248	254	490	914	660	1220	2228
-1.11	30	86.0	20.0	68	154.4				54	130	266	260	500	932	666	1230	2246
-0.56	31	87.8	20.6	69	156.2				60	140	284	266	510	950	671	1240	2264
0	32	89.6	21.1	70	158.0				66	150	302	271	520	968	677	1250	2282
0.56	33	91.4	21.7	71	159.8				71	160	320	277	530	986	682	1260	2300
1.11	34	93.2	22.2	72	161.6				77	170	338	282	540	1004	688	1270	2318
1.67	35	95.0	22.8	73	163.4				82	180	356	288	550	1022	693	1280	2336
2.22	36	96.8	23.3	74	165.2				88	190	374	293	560	1040	700	1290	2354

Note: The numbers in bold face type refer to the temperature either in degrees Centigrade or Fahrenheit which is desired to convert into the other scale. If converting from Fahrenheit degrees to Centigrade degrees, the equivalent temperatures will be found in the left column; while if converting from degrees Centigrade to degrees Fahrenheit, the answer will be found in the column on the right.

VOLUME CONVERSION FACTORS

1 L = 61.02 cu. in.
 10 cu. in. = 0.164 L



The system outlined here is the International System of Units (Système International d'Unités), for which the abbreviation SI is being used in all languages.

The SI system, which is becoming universally used, is founded on seven base units, these being:

Length	meter	m
Mass	kilogram	kg
Time	second	s
Electric current	ampere	A
Thermodynamic temperature	Kelvin	K
Luminous intensity	candela	cd
Amount of substance	mole	mol

POWER

The derived SI unit for power is the Watt (W), this being based on the SI unit of work, energy and quantity of heat – the Joule (J). One Watt (1 W) is equal to one Joule per second (1 J/s). One Watt is a very small unit of power, being equivalent to just 0.00134102 horsepower, so for engine ratings the kilowatt (kW) is used, 1 kW being equal to 1.341 hp and 1 hp being the equivalent of 0.7457 kW. The British unit of horsepower is equal to 1.014 metric horsepower (CV, PS, PK, etc.).

- 1 kW = 1.341 hp = 1.360 metric hp
- 1 hp = 0.746 kW = 1.014 metric hp
- 1 metric hp = 0.735 kW = 0.986 hp

TORQUE

The derived SI unit for torque (or moment of force) is the Newton meter (Nm), this being based on the SI unit of force – the Newton (N) – and the SI unit of length – the meter (m). One Newton (1 N) is equivalent to 0.2248 pound-force (lbf) or 0.10197 kilogram-force (kgf), and one meter is equal to kilogram force (kgf) and one member is equal to 3.28084 feet (ft), so one Newton meter (1 N m) is equal to 0.737562 pound-force (lbf ft) or 0.101972 kilogram-force meter (kgf m).

- 1 Nm = 0.738 lbf ft = 0.102 kgf m
- 1 lbf ft = 1.356 Nm = 0.138 kgf m
- 1 kgf m = 9.807 Nm = 7.233 lbf ft

PRESSURE AND STRESS

Although it has been decided that the SI derived unit for pressure and stress should be the Pascal (Pa), this is a very small unit, being the same as one Newton per square meter (1 N/m²), which is only 0.000145 lbf/in² or 0.0000102 kgf/cm². So many European engine designers favor the bar as the unit of pressure, one bar being 100,000 Pascal (100 kPa), which is the equivalent of 14,504 lbf/in² or 1.020 kgf/cm², so being virtually the same as the currently accepted metric equivalent. On the other hand, for engine performance purposes, the millibar seems to be favored to indicate barometric pressure, this unit being one thousandth of a bar. Then again, there is a school that favors the kilonewton per square meter (kN/m²), this being the same as a kilopascal, and equal to 0.145 lbf/in² or 0.0102 kgf/cm².

- 1 bar = 14.5 lbf/in² = 1.0197 kgf/cm²
- 1 lbf/in² = 0.069 bar
- 1 kgf/cm² = 0.98 bar

The American Society of Mechanical Engineers in 1973 published its Performance Test Codes for Reciprocating Internal Combustion engines. Known as PTC 17, this code is intended for tests of all types of reciprocating internal combustion engines for determining power output and fuel consumption. In its Section 2, Description and Definition of Terms, both the FPS and corresponding SI units of measurements are given.

SPECIFIC CONSUMPTION

Fuel consumption measurements will be based on the currently accepted unit, the gram (g), and the Kilowatt Hour (kWh). Also adopted is heat units/power units so that energy consumption of an internal combustion engine referred to net power output, mechanical, is based on low unsaturated heat value of the fuel whether liquid or gaseous type. Thus the SI unit of measurement for net specific energy consumption is expressed: g/kWh.

- 1 g/kWh = 0.001644 lb/hph = 0.746 g/hph = 0.736 g/metric hph
- 1 lb/hph = 608.3 g/kWh
- 1 g/hph = 1.341 k/kWh
- 1 g/metric hph = 1.36 g/kWh

HEAT RATE

Heat Rate is a product of Lower Heating Value (LHV) of Fuel (measured in Btu/lb or kJ/g for liquid fuel and Btu/ft³ or kJ/m³ for gas fuel) multiplied times (sfc) specific fuel consumption (measured in lb/hph or g/kWh).

For Liquid Fuel

$$\text{Heat Rate (Btu/hph)} = \text{LHV (Btu/lb)} \times \text{sfc (lb/hph)}$$

For Gaseous Fuel

$$\text{Heat Rate (Btu/hph)} = \text{LHV (Btu/ft}^3\text{)} \times \text{sfc (ft}^3\text{/hph)}$$

To convert these units to SI units:

$$\text{Btu/hph} \times 1.414 = \text{kJ/kWh}$$

Or

$$\text{Btu/kWh} \times 1.055 = \text{kJ/kWh}$$

LUBRICATING-OIL CONSUMPTION

Although the metric liter is not officially an SI unit, its use will continue to be permitted, so measurement of lube-oil consumption will be quoted in liters per hour (liters/h).

- 1 liter/h = 0.22 Imp gal/h
- 1 Imp gal/h = 4.546 liters/h

TEMPERATURES

The SI unit of temperature is Kelvin (K), and the character is used without the degree symbol (°) normally employed with other scales of temperature. A temperature of zero degree Kelvin is equivalent to a temperature of -273.15°C on the Celsius (centigrade) scale. The Kelvin unit is identical in interval to the Celsius unit, so direct conversions can be made by adding or subtracting 273. Use of Celsius is still permitted.

- 0 K = 273°C; absolute zero K
- 1°C = 273 K

WEIGHTS AND LINEAR DIMENSIONS

For indications of "weight" the original metric kilogram (kg) will continue to be used as the unit of mass, but it is important to note that the kilogram will no longer apply for force, for which the SI unit is the Newton (N), which is a kilogram meter per second squared. The Newton is that force which, when applied to a body having a mass of one kilogram, gives it an acceleration of one meter per second squared.

"Weight" in itself will no longer apply, since this is an ambiguous term, so the kilogram in effect should only be used as the unit of mass. Undoubtedly, though, it will continue to be common parlance to use the word "weight" when referring to the mass of an object.

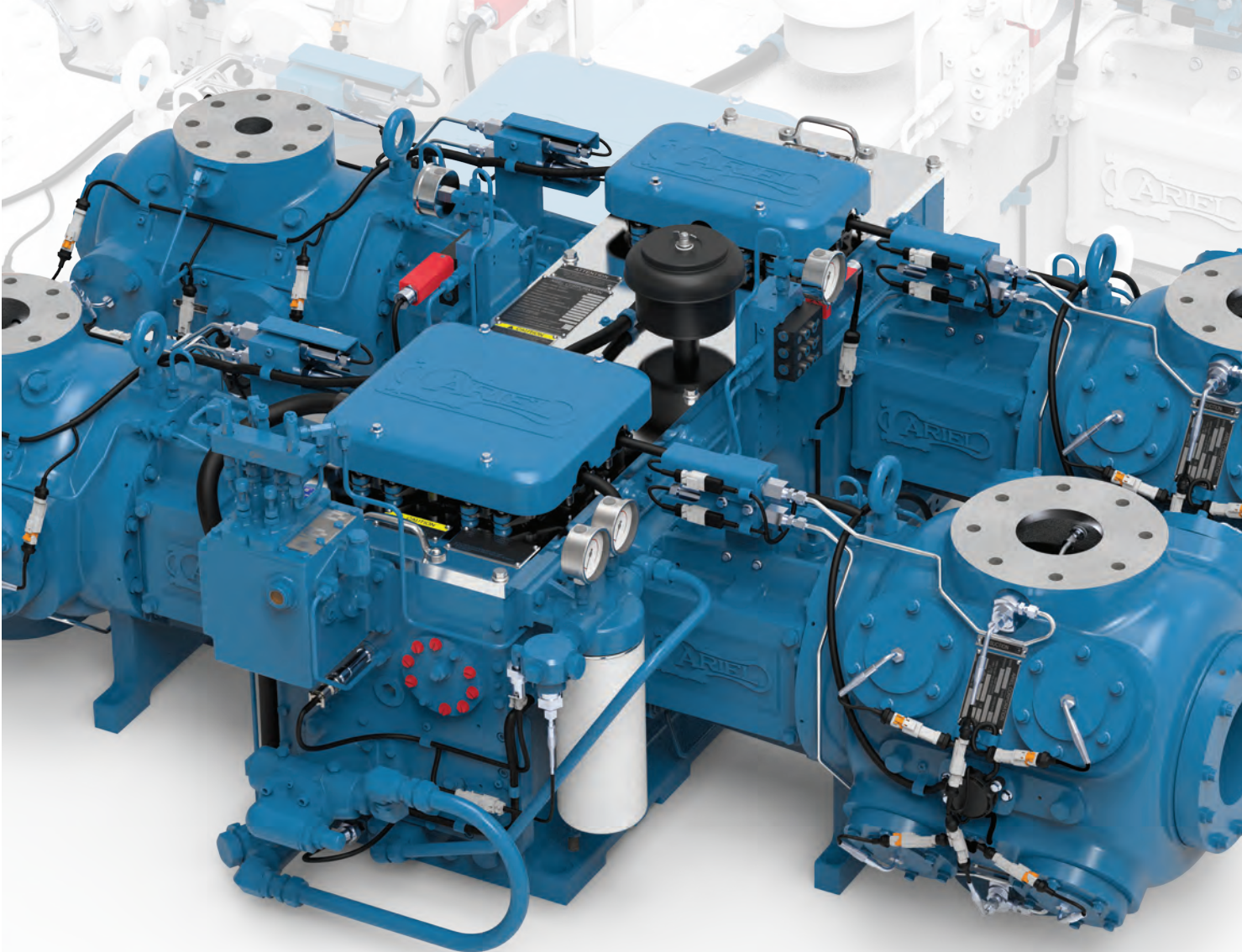
The base SI unit for linear dimensions will be the meter, with a wide range of multiples and sub-multiples ranging from exa (10¹⁸) to atto (10⁻¹⁸). A kilometer is a meter x 10³, for example, while a millimeter is a meter x 10⁻³.

To give an idea of how currently used units convert to SI units, the tables below give examples.

KILOWATTS (kW) TO HORSEPOWER (hp) (1 Kw = 1.34102 hp)				
kW hp	kW hp	kW hp	kW hp	kW hp
1 1.341	21 28.161	41 54.982	61 81.802	81 108.623
2 2.682	22 29.502	42 56.323	62 83.143	82 109.964
3 4.023	23 30.843	43 57.664	63 84.484	83 111.305
4 5.364	24 32.184	44 59.005	64 85.825	84 112.646
5 6.705	25 33.526	45 60.346	65 87.166	85 113.987
6 8.046	26 34.867	46 61.687	66 88.507	86 115.328
7 9.387	27 36.208	47 63.028	67 89.848	87 116.669
8 10.728	28 37.549	48 64.369	68 91.189	88 118.010
9 12.069	29 38.890	49 65.710	69 92.530	89 119.351
10 13.410	30 40.231	50 67.051	70 93.871	90 120.692
11 14.751	31 41.572	51 68.392	71 95.212	91 122.033
12 16.092	32 42.913	52 69.733	72 96.553	92 123.374
13 17.433	33 44.254	53 71.074	73 97.894	93 124.715
14 18.774	34 45.595	54 72.415	74 99.235	94 126.056
15 20.115	35 46.936	55 73.756	75 100.577	95 127.397
16 21.456	36 48.277	56 75.097	76 101.918	96 128.738
17 22.797	37 49.618	57 76.438	77 103.259	97 130.079
18 24.138	38 50.959	58 77.779	78 104.600	98 131.420
19 25.479	39 52.300	59 79.120	79 105.941	99 132.761
20 26.820	40 53.641	60 80.461	80 107.282	100 134.102

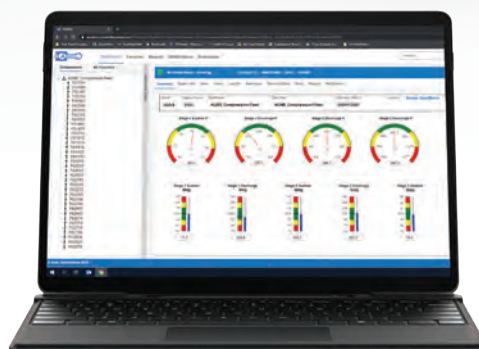
POUNDS FORCE FEET (lbf ft) TO NEWTON METERS (Nm) (1 lbf ft = 1.35582 Nm)				
lbf ft Nm	lbf ft Nm	lbf ft Nm	lbf ft Nm	lbf ft Nm
1 1.356	21 28.472	41 55.589	61 82.705	81 109.821
2 2.712	22 29.828	42 56.944	62 84.061	82 111.177
3 4.067	23 31.184	43 58.300	63 85.417	83 112.533
4 5.423	24 32.540	44 59.656	64 86.772	84 113.889
5 6.779	25 33.896	45 61.012	65 88.128	85 115.245
6 8.135	26 35.251	46 62.368	66 89.484	86 116.601
7 9.491	27 36.607	47 63.724	67 90.840	87 117.956
8 10.847	28 37.963	48 65.079	68 92.196	88 119.312
9 12.202	29 39.319	49 66.435	69 93.552	89 120.668
10 13.558	30 40.675	50 67.791	70 94.907	90 122.024
11 14.914	31 42.030	51 69.147	71 96.263	91 123.380
12 16.270	32 43.386	52 70.503	72 97.619	92 124.735
13 17.626	33 44.742	53 71.858	73 98.975	93 126.091
14 18.981	34 46.098	54 73.214	74 100.331	94 127.447
15 20.337	35 47.454	55 74.570	75 101.687	95 128.803
16 21.693	36 48.810	56 75.926	76 103.042	96 130.159
17 23.049	37 50.165	57 77.282	77 104.398	97 131.515
18 24.405	38 51.521	58 78.638	78 105.754	98 132.870
19 25.761	39 52.877	59 79.993	79 107.110	99 134.226
20 27.116	40 54.233	60 81.349	80 108.466	100 135.582

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CENTRIFUGAL COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Axial Flow			Radial Flow				Thermal		Inlet Flow Range				Maximum Input Power		Speed Range (rpm)							
			Multiple Stage	Fixed Stator Vanes	Variable Stator Vanes	Single Stage	Multiple Stage	Horizontally Split	Vertically Split	Integral Gear	Integral Electric	Single Stage	Multiple Stage	OF = Oil Free	OF = Oil Injected	min	max	min	max	hp	kW	min	max		
AERZENER MASCHINENFABRIK ATLAS COPCO GAS AND PROCESS	*	AT and TB Turbo Blowers				X								212	19,070	6	540	17.5	1.2	2	871.65	650	20000	45400	
		GT-Series	X			X	X		X			OF	OF	140	293,100	4	8300	2970	205	4	46500	35000		52000	
		T-Series				X							OF	OF	6060	38,000	170	1080	623.7	43	1.25	13300	9900		3600
		RT-Series				X							OF	OF	188,000	293,100	5330	8300	101	7	2.5	40000	30000		6500
BAKER HUGHES	Inside Front Cover, 65	AM (Air Service)	X		X									60,000	355,000	1600	10000	362.5	25		95200	70000	3000	10000	
		AM (LNG Service)	X		X							OF	OF	60,000	355,000	1600	10000	360	25		95200	70000	3000	10000	
		BCL-HP (350bara)				X	X						OF	OF	350	7060	10	200	14500	1000		40800	30000	7000	20000
		BCL-LP/MP (350 bara)				X	X						OF	OF	350	100,000	10	2700	5075	350		54400	40000	3000	20000
		MCL				X	X						OF	OF	3530		100	8500	870	60		95200	70000	3000	20000
		PCL				X	X						OF	OF	2100	60,000	60	1700	1890	130		54400	40000	3600	18000
		SRL				X	X			X			OF	OF	1060	215,000	30	6000	2900	200		43500	32000	1500	30000
		SRL (Overhung, Single Stage)				X							OF	OF	1060	60,000	30	1700	1380	95		20400	32000	1500	20000
		ICL					X	X			X		OF	OF	880	20,000	25	550	5075	350		21500	16000	1500	30000
		ICL single stage				X				X			OF	OF	880	20,500	25	580	1740	120		19600	14600	1500	30000
BORSIG ZM COMPRESSION GMBH	77	Blue-C				X	X		X			OF	OF	52,500	530,000	1500	15000	2980	205		18620	14000	3000	11000	
		BTC Series				X	X		X			OF	OF	425	282,500	12	8000	2900	200	3	33525	25000		48000	
		CCAE 9-125				X	X		X	X		OF	OF	2154	3072	61	87	116	8		939	700	22900	36800	
COMOTI	99	CCAE 9-144				X	X		X	X		OF	OF	2649	3531	75	100	116	8		939	700	22900	36800	
		CCAE 9-300				X	X		X	X		OF	OF	5297	7345	150	208	131	9		1475	1100	22900	36800	
		CCAE 12-300				X	X		X	X		OF	OF	5297	7345	150	208	160	11		1944	1450	16500	31000	
		CCAE 21-300				X	X		X	X		OF	OF	5297	7345	150	208	290	20		2414	1800	16500	31000	
		CCAE 15-300				X	X		X	X		OF	OF	5368	7593	152	215	203	14		2146	1600	16500	31000	
		CCAE 25-350				X	X		X	X		OF	OF			172	245		25			2200			
CRYOSTAR SAS	*	CM 400 / CM 300				X	X		X	X		OF	OF	58	666		666		6	2		1000		11000	
		CM 2-200 / 300				2, 4, 6	X		X	X		OF	OF	42	175 to 100		10 to 25		2		700 to 1000			30000	

* This company is not represented in the 2022 Sourcing Guide with a section describing its products.

CENTRIFUGAL COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Axial Flow			Radial Flow				Thermal		Inlet Flow Range		MAMP Maximum Allowable Working Pressure psig bar	Compression Ratio (Per Stage)	Maximum Input Power		Speed Range (rpm)			
			Multiple Stage	Fixed Stator Vanes	Variable Stator Vanes	Single Stage	Multiple Stage	Single Stage	Integral Electric	Single Stage	Multiple Stage	OF = Oil Free	OF = Oil Injected			acfm	m ³ /min	hp	kW	min	max
ELLIOTT GROUP	61,137/ Inside Back Cover	A	X	X	X								441,000	12500	90	6.2	175000	130000			8025
		M				X	X						896,000	25370	1000	69	225000	170000			20000
		MB				X	X						319,000	9000	10000	690	225000	170000			20000
		PH			X	X	X						75,000	2100	800	55	15000	11000			13500
		TC			X	X	X						90,000	2500	725	50	40000	30000			10000
FIMA MASCHINENBAU GMBH	*	F1 Series	X			X	X						3	5000	100	2.5	6800	5000			35000
		F3 Series				X	X						3	5000	100	2.5	6800	5000			35000
		F2 Series	X	X	X	X	X						3	85	240	16	408	600			11000
		F4 Series (Zone D)	X			X	X						3	150	1.3	74	55			7700	
FS-ELLIOTT	*	PAP Series	X	X	X	X	X						900 to 2200 to 15,000	25 to 24,500	175 to 450	12.1 to 31	600 to 6000	375 to 4475			1450 to 2950
		Polaris Series	X	X	X	X	X						900 to 5500	2200 to 12,000	60 to 155	10.5	450 to 2600	335 to 2600			2950
GARO S.P.A.	*	VC	X	X	X	X	X						17	833	2	1.2	536	400			3000
		VAP	X	X	X	X	X						17	833	90	1.2	2682	2000			3000
		Cc (Galileo)	X	X	X	X	X						17	833	90	3	2682	2000			42000
		SM3000	X	X	X	X	X						1950	3100	55	88	913	680			3600
HANWHA POWER SYSTEMS	*	SM4000	X	X	X	X	X						3100	4950	88	140	1350	1010			3600
		SM5000	X	X	X	X	X						4950	8850	140	264	1800	1540			3600
		SM6000	X	X	X	X	X						8850	12,400	250	350	3150	2350			3600
		SM2100	X	X	X	X	X						700	1950	20	55	450	335			3600
		SM3100	X	X	X	X	X						1950	3250	55	92	780	580			3600
		SM4100	X	X	X	X	X						3250	5300	92	150	1200	930			3600
		SM5100	X	X	X	X	X						5300	8850	150	250	2010	1500			3600
		SM6100	X	X	X	X	X						8850	14,400	250	408	3350	2500			3600
		SM7100	X	X	X	X	X						14,400	18,800	408	533	4155	3100			3600
		SE-32	X	X	X	X	X								150	60	1000	800			3600
		SE-45	X	X	X	X	X								400	60	4000	3000			3600
SE-65	X	X	X	X	X								800	60	6700	5000			1800		

continued

CENTRIFUGAL COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Axial Flow			Radial Flow				Thermal		Inlet Flow Range			MAWP Maximum Allowable Working Pressure psig bar	Compression Ratio (Per Stage)	Maximum Input Power		Speed Range (rpm)				
			Multiple Stage	Fixed Stator Vanes	Variable Stator Vanes	Single Stage	Multiple Stage	Single Stage	Integral Electric	Single Stage	Multiple Stage	OF = Oil Free	OF = Oil Injected	min			max	acfm	m ³ /min	min	max	hp	kW
HAWTHA POWER SYSTEMS	*	SE-82				X	X	X										10700	8000			1800	
		SE-90				X	X	X										17400	13000			1800	
		SE-110				X	X	X										28000	21000			1800	
		SE-130				X	X	X										28000	21000			1800	
HITACHI, LTD.	*	ZBCH				X	X	X									30000 to 50000				14000 to 18000		
HOWDEN	104, 105	Howden Periflow				X	X	X										1340	1000			500	6000
		Howden ČKD RL				X	X	X										1600	1200			3000	27000
		Howden ČKD RLV				X	X	X										1350	1000			12000	27000
		Howden ČKD RD				X	X	X										13500	10000			3000	27000
		Howden ČKD RK Series				X	X	X										17200	12800			3000	37000
		Howden ČKD KS Series				X	X	X										13000	9900			3000	27000
		Howden ČKD RM Series				X	X	X										34000	25400			3000	27000
		Howden ČKD RP Series				X	X	X										4000	3000			3000	27000
		S626				X												268	200			5000	33000
		S630				X												603	450			5000	33000
		S635				X												671	500			5000	33000
		S640				X												1073	800			5000	33000
		S645				X												1341	1000			5000	33000
		S652				X												2146	1600			5000	33000
S660				X												2414	1800			5000	33000		
S665				X												2682	2000			5000	33000		
S670				X												3487	2600			5000	33000		
S680				X												4023	3000			5000	33000		
S692				X												5364	4000			5000	33000		
S6105				X												6705	5000			5000	33000		
KCBK SF (2.8 - 14)				X												22000	16000			2500	40000		

continued

* This company is not represented in the 2022 Sourcing Guide with a section describing its products.

CENTRIFUGAL COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Axial Flow			Radial Flow				Thermal		Inlet Flow Range				MAMP Maximum Allowable Working Pressure psig bar	Compression Ratio (Per Stage)	Maximum Input Power		Speed Range (rpm)					
			Multiple Stage	Fixed Stator Vanes	Variable Stator Vanes	Single Stage	Multiple Stage	Horizontally Split	Vertically Split	Integral Gear	Integral Electric	Single Stage	Multiple Stage	OF = Oil Free	OF = Oil Injected			min	max	min	max	hp	kW	min	max
HOWDEN	104, 105	KKGK SF (18-22.4)				X								140,000	420,000	4000	12000	30	2	2.3	22000	16000	1800	4000	
		KKGK SF (HP)				X								2600	105,000	75	3000	370	50	3	13500	10000	3600	40000	
		KKGK SFG				X		X						1800	175,000	50	5000	45	3	3.5	11000	8000	3600	40000	
		KKGK SFG (HP)				X		X						1800	105,000	50	3000	370	50	3	11000	10000	3600	40000	
		KKGK SL				X								9000	237,000	250	6700	30	2	2.3	11000	8000	2800	15000	
		KKGK R				X		X						40	200,000	10	6000	30	2	1.7	7000	5000	1200	15000	
		KKGK R (HP)				X		X						40	30,000	10	800	370	25	1.5	3500	2500	1800	15000	
		KKGK ST				X		X						2600	85,000	75	2400	45	3	3.5	8000	6000	8000	30000	
		KKGK ST (HP)				X		X						2600	85,000	75	2400	370	50	2.8	8000	6000	8000	25000	
		Roots OIB							X						3000	230,000	85	6500	25	1.72	2.75	18000	13500	2500	30000
		Roots H							X						5000	90,000	140	2550	25	1.72	1.8	18000	13500	3000	20000
		ExVel Xr							X						5000	350,000	140	10000	1450	10	2	7000	5000	1800	6000
		HV-TUR80 / Turblex K42							X						883	235.4	25	67	29	2	3	215	160	19500	40500
		HV-TUR80 / Turblex K45							X						2060	4708	58	133	33	2.3	3.3	536	400	13000	31500
		HV-TUR80 / Turblex K410							X						3531	8828	100	250	33	2.3	3.3	872	650	10000	23000
		HV-TUR80 / Turblex K422							X						6474	14,124	183	400	29	2	3	1207	900	7800	17800
		HV-TUR80 / Turblex K444							X						11,770	23,540	333	667	27	1.9	2.9	2548	1900	7500	14200
		HV-TUR80 / Turblex K466							X						18,832	38,253	533	1083	26	1.8	2.8	3889	2900	5000	11300
		HV-TUR80 / Turblex K480							X						29,425	54,142	833	1533	23	1.6	2.6	3353	2500	4300	8700
		HV-TUR80 / Turblex K4100							X						44,138	64,735	1250	1833	17	1.2	2.2	3487	2600	3600	6500
INGERSOLL RAND	*	Centiae Series				X	X	X	X					1300 to 12,500	2100 to 30,000	42 to 350	60 to 850	35 to 610	3 to 42	maxim of 3	350 to 6000	270 to 4500	1800 to 3600	3600	
		TA Series				X	X	X	X					1300 to 12,500	6000 to 24,000	14 to 339	48 to 679	150 to 1160	10 to 80	maxim of 3	350 to 5500	250 to 4100	3600	3600	
		MSG Series				X	X	X	X					2500 to 50,000	10,000 to 135,000	70 to 1416	283 to 3923	125 to 1450	8 to 100	maxim of 3	4000 to 25,000	3000 to 19,000	1800 to 3600	3600	
KOBELCO	*	VH Series				X	X						1059	58,951	30	1670	5000	350			28000	20000	5000	18000	
		VGS/VGSP Series				X	X	X	X					1765	264,750	50	7500	1420	100		67000	50000	3000	40000	
		DH Series				X	X	X	X					1059	105,900	30	3000	1300	90		33500	25000	1000	18000	

continued

CENTRIFUGAL COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Axial Flow			Radial Flow				Thermal		Inlet Flow Range				MAMP		Compression Ratio (Per Stage)		Maximum Input Power		Speed Range (rpm)			
			Multiple Stage	Fixed Stator Vanes	Variable Stator Vanes	Single Stage	Multiple Stage	Horizontally Split	Vertically Split	Integral Gear	Integral Electric	Single Stage	Multiple Stage	OF = Oil Free	OF = Oil Injected	min	max	min	max	psig	bar	hp	kW	min	max
SIEMENS ENERGY	*	STC-SX	X	X	X		X						OF	29,400	766,000	833	21700	102	7	53600	40000			9000	
		STC-SR	X	X	X	X	X						OF	29,400	766,000	833	21700	232	16	134000	100000			9000	
		STC-GWT				X			X				OF	880	283,000	25	8000	870	60	40200	30000			45000	
		DATUM				X	X	X					OF		470,900		13300	14500	1000		181000	135000			26500
		Axial	X	X	X								OF	75,000	700,000	2120	20000	80	5.5	125000	93250			8000	
		RFA, RFB				X	X	X					OF	12,710	62,400	360	1775	2250	155		75000	56000			13800
		C16			X	X								200	2200	4	60	4500	310		13100	9800			23800
SOLAR TURBINES INCORPORATED	Prime Movers Tab	C31				X	X							500	4000	15	113	5000	344	20000	14900			16000	
		C33				X	X	X					800	9500	23	270	2700	186		17270	12900			19000	
		C40				X	X	X					600	9000	17	255	2500	172		29500	21700			14300	
		C41				X	X	X					750	18,000	21	510	3750	259		41976	31300			14300	
		C41D				X	X	X					750	18,000	21	510	3750	259		41976	31300			14300	
		C50				X	X	X					2000	20,000	57	565	1500	103		31915	23800			14000	
		C51				X	X	X					2000	25,000	57	710	3000	207		52333	39000			12000	
		C51D				X	X	X							12,000		339	3000	207					12000	
		C61				X	X	X						2800	35,000	79	990	3000	207		87640	65400			10200
		C40 Pipeline				X	X	X						1500	11,000	42	300	1600	186		16223	12100			15500
SUNDIYNE CORPORATION	*	C45 Pipeline				X	X	X					3800	18,500	108	525	2250	124		35206	26300			12000	
		C65 Pipeline				X	X	X					5000	24,000	142	680	1600	110		34968	26100			10500	
		C75 Pipeline				X	X	X					2420	30,000	68	850	2250	155		76138	56730			8860	
		C65 Pipeline				X	X	X					10,000	45,000	283	1275	1600	110		77707	57900			7000	
YORK/FRICK (JF)	*	LMC				X	X	X	X			OF	50	3600	85	6120	2160	149	4	550	410			2950	
		BMC				X	X	X	X			OF	50	3600	85	6120	2160	149	4	550	410			2950	
		LF-2000				X	X	X	X			OF	100	10,200	170	17300	4400	304	4	10000	7500			5000	
					X	X	X	X			OF	400 to 14,200	1800 to 23,000	11 to 402	51 to 651	450 to 600	31 to 41		2500 to 17,300	1865 to 12,900			9410 to 24,980		

* This company is not represented in the 2022 Sourcing Guide with a section describing its products.

TURBOEXPANDERS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Axial Flow		Radial Flow				Thermal		Inlet Flow Range		Mass Flow		MAWP Maximum Allowable Working Pressure psig bar	Temp (°C)	Expansion Ratio (Per Stage)	Maximum Input Power		Speed Range (rpm)												
			Multiple Stage	Fixed Stator Vanes	Variable Stator Vanes	Single Stage	Multiple Stage	Horizontally Split	Vertically Split	Integral Gear	Integral Electric	Single Stage	Multiple Stage	Oil Free				Oil Injected	acfm	m ³ /min	min	max	min	max	hp	kW	min	max				
ATLAS COPCO GAS AND PROCESS	70, 71	Radial Inflow Expanders Frame 1 to 10 EC,ECH,EG, ETH			X	X	X	X				50	40,000	1	1200					30,000	23000	3000	105000									
			BAKER HUGHES	Inside Front Cover, 65	HIPER																											
					EC 10																											
					EC 15																											
EC 20																																
EC 25																																
EC 30																																
EC 40																																
EC 50																																
EC 60																																
EC 80																																
EC 100																																
EC 130																																
EC 160																																
EC 180																																
EG 10																																
EG 15																																
EG 20																																
EG 25																																
EG 30																																
EG 40																																
EG 50																																
EG 60																																
EG 80																																
EG 100																																

continued

* This company is not represented in the 2022 Sourcing Guide with a section describing its products.

RECIPROCATING AND ROTARY COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Single Stage		Multiple Stages		Reciprocating			Rotary				Inlet Flow Range		MAWP Maximum Allowable Working Pressure psig bar	MARL Maximum Allowable Rod Load lb Newtons	Compression Ratio (Per Stage)		Maximum Input Power hp kW	Speed Range (rpm)									
			Integral Engine Driven	Separable	Balanced/Opposed	Diaphragm	Straight Lobe	Helical Lobe (Screw)	Single Screw	Sliding Vane	Liquid-Ring	Trochoidal	Scroll	Oil = Oil Free	Oil = Oil Injected			acfm	m ³ /min		min	max	min	max						
ABC COMPRESSORS	*	HA Series	X	X											345 to 2075	650 to 5550	9.9 to 59.3	18.8 to 159	2456	300	7800	35,000	4	100 to 830	75 to 610	370	700, 1000			
		HG Series	X	X											480 to 2880	900 to 7710	13.7 to 82.3	25.7 to 220	2456	200	11,000	49,000	4	135 to 1145	100 to 840	370	700, 1000			
		HP-1	X	X											1745 to 10,470	2180 to 18,660	50 to 299	62.3 to 533	2456	200	22,000	98,000	4	340 to 2800	250 to 2060	370	460, 660			
		HR-1	X	X											3535 to 21,195	4410 to 37,800	101 to 605	128 to 1080	2456	200	44,000	196,000	4	680 to 5645	500 to 4150	370	460, 660			
AERZENER MASCHINENFABRIK	*	VMT Series	X	X						X					63 to 1404	315 to 7020	2 to 40	9 to 199	232 to 508	16 to 35			16 to 25					3600		
		VML	X	X						X					177	8830	5	250	30	2			3						3600	
		VM	X	X						X					70	6000	2	170	145	10			6						3600	
		Vra	X	X						X					335	89,500	10	2535	754	52			12						2000	18,000
		Delta Hybrid	X	X						X					71	5297	2	150	29	2			3						2100	15,000
		GM Series	X	X						X					18 to 5200	190 to 46,600	0.5 to 148	1320	15	1 to 64			2					150 to 1000	610 to 4800	
		GR (2-lobe)	X	X						X					60	29,400	2	833	363	25			2						500	4000
		GQ (2-lobe)	X	X						X					880	58,900	25	1667	87	6			3						500	1200
		VRU1	X	X						X											350	24.1	10,000		15			250	600	
		VR Series, Multi-Stage	X	X						X											350	24.1	10,000		30			250	900	
ARROW ENGINE CO.	*	VRC Series	X	X																6000	413.7	14,000 to 20,000		150 to 550			900	1800		
		JGM-P	X	X																9000	621	7000	31,138		170	127	750	1800		
		JGM-Q	X	X																9000	621	11,000	48,930		280	209	750	1800		
		JGA	X	X																9000	621	11,000	48,930		840	627	750	1800		
		JGR-J	X	X																6100	421	23,000	102,309		1860	1388	600	1800		
		JGR-E	X	X																10,000	690	32,000	142,343		3210	2395	600	1500		
		JGR-T	X	X																10,000	690	40,000	177,929		3900	2909	600	1500		
		KBK-T	X	X																10,000	690	50,000	222,411		5520	4118	600	1500		
		JGC-D-F	X	X																10,000	690	60,000	266,893		6210	4633	500	1400		
		KBC-D-F	X	X																10,000	690	69,000	306,927		7200	5369	500	1400		
		KBU-Z	X	X																10,000	690	80,000	355,858		7800	5819	500	1200		
		KBB-V	X	X																6700	462	100,000	444,822		10,000	7460	360	900		
ATLAS COPCO GAS AND PROCESS	70, 71	GZ75 - USD to GZ900 - USD																		392	27			1,207	900					
		HA	X	X																			32,557	144,700	2,840	2120	1000			
BAKER HUGHES	Inside Front Cover, 65	HB	X	X																			59,190	236,400	7,397	5520	800			
		HD	X	X																			72,562	322,500	13,936	10,400	700			

* This company is not represented in the 2022 Sourcing Guide with a section describing its products. † optimized for direct drive at 3000/3600 rpm, but higher speeds are allowable with VFD. Provided flow rates assume 3600 rpm drive speed.

RECIPROCATING AND ROTARY COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Single Stage	Multiple Stages	Reciprocating			Rotary					Oil = Oil Free	Inlet Flow Range		MAWP Maximum Allowable Working Pressure psig bar	MARL Maximum Allowable Rod Load lb Newtons	Compression Ratio (Per Stage)	Maximum Input Power		Speed Range (rpm)							
					Integral Engine Driven	Separable	Balanced/Opposed	Diaphragm	Straight Lobe	Helical Lobe (Screw)	Single Screw	Sliding Vane		Liquid-Ring	Trochoidal				Scroll	min	max	acfm	m³/min	min	max	hp	kW	min
BAKER HIGHERS	Inside Front Cover, 65	HE	X	X	X	X	X													38,458	28,700			800				
		HF	X	X	X	X	X	X													46,360	34,600			514			
		HG	X	X	X	X	X	X													56,322	66,820			514			
		OA	X	X	X	X	X	X													580	435			800			
		PK	X	X	X	X	X	X													96,480	72,000			310			
		PH	X	X	X	X	X	X													48,226	36,000			310			
		SHM	X	X	X	X	X	X													10,690	7,980			1200			
		SHMB	X	X	X	X	X	X													7,130	5,320			1200			
		BAUER KOMPRESSOREN GMBH, GERMANY	*	VERTICUS Series (air cooled)	X	X																						
				PE-VE series (air cooled)	X																							
				VERTICUS Booster Series (air cooled)	X	X																						
K22 to K28 Series (air cooled)	X			X																								
IB23 Series (air- / water cooled)	X			X																								
GIB23 Booster Series (air- / water cooled)	X			X																								
I26 Series (water cooled)	X			X																								
GIB26 Booster Series (water cooled)	X			X																								
I52 Series (water cooled)	X			X																								
GIB52 Booster Series (water cooled)	X			X																								
GIB26-SP Series (water cooled)	X			X																								
BLACKMER	*	HD Series	X	X																								
		HD Series (Watercooled)	X	X																								
		NG Series	X	X																								
		NGH100	X	X																								
		BK15	X	X																								
BORGSG ZH COMPRESSION GMBH	77	BK22	X	X																								
		BK32	X	X																								
			X	X																								

continued

RECIPROCATING AND ROTARY COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Single Stage		Multiple Stages		Reciprocating				Rotary				Inlet Flow Range		MAWP Maximum Allowable Working Pressure psig bar	MARL Maximum Allowable Rod Load lb Newtons	Compression Ratio (Per Stage)		Maximum Input Power		Speed Range (rpm)			
			Integral Engine Driven	Separable	Balanced/Opposed	Diaphragm	Straight Lobe	Helical Lobe (Screw)	Single Screw	Sliding Vane	Liquid-Ring	Trochoidal	Scroll	Oil = Oil Free	Oil = Oil Injected	acfm			m ³ /min	min	max	min	max	hp	kW	min
BORGIS ZM COMPRESSION GMBH	77	BX40	X	X													14,500	1000		5	9387	7000	200	450		
		BX45	X	X	X								OF/OI				14,500	1000		5	16,092	12,000	150	400		
		BX50	X	X	X								OF/OI				14,500	1000		5	28,161	21,000	110	350		
		PI190 Vertical Series	X	X										OF			10,150	700		5	335	250	450	1500		
		PI110 Vertical Series	X	X										OF			10,150	700		5	600	450	360	1200		
		PI140 Vertical Series	X	X										OF			10,150	700		5	940	700	295	900		
		PI180 Vertical Series	X	X										OF			10,150	700		5	2010	1500	230	750		
		PI220 Vertical Series	X	X										OF			10,150	700		5	3350	2500	180	600		
		BY	X	X	X			X						OF/OI		2300		14,500	1000	22,500	100,000	4	1000	800	425	850
		CY	X	X	X									OF/OI		2300		14,500	1000	22,500	100,000	4	1000	800	425	850
		BF	X	X	X									OF/OI				14,500	1000	32,600	145,000	4	3000	2200	300	600
		BS	X	X	X			X						OF/OI		7100		14,500	1000	45,000	200,000	4	3200	2400	300	600
CS	X	X	X									OF/OI		4700		14,500	1000	45,000	200,000	4	3200	2400	300	600		
BX	X	X	X			X						OF/OI		10,600		14,500	1000	78,500	350,000	4	7200	5400	260	520		
BA	X	X	X			X						OF/OI		15,900		14,500	1000	124,000	550,000	4	12,700	9,500	250	500		
BC	X	X	X			X						OF/OI		19,400		14,500	1000	202,000	900,000	4	21,700	16,000	300	450		
BE	X	X	X			X						OI		23,000		14,500	1000	382,000	1,700,000	4	42,100	31,000	300	429		
DI/M 6.5	X	X	X			X						OF/OI				2900	200	14,612	65,000	4	805	600	300	520		
DI/M 10	X	X	X			X						OF/OI				2900	200	22,480	100,000	4	1475	1100	300	520		
DI/M 12	X	X	X			X						OF/OI				2900	200	26,977	120,000	4	1743	1300	300	512		
DI/M 16	X	X	X			X						OF/OI				2900	200	35,969	160,000	4	2145	1600	300	450		
DI/M 20	X	X	X			X						OF/OI				2900	200	44,982	200,000	4	2,682	2,000	300	450		
DI/M 25	X	X	X			X						OF/OI				2900	200	56,202	250,000	4	4,291	3,200	300	450		
DI/M 32	X	X	X			X						OF/OI				2900	200	71,938	320,000	4	7242	5400	300	420		
DI/M 45	X	X	X			X						OF/OI				2900	200	101,164	450,000	4	7445	5550	300	400		
DI/M 80	X	X	X			X						OI				2900	200	179,847	800,000	4	11,165	8325	300	360		
DI/M V1	X	X	X			X						OI				2900	200	224,808	1,000,000	4	13,955	10,406	300	360		
DI/M HE	X	X	X			X						OI				2900	200	281,011	1,250,000	4	21,725	16,200	300	333		
DI130	X											OF		300		4640	300		4	100	76	450	750			
DI150	X											OF		300		730	50		4	160	120	360	600			
2DI100	X	X										OF		300		730	50		4	160	120	600	1000			
2DI140	X	X										OF		400		290	20		4	233	174	450	750			
2DI160	X	X										OF		700		1160	80		4	407	304	450	750			

* This company is not represented in the 2022 Sourcing Guide with a section describing its products.

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RECIPROCATING AND ROTARY COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Single Stage		Multiple Stages		Reciprocating			Rotary				Oil = Oil Free	Oil = Oil Injected	Inlet Flow Range		MAWP Maximum Allowable Working Pressure psig bar	MARL Maximum Allowable Rod Load lb Newtons	Compression Ratio (Per Stage)		Maximum Input Power hp kW	Speed Range (rpm)			
			Integral Engine Driven	Separable	Balanced/Opposed	Diaphragm	Straight Lobe	Helical Lobe (Screw)	Single Screw	Sliding Vane	Liquid-Ring	Trochoidal	Scroll			acfm	m ³ /min			max	min		max	min	max	min
BURCKHARDT COMPRESSION AG LABY COMPRESSORS	Back Cover	20200	X	X											OF		1000	30	750	52		4	643	480	360	600
		20L200	X	X											OF		2200	60	290	20		4	643	480	360	600
		20205	X	X											OF		800	20	3630	250		4	938	700	360	600
		20250	X	X											OF		2500	70	1740	120		4	2279	1700	312	520
		20L250	X	X											OF		2700	80	360	25		4	2370	1770	312	520
		30200	X	X											OF		1900	50	1020	70		4	667	490	360	600
		40225	X	X											OF		2700	80	810	56		4	973	726	360	600
		40250	X	X											OF		4700	130	3050	210		4	1374	1025	312	520
		40300	X	X											OF		4000	110	1280	88		4	2055	1533	270	450
		40375	X	X											OF		4800	140	730	50		4	2755	2055	228	380
		60375	X	X											OF		5400	150	870	60		4	2755	2055	228	380
		2K170	X	X											OF		300	10	261	18		4	95	71	1080	1800
		2K190	X	X											OF		300	10	610	42		4	154	115	600	1000
		2K190	X	X											OF		300	10	610	16		4	154	115	600	1000
		2K105	X	X											OF		500	10	1160	80		4	252	188	600	1000
		2K140	X	X											OF		800	20	730	50		4	406	303	450	750
	2K140	X	X											OF		800	20	232	16		4	406	303	450	750	
	2K158	X	X											OF		700	20	460	32		4	665	485	450	750	
	2K160	X	X											OF		1200	30	2180	150		4	665	485	450	750	
	2K250	X	X											OF		800	20	1670	115		4	2226	1660	300	500	
	3K140	X	X											OF		700	20	580	90		4	665	485	450	750	
	3K160	X	X											OF		1800	950	640	44		4	665	485	450	750	
	4K165	X	X											OF		2000	60	960	66		4	1397	1042	450	750	
HYPER COMPRESSORS		H	X	X										OI		14,200	400	50,760	3500		4	10,700	8000	154	257	
		F	X	X										OI		42,600	1210	50,760	3500		4	26,850	20,000	139	231	
		K	X	X										OI		85,100	2410	50,760	3500		4	51,000	38,000	129	215	
LABY-GI COMPRESSORS STANDARD HIGH-PRESSURE COMPRESSORS		LP250	X	X										OF/OI			110	14500	1000		4	5320	4000	312	520	
		CB	X	X										OI			0.8	2900	200		5	24	18		1500	
		CC	X	X										OI			1.7	5100	350		5	60	45		1865	
		CU	X	X										OI			13.3	5800	400		5	150	110		1230	
MARINE HIGH-PRESSURE COMPRESSORS DIAPHRAGM COMPRESSORS		CT	X	X										OI			25	5100	350		5	270	200		1045	
		MHP-A-310	X	X										OI			25	4500	310		5	225	168		1180	
		MD2.5	X	X										OF			0.6	8000	550		5	16	12			
	MD5	X	X										OF			1.6	8000	550		5	39	29				

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RECIPROCATING AND ROTARY COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Single Stage		Multiple Stages		Reciprocating			Rotary				Inlet Flow Range		MAWP Maximum Allowable Working Pressure psig bar	MARL Maximum Allowable Rod Load lb Newtons	Compression Ratio (Per Stage)		Maximum Input Power		Speed Range (rpm)		
			Integral Engine Driven	Separable	Balanced/Opposed	Diaphragm	Straight Lobe	Helical Lobe (Screw)	Single Screw	Sliding Vane	Liquid-Ring	Trochoidal	Scroll	Oil = Oil Free	Oil = Oil Injected			acfm	m ³ /min	min	max	hp	kW	min
CORKEN, INC.	*	Model 49 Vertical Series	X																					
		Model 491-3 Vertical Series	X																					
		Model 691 Vertical Series	X																					
		Model 691-4 Vertical Series	X																					
		FD891 Vertical Series	X																					
		FT891 Vertical Series	X																					
		Model 151 Vertical Series		X																				
		Model 191 Vertical Series		X																				
		Model 351 Vertical Series		X																				
		Model 391 Vertical Series		X																				
		Model 551 Vertical Series		X																				
		Model 591 Vertical Series		X																				
		FD791 Vertical Series		X																				
		FT791 Vertical Series		X																				
	COMPACT COMPRESSION	*	HCG Series	X																				
		WGC Series	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
COOPER MACHINERY SERVICES	*	AJAX Series	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		M301	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		M302	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		H301	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		H302	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		H304	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		A351	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		A352	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		A354	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		CFA 32	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		CFA 34	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		CFH62	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		CFH64	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		CFR52	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
		CFR54	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	

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RECIPROCATING AND ROTARY COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Single Stage		Multiple Stages		Reciprocating				Rotary				Oil = Oil Free		Inlet Flow Range		MAWP Maximum Allowable Working Pressure psig bar	MARL Maximum Allowable Rod Load lb Newtons	Compression Ratio (Per Stage)	Maximum Input Power		Speed Range (rpm)						
			Single Stage	Multiple Stages	Integral Engine Driven	Separable	Balanced/Opposed	Diaphragm	Straight Lobe	Helical Lobe (Screw)	Single Screw	Sliding Vane	Liquid-Ring	Trochoidal	Scroll	OF = Oil Free	Oil = Oil Injected	acfm				m ³ /min	hp	kW	min	max				
COOPER MACHINERY SERVICES	*	RAM52	X	X	X	X	X									OF/OI				2200	152	44,000	195,722		1188	886	250	1500		
		RAM54	X	X	X	X	X									OF/OI				2200	152	44,000	195,722		2375	1771	250	1500		
		MH62	X	X	X	X	X									OF/OI				10,000	689	56,000	249,100		1800	1342	250	1200		
		MH64	X	X	X	X	X									OF/OI				10,000	689	56,000	249,100		3600	2685	250	1200		
		MH66	X	X	X	X	X									OF/OI				10,000	689	56,000	249,100		5400	4027	250	1200		
		WH Series	X	X	X	X	X									OF/OI				10,000	689	70,000	311,376		1700 to 5400	1268 to 4027	250	1000, 1200		
		WG Series	X	X	X	X	X									OF/OI				10,000	689	90,000	400,340		2500 to 9000	2237 to 6711	200	1000, 1200		
		Cooper-Bessemer Series	X	X	X											OF, OI				15,000	1034	150,000	667,230		3300 to 9300	260 to 6900	264	330		
		CS Series, Single Stage	X											X			OI				150	10.3				50 to 500	37 to 375	325 to 725	750 to 1940	
		C Series, Single Stage	X											X			OI				150	10.3				650 to 500	375 to 485	300, 325	520, 650	
CS Series, Multi-Stage		X										X			OI				300	20				75 to 500	55 to 375	325 to 725	750 to 1850			
C350-350H		X										X			OI				300	20				500	375	325	650			
CB Series		X										X			OI				300	20				75 to 500	55 to 375	325 to 725	750 to 1850			
B350		X										X			OI				300	20				500	375	325	650			
V Series, Single Stage		X										X			OI				-13.2	-0.9				75 to 500	55 to 375	325 to 725	650 to 1500			
V Series, Multi-Stage		X										X			OI				-14.6	-1				75 to 500	55 to 375	325 to 725	650 to 1500			
FORNOVIGAS SRL	*	SA200	X	X	X										OF					308		15,000			55	500	500	1800		
		DA300	X	X	X										OF					375		50,000			400	500	500	1500		
		DA500	X	X	X										OF/OI					275		125,000			1500	650	1800			
GARO S.P.A. HAUG SAUER KOMPRESSOREN AG	*	AM, ASM, AB	X	X											OF					190	13				1340	1000	560	3600		
		HAUG Pluto	X	X	X										OF					870	60				3	2.2	970	1740		
		HAUG Mercure	X	X	X										OF					1450	100				5.5	4	970	1470		
		HAUG Neptune	X	X	X										OF					1450	100				10	7.5	970	1470		
		HAUG Sirius	X	X	X										OF					1450	100				41	30	970	1470		
		HAUG Sirius NanoLoc	X	X	X										OF					6527	450				41	30	970	1470		
		HAUG Titan	X	X	X										OF					1450	100				150	110	450	900		
		HAUG Cygnus	X	X	X										OF					435	30				3	2.2	1450	3400		
		HAUG Taurus	X	X	X										OF					870	60				15	11	970	1470		
		HAUG Orion	X	X	X										OF					870	60				41	30	970	1470		
HOFER	92, 93	MK	X	X	X	X	X							OF					72,000	5000				31,500	140,000	8	335	250	250	720
		TKH	X	X	X	X	X							OF					72,000	5000				78,500	350,000	8	270	200	8	40

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RECIPROCATING AND ROTARY COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

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			Single Stage	Multiple Stages	Integral Engine Driven	Separable	Balanced/Opposed	Diaphragm	Straight Lobe	Helical Lobe (Screw)	Single Screw	Sliding Vane	Liquid-Ring			Trochoidal	Scroll			min	max	acfm	m ³ /min	min	max	hp	kW	min	max		
HOWIDEN	104, 105	Howden Thomassen P Series	X	X											OF		4	20,000	0.1	568	5100	350	49,500	220,000	4	3400	2500	200	1000		
		Howden Burton Corbin D Series	X	X											OF		0	357	0	10	43,500	3000	49,500	220,000	12	1766	1300	200	750		
		Howden HPD Hybrid Series		X	X											OF	35	2925	1	83	14,500	1000	49,500	220,000	3	2649	1950	200	500		
		Howden Thomassen C-7	X	X												OF/OI					8700	600	29,225	130,000	5	1090	800	300	600		
		Howden Thomassen C-12	X	X												OF/OI					8700	600	41,600	185,000	5	3130	2300	300	600		
		Howden Thomassen C-25	X	X												OF/OI					8700	600	67,500	300,000	5	7620	5600	300	600		
		Howden Thomassen C-35	X	X												OF/OI					8700	600	123,700	550,000	5	14,000	10,300	250	500		
		Howden Thomassen C-45	X	X												OF/OI					8700	600	185,500	825,000	5	20,950	15,400	250	500		
		Howden Thomassen C-85	X	X												OF/OI					8700	600	281,000	1,250,000	5	33,720	24,800	190	375		
		Howden Thomassen C-95H	X	X												OF/OI					8700	600	404,600	1,800,000	5	44,870	33,000	300	375		
		Howden Thomassen CHS	X	X												OF/OI					8700	600	55,000	245,000	5	6254	4600	500	1200		
		XRV127																				305	21					200	150	1800	5000
		XRV163																				305	21					350	260	1800	3600
		XRV204																				305	21					600	450	1800	3600
		M127																				305	21					200	160	1800	5000
		GTV 228																				870	60					4690	3500	1250	4000
		WRV (H)163																				350	24					470	350	1500	4500
		WRV (H)204																				350	24					1028	766	1500	4500
		WRV255																				350	24					1542	1150	1500	3600
		WRV255																				200	13.8					1542	1150	1500	3600
		WRV321																				350	24					2741	2044	1500	3600
		WRV321																				200	13.8					2741	2044	1500	3600
		WRV365																				350	24					5814	4335	1500	3600
WRV510																				350	24					6700	5000	700	2600		
WRVT1580																				350	24					11,265	8400	750	2600		
WRVT510																				203	14					6700	5000	700	3000		
H127																				25	126	8.7				286	213	7500	15,000		
HP204																				201	13.8					800	600	4750	9500		
H204																				126	8.7					800	600	4750	9500		
HP255																				201	13.8					1250	935	4000	7500		

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RECIPROCATING AND ROTARY COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

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			Integral Engine Driven	Separable	Balanced/Opposed	Diaphragm	Straight Lobe	Helical Lobe (Screw)	Single Screw	Sliding Vane	Liquid-Ring	Trochoidal	Scroll	Oil = Oil Free	Oil = Oil Injected			acfm	m ³ /min		max	min	max	min	max
HOWDEN	104, 105	HP255																							
		HP408																							
		H408																							
		HP510																							
		HS10																							
		ČKD JSKB	X																						
		ČKD DSKB		X																					
		ČKD TSKB		X																					
		ČKD JSKM		X																					
		ČKD DSKM		X																					
		ČKD (T)SKM		X																					
		Howden Roots URAI		X																					
		Howden Roots RAM		X																					
		Howden Roots RCS		X																					
		Howden Roots Trf-RAM		X																					
		Howden Roots RAS		X																					
		Howden Roots RGS		X																					
HYCOMP INC.	*	AN3A	X																						
		AN4A	X																						
		WN4A	X																						
		AN6A	X																						
		AN6	X																						
		WN07	X																						
		AN12	X																						
		AN6C	X																						
		WN6C	X																						
		AN10C	X																						
		WN10C	X																						
		AN26	X																						
		WN26	X																						
		AN12D	X																						
		AN17D	X																						

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RECIPROCATING AND ROTARY COMPRESSORS

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			Integral Engine Driven	Separable	Balanced/Opposed	Diaphragm	Straight Lobe	Helical Lobe (Screw)	Single Screw	Sliding Vane	Liquid-Ring	Trochoidal	Scroll	min			max	acfm	min	max					min	max
HYCOMP INC.	*	AN23D	X														16	32			600	4700	5	20	400	825
		AN44	X														29	61			200	4700	5	20	400	825
		AN14E	X														9	19			800	6300	5	40	400	825
		WN14E	X														9	19			800	6300	5	40	400	825
		AN20E	X														13	27			600	6300	5	40	400	825
		WN20E	X														13	27			600	6300	5	40	400	825
		AN27E	X														18	37			600	6300	5	40	400	825
		WN27E	X														18	37			600	6300	5	40	400	825
		AN35E	X														23	48			600	6300	5	40	400	825
		AN44E	X														29	61			600	6300	5	40	400	825
		AN72	X														48	99			600	6300	5	40	400	825
		WN72	X														48	99			600	6300	5	40	400	825
		WN90	X														60	124			600	6300	5	40	400	825
		WN28F	X														19	34			700	11700	5	66	400	700
		AN28F	X														19	34			700	11700	5	66	400	700
		AN44F	X														29	51			650	11700	5	66	400	700
		WN44F	X														29	51			650	11700	5	66	400	700
		WN55F	X														37	64			500	11700	5	66	400	700
		WN75F	X														50	88			400	11700	5	66	400	700
		WN98	X														60	105			300	11700	5	66	400	700
		AN154	X														102	179			250	11700	5	66	400	700
		2AN4A	X														3	6			1000	2800	5	8	400	825
		2AN6B	X														4	8			500	2800	5	8	400	825
		2AN8	X														6	11			500	2800	5	8	400	825
	2AN3C	X														2	5			1500	3700	5	11	400	825	
	2AN5C	X														3	7			1500	3700	5	11	400	825	
	2AN10C	X														6	12			500	3700	5	11	400	825	
	2WN10C	X														7	14			500	3700	5	11	400	825	
	2AN17	X														11	23			500	3700	5	11	400	825	
	2AN10D	X														7	14			750	4700	5	23	400	825	
	2AN15D	X														10	21			750	4700	5	23	400	825	
	2AN26	X														18	36			500	4700	5	23	400	825	
	2AN35	X														23	47			500	4700	5	23	400	825	
	2WN35	X														23	47			500	4700	5	23	400	825	
	2AN40	X														26	54			500	4700	5	23	400	825	

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RECIPROCATING AND ROTARY COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

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LEROI GAS COMPRESSORS	*	E25bxxx	X																							
		35-LR69-DP	X	X																						
		55-LR69-IP	X	X																						
LMF COMPRESSORS	112, 113	VRU30B	X	X																						
		Process Gas (API 618)	X	X	X	X																				
		Process Gas (API 11P)	X	X	X	X																				
		EcoPET	X																							
		Mobile Systems	X	X	X	X																				
		CNG	X	X	X	X																				
		Industrial Applications	X	X	X	X																				
		Electric Rotary Screw	X	X																						
		MAN ENERGY SOLUTIONS	118, 119	CP	X	X																				
				SKUEL	X	X																				
Separable Style	X			X	X	X																				
MEHRER COMPRESSION GMBH	*	Diaphragm Style	X	X																						
		C Series	X	X	X	X																				
MITSUBISHI	*	MB Series	X	X																						
		CP PHT2	X	X	X	X																				
		CP PHT2	X	X	X	X																				
		CP PVT2	X	X	X	X																				
NEUMAN & ESSER GROUP	92, 93	25	X	X	X	X																				
		40	X	X	X	X																				
		30	X	X	X	X																				
		80hs	X	X	X	X																				
		V1	X	X	X	X																				
		63	X	X	X	X																				
		150hs	X	X	X	X																				
		130	X	X	X	X																				
		250hs	X	X	X	X																				
		190	X	X	X	X																				
continued		320hs	X	X	X	X																				
		300	X	X	X	X																				
			X	X	X	X																				

* This company is not represented in the 2022 Sourcing Guide with a section describing its products.

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

RECIPROCATING AND ROTARY COMPRESSORS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Single Stage	Multiple Stages	Reciprocating			Rotary				Oil = Oil Free	Inlet Flow Range		MAWP Maximum Allowable Working Pressure psig bar	MARL Maximum Allowable Rod Load lb Newtons	Compression Ratio (Per Stage)		Maximum Input Power hp kW	Speed Range (rpm)			
					Integral Engine Driven	Separable	Balanced/Opposed	Diaphragm	Straight Lobe	Helical Lobe (Screw)	Single Screw		Sliding Vane	Liquid-Ring			Trochoidal	Scroll		acfm	m³/min	min	max
NEUMAN & ESSER GROUP	92, 93	560hs	X	X	X	X	X					OF/OI			43,500	3000	126,890	560,000		10,000	7500		1200
		320	X	X	X	X	X	X				OF/OI			43,500	3000	193,340	860,000		20,800	15,480		600
		700hs	X	X	X	X	X	X				OF/OI			43,500	3000	193,340	860,000		20,800	15,480		1200
		500	X	X	X	X	X	X				OF/OI			43,500	3000	382,180	1,700,000		41,000	30,600		600
		1500hs	X	X	X	X	X	X				OF/OI			43,500	3000	382,180	1,700,000		41,000	30,600		1200
PEDRO GL S.I.	*	Rotary Piston Blower	X					X				OF	1	170	0.5	150			422	315		4800	
PETER BROTHERHOOD	*	M	X	X		X						OI/OF	Dependent on inlet conditions	5800	400	24,728	110,000	3	2400	1800		300	750
		A	X	X		X						OI/OF	Dependent on inlet conditions	5800	400	44,960	200,000	3	4690	3500		300	600
		B	X	X		X						OI/OF	Dependent on inlet conditions	5800	400	71,936	320,000	3	8715	6500		300	500
		D	X	X		X						OI/OF	Dependent on inlet conditions	5800	400	105,656	470,000	3	15,420	11,500		300	400
		E	X	X		X						OI/OF	Dependent on inlet conditions	5800	400	143,872	640,000	3	26,820	20,000		300	360
RO-FLO COMPRESSORS	*	Single-Stage, Sliding Vane	X									OI	0.5 to 30 to 880	180, 150, 200	5, 10, 13				15 to 500	11 to 373		275 to 640 to 865	
		Multi-Stage, Sliding Vane			X								OI	34 to 2254	150, 200, 19.8	10, 13				50 to 600	37 to 447		275 to 640 to 865
		EVO Series Gas/Gear	X								X		OI		2 to 105	217	14 to 17			15 to 900	11 to 670		1000 to 3000 to 9300
ROTORCOMP VERDICHTER GMBH	*	EVO2-NK Series	X							X		OI		2 to 8	217	15				15 to 75	11 to 65		1500, 6300 to 9000
		NK200-flas/Gear	X							X		OI		10	217	15				102	75		1500 4000
		S7-S9	X									OI		4	300		22,000	4		75	75		550 1500
		SW	X									OF/OI		18	300		50,000	4		500	500		550 1500
		ST	X									OI		8	250		35,000	4		110	110		550 1500
SAUER COMPRESSORS	*	Hydraulic series	X									OI		15	300						75		
		MISTRAL Series	X									OI		150 to 580 to 1160	10 to 40				1,2				880 1780
		PASSAT Series	X									OI			580 to 1160	40 to 80			3				880 1780
		BREEZE Series	X									OI			580	40			3				880 1780
		HURRICANE Series	X									OI			5800	350, 400			4				880 1780
		TORNADO Series	X									OI			5080, 5800	350, 400			3,4				880 1780
		HARMATTAN Series	X									OF			150, 220	10, 15			2				880 1780
		TYPHOON Series	X									OI			440	30			2				880 1780
		TYPHOON WP3100	X									OI			1450	100			3				880 1780
		WP Series	X									OI			730 to 7250	50 to 500			3,4,5				880 1780
sera Hydrogen GmbH	*	MVI - MV6	X	X		X					OF	0.058	294	0.100	500*		on request	up to 15**	100	75		200 340	

RECIPROCATING AND ROTARY COMPRESSORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Single Stage		Multiple Stages		Reciprocating			Rotary				Inlet Flow Range		MAWP Maximum Allowable Working Pressure psig bar	MARL Maximum Allowable Rod Load lb Newtons	Compression Ratio (Per Stage)		Maximum Input Power		Speed Range (rpm)				
			Integral Engine Driven	Separable	Balanced/Opposed	Diaphragm	Straight Lobe	Helical Lobe (Screw)	Single Screw	Sliding Vane	Liquid-Ring	Trochoidal	Scroll	Oil = Oil Free	Oil = Oil Injected			acfm	m ³ /min	max	min	max	min	max	min	max
SERTCO	*	98 HP	X																							
		350 LP	X																							
		350 HP	X																							
		632 HP	X																							
SIAD MACCHINE IMPIANTI S.P.A.	107	HT Series	X	X	X																					
		H5F Series	X	X	X																					
		H5D Series	X	X	X																					
		HD Series	X	X	X																					
		HP Series	X	X	X																					
		HM Series	X	X	X																					
		P Series	X	X	X																					
		M Series	X	X	X																					
		W Series	X	X	X																					
		T Series	X	X	X																					
		I Series	X	X	X																					
		SIEMENS ENERGY	*	ANIP	X	X	X																			
				BVIP	X	X	X																			
CVIP	X			X	X																					
MOS	X			X	X																					
HOS	X			X	X																					
HOSS (Super HOS)	X			X	X																					
7TSH/ESV	X			X	X																					
9T/ITESH	X			X	X																					
BDC-12H	X			X	X																					
BDC-18H3	X			X	X																					
HHE Series	X			X	X																					
HSE	X			X	X																					
PHE	X			X	X																					
SULLAIR	*	PDX Series	X																							
		PDR Series	X																							
		POH Series	X																							

continued

* This company is not represented in the 2022 Sourcing Guide with a section describing its products.

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Compressors and expanders

FIG. 13-1
Nomenclature

<p>ACFM = actual cubic feet per minute (i.e. at process conditions)</p> <p>A_p = cross sectional area of piston, sq in</p> <p>A_r = cross sectional area of piston rod, sq in</p> <p>BHP = brake or shaft horsepower</p> <p>C = cylinder clearance as a percent of piston displacement</p> <p>C_p = specific heat at constant pressure, BTU/(lb · °F)</p> <p>C_v = specific heat at constant volume, BTU/(lb · °F)</p> <p>D = cylinder inside diameter, in</p> <p>d = piston rod diameter, in</p> <p>E = overall efficiency</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">High speed reciprocating units — 0.82</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">Low speed reciprocating units — 0.85</p> <p>EP = extracted horsepower of expander</p> <p>F = an allowance for interstage pressure drop, Eq 13-4</p> <p>GHP = gas horsepower, actual compression horsepower, excluding mechanical losses, BHP</p> <p>H = head, ft · lb/lb</p> <p>h = enthalpy, Btu/lb</p> <p>ICFM = inlet cubic feet per minute, usually at suction conditions</p> <p>k = C_p/C_v</p> <p>MC_p = molar specific heat at constant pressure, BTU/(lb mole · °F)</p> <p>MC_v = molar specific heat at constant volume, BTU/(lb mole · °F)</p> <p>MW = molecular weight, lb/lb mole</p> <p>M_N = machine mach number</p> <p>N = speed, rpm</p> <p>N_m = molar flow, moles/min</p> <p>n = polytropic exponent or number of moles</p> <p>P = pressure, psia</p> <p>P_c = critical pressure, psia</p> <p>PD = piston displacement, ft³/min</p> <p>P_L = pressure base used in the contract or regulation, psia</p> <p>pP_c = pseudo critical pressure, psia</p> <p>P_R = reduced pressure, P/P_c</p> <p>pT_c = pseudo critical temperature, °R</p> <p>Q = inlet capacity (ICFM)</p> <p>Q_g = standard gas flow rate, MMSCFD</p>	<p>R = universal gas constant = $10.73 \frac{\text{psia} \cdot \text{ft}^3}{\text{lb mole} \cdot ^\circ\text{R}}$</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">= $1545 \frac{\text{lb/ft}^3}{\text{lb mole} \cdot ^\circ\text{R}}$ or $\frac{\text{ft} \cdot \text{lb}}{\text{lb mole} \cdot ^\circ\text{R}}$</p> <p style="padding-left: 20px;">= $1.986 \frac{\text{Btu}}{\text{lb mole} \cdot ^\circ\text{R}}$</p> <p>$r$ = compression ratio, P_2/P_1</p> <p>s = entropy, BTU/(lb · °R)</p> <p>sm = surge margin</p> <p>SCFM = cubic feet per minute measured at 14.7 psia and 60°F</p> <p>stroke = length of piston movement, in</p> <p>T = absolute temperature, °R</p> <p>T_c = critical temperature, °R</p> <p>T_R = reduced temperature, T/T_c</p> <p>t = temperature, °F</p> <p>U = impeller tip speed</p> <p>V = specific volume, ft³/lb</p> <p>v = velocity ft/s</p> <p>VE = volumetric efficiency, percent</p> <p>W = work, ft · lb</p> <p>w = weight flow, lb/min</p> <p>X = temperature rise factor</p> <p>y = mole fraction</p> <p>Z = compressibility factor</p> <p>Z_{avg} = average compressibility factor = $(Z_s + Z_d)/2$</p> <p>η = efficiency, expressed as a decimal</p> <p>ρ = density, lb/ft³</p>
Subscripts	
<p>avg = average</p> <p>d = discharge</p> <p>g = gas</p> <p>is = isentropic process</p> <p>L = standard conditions used for calculation or contract</p> <p>m = mechanical</p> <p>p = polytropic process</p> <p>S = standard conditions, usually 14.7 psia, 60°F</p> <p>s = suction</p> <p>t = total or overall</p> <p>1 = inlet conditions</p> <p>2 = outlet conditions</p>	

DEFINITIONS OF WORDS AND PHRASES USED IN COMPRESSORS AND EXPANDERS

Absolute pressure: the pressure measured from an absolute vacuum. It equals the algebraic sum of barometric pressure and gauge pressure.

Static pressure: the pressure in the gas measured in such a manner that no effect is produced by the velocity of the gas stream. It is the pressure that would be shown by a measuring instrument moving at the same velocity as the moving stream and is the pressure used as a property in defining the thermodynamic state of the fluid.

Stagnation (total) pressure: the pressure which would be measured at the stagnation point when a moving gas stream is brought to rest and its kinetic energy is converted to an enthalpy rise by an isentropic compression from the flow condition to the stagnation condition. It is the pressure usually measured by an impact tube. In a stationary body of gas, the static and stagnation pressures are numerically equal.

Velocity pressure (dynamic pressure): the stagnation pressure minus the static pressure in a gas stream. It is the pressure generally measured by the differential pressure reading of a Pitot tube

Absolute temperature: the temperature above absolute zero. It is equal to the degrees Fahrenheit plus 459.66, and is stated as degrees Rankine.

Static temperature: the temperature that would be shown by a measuring instrument moving at the same velocity as the fluid stream. It is the temperature used as a property in defining the thermodynamic state of the gas.

Stagnation (total) temperature: that temperature which would be measured at the stagnation point if a gas stream were brought to rest and its kinetic energy converted to an enthalpy rise by an isentropic compression process from the flow condition to the stagnation condition.

Capacity: (Actual Flow) of a compressor is the volume rate of flow of gas compressed and delivered referred to conditions of pressure, temperature and gas composition prevailing at the compressor inlet.

Standard or normal flow: the rate of flow under certain 'standard' conditions, for example 60°F and 14.7 psia (US Standard) or 15°C and 101.325 kPa (GPA-SI Standard).

Mass flow: the rate of flow in mass units.

Isentropic compression: refers to the reversible adiabatic compression process.

Isentropic work (head): the work required to compress a unit mass of gas in an isentropic compression process from the inlet pressure and temperature to the discharge pressure.

Isentropic power: defined as the power required to compress isentropically and deliver the capacity of the compressor from the compressor inlet conditions to the compressor discharge pressure.

Isentropic efficiency: the ratio of the isentropic work to the work required for the compression process.

Polytropic compression: a reversible compression process between the compressor inlet and discharge conditions, which follows a path such that, between any two points on the path, the ratio of the reversible work input to the enthalpy rise is constant. In other words, the compression process is described as an infinite number of isentropic compression steps, each followed by an isobaric heat addition. The result is an ideal, reversible process that has the same suction pressure, discharge pressure, suction temperature and discharge temperature as the actual process.

Polytropic work (head): the reversible work required to compress a unit mass of the gas in a polytropic compression process.

Compressors

Depending on application, compressors are manufactured as positive-displacement, dynamic, or thermal type (Fig. 13-2).

Positive displacement types fall in two basic categories: reciprocating and rotary.

The reciprocating compressor consists of one or more cylinders each with a piston or plunger that moves back and forth, displacing a positive volume with each stroke.

The diaphragm compressor uses a hydraulically pulsed flexible diaphragm to displace the gas.

Rotary compressors cover lobe-type, screw-type, vane-type, and liquid ring type, each having a casing with one or more rotating elements that either mesh with each other such as lobes or screws, or that displace a fixed volume with each rotation.

The dynamic types include radial-flow (centrifugal), axial-flow, and mixed flow machines. They are rotary continuous-flow

compressors in which the rotating element (impeller or bladed rotor) accelerates the gas as it passes through the element, converting the velocity head into static pressure, partially in the rotating element and partially in stationary diffusers or blades.

Ejectors are "thermal" compressors that use a high velocity gas or steam jet to entrain the inflowing gas, then convert the velocity of the mixture to pressure in a diffuser.

Fig. 13-3 covers the normal range of operation for compressors of the commercially available types.

The advantages of a centrifugal compressor over a reciprocating machine are:

1. Lower installed first cost where pressure and volume conditions are favorable,
2. Lower maintenance expense,

3. Greater continuity of service and dependability,
4. Less operating attention,
5. Greater volume capacity per unit of plot area,
6. Adaptability to high-speed low-maintenance-cost drivers.

The advantages of a reciprocating compressor over a centrifugal machine are:

1. Greater flexibility in capacity and pressure range,
2. Higher compressor efficiency and lower power cost,
3. Capability of delivering higher pressures,
4. Capability of handling smaller volumes,
5. Less sensitive to changes in gas composition and density.

RECIPROCATING COMPRESSORS

Reciprocating compressor ratings vary from fractional to more than 40,000 hp per unit. In gas processing it would be unusual for units larger than 10,000 hp to be used. Pressures range from low vacuum at suction to 30,000 psi and higher at discharge for special process compressors.

Reciprocating compressors are furnished either single-stage or multi-stage. The number of stages is determined by the overall compression ratio. The compression ratio per stage (and valve life) is generally limited by the discharge temperature and usually does not exceed 4, although small-sized units (intermittent duty) are furnished with a compression ratio as high as 8.

Gas cylinders are generally lubricated, although a non-lubricated design is available when warranted; example: nitrogen, oxygen, and instrument air.

On multistage machines, intercoolers may be provided between stages. These are heat exchangers which remove the heat of compression from the gas and reduce its temperature to approximately the temperature existing at the compressor intake. Such cooling reduces the actual volume of gas going to the high-pressure cylinders, reduces the horsepower required for compression, and keeps the temperature within safe operating limits.

Reciprocating compressors should be supplied with clean gas as they cannot satisfactorily handle liquids and solid particles that may be entrained in the gas. Liquids and solid particles tend to destroy cylinder lubrication and cause excessive wear. Liquids are non-compressible and their presence could cause major damage to the compressor cylinder or frame components.

Reciprocating compressors are typically designed to one of the following industry standard specifications:

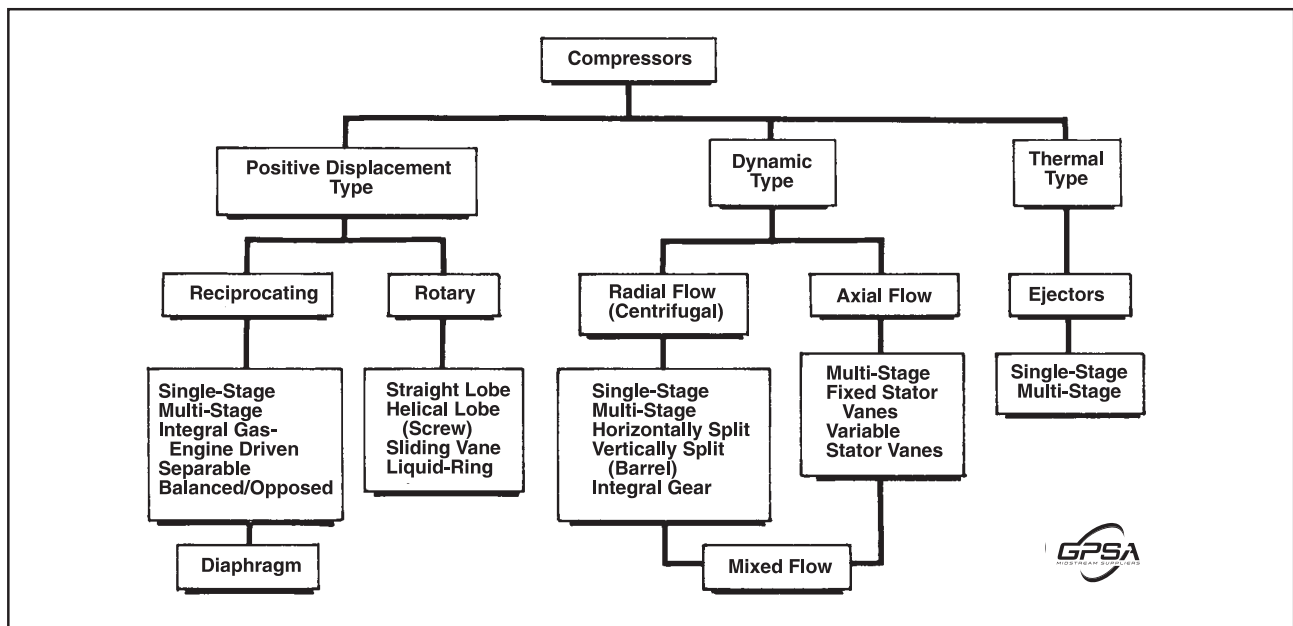
API Standard 618 “Reciprocating Compressors for Petroleum, Chemical, and Gas Industry Services.”

ISO Standard 13631: 2002, “Petroleum and Natural Gas Industries — Packaged Reciprocating Compressors.”

Low to moderate speed compressors, typically 300–700 rpm, have historically been used in refineries, chemical plants and also can be used in gas plant service. They are normally driven by electric motors. These compressors are typically applied in accordance with API Standard 618 “Reciprocating Compressors for Petroleum, Chemical and Gas Industry Services.”

Moderate to high speed compressors, typically 600–1800 rpm packaged separable compressors are used for field gas compression, mid-stream compression, gas plant and mainline compression. These units are normally driven by gas engines or electric motors. These compressors are typically applied in accordance with ISO Standard 13631.

FIG. 13-2
Types of Compressors



A low speed “integral” compressor refers to a compressor driven by a gas engine where the power cylinders of the engine that turn the crankshaft are in the same housing as the gas compression cylinders. (See Fig. 13-4). These compressors are no longer manufactured but there are a number of them still in operation in pipeline boosting service as well as inlet compression service at field gas plants. Integral compressors were designed to API 11 which is no longer supported by API.

Performance Calculations

The engineer in the field is frequently required to:

1. determine the approximate horsepower required to compress a certain volume of gas from some intake conditions to a given discharge pressure, and
2. estimate the capacity of an existing compressor under specified suction and discharge conditions.

The following text outlines procedures for making these calculations from the standpoint of quick estimates and also presents more detailed calculations. For specific information on a given compressor, consult the manufacturer of that unit.

For a compression process, the enthalpy change is the best way of evaluating the work of compression. If a P-H diagram is available (as for propane refrigeration systems), the work of compression would always be evaluated by the enthalpy change

of the gas in going from suction to discharge conditions. Years ago the capability of easily generating P-H diagrams for natural gases did not exist. The result was that many ways of estimating the enthalpy change were developed. They were used as a crutch and not because they were the best way to evaluate compression horsepower requirements.

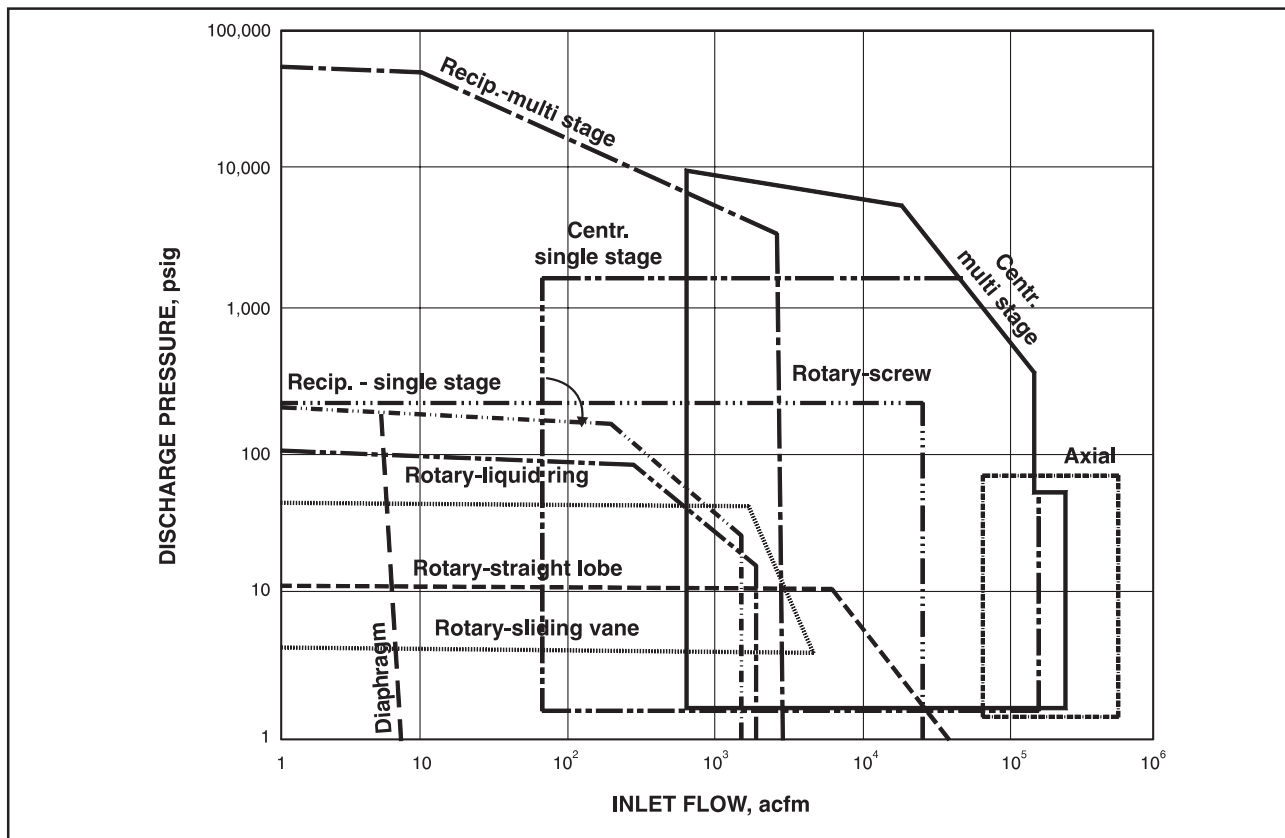
Today the engineer does have available, in many cases, the capability to generate that part of the P-H diagram required for compression purposes. This is done using equations of state on a computer. This still would be the best way to evaluate the compression horsepower. The other methods are used only if access to a good equation of state is not available.

Section 13 continues to treat reciprocating and centrifugal machines as being different so far as estimation of horsepower requirements is concerned. This treatment reflects industry practice. The only difference in the horsepower evaluation is the efficiency of the machine. Otherwise the basic thermodynamic equations are the same for all compression.

The reciprocating compressor horsepower calculations presented are based on charts. However, they may equally well be calculated using the equations in the centrifugal compressor section, particularly Equations 13-25 through 13-43. This also includes the mechanical losses in Equations 13-37 and 13-38.

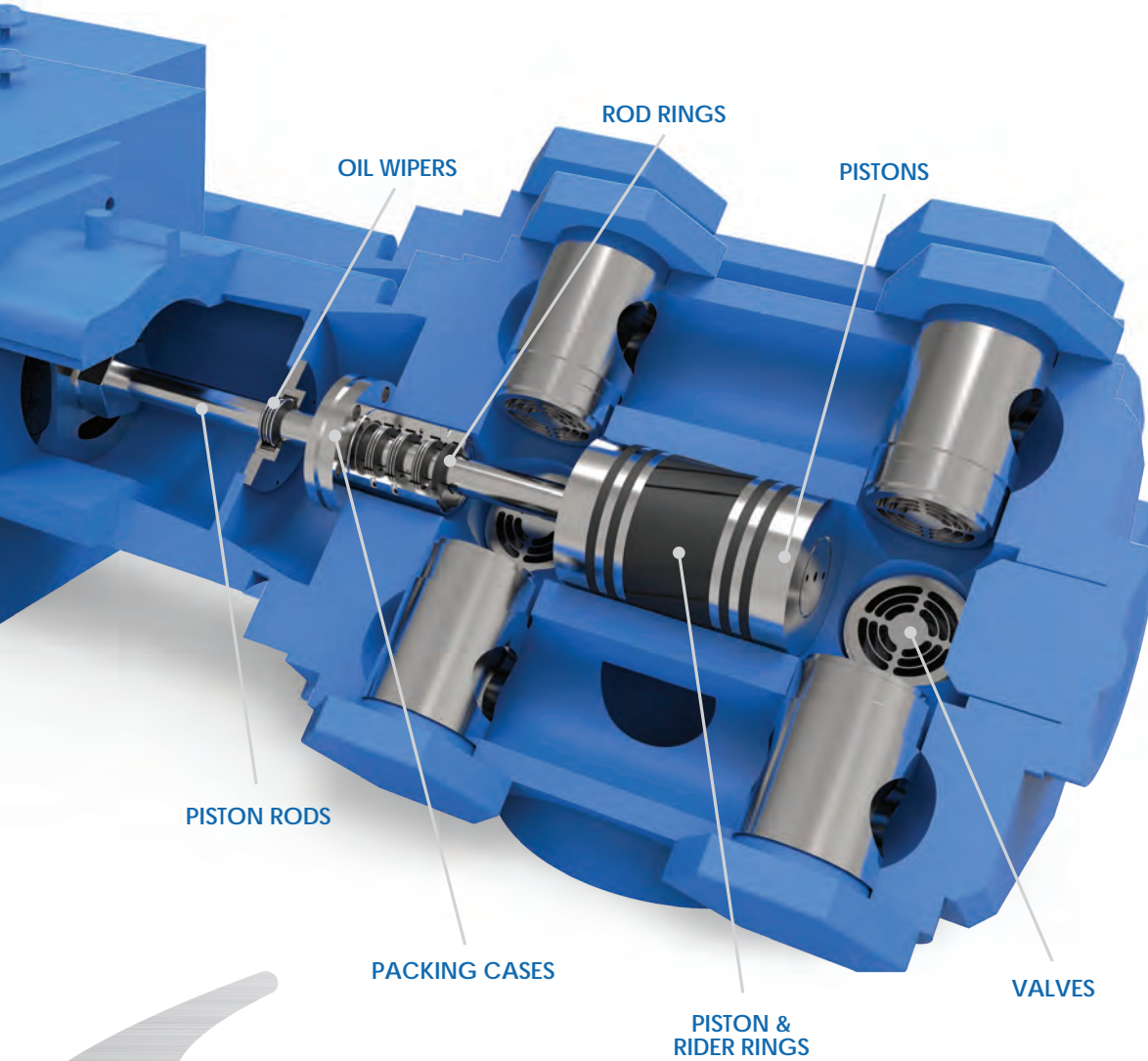
There are two ways in which the thermodynamic calculations for compression can be carried out — by assuming:

FIG. 13-3
Compressor Coverage Chart



ADVANCING PERFORMANCE

+ RELIABILITY + EFFICIENCY



AFTERMARKET
SERVICES



FIELD
SERVICES



PROJECT
ENGINEERING



Cook Compression offers custom-engineered components, repair and reconditioning services and technical support for reciprocating compressors around the world. Our solutions extend run times, increase efficiency, address emissions, reduce operating costs, eliminate unplanned downtime and resolve chronic problems—delivering quantifiable advances in performance.



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1. isentropic reversible path — a process during which there is no heat added to or removed from the system and the entropy remains constant, $pv^k = \text{constant}$
2. polytropic reversible path — a process in which changes in gas characteristics during compression are considered, $pv^n = \text{constant}$

Fig. 13-5 shows a plot of pressure vs. volume for each value of the above exponents. The work, W , performed in proceeding from p_1 to p_2 along any polytropic curve (Fig. 13-5) is

$$W = \int_1^2 V \cdot dp = \int_{p_1}^{p_2} V \cdot dp \quad \text{Eq 13-1}$$

The amount of work required is dependent upon the polytropic curve involved and increases with increasing values of n . The path requiring the least amount of input work is $n = 1$, which is equivalent to isothermal compression, a process during which there is no change in temperature. For isentropic compression, the exponent used is $k = \text{ratio of specific heat at constant pressure to that at constant volume}$.

It is usually impractical to build sufficient heat-transfer equipment into the design of most compressors to carry away the bulk of the heat of compression. Most machines tend to operate along a polytropic path which approaches the isentropic. Most compressor calculations are therefore based on an efficiency applied to account for true behavior.

A compression process following the outer curve in Fig. 13-5 has been widely referred to in industry as “adiabatic”. However, all compression processes of practical importance are adiabatic. The term adiabatic does not adequately describe this process, since it only implies no heat transfer. The ideal process also follows a path of constant entropy and should be called “isentropic,” as will be done subsequently in this chapter.

Equation 13-3 which applies to all ideal gases can be used to calculate k .

$$MC_p - MC_v = R = 1.986 \text{ Btu}/(\text{lbmol} \cdot ^\circ\text{F}) \quad \text{Eq 13-2}$$

By rearrangement and substitution we obtain:

$$k = \frac{C_p}{C_v} = \frac{MC_p}{MC_v} = \frac{MC_p}{MC_p - 1.986} \quad \text{Eq 13-3}$$

To calculate k for a gas we need only know the constant pressure molar heat capacity (MC_p) for the gas. Fig. 13-6 gives values of molecular weight and ideal-gas state heat capacity (i.e. at 1 atm) for various gases. The heat capacity varies considerably with temperature. Since the temperature of the gas

increases as it passes from suction to discharge in the compressor, k is normally determined at the average of suction and discharge temperatures.

For a multi-component gas, the mole weighted average value of molar heat capacity must be determined at average cylinder temperature. A sample calculation is shown in Fig. 13-7.

The calculation of pP_c and pT_c in Fig. 13-7 permits calculation of the reduced pressure $P_R = P/pP_c$ mix and reduced temperature $T_R = T/pT_c$ mix. The compressibility Z at T and P can then be determined using the charts in Section 23.

If only the molecular weight of the gas is known and not its composition, an approximate value for k can be determined from the curves in Fig. 13-8.

Estimating Compressor Horsepower

Equation 13-4 is useful for obtaining a quick and reasonable estimate for compressor horsepower. It was developed for large slow-speed (300 to 450 rpm) compressors handling gases with a specific gravity of 0.65 and having stage compression ratios above 2.5.

CAUTION: Compressor manufacturers generally rate their machines based on a standard condition of 14.4 psia rather than the more common gas industry value of 14.7 psia.

Due to higher valve losses, the horsepower requirement for high-speed compressors (1000 rpm range, and some up to 1800 rpm) can be as much as 20% higher, although this is a very arbitrary value. Some compressor designs do not merit a higher horsepower allowance and the manufacturers should be consulted for specific applications.

$$\text{Brake horsepower} = (22) \left(\frac{\text{ratio}}{\text{stage}} \right) (\# \text{ of stages}) (\text{MMcfd}) (F) \quad \text{Eq 13-4}$$

Where:

MMcfd = Compressor capacity referred to 14.4 psia and intake temperature

$F = 1.0$ for single-stage compression
 1.08 for two-stage compression
 1.10 for three-stage compression

Equation 13-4 will also provide a rough estimate of horsepower for lower compression ratios and/or gases with a higher specific gravity, but it will tend to be on the high side. To allow for this the tendency is to use a multiplication factor of 20 instead of 22 for gases with a specific gravity in the 0.8 to 1.0

FIG. 13-4
Integral Engine Compressor

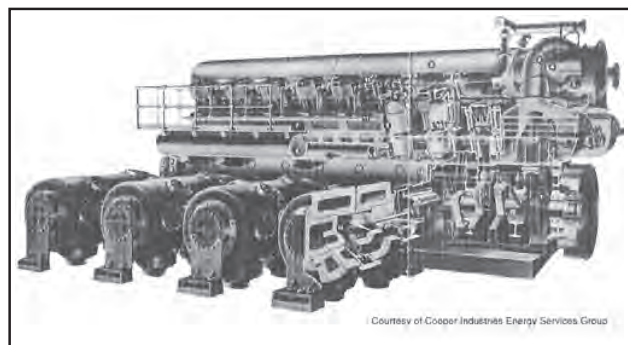


FIG. 13-5
Compression Curves

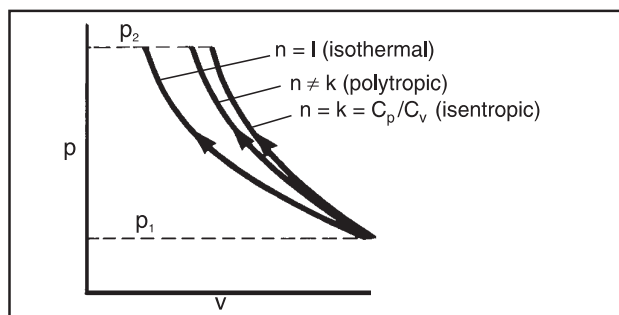


FIG. 13-6
Molar Heat Capacity MC_p (Ideal-Gas State), Btu/(lb mol • °R)

*Data source: Selected Values of Properties of Hydrocarbons, API Research Project 44; MW updated to agree with Fig. 23-2										
Gas	Chemical formula	Mol wt	Temperature							
			0°F	50°F	60°F	100°F	150°F	200°F	250°F	300°F
Methane	CH ₄	16.043	8.23	8.42	8.46	8.65	8.95	9.28	9.64	10.01
Ethyne (Acetylene)	C ₂ H ₂	26.038	9.68	10.22	10.33	10.71	11.15	11.55	11.90	12.22
Ethene (Ethylene)	C ₂ H ₄	28.054	9.33	10.02	10.16	10.72	11.41	12.09	12.76	13.41
Ethane	C ₂ H ₆	30.070	11.44	12.17	12.32	12.95	13.78	14.63	15.49	16.34
Propene (Propylene)	C ₃ H ₆	42.081	13.63	14.69	14.90	15.75	16.80	17.85	18.88	19.89
Propane	C ₃ H ₈	44.097	15.65	16.88	17.13	18.17	19.52	20.89	22.25	23.56
1-Butene (Butylene)	C ₄ H ₈	56.108	17.96	19.59	19.91	21.18	22.74	24.26	25.73	27.16
cis-2-Butene	C ₄ H ₈	56.108	16.54	18.04	18.34	19.54	21.04	22.53	24.01	25.47
trans-2-Butene	C ₄ H ₈	56.108	18.84	20.23	20.50	21.61	23.00	24.37	25.73	27.07
iso-Butane	C ₄ H ₁₀	58.123	20.40	22.15	22.51	23.95	25.77	27.59	29.39	31.11
n-Butane	C ₄ H ₁₀	58.123	20.80	22.38	22.72	24.08	25.81	27.55	29.23	30.90
iso-Pentane	C ₅ H ₁₂	72.150	24.94	27.17	27.61	29.42	31.66	33.87	36.03	38.14
n-Pentane	C ₅ H ₁₂	72.150	25.64	27.61	28.02	29.71	31.86	33.99	36.08	38.13
Benzene	C ₆ H ₆	78.114	16.41	18.41	18.78	20.46	22.45	24.46	26.34	28.15
n-Hexane	C ₆ H ₁₄	86.177	30.17	32.78	33.30	35.37	37.93	40.45	42.94	45.36
n-Heptane	C ₇ H ₁₆	100.204	34.96	38.00	38.61	41.01	44.00	46.94	49.81	52.61
Ammonia	NH ₃	17.0305	8.52	8.52	8.52	8.52	8.52	8.53	8.53	8.53
Air		28.9625	6.94	6.95	6.95	6.96	6.97	6.99	7.01	7.03
Water	H ₂ O	18.0153	7.98	8.00	8.01	8.03	8.07	8.12	8.17	8.23
Oxygen	O ₂	31.9988	6.97	6.99	7.00	7.03	7.07	7.12	7.17	7.23
Nitrogen	N ₂	28.0134	6.95	6.95	6.95	6.96	6.96	6.97	6.98	7.00
Hydrogen	H ₂	2.0159	6.78	6.86	6.87	6.91	6.94	6.95	6.97	6.98
Hydrogen sulfide	H ₂ S	34.08	8.00	8.09	8.11	8.18	8.27	8.36	8.46	8.55
Carbon monoxide	CO	28.010	6.95	6.96	6.96	6.96	6.97	6.99	7.01	7.03
Carbon dioxide	CO ₂	44.010	8.38	8.70	8.76	9.00	9.29	9.56	9.81	10.05

* Exceptions: Air — Keenan and Keyes, Thermodynamic Properties of Air, Wiley, 3rd Printing 1947. Ammonia — Edw. R. Grabl, Thermodynamic Properties of Ammonia at High Temperatures and Pressures, Petr. Processing, April 1953. Hydrogen Sulfide — J. R. West, Chem. Eng. Progress, 44, 287, 1948.

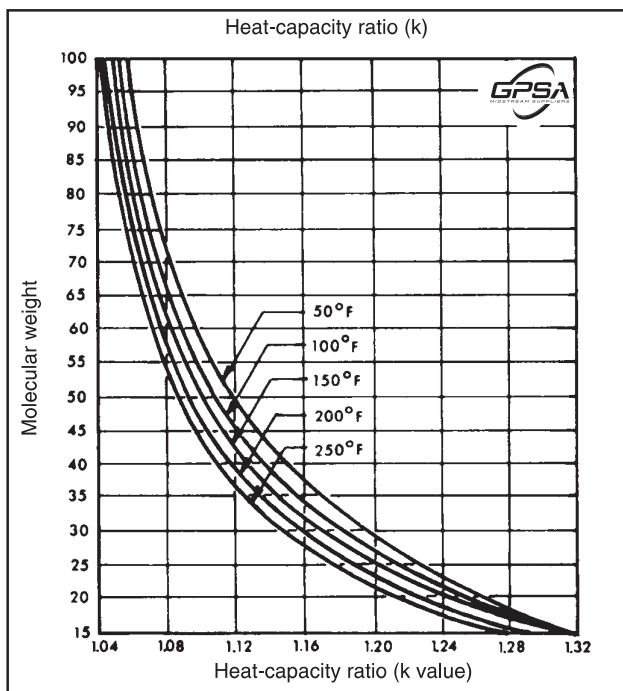
FIG. 13-7
Calculation of k

Example gas mixture		Determination of mixture mol weight		Determination of MC_p , Molar heat capacity		Determination of pseudo critical pressure, pP_c , and temperature, pT_c			
Component name	Mol fraction y	Individual Component Mol weight MW	y • MW	Individual Component MC_p @ 150°F*	y • MC_p @ 150°F	Component critical pressure P_c psia	y • P_c	Component critical temperature T_c °R	y • T_c
methane	0.9216	16.04	14.782	8.95	8.248	666	615.6	343	316.1
ethane	0.0488	30.07	1.467	13.78	0.672	707	34.6	550	26.8
propane	0.0185	44.10	0.816	19.52	0.361	616	11.4	666	12.3
i-butane	0.0039	58.12	0.227	25.77	0.101	528	2.1	734	2.9
n-butane	0.0055	58.12	0.320	25.81	0.142	551	3.0	765	4.2
i-pentane	0.0017	72.15	0.123	31.66	0.054	490	0.8	829	1.4
Total	1.0000	MW =	17.735	MC_p =	9.578	pP_c =	667.5	pT_c =	363.7
$MC_v = MC_p - 1.986 = 7.592$				$k = MC_p/MC_v = 9.578/7.592 = 1.26$					

*For values of MC_p other than @ 150°F, refer to Fig. 13-6

FIG. 13-8

Approximate Heat-Capacity Ratios of Hydrocarbon Gases



range; likewise, use a factor in the range of 16 to 18 for compression ratios between 1.5 and 2.0.

Curves are available which permit easy estimation of approximate compression-horsepower requirements. Fig. 13-9 is typical of these curves.

Example 13-1 — Compress 2 MMcfd of gas at 14.4 psia and intake temperature through a compression ratio of 9 in a 2-stage compressor. What will be the horsepower?

Solution Steps

$$\text{Ratio per stage} = \sqrt{9} = 3$$

From Equation 13-4 we find the brake horsepower to be:

$$(22) (3) (2) (2) (1.08) = 285 \text{ BHP}$$

From Fig. 13-9, using a k of 1.15, we find the horsepower requirement to be 136 BHP/MMcfd or 272 BHP. For a k of 1.4, the power requirement would be 147 BHP/MMcfd or 294 total horsepower.

The two procedures give reasonable agreement, particularly considering the simplifying assumptions necessary in reducing compressor horsepower calculations to such a simple procedure.

Detailed Calculations

There are many variables which enter into the precise calculation of compressor performance. Generalized data as given in this section are based upon the averaging of many criteria. The results obtained from these calculations, therefore, must be considered as close approximations to true compressor performance.

Capacity

Most gases encountered in industrial compression do not exactly follow the ideal gas equation of state but differ to vary-

ing degrees. The degree in which any gas varies from the ideal is expressed by a compressibility factor, Z, which modifies the ideal gas equation:

$$PV = nRT \tag{Eq 13-5}$$

$$\text{to } PV = nZRT \tag{Eq 13-6}$$

Compressibility factors can be determined from charts in Section 23 using the p_{PR} and p_{TR} of the gas mixture. For pure components such as propane, compressibility factors can be determined from the P-H diagrams, although the user would be better advised to determine the compression horsepower using the P-H diagram (see Section 24).

For the purpose of performance calculations, compressor capacity is expressed as the actual volumetric quantity of gas at the inlet to each stage of compression on a per minute basis (ICFM).

From SCFM

$$Q = \text{SCFM} \left(\frac{14.7}{520} \right) \left(\frac{T_1 Z_1}{P_1 Z_L} \right) \tag{Eq 13-7}$$

From weight flow (w, lb/min)

$$Q = \frac{10.73}{MW} \left(\frac{w T_1 Z_1}{P_1 Z_L} \right) \tag{Eq 13-8}$$

From molar flow (N_m , mols/min)

$$Q = \left(\frac{379.5 \cdot 14.7}{520} \right) \left(\frac{N_m T_1 Z_1}{P_1 Z_L} \right) \tag{Eq 13-9}$$

From these equations, inlet volume to any stage may be calculated by using the inlet pressure P_1 and temperature T_1 . Moisture should be handled just as any other component in the gas.

In a reciprocating compressor, effective capacity may be calculated as the piston displacement (generally in cu ft/min) multiplied by the volumetric efficiency.

The piston displacement is equal to the net piston area multiplied by the length of piston sweep in a given period of time. This displacement may be expressed:

For a single-acting piston compressing on the outer end only,

$$\begin{aligned} PD &= \frac{(\text{stroke}) (N) (D^2) \pi}{(4) \cdot (1728)} \tag{Eq 13-10} \\ &= 4.55 (10^{-4}) (\text{stroke}) (N) (D^2) \end{aligned}$$

For a single-acting piston compressing on the crank end only,

$$\begin{aligned} PD &= \frac{(\text{stroke}) (N) (D^2 - d^2) \pi}{(4) \cdot (1728)} \tag{Eq 13-11} \\ &= 4.55 (10^{-4}) (\text{stroke}) (N) (D^2 - d^2) \end{aligned}$$

For a double-acting piston (other than tail rod type),

$$\begin{aligned} PD &= \frac{(\text{stroke}) (N) (2 D^2 - d^2) \pi}{(4) \cdot (1728)} \tag{Eq 13-12} \\ &= 4.55 (10^{-4}) (\text{stroke}) (N) (2 D^2 - d^2) \end{aligned}$$

Volumetric Efficiency

In a reciprocating compressor, the piston does not travel completely to the end of the cylinder at the end of the discharge stroke. Some clearance volume is necessary and it includes the space between the end of the piston and the cylinder head when



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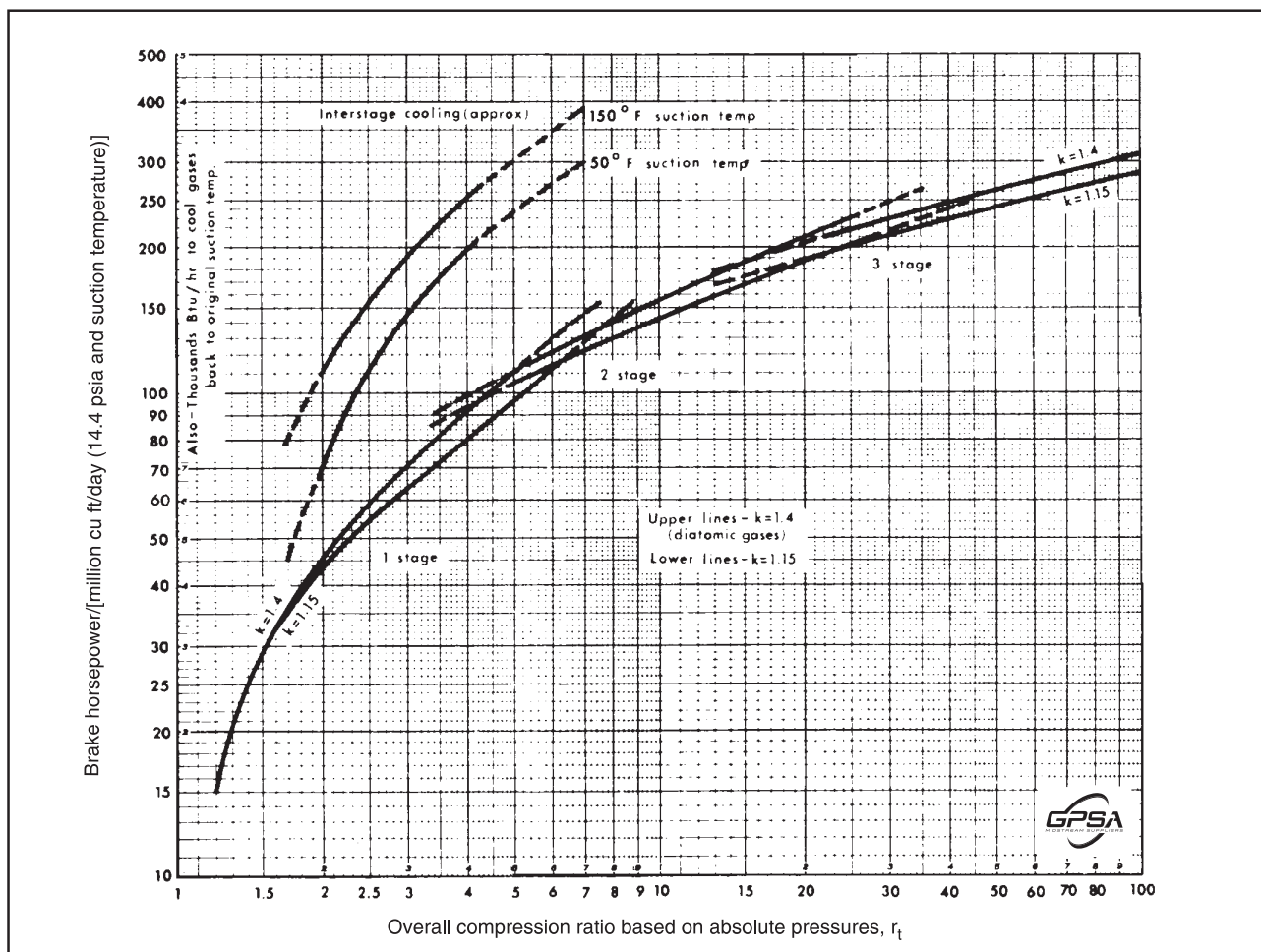
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FIG. 13-9
Approximate Horsepower Required to Compress Gases



the piston is at the end of its stroke. It also includes the volume in the valve ports, the volume in the suction valve guards, and the volume around the discharge valve seats.

Clearance volume is usually expressed as a percent of piston displacement and referred to as percent clearance, or cylinder clearance, C .

$$C = \frac{\text{clearance volume, cu in.}}{\text{piston displacement, cu in.}} \quad (100) \quad \text{Eq 13-13}$$

For double acting cylinders, the percent clearance is based on the total clearance volume for both the head end and the crank end of a cylinder. These two clearance volumes are not the same due to the presence of the piston rod in the crank end of the cylinder. Sometimes additional clearance volume (external) is intentionally added to reduce cylinder capacity.

The term “volumetric efficiency” refers to the actual pumping capacity of a cylinder compared to the piston displacement. Without a clearance volume for the gas to expand and delay the opening of the suction valve(s), the cylinder could deliver its entire piston displacement as gas capacity. The effect of the gas contained in the clearance volume on the pumping capacity of a cylinder can be represented by:

$$VE = 100 - r - C \left[\frac{Z_s}{Z_d} (r^{1/k}) - 1 \right] \quad \text{Eq 13-14}$$

Volumetric efficiencies as determined by Equation 13-14 are theoretical in that they do not account for suction and discharge valve losses. The suction and discharge valves are actually spring-loaded check valves that permit flow in one direction only. The valve springs require a small differential pressure to open. For this reason, the pressure within the cylinder at the end of the suction stroke is lower than the line suction pressure and, likewise, the pressure at the end of the discharge stroke is higher than line discharge pressure.

One method for accounting for suction and discharge valve losses is to reduce the volumetric efficiency by an arbitrary amount, typically 4%, thus modifying Equation 13-14 as follows:

$$VE = 96 - r - C \left[\frac{Z_s}{Z_d} (r^{1/k}) - 1 \right] \quad \text{Eq 13-15}$$

When a non-lubricated compressor is used, the volumetric efficiency should be corrected by subtracting an additional 5% for slippage of gas. This is a capacity correction only and, as a

first approximation, would not be considered when calculating compressor horsepower. The energy of compression is used by the gas even though the gas slips by the rings and is not discharged from the cylinder.

If the compressor is in propane, or similar heavy gas service, an additional 4% should be subtracted from the volumetric efficiency. These deductions for non-lubricated and propane performance are both approximate and, if both apply, cumulative.

Volumetric efficiencies for “high speed” separable compressors in the past have tended to be slightly lower than estimated from Equation 13-14. Recent information suggests that this modification is not necessary for all models of high speed compressors.

In evaluating efficiency, horsepower, volumetric efficiency, etc., the user should consider past experience with different speeds and models. Larger valve area for a given swept volume will generally lead to higher compression efficiencies.

Equivalent Capacity

The net capacity for a compressor, in cubic feet per day @ 14.4 psia and suction temperature, may be calculated by Equation 13-16a which is shown in dimensioned form:

$$\text{MMcfd} = \frac{\left[\text{PD} \frac{\text{ft}^3}{\text{min}} \right] \cdot 1440 \frac{\text{min}}{\text{d}} \cdot \left[\frac{\text{VE}\%}{100} \right] \cdot P_s \frac{\text{lb}}{\text{in}^2} \cdot 10^{-6} \frac{\text{MMft}^3}{\text{ft}^3} \cdot Z_{14.4}}{14.4 \frac{\text{lb}}{\text{in}^2} \cdot Z_s} \quad \text{Eq 13-16a}$$

which can be simplified to Equation 13-16b when $Z_{14.4}$ is assumed to equal 1.0.

$$\text{MMcfd} = \frac{\text{PD} \cdot \text{VE} \cdot P_s \cdot 10^{-6}}{Z_s} \quad \text{Eq 13-16b}$$

For example, a compressor with 200 cu ft/min piston displacement, a volumetric efficiency of 80%, a suction pressure of 75 psia, and suction compressibility of 0.9 would have a capacity of 1.33 MMcfd at 14.4 psia. If compressibility is not used as a divisor in calculating cu ft/min, then the statement “not corrected for compressibility” should be added.

In many instances the gas sales contract or regulation will specify some other measurement standard for gas volume. To convert volumes calculated using Equation 13-16 (i.e. at 14.4 psia and suction temperature) to a P_L and T_L basis, Equation 13-17 would be used:

$$\text{MMscfd at } P_L, T_L = (\text{MMcfd from Eq 13-16}) \left(\frac{14.4}{P_L} \right) \left(\frac{T_L}{T_s} \right) \left(\frac{Z_L}{Z_s} \right) \quad \text{Eq 13-17}$$

Discharge Temperature

The temperature of the gas discharged from the cylinder can be estimated from Equation 13-18, which is commonly used but not recommended. (Note: the temperatures are in absolute units, °R or K.) Equation 13-32 gives better results.

$$T_d = T_s (r^{(k-1)/k}) \quad \text{Eq 13-18}$$

The discharge temperature determined from Equation 13-18 is the theoretical value. It neglects heat from friction, irreversibility effects, etc., and is therefore too low,

Rod Loading

Each compressor frame has definite limitations as to maximum load-carrying capacity. The load-carrying of a compressor involves two primary considerations: rod loading and horsepower.

The horsepower rating of a compressor frame is an indicator of the supporting structure and crankshaft to withstand the torque (turning force) and the loads. Rod loads are established to limit the static and dynamic loads on the frame, crankshaft, connecting rod, frame, crosshead, piston rod, bolting, and projected bearing surfaces.

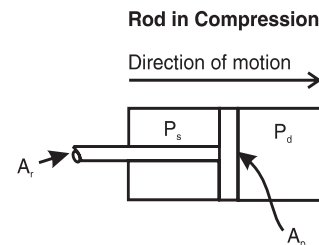
Rod loads are calculated differently based upon the compressor manufacturer. Some manufacturers use flange-to-flange pressures while others use internal pressures and others may use combined rod loads (gas load plus inertia load).

Many manufacturers also require a load reversal of the load at the crosshead pin. This load reversal is required so that lube oil can lubricate and cool the crosshead pin and bushings.

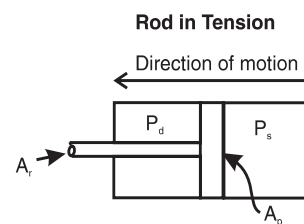
Gas rod loadings may be calculated by the use of Equations 13-19 and 13-20.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Load in compression} &= P_d A_p - P_s (A_p - A_r) \\ &= (P_d - P_s) A_p + P_s A_r \quad \text{Eq 13-19} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Load in tension} &= P_d (A_p - A_r) - P_s A_p \\ &= (P_d - P_s) A_p - P_d A_r \quad \text{Eq 13-20} \end{aligned}$$



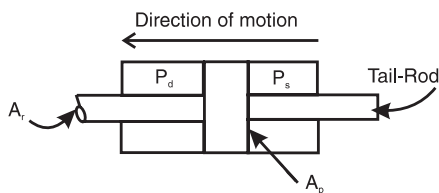
Using Equations 13-19 and 13-20, a plus value for the load in both compression and tension indicates a reversal of loads based on gas pressure only. Inertial effects will tend to increase the degree of reversal.



The true rod loads would be those calculated using internal cylinder pressures after allowance for valve losses. Normally, the operator will know only line pressures, and because of this, manufacturers generally rate their compressors based on line-pressure calculations.

A further refinement in the rod-loading calculation would be to include inertial forces. While the manufacturer may consider inertial forces when rating compressors, useful data on this point is seldom available in the field. Except in special cases, inertial forces are ignored.

A tail-rod cylinder would require consideration of rod cross-section area on both sides of the piston instead of on only one side of the piston, as in Equations 13-19 and 13-20.



Detailed Horsepower Calculation

A more detailed calculation of reciprocating compressor power requirements can be performed using the following equation:

$$\text{BHP/stage} = 3.03 \cdot Z_{\text{avg}} \cdot [Q_g T_s / E] \cdot (k / (k-1)) \cdot \left(\frac{P_L}{T_L} \right) \cdot [(P_d / P_s)^{(k-1)/k} - 1] \quad \text{Eq 13-21}$$

The total horsepower for the compressor is the sum of the horsepower required for each of the stages that are utilized. For multistage machines an allowance should be made for the interstage pressure drop associated with piping, cooler, scrubber, etc., typically 5–10 psi.

Procedure

1. Calculate overall compression ratio ($r_t = P_{\text{d final}} / P_s$).
2. Calculate the compression ratio per stage, r , by taking the s root of r_t , where s is the number of compression stages. The number of stages, s , should be increased until the ratio per stage, r , is $< \sim 4$. This should generally result in stage discharge temperatures of $< 300^\circ\text{F}$ depending on the interstage cooler outlet temperature assumed.
3. Multiplying r by the absolute suction pressure of the stage being considered will give you discharge pressure of the stage.
4. Calculate the horsepower required for the stage using Equation 13-21.
5. Subtract the assumed interstage pressure loss from the discharge pressure of the preceding stage to obtain the suction pressure for the next stage.
6. Repeat steps 4 and 5 until all stages have been calculated.
7. Sum the stage horsepower to obtain the total compressor power required.

Example 13-2 — Compress 2 MMscfd of gas measured at 14.65 psia and 60°F . Intake pressure is 100 psia, and intake temperature is 100°F . Discharge pressure is 900 psia. The gas has a specific gravity of 0.80 (23 MW). What is the required brake horsepower, assuming a high speed compressor?

Assume $E = 0.82$

1. Compression ratio is

$$\frac{900 \text{ psia}}{100 \text{ psia}} = 9$$

This would be a two-stage compressor; therefore, the ratio per stage is $\sqrt{9}$ or 3.

2. $100 \text{ psia} \times 3 = 300 \text{ psia}$ (1st stage discharge pressure). Suction pressure to second stage is given by

$$300 \text{ psia} - 5 = 295 \text{ psia}$$

Where the 5 psi represents the pressure drop between first stage discharge and second stage suction.

$$\frac{900 \text{ psia}}{295 \text{ psia}} = 3.05 \text{ (compression ratio for 2nd stage)}$$

It may be desirable to recalculate the interstage pressure to balance the ratios. For this sample problem, however, the first ratios determined will be used.

3. From Fig. 13-8 a gas with specific gravity of 0.8 at 150°F would have an approximate k of 1.21. For most compression applications, the 150°F curve will be adequate. This should be checked after determining the average cylinder temperature.
4. Discharge temperature for the 1st stage may be obtained by using Fig. 13-32 or solving Equation 13-18. For a compression ratio of 3, discharge temperature = approximately 220°F . Average cylinder temperature = 160°F .
5. In the same manner, discharge temperature for the second stage (with $r = 3.05$ and assuming interstage cooling to 120°F) equals approximately 244°F . Average cylinder temperature = 182°F .
6. From the physical properties section (Section 23), estimate the compressibility factors at suction and discharge pressure and temperature of each stage.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{1st stage: } Z_s &= 0.98 \\ Z_d &= 0.97 \\ Z_{\text{avg}} &= 0.975 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{2nd stage: } Z_s &= 0.94 \\ Z_d &= 0.92 \\ Z_{\text{avg}} &= 0.93 \end{aligned}$$

7. Calculate the horsepower required for the first and second stages from Equation 13-21:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{BHP for 1st stage} &= 3.03 \cdot (0.975) \cdot [2 \cdot 560 / 0.82] \cdot \\ & [1.21 / (1.21 - 1)] \cdot \left(\frac{14.65}{520} \right) \cdot [(300 / 100)^{(1.21 - 1) / 1.21} - 1] \\ &= 137.6 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{BHP for 2nd stage} &= 3.03 \cdot (0.93) \cdot [2 \cdot 580 / 0.82] \cdot \\ & [1.21 / (1.21 - 1)] \cdot \left(\frac{14.65}{520} \right) \cdot [(900 / 295)^{(1.21 - 1) / 1.21} - 1] \\ &= 138.2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Total BHP required} = 137.6 + 138.2 = 275.8$$

Note that in Example 13-1 the same conditions result in a compression power of 285 BHP which is close agreement.

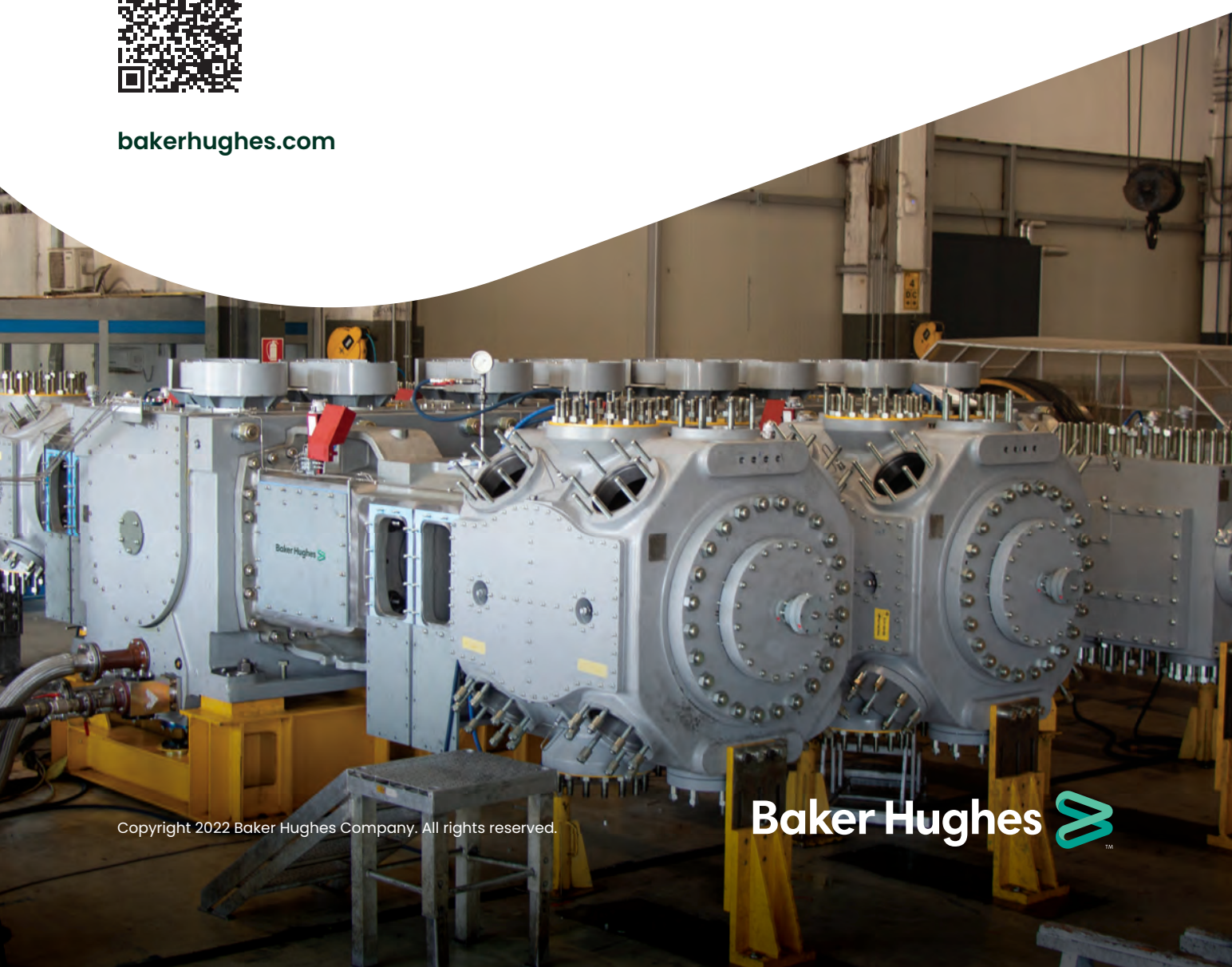
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Limits to compression ratio per stage — The maximum ratio of compression permissible in one stage is usually limited by the discharge temperature or by rod loading.

When handling gases containing oxygen, which could support combustion, there is a possibility of fire and explosion because of the oil vapors present.

To reduce carbonization of the oil and the danger of fires, a safe operating limit may be considered to be approximately 300°F. Where no oxygen is present in the gas stream, temperatures of 350°F may be considered as the maximum, even though mechanical or process requirements usually dictate a lower figure.

Packing life may be significantly shortened by the dual requirement to seal both high pressure and high temperature gases. For this reason, at higher discharge pressures, a temperature closer to 250°F or 275°F may be the practical limit.

In summary, and for most field applications, the use of 300°F maximum would be a good average. Recognition of the above variables is, however, still useful.

Economic considerations are also involved because a high ratio of compression will mean a low volumetric efficiency and require a larger cylinder to produce the same capacity. For this reason a high rod loading may result and require a heavier and more expensive frame.

Where multi-stage operation is involved, equal ratios of compression per stage are used (plus an allowance for piping and cooler losses if necessary) unless otherwise required by process design. For two stages of compression the ratio per stage would approximately equal the square root of the total compression ratio; for three stages, the cube root, etc. In practice, especially in high-pressure work, decreasing the compression ratio in the higher stages to reduce excessive rod loading may prove to be advantageous.

Cylinder Design

Depending on the size of the machine and the number of stages, reciprocating compressors are furnished with cylinders fitted with either single- or double-acting pistons, see examples in Figs. 13-10 through 13-12.

In the same units, double-acting pistons are commonly used in the first stages and occasionally single-acting in the higher stages of compression.

Cylinder materials are normally selected for strength; however, thermal shock, mechanical shock, or corrosion resistance may also be a determining factor. The table below shows discharge pressure limits generally used in the gas industry for cylinder material selection.

Cylinder Material	Discharge Pressure (psig)
Cast Iron	up to 1,200
Nodular Iron	about 2,500
Cast Steel	1,200 to 3,000
Forged Steel	above 2,500

API standard 618 recommends 1000 psig as the maximum pressure for both cast iron and nodular iron.

Cylinders are designed both as a solid body (no liner) and with liners. Cylinder liners are inserted into the cylinder body

to either form or line the pressure wall. There are two types. The wet liner forms the pressure wall as well as the inside wall of the water jacket. The dry type lines the cylinder wall and is not required to add strength.

Standard cylinder liners are cast iron. If cylinders are required to have special corrosion or wear resistance, other materials or special alloys may be needed.

Most compressors use oils to lubricate the cylinder with a mechanical, force-feed lubricator having one or more feeds to each cylinder.

The non-lubricated compressor has found wide application where it is desirable or essential to compress air or gas without contaminating it with lubricating oil.

For such cases a number of manufacturers furnish a “non-lubricated” cylinder (Fig. 13-13). Non-metallic packing seal rings of a type that requires no lubricant is used on the stuffing box. Although oilwiper rings are used on the piston rod where it leaves the compressor frame, minute quantities of oil might conceivably enter the cylinder on the rod. Where even such small amounts of oil are objectionable, an extended cylinder connecting piece can be furnished. This simply lengthens the piston rod so that no lubricated portion of the rod enters the cylinder.

A small amount of gas leaking through the packing can be objectionable. Special distance pieces are furnished between the cylinder and frame, which may be either single-compartment or double-compartment. These may be furnished gas tight and vented back to the suction, or may be filled with a sealing gas or fluid and held under a slight pressure, or simply vented.

Compressor valves for non-lubricated service operate in an environment that has no lubricant in the gas or in the cylinder. Therefore, the selection of valve materials is important to prevent excessive wear.

Piston rod packing universally used in non-lubricated compressors is of the full-floating mechanical type, consisting of a case containing pairs of non-metallic rings of conventional design.

When handling oxygen and other gases such as nitrogen and helium, it is absolutely necessary that all traces of hydrocarbons in cylinders be removed. With oxygen, this is required for safety, with other gases to prevent system contamination.

High-pressure compressors with discharge pressures from 5,000 to 30,000 psi usually require special design and a complete knowledge of the characteristics of the gas.

As a rule, inlet and discharge gas pipe connections on the cylinder are fitted with flanges of the same rating for the following reasons:

- Practicality and uniformity of casting and machinery,
- Hydrostatic test, usually at 150% design pressure,
- Suction pulsation bottles are usually designed for the same pressure as the discharge bottle (often federal, state, or local government regulation).

Reciprocating Compressor Control Devices

Output of compressors must be controlled (regulated) to match system demand.

FIG. 13-10
Low Pressure Cylinder with Double-Acting Piston

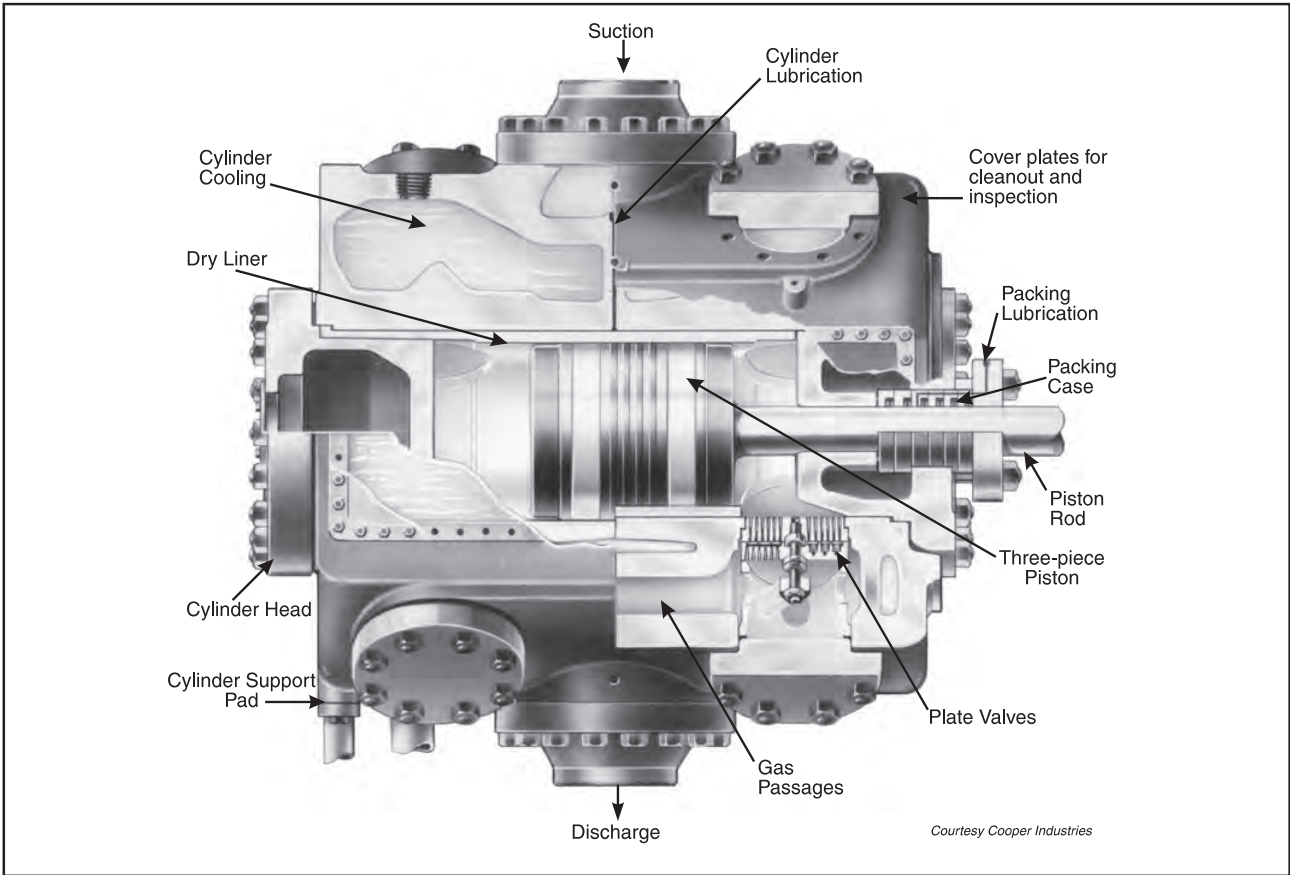


FIG. 13-11
High Pressure Cylinder with Double-Acting Piston and Tail-Rod

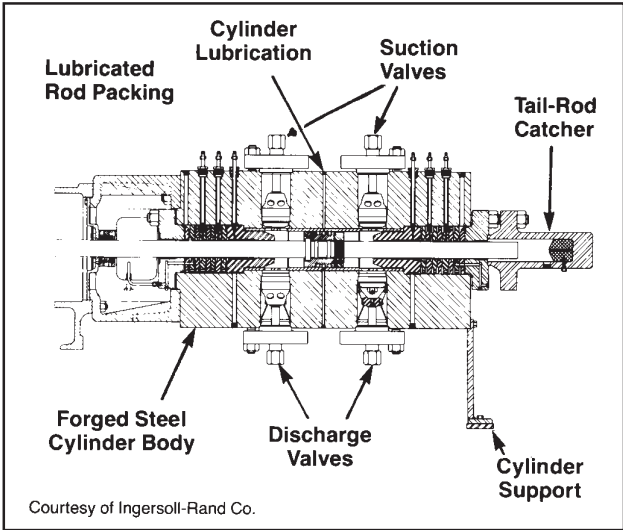


FIG. 13-12
Single-Acting Plunger Cylinder Designed for 15,000 psig Discharge

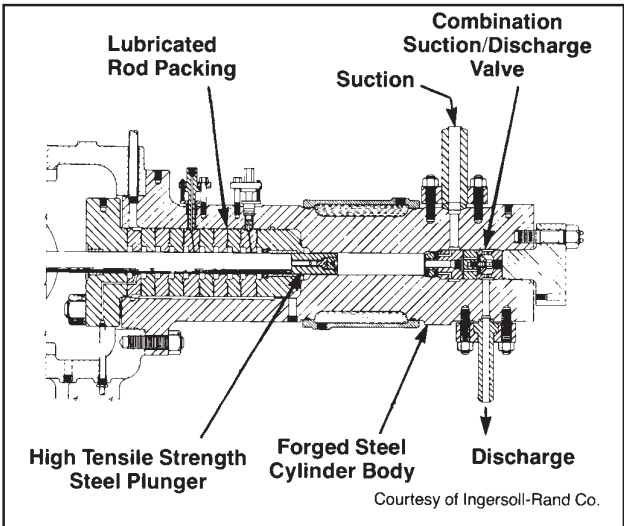
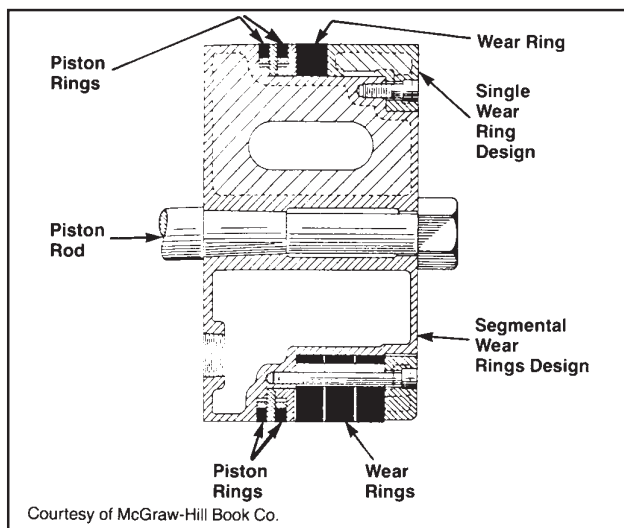


FIG. 13-13

Piston Equipped with Teflon® Piston and Wear Rings for a Single-acting Non-Lubricated Cylinder



In many installations some means of controlling the output of the compressor is necessary. Often constant flow or a specific power is required despite variations in operating conditions. Compressor capacity, speed, or pressure may be varied in accordance with the requirements. The nature of the control device will depend on the regulating variable — whether pressure, flow, temperature, or some other variable — and on type of compressor driver.

Unloading for Starting — Practically all reciprocating compressors must be unloaded to some degree before starting so that the driver torque available during acceleration is not exceeded. Both manual and automatic compressor startup unloading is used. Common methods of unloading include: discharge venting, discharge to suction bypass, and holding open the inlet valves using valve lifters.

Capacity Control — Capacity control is required to either regulate capacity or maintain the compressor load within the driver rating. Capacity control devices/unloading devices can be manually actuated or actuated by air or gas pressure depending on their design. A falling pressure indicates that gas is being used faster than it is being compressed and that more gas is required. A rising pressure indicates that more gas is being compressed than is being used downstream and that less gas is required.

A common method of controlling the capacity of a compressor is to vary the speed. This method is applicable to variable frequency drive (VFD) electric motor driven compressors and to units driven by internal combustion engines. In these cases the regulator actuates the VFD controller or fuel-admission valve on the compressor driver to control the speed.

Electric motor-driven compressors usually operate at constant speed, although variable speed drives are becoming increasingly more common. For constant speed motors other methods of controlling the capacity are necessary. On reciprocating compressors up to about 100 hp, two types of control are usually available. These are automatic-start-and-stop control and constant-speed control.

Automatic-start-and-stop control, as its name implies, stops or starts the compressor by means of a pressure-actuated switch as the gas demand varies. It should be used only when the demand for gas will be intermittent.

Constant-speed control permits the compressor to operate at full speed continuously, but loaded part of the time and fully or partially unloaded at other times. Two methods of unloading the compressor with this type of control are in common use: inlet-valve unloaders, and clearance unloaders. Inlet-valve unloaders (Fig. 13-14) operate to hold the compressor inlet valves open and thereby prevent compression. Clearance unloaders (Fig. 13-15) consist of pockets or small reservoirs which are opened when unloading is desired. The gas is compressed into them on the compression stroke and expands back into the cylinder on the return stroke, reducing the intake of additional gas.

Motor-driven reciprocating compressors above 100 hp in size are usually equipped with a step control. This is in reality a variation of constant-speed control in which unloading is accomplished in a series of steps, varying from full load down to no load.

Five-step control (full load, three-quarter load, one-half load, one-quarter load, and no load) is accomplished by means of clearance pockets. On some makes of machines inlet-valve and clearance control unloading are used in combination.

A common practice in the natural gas industry is to prepare a single set of curves for a given machine unless there are side loads or it is a multi-service machine.

Fig. 13-16 shows indicator cards which demonstrate the unloading operation for a double acting cylinder at three capacity points. The letters adjacent to the low-pressure diagrams represent the unloading influence of the respective and cumulative effect of the various pockets as identified in Fig. 13-15. Full load, one-half, and no load capacity (used for start-up only) is obtained by holding corresponding suction valves open or adding sufficient clearance to produce a zero volumetric efficiency. Zero-capacity operation includes holding all suction valves open.

Fig. 13-17 shows an alternative representation of compressor unloading operation with a step-control using fixed volume clearance pockets. The curve illustrates the relationship between compressor capacity and driver capacity for a varying compressor suction pressure at a constant discharge pressure and constant speed. The driver can be a gas engine or electric motor.

The purpose of this curve is to determine what steps of unloading are required to prevent the driver and piston rods from serious overloading. All lines are plotted for a single stage compressor.

The driver capacity line indicates the maximum allowable capacity for a given horsepower. The cylinder capacity lines represent the range of pressures calculated with all possible combinations of pockets open, as necessary, to cover the capacity of the driver.

Starting at the end (line 0-0) with full cylinder capacity, the line is traced until it crosses the driver capacity line at which point it is dropped to the next largest cylinder capacity and followed until it crosses the driver line, etc. This will produce a “saw tooth” effect, hence the name “saw tooth” curve. The number of “teeth” depends upon the number of combinations of pockets (opened or closed) required for unloading. If suction valves were also unloaded then there would be more “teeth” on the curve.

The same method is followed for multi-stage units. For each additional stage another “saw tooth” curve must be constructed, i.e., for a two stage application, two curves are required to attain the final results.

Although control devices are often automatically operated, manual operation is satisfactory for many services. Where manual operation is provided, it often consists of a valve, or valves, to open and close clearance pockets. In some cases, a movable cylinder head is provided for variable clearance in the cylinder (Fig. 13-18).

Gas Pulsation Control

Pulsation is inherent in reciprocating compressors because suction and discharge valves are open during only part of the stroke.

Pulsation must be damped (minimized) in order to:

- provide smooth flow of gas to and from the compressor,
- prevent overloading or underloading of the compressors, and
- reduce overall vibration.

FIG. 13-14
Inlet Valve Unloader

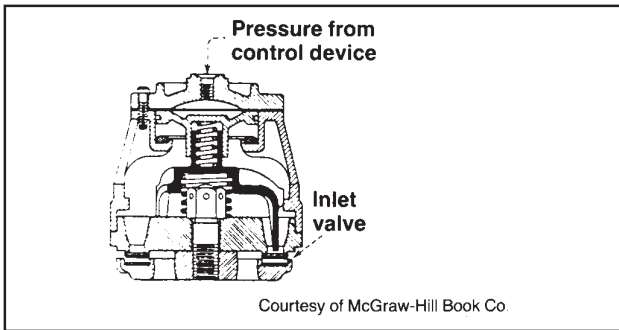
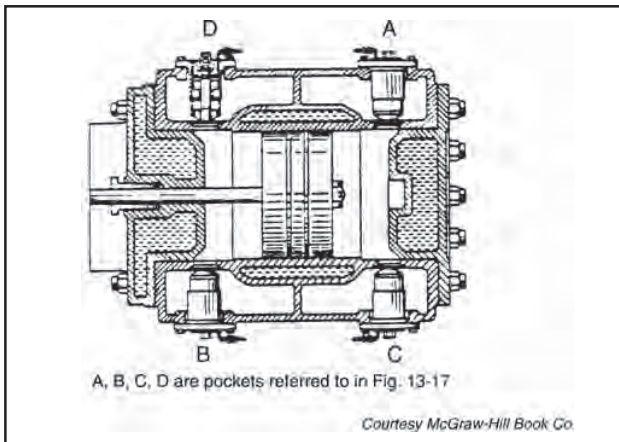


FIG. 13-15
Pneumatic Actuated Valves Controlling Four Fixed Pockets in Compressor for Five-Step Control



There are several types of pulsation chambers. The simplest one is a volume bottle, or a surge drum, which is a pressure vessel, un baffled internally and mounted on or very near a cylinder inlet or outlet.

FIG. 13-16
Indicator Diagram for Three Load Points of Operation

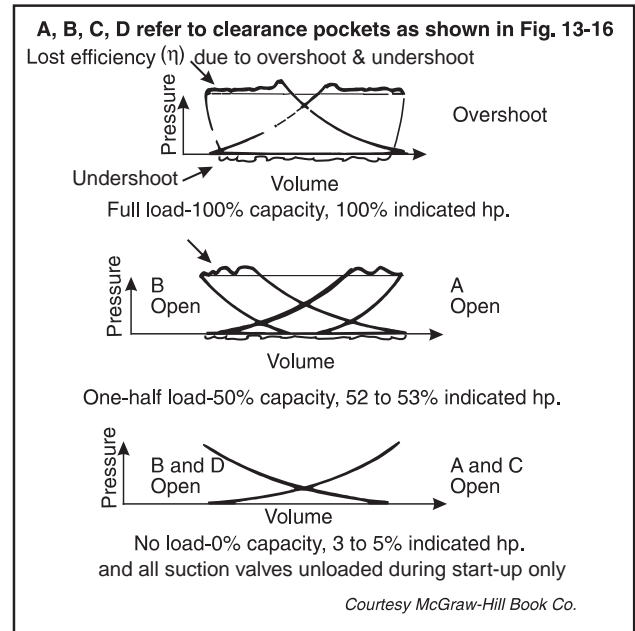
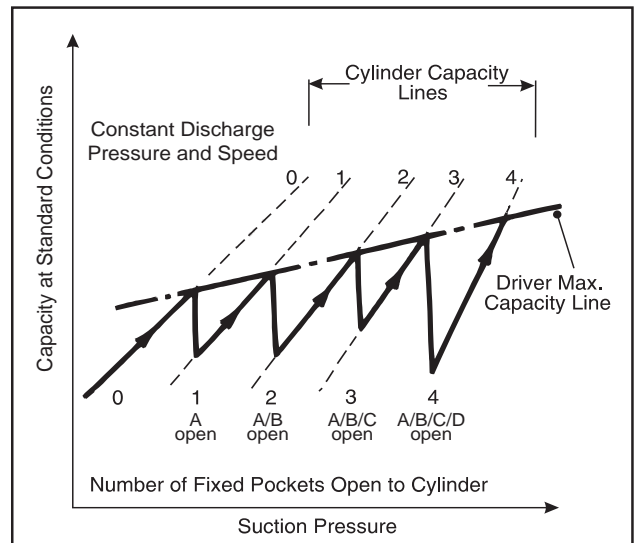


FIG. 13-17
“Saw Tooth” Curve for Unloading Operation





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A manifold joining the inlet and discharge connections of cylinders operating in parallel can also serve as a volume bottle.

Performance of volume bottles is not normally guaranteed without an analysis of the piping system from the compressor to the first process vessel.

Volume bottles are sized empirically to provide an adequate volume to absorb most of the pulsation. Several industry methods were tried in an effort to produce a reasonable rule-of-thumb for their sizing. Fig. 13-19 may be used for approximate bottle sizing.

Example 13-3

- Indicated suction pressure = 600 psia
- Indicated discharge pressure = 1400 psia
- Cylinder bore = 6 in
- Cylinder stroke = 15 in
- Swept volume = $\pi (6^2/4) (15) = 424$ cu in

From Fig. 13-19:

At 600 psi inlet pressure, the suction bottle multiplier is approximately 7.5. Suction-bottle volume = $(7.5) (424) = 3,180$ cu in.

NOTE: When more than one cylinder is connected to a bottle, the sum of the individual swept volumes is the size required for the common bottle.

For more accurate sizing, compressor manufacturers can be consulted. Organizations which provide designs and/or equipment for gas-pulsation control are also available.

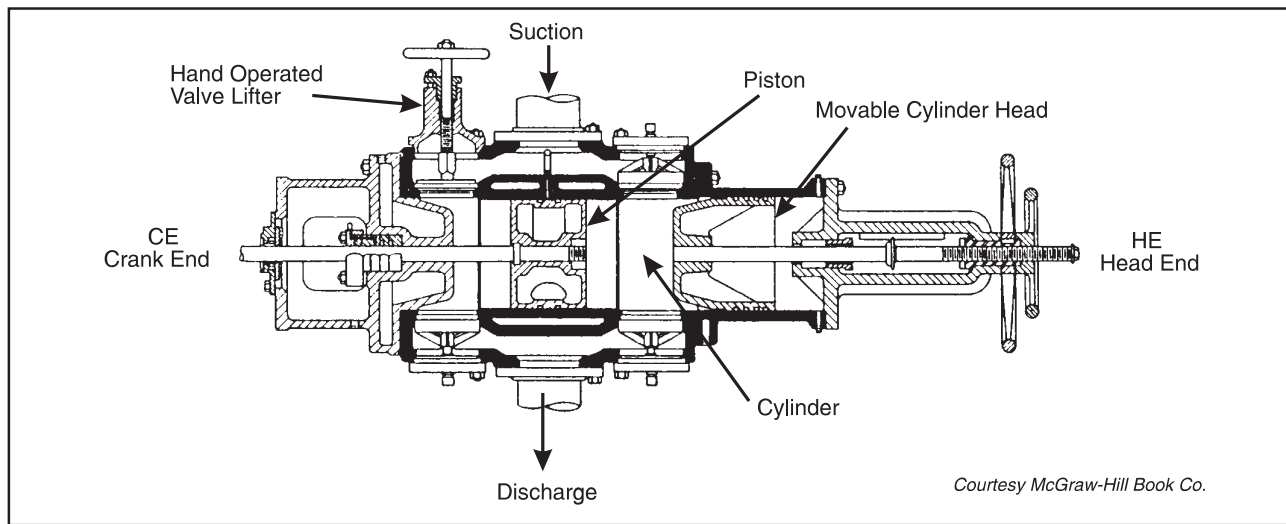
Having determined the necessary volume of the bottle, the proportioning of diameter and length to provide this volume requires some ingenuity and judgment. It is desirable that manifolds be as short and of as large diameter as is consistent with pressure conditions, space limitations, and appearance.

A good general rule is to make the manifold diameter 1-1/2 times the inside diameter of the largest cylinder connected to it, but this is not always practicable, particularly where large cylinders are involved.

Inside diameter of pipe must be used in figuring manifolds. This is particularly important in high-pressure work and in small sizes where wall thickness may be a considerable percentage of the cross sectional area. Minimum manifold length is

FIG. 13-18

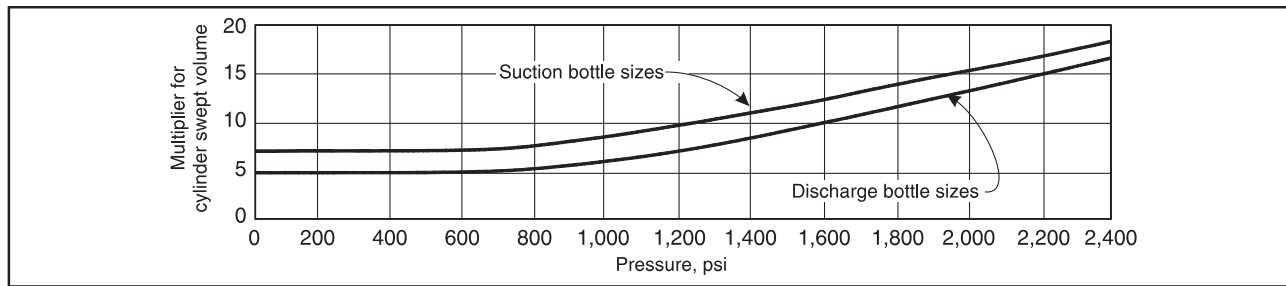
Sectional View of a Cylinder Equipped with a Hand-Operated Valve Lifter and Variable-Volume Clearance



Courtesy McGraw-Hill Book Co.

FIG. 13-19

Approximate Bottle Sizing Chart



determined from cylinder center distances and connecting pipe diameters. Some additions must be made to the minimum thus determined to allow for saddle reinforcements and for welding of caps.

It is customary to close the ends of manifolds with welding caps which add both volume and length. Fig. 13-20 gives approximate volume and length of standard caps.

Pulsation Dampeners (Snubbers)

A pulsation dampener is an internally-baffled device. The design of the pulsation dampening equipment is based on an acoustical study which takes into account the specified operating speed range, conditions of unloading, and variations in gas composition.

Analog evaluation is accomplished with an active analog that simulates the entire compressor, pulsation dampeners, piping and equipment system and considers dynamic interactions among these elements.

Pulsation dampeners also should be mounted as close as possible to the cylinder, and in large volume units, nozzles should be located near the center of the chamber to reduce unbalanced forces.

Pulsation dampeners are typically guaranteed for a maximum residual peak-to-peak pulsation pressure of 2% of average absolute pressure at the point of connection to the piping system, and pressure drop through the equipment of not more than 1% of the absolute pressure. This applies at design condition and not necessarily for other operating pressures and flows. A detailed discussion of recommended design approaches for pulsation suppression devices is presented in API Standard 618, Reciprocating Compressors for General Refinery Services.

As pressure vessels, all pulsation chambers (volume bottles and dampeners) are generally built to Section VIII of ASME Code and suitable for applicable cylinder relief valve set pressure.

Suction pulsation chambers are often designed for the same pressure as the discharge units, or for a minimum of 2/3 of the design discharge pressure.

Torsional Analysis

All rotating equipment experiences a torsional load. Examples of torsional loads are:

- inertia and gas loads from the pistons in a reciprocating compressor or engine; or
- the torque fluctuations from a synchronous motor during startup.

A complete drive train (for example reciprocating compressor, coupling, and an electric motor) will have torsional natural frequencies. Those torsional natural frequencies are analogous to mechanical natural frequencies of piping or the compressor shaft. For the mechanical natural frequency, the deflection occurs in a horizontal or vertical direction. For a torsional natural frequency, the deflection is a twisting about the axis of the shaft. Consider fixing one end of a shaft and twisting the free end; when released the shaft will rotate back and forth. The frequency of the oscillation is the torsional natural frequency.

When the system is started and the compressor is loaded what is the impact? Typically the torsional loads will happen at run speed and harmonics. If a torsional natural frequency occurs near a frequency where there is significant torsional energy, the results can be catastrophic! Destroyed coupling, broken compressor shaft or broken motor shaft are potential consequences of torsional resonance. The cost of repair can be large, but the downtime and cost of having the unit unavailable for 1-2 months is often much larger.

A torsional failure will typically occur without warning. The vibration sensors installed at bearings or on component frames are designed to detect lateral (horizontal or vertical) vibrations, and will not detect torsional problems. The best insurance against a torsional failure is a design study before a unit is built.

A design study will consider each component and the role it plays in the torsional system. Manufacturing tolerances, installation differences, and loading all play a critical part in the system's ability to operate without failure. As well as the normal operating loads, the torsional analysis should consider the loads of other operating scenarios, such as compressor valve failures (upset) or the unit startup (transient).

FIG. 13-20
Welding Caps

Pipe size	Standard weight		Extra strong		Double Extra strong	
	Volume, cu in.	Length, in.	Volume, cu in.	Length, in.	Volume, cu in.	Length, in.
4"	24.2	2½	20.0	2½	15	3
6"	77.3	3½	65.7	3½	48	4
8"	148.5	4 ¹¹ / ₁₆	122.3	4 ¹¹ / ₁₆	120	5
10"	295.6	5¾	264.4	5¾		
12"	517.0	6 ⁷ / ₈	475.0	6 ⁷ / ₈		
14"	684.6	7 ¹³ / ₁₆	640.0	7 ¹³ / ₁₆		
16"	967.6	9	911.0	9		
18"	1432.6	10 ¹ / ₁₆	1363.0	10 ¹ / ₁₆		
20"	2026.4	11¼	1938.0	11¼		
24"	3451.0	13 ⁷ / ₁₆	3313.0	13 ⁷ / ₁₆		

With early involvement by designers, the system can be modified. Changing the coupling size or style, adding a fly-wheel, changing shaft material or size are all easily done if the components have not been built. Modifications to a system that is already built can be expensive and may require re-design. If this occurs, delivery of the unit will be delayed.

Torsional design analyses should be done on all new units unless there is successful operating experience with a similarly configured compressor (the same compressor frame, cylinders, staging, coupling and driver) and similar operating conditions (the same pressures, temperatures and load steps). Consideration should be given to doing a torsional analysis on existing units where the operating conditions will be changed significantly from the existing conditions, and especially if the unit is being restaged.

Troubleshooting

Minor troubles can normally be expected at various times during routine operation of the compressor. These troubles are most often traced to dirt, liquid, and maladjustment, or to operating personnel being unfamiliar with functions of the various machine parts and systems. Difficulties of this type can usually be corrected by cleaning, proper adjustment, elimination of an adverse condition, or quick replacement of a relatively minor part.

Major trouble can usually be traced to long periods of operation with unsuitable coolant or lubrication, careless operation and inadequate maintenance, or the use of the machine on a service for which it was not intended.

A defective inlet valve can generally be found by feeling the valve cover. It will be much warmer than normal. Discharge valve leakage is not as easy to detect since the discharge is always hot. Experienced operators of water-cooled units can usually tell by feel if a particular valve is leaking. The best indication of discharge valve trouble is the discharge temperature. This will rise, sometimes rapidly, when a valve is in poor condition or breaks. This is one very good reason for keeping a record of the discharge temperature from each cylinder.

Recording of the interstage pressure on multistage units is valuable because any variation, when operating at a given load point, indicates trouble in one or the other of the two stages. If the pressure drops, the trouble is in the low pressure cylinder. If it rises, the problem is in the high pressure cylinder.

Troubleshooting is largely a matter of elimination based on a thorough knowledge of the interrelated functions of the various parts and the effects of adverse conditions. A complete list of possible troubles with their causes and corrections is impractical, but the following list of the more frequently encountered troubles and their causes is offered as a guide (Fig. 13-21).

CENTRIFUGAL COMPRESSORS

This section is intended to supply information sufficiently accurate to determine whether a centrifugal compressor should be considered for a specific job. The secondary objective is to present information for evaluating compressor performance.

Fig. 13-22 gives an approximate idea of the flow range that a centrifugal compressor will handle. A multi-wheel (multi-stage) centrifugal compressor is normally considered for inlet volumes between 500 and 200,000 inlet acfm. A single-wheel (single stage) compressor would normally have application between 100 and 150,000 inlet volume. A multiwheel compressor can be thought of as a series of single wheel compressors contained in a single casing.

Fig. 13-22 efficiency values should be used as a reference only. The efficiencies of centrifugal compressors rely on the ability to select optimized impeller flow coefficients for the specified process conditions, and will deteriorate for non-optimal impeller flow coefficients and high compression ratios or compressors with more than 4–5 impellers.

These efficiencies reflect compressor designs after say 1998; in general earlier designs could be 4% lower in efficiency.

Most centrifugal compressors operate at speeds of 3,000 rpm or higher, a limiting factor being impeller stress considerations as well as velocity limitation of 0.8 to 0.85 Mach number at the impeller tip and eye. Recent advances in machine design have resulted in production of some units running at speeds in excess of 40,000 rpm.

Centrifugal compressors are usually driven by electric motors, steam or gas turbines (with or without speed-increasing gears), or turboexpanders.

There is an overlap of centrifugal and reciprocating compressors on the low end of the flow range, see Fig. 13-3. On the higher end of the flow range an overlap with the axial compressor exists. The extent of this overlap depends on a number of things. Before a technical decision could be reached as to the type of compressor that would be installed, the service, operational requirements, and economics would have to be considered.

Design requirements for centrifugal compressors are covered by API Standard 617.

Components of Centrifugal Compressors

Figs. 13-23 through 13-25 provide cross sectional drawings and identification of major components for typical centrifugal compressors. The essential components of a centrifugal compressor that accomplish the compression task are described in the following text referring to Figure 13-24. The gas entering the inlet nozzle of the compressor is guided (often with the help of guide vanes) to the inlet of the impeller. An impeller consists of a number of rotating vanes that impart mechanical energy to the gas. As we will see later, the gas will leave the impeller with an increased velocity and increased static pressure. In the diffuser, part of the velocity is converted into static pressure. Diffusers can be vaneless or contain a number of vanes. If the compressor has more than one impeller, the gas will be again brought in front of the next impeller through the return channel and the return vanes. If the compressor has only one impeller, or after the diffuser of the last impeller in a multi stage compressor, the gas enters the discharge system. The discharge system can either make use of a volute, which can further convert velocity into static pressure, or a simple cavity that collects the gas before it exits the compressor through the discharge nozzle.

The rotating part of the compressor consists of all the impellers. This rotor runs on two radial bearings (on all modern compressors, these are hydrodynamic tilting pad bearings), while the axial thrust generated by the impellers is balanced by a balance piston, and the resulting force is balanced by a hydrodynamic tilting pad thrust bearing.

To keep the gas from escaping at the shaft ends, dry gas seals are typically used on both shaft ends. Other seal types have been used in the past, but virtually all modern centrifugal compressors used in the oil and gas industry use dry gas seals. Refer to the Dry Gas Seals discussion for additional information.

The entire assembly is contained in a casing. For discharge pressures below about 3400 kPa (500 psi), the casing is horizontally split to allow the installation of the rotating components. For higher pressures, the compressors are usually of the barrel type. The pressure containing casing, consists of a center body with end caps on either end. Bearings, seals, shaft and aerodynamic components (both rotating and stationary) can slide in and out of the center body once one of the endcaps is removed (Fig 13-25).

Performance Calculations

The operating characteristics must be determined before an evaluation of compressor suitability for the application can be made. Fig. 13-26 gives a rough comparison of the characteristics of the axial, centrifugal, and reciprocating compressor.

The centrifugal compressor approximates the constant head-variable volume machine, while the reciprocating is a constant volume-variable head machine. The axial compressor, which is a low head, high flow machine, falls somewhere in between. A compressor is a part of the system, and its performance is dictated by the system resistance. The desired system capability or objective must be determined before a compressor can be selected.

Fig. 13-27 is a typical performance map which shows the basic shape of performance curves for a variable-speed centrifugal compressor. The curves are affected by many variables, such as desired compression ratio, type of gas, number of wheels, sizing of compressor, etc.

FIG. 13-21
Probable Causes of Reciprocating Compressor Trouble

Trouble	Probable Cause(s)
Compressor Will not Start	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Power supply failure. 2. Switchgear or starting panel. 3. Low oil pressure shutdown switch. 4. Control panel.
Motor Will Not Synchronize	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Low voltage. 2. Excessive starting torque. 3. Incorrect power factor. 4. Excitation voltage failure.
Low Oil Pressure	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Oil pump failure. 2. Oil foaming from counterweights striking oil surface. 3. Cold oil. 4. Dirty oil filter. 5. Interior frame oil leaks. 6. Excessive leakage at bearing shim tabs and/or bearings. 7. Improper low oil-pressure switch setting. 8. Low gear oil pump by-pass/relief valve setting. 9. Defective pressure gauge. 10. Plugged oil sump strainer. 11. Defective oil relief valve.
Noise In Cylinder	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Loose piston. 2. Piston hitting outer head or frame end of cylinder. 3. Loose crosshead lock nut. 4. Broken or leaking valve(s). 5. Worn or broken piston rings or expanders. 6. Valve improperly seated/damaged seat gasket. 7. Free air unloader plunger chattering.
Excessive Packing Leakage	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Worn packing rings. 2. Improper lube oil and/or insufficient lube rate (blue rings). 3. Dirt in packing. 4. Excessive rate of pressure increase. 5. Packing rings assembled incorrectly. 6. Improper ring side- or end-gap clearance. 7. Plugged packing vent system. 8. Scored piston rod. 9. Excessive piston rod run-out.
Packing Over-Heating	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Lubrication failure. 2. Improper lube oil and/or insufficient lube rate. 3. Insufficient cooling.
Excessive Carbon On Valves	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Excessive lube oil. 3. Oil carryover from inlet system or previous stage. 4. Broken or leaking valves causing high temperature. 5. Excessive temperature due to high pressure ratio across cylinders.
Relief Valve Popping	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Faulty relief valve. 2. Leaking suction valves or rings on next higher stage. 3. Obstruction (foreign material, rags), blind or valve closed in discharge line.
High Discharge Temperature	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Excessive compression ratio on cylinder due to leaking inlet valves or rings on next higher stage. 2. Fouled intercooler/piping. 3. Leaking discharge valves or piston rings. 4. High inlet temperature. 5. Fouled water jackets on cylinder. 6. Improper lube oil and/or lube rate.
Frame Knocks	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Loose crosshead pin, pin caps or crosshead shoes. 2. Loose/worn main, crankpin or crosshead bearings. 3. Low oil pressure. 4. Cold oil. 5. Incorrect oil. 6. Knock is actually from cylinder end.
Crankshaft Oil Seal Leaks	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Faulty seal installation. 2. Clogged drain hole.
Piston Rod Oil Scraper Leaks	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Worn scraper rings. 2. Scrapers incorrectly assembled. 3. Worn/scored rod. 4. Improper fit of rings to rod/side clearance.

Courtesy of Ingersoll-Rand Co

FIG. 13-22

Approximate Centrifugal Compressor Flow Range

Nominal flow range (inlet acfm)	Average polytropic efficiency	Average isentropic efficiency	Speed to develop 10,000 ft head/wheel
100- 500	0.68	0.65	20,500
500- 7,500	0.78	0.76	10,500
7,500- 20,000	0.84	0.81	8,200
20,000- 33,000	0.84	0.81	6,500
33,000- 55,000	0.84	0.81	4,900
55,000- 80,000	0.84	0.81	4,300
80,000-115,000	0.84	0.81	3,600
115,000-145,000	0.84	0.81	2,800
145,000-200,000	0.84	0.81	2,500

With variable speed, the centrifugal compressor can deliver constant capacity at variable pressure, variable capacity at constant pressure, or a combination variable capacity and variable pressure.

Similarity Law (Fan Law)

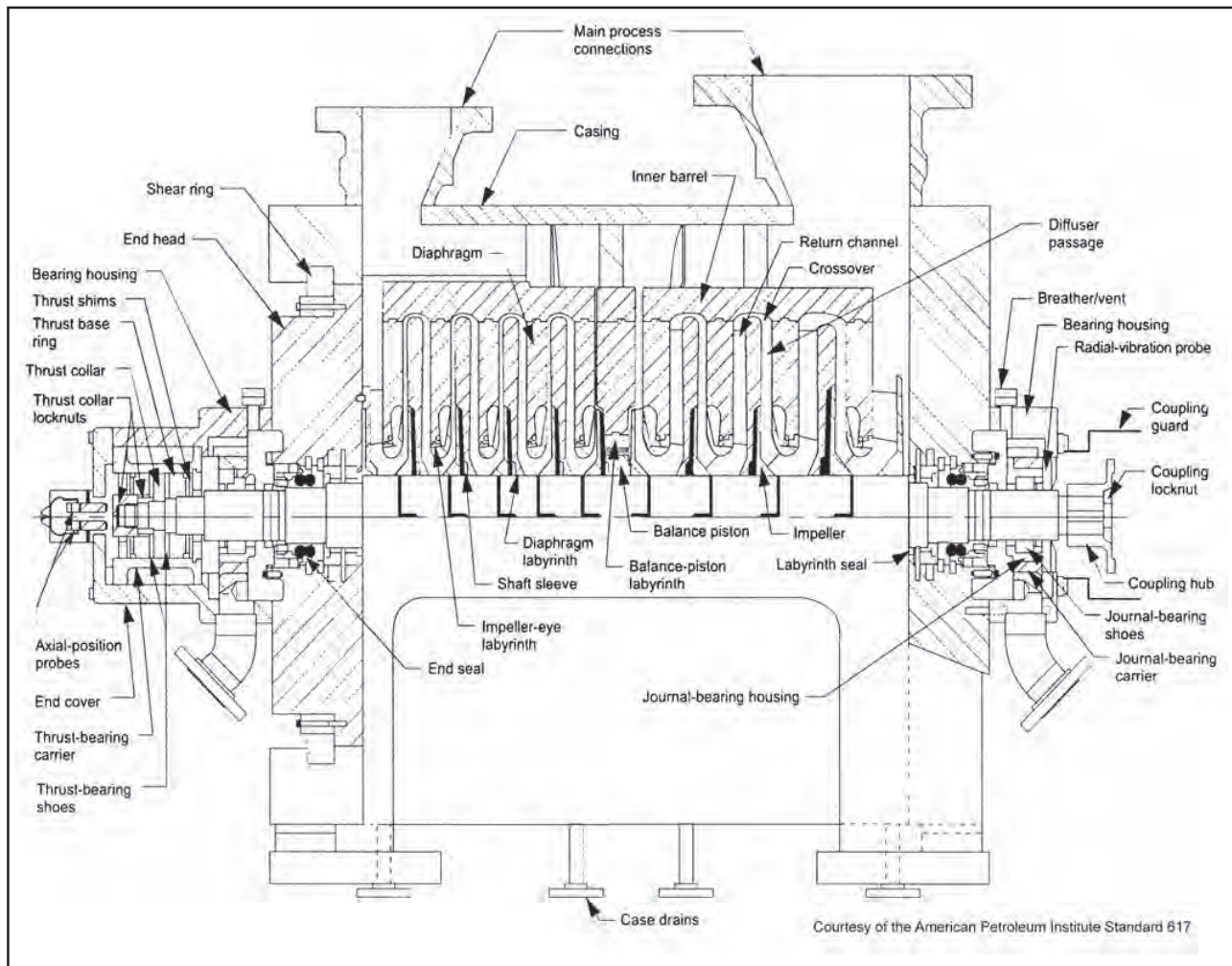
Under certain simplifying conditions, operating points of a compressor at different speeds can be compared (Kurz and Ohanian, 2003). This fact is captured in the fan law, which is strictly only true for identical Mach numbers in all stages, but which is still a good approximation for cases where the machine Mach number:

$$M_N = \frac{u}{\sqrt{k_1 Z_1 R T_1}} \tag{Eq 13-22}$$

changes by less than 10% (for single and two stage compressors). The more stages the compressor has, the less deviation is acceptable (Kurz and Fozi, 2002). The fan law is based on the fact that if for two operating points A and B all velocities change by the same factor (which in particular means that none of the flow angles change), then the compressor will show the follow-

FIG. 13-23

Example Centrifugal Compressor Showing Nomenclature of Key Parts



Courtesy of the American Petroleum Institute Standard 617



PROCESS GAS COMPRESSORS

API 618 RECIPROCATING
COMPRESSORS

API 617 INTEGRALLY GEARED
CENTRIFUGAL
COMPRESSORS



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ing relations between two different operating points :

$$\frac{Q_A}{N_A} = \frac{Q_B}{N_B} \quad \text{Eq 13-23a}$$

$$\frac{H_{isA}}{N_A^2} = \frac{H_{isB}}{N_B^2} \quad \text{Eq 13-23b}$$

$$\eta_A = \eta_B$$

and therefore

$$\frac{GHP_A}{N_A^3} = \frac{GHP_B}{N_B^3} \quad \text{Eq 13-24}$$

This does not imply that the system within which the compressor operates will force the compressor to operate along the fan line. In general, the system will enforce a head and flow relationship that is not (at least not exactly) following the fan law. The intersection of the new resulting system pressure (not described by the fan law), and the new operating condition of the compressor (as described by the fan law) sets the new operating condition of the system.

Fig. 13-27 depicts typical performance curves with a small compression ratio. The system resistance has been superimposed on the chart: Line A represents typical system resistance of a closed system, such as a refrigeration unit where there is a relatively constant discharge pressure. Line B is an open-end

system, such as pipeline application where pressure increases with capacity.

Fig. 13-28 shows a higher compression ratio. The range of stable operation is reduced because of the larger compression ratio. This is indicated by the surge line in Fig. 13-28 being further to the right than in Fig. 13-27.

Estimating Performance

Figs. 13-29 through 13-36 may be used for estimating compressor performance. These curves are only suitable for estimating only and are not intended to take the place of a “wheel-by-wheel” selection by the compressor manufacturer, nor should the curves be used to calculate performance using field data in an attempt to determine a variance from predicted performance based on manufacturer’s data. Fig. 13-29 is used to convert scfm to icfm. All centrifugal compressors are based on flows that are converted to inlet or actual cubic feet per minute. This is done because the centrifugal wheel is sensitive to inlet volume, compression ratio (i.e., head), and specific speed.

Fig. 13-30 is a useful curve to find inlet (actual) cfm when the weight flow in lb/min is known. Actual cfm and inlet cfm both denote the gas at suction conditions. These terms are often used interchangeably. This curve can be used in reverse to determine mass flow.

FIG. 13-24
Typical Centrifugal Compressor Cutaway

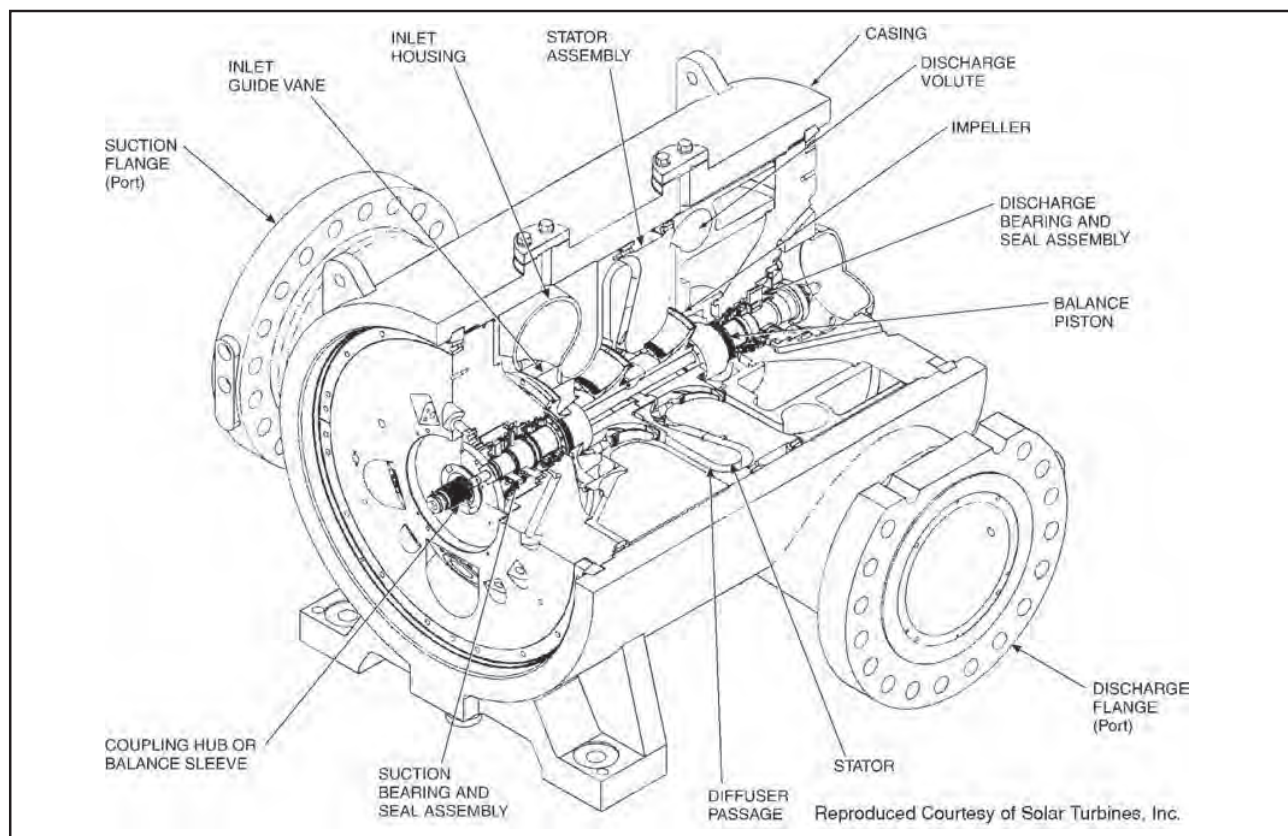


Fig. 13-31 is used to determine the approximate discharge temperature that is produced by the compression ratio. Discharge temperatures above the 400°F range should be checked since mechanical problems as well as safety problems may exist. This curve includes compressor efficiencies in the range of 60 to 75%.

Example 13-4 — Given: $r = 10.0$; $Q_1 = 10,000$ icfm
 $k = 1.15$; $t_1 = 0^\circ\text{F}$

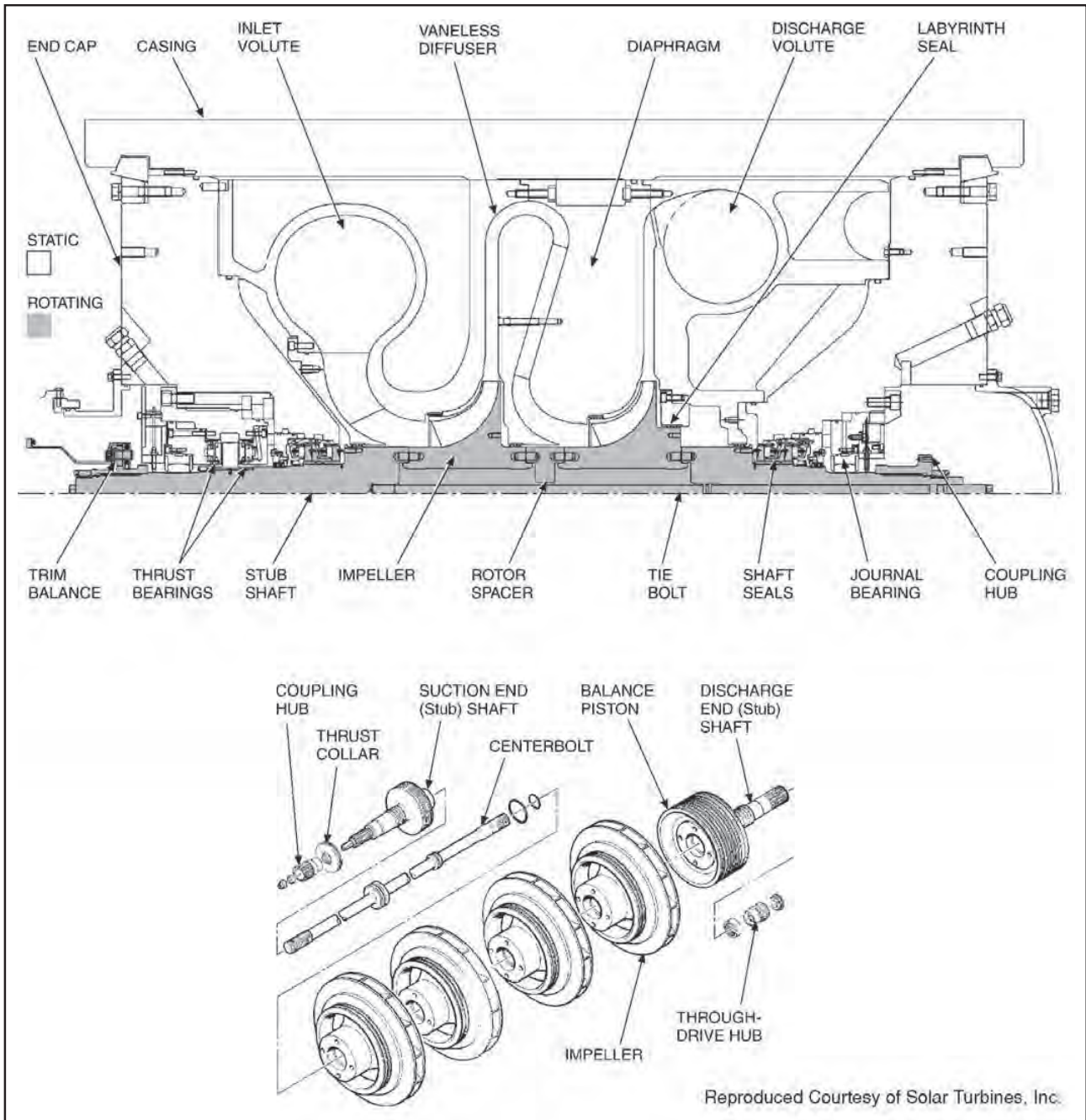
Find: Discharge temperature

Answer: $t_2 = 230^\circ\text{F}$ (approximately) from Fig. 13-31.

Note: for a natural gas with $k = 1.30$ $t_2 = 480^\circ\text{F}$ (excessively high).

Fig. 13-33 gives the approximate horsepower required for the compression. It includes overall compressor efficiencies in the range of 60 to 70%.

FIG. 13-25
Centrifugal Compressor Cross Section



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FIG. 13-26
Compressor Head

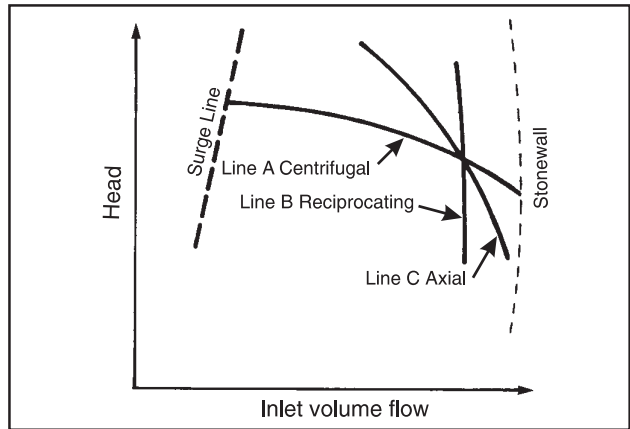
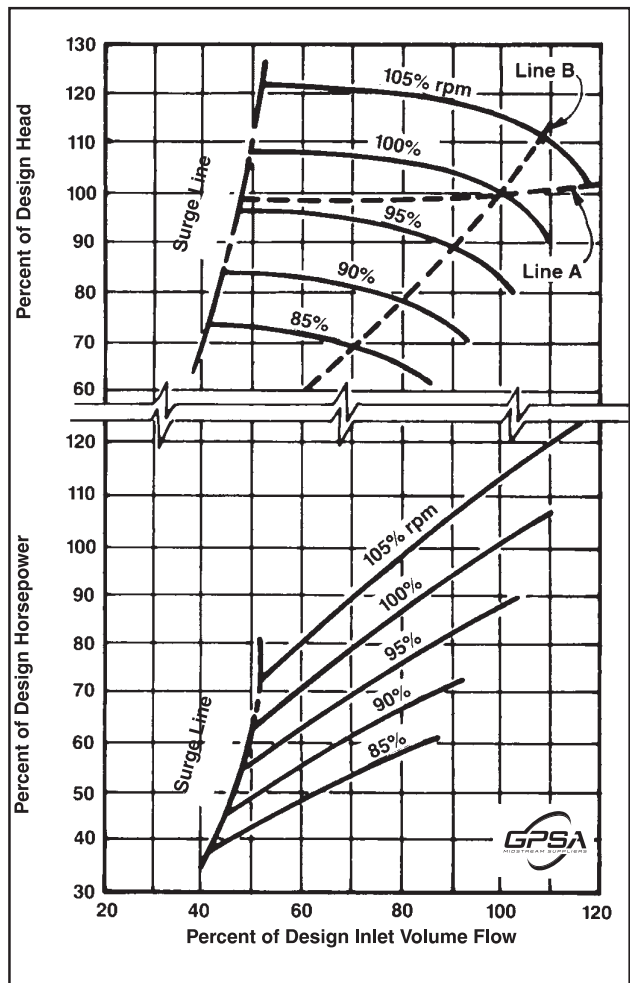


FIG. 13-27
Compressor Performance, Low Compression Ratio



Example 13-5 — Given: Weight flow, w , = 1,000 lb/min
 head = 70 000 ft-lb/lb

Find: Horsepower

Answer: GHP = 3,000 from Fig. 13-33.

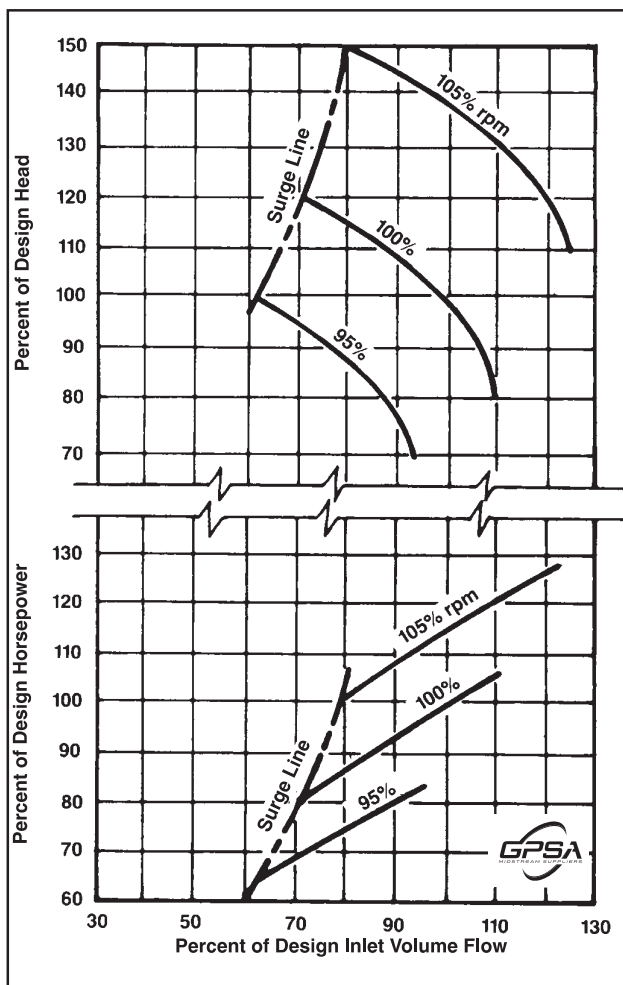
Fig. 13-36 predicts the approximate number of compressor wheels required to produce the head. If the number of wheels is not a whole number, use the next highest number.

Calculating Performance

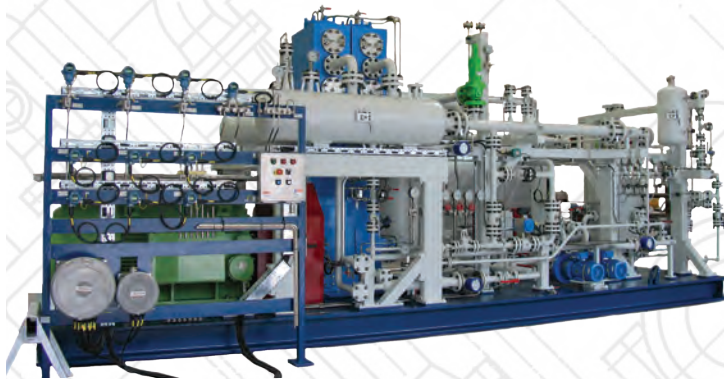
When more accurate information is required for compressor head, gas horsepower, and discharge temperature, the equations in this section should be used. This method applies to a gas mixture for which a P-H diagram chart is not available. To calculate the properties of the gas, see Figs. 13-6 and 13-7. All values for pressure and temperature in these calculation procedures are the absolute values. Unless otherwise specified, volumes of flow in this section are actual volumes.

FIG. 13-28

Compressor Performance, Higher Compression Ratio



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FIG. 13-29
 ICFM to SCFM
 Z = 1

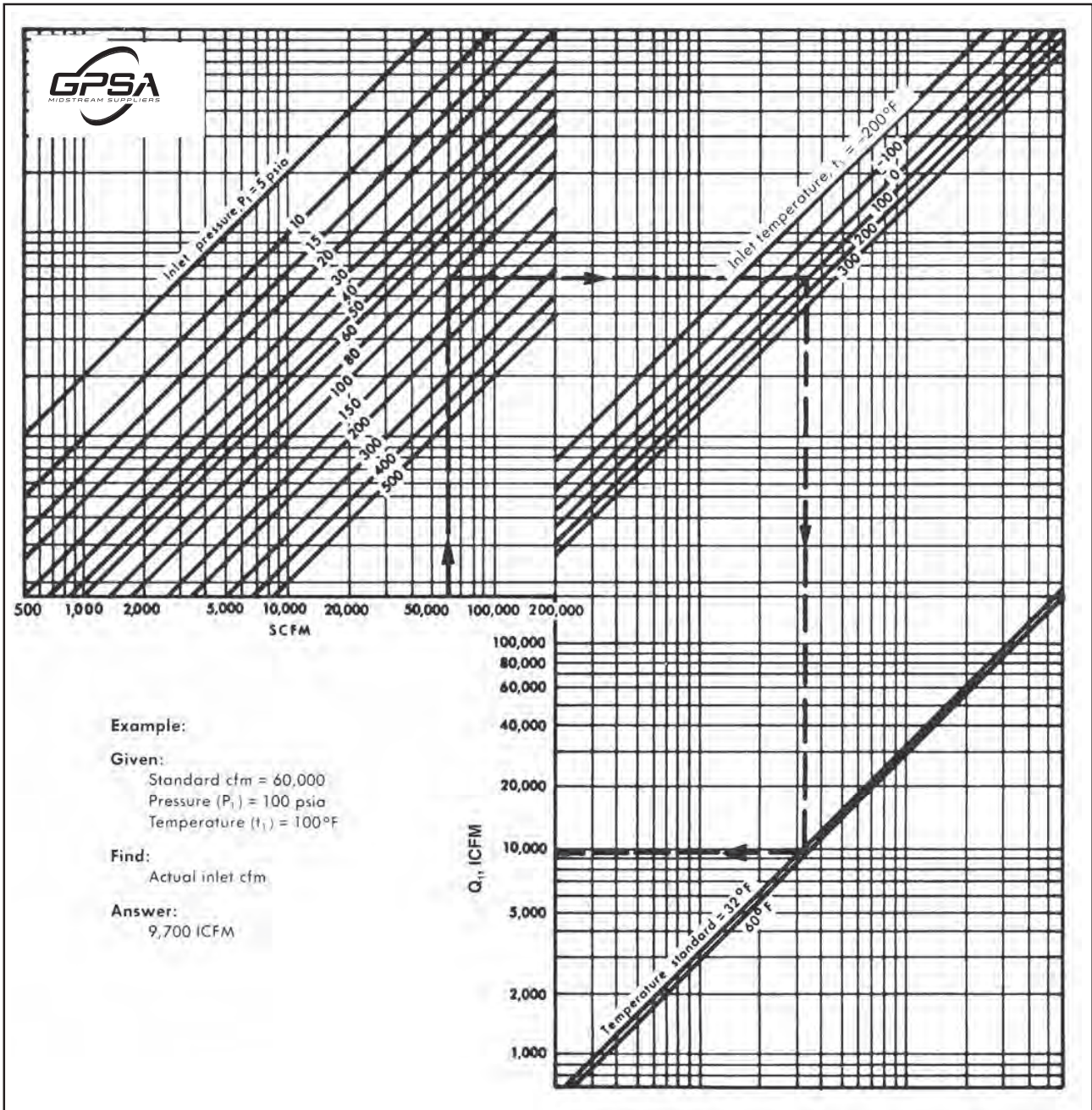


FIG. 13-30
Mass Flow to Inlet Volume Flow
Z = 1

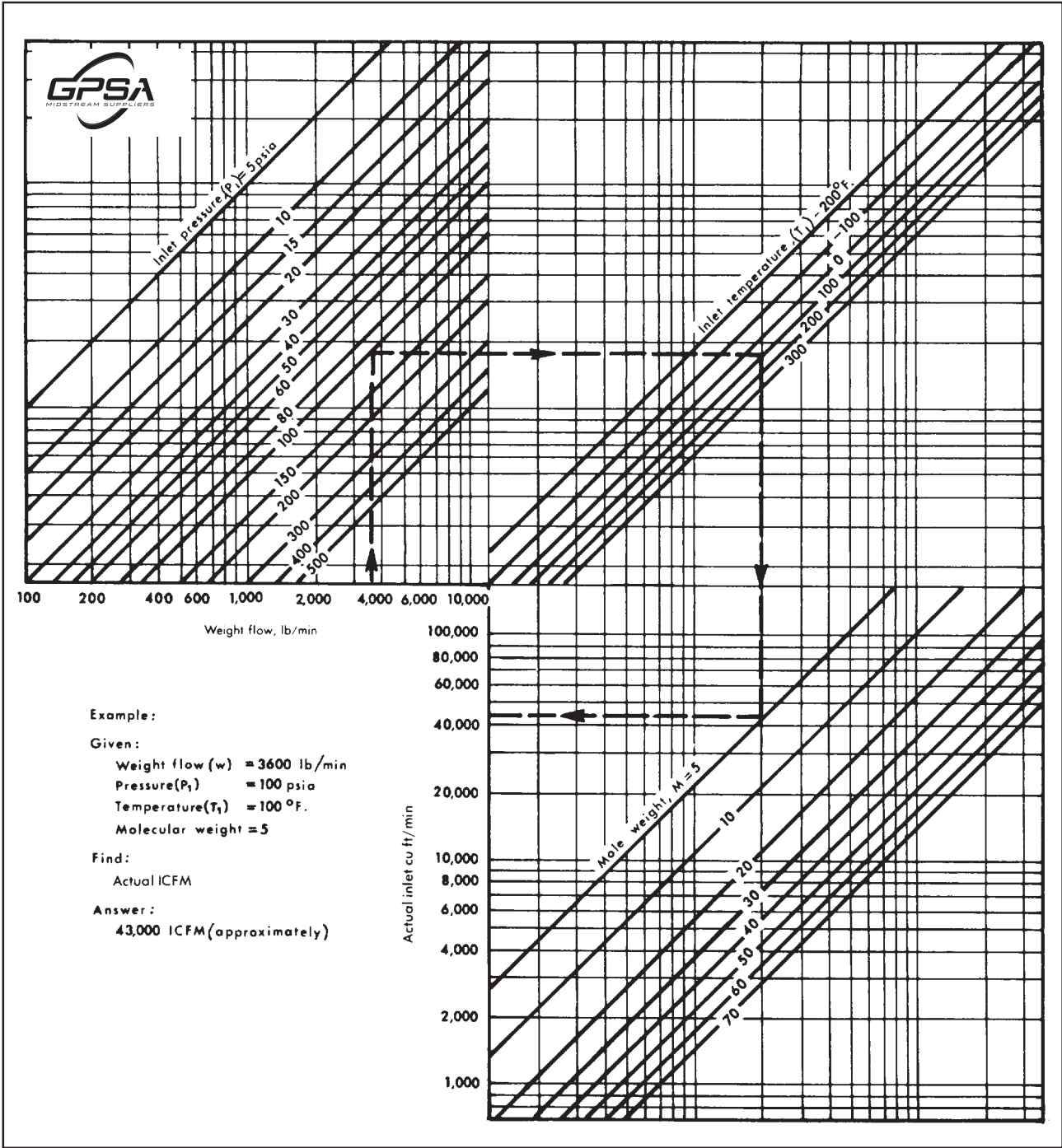


FIG. 13-31
 Approximate Discharge Temperature
 Z = 1

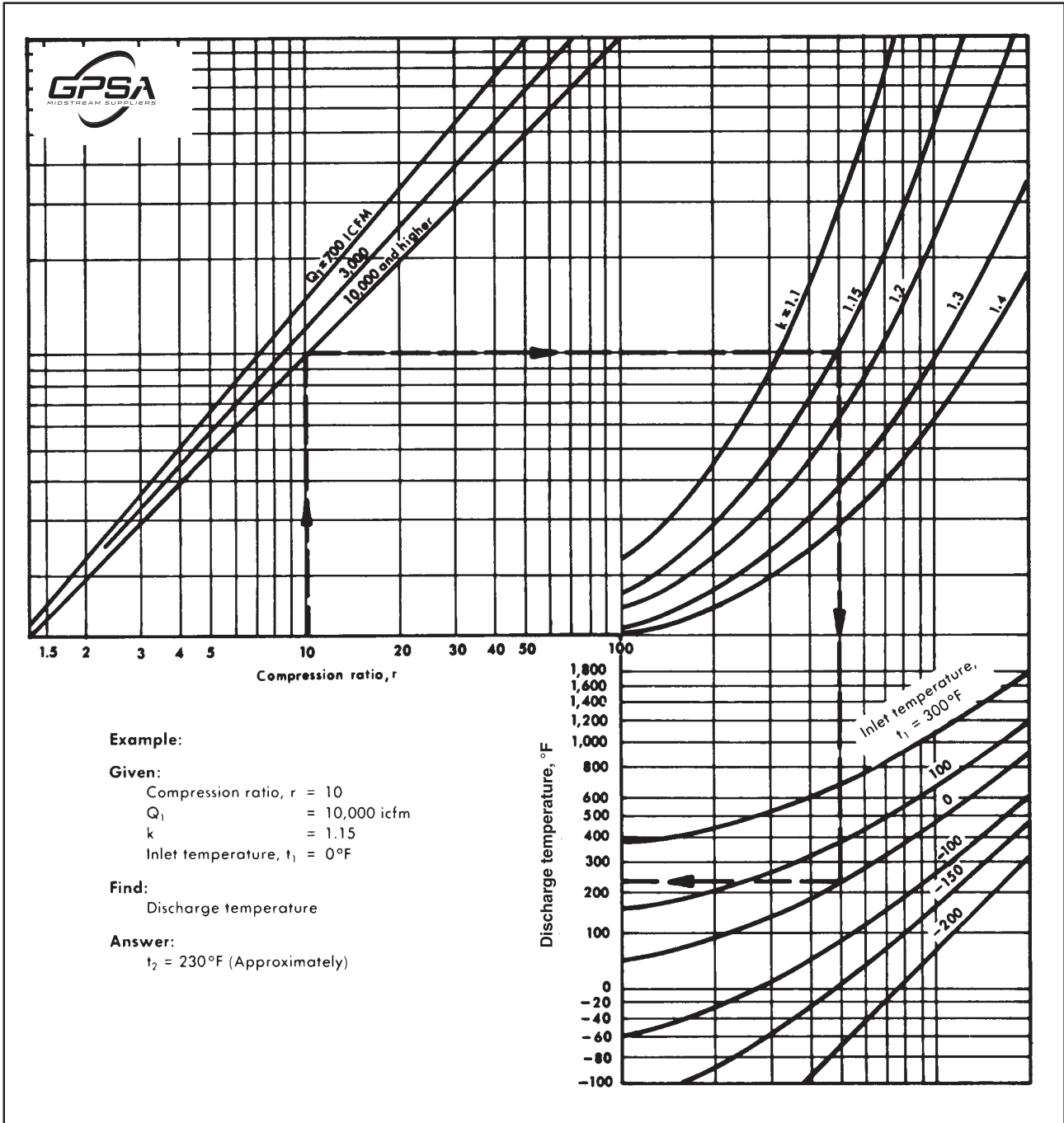
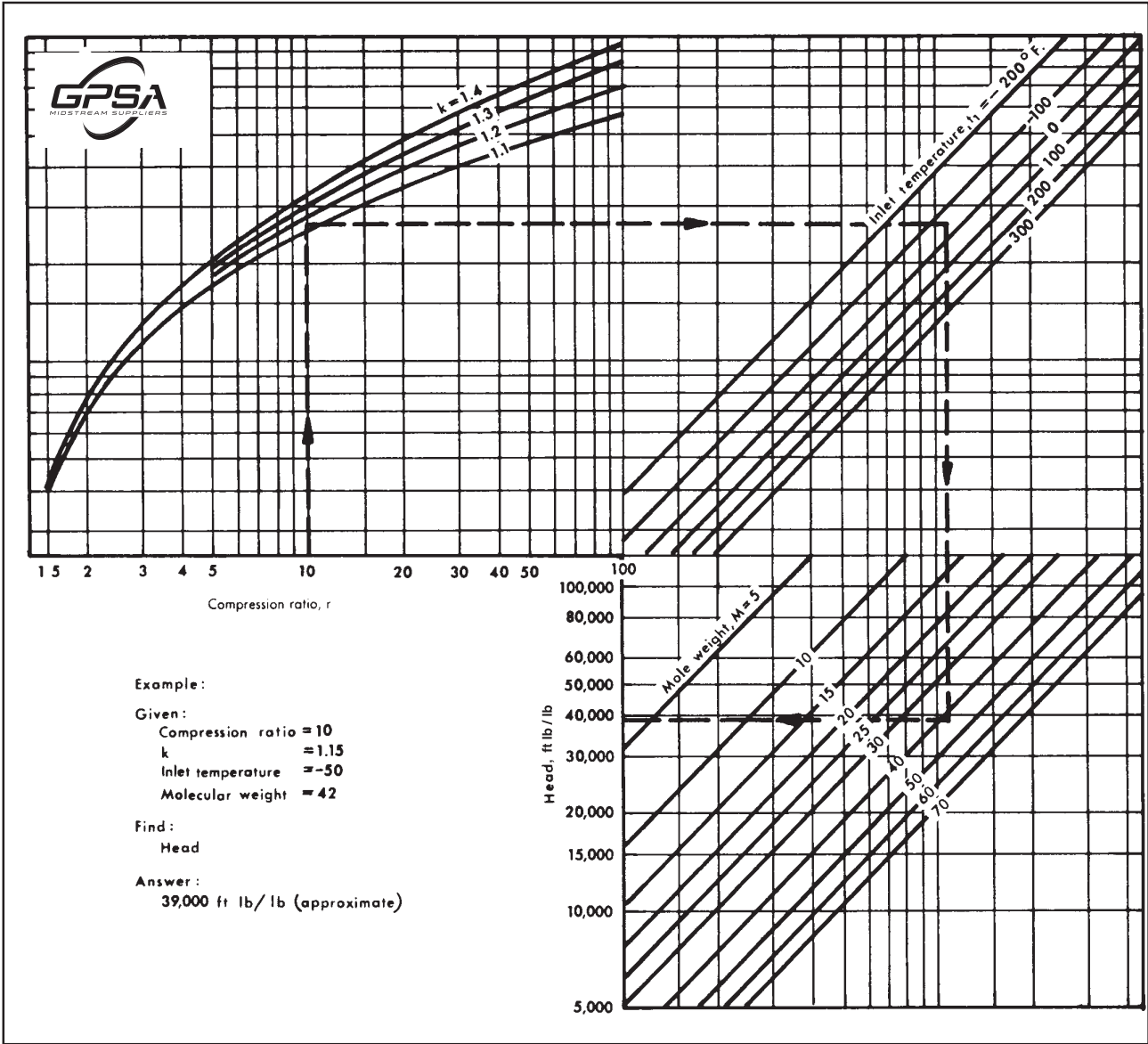


FIG. 13-32
Head
Z = 1





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FIG. 13-33
Approximate Horsepower Determination

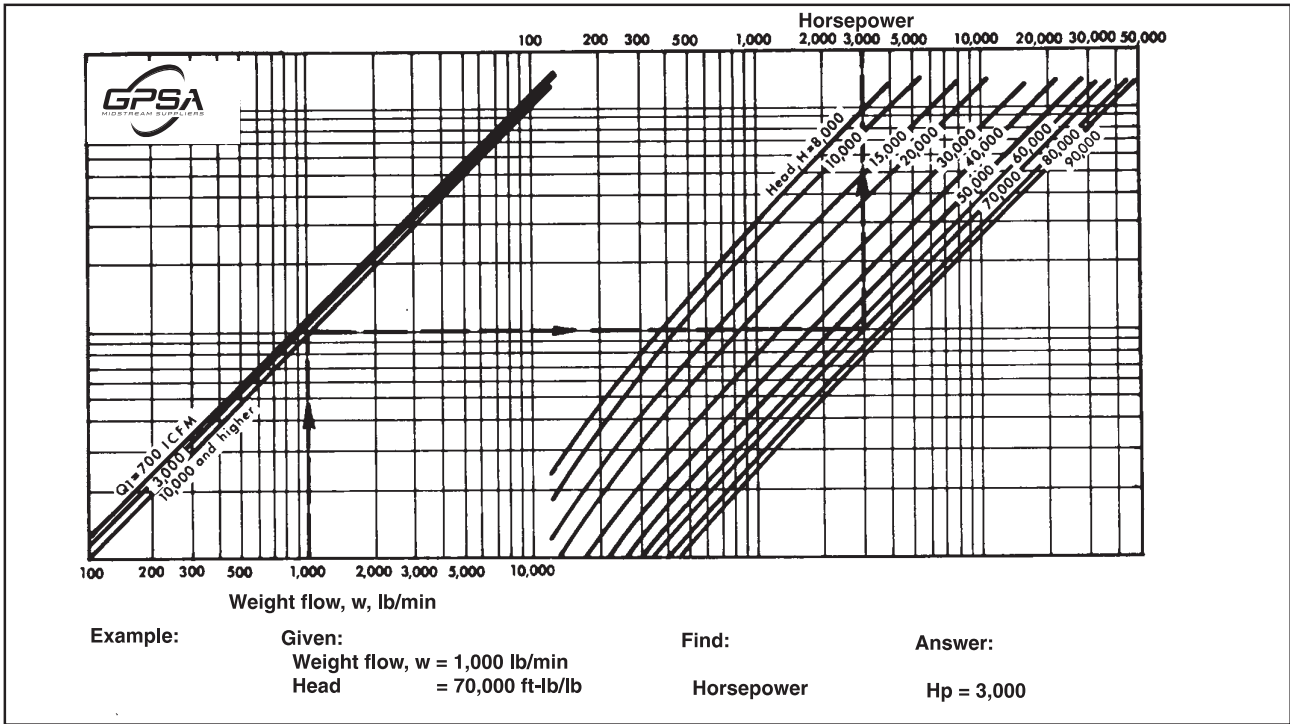
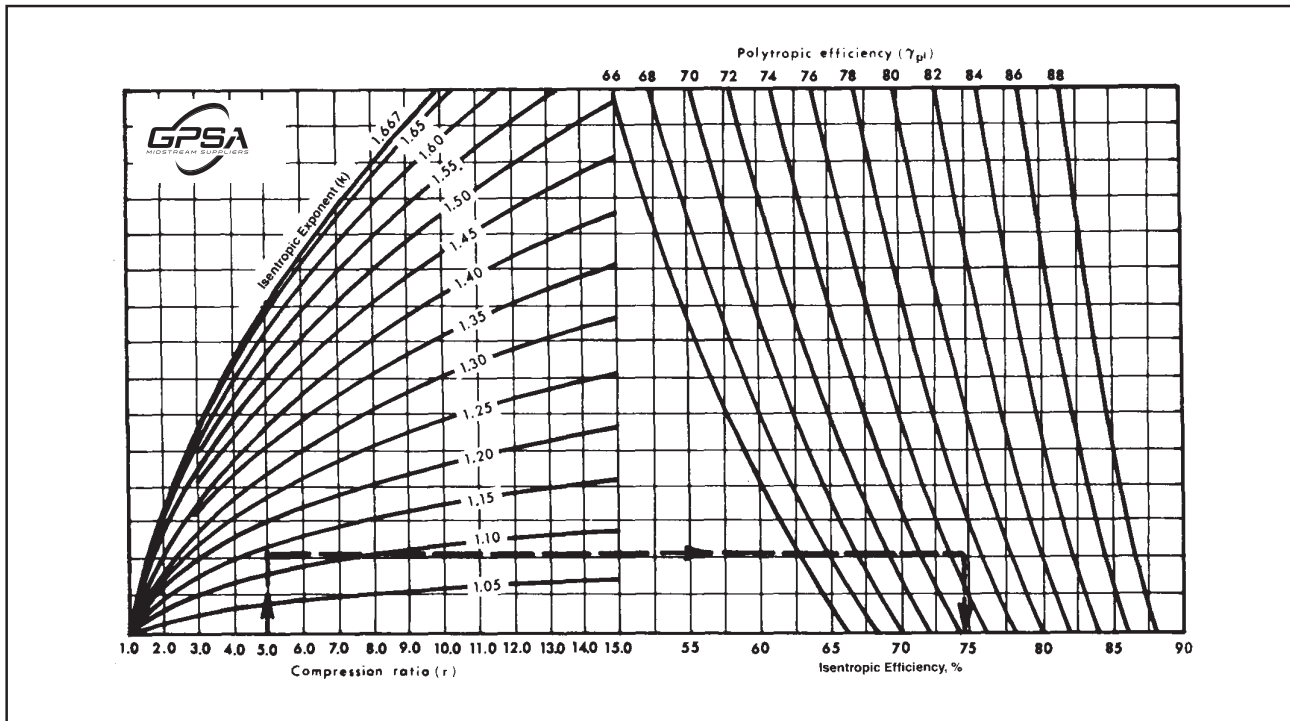


FIG. 13-34
Efficiency Conversion



To calculate the inlet volume:

$$Q = \frac{(w) (1,545) (T_1) (Z_1)}{(MW) (P_1) (144)} \quad \text{Eq 13-25}$$

If we assume the compression to be isentropic (reversible adiabatic, constant entropy), then:

$$H_{is} = \frac{ZRT}{MW (k-1)/k} \left[\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1} \right)^{(k-1)/k} - 1 \right] \quad \text{Eq 13-26}$$

Since these calculations will not be wheel-by-wheel, the head will be calculated across the entire machine. For this, use the average compressibility factor:

$$Z_{avg} = \frac{Z_1 + Z_2}{2}$$

The heat capacity ratio, k , is normally determined at the average suction and discharge temperature (see Figs. 13-7 and 13-8).

Isentropic Calculation

To calculate the head:

$$H_{is} = \frac{Z_{avg}RT_1}{MW (k-1)/k} \left[\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1} \right)^{(k-1)/k} - 1 \right] \quad \text{Eq 13-27a}$$

which can also be written in the form:

$$H_{is} = \frac{1545}{MW} \frac{Z_{avg}T_1}{(k-1)/k} \left[\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1} \right)^{(k-1)/k} - 1 \right] \quad \text{Eq 13-27b}$$

The gas horsepower can now be calculated from:

$$GHP = \frac{(w) (H_{is})}{(\eta_{is}) (33,000)} \quad \text{Eq 13-28}$$

The approximate theoretical discharge temperature can be calculated from:

$$\Delta T_{ideal} = T_1 \left[\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1} \right)^{(k-1)/k} - 1 \right] \quad \text{Eq 13-29}$$

$$T_2 = T_1 + \Delta T_{ideal} \quad \text{Eq 13-30}$$

The actual discharge temperature can be approximated:

$$\Delta T_{actual} = T_1 \frac{\left[\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1} \right)^{(k-1)/k} - 1 \right]}{\eta_{is}} \quad \text{Eq 13-31}$$

$$T_2 = T_1 + \Delta T_{actual} \quad \text{Eq 13-32}$$

Polytropic Calculation

Sometimes compressor manufacturers use a polytropic path instead of isentropic. Polytropic efficiency is defined by:

$$\frac{n}{(n-1)} = \left[\frac{k}{(k-1)} \right] \eta_p \quad \text{Eq 13-33}$$

(See Fig. 13-34 for conversion of isentropic efficiency to polytropic efficiency.)

The equations for head and gas horsepower based upon polytropic compression are:

$$H_p = \frac{Z_{avg}RT_1}{MW (n-1)/n} \left[\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1} \right)^{(n-1)/n} - 1 \right] \quad \text{Eq 13-34a}$$

which also can be written in the form:

$$H_p = \frac{1545}{MW} \frac{Z_{avg}T_1}{(n-1)/n} \left[\left(\frac{P_2}{P_1} \right)^{(n-1)/n} - 1 \right] \quad \text{Eq 13-34b}$$

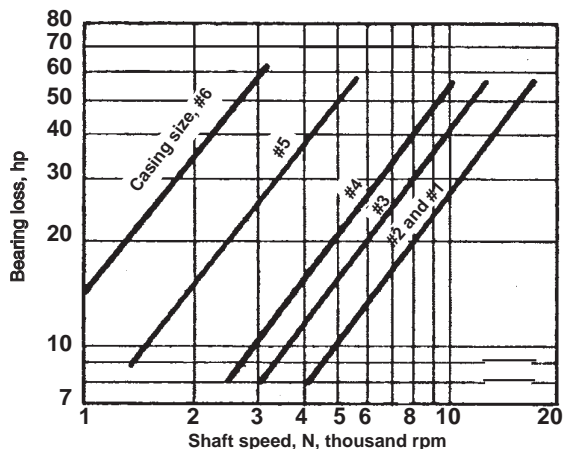
$$GHP = \frac{(w) (H_p)}{(\eta_p) (33,000)} \quad \text{Eq 13-35}$$

Polytropic and isentropic head are related by

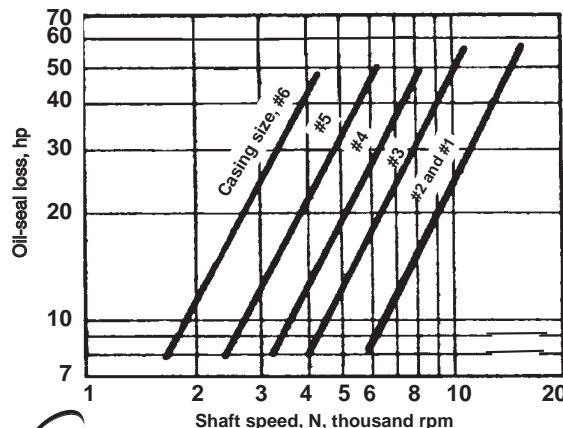
FIG. 13-35
Mechanical Losses

Casing Size	Max Flow (inlet acfm)	Nominal Speed (rpm)
1	7,500	10,500
2	20,000	8,200
3	33,000	6,400
4	55,000	4,900
5	115,000	3,600
6	150,000	2,800

a. Bearing horsepower losses



b. Oil-seal horsepower losses



Courtesy Chemical Engineering Magazine

$$H_p = \frac{H_{is} \eta_p}{\eta_{is}} \quad \text{Eq 13-36}$$

The approximate actual discharge temperature can be calculated in an analogous manner to Equations 13-29 through 13-32 but replacing $(k-1)/k$ and η_{is} with $(n-1)/n$ and η_{poly} respectively.

Mechanical Losses

After the gas horsepower has been determined by either method, horsepower losses due to friction in bearings, seals, and speed increasing gears must be added.

Fig. 13-35 shows losses related to the shaft speed and casing size for conventional multistage units.

Bearings and seal losses can also be roughly computed from Scheel's equation:

$$\text{Mechanical losses} = (\text{GHP})^{0.4} \quad \text{Eq 13-37}$$

To calculate the total compressor horsepower:

$$\text{BHP} = \text{GHP} + \text{mechanical losses} \quad \text{Eq 13-38}$$

The mechanical losses of centrifugal compressors (including windage, bearings) are typically between 1 and 2% of the total power, with the lower number for larger machines. Gearbox losses are usually 2 to 3%, for parallel shaft gearboxes, with the higher number for higher gearbox ratios, especially for gearboxes with an idler gear.

Compressor Speed

The basic equation for estimating the speed of a centrifugal compressor is:

$$N = (N_{\text{nominal}}) \sqrt{\frac{H_{\text{total}}}{(\text{No. of wheels}) (H_{\text{max/wheel}})}} \quad \text{Eq 13-39}$$

where the number of wheels is determined from Fig. 13-36.

Nominal speeds to develop 10,000 feet of head/wheel can be determined from Fig. 13-22. However, to calculate the maximum head per wheel, the following equation based on molecular weight (or more accurately, density) can be used.

$$H_{\text{max/wheel}} = 15,000 - 1,500 (\text{MW})^{0.35} \quad \text{Eq 13-40}$$

This equation will give a head of 10,000 ft for a gas when MW = 30 and 11,000 ft when MW = 16.

P-H Diagram

When a P-H diagram is available for the gas to be compressed, the following procedure should be used. Fig. 13-37 represents a section of a typical P-H diagram.

For the given inlet conditions, the enthalpy can be shown as point 1 on the P-H diagram. For a single compression stage, starting from Point 1 follow the line of constant entropy to the required discharge pressure (P_2), locating the isentropic discharge state point (2_{is}). With these two points located the differential isentropic enthalpy can be calculated from the following equation:

$$\Delta h_{is} = h_{2_{is}} - h_1 \quad \text{Eq 13-41}$$

To convert to isentropic head, the equation is:

$$H_{is} = \Delta h_{is} (778 \text{ ft} \cdot \text{lb/Btu}) \quad \text{Eq 13-42}$$

To find the discharge enthalpy:

$$h_2 = \frac{\Delta h_{is}}{\eta_{is}} + h_1 \quad \text{Eq 13-43}$$

The actual discharge temperature can now be obtained from the P-H diagram. The gas horsepower can be calculated using Equation 13-28 and Equation 13-35.

From Fig. 13-36 and Equations 13-39 and 13-40, the speed and number of wheels can be estimated.

To convert to polytropic head it will be necessary to assume a polytropic efficiency. See Fig. 13-22 for an efficiency corresponding to the inlet flow. Fig. 13-34 will give a corresponding adiabatic efficiency. The polytropic head may now be determined from Equation 13-36.

When a P-H diagram is available, it is the fastest and most accurate method of determining compressor horsepower and discharge temperature.

Centrifugal Refrigeration Compressors

Compression ratio per wheel will vary on the order of 1.5 to 2.75 per wheel depending on the refrigerant and speed.

Due to the ease of applying external side loads to centrifugal machines, it is quite common to flash refrigerant from the condenser en route to the evaporators and/or to accept side loads from product being cooled by refrigerant at higher pressures than the lowest evaporator level.

Since side-loading is the practice rather than the exception, it is common to let the centrifugal compressor manufacturer obtain the desired performance characteristics from the following data: evaporator temperature levels; refrigeration loads required in MMBtu/hr; heat rejection medium (air or water); and type of driver.

GENERAL

Flow Limits

Two conditions associated with centrifugal compressors are surge (pumping) and stone-wall (choked flow).

At some point on the compressor's operating curve there exists a condition of minimum flow/maximum head where the developed head is insufficient to overcome the system resistance. This is the surge point. When the compressor reaches this point, the gas in the discharge piping back-flows into the compressor. Without discharge flow, discharge pressure drops until it is within the compressor's capability, only to repeat the cycle.

The repeated pressure oscillations at the surge point should be avoided since it can be detrimental to the compressor. Surging can cause the compressor to overheat to the point the maximum allowable temperature of the unit is exceeded. Also, surging can cause damage to the thrust bearing due to the rotor shifting back and forth from the active to the inactive side.

"Stonewall" or choked flow occurs when sonic velocity is reached at any point in the compressor. When this point is reached for a given gas, the flow through the compressor cannot be increased further.

FIG. 13-36
Wheels Required

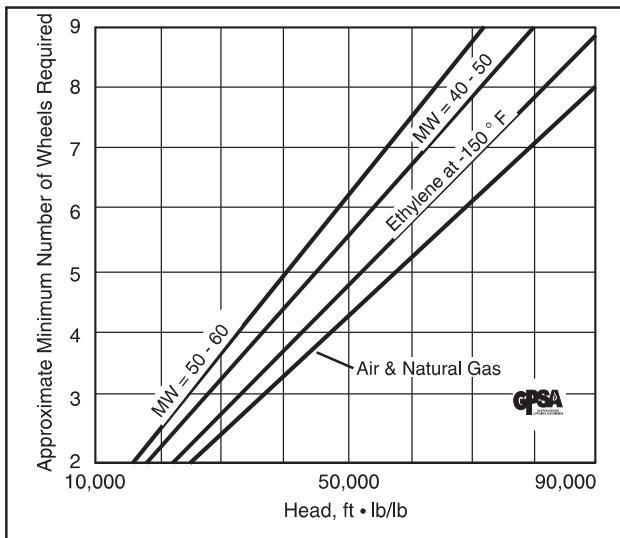
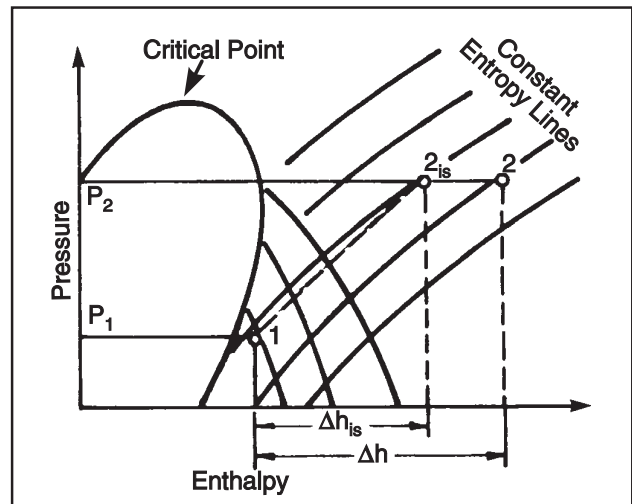


FIG. 13-37
P-H Diagram Construction



Interstage Cooling

Multistage compressors rely on intercooling whenever the inlet temperature of the gas and the required compression ratio are such that the discharge temperature of the gas exceeds about 300°F.

There are certain processes that require a controlled discharge temperature. For example, the compression of gases such as oxygen, chlorine, and acetylene requires that the temperature be maintained below 200°F.

The thermal stress within the horizontal bolted joint is the governing design limitation in a horizontally split compressor case. The vertically split barrel-type case, however, is free from the thermal stress complication.

Substantial power economy can be gained by precooling the gas before it enters the interstage impellers. Performance calculations indicate that the head and the horsepower are directly proportional to the absolute gas temperature at each impeller.

The gas may be cooled within the casing or, more commonly, in external heat exchangers.

Two methods of cooling within the casing are used — water cooled diaphragms between successive stages and direct liquid injection into the gas.

Diaphragm cooling systems include high-velocity water circulation through cast jackets in the diffuser diaphragms. The diaphragm coolers are usually connected in series.

Liquid injection cooling is the least costly means of controlling discharge temperatures. It involves injecting and atomizing a jet of water or a compatible liquid into the return channels. In refrigeration units, liquid refrigerant is frequently used for this purpose. Injected liquid also functions as a solvent in washing the impellers free of deposits. Nevertheless, the hazards of corrosion, erosion, and flooding present certain problems resulting in possible replacement of the compressor rotor.

External intercoolers are commonly used as the most effective means of controlling discharge temperatures. The gas is

discharged from the compressor casing after one or more stages of compression and, after being cooled, is returned to the next stage or series of stages for further compression.

Intercoolers usually are mounted separately. When there are two or more compressor casings installed in series, individual machines may or may not be cooled or have intercoolers. In some cases, it may be advantageous to use an external cooler to precool gas ahead of the first wheel.

Journal and Thrust Bearings

Radial journal bearings are designed to handle high speeds and heavy loads and incorporate force-feed lubrication. They are self-aligning, straight sleeve, multi-lobe sleeve, or tilting pad type, each sized for good damping characteristics and high stability.

Tilting pad bearings have an advantage over the sleeve type as they eliminate oil whip or half-speed oil whirl which can cause severe vibrations.

Bearing sleeves or pads are fitted with replaceable steel-backed babbitted shells or liners.

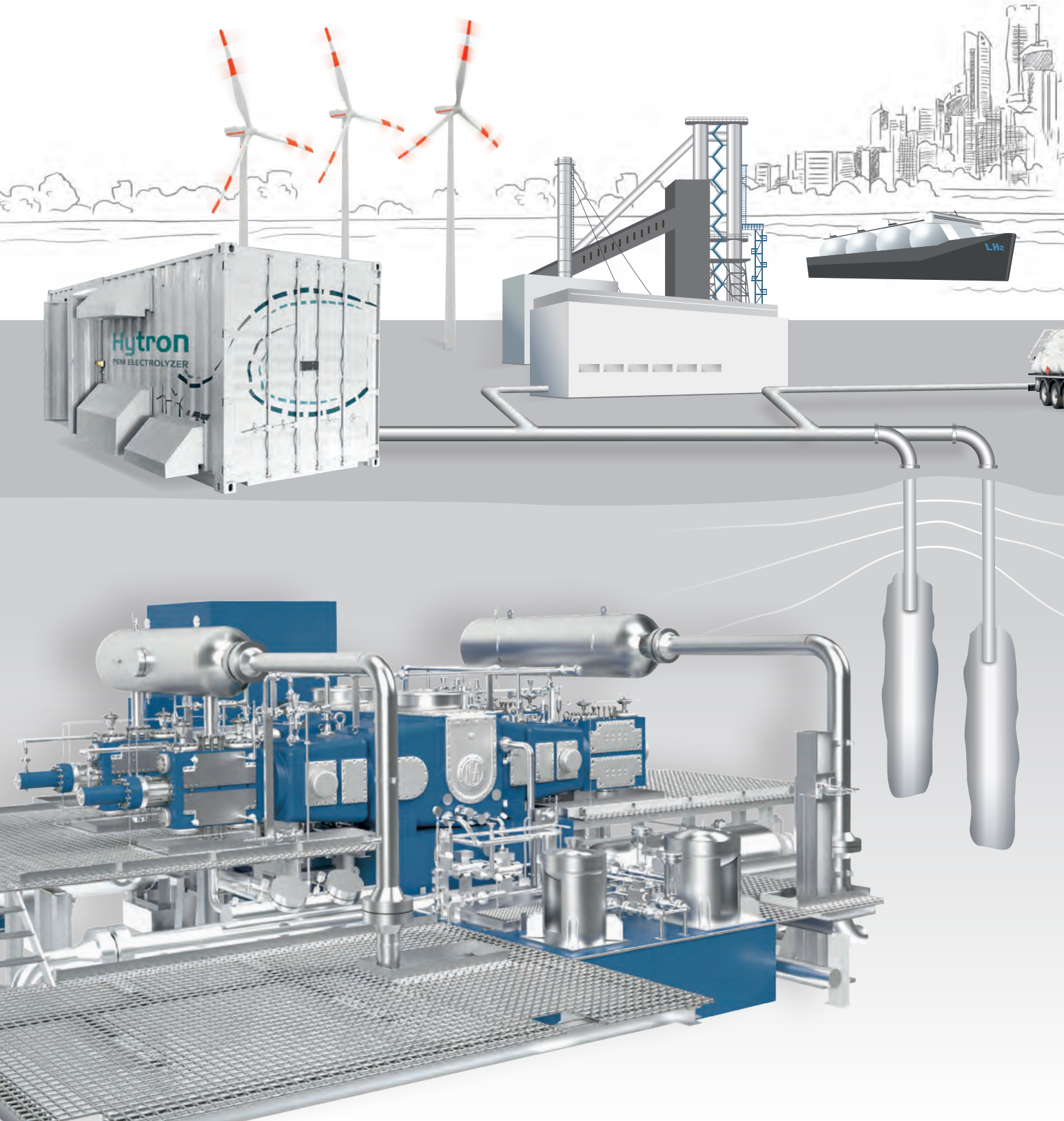
Axial thrust bearings are bidirectional, double faced, pivoted-shoe type designed for equal thrust capacity in both directions and arranged for force-feed lubrication on each side.

Thrust bearings are sized for continuous operation at maximum differential pressure including surge thrust loads, axial forces transmitted from the flexible coupling and electric motor thrust.

On units where the thrust forces are low, a tapered land thrust bearing may be used but must be selected for proper rotation direction. At times a combination of pivoted-shoe and tapered land is recommended.

Compressor designs with impellers arranged in one direction usually have a balance drum (piston) mounted on the discharge end of the shaft to minimize axial loads on the thrust bearing.

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Fig. 13-38 illustrates typical journal and thrust bearings generally used in horizontally and vertically split casings.

Bearing supports are cast integral with, or bolted to, the case with isolated bearing chambers to prevent lubricating oil leakage into the gas system or contamination of the oil or the gas. Bearing housings are horizontally split and readily accessible for inspection and maintenance. Provisions are made to accommodate pick-ups and sensors for vibration and temperature monitoring.

Magnetic Bearings

Magnetic bearings are a relatively new development that are gaining in popularity. An active magnetic bearing comprises two main components — a mechanical part and an electronic part. The mechanical parts of the bearing are similar to an electric motor with a rotor and stator. An iron core in the stator is wound with coils through which is fed an electric current, thereby inducing a magnetic field. This magnetic field produces the forces that support the compressor shaft.

The electronic part of the active magnetic bearing is the digital control system. It includes sensors that measure the exact position of the shaft. Deviations from the desired position of the shaft will trigger the software in the control system to adjust the current flowing through the electromagnets that determine the strength of the magnetic field. The currents are adjusted according to a set algorithm that corrects the deviation. Magnetic bearings are available in radial and axial/thrust designs.

Advantages

- Reduced space/weight requirements due to elimination of the need for a bearing lube oil system
- Reduced long term costs for maintenance and repairs
- Reduced bearing-related losses (near zero friction)
- Increased reliability and availability
- Improved machine monitoring/diagnostic capabilities
- Higher speeds possible.

Limitations

- Generally physically larger than “conventional” bearings
- Higher complexity
- Requires electrical power

See Fig. 13-39 for a schematic of a typical magnetic bearing arrangement.

Shaft Seals

Shaft seals are provided on all centrifugal compressors to limit, or completely eliminate, gas leakage along the shaft where it passes through the casing.

With the wide range of temperature, pressure, speed, and operating conditions encountered by compressors, there can be no one universal seal, or seal system, to handle all applications.

Basically, the designs of seals available are: labyrinth (gas), restrictive ring (oil or gas), liquid film (oil), and mechanical (contact) (oil or gas).

A mechanical (contact) seal, Fig. 13-40, has the basic elements similar to the liquid film seal. The significant difference is that clearances in this seal are reduced to zero. The seal operates with oil pressure 35 to 50 psi above internal gas pressure as opposed to 5 psi in the liquid film seal.

The mechanical (contact) seal can be applied to most gases, but finds its widest use on clean, heavier hydrocarbon gases, refrigerant gases, etc.

A mechanical gas seal uses the process gas as working fluid to eliminate the seal oil system. See Figs. 13-41 through 13-46.

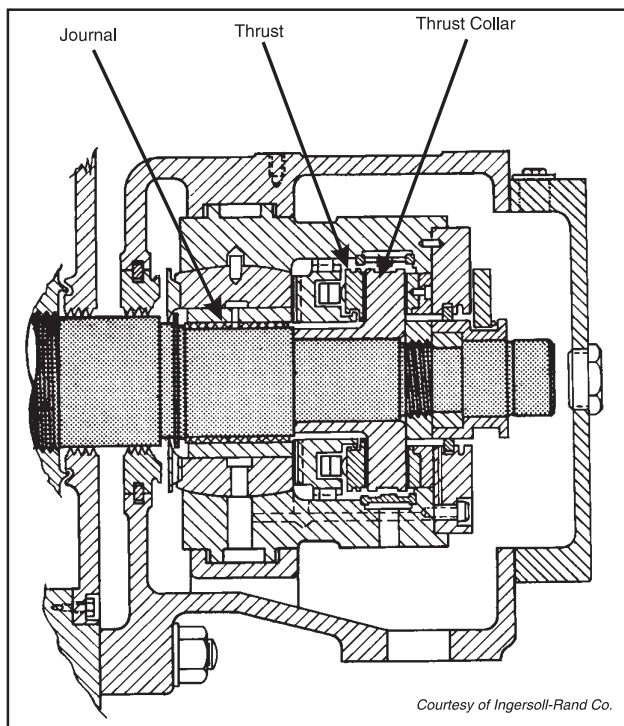
The liquid film seal, Figs. 13-44 and 13-45, was also developed for the severe conditions of service but requires higher oil circulation rate than the mechanical (contact) type.

The seal consists of two sleeves which run at close clearance to the shaft with a liquid injected between the sleeves to flow to the seal extremities. The sleeves are lined with babbitt or a similar non-galling material which is compatible with the properties of the compressed gas and the sealing liquid.

The sealing liquid, usually a lubricating oil, is introduced between the two rings at a controlled differential pressure of about 5 psi above the internal gas pressure, presenting a barrier to direct passage of gas along the shaft. This fluid also performs the very important functions of lubricating the sleeves and removing heat from the seal area.

FIG. 13-38

Journal and Thrust Bearing Assembly



Courtesy of Ingersoll-Rand Co.

FIG. 13-39
Active Magnetic Bearing System

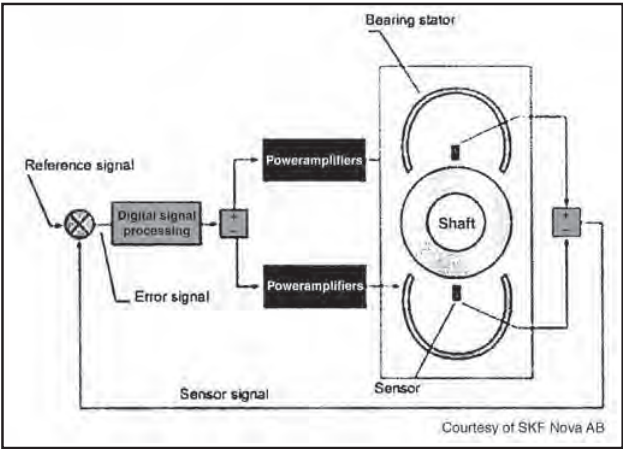


FIG. 13-40
Mechanical (Contact) Shaft Seal

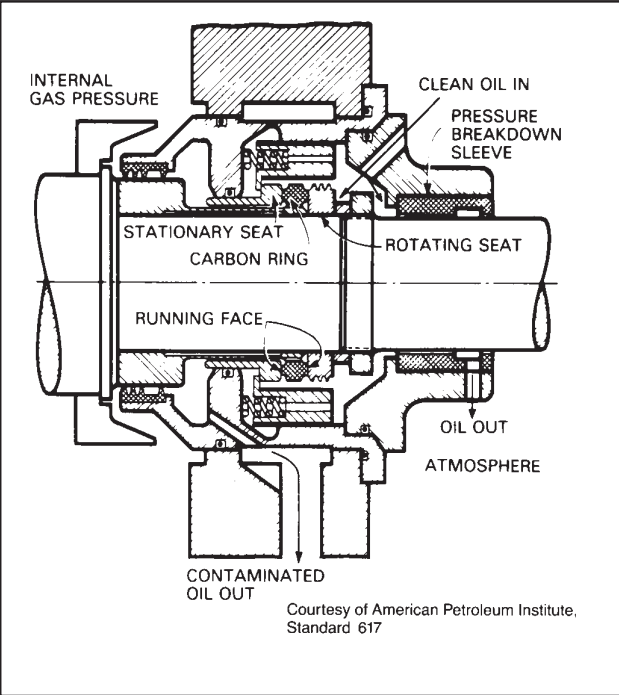


FIG. 13-41
Single Gas Seal

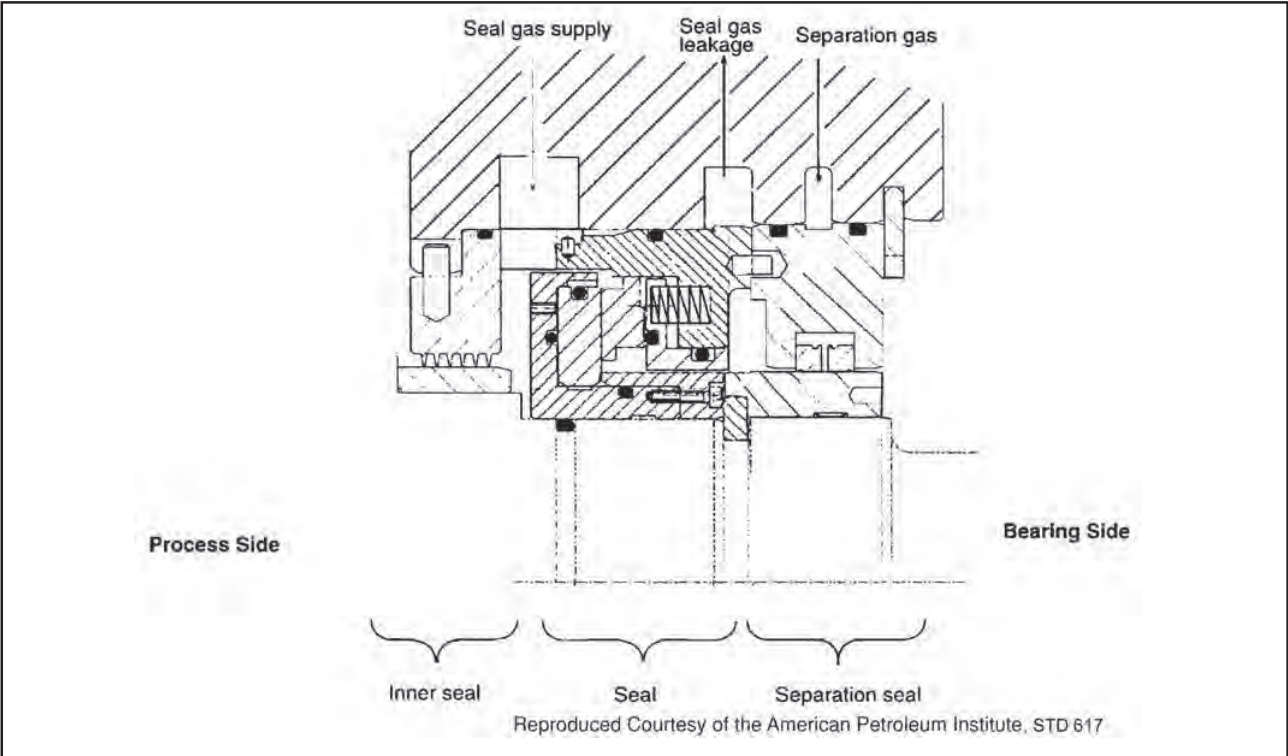


FIG. 13-42
Double Gas Seal

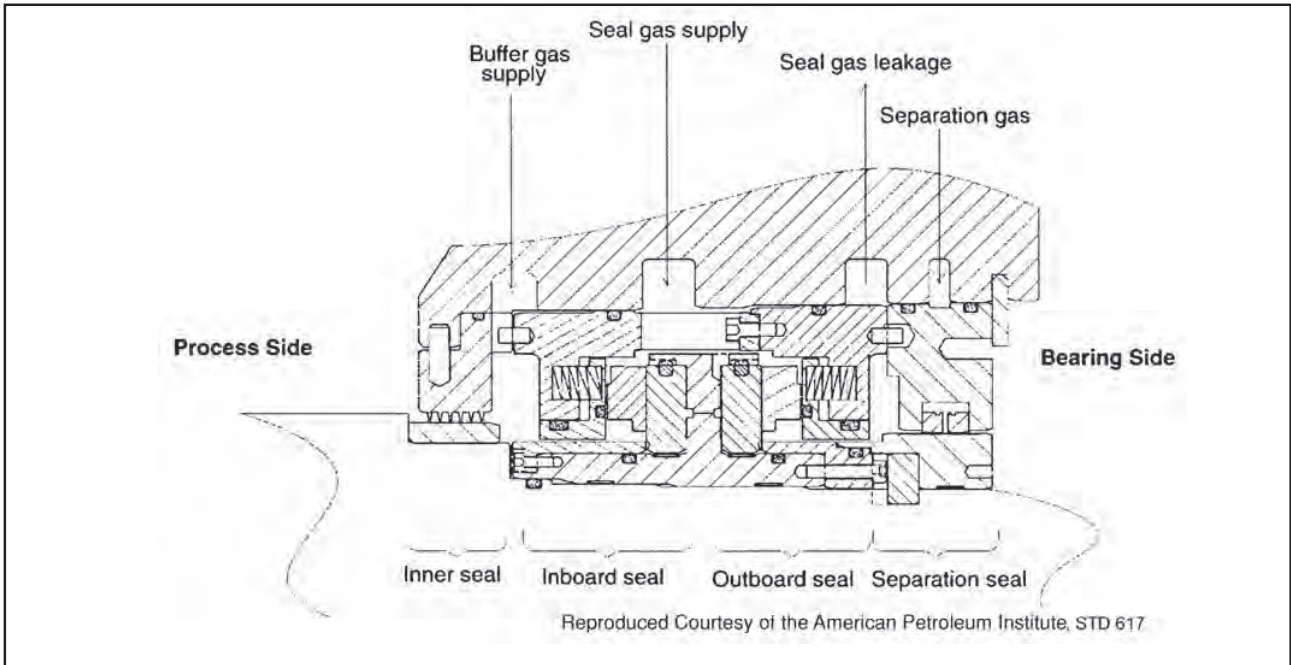
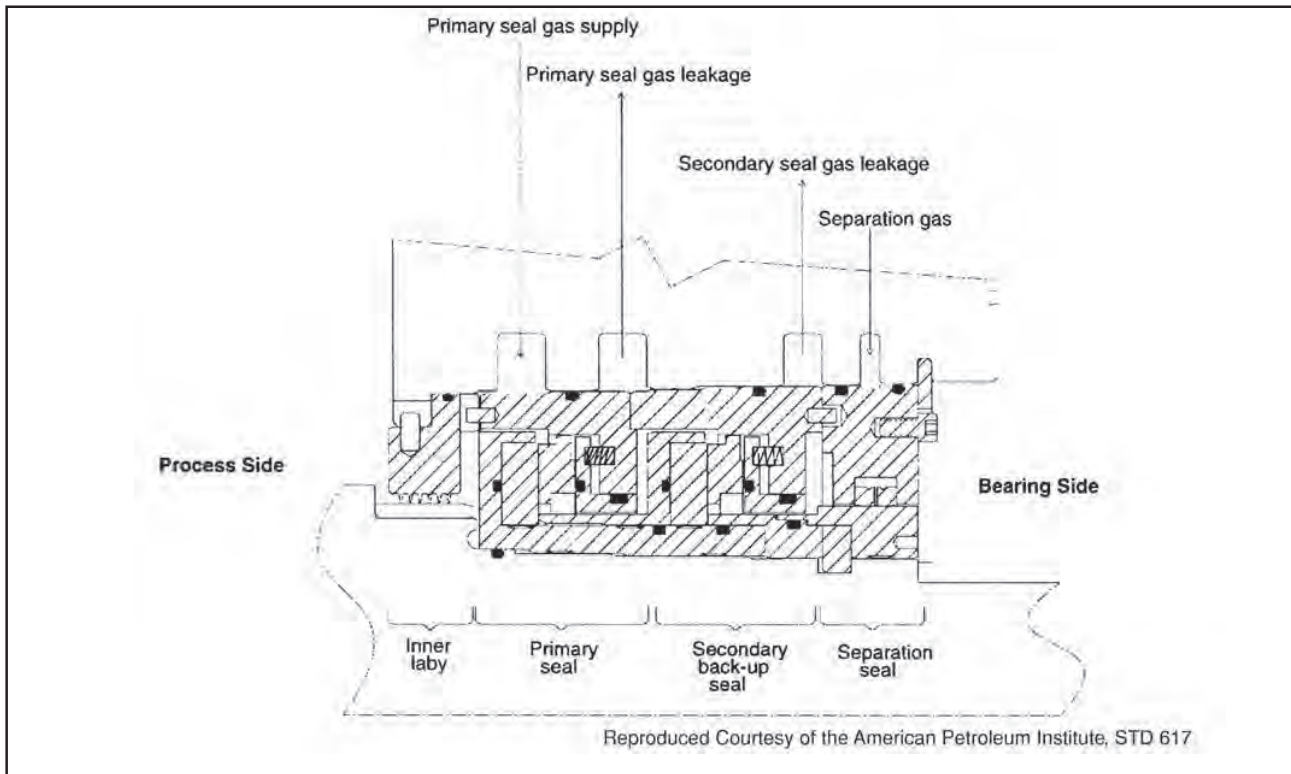


FIG. 13-43
Tandem Gas Seal



Dry Gas Seals

Dry gas seals are used to prevent process gas from leaking along the rotating shaft of the compressor into the environment. Each seal consists of two rings, one of them a spring loaded seal face, the other a seat.

One ring is stationary with the compressor casing, the other rotates with the shaft. Silicon carbide, silicon nitride, tungsten carbide or carbon are typical materials for the seal rings.² The flat faces of the seal rings form the seal. Grooves, measuring a few microns in depth, are machined into one of the rings. When the machine is at stand-still the axially moveable seal ring is pressed on the other ring by the springs. Parting of the two faces is affected by the pressure differential across the seal faces, and the rotation of the shaft. During operation of the compressor, the forces from the springs, and the aerodynamic force created by the grooves due to gas flowing through the seal, are in equilibrium, and maintain a very narrow gap between the stationary and rotating face. Therefore, very low leakage can be maintained, while the fact that there is no mechanical contact between the rings avoids any seal deterioration, as long as the seal gas is free of solids and liquids.

The seals see, in general, 4 (four) modes of operation:

- **No Rotation, Case is Unpressurized:** The seal faces are held in contact by spring load.
- **No Rotation, Case Is Pressurized:** The seal faces remain in contact up to a certain pressure differential. At this pressure and above, the seal faces separate as the pressure overcomes the spring force between the faces. Normally, this

lift-off pressure is 689 kPad (100 psid). Seal leakage is the same as, or less than, that during rotating conditions. This is the typical occurrence with pressurized equipment prior to start-up.

- **Rotation, Case is Unpressurized:** The seal faces remain in contact up to lift-off speed, which normally occurs at 150 rpm. Separation is caused by hydrodynamic effect due to the groove configuration in the face of the rotating seal member. This is the typical condition in an unpressurized seal at start-up.

- **Rotation, Case Is Pressurized:** The seal faces will maintain an equilibrium gap depending on the speed and pressure conditions.

For tandem dry gas seals, which are most commonly used in natural gas compression, we have two seals combined:

The primary face seal is exposed to the high-pressure seal gas on one side and approximately atmospheric pressure on the other, while the seal gas pressure is held slightly higher than the compressor suction pressure. By taking the full pressure drop, this seal provides the main sealing function. Filtered seal gas is injected between the process gas and the primary seal at a pressure nominally higher than the suction pressure. Most of the seal gas leaks into the compressor through the labyrinths at the shaft into the compressor suction flow. This portion of the primary seal gas is not lost, but is recycled. The quantity of this recycled gas is quite small (less than 0.1%) when compared to the compressor inlet flow; yet, it provides an important protective barrier for the dry seal. An even smaller portion of the primary seal gas leaks across the face seal to the primary seal vent. This leakage is lost to vent or flare. Both leakage rates, i.e., flow through the labyrinth and through the face seal, decrease as a fraction of compressor flow with increasing compressor frame size.

FIG. 13-44

Liquid Film Shaft Seal with Pumping Bushing

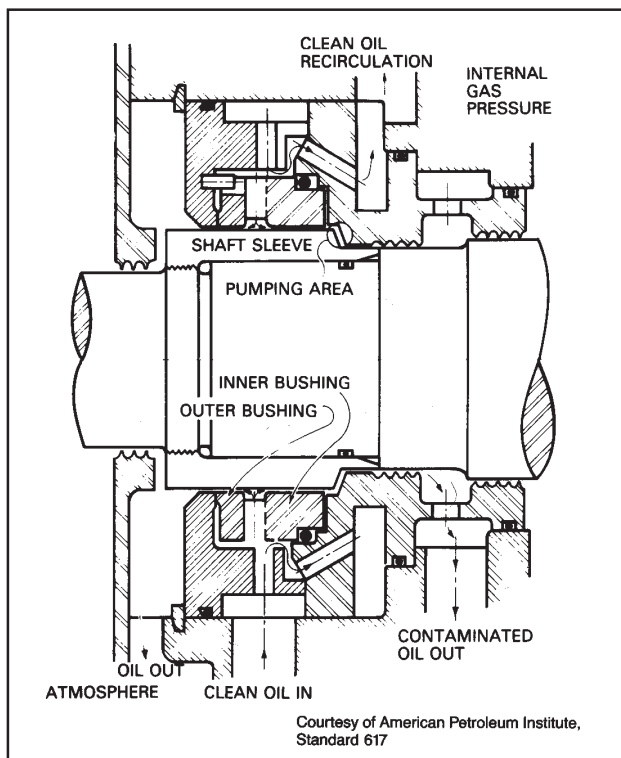
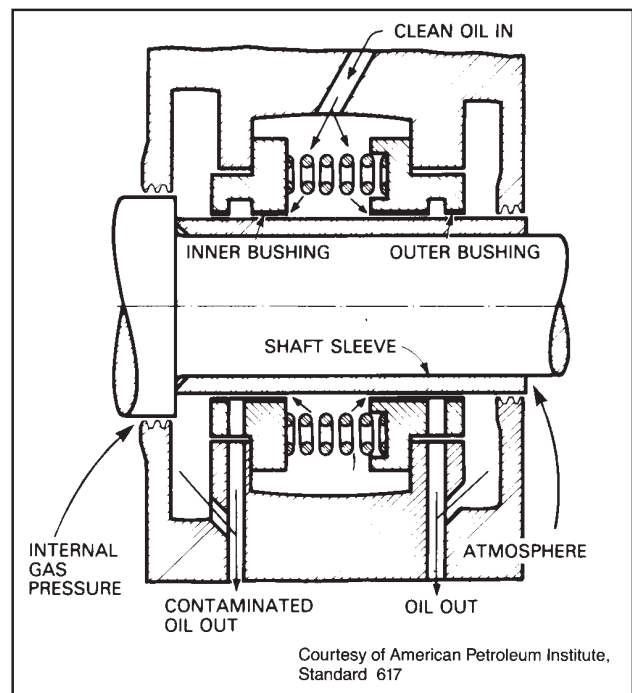


FIG. 13-45

Liquid Film Shaft Seal with Cylindrical Bushing



The secondary face seal acts as a backup to the primary face seal. It is similar to the primary seal and becomes active when the primary seal fails. It operates at near zero pressure-differential during normal running conditions. In order to protect the secondary face seal from failure, the secondary vent pressure should never be allowed to exceed the primary vent pressure. It is not necessary to inject seal gas ahead of the secondary seal as primary seal gas that leaks through the primary seal has already been filtered.

Some tandem dry seals also have an intermediate labyrinth seal located between the primary and secondary seals. The function of this intermediate labyrinth is to facilitate the use of a secondary seal gas. Secondary seal gas, usually an inert gas like nitrogen, may be injected between the secondary seal and the intermediate labyrinth. This gas also requires the same cleanliness as the primary seal gas.

The seal gas is usually process gas that has been filtered, and conditioned in the dry gas seal system. The dry gas seal system is set up to provide clean, filtered process gas to the seals. A typical dry gas seal system is designed to:

- Provide clean and dry seal gas to the face of the dry seal to prevent contamination and early failure of the seal.
- Monitor the leakage past the primary dry seal and alarm or shutdown if abnormal conditions exist.
- Provide clean air or nitrogen to the separation seals.
- Optionally, provide clean nitrogen to the intermediate labyrinth when needed.

Dry gas seals need to be protected from lube oil migrating from the bearings of the compressor to the dry gas seals. This is accomplished by a separation seal (often referred to as buffer seal). This separation seal uses separation (or buffer) gas, usually air or nitrogen to avoid lube oil migration into the dry gas seal.

Compared with oil seal systems, dry gas seal systems have the following advantages:

- The dry gas seal system does not require external power source.

- Gas/Oil Interface. One of the main reasons for the interest in compressors with dry seals is that there is no process gas/lube oil interface. For transmission service, a dry seal system eliminates the addition of oil to the gas in the pipeline. For wellhead or field gas service, it eliminates sour gas carryover into lube oil tanks, oil degradation, and lube oil tank explosive mixture levels.

- Pressurized Hold. Pressurized holds of longer time are possible. As environmental limits become stricter, it will be increasingly advantageous to leave the compressor pressurized instead of blowing to vent at every shutdown.

- Degassing. Degassing flues/tank connections on wet seal units have a 127 mm (5 in.) of water column limit, while dry seal vent connections have a 34.5 kPag (5 psig) limit. This makes it much easier to capture and run leakage gas into a flare system.

- Seal Gas Quantity. The seal gas flow to the dry seal cavities is easier to limit and is less than buffer gas flows on wet seal compressors. The parasitic power requirement to compress seal gas is less with a dry gas seal system.

And disadvantages:

- The cost of dry seals is higher in comparison to oil seals.
- The dry seal cavities must have clean, dry gas to avoid contaminating the seals.

Lubrication and Seal-oil Systems

On all centrifugal compressors that have force-feed lubricated bearings, a lubrication oil system is required. When oil-film or mechanical (contact) seals are used, a pressurized seal-oil system must be provided.

Each system is designed for continuous operation with all the elements (oil reservoir, pumps with drivers, coolers, filters, pressure gauges, control valves, etc.) piped and mounted on a flat steel fabricated base plate located adjacent to the compressor. The compressor manufacturer normally supplies both systems in order to have overall unit responsibility.

Depending on the application, lubrication and seal-oil systems may be furnished as combined into one system, or as one lubrication system having booster pumps to increase the pressure of only the seal oil to the required sealing level. In service involving heavily contaminated gases, separate lube-oil and seal-oil systems should be used.

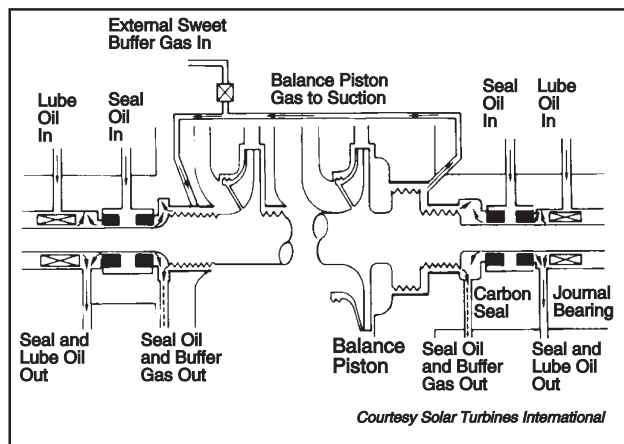
The lubrication system may supply oil to both compressor and driver bearings (including gear), couplings (if continuously lubricated), as well as turbine governor, trip and throttle valve, and hydraulic control system.

A single lubricant shall be used in all system equipment, usually an oil, having approximate viscosities of 150 Saybolt Universal Seconds (SUS) at 100°F and 43 SUS at 210°F.

In addition to all the elements of a common pressurized lubrication system, the seal oil system requires a collection system for the oil. Depending on the gas composition, a degassing tank may be installed in the seal oil trap return line to remove the oil-entrained gas prior to return of the seal oil to the common oil reservoir. The flow past the outer sleeve passes through an atmospheric drain system and is returned to the reservoir. The relatively low flow through the inner sleeve is collected in a drain trap or continuous drainer and may be returned to the reservoir or

FIG. 13-46

Combined Seal-Oil and Lube-Oil System with External Sweet Buffer Gas

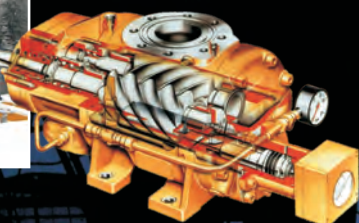


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discarded, depending upon the degree and type of contamination which occurred while it was in contact with the internal gas.

Compressors using only liquid film seals should be provided with a seal-oil system which incorporates an overhead surge tank. The surge tank provides seal-oil capacity for coastdown of the machine and blowdown of the gas present in case of a compressor shutdown.

In combined seal-oil and lube-oil systems when large amounts of contaminants are present in the process gas, the seal-oil design may call for buffer gas injection to form a barrier between the compressed gas and the seal oil.

Fig. 13-46 shows clean sweet buffer gas being injected into the center of a labyrinth seal preceding the oil film seal with seal oil supplied between the two sleeves. Part of the seal oil flows across the inner sleeve and mixes with buffer gas and then drains into the seal oil trap. The other part of the seal oil flows across the outer sleeve, mixes with the bearing lube oil drain flow, and returns to the common lube- and seal-oil reservoir.

FIG. 13-47

Pressure Control at Variable Speed

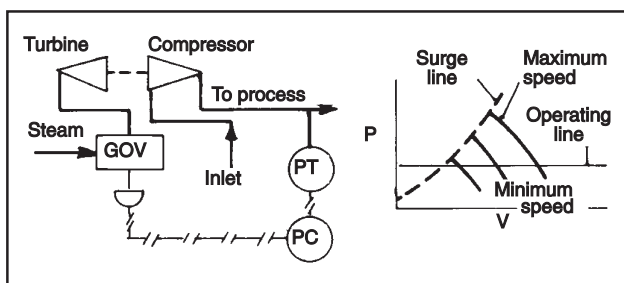


FIG. 13-48

Volume Control at Variable Speed

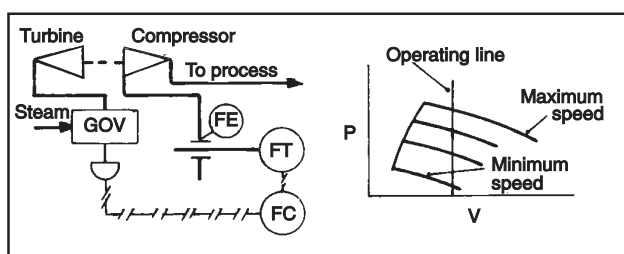
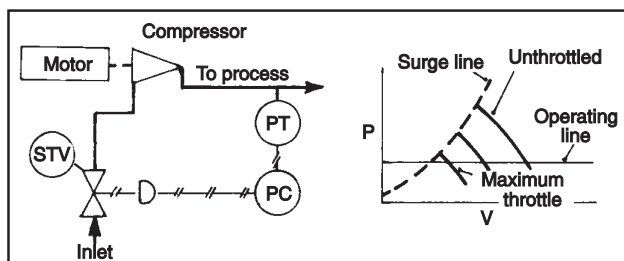


FIG. 13-49

Pressure Control at Constant Speed



Drivers — Centrifugal compressors can be driven by a wide variety of prime movers including electric motors, steam turbines, gas combustion turbines, and gas-expander turbines. Each driver has its own design parameters. A motor drive presents limitations in operation of the compressor due to constant and low speed. The constant speed restriction is minimized by suction or discharge throttling. The low speed restriction is corrected by introduction of a speed increasing gear. A steam turbine, on the other hand, has variable speed capability that allows more control of the compressor capacity or discharge pressure, and its high speed permits the compressor to be directly connected to the driver. In the case of a single-shaft gas turbine, the power output is limited at a reduced speed.

CONTROL SYSTEMS

Centrifugal compressor controls can vary from the very basic manual recycle control to elaborate ratio controllers. The driver characteristics, process response, and compressor operating range must be determined before the right controls can be selected.

The most efficient way to match the compressor characteristic to the required output is to change speed in accordance with the fan laws (affinity laws, see Equations 13-23 and 13-24):

FIG. 13-50

Volume Control at Constant Speed

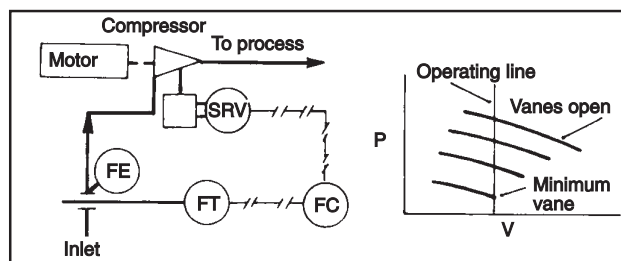
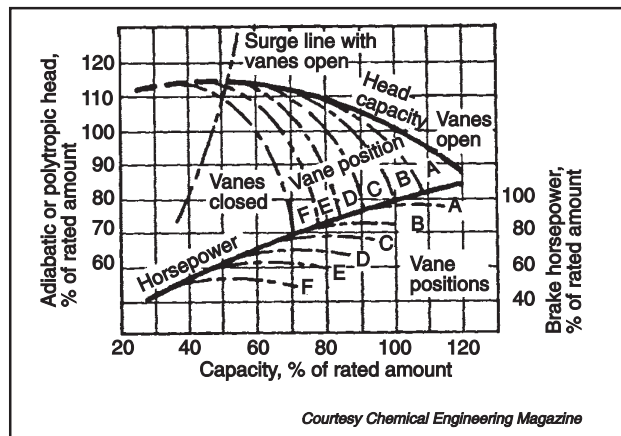


FIG. 13-51

Effect of Adjustable Inlet Guide Vanes on Compressor Performance



$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = \frac{Q_1}{Q_2} = \frac{\sqrt{H_1}}{\sqrt{H_2}} \quad \text{Eq 13-44}$$

One of the principal advantages of using steam or gas turbines as drivers for compressors is that they are well suited to variable-speed operation. With such drivers, the speed can be controlled manually by an operator adjusting the speed governor on the turbine or, alternatively, the speed adjustment can be made automatically by a pneumatic or electric controller that changes the speed in response to a pressure or flow signal.

Pressure Control at Variable Speed

The control system operates as follows:

The pressure transmitter (PT) in Fig. 13-47 senses the process discharge pressure. It converts this signal to a signal proportional to the process pressure and sends it to the pressure controller (PC).

The pressure controller amplifies the transmitter signal and sends a modified signal to the final control element. Depending on system requirements the controller may require additional correction factors called integral (reset) and rate.

The final element in this case is speed control. This varies the turbine-governor speed setting within a predetermined range.

As the load decreases, the discharge pressure will rise. An increase in process pressure above the set-point value will cause the signal to reach the governor and reduce the speed, maintaining the desired system discharge pressure.

Volume Control at Variable Speed

If the nature of the process requires constant volume delivered, then the arrangement shown in Fig. 13-48 would be used.

Here, the flow transmitter (FT) senses the process flow, converts the signal to a signal proportional to the process flow, and sends it to the flow controller (FC).

The flow controller amplifies the transmitter signal and sends a modified signal to the final element. Integral (reset) and rate correction factors may be needed.

The final element is speed control, which is accomplished by a mechanism that varies the turbine-governor speed setting. An increase in flow over set point would cause a signal to reach the governor and reduce the speed to maintain the desired system flow.

When using electric motors as constant speed drivers (Fig. 13-49), the centrifugal compressor is normally controlled by a suction throttling device such as butterfly valve or inlet guide vanes. Throttling the suction results in a slightly lower suction pressure than the machine is designed for, and thus requires a higher total head if the discharge pressure remains constant. This can be matched to the compressor head-capacity curve, i.e., higher head at reduced flow. In throttling the inlet, the density of the gas is reduced, resulting in a matching of the required weight flow to the compressor inlet-volume capabilities at other points on the head/capacity curve.

Pressure Control at Constant Speed

The control system shown in Fig. 13-49 has the pressure signal sensed and amplified in a similar manner as described in the scheme for variable speed control (Fig. 13-47).

The final element is a suction throttle valve (STV) that reduces the flow of gas into the compressor.

A process pressure increase over a set value would cause a signal to reach the suction throttle valve (STV) and would partially close the valve in order to reduce the inlet pressure.

Volume Control at Constant Speed

The control scheme for this arrangement is shown in Fig. 13-50.

The flow transmitter (FT) senses the process flow using an orifice or venturi as the primary flow element (FE), converts this to a signal that is proportional, and sends this signal to the flow controller (FC). The flow controller amplifies the transmitter signal and sends a modified signal to the final element. Reset and derivative controller actions may be required.

The final element is the compressor guide-vane mechanism. The guide vanes are adjusted by means of a positioning cylinder. This cylinder is operated by a servo-valve (SRV) that receives a signal from the flow controller.

Here, an increase in flow above the set point causes a signal to reach the final element, which will result in the required degree of closing of the guide vanes to decrease flow.

Adjustable Inlet Guide Vanes — The use of adjustable inlet guide vanes is the most efficient method of controlling a constant speed compressor. The vanes are built into the inlet of the 1st stage, or succeeding stages, and can be controlled through the linkage mechanism either automatically or manually.

The vanes adjust the capacity with a minimum of efficiency loss and increase the stable operating range at design pressure. This is accomplished by pre-rotation of the gas entering the impeller which reduces the head-capacity characteristics of the machine. Fig. 13-51 illustrates the effect of such control at various vane positions.

Prior to control selection, the economics of inlet guide vanes must be considered because of their higher initial cost, complex mechanism, maintenance, and requirement for frequent adjustment.

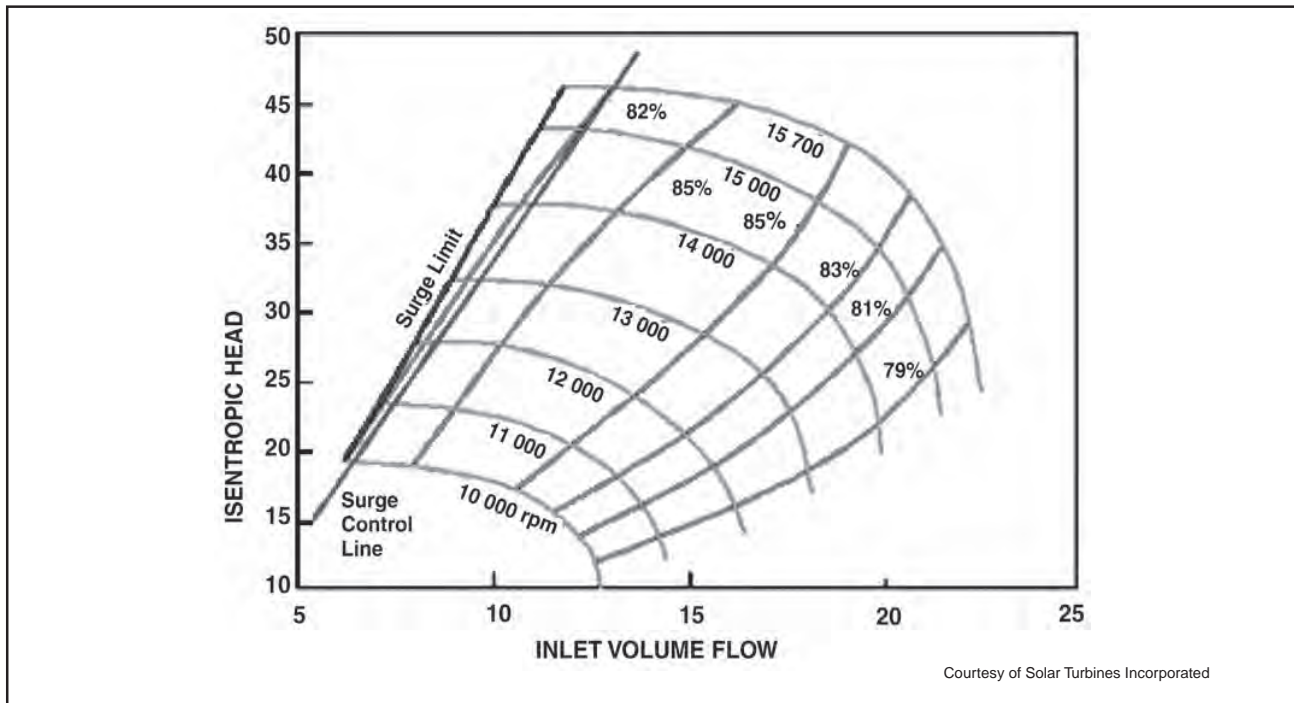
Anti-surge Control

Surge Control systems are by nature surge avoidance systems. In general, the control system sensors measure the gas flow through the compressor and the head it generates. To determine compressor head, pressure and temperatures at suction and discharge are measured. The knowledge of head and flow allows the comparison of the present operating point of the compressor with the predicted surge line (Fig. 13-52). If the process forces the compressor to approach the surge line, a recycle valve in a recycle line is opened. This allows the actual operating point of the compressor to move away from surge (Kurz and White, 2004).

One of the complications is, that the calculation of head and flow from pressure differentials over a flow element, and suction and discharge pressures and temperatures (as described earlier), requires the knowledge of the gas composition. In many applications, the gas composition can change. However, by normalizing the flow and the head appropriately (White and Kurz, 2006) a surge limit line can be defined that is invariant to changes in gas composition.

A key issue in surge control is the accuracy of the flow measurement. It is therefore recommended to use properly installed

FIG. 13-52
Typical Compressor Map (Variable Speed)



orifices or venture flow meters. Using the pressure differential between compressor flange and impeller eye is also a very effective method. Properly installed ultrasonic flow meters have also been used successfully. It is not recommended to use pitot type or elbow flow meters for flow measurements in surge control systems because the signals tend to be weak, with a low signal-to-noise ratio.

A surge avoidance system determines the compressor operating point using the pressure, temperature and flow data provided by the instrumentation. The system compares the compressor operating point to the compressor's surge limit. The difference between the operating point and the surge limit is the control error. A control algorithm (P+I+D) acts upon this difference, or "error," to develop a control signal to the recycle valve. When opened, a portion of the gas from the discharge side of the compressor is routed back to the suction side and head across the compressor is prevented from increasing further. When the operating point reflects more flow than the required protection margin flow, the surge control valve moves toward the closed position and the compressor resumes normal operation.

There are 5 essentials for successful surge avoidance:

1. A precise surge limit model: It must predict the surge limit over the applicable range of gas conditions and characteristics.
2. An appropriate control algorithm: It must ensure surge avoidance without unnecessarily upsetting the process.
3. The right instrumentation instruments must be selected to meet the requirements for speed, range, and accuracy.

4. Recycle valve correctly selected for the compressor: the valves must fit the compressor. They must be capable of large and rapid, as well as a small and slow, changes in capacity.
5. Recycle valve correctly selected for the system volumes: The valve must be fast enough and large enough to ensure the surge limit is not reached during a shutdown. The piping system is the dominant factor in the overall system response. It must be analyzed and understood. Large volumes will preclude the implementation of a single valve surge avoidance system.

It must be understood that the anti-surge control system must be designed to operate under three, very different, scenarios:

1. Unit Startup: In this condition the recycle valve is typically kept at a fixed position to allow the compressor to start, and ultimately reach the discharge pressure necessary to open the check valve, and feed gas in to the process.
2. Process Control: with a properly sized recycle valve, a centrifugal compressor can stay on-line even at a no-flow condition. Well-designed surge control systems can allow reduction of the process flow to zero while keeping the compressor on line. This will also make the transition from fully closed recycle valve to an increasingly open recycle valve smooth and without upset to the process.
3. Emergency shutdown: During certain emergency situations, the compression units have to be shut down instantly. To that end, the fuel supply, electricity supply,

or steam supply to the driver are cut instantly. In this situation, the compressor will decelerate rapidly under its inertia. Typical a compressor may lose 30% of its speed in the first second. Because the speed reduction also reduces the head-making capability of the compressor, the recycle valve has to open quickly to relieve the pressure on the discharge side of the compressor.

In some instances it is necessary to use multiple loops or multiple valves in parallel to accomplish a system that both allows the necessary accuracy in flow control for process control, as well as the fast reaction for an emergency shutdown.

A typical anti-surge control system is shown in Fig. 13-53

The usual method for surge avoidance (“anti-surge control”) consists of a recycle loop that can be activated by a fast acting valve (“anti-surge valve”) when the control system detects that the compressor approaches its surge limit.

Vibration Control System

This control system may be provided to monitor the driver behavior at the shaft bearings for detection of excessive lateral vibration and axial movement and for protection against possible machinery failure through alarm and/or shutdown devices.

The system may protect not only the compressor but also the driver, such as a steam or gas turbine, that usually runs at the same high speed as the compressor. When a speed increasing or reducing gear unit is furnished between the compressor

and driver, also consider monitoring vibration at the gear shaft bearings.

The main system components are: variation transducer(s), signal amplifier(s) with d-c power supply, and vibration monitor and/or analyzer.

Vibration transducers fall into three categories: displacement probe, velocity pick-up, and accelerometer.

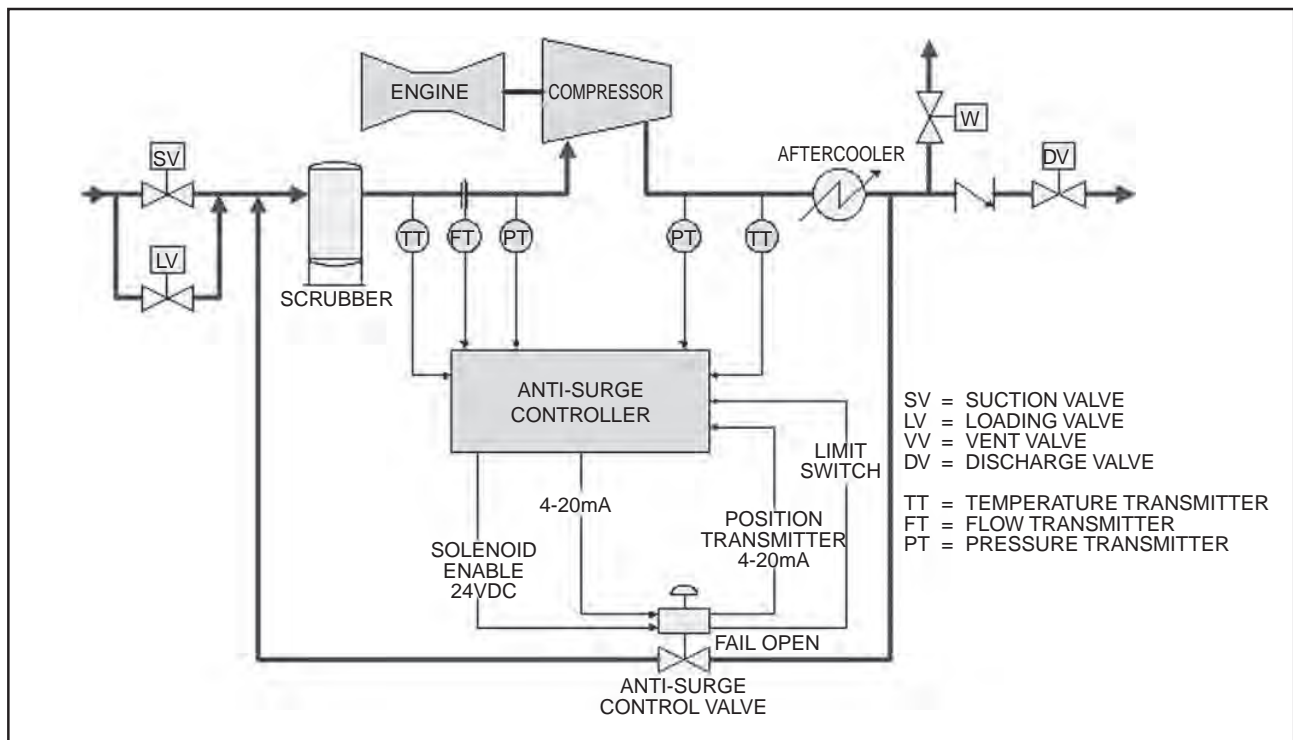
The displacement probe is most commonly used for equipment with high value, as it can measure shaft vibration relative to bearing housing. Output signal from each transducer is small and, therefore, it must be amplified before being transmitted to a vibration monitor or analyzer.

Fig. 13-54 shows a vibration severity chart for use as a guide in judging vibration levels as a warning of impending trouble.

For more information on vibration monitoring systems, see API Standard 670, Noncontacting Vibration and Axial Position Monitoring System, and API Standard 678, Accelerometer-Based Vibration Monitoring System.

Torsional analysis is also recommended for centrifugal compressors. The analysis is not as complex as for that required for reciprocating compressors due to the limited operating envelop of centrifugal compressor, and the fact that the energy sources are not as great as those within reciprocating compressors. Reference the discussion of torsional analysis in the Reciprocating Compressor section for additional information.

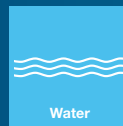
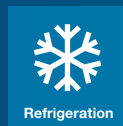
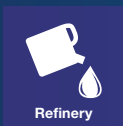
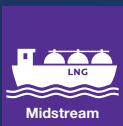
FIG. 13-53
Example Anti-Surge Control System courtesy of Solar Turbines Incorporated



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OPERATIONAL CONSIDERATIONS

Rotor Dynamics and Critical Speeds

The demand for smooth-running turbomachinery requires careful analysis of rotor dynamics taking into account bearing performance, flexibility, critical speed, and rotor response.

Equally important is to analyze the dynamic behavior of the compressor for sudden changes in load due to start-up, shut-down, or loss of power supply.

FIG. 13-54
Vibration Severity Chart¹

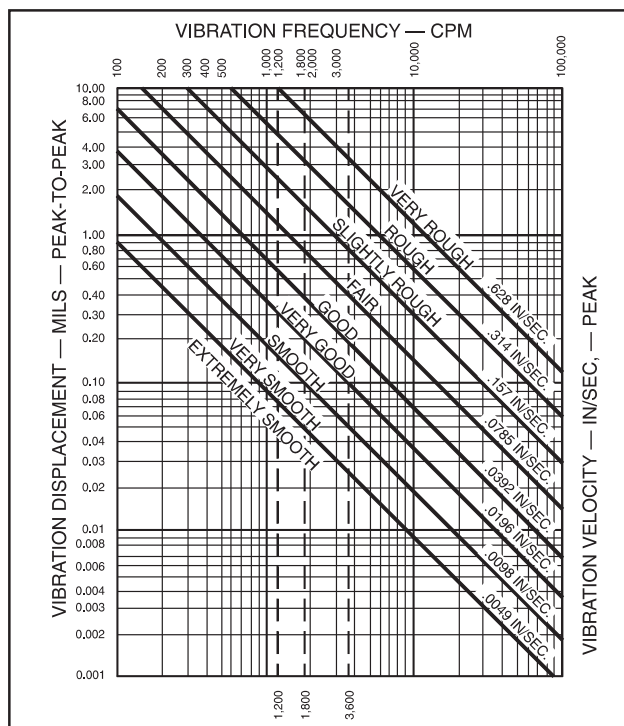


FIG. 13-55
Undamped Critical Speed Map

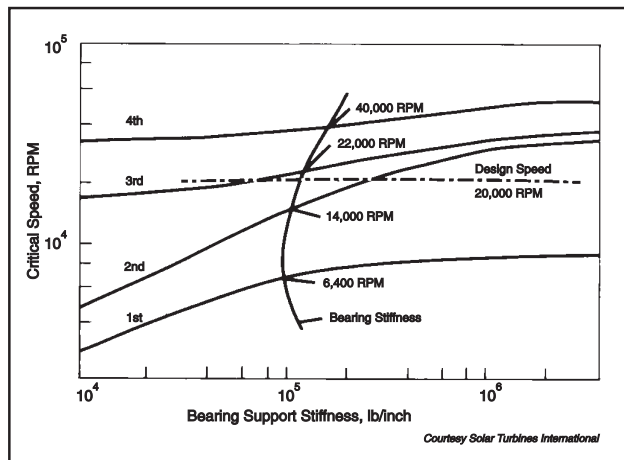
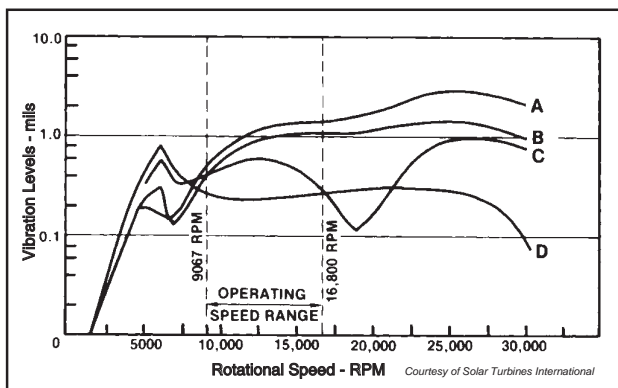


FIG. 13-56
Unbalanced Response Plot



Successful rotor design is the result of accurate calculation of critical speeds. A critical speed occurs at a condition when the rotor speed corresponds to a resonant frequency of the rotor-bearing support system. Under no circumstances should the compressor be allowed to run at a critical speed for a prolonged length of time as the rotor vibrations amplified by this condition can cause machinery failure.

Critical Speed Map

A critical speed map is one of various methods used to predict the operational behavior of the rotor. First, the critical speeds for a given rotor geometry are calculated for a range of assumed bearing-support stiffness values. The result is a map like that shown in Fig. 13-55. The bearing stiffness characteristics are determined from the geometry of the bearing support system, and cross-plotted on the critical speed map.

The map depicts the values of the undamped critical speeds and how they are influenced by bearing stiffness. The intersections of the bearing stiffness curve and the critical speed lines represent the undamped critical speeds. The intersection points generally indicate margins between the criticals and the operating speed range.

However, the use of this map is very limited because it is based on a simplified undamped, circular synchronous analysis with no cross-coupled or unbalance effects. It is a good trending tool showing a machine's basic dynamic characteristics. It may not accurately depict peak response frequencies.

The critical speed map is used extensively because it enables determination of bearing or support stiffness by correlating test-stand data.

Unbalance Response Analysis

This method predicts rotor-bearing system resonances to greater accuracy than the critical speed map. Here, bearing support stiffness and damping are considered together with synchronous vibration behavior for a selected imbalance distribution. A computer is normally required to solve the resulting differential equations. Satisfactory results depend on the accurate input of bearing stiffness and damping parameters.

Several runs are usually made with various amounts and locations of unbalance. The plot of results of a typical unbalance response study is shown in Fig. 13-56. Each curve represents the rotor behavior at a particular station or axial location such



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as those corresponding to the midspan, bearings, and overhangs.

No rotor can be perfectly balanced and, therefore, it must be relatively insensitive to reasonable amounts of unbalance.

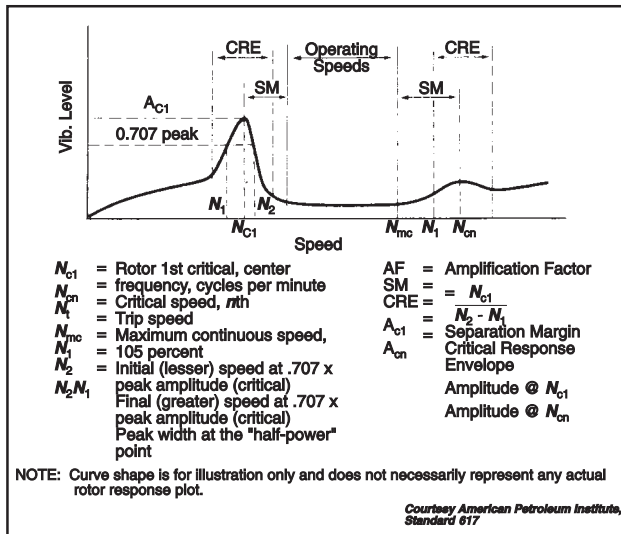
The unbalance-response results predict the actual amplitudes that permit calculations of the unbalance sensitivity. This is expressed in mils of vibration amplitude per ounce-inch or gram-inch of unbalance.

The peaks of the response curves represent the critical speed locations. Fig. 13-57 shows limits of placement of critical speeds as specified in the API Standard 617, Centrifugal Compressors for General Refinery Services.

Critical speeds should not encroach upon operating speed ranges, and the separation margin of encroachment (SM) from all lateral modes is required to be at least:

1. Twenty (20) percent over the maximum continuous speed for rigid shaft rotor systems.
2. Fifteen (15) percent below any operating speed and twenty (20) percent above the maximum continuous speed for flexible shaft rotor system.

FIG. 13-57
Rotor Response Plot



Field Performance

Once the compressor has been installed, it is often desirable to measure its performance. The following parameters need to be determined:

1. Inlet conditions (at the compressor inlet flange):
 - a. Flow (scfm, acfm, or lb/min)
 - b. Gas composition
 - c. Pressure, psia
 - d. Temperature, °F

2. Intermediate conditions (if applicable)
 - a. Pressure at intermediate nozzles, psia
 - b. Temperature at intermediate inlet flange, °F
 - c. Flow (actual, mass flow, std flow) and gas composition at intermediate inlet flange if side stream is added or liquid drop-out occurs in the interstage cooler.
3. Discharge Conditions (at the compressor discharge flange):
 - a. Pressure, psia
 - b. Temperature, °F
4. Control setting (depending on the type of compressor controls)
 - a. Compressor speed, rpm
 - b. Guide vane setting
5. Driver Power
 - a. If available, determine driver power output independently of compressor power measurement

Troubleshooting

Operational troubles occurring in service may be due to a variety of causes.

If the trouble cannot be traced to adverse gas flow conditions or liquid “slugs” present in the system, Fig. 13-58 can be used as a guide for troubleshooting frequently encountered problems.

Careless operation and maintenance needs little comment. Lack of proper care of any machine is bound to result in a succession of minor troubles eventually leading to a major breakdown.

INTEGRALLY GEARED COMPRESSORS

An integrally geared compressor utilizes a central driven bull gear with typically 2–4 high speed pinion-driven shafts. One or two impellers can be mounted on each pinion shaft. See Figures 13-59 and 13-60. This forms a compact unit for the multistage compression of a wide range of gases.

Integrally geared compressors offer the following potential advantages:

- low power consumption due to different impeller speeds, tailored aerodynamics and optimized auxiliaries.
- wide operating range and improved part-load efficiencies due to adjustable inlet guide vanes at the first or at all compression stages.
- multiservice capability.
- packaged designs available. A package includes the compressor, process coolers, lube oil console, process piping and all tubing and wiring.

Design requirements of integrally geared compressors are covered by API Standard 617.

AXIAL COMPRESSORS

Axial compressors are basically high-flow, low-pressure machines, in contrast to the lower flow, high-pressure centrifugal compressors (the axial compressors used in gas turbines are of-

ten designed for higher pressures and compression ratios). Axial compressors are generally smaller and significantly more efficient than comparable centrifugal compressors. The characteristic feature of an axial compressor, as its name implies, is the axial direction of flow through the machine. An axial flow compressor requires more stages than a centrifugal due to the lower pressure rise per stage. In general, it takes approximately twice as many stages to achieve a given pressure ratio as would be required by a centrifugal. Although the axial compressor requires more stages, the diametral size of an axial is typically much lower than for a centrifugal. The axial compressor's capital cost is usually higher than that of a centrifugal but may be justified based on efficiency and size.

The axial compressor utilizes alternating rows of rotating and stationary blades to transfer the input energy from the

rotor to the gas in order to generate an increase in gas pressure. A multistage axial flow compressor has two or more rows of rotating blades operating in series on a single rotor in a single casing. The casing contains the stationary vanes (stators) for directing the air or gas to each succeeding row of rotating blades. These stationary vanes, or stators, can be fixed or variable angle, or a combination of both.

A cross-sectional view of a typical axial flow compressor is shown in Fig. 13-61.

Performance Capabilities — The volume range of the axial compressor starts at approximately 30,000 cfm with a typical upper end of the flow range at 400,000 cfm. Much larger axial machines have been built. As can be seen in Fig. 13-3, the flow range for the axial overlaps the higher end of the range for

FIG. 13-58
Probable Causes of Centrifugal Compressor Trouble

Trouble	Probable Cause(s)	Trouble	Probable Cause(s)
Low Discharge Pressure	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Compressor not up to speed. 2. Excessive compressor inlet temperature. 3. Low inlet pressure. 4. Leak in discharge piping. 5. Excessive system demand from compressor. 	High Bearing Oil Temperature	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Inadequate or restricted flow of lube oil to bearings. 2. Poor conditions of lube oil or dirt or gummy deposits in bearings. 3. Inadequate cooling water flow to lube oil cooler. 4. Fouled lube oil cooler. 5. Wiped bearing. 6. High oil viscosity. 7. Excessive vibration. 8. Water in lube oil. 9. Rough journal surface.
Compressor Surge	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Inadequate flow through the compressor. 2. Change in system resistance due to obstruction in the discharge piping or improper valve position. 3. Deposit buildup on rotor or diffusers restricting gas flow. 	<p style="text-align: center;">Note: Lube oil temperature leaving bearings should never be permitted to exceed 180°F.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Improperly assembled parts. 2. Loose or broken bolting. 3. Piping strain. 4. Shaft misalignment. 5. Worn or damaged coupling. 6. Dry coupling (if continuously lubricated type is used). 7. Warped shaft caused by uneven heating or cooling. 8. Damaged rotor or bent shaft. 9. Unbalanced rotor or warped shaft due to severe rubbing. 10. Uneven build-up of deposits on rotor wheels, causing unbalance. 11. Excessive bearing clearance. 12. Loose wheel(s) (rare case). 13. Operating at or near critical speed. 14. Operating in surge region. 15. Liquid "slugs" striking wheels. 16. Excessive vibration of adjacent machinery (sympathetic vibration).
Low Lube Oil Pressure	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Faulty lube oil pressure gauge or switch. 2. Low level in oil reservoir. 3. Oil pump suction plugged. 4. Leak in oil pump suction piping. 5. Clogged oil strainers or filters. 6. Failure of both main and auxiliary oil pumps. 7. Operation at a low speed without the auxiliary oil pump running (if main oil pump is shaft-driven). 8. Relief valve improperly set or stuck open. 9. Leaks in the oil system. 10. Incorrect pressure control valve setting or operation. 11. Bearing lube oil orifices missing or plugged. 	<p style="text-align: center;">Note: Vibration may be transmitted from the coupled machine. To localize vibration, disconnect coupling and operate driver alone. This should help to indicate whether driver or driven machine is causing vibration.</p>	
Shaft Misalignment	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Piping strain. 2. Warped bedplate, compressor or driver. 3. Warped foundation. 4. Loose or broken foundation bolts. 5. Defective grouting. 	Water In Lube Oil	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Condensation in oil reservoir. 2. Leak in lube oil cooler tubes or tube-sheet.

typical centrifugal compressor coverage. At the lower end of the axial's flow range, a thorough evaluation of axial vs centrifugal must normally be made. However, at the higher end flows, the axial compressor often becomes the obvious choice. As stated previously, the physical size of the axial is far smaller than the comparable centrifugal machine that would be required, and the efficiency of the axial is usually better. In many high flow applications, the axial is often a better match for the drivers that would typically be selected.

Because of the low pressure rise per stage, axial compressors are always manufactured as multistage machines. Axial compressors are in general low pressure machines. Typical discharge pressures are usually less than approximately 100 psig. They are very commonly utilized in refineries and other industrial processes for high volume, low pressure air supply applications. The most common application of axial compressors, besides aircraft jet engine use, is in gas turbines. In gas turbine applications, the axial air compressor is often designed to operate at final discharge pressures of up to around 500 psig.

Horsepower requirements for axial flow compressors in process service typically range from 3,000 to 65,000 HP for single casing units, depending on flow and pressure ratio require-

ments. Efficiencies for axial compressors are high, especially for larger machines, and can reach 90% (adiabatic).

Design requirements for centrifugal compressors are covered by API Standard 617.

SCREW COMPRESSORS

Screw compressors, also known as helical lobe compressors, fall into the category of rotary positive displacement compressors. Fig. 13-62 shows a cutaway cross-section of a typical rotary screw compressor.

Rotary screw compressors are available in oil-free (dry) or oil-injected designs. Oil-free compressors typically use shaft-mounted gears to keep the two rotors in proper mesh without contact. Applications for oil-free compressors include all processes that cannot tolerate contamination of the compressed gas or where lubricating oil would be contaminated by the gas. Oil-injected screw compressors are generally supplied without timing gears. The injected lubricant provides a layer separating the two screw profiles as one screw drives the other. Oil-injected machines generally have higher efficiencies and utilize

FIG. 13-59
Typical Integrally Geared Compressor Showing Nomenclature of Key Parts

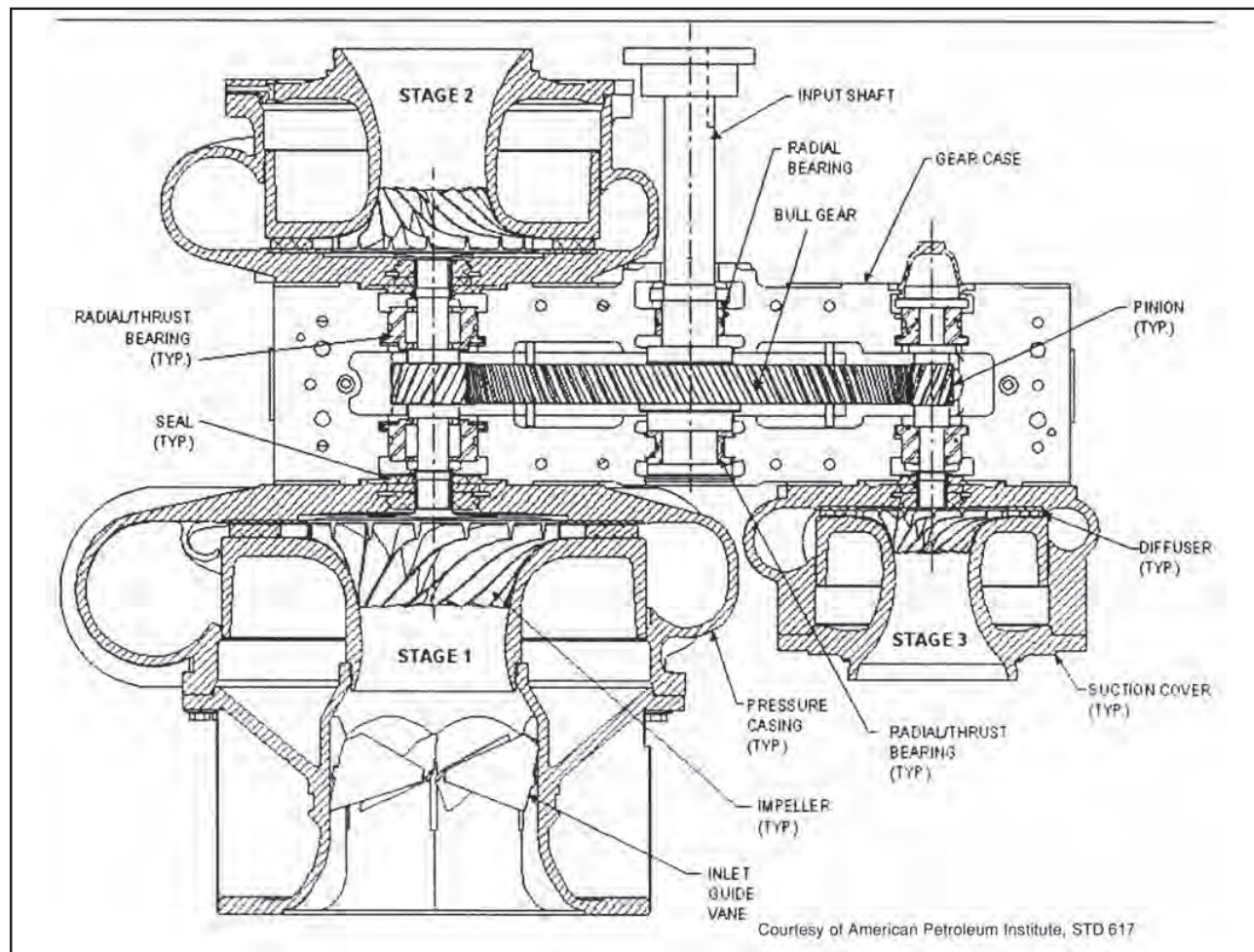


FIG. 13-60

Typical Integrally Geared Compressor Arrangement Showing Nomenclature of Key Elements

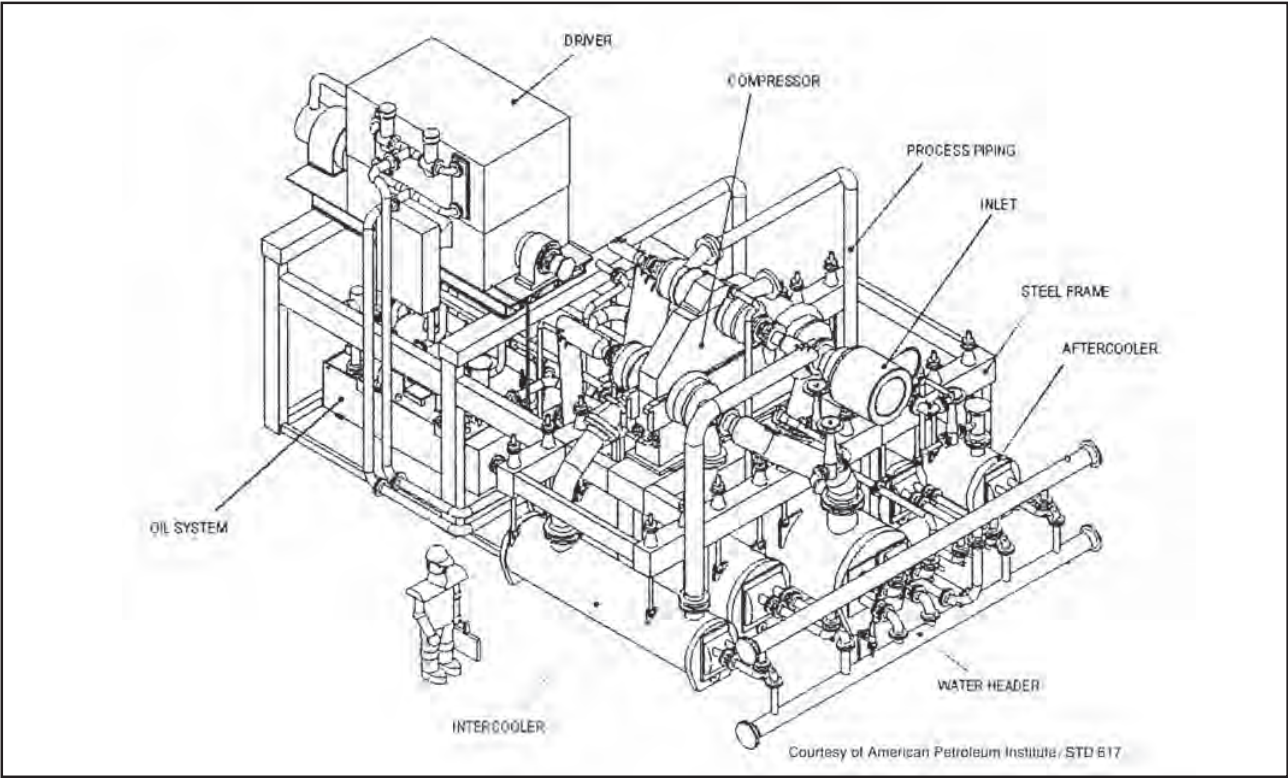
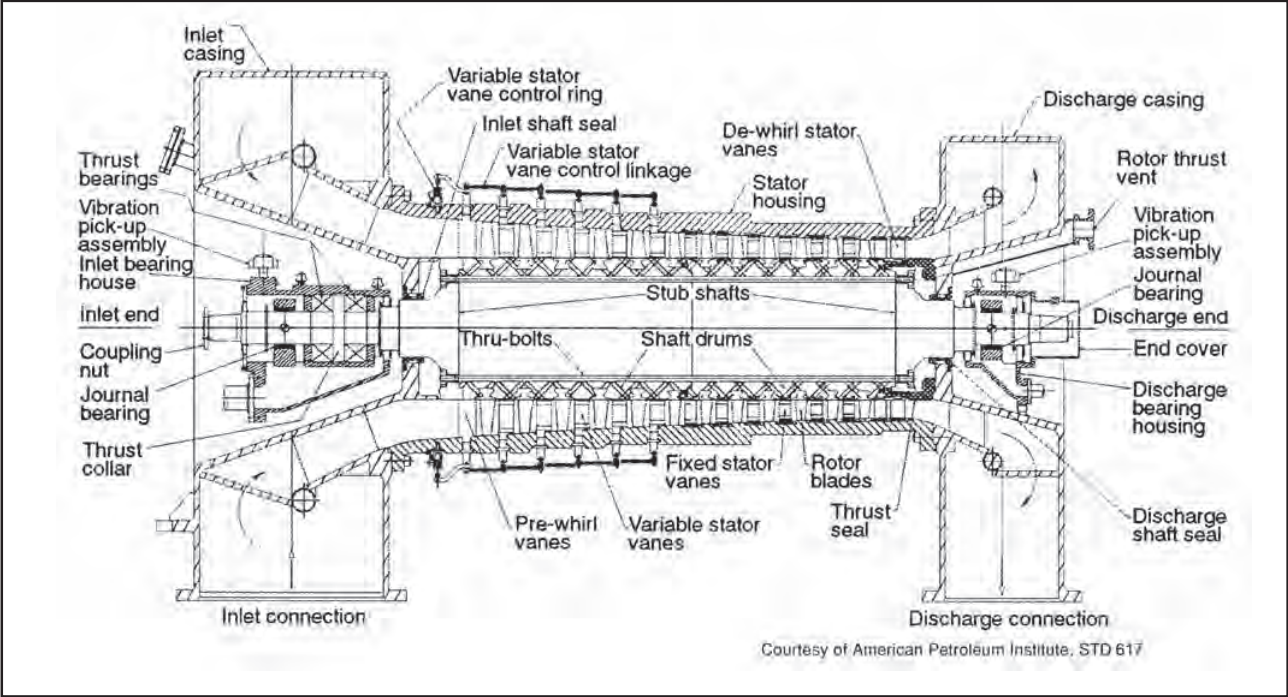


FIG. 13-61

Typical Axial Compressor Showing Nomenclature of Key Parts





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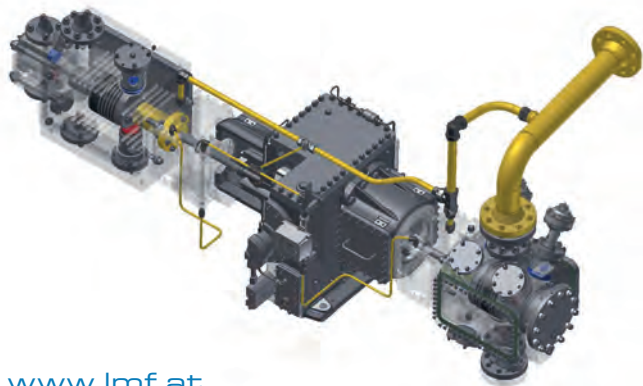
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 - reduced evacuation time
 - energy saving
 - less residual release of gas
- ⊙ Evacuation pressure of below 1 barg/15psig possible
- ⊙ Energy independent and fully automatic operation



reduce your methane emissions

FIG. 13-62
Rotary Screw Compressor

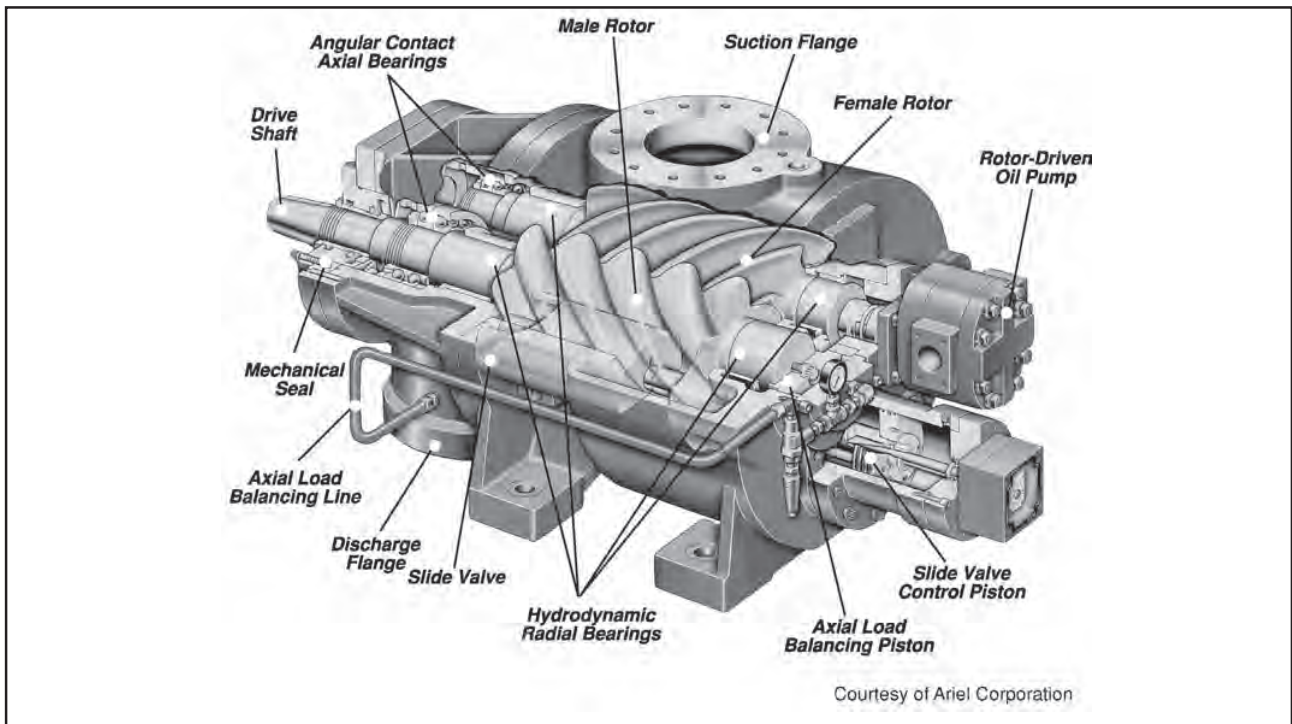
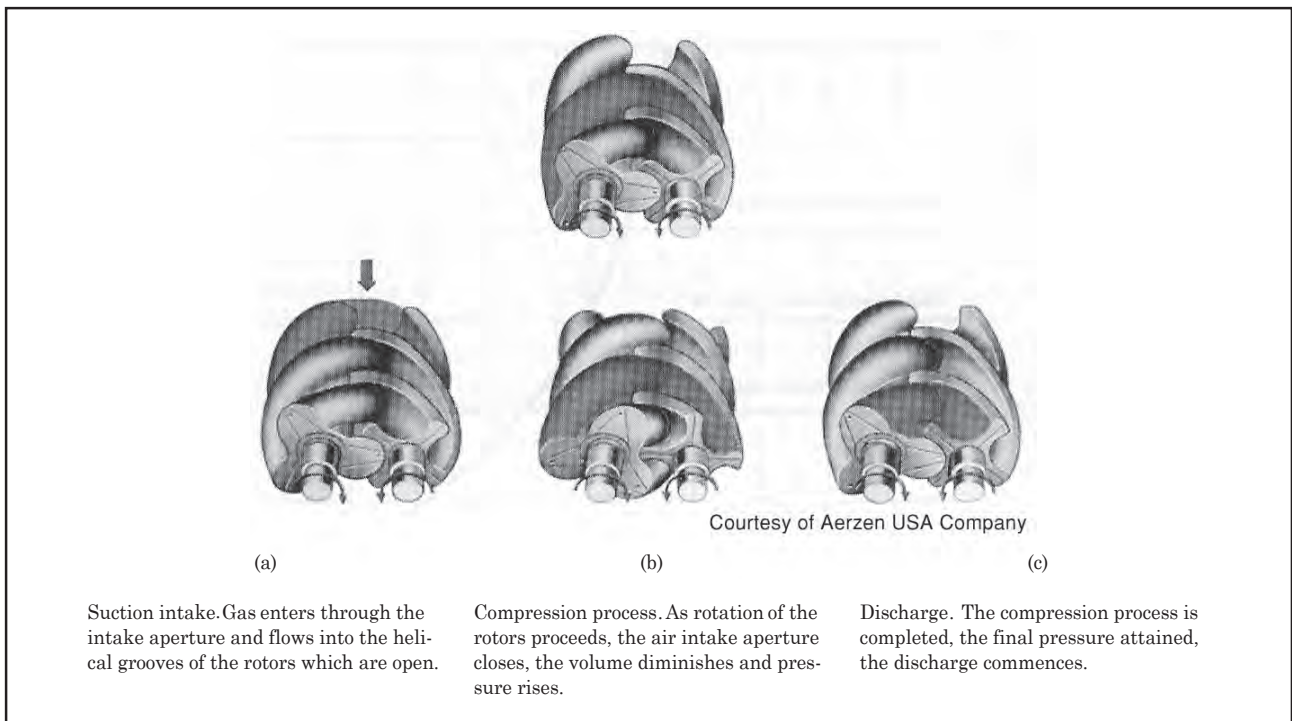


FIG. 13-63
Working Phases of Rotary Screw Compressor



the oil for cooling as well, which allows for higher compression ratios in a single screw compressor stage.

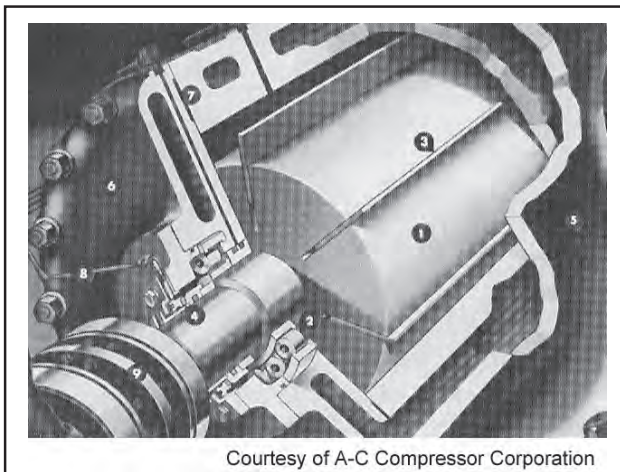
If an oil-injected compressor is used, the downstream oil separation is critical and often the cause for operating problems. A standard design should have primary separation and secondary separation using coalescing filters. Depending upon the process service, the oil content of the compressed vapor may need to be removed down to 100 ppb levels.

Although originally intended for air compression, rotary screw compressors are now compressing a large number of gases in the hydrocarbon processing industries. In particular, screw compressors are widely used in refrigeration service and are gaining in popularity in the gas production business in booster and gas gathering applications.

Gas compression is achieved by the intermeshing of the rotating male and female rotors. Power is applied to the male rotor and as a lobe of the male rotor starts to move out of mesh with the female rotor a void is created and gas is taken in at the inlet port. As the rotor continues to turn, the intermesh space is increased and gas continues to flow into the compressor until the entire interlobe space is filled. Continued rotation brings a male lobe into the interlobe spacing compressing and moving the gas in the direction of the discharge port. The volume of gas is progressively reduced as it increases in pressure. Further rotation uncovers the discharge port and the compressed gas starts to flow out of the compressor. Continued rotation then moves the remaining trapped gas out while a new charge is drawn into the suction of the compressor into the space created by the unmeshing of a new pair of lobes as the compression cycle begins again. Fig. 13-63 provides a sequence of drawings showing the compression process. Screw compressors are usually driven by constant speed motors, with capacity control normally achieved via an internal regulating device known as a slide valve. By moving the slide in a direction parallel to the rotors, the effective length of the rotors can be shortened. This provides smooth control of flow from 100 percent down to 10 percent of full compressor capacity.

FIG. 13-64

Sliding Vane Compressor and Principal Components: Rotor and Shaft (1), Bearings (2), Blades (3), Mechanical Seals (4), Cylinder and Housing (5), Heads and Covers (6), Gaskets (7), Lube Supply Line (8), Coupling (9)



Rotary screw compressors in use today cover a range of suction volumes from 180 to 35,000 acfm, with discharge pressures up to 750 psig. Typical adiabatic efficiency will be in the range of 70 to 80%.

Design requirements for screw compressors are covered under API Standard 619.

ROTARY-SLIDING VANE COMPRESSORS

Rotary-sliding vane compressors (Fig. 13-64) are positive displacement machines. They have several applications, including vapor recovery and vacuum service. Each unit has a rotor eccentrically mounted inside a water jacketed cylinder. The rotor is fitted with blades that are free to move radially in and out of longitudinal slots. These blades are forced against the cylinder wall by centrifugal force. Fig. 13-65 illustrates how individual pockets are thus formed by the blades, and how the gas inside these pockets is compressed as the rotor turns. Oil is injected into the flow stream to lubricate the vanes, and is recovered via a downstream scrubber and recycled to the inlet.

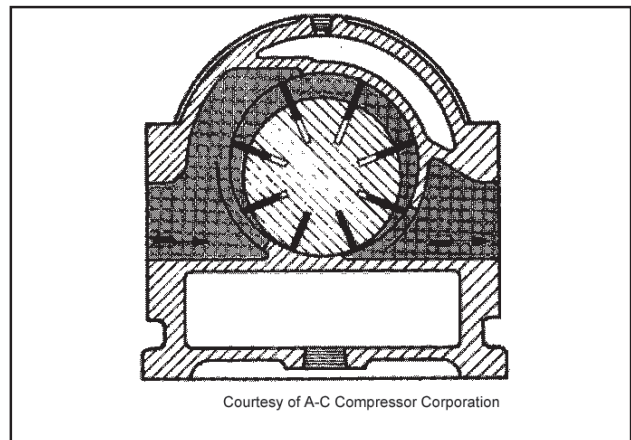
Sliding vane compressors are available in single- and multi-stage configurations. Typical single-stage capacities are ranging through 3200 cfm and 50 psig; two-stage compressors deliver pressures from 60 to 150 psig and flows up to approximately 1800 cfm. Most applications of rotary-sliding vane compressors in oil and gas service involve fairly small units, normally under 150 HP.

Jet Pump Technology^{1,2}

Jet pumps, also known as jet compressors, eductors or ejectors, are simple devices that use a high pressure (HP) fluid to increase the pressure of a lower pressure fluid (LP). In gas production, jet pumps have been successfully used in the following applications: boosting production of gas wells, preventing flaring of LP gas (vapor recovery), de-bottlenecking compressors, eliminating intermediate compressors, preventing HP wells from imposing back pressure on LP wells, and de-liquefaction of liquid-loaded wells. In general, jet pumps are less efficient fluid movers as compared to a compressor or multi-phase compressor but their attractiveness is their low cost, tolerance to presence of some liquids in gas and their simplicity compared

FIG. 13-65

Operating Principle of Sliding Vane Compressor



to other systems such as compressors. If there is a local high pressure source, or a compressor with excess capacity or in a recycle mode, a jet pump can provide a cost effective solution to increase or maintain production or boost the pressure of low pressure (LP) processed gas. The primary components are a nozzle on the HP fluid side, a LP fluid inlet nozzle, a mixing tube and a diffuser, as shown in Fig 13-66.

In most gas production applications, the high pressure source is gas. The high pressure gas flows through the nozzle where some of the pressure (potential) energy is converted into kinetic energy (velocity). As a result, a low pressure zone is produced in front of the nozzle, at which point the low pressure fluid is introduced. The combined stream flows through the mixing tube to transfer momentum and energy between the two streams. The fluid is then expanded in a diffuser where the velocity of the fluid is reduced and pressure of the system is increased.

In vapor recovery applications, the high pressure source is sometimes a liquid. For example in well field applications, the produced water can be pumped up to high pressure and used to boost the LP gas pressure to gas pipeline pressures. The high pressure vapor and water stream are then separated, the vapor flows into the outlet gas pipeline, and the water is recycled for jet pump use.

The primary factors governing jet pump performance are the HP/LP pressure ratio (PR), and the LP/HP mass flow ratio. Other operating conditions, such as temperature and fluid physical properties will factor into the performance of the jet pump, but to a lesser extent. The resulting discharge pressure is primarily a function of the downstream production and process system.

Figure 13-67 provides typical performance of a jet pump under a range of gas pressures and flow ratios. In general, the LP pressure can be increased from a few percent up to five fold with a single jet pump. In "typical" applications the discharge pressure is 1.5 to 3 time greater than the low pressure source. The

available LP/HP flow ratio is dependent upon the field installation and the HP source availability, but often it is 1:1 or less.

The performance of gas-gas jet pumps deteriorates if there are liquids present in the LP fluid. The reduction in performance is a result of the additional energy required to boost the pressure of the liquid phase, which has significantly more mass than the gas phase. In addition, increasing liquids in the LP stream can choke the flow of the jet pump due to the rapid decrease of the sonic velocity of the combined stream. The impact of liquids on performance is typically minimal up to 2 volume % liquid at operating pressure and temperature. Presence of liquids in the HP source is also problematic, as the liquids restrict flow through the nozzle. Gas-liquid separators, or other facility separators such as a test separator or a compact separator, may be used to separate the phases to achieve acceptable jet pump performance.

FIG. 13-66
General Configuration of a Jet Pump

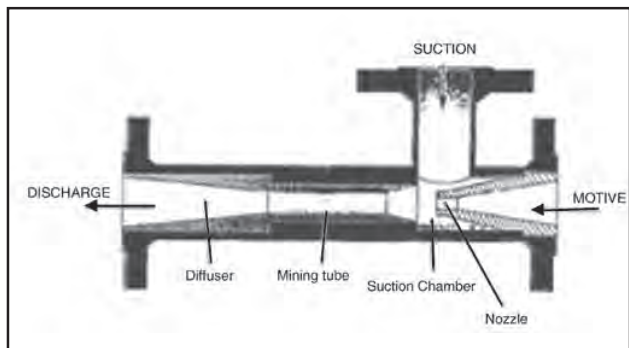
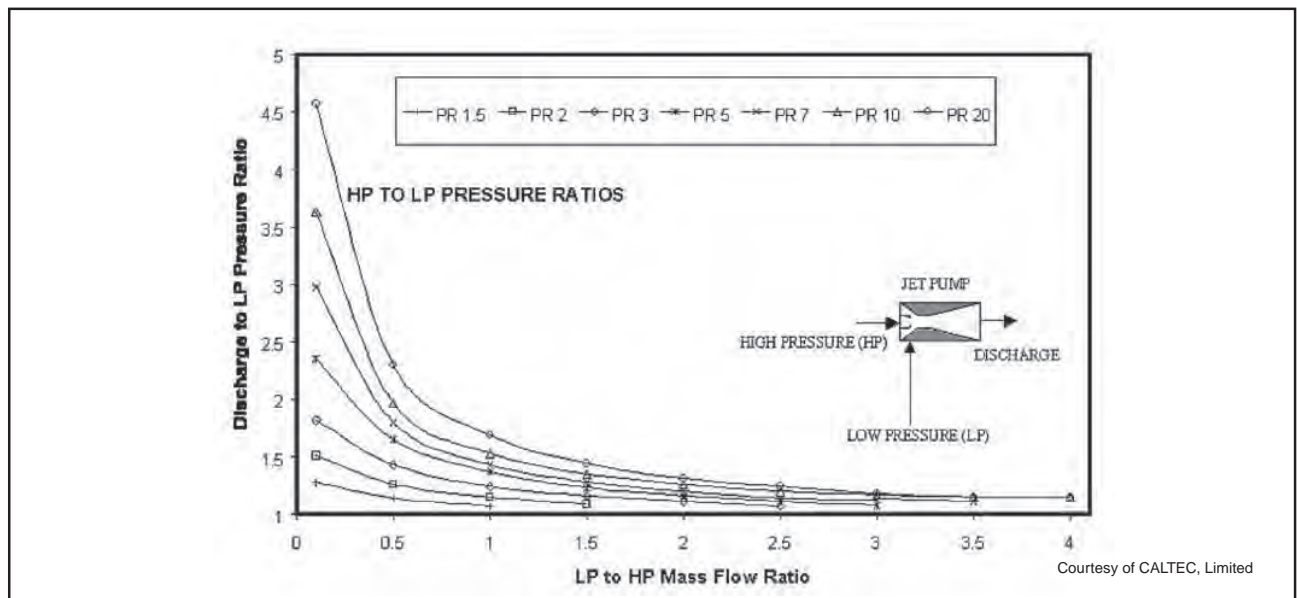


FIG. 13-67
HP to LP Pressure Ratios



Turboexpanders

The use of turboexpanders in gas processing plants began in the early sixties. By 1970, most new gas processing plants for ethane or propane recovery were being designed to incorporate the particular advantages characteristic of an expander producing usable work and lower temperatures. This is due to the expander following an isentropic path as compared to an isenthalpic path of a JT valve, and thereby provide more effective cooling for a given pressure drop. The trend in the gas processing industry continues toward increased use of the turboexpander.

Current turboexpander process applications include: Hydrocarbon Dewpoint, NGL and LPG Recovery, LNG, Nitrogen Rejection, Helium Recovery, Air Separation Units, and Nitrogen Refrigeration Cycles. Section 16, Hydrocarbon Recovery, provides descriptions of a number of common turboexpander process applications for hydrocarbon recovery.

Selection of a turboexpander process cycle is indicated when one or more of the following conditions exist:

1. "Free" pressure drop in the gas stream.
2. High ethane recovery requirements (i.e., over 30% ethane recovery).
3. Compact plant layout requirement.
4. Flexibility of operation (i.e., easily adapted to wide variation in pressure and products).

There are multiple factors in addition to the ones listed above that affect a final process selection. If two or more of the above conditions are coexistent, generally a turboexpander process selection will be the best choice.

Fig. 13-68 shows a typical low temperature turboexpander process for recovering ethane and heavier hydrocarbons from a natural gas stream.

Fig. 13-69 represents the pressure-temperature diagram for this expander process. The solid curve represents the plant inlet gas. The solid line on the right is the dew point line. At a fixed pressure and, if the temperature of the gas is to the right of this dew point line, the gas is 100 percent vapor. If the gas is cooled, liquid starts to condense when the temperature reaches the dew point line. As cooling continues, more liquid is condensed until the bubble point line is reached — the solid line on the left. At this point, all of the gas is liquid. Additional cooling results in colder liquid.

Downstream of the gas treating facilities, the inlet gas is represented by point 1 on both Fig. 13-68 and 13-69. As the gas is cooled by the gas/gas exchangers and demethanizer side exchanger, its temperature moves along the dotted line to point 2 (Fig. 13-69). At 2, the gas enters the expander inlet separator where the condensed liquid is separated from the vapor. This vapor now has its own pressure-temperature diagram, as represented by the dashed curve. At the expander inlet, the gas is on its dew point line.

As the gas flows through the expander, its pressure-temperature path is shown by the dashed line from point 2 to point 3. Point 3 represents the outlet of the expander. The importance of using the expander as a driver for a compressor can be seen in Fig. 13-69. If the gas had been expanded without doing any driver work, the expansion path would be from point 2 to point 4. This is called a Joule-Thomson, or constant enthalpy

expansion. The outlet temperature and pressure would be higher than that accomplished in the expander (nearly isentropic) expansion process.

Note that the pressure at Point 4 is not as low as that attained by flow through the expander (Point 3). This is because it has been assumed for this example that, without the expander running (therefore the brake compressor also not running), the process cannot restore the demethanizer overhead vapor to the residue gas pressure using the separate recompressor alone.

Also, because the path to Point 4 is adiabatic without the gas doing work, the gas does not cool to as low a temperature as the path to Point 3. That is, the path (2) to (3) is isentropic expansion producing work and thereby cooling the gas more than the simple isenthalpic (J-T) expansion path.

The higher temperature at Point 4 results in a reduction of product recovery. The use of the expander brake compressor to boost the residue gas pressure will allow a lower expansion pressure without the use of more residue compression.

THERMODYNAMICS

A turboexpander (often just referred to as 'expander') recovers useful work from the expansion of a gas stream. The expander operates isentropically in the ideal case and produces something less than the theoretical work in the real case. In the process of producing work, the expander lowers the bulk stream temperature which can result in partial liquefaction of the bulk stream. A simple schematic of an expander is given in Fig. 13-70.

An example calculation of an expander operating on pure methane is provided to demonstrate the thermodynamic principles of expanders.

Gas inlet conditions (t_1, P_1) to the expander are generally set by upstream conditions. The outlet pressure P_2 from the expander is often set by the desired NGL recovery and recompressor power considerations. Fig. 13-71 gives an example calculation.

Outlet conditions for the expander processing a multi-component stream must be determined by trial-and-error calculations if one were to do them by hand.

For multicomponent streams, such as natural gas, the hand calculations are iterative, tedious, and are only close approximations for expander performance. Expander and compressor performance is typically modeled using current process simulators.

In many applications the loading device for the turboexpander is a centrifugal compressor. Shaft and bearing losses in the order of 2% are usually deducted to calculate net power input to the driven end from the expander.

MECHANICAL

Mechanical design of the turboexpander is the business of several manufacturers. Any specific information must come from such supplier.

Of the various general turbine types available, the radial reaction turbine design is dominant in cryogenic turboexpander natural gas plant applications. These units operate over wide ranges of inlet flow and pressure conditions, by utilizing vari-

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able inlet guide vanes. They operate at very high rotating speeds and thus are subject to the design and operating cautions common to similar sophisticated rotating equipment.

The most common configuration is a turboexpander-compressor where the expander power is used to compress gas in the process. In this case, the compressor wheel operates on the same shaft as the expander wheel. Other applications of the power recovery are expander-pump or expander-generator drives. These normally require gearing to reduce the expander speed to that required for the driven unit.

Since power recovery and refrigeration effect are primary benefits of expander applications, rotating speeds are set to optimize the expander efficiency. This will usually result in a compromise in the compressor end design and lower compressor efficiencies. Usual efficiencies quoted for radial type units are 80 to 83% for the expander and 68 to 70% for the compressor.

Some areas requiring extra attention in the installation of turboexpanders are listed below. The list is by no means comprehensive, but these items require more than the normal amount of concern in designing the installation of a turboexpander unit for cryogenic operation.

1. The expander inlet gas stream must be free of solid or liquid entrainment. Liquids are removed in a high pressure separator vessel. An inlet screen of fine mesh is usually required for solids removal. Monitoring of the pressure drop across this screen is recommended. Formation of solids (ice, carbon dioxide, amines, heavy oils) will often occur here first and can be detected by an increase in pressure drop across the screen.

2. Source of the seal gas, particularly during start-up, is an important consideration. The stream must be clean, dry, sweet, and of sufficient pressure to meet the system requirements.

3. Normally a quick closure shutoff valve is required on the expander inlet. Selection of this valve and actuator type must take into account start-up, operating, and shutdown conditions.

4. Vibration detection instrumentation is useful but not mandatory. Its application is normally an owner and vendor option and influenced by operating economics.

5. Loading of the flanges by the process piping system must be within prescribed limits to avoid distortion of the case, resulting in bearing or wheel rubbing problems.

6. Failures due to mechanical resonance have occurred in turboexpanders. Even though the manufacturer will exert his best efforts at the manufacturing stage to avoid this problem, in-plant operation may uncover an undesirable resonance. This must be solved in conjunction with the manufacturer and may involve a redesign of the wheels, bearing modifications, vane or diffuser redesign, etc.

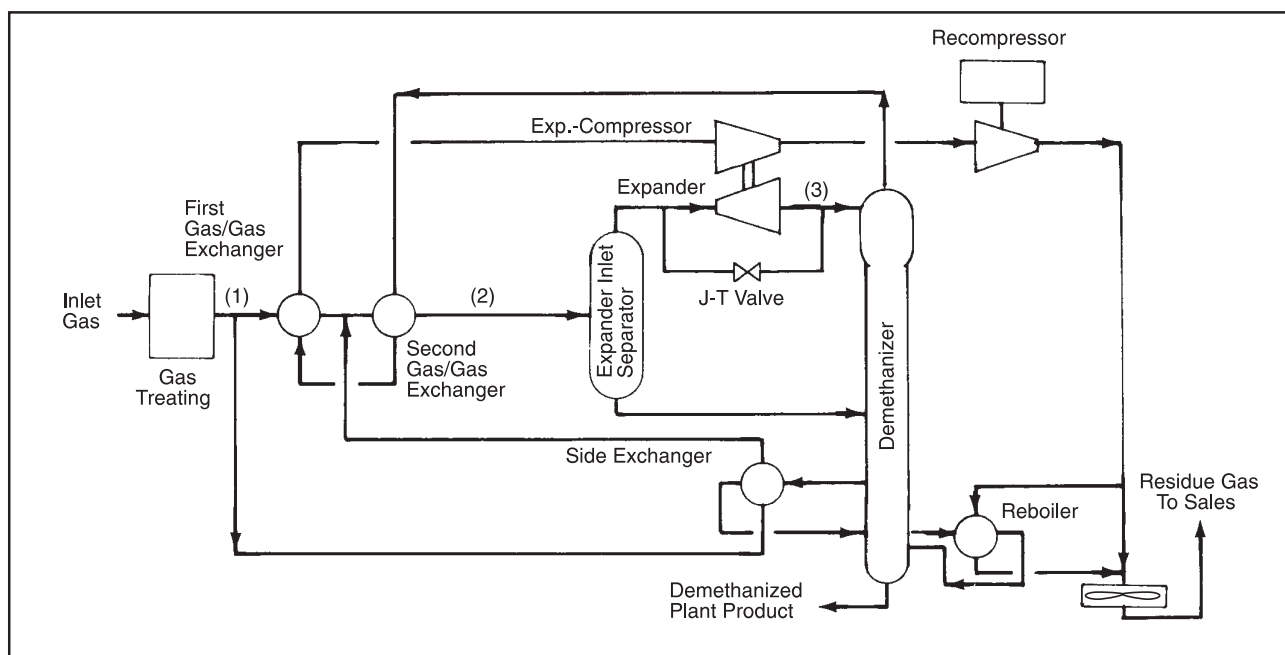
The installation of a turboexpander-compressor unit also requires the proper design of a lube system, instrumentation, etc., in common with other industrial rotating equipment. It is common practice to install a turboexpander-compressor with no special anti-surge instrumentation for the compressor unit. This is acceptable if it can be determined that the gas flow through the compressor is balanced with flow through the expander and the two will vary simultaneously.

Auxiliary Systems

Both lubricated and non-lubricated turboexpander designs are available.

Lubrication System — The lubrication system circulates cooled and filtered lube oils to the turboexpander bearings as shown on Fig. 13-72. The principle components of the system

FIG. 13-68
Example Expander Process



are monitored on the lube console and normally consist of two electric motor-driven lube oil pumps, an oil cooler, a dual filter valve, a bladder type with switching coastdown accumulator, and a pressurized reservoir with mist eliminator.

The lube oil pumps (one stand-by) must maintain a constant flow to the radial and thrust bearings. Absence of oil, or improper filtration, can cause bearing damage. Most manufacturers recommend a light turbine oil (315 SSU at 100°F) for best machine performance.

The lube oil cooler is an integral part of the system to reject heat that is generated across the bearings. It can be of a fan air cooled type or shell and tube design, water cooled. If the cooling water is scale forming, duplicate coolers (one stand-by) are recommended.

Lube oil filtration is extremely important due to close tolerances between bearing surfaces.

The lube-oil reservoir serves as a surge tank to enhance pump suction as well as to serve as a degassing drum permitting process seal gas to be released from the oil. If necessary, the reservoir should be equipped with a heater to bring the oil up to temperature for a “cold” start.

Seal Gas System — The seal gas system prevents loss of process gas and assures protection against entry of lube oil into process gas areas. To accomplish this, a stream of “seal gas” is injected into each labyrinth shaft seal at a pressure higher than that of the process gas. The leaking seal gas is collected in the oil reservoir, then returned through a mist eliminator to the fuel gas system, or put back into the compressor suction end.

The system for seal gas injection consists of a liquid collector, electric heater (if required), twin filters, and differential pressure regulators.

If recompression is necessary for the gas processing plant, sales gas is ideal for use as seal gas. If no recompression is provided, a stream can be taken from the expander inlet separator, warmed and used as seal gas. A minimum seal gas temperature (about 70°F) is required to prevent oil thickening.

Seal gas filtration is essential because of close clearances provided between the shaft and seals.

FIG. 13-69

Pressure-Temperature Diagram for Expander Process

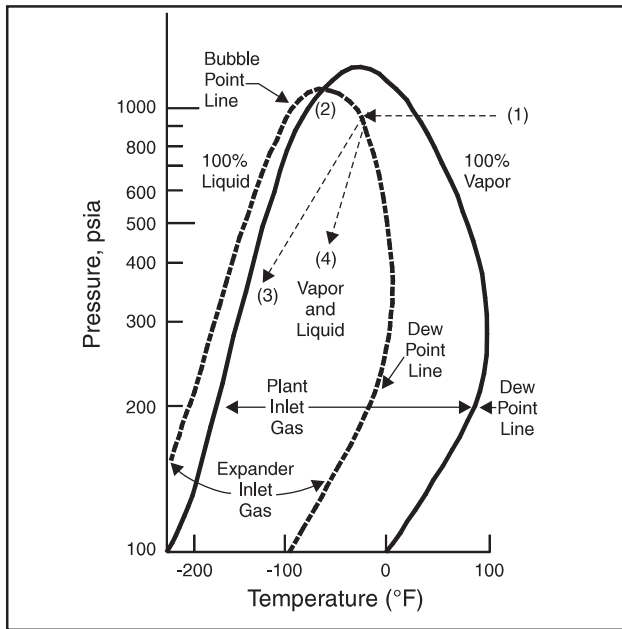


FIG. 13-70

Simple Expander

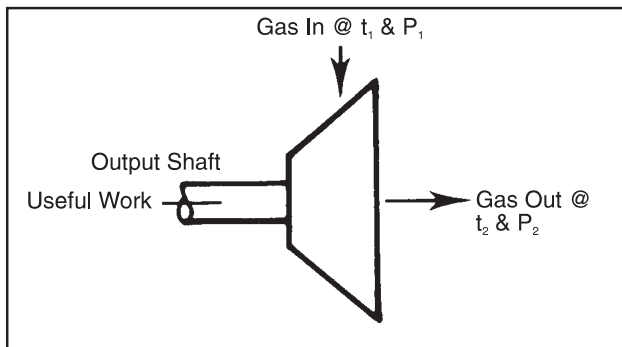


FIG. 13-71

Expander Example Calculation

Flow: 60 MMscfd $T_1 = -60^\circ\text{F}$
 $P_1 = 900$ psia
 $P_2 = 300$ psia

Composition: 100% C_1
 $60 \frac{\text{MMscfd}/1\text{d}/1 \text{ lbmol}}{24 \text{ hr}/379.5 \text{ scf}} = 6588 \frac{\text{lbmol}/16 \text{ lb}}{\text{hr}/\text{lbmol}} = 105408 \frac{\text{lb}}{\text{hr}}$

Using Fig. 24-17 for Enthalpy & Entropy values.

At Inlet conditions

$$h_1 = 295 \frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{lb}}, \quad s_1 = 1.0 \frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{lb}^\circ\text{F}}$$

At $P_2 = 300$ psia and assuming 100% efficiency (ideal)

$$s_2 = 1.0 \frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{lb}^\circ\text{F}} \quad T_{2 \text{ ideal}} \cong -160^\circ\text{F}$$

$$h_{2 \text{ ideal}} \cong 260 \frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{lb}}$$

$$\Delta h_{\text{ideal}} = (295 - 260) \frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{lb}} = 35 \frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{lb}}$$

Assume 80% expander efficiency:

$$\Delta h_{\text{actual}} = (0.80) \cdot \left(35 \frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{lb}}\right) = 28 \frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{lb}}$$

$$T_{2 \text{ actual}} \cong -157^\circ\text{F}$$

$$\text{Work produced} = \left(\frac{28 \text{ BTU}}{\text{lb}}\right) \cdot \left(105408 \frac{\text{lb}}{\text{hr}}\right)$$

$$= 2951424 \frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{hr}}$$

$$\text{Horsepower} = \frac{2951424 \frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{hr}}}{2545 \frac{\text{BTU}}{\text{HP}}} = 1160 \text{ HP}$$

Seal gas flow requirements are determined by the expander manufacturers as a part of their performance rating.

Control Systems

Process — Control of the process streams begins with proper dehydration and filtering. Generally a final protective screen upstream of the expander is designed into the piping system to form a protective barrier against carbon dioxide or water freezing.

As a further protection against water freezing, methanol injection connections are incorporated into the system upstream of the expander.

Machine — The expander speed is established by the manufacturer, given the process conditions. The expander manufacturer determines the wheel diameter and specific speed for maximum efficiency.

As plant operating conditions change, the expander speed may change. Fig. 13-73 shows the change in efficiency as a function of change in design flow rate.

Gas entering the expander is directed by adjustable nozzles into the impeller. About one-half of the pressure drop across the expander takes place in the nozzles, imparting kinetic energy to the gas which is converted to shaft horsepower by the expander wheel. Pressure reductions are normally limited to 3-4 ratios. Greater ratios reduce expander efficiency to the extent that 2-stage expansion may be advisable.

The adjustable inlet nozzles function as pressure control valves. A pneumatic operator takes a split range signal (3 to 9 psi) to stroke the nozzles. On increasing flow beyond the full open nozzle position, a 9 to 15 psi signal from a pressure controller opens a bypass control valve. This valve is called the J-T (Joule-Thomson) valve.

Thrust bearing force imbalance is caused by difference in pressures between the expander discharge and compressor suction. With a differential of the order of 20 psi, the thrust loads are usually within the capabilities of the thrust bearings. At higher pressure differentials, it is essential that steps be taken to control the thrust loads against each other, thereby the net thrust load will not exceed the thrust bearing capacity.

This is done by providing a force-measuring load-meter on each thrust bearing, Fig. 13-74, and a thrust control valve which controls the thrust by control of pressure behind the thrust balancing drums or behind one of the seals. These two load-meters indicate thrust bearing oil film pressure (proportional to bearing load) and the third shows the pressure behind the balancing drum as controlled by the valve in its vent as a means of adjusting the thrust load.

Vibration comes from an unbalanced force on one of the rotating components, or it could come from an outside source such as pipe vibration or gas pulsation.

Most expanders are supplied with monitoring and shutdown devices for shaft vibration. These devices are set to shut down the expander before damage occurs.

Lube Oil — The lube oil must be filtered. Most systems use a primary and secondary filtering system. Controls are provided to ensure oil flow to bearings at proper pressure and temperature. Two (2) lube oil pumps are furnished, the second pump serving as a standby. The standby oil pump is controlled automatically to cut in to provide oil pressure upon failure of the main pump or reduction in pressure for other reasons.

Generally an oil flow bypass valve is included to permit excess flow to bypass the expander bearings and return to the reservoir.

For temperature control, the oil must be cooled to prohibit heat buildup which occurs through the bearings. Also, a temperature control bypass is included in the circuit for an extra measure of control to keep the oil from getting too cool.

Seal Gas — Use a suitable gas stream with filtering and pressure control to maintain proper gas pressure at the shaft seals.

If the seal gas is delivered from a cold supply point (expander inlet separator) then a means of heating the gas is necessary.

The seal gas should be introduced before the lube oil system is started because there might be a pressure upset which would put enough oil into the process to cause a problem.

Each of the main rotating components (radial bearings, thrust bearings, and shaft seals) can be damaged or eroded by improper oil filtration, lack of oil flow, improper gas dehydration, and improper seal gas filtration.

Shutdown — A number of conditions during the operation of expanders justify prompt shutdown to avoid serious damage.

Some of these conditions are:

- High Vibration
- Low Lube Oil Flow
- High Inlet Separator Level
- High Inlet Screen Pressure Drops
- High Thrust
- High Lube Oil Temperature

FIG. 13-72
Lube Oil Schematic

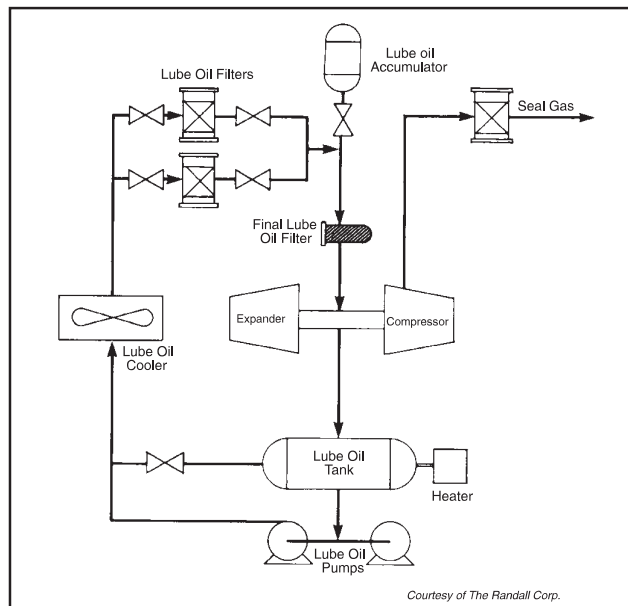
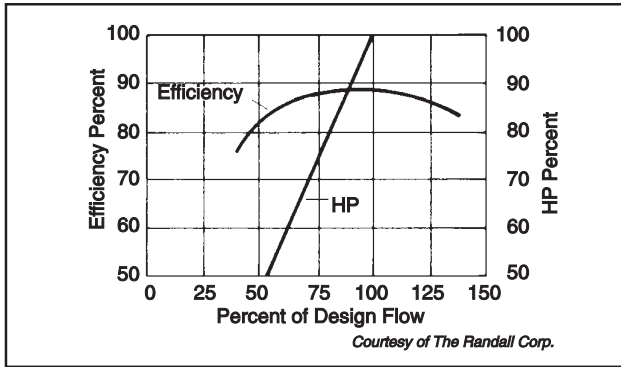


FIG. 13-73
Example Change in Efficiency with Flow Rate



- Low Lube Oil Pressure
- High Speed

Two primary actions of a shutdown signal are to block gas flow to the expander and the compressor. This is accomplished by actuating quick acting shutdown valves at the expander inlet and outlet and the compressor inlet. Simultaneously, a pressurized bladder supplies oil to the bearings during the expander coast down. The expander bypass valve (J-T) opens automatically and is positioned by the split-range pressure controller to keep the plant on-line in the J-T mode.

Field Performance — Field measurements can be made to check efficiencies and horsepower of the expander. The process of calculations is just the reverse of selecting a machine performance.

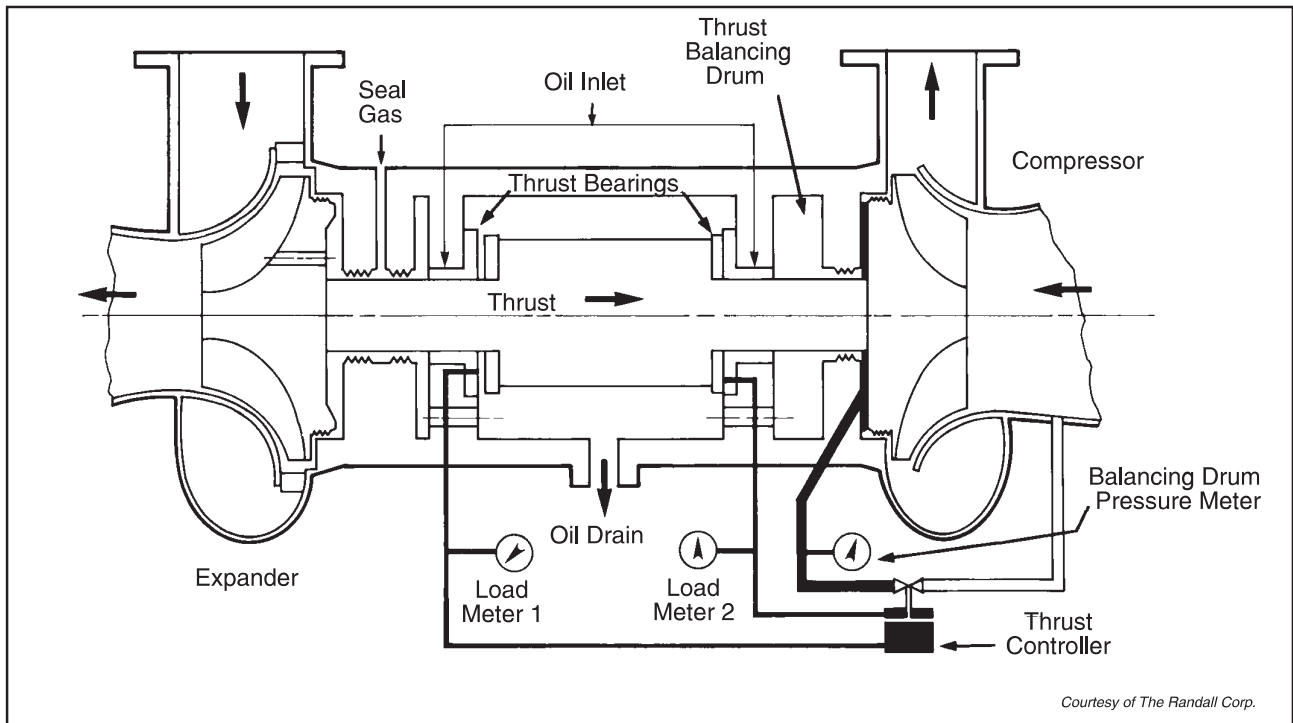
Knowing the gas composition, mass flow (lbs/hr), inlet and outlet conditions (pressure, temperature) for the expander, the actual difference in enthalpy can be determined for each unit.>

$$\text{Thus: } \Delta h_{\text{actual}} = h_{t_2 P_2} - h_{t_1 P_1}$$

$$\eta = \frac{\Delta h_{\text{actual}}}{\Delta h_{\text{ideal}}}$$

$$EP_{\text{actual}} = \frac{\Delta h_{\text{actual}} \cdot \text{lbs/hr}}{2,545}$$

FIG. 13-74
Typical Expander/Compressor Cross-Section with Thrust Balancing Schematic



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NATURAL GAS ENGINES

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Engine Model	Bore (mm)	Stroke (mm)	Displacement Per Cylinder (L/cyl)	Number Of Cylinders & Configuration L: In-Line V: Vee-Type H: Horizontal O: Opposed	Output Per Cylinder Range (kW)		Rated Speed Range (rpm)		Maximum Brake Mean Effective Pressure (bar)	Output Range		Rating System & Standard No. ISO - SAE - DIN - Other		
							min	max	min	max		hp	kW		min	max
ARROW ENGINE CO.	*	K-6	102	116	0.9	1L	4.5	4.5	400	800	71	6	6	EPA Certified		
		C Series	127 to 190.5	159 to 216	2 to 10.8	1L, 2L	8.7 to 49	300 to 450	600 to 800	5.6 to 6	9 to 65.7	7 to 49	7 to 49	EPA Certified		
			L-795	190.5	228	6.5	2L	24.3	300	600	3.7	65	49	49		
		A Series	98 to 150	118 to 150	0.9 to 2.65	3L, 6L, 12L	6 to 35.8	900 to 1200	1200 to 2200	5.8 to 9	22 to 215	16 to 160	16 to 160	160		
			GCM34	340	420	38.13	16V, 12V	381.25	750	750	16 (232)	6135	8180	4575	6100	
CATERPILLAR INC.	*	G Series	121 to 300	152 to 300	1.75 to 21.2	8 to 8L; 8 to 20V	17.8 to 233	1000	1000 to 1800	10 to 13.3 (142 to 193)	95 to 1875	211 to 5350	71 to 1398	157 to 3990		
			CG137	137	152	2.250	8V, 12V	37.25	1800	1800	11 (160.1)	400	600	298	447	
		Ajax DPC Series	330 to 381	406	36.15 to 46.33	2L, 3L, 4L	78 to 110	265	440	4.3 to 4.8	104 to 592	148 to 846	82 to 441	110 to 630	ANSI PTC 17-1974	
			Ajax E-565	216	254	9.29	L	21	315	525	3.67	28	40	21	30	ANSI PTC 17-1974
		Superior Series	254	267	13.52	12V, 16V	82, 83	124	900	900	12.26	1333 to 1766	2000 to 2650	994 to 1317	1491 to 1976	ANSI PTC 17-1974, DEMA
Cooper-Bessemer Series	457	508	26.55	6V to 16 V	299	374	270	330	8.13	2400 to 6400	3000 to 8000	1789 to 4772	2237 to 5965	ANSI PTC 17-1974, DEMA		
CUMMINS INC.	*	KTA19GCE	159	159	3.17	6L	31.5	52.2	1200	1800	N/A	254	420	189	313	SAE J1995
		G855	140	152	2.33	6L	13.0	23.3	1000	1800	N/A	104	188	78	140	SAE J1995
			QSL96	114	145	1.48	6L	11.7	21.7	1200	1800	N/A	90	175	67	130
		68.3	114	135	1.38	6L	6.8	16.8	1000	2200	N/A	55	135	41	101	SAE J1995
		65.9	102	120	0.98	6L	3.3	12.3	1000	2200	N/A	27	99	20	74	SAE J1995
		GTA Series	102 to 159	120 to 159	0.98 to 3.17	6L, 12V	96 to 35.4	14.4 to 47.2	1000 to 1350	1800	N/A	48 to 570	116 to 760	36 to 425	87 to 567	SAE J1995
INNO - WAUKESHA GAS ENGINES	*	275GL+/16V	275	300	17.82	16V	175	233	750	1000	15.7			2796	3729	
		275GL+/12V	275	300	17.82	12V	175	233	750	1000	15.7			2097	2796	
		VHP/P9394 S5	238	216	7.92 to 9.58	6L, 12V, 16V	38.2 to 87.4	85.75 to 118	800 to 1000	1200	9.6 to 12.3			368 to 1399	552 to 1865	
		VGF Series	152	165	3	6L, 8L, 12V, 16V	19.8 to 38.3	55	1100 to 1400	1800	12.2			119 to 530	330 to 880	
WÄRTSILÄ	*	340 to 500	400 to 580	32.17 to 114	9L, 12V to 20V	480 to 1045	500, 720	514, 750	20 to 23	5431 to 22,931	12,337 to 25,828	4050 to 18,810	9200 to 19,260	ISO 3046; Gas Engine or Dual-Fuel		

* This company is not represented in the 2022 Sourcing Guide with a section describing its products.

MECHANICAL DRIVE GAS TURBINES

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Number	Continuous Output At ISO Conditions		Heat Rate		Pressure Ratio	Maximum Output Shaft Speed (rpm)
			bhp	kW	Btu/hph	kJ/kWh		
BAKER HUGHES	Inside Front Cover, 65	NovatIT2	17,400	12,975	6914	9783	19	8900
		NovatIT6-2	23,467	17,499	6784.5	9600	19	7800
		P6T25	31,195	23,262	6793	9612	17.9	6500
		P6T25+	41,750	31,133	6280	8886	21.5	6100
		P6T25+64	45,160	33,676	6280	8886	23.2	6100
		P6T25+65	51,390	38,322	6187	8755	25.1	6100
		LM2500	31,235	23,292	6797	9618	18.7	3600
		LM2500+	41,775	31,152	6523	9230	23.7	3600
		LM2500+64	45,077	33,614	6450	9127	24.3	3600
		LM2500+65	50,420	37,598	6070	8589	25	3600
		LM6000PC	59,662	44,490	6028	8530	30.1	3600
		LM6000PF	59,655	44,485	6018	8515	30	3600
		LM6000P6	70,787	52,786	6042.4	8550	33.8	3930
		LM6000PF+	72,238	53,868	6052	8564	33.7	3930
		LMS000	98,565	73,500	5783	8183	33	3429
		LMS100-PB+	147,512	110,000	5783	8183	44	3429
LMS100-PB	140,475	104,752	5719	8092	42	3429		
Frame 5-2C	36,000	28,337	8701	12,312	9.1	4670		
Frame 5-2D	45,570	34,000	8410	11,900	11	4670		
Frame 5-2E	45,300	33,800	6884	9741	17.4	5714		
Frame 6B	59,004	44,000	7591	10,741	12.7	5163		
Frame 7EA	122,033	91,000	7501	10,614	13	3600		
Frame 9E	177,012	132,000	7754	10,972	13.1	3000		

MECHANICAL DRIVE GAS TURBINES

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Number	Continuous Output At ISO Conditions		Heat Rate		Pressure Ratio	Maximum Output Shaft Speed (rpm)
			bhp	kW	Btu/hph	kJ/kWh		
GTR & PC-ZORYA™-MASHPROJEKT™	*	UGT3000 (DE76)	4500	3360	8210	11,615	13.5	9700
		UGT6000 (DT71)	8720	6500	8080	11,430	14.0	8200
		UGT8000 (DT70)	11,130	8300	7665	10,845	16.0	8200
		UGT10000 (DM70)	14,080	10500	7070	10,000	18.5	4800/6500
		UGT15000 (DG690)	22,400	16,700	7270	10,285	19.5	5200
		UGT16000 (DJ59L2)	22,400	16,700	7955	11,250	13.0	5200
		UGT25000 (DU80)	34,870	26,000	7070	10,000	21.5	5000
		UGT25000 (DN80)	35,800	26,700	6975	9865	21.5	3700
		UGT32000 (DU32)	43,990	32,800	6525	9230	22.8	5500
		UGT6000	9250 - 11,130	6900 - 8300	7270 - 7480	10,290 - 10,590	15	12,600
MAN ENERGY SOLUTIONS	118, 119	THM 1304-10N	14,080	10,500	8370	11,840	10	9450
		THM 1304-12N	16,090	12,000	8210	11,610	11	9450
		MFT-8	35,910	26,780	6582	9913	21	5000
MITSUBISHI	*	ASE-40	3038	2265	10,259	14,518	8.4	15,400
		SGT Series	7644 to 54,994	5700 to 41,100	6121 to 7656	8661 to 10,832	13.8 to 24.3	6405 to 13,650
SIEMENS ENERGY	*	SGT-AS5 Series	37,464 to 51,092	27,940 to 38,100	6289 to 6919	8893 to 9648	20.6 to 25.2	3600 to 5093
		Titan 250	31,900	23,790	6360	9000	24.1	7000
SOLAR TURBINES INCORPORATED	Prime Movers Tab	Titan 130	23,470	17,500	6800	9620	16.1	8865
		Mars 100	15,900	11,860	7395	10,465	17.1	9500
		Mars 90	13,220	9860	7655	10,830	16.3	9500
		Taurus 70	11,110	8290	7190	10,170	16.5	11,605
		Taurus 60	7700	5740	7950	11,250	12.2	14,300
		Centaur 50	6150	4590	8485	12,000	10.3	16,500
		Centaur 40	4700	3500	9100	12,870	10.3	15,500
		Saturn 20	1590	1185	10,360	14,655	6.7	22,300

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MECHANICAL DRIVE STEAM TURBINES

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Type	Output Range				Cycle Type	Frame Configuration	Number Frame Sizes		Maximum Inlet Steam Pressure		Maximum Inlet Temperature		Maximum Steam Flow		Speed Range (rpm)	
			kW		hp				bar	PSI	°C	°F	kg/s	lb/s	min	max		
			min	max	min	max												
BAKER HUGHES	Inside Front Cover, 65	SNC	2000	100,000	2,680	134,100	X	I	SF	140	2030	565	1050	180	400	2000	16,000	
		SANC	2000	100,000	2,680	134,100	X	E/I	SF	140	2030	565	1050	180	400	2000	16,000	
		SC	2000	150,000	2,680	201,153		I	SF	140	2030	565	1050	220	485	2000	16,000	
		SAC	2000	150,000	2,680	201,153	X	E/I	SF	140	2030	565	1050	220	485	2000	16,000	
		SDFC	5000	80,000	6,705	107,282	X	I	DF	30	435	300	570	100	660	2000	16,000	
		SQNC	2000	35,000	2,680	46,900	X	I	SF	30	435	300	570	180	400	2000	16,000	
		SQC	2000	60,000	2,680	80,500	X	I	SF	30	435	300	570	180	400	2000	16,000	
		SQDFC	5000	60,000	6,705	80,500	X	I	DF	30	435	300	570	100	660	2000	16,000	
		C	500	6000	670	8050	X	E/I	SF	90	1305	500	932			3000	15,000	
		P	500	6000	670	8050	X	E/I	SF	90	1305	500	932			3000	15,000	
		BPPT	5000	30,000	6705	40,230	X		SF	280	4060	575	1070			3000	6,000	
		MC	2000	45,000	2000	60,300	X	E/I	SF	140	2030	540	1004			3000	15,000	
		MP	2000	40,000	1350	53,600	X	E/I	SF	140	2030	540	1004			3000	15,000	
		ELLIOTT GROUP	61,137, Inside Back Cover	YR	1	2500	1,00	3500	X		SF	5	103	538	1000	15	34	500
K, R, Q, N	745			130,000	1000	175,000	X	E/I	SF/DF	4	151	2200	1050	303	670	1500	16,000	
MYR				10,400		14,000	X	E	SF	5	62	900	482	18	40	500	8500	
E, B	336			8950	450	12000	X		SF/DF	2	65	950	510	950	29	63	2000	14,500
KK&K BASE AF	30			750	40	1000	yes	no		SF	2	101	1485	500	3	7		5000
HOWDEN	104, 105	KK&K BASE BF	2	350	3	475	yes	no		SF	3	101	1485	500	4	9		4500
		KK&K MONO	300	6000	400	8000	yes	yes		SF	10	131	1925	530	40	88		25,000
		KK&K TWIN	1000	12,000	1350	16,100	yes	yes		SF, DF	combinations of KK&K MONO frames	131	1925	530	45	99	1500	3000
		KK&K MONO CBA	300	4500	400	6000	yes	no		SF	1	53	769	440	40	88		9000

MECHANICAL DRIVE STEAM TURBINES

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Type	Output Range				Cycle Type	Frame Configuration	Number Frame Sizes	Maximum Inlet Steam Pressure		Maximum Inlet Temperature		Maximum Steam Flow		Speed Range (rpm)			
			kW		hp					bar	PSI	°C	°F	kg/s	lb/s	min	max		
			min	max	min	max													
MAN ENERGY SOLUTIONS	T18, T19	MST 010	500	1500	670	2010	X	E, I	SF	45	653	450	842			8000	16,500		
		MST 020	1000	5000	1340	6700	X	E, I	SF	130	1885	530	966			13,000	13,000		
		MST 040	3000	15,000	4020	20,100	X	E, I	SF	140	2030	540	1004			4164	14,206		
		MST 050	5000	30,000	6700	40,200	X	E, I	SF	140	2030	540	1004			3559	11,365		
		MST 060	15,000	55,000	20,100	73,700	X	E, I	SF	140	2030	540	1004			2546	10,166		
		MST 080	25,000	75,000	33,500	100,500	X	E, I	SF	140	2030	540	1004			2038	7274		
		MST 100	40,000	140,000	53,600	187,600	X	E, I	SF	140	2030	540	1004			1536	5819		
		MST 120	70,000	180,000	93,800	241,200	X	E, I	SF	140	2030	540	1004			1536	4655		
		MITSUBISHI	*	EBL or EBH	2000	80,000	2700	107,300	X	E	SF	142	2060	560	1040	167	368	2600	25,000
				MXL or MXH	2000	80,000	2700	107,300	X	I	SF	142	2060	560	1040	83	183	2600	19,000
EL or EH	2000			120,000	2700	160,000	X	E	SF	142	2060	560	1040	220	485	2600	19,000		
BL or BH	2000			80,000	2700	107,300	X	E	SF	142	2060	560	1040	167	368	2600	25,000		
MITSUBISHI HEAVY INDUSTRIES COMPRESSOR INTERNATIONAL	*	C	50,000	50,000	67,000	67,000	X	E, I	SF, DF	170	2465	565	1050	14	30		20,000		
		B	50,000	50,000	67,000	67,000	X	E, I	SF	130	1885	540	1004				14,000		
SIEMENS ENERGY	*	SST Series		20,000 to 200,000			X	E, I	SF/DF	30 to 165	430 to 2395	400 to 565	750 to 1050				8000 to 18,000		
		D-R Series		750 to 25,000		1000 to 33,500	X	E, I	SF	63 to 125	915 to 1508	482 to 550	890 to 1022				6000 to 15,000		

* This company is not represented in the 2022 Sourcing Guide with a section describing its products.

ELECTRIC MOTORS

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Frame Size		Output Range (kW)		Poles (2, 4, 6)		Voltage Range (kV)		Motor Type (IM, SM)	Frequency Hz (50, 60)	VFD Operation (Y/N)	Speed Range For VFD Operation		Motor Efficiency (%) At Rated Operating Point	Normal Power Factor (cos Phi) At Rated Operating Point	Explosion Proof Available (Y/N)	A/A=Air/Air A/W=Air/Water R=Rib-Coated O=Open
			min	max	min	max	min	max	min	max				min	max				
BALDOR	*	Varies	143 to 183	184 to 286	1	4 to 22	4	200	230 to 375			60	N		89	85		Y	A/A
				450 to 560	119 to 3729	6, 8	4/4,16	IM	60	Y	600	900, 1200							
CATERPILLAR INC.	*	CN Series		630		2700	8	10		IM	50	Y	Y	750					IC611
				355	560	200	2500	2 to 18		11	IM	50, 60	Y	Y		98		Y	R
				710	1250	400	8000	2 to 24		15	IM	50, 60	Y	Y		98		Y	A/A
				500	1250	400	16000	2 to 24		15	IM	50, 60	Y	Y		98		Y	A/A
				355	560	130	2500	2 to 8		11	IM	50, 60	Y	Y		98		Y	W
				200	630	37	3000	2 to 10	0	1	IM	50, 60	Y	Y	0	10,000		Y	W
				450	1250	300	35,000	2 to 24		15	IM	50, 60	Y	Y		98		Y	A/W
				500	1250	500	25,000	2 to 8		15	IM	50, 60				98		Y	A/W
				355	1400		35,000	2 to 30		15	IM	50, 60	Y	Y		98		Y	
				280	450	200	800	2 to 8	3	11	IM	50, 60	Y	Y	1	3600	97	0.92	N
GE POWER CONVERSION	*	FL	355	560	500	2500	2 to 12	3	11	IM	50, 60	Y	Y	1	5000	97.5	0.92	N	A/A A/W O
			355	560	200	1800	2 to 12	3	11	IM	50, 60	Y	Y	1	3600	97.5	0.9	Y	R
			450, 630	1250, 1600	500 to 4000	8000 to 40,000	2 to 30	3	14	IM	50, 60	Y	Y	1	3600, 5000	97.8	0.93	N	A/A A/W O
			800	1600	7500	50,000	4 to 30	3	14	SM	50, 60	Y	Y	1	1800	98	1	N	A/A A/W O
			1000	1800	15,000	100,000	2	6	11	SM	N/A	Y	Y	500	6500	98.5	1	N	A/W
			450	800	1500	20,000	2	3	9	IM	N/A	Y	Y	3000	15,000	97.5	0.85	N	INTEGRATED
			400	710	265	8500	2 to 12	3	14	IM	50, 60	Y	Y	5	60	95	90	Y	A/A, A/W, O
			250	500	55	2250	2 to 12	3	6	IM	50, 60	Y	Y	5	60	95	90	Y	R
			215T	405T	7.5	74.9	4	230	600	IM	60	Y	Y	3	120	92.4	88	Y	R
				Special	500 to 10,000	70,000 to 100,000	2	2	14	IM	50 and up	Y	Y	3000	12000	98	1	Y	TEAAC, TEWAC
TECO WESTINGHOUSE	*	PDH	630	Special	10,000	25,000 to 70,000	Any	2	14	IM or SM	50, 60	Y	Y	1	3600	98	1	Y	TEAAC, TEWAC
			315	1200	160	25,000	Any	2	14	IM	50, 60	Y	Y	1	3600	98	1	Y	TEFC, WPII, TEAAC, TEWAC
WEG	*	W22	215T	405T	7.5	74.9	4	230	600	IM	60	Y	Y	3	120	92.4	83	Y	R

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VARIABLE SPEED DRIVES

2022 BASIC SPECIFICATIONS

MANUFACTURER	Catalog Page Reference	Model Designation	Output Range (kW)		Max. Motor Voltage (kV)	Max. Output Frequency (Hz)	Rectifier Type (6, 12, 18, 24, 36 Pulse, AFE)	Drive Type (VSI, CSI, LCI)	Step Number Of Inverter Output (6, 12, 24 Pulse System)	Semiconductors		Motor Type (IM, SM)	Cooling A=Air W=Water
			min	max						Rectifier	Inverter		
GE POWER CONVERSION	*	MV Series		3800 to 27,000	3.3 to 10	300	12 Puls to 36 Puls, AFE	VSI	3 Level	Diode or IGBT	IGBT	IM or SM	A or W
		2xMV7927		54,000	10	300	2 x 36 Puls	VSI	5 Level	Diode	IGBT	IM or SM	W
		3xMV7927		81,000	10	300	3 x 36 Puls	VSI	7 Level	Diode	IGBT	IM or SM	W
		SD Series		4000 to 80,000	1.5 to 11	100	6 or 12 Puls	LCI	6 or 12 Puls	Thyristor	Thyristor	SM	A or W
		MV Series		250 To 5500	4.1 to 6.6	75 to 90	36 Puls or AFE	VSI	5 level	Diode or IGBT	IGBT	IM or SM	A
NIDEC ASI	*	Silcovert TN	1300	21,600	3300	140	12p, 24p, AFE	VSI	6	Diode/IGBT	IGBT	IM	A, W
		Silcovert GN	10,000	24,000	3300	70	12p, 24p, AFE	VSI	6	Diode/IGCT	IGCT	IM, SM	W
		Silcovert TH	290	42,400	2400 - 7200	300	18p, 24p, 30p, 36p	VSI	6	Diode	IGBT	IM, SM	A, W
		Silcovert TH+	1400	60,200	10,000 - 13,800	300	24p, 30p, 36p	VSI	6	Diode	IGBT	IM, SM	A, W
		Silcovert FH	400	2500	3,300 - 6,600	100	AFE transformerless	VSI	6	IGBT	IGBT	IM	A
		Silcovert S	1500	45,000	3,300 - 6,600	70	6p, 12p, 24p	LCI	6, 12	Thyristor	Thyristor	SM	A, W
VOITH TURBO	*	Variable speed planetary gear	1000	50,000	any motor possible	motor is operated direct online	N/A		N/A	N/A	N/A	IM, SM	A, W
		Geared variable speed coupling	1000	30,000	any motor possible	motor is operated direct online	N/A		N/A	N/A	N/A	IM, SM	A, W
		Variable speed coupling	100	10,000	any motor possible	motor is operated direct online	N/A		N/A	N/A	N/A	IM, SM	A, W

* This company is not represented in the 2022 Sourcing Guide with a section describing its products.

The following section covering Prime Movers for Mechanical Drives has been reproduced, by permission, from the **GPSA Engineering Data Book**, 14th edition, published by GPSA. The complete GPSA Engineering Data Book can be ordered by visiting GPSAamidstreamsuppliers.org/.

Prime movers for mechanical drives

“Prime movers for mechanical drives” is a common term for machines made for transferring mechanical energy to pumps and compressors, including:

- Steam turbines
- Gas turbines
- Electrical motors
- Internal combustion engines

Special considerations for the use of prime movers as drives for generators are not included in this chapter.

STEAM TURBINE TYPES

Mechanical drive steam turbines are major prime movers for compressor, blower, and pump applications. Steam turbines are available for a wide range of steam conditions, horsepower, and speeds. Typical ranges for each design parameter are:

Inlet Pressure, psig	30 – 2000
Inlet Temperature, °F	saturated – 1000
Exhaust Pressure, psig	saturated – 700
Horsepower	5 – 100,000
Speed, rpm	1800 – 14,000

Steam turbines used as process drivers are usually required to operate over a range of speeds in contrast to a turbine used to drive an electric generator which runs at nearly constant speed. Significant hardware differences exist between these two applications. Only variable speed process drivers will be covered here.

Mechanical drive steam turbines are categorized as:

- Single-stage or multi-stage
- Condensing or non-condensing exhausts
- Extraction or admission
- Impulse or reaction

Single Stage/Multi-Stage

In a single-stage turbine, steam is accelerated through one cascade of stationary nozzles and guided into the rotating blades or buckets on the turbine wheel to produce power. A Rateau design has one row of buckets per stage (Fig. 15-2). A Curtis design has two rows of buckets per stage and requires a set of turning vanes between the first and second row of buckets to redirect the steam flow (Fig. 15-3). A multi-stage turbine utilizes either a Curtis or Rateau first stage followed by one or more Rateau stages.

Single-stage turbines are usually limited to about 2500 horsepower although special designs are available for larger units. Below 2500 horsepower the choice between a single and a multi-stage turbine is usually an economic one. For a given shaft horsepower, a single-stage turbine will have a lower capital cost but will require more steam than a multi-stage turbine because of the lower efficiency of the single-stage turbine.

Condensing/Non-Condensing

The energy available in each pound of steam which flows through the turbine is a function of the overall turbine pressure ratio (inlet pressure/exhaust pressure) and inlet temperature. Condensing turbines are those whose exhaust pressure is below atmospheric. They offer the highest overall turbine pressure ratio for a given set of inlet conditions and therefore require the lowest steam flow to produce a given horsepower. A cooling medium is required to totally condense the steam.

Non-condensing or back-pressure turbines exhaust steam at pressures above atmospheric and are usually applied when the exhaust steam can be utilized elsewhere.

Extraction/Admission

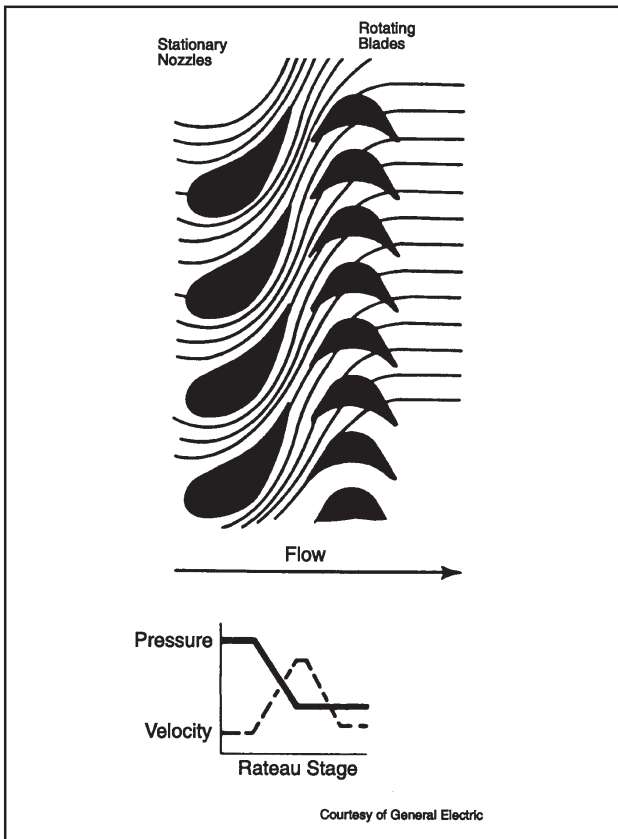
Some mechanical drive steam turbines are either extraction or admission machines. Steam is extracted from, or admitted to, the turbine at some point between the inlet and exhaust (Fig. 15-4). Admission or extraction units may be either controlled or uncontrolled. An uncontrolled turbine accepts or provides steam based only on the characteristics of the steam sys-

FIG. 15-1
Nomenclature

A	=	area, sq in.
ASR	=	actual steam rate, lb/(hp · hr)
BMEP	=	brake mean effective pressure, psi
D	=	diameter, in.
F	=	steam flow, lb/hr
f	=	frequency, Hz
h	=	specific enthalpy of superheated steam, Btu/lb
h _f	=	specific enthalpy of saturated water, Btu/lb
h _g	=	specific enthalpy of saturated steam, Btu/lb

N	=	number of power strokes per min
P	=	number of magnetic poles in motor
s	=	specific entropy of superheated steam, Btu/(lb · °F)
s _f	=	specific entropy of saturated water, Btu/(lb · °F)
s _g	=	specific entropy of saturated steam, Btu/(lb · °F)
S	=	piston stroke, ft
TSR	=	theoretical steam rate, lb/(hp · hr)
v	=	velocity, ft/sec
ρ	=	density, lb/cu ft

FIG. 15-2
Rateau Design



tem to which the extraction or admission line is connected. A controlled turbine will control the flow of extraction or admission steam based on some process measurement such as pressure or flow. In general, if the horsepower associated with the extraction or admission flow is greater than 15% of the total turbine horsepower, a controlled extraction (or admission) turbine is used.

Impulse/Reaction

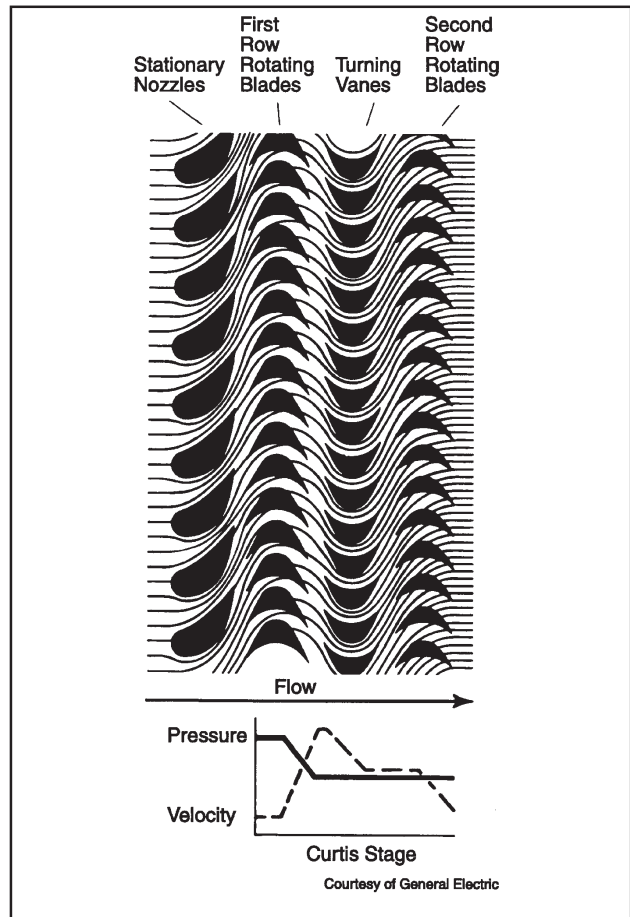
Turbines are further categorized by the philosophy employed in the steam path design and are divided into two major design concepts: impulse and reaction. In an impulse turbine the pressure drop for the entire stage takes place across the stationary nozzle. In reaction designs, the pressure drop per stage is divided equally between the stationary nozzles and the rotating blades (Fig. 15-5). For given horsepower, speed and steam conditions, a reaction turbine will, in general, employ approximately three times more stages than an impulse turbine in the same turbine span. Most U.S. mechanical drive steam turbines are of the impulse type.

STEAM TURBINE COMPONENTS

Trip and Throttle Valve/Stop (Block) Valve

A trip-and-throttle valve or stop valve, or both, may be positioned between the steam supply and the turbine inlet control valve(s) (Fig. 15-6). During normal operation this valve remains

FIG. 15-3
Curtis Design



fully open and its primary function is to shut off the steam supply in response to a trip (shutdown) signal. In addition a trip-and-throttle valve can be used to modulate the steam flow during start-up and can be either manually or hydraulically positioned from zero lift to 100% lift. The stop valve can only be positioned either in the closed or fully open positions. In order to minimize the pressure drop through the trip-and-throttle valve, maximum inlet velocities are usually limited to 150 ft/sec. Velocities above this level will usually result in high pressure drops which will reduce turbine efficiency.

Inlet Control Valves

The primary function of the inlet control valve(s) is regulation of the steam flow to provide the appropriate horsepower and speed. These valves may also close in response to a shutdown signal. Throttling which occurs across the control valve(s) reduces the thermal performance of the turbine. This efficiency loss is a function of the control valve design and overall turbine pressure ratio. For a given amount of throttling, turbines with large pressure ratios suffer smaller efficiency losses than turbines with smaller pressure ratios (Fig. 15-7).

Multi-stage turbines may have a single inlet control valve or several control valves to regulate the inlet steam. Typical multi-valve steam turbines will have from three to eight control valves

FIG. 15-4
Extraction/Admission Flow Turbines

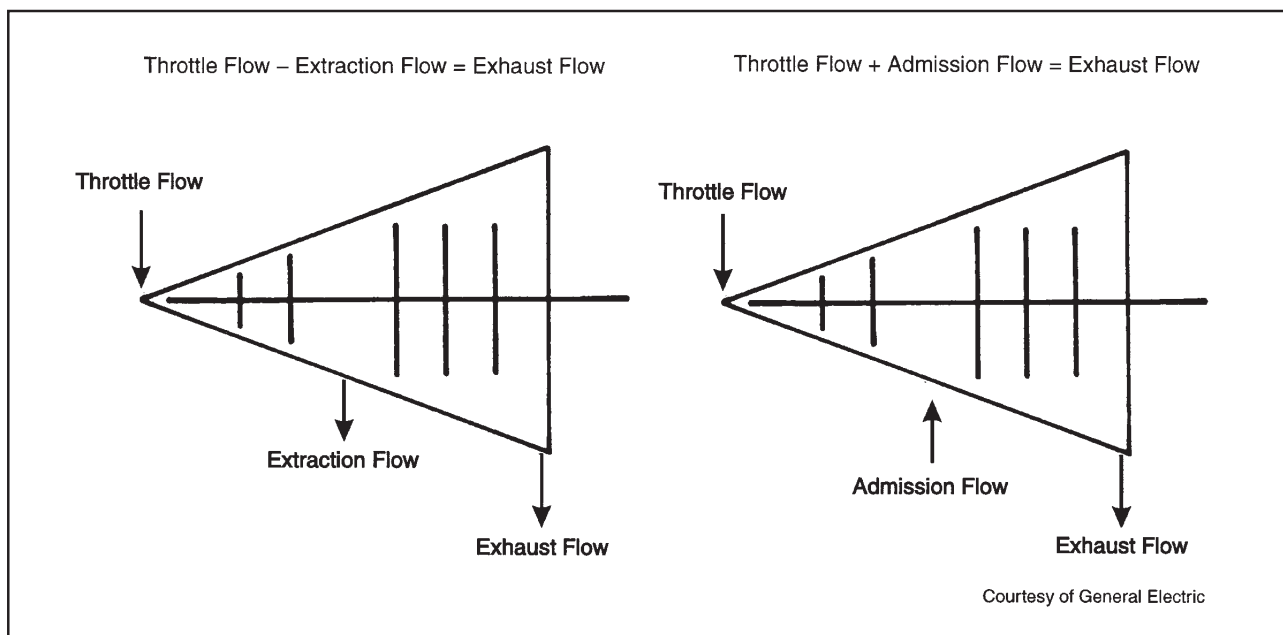


FIG. 15-5
Turbine Types

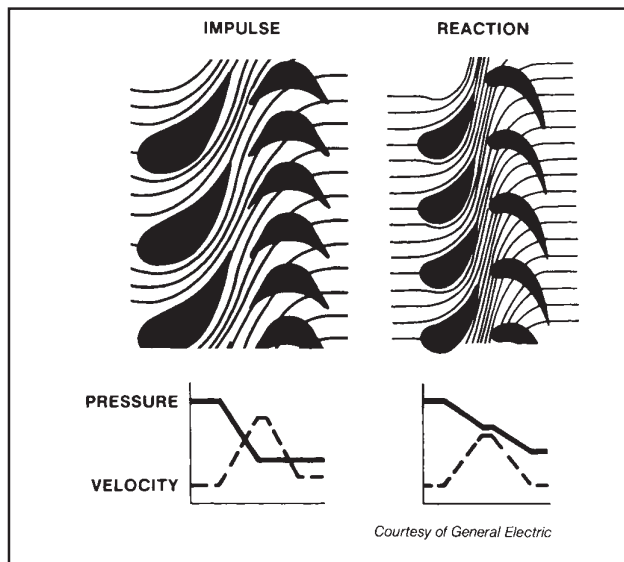
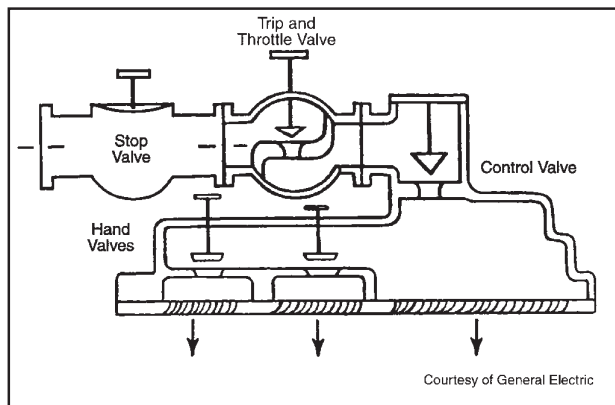


FIG. 15-6
Single Valve with Hand Valves



Nozzles/Blades (Buckets)

On constant speed turbines a design objective is to avoid all bucket resonances at the operating speed. On variable speed turbines, although the design objectives remain the same, it is seldom possible to avoid all blade resonance because of the wide operating speed range. In these cases it is important to identify all blade resonance and to verify that all stresses are well below the material strength.

Exhaust Casings

Turbine exhaust casings are categorized by pressure service (condensing or non-condensing) and number of rows of the last stage buckets (single flow, double flow, triple flow). Non-condensing exhausts are usually cast steel with most of the applications between 50 and 700 psig exhaust pressure. Most con-

(Fig. 15-8). Multi-valve turbines have higher efficiencies at reduced loads because only the flow through one of the control valves is incurring a throttling loss (Fig. 15-9).

Turbines with a single control valve will often employ hand valves to improve efficiency at reduced loads. For the turbine shown in Fig. 15-6 both hand valves would be open at or near full load. As the load on the unit is reduced one or both of these hand valves can be closed to reduce throttling loss. Fig. 15-10 shows the efficiency advantage at reduced loads.



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FIG. 15-7

Loss in Available Energy of Steam due to 10% Throttling

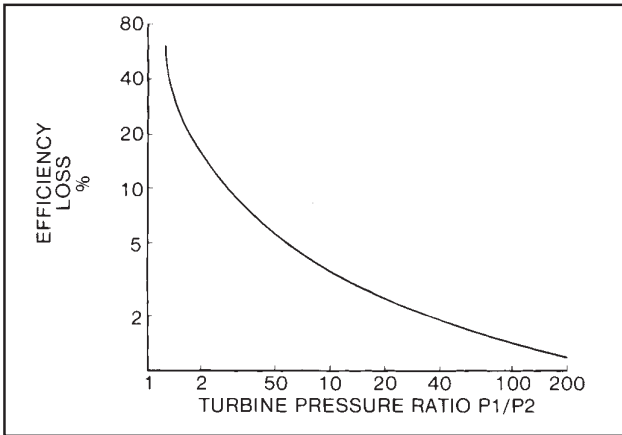
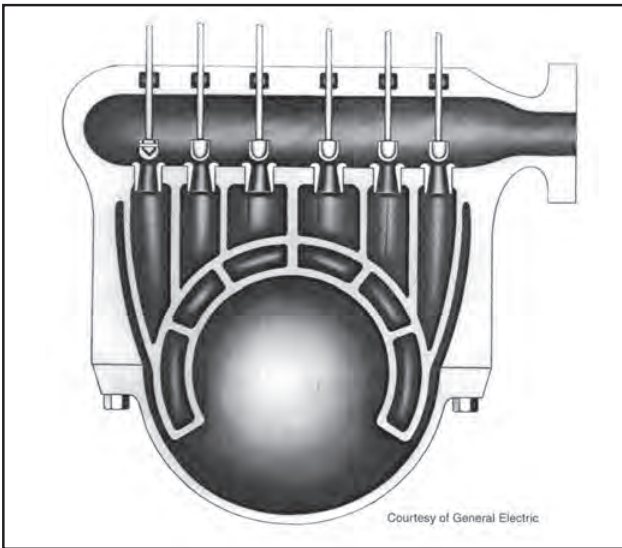


FIG. 15-8
Multi-Valve Inlet



condensing exhausts are steel fabrications although some utilize cast iron construction. Maximum exhaust flange velocities are typically 450 ft/sec. Velocities above this level will usually result in substantial increases in exhaust hood losses and will decrease turbine efficiency.

Moisture Protection

As steam expands through the turbine both the pressure and temperature are reduced. On most condensing and some non-condensing exhaust applications, the steam crosses the saturation line thereby introducing moisture into the steam path. The water droplets which are formed strike the buckets and can cause erosion of the blades. In addition, as the water is centrifuged from the blades, the water droplets strike the stationary components, also causing erosion. Where the moisture content is greater than 4%, moisture separators, which are in-

FIG. 15-9

Multi-Valve vs Single-Valve Performance Characteristic (Typical Non-Condensing Turbine)
Turbine Pressure Ratio = 8.0

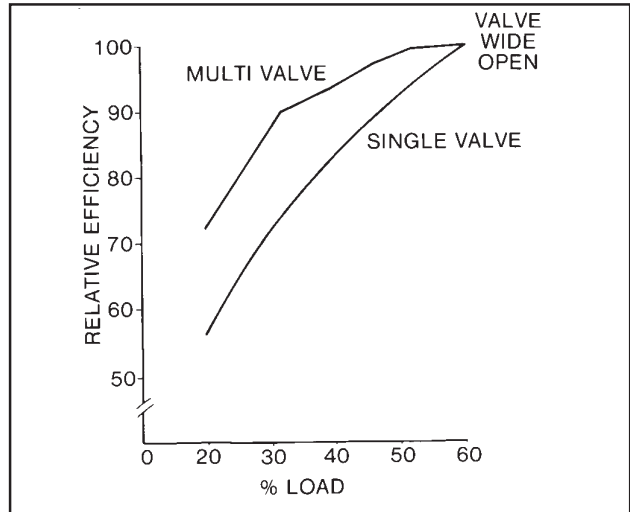
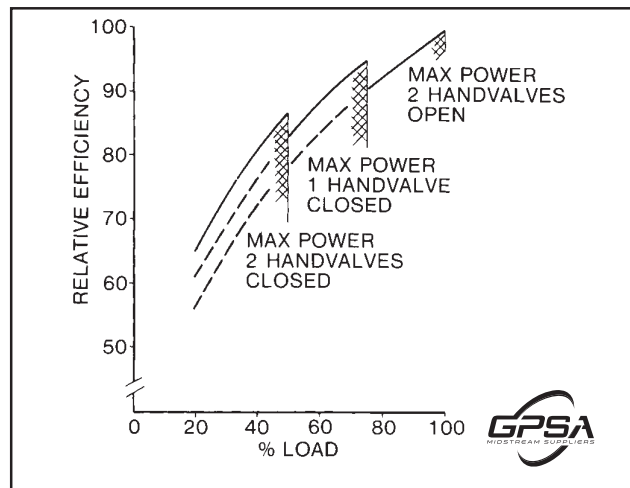


FIG. 15-10

Single-Valve with Hand Valves Performance Characteristic (Typical Non-Condensing Turbine)
Turbine Pressure Ratio = 8.0



ternal to the turbine, can be used to remove a large percentage of the moisture, improving the turbine efficiency and reducing the impact erosion on the buckets. Stainless steel moisture shields can also be used to minimize the impact erosion of the stationary components.

Control Systems

Mechanical governors were the first generation control systems employed on mechanical drive turbines. Shaft speed is sensed by a fly-ball governor with hydraulic relays providing the input to the control valve. A second generation control system was developed and utilized analog control circuitry with

the fly-ball governor replaced by speed pick-ups and the hydraulic relays with electronic circuit boards. A third generation control system was developed and replaced the electronic circuitry with digital logic. A microprocessor is used and the control logic is programmed into the governor. The major advantage of this system is the ability to utilize two governors simultaneously, each capable of governing the turbine alone. If the primary governor incurs a fault, the back-up governor assumes control of the turbine and provides diagnostic information to the operator.

STEAM TURBINE EFFICIENCY

Factors Affecting Efficiency

The objective of the steam turbine is to maximize the use of the available steam energy where the available steam energy is defined as the difference between the inlet and exhaust energies (enthalpies) for a 100% efficient constant entropy (i.e., isentropic) process. There are numerous loss mechanisms which reduce the efficiency from the isentropic such as throttling losses, steam leakage, friction between the steam and the nozzles/buckets, bearing losses, etc. Efficiency can range from a low of 40% for a low horsepower single-stage turbine to a high approaching 90% for a large multistage, multi-valve turbine.

Techniques to Improve Efficiency

Various techniques are employed to maximize turbine efficiency, each designed to attack a specific loss mechanism. For example, the number of stages utilized can range from the fewest possible to develop the load reliably to the thermodynamically optimum selection. Spill bands can be utilized to minimize throttling losses. High efficiency nozzle/bucket profiles are available to reduce friction losses. Exhaust flow guides are available to reduce the pressure within the exhaust casing.

The specific features employed on a given application are usually based on the trade-off between capital investment and the cost to produce steam over the life of the turbine.

Operation at Part Load

Most equipment driven by steam turbines are centrifugal machines where horsepower varies as the cube of speed. Part load efficiency varies as a function of speed, flow, and the number of stages. By assuming horsepower to vary as the cube of speed the turbine part load efficiency can be approximated as a percentage of the design efficiency (Fig. 15-11).

EXAMPLES

Figs. 15-11 through 15-19 and 24-30 and 24-31 allow estimates to be made of steam rate, turbine efficiency, number of stages, and the inlet and exhaust nozzle diameters. The following examples illustrate the use of these figures:

Example 15-1 — Given a steam turbine application with the following characteristics:

Inlet Pressure	600 psia
Inlet Temperature	750°F
Exhaust Pressure	2 psia
Required Horsepower	6000 hp
Speed	7000 rpm

Determine:

- The actual steam rate (ASR).
- The inlet and exhaust nozzle diameters.
- The approximate number of stages.
- The steam rate at a partial load of 4000 hp and 6100 rpm.

Solution Steps

Using Figs. 24-30 and 31, the theoretical steam rate (TSR) may be determined from the difference in the inlet enthalpy and the theoretical exhaust enthalpy (i.e. isentropic exhaust

FIG. 15-11

Part Load Efficiency Correction Factor vs Percent Power Multi-Valve Steam Turbines

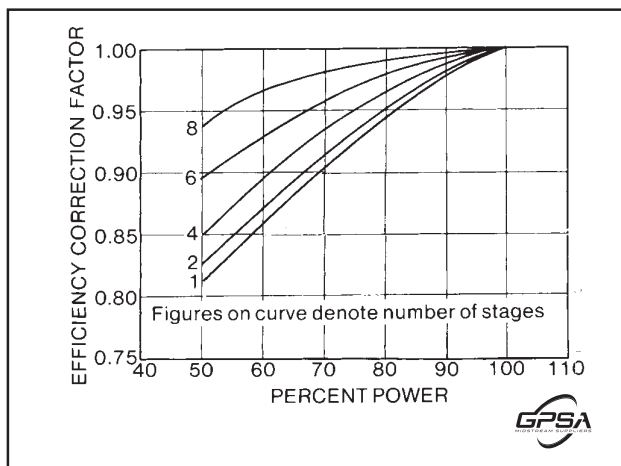
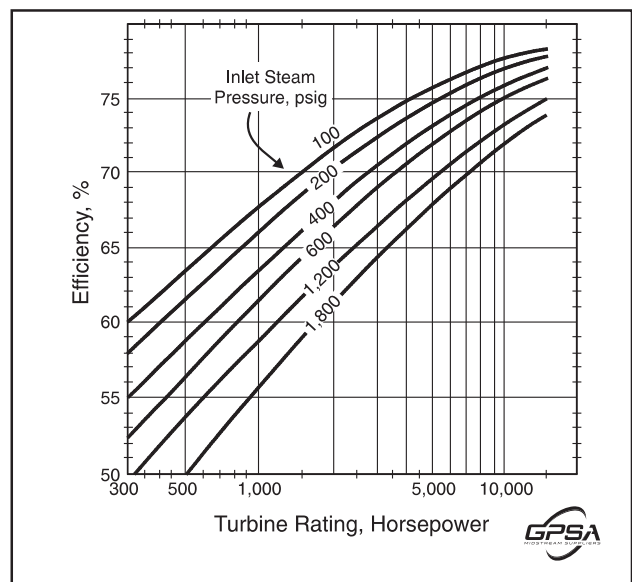


FIG. 15-12

Basic Efficiency of Multi-Valve, Multi-Stage Condensing Turbines



enthalpy), but first the inlet and exhaust states should be confirmed. Fig. 24-31 for superheated steam indicates that the inlet is superheated (i.e., 750°F is above the saturation temperature of 486.2°F), and gives an inlet entropy of 1.6109 Btu/(lb · °F). From Fig. 24-30, for saturated steam at the turbine exhaust pressure of 2 psia absolute, the liquid and vapor entropies are 0.1750 and 1.9200 Btu/(lb · °F). Since the inlet entropy is within this range, the theoretical exhaust must be two-phase. Had the exhaust-vapor entropy been equal to the inlet entropy, the exhaust would be single-phase vapor (i.e. at its dewpoint). Had the exhaust-vapor entropy been below the inlet entropy, the assumed two-phase exhaust would have been incorrect and Fig.

24-31 instead of 24-30 would be applicable.

Inlet conditions at 600 psia and 750°F (the average of the values at 700°F and 800°F on Fig. 24-31):

$$s = 1.6109 \text{ Btu/(lb} \cdot \text{°F)}$$

$$h = 1379.4 \text{ Btu/lb}$$

Exhaust conditions at 2.0 psia:

$$s_f = 0.1750 \text{ Btu/(lb} \cdot \text{°F)}$$

$$s_g = 1.9200 \text{ Btu/lb} \cdot \text{°F)}$$

$$h_f = 94.03 \text{ Btu/lb}$$

$$h_g = 1116.2 \text{ Btu/lb}$$

Letting x equal the liquid fraction in the exhaust, and equating the inlet and exhaust entropies:

$$1.6109 = x(0.1750) + (1 - x)(1.9200)$$

$$x = 0.1771$$

$$1 - x = 0.8229 \text{ (vapor fraction in the exhaust)}$$

$$\text{Exhaust enthalpy} = (0.1771)(94.03) + (0.8229)(1116.2)$$

$$= 935.2 \text{ Btu/lb}$$

$$\text{Enthalpy change} = 935.2 - 1379.4$$

$$= -444.2 \text{ Btu/lb}$$

Substituting Btu = (hp · hr)/2544:

$$\text{Enthalpy change} = (-444.2/2544) = (-1/5.727)(\text{hp} \cdot \text{hr})/\text{lb}$$

$$\text{TSR} = \text{the absolute value of the inverse of the enthalpy change} = 5.727 \text{ lb}/(\text{hp} \cdot \text{hr})$$

Basic efficiency = 0.729 (Fig. 15-12)

Inlet saturation temperature = 486.2°F (first column Fig. 24-31)

Inlet superheat = 750 – 486 = 264°F

Superheat efficiency-correction factor = 1.03 (Fig. 15-14)

FIG. 15-13

Basic Efficiency of Multi-Valve, Multi-Stage Non-Condensing Turbines

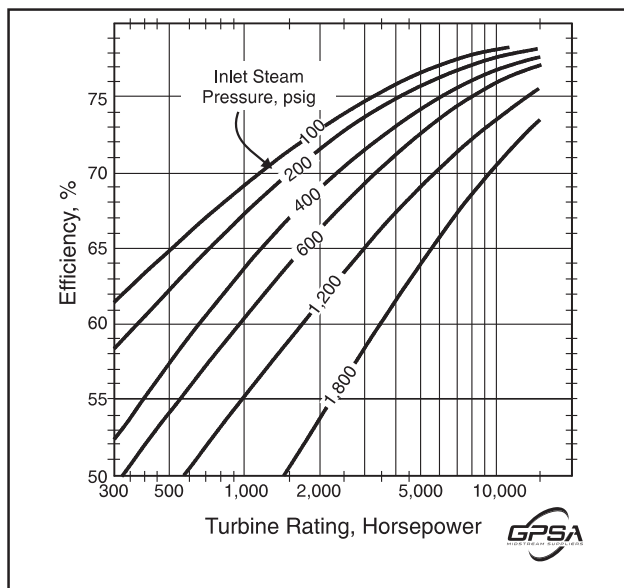


FIG. 15-14

Superheat Efficiency Correction Factor for Condensing Turbines

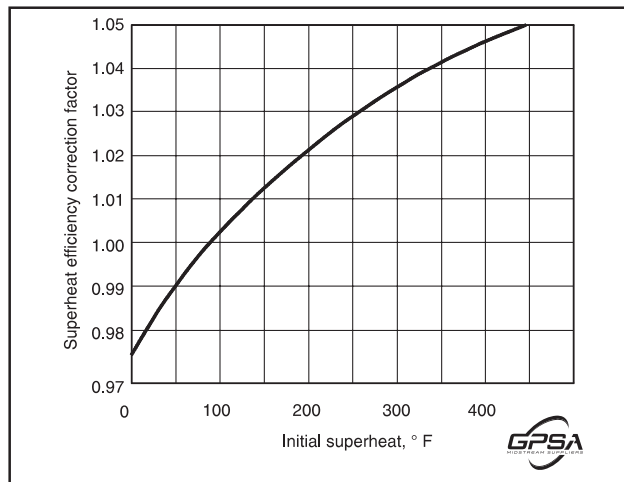
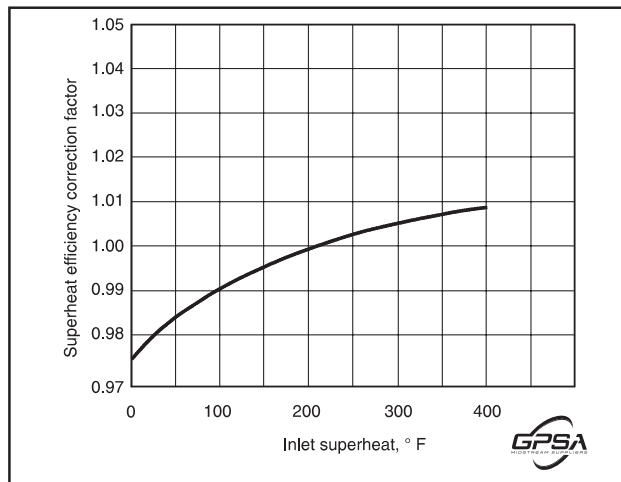


FIG. 15-15

Superheat Efficiency Correction Factor for Non-Condensing Turbines



Speed efficiency-correction factor = 0.957 (Fig. 15-16)

Corrected efficiency = (0.729)(1.03)(0.957) = 0.719

ASR = 5.727/0.719 = 7.97 lb/(hp · hr)

F = (6000 hp) 7.97 lb/(hp · hr)

= 47,800 lb/hr

The inlet and exhaust diameters may be estimated from the equation:

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{(0.051)(F)}{(\rho v)}} \quad \text{Eq 15-1}$$

A reasonable rule of thumb for maximum velocity of the inlet steam is 150 (ft/sec).

$\rho = 0.88 \text{ lb/ft}^3$ @ 600 psia and 750°F

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{(0.051)(47,800)}{(0.88)(150)}}$$

D = 4.3 in.

A 4 in. NPS (minimum) inlet nozzle would be selected.

For exhaust sizing a maximum steam velocity of 450 ft/sec is a reasonable rule of thumb.

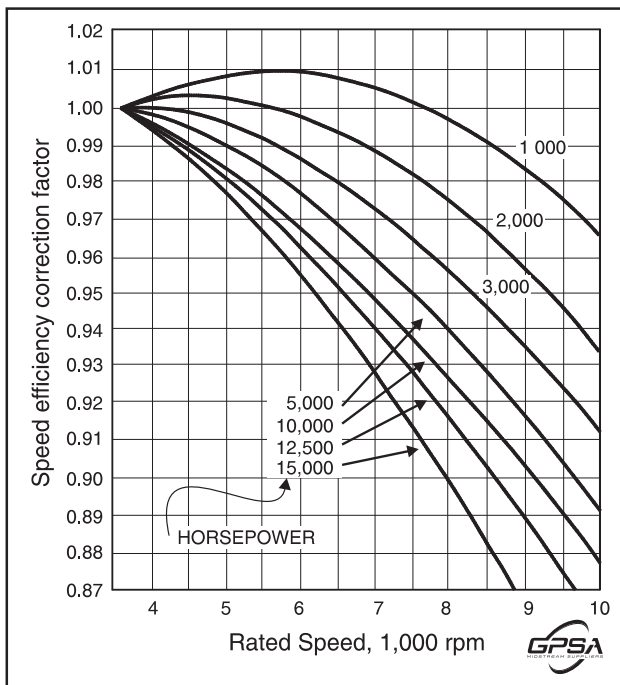
$\rho = 0.0057 \text{ lb/ft}^3$ @ 2 psia

$$D = \sqrt{\frac{(0.051)(47,800)}{(0.0057)(450)}}$$

D = 30.8 in.

FIG. 15-16

Speed Efficiency Correction Factor for Condensing and Non-Condensing Turbines



A 30 in. exhaust nozzle would be selected.

The number of stages may be estimated using Fig. 15-18. Drawing a horizontal line from the 7000 RPM indicates that between 1.5 and 2 stages per 100 Btu/lb of available energy would be acceptable.

Available Energy (theoretical)(i.e., the isentropic enthalpy change calculated above)

= 444.2 Btu/lb

Number of Stages

$$= \frac{(1.5)(444)}{(100)} = 7 \text{ (approximately)}$$

or, Number of Stages

$$= \frac{(2)(444)}{(100)} = 9 \text{ (approximately)}$$

Nine stages would provide increased efficiency but at additional cost.

At partial load of 4000 hp and 6,100 RPM and assuming seven stages from Fig. 15-11, a part load efficiency factor of approximately 0.96 is obtained. From Fig. 15-12, the basic efficiency at 4000 hp and 6,100 RPM is estimated to be 0.71.

Efficiency = (0.96) (0.71) = 0.68

Actual Steam Rate = 5.73/0.68 = 8.43 lb/(hp · hr)

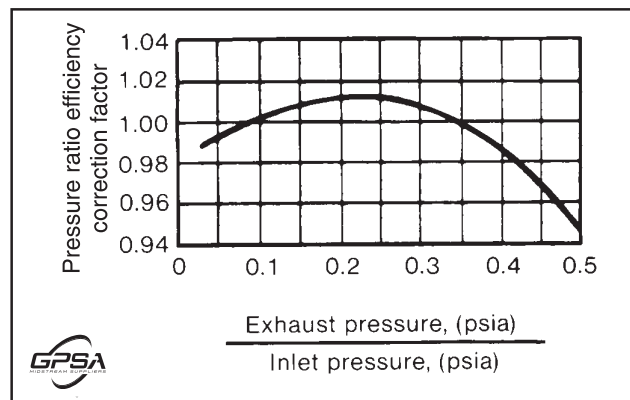
F = (4000) (8.43) = 33,700 lb/hr

Example 15-2 — Determine the ASR and total steam requirements for a multi-stage turbine and a single-stage turbine at the following conditions:

Inlet Pressure	250 psig
Outlet Pressure	100 psig
Inlet Temperature	500°F
Horsepower	900 hp
Speed	5000 rpm

FIG. 15-17

Pressure Ratio Efficiency Correction Factor, Non-Condensing Turbines



CONVERSION FACTORS

SI - METRIC/DECIMAL SYSTEM

ABBREVIATIONS

abs	absolute	m	meter
ata	atmosphere	mm	millimeter
	absolute	m ²	square meter
Btu	British thermal unit	m ³	cubic meter
Btu/hr	British thermal unit/hour	m ³ /min	cubic meter/minute
°C	Celsius	mph	mile per hour
cfm	cubic foot/minute	N	Newton
cm	centimeter	N/m ²	Pascal
cm ²	square centimeter	Nm ² /hr	normal* cubic meter/hour
cm ³	cubic centimeter	psi	pound/square inch
cu.ft.	cubic foot	psia	pound/square inch absolute
°F	Fahrenheit	psig	pound/square inch gage
ft/sec	foot/second	scf	standard* cubic foot
ft-lb	foot-pound	scfm	standard* cubic foot/minute
gal	gallon	sq	square
hp	horsepower		
in	inch		
in. Hg	inch mercury		
in. H ₂ O	inch water		
kcal	kilocalorie		
kg	kilogram		
KJ	kilojoule		
kPa	kilopascal		
KW	kilowatt		
L	liter		

* "Normal" = 0°C and 1.01325 x 10⁵ Pascals
 * "Standard" = 59°F and 14.73 psia

MILLIMETERS (mm) TO INCHES (in)

(1 millimeter = 0.03937 inch)

mm in	mm in	mm in	mm in	mm in
1 0.039	21 0.827	41 1.614	61 2.402	81 3.189
2 0.079	22 0.866	42 1.654	62 2.441	82 3.228
3 0.118	23 0.906	43 1.693	63 2.480	83 3.268
4 0.157	24 0.945	44 1.732	64 2.520	84 3.307
5 0.197	25 0.984	45 1.772	65 2.559	85 3.346
6 0.236	26 1.024	46 1.811	66 2.598	86 3.386
7 0.276	27 1.063	47 1.850	67 2.638	87 3.425
8 0.315	28 1.102	48 1.890	68 2.677	88 3.465
9 0.354	29 1.142	49 1.929	69 2.717	89 3.504
10 0.394	30 1.181	50 1.968	70 2.756	90 3.543
11 0.433	31 1.220	51 2.008	71 2.795	91 3.583
12 0.472	32 1.260	52 2.047	72 2.835	92 3.622
13 0.512	33 1.299	53 2.087	73 2.874	93 3.661
14 0.551	34 1.339	54 2.126	74 2.913	94 3.701
15 0.591	35 1.378	55 2.165	75 2.953	95 3.740
16 0.630	36 1.417	56 2.205	76 2.992	96 3.779
17 0.669	37 1.457	57 2.244	77 3.032	97 3.819
18 0.709	38 1.496	58 2.283	78 3.071	98 3.858
19 0.748	39 1.535	59 2.323	79 3.110	99 3.898
20 0.787	40 1.575	60 2.362	80 3.150	100 3.937

KILOGRAMS (kg) TO POUNDS (lb)

(1 kilogram = 2.20462 pounds)

kg lb	kg lb	kg lb	kg lb	kg lb
1 2.204	21 46.297	41 90.390	61 134.482	81 178.574
2 4.409	22 48.502	42 92.594	62 136.687	82 180.779
3 6.614	23 50.706	43 94.799	63 138.891	83 182.984
4 8.819	24 52.911	44 97.003	64 141.096	84 185.188
5 11.023	25 55.116	45 99.208	65 143.300	85 187.393
6 13.228	26 57.320	46 101.413	66 145.505	86 189.598
7 15.432	27 59.525	47 103.617	67 147.710	87 191.802
8 17.637	28 61.729	48 105.822	68 149.914	88 194.007
9 19.843	29 63.934	49 108.026	69 152.119	89 196.211
10 22.046	30 66.139	50 110.231	70 154.324	90 198.416
11 24.251	31 68.343	51 112.436	71 156.528	91 200.621
12 26.455	32 70.548	52 114.640	72 158.733	92 202.825
13 28.660	33 72.753	53 116.845	73 160.937	93 205.030
14 30.865	34 74.957	54 119.050	74 163.142	94 207.235
15 33.069	35 77.162	55 121.254	75 165.347	95 209.439
16 35.274	36 79.366	56 123.459	76 167.551	96 211.644
17 37.479	37 81.571	57 125.663	77 169.756	97 213.848
18 39.683	38 83.776	58 127.868	78 171.961	98 216.053
19 41.888	39 85.980	59 130.073	79 174.165	99 218.258
20 44.093	40 88.185	60 132.277	80 176.370	100 220.462

CONVERSION FACTORS

TO CONVERT FROM ENGLISH	TO S.I. METRIC	MULTIPLY BY	TO OLD METRIC	MULTIPLY BY
sq. in.	mm ²	645.16	cm ²	6.4516
sq. ft.	m ²	0.0929	m ²	0.0929
lb/cu.ft.	kg/m ³	16.0185	kg/m ³	16.0185
lb _f	N	4.4482	N	4.4482
lb/ft	N/m	14.5939	N/m	14.5939
Btu	kJ	1.0551	kcal	0.252
Btu/hr	W	0.2931	kcal/hr	0.252
Btu/scf	kJ/mm ³	37.2590	kcal/nm ³	0.1565
in	mm	normal* cubic	cm	2.540
ft	m	meter/hour	m	0.3048
yd	m	psi	m	0.914
lb	kg	psia	kg	0.4536
hp	kW	absolute	kW	0.7457
psi	kPa	psig	kg/cm ²	0.070
psia	kPa abs	gage	bars abs	0.0716
psig	kPa gage	in. Hg	cm Hg	0.070
in. Hg	kPa	in. H ₂ O	cm H ₂ O	2.540
in. H ₂ O	kPa	°C =	°C =	2.540
°F (Interval)	°C (Interval)	°C =	°C (Interval)	°C =
ft-lb	N • m	5/9	°C (Interval)	5/9
mph	km/hr	1.3558	N • m	1.3558
ft/sec	m/sec	0.3048	km/hr	1.6093
cu. ft.	m ³	0.0283	m/sec	0.3048
gas (US)	L	3.7854	m ³	0.0283
cfm	m ³ /min	0.0283	L	3.7854
scfm	nm ³ /min	0.0268	m ³ /min	0.0283
			nm ³ /hr	1.61

TO CONVERT FROM OLD METRIC	TO S.I. METRIC	MULTIPLY BY
cm ²	mm ²	100.
kcal	kJ	4.1868
kcal/hr	W	1.16279
cm	mm	10.
kg/cm ²	kPa	98.0665
bars	kPa	100.
atm	kPa	101.325
cm Hg	kPa	1.3332
cm H ₂ O	kPa	9.8064
nm ³ /hr	nm ³ /min	0.0176

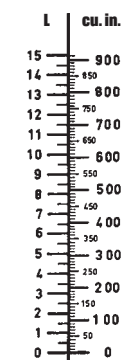
TEMPERATURE CONVERSION TABLES*

0 TO 100		2.78	37	98.6	23.9	75	167.0	93	200	392	299	570	1058	510	950	1742	
-17.8	0	32	3.33	38	100.4	24.4	76	168.8	99	210	410	304	580	1076	516	960	1760
-17.2	1	33.8	3.89	39	102.2	25.0	77	170.6	100	212	413	310	590	1094	521	970	1778
-16.7	2	35.6	4.44	40	104.0	25.6	78	172.4	104	220	428	316	600	1112	527	980	1796
-16.1	3	37.4	5.00	41	105.8	26.1	79	174.2	110	230	446	321	610	1130	532	990	1814
-15.6	4	39.2	5.56	42	107.6	26.7	80	176.0	116	240	464	327	620	1148	538	1000	1832
-15.0	5	41.0	6.11	43	109.4	27.2	81	177.8	121	250	482	332	630	1166			
-14.4	6	42.8	6.67	44	111.2	27.8	82	179.6	127	260	500	338	640	1184			
-13.9	7	44.9	7.22	45	113.0	28.3	83	181.4	132	270	518	343	650	1202			
-13.3	8	46.4	7.78	46	114.8	28.9	84	183.2	138	280	536	349	660	1220			
-12.8	9	48.2	8.33	47	116.6	29.4	85	185.0	143	290	554	354	670	1238			
-12.1	10	50.0	8.89	48	118.4	30.0	86	186.8	149	300	572	360	680	1256			
-11.7	11	51.8	9.44	49	120.0	30.6	87	188.6	154	310	590	366	690	1274			
-11.1	12	53.6	10.00	50	122.0	31.1	88	190.4	160	320	608	371	700	1292			
-10.6	13	55.4	10.6	51	123.8	31.7	89	192.2	166	330	626	377	710	1310			
-10.0	14	57.2	11.1	52	125.6	32.2	90	194.0	171	340	644	382	720	1328			
-9.44	15	59.0	11.7	53	127.4	32.8	91	195.8	177	350	662	388	730	1346			
-8.89	16	60.8	12.2	54	129.2	33.3	92	197.6	182	360	680	393	740	1364			
-8.33	17	62.6	12.8	55	131.0	33.9	93	199.4	188	370	698	399	750	1382			
-7.78	18	64.4	13.3	56	132.8	34.4	94	201.2	193	380	716	404	760	1400			
-7.22	19	66.2	13.9	57	134.6	35.0	95	203.0	199	390	734	410	770	1418			
-6.67	20	68.0	14.4	58	136.4	35.6	96	204.8	204	400	752	416	780	1436			
-6.11	21	69.8	15.0	59	138.2	36.1	97	206.6	210	410	770	421	790	1454			
-5.56	22	71.6	15.6	60	140.0	36.7	98	208.4	216	420	788	427	800	1472			
-5.00	23	73.4	16.1	61	141.8	37.2	99	210.2	221	430	806	432	810	1490			
-4.44	24	75.2	16.7	62	143.6	37.8	100	212.0	227	440	824	438	820	1508			
-3.89	25	77.0	17.2	63	145.4				232	450	842	443	830	1526			
-3.33	26	78.8	17.8	64	147.2				238	460	860	449	840	1544			
-2.78	27	80.6	18.3	65	149.0				38	100	212	243	470	878			
-2.22	28	82.4	18.9	66	150.8				43	110	230	249	480	896			
-1.67	29	84.2	19.4	67	152.6				49	120	248	254	490	914			
-1.11	30	86.0	20.0	68	154.4				54	130	266	260	500	932			
-0.56	31	87.8	20.6	69	156.2				60	140	284	266	510	950			
0	32	89.6	21.1	70	158.0				66	150	302	271	520	968			
0.56	33	91.4	21.7	71	159.8				71	160	320	277	530	986			
1.11	34	93.2	22.2	72	161.6				77	170	338	282	540	1004			
1.67	35	95.0	22.8	73	163.4				82	180	356	288	550	1022			
2.22	36	96.8	23.3	74	165.2				88	190	374	293	560	1040			

Note: The numbers in bold face type refer to the temperature either in degrees Centigrade or Fahrenheit which is desired to convert into the other scale. If converting from Fahrenheit degrees to Centigrade degrees, the equivalent temperatures will be found in the left column; while if converting from degrees Centigrade to degrees Fahrenheit, the answer will be found in the column on the right.

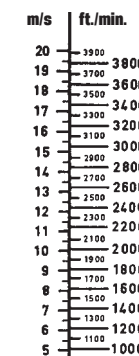
VOLUME CONVERSION FACTORS

1 L = 61.02 cu. in.
 10 cu. in. = 0.164 L



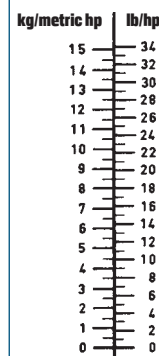
PISTON SPEED CONVERSION FACTORS

1 m/s = 196.9 ft./min.
 100 ft./min. = 0.51 m/s



WEIGHT/HORSEPOWER CONVERSION FACTORS

1 kg/metric hp = 2.235 lb./hp
 1 lb./hp = .4474 kg/metric hp



Solution Steps

For a multi-stage turbine:

Examining Figs. 24-30 and 31 in the same way as in Example 15-1, the turbine inlet is superheated, and the exhaust is two-phase.

Inlet conditions at 250 psig (264.7 psia) and 500°F (interpolating linearly between 240 and 260 psia on Fig. 24-31):

$$s = 1.5873 \text{ Btu/(lb} \cdot \text{°F)}$$

$$h = 1261.8 \text{ Btu/lb}$$

Exhaust conditions at 100 psig (i.e. 114.7 psia). From Fig. 24-30 interpolating linearly between 89.64 psia at 320°F and 117.99 psia at 340°F, get the following for 114.7 psia:

$$s_f = 0.4872 \text{ Btu/(lb} \cdot \text{°F)}$$

$$s_g = 1.5918 \text{ Btu/(lb} \cdot \text{°F)}$$

$$h_f = 308.9 \text{ Btu/lb}$$

$$h_g = 1189.5 \text{ Btu/lb}$$

Letting x equal the liquid fraction in the exhaust, and equating the inlet and exhaust entropies:

$$1.5873 = x (0.4872) + (1 - x) (1.5918)$$

$$x = 0.0041$$

$$1 - x = 0.9959 \text{ (fraction vapor in exhaust)}$$

$$\text{Exhaust enthalpy} = (0.0041)(308.9) + (0.9959)(1189.5) = 1185.9$$

$$\text{Enthalpy change} = 1185.9 - 1261.8 = -75.9 \text{ Btu/lb}$$

Substituting 1 Btu = (hp · hr)/2544:

$$\text{Enthalpy change} = (-75.9/2544) = (-1/33.5)(\text{hp} \cdot \text{hr})/\text{lb}$$

TSR = the absolute value of the inverse of the enthalpy change = 33.5 lb/(hp · hr)

Basic efficiency = 66% (Fig. 15-13)

Inlet saturation temperature = 406.0 °F (interpolating between 260 and 280 psia on Fig. 24-31)

Inlet superheat = 500 – 406 (Fig. 24-31) = 94°F

Efficiency-correction factor for superheat = 0.99 (Fig. 15-15)

Efficiency-correction factor for speed = 1.01 (Fig. 15-16)

Pressure ratio = (114.7 psia)/(264.7 psia) = 0.433

Efficiency-correction factor for pressure ratio = 0.97 (Fig. 15-17)

$$\text{ASR} = [33.5 \text{ lb/(hp} \cdot \text{hr)}] / [(0.66) (0.99) (1.01) (0.97)] = 52.3 \text{ lb/(hp} \cdot \text{hr)}$$

$$F = [52.3 \text{ lb/(hp} \cdot \text{hr)}] (900 \text{ hp})$$

$$= 47,100 \text{ lb/hr}$$

For a single-stage turbine

$$\text{ASR} = [75 \text{ lb/(hp} \cdot \text{hr)}] (0.93) \text{ (Fig. 15-19)}$$

$$= 70 \text{ lb/(hp} \cdot \text{hr)}$$

$$F = [70 \text{ lb/(hp} \cdot \text{hr)}] (900 \text{ hp})$$

$$= 63,000 \text{ lb/hr}$$

FIG. 15-18
Stages Required per 100 Btu/lb of Available Energy as a Factor of Normal Turbine Speed

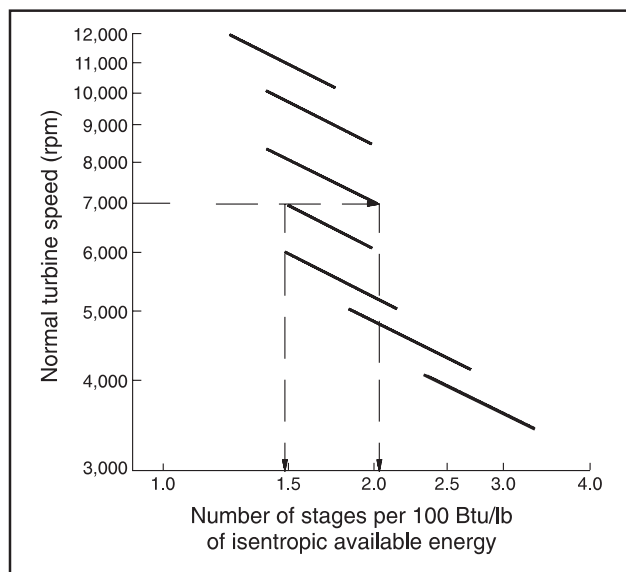
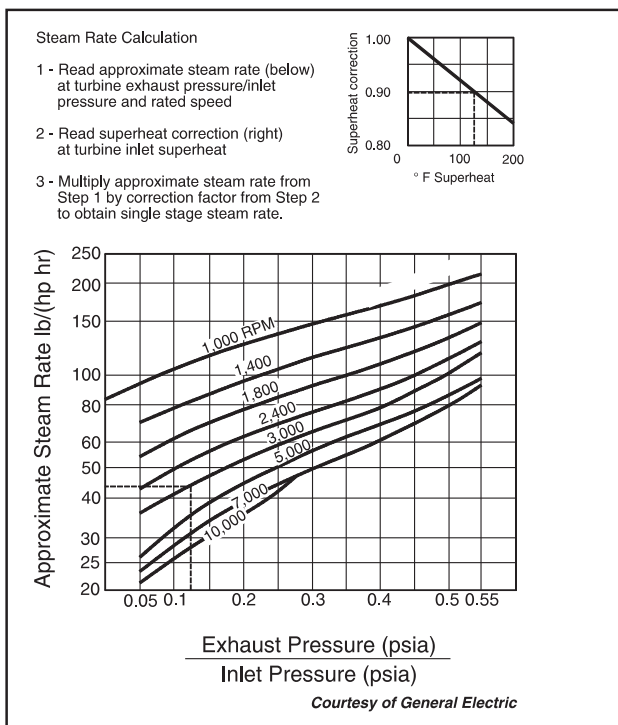


FIG. 15-19
Single-Stage Application



GAS TURBINES

General

Gas turbines are extensively used in all phases of the gas industry as a source of shaft power. They are used to drive compressors, generators, and other equipment required to produce, process, and transport natural gas. The main advantages of gas turbines are:

- Compact, light weight design.
- Minimal maintenance.
- Short installation time.

Compact, Lightweight Design

The compact, lightweight design of gas turbines makes them ideally suited for offshore platform installations, portable generating sets, remote sites, or any application where size and weight are important considerations.

Maintenance

Once installed, the gas turbine requires a minimum of routine maintenance. It is important to monitor the operating parameters of the turbine (pressures, temperatures, speed, vibra-

tion levels, etc.). This can often be done by an operator at a location remote from the actual turbine installation.

Installation

The relatively light weight, compact size, and simple design of gas turbines make them an attractive choice where power must be quickly installed in the field. The gas turbine is often delivered on an integral one-piece baseplate with all auxiliary equipment installed and tested by the manufacturer. Thus, construction and start-up time are minimized.

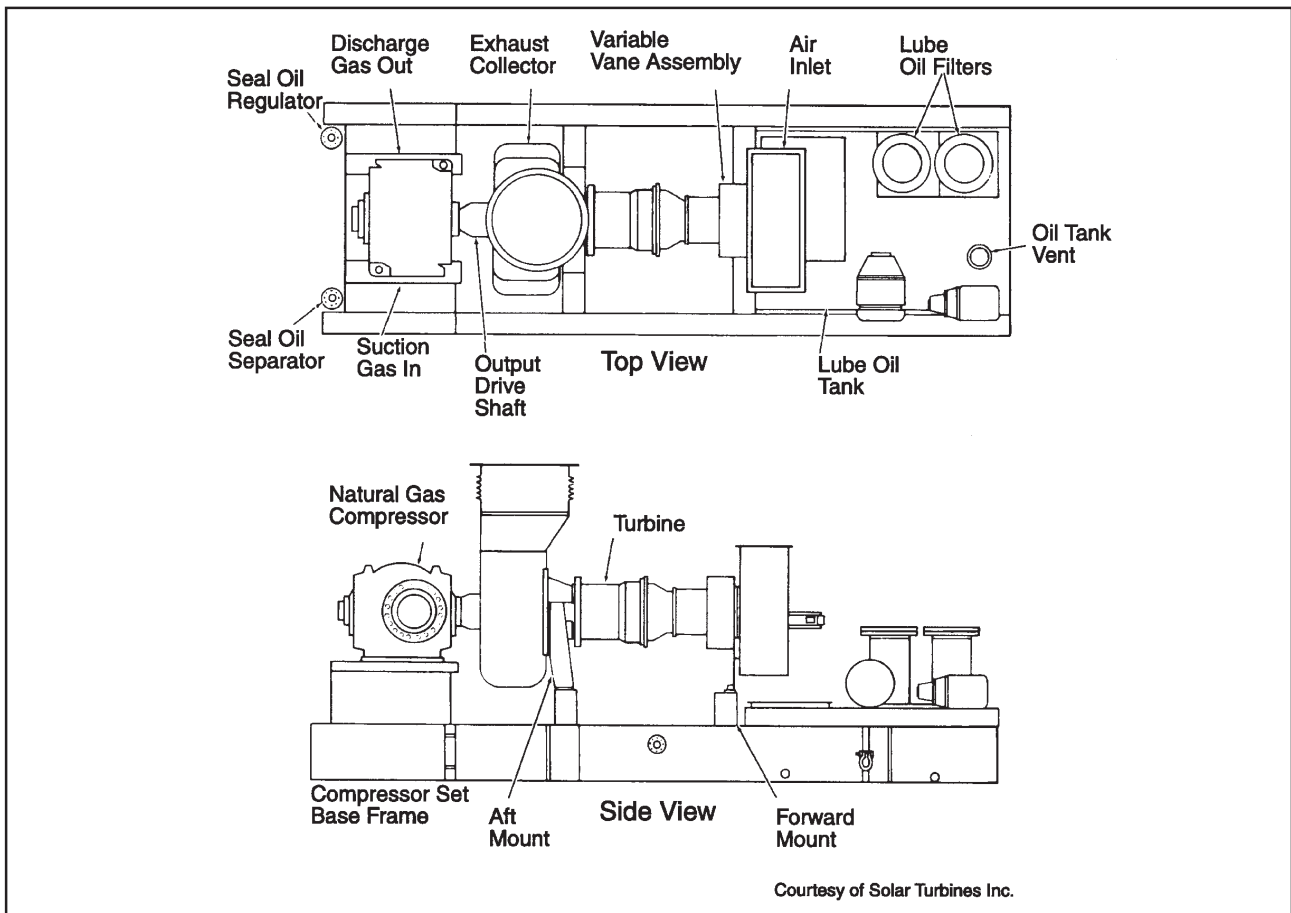
GAS TURBINE TYPES

The gas turbine was first widely used as an aircraft power plant. However, as they became more efficient and durable, they were adapted to the industrial marketplace. Over the years the gas turbine has evolved into two basic types for high-power stationary applications: the industrial or heavy-duty design and the aircraft derivative design.

Heavy Duty

The industrial type gas turbine is designed exclusively for stationary use. Where high power output is required, 35,000 hp and above, the heavy duty industrial gas turbine is normally specified. The industrial gas turbine has certain advantages

FIG. 15-20
Typical Gas Turbine Skid Layout



which should be considered when determining application requirements. Some of these are:

- Less frequent maintenance.
- Can burn a wider variety of fuels.
- Available in larger horsepower sizes.

Aircraft Derivative

An aircraft derivative gas turbine is based on an aircraft engine design which has been adapted for industrial use. The engine was originally designed to produce shaft power and later as a pure jet. The adaptation to stationary use was relatively simple.

Some of the advantages of the aircraft derivative gas turbines are:

- Higher efficiency than industrial units.
- Quick overhaul capability.

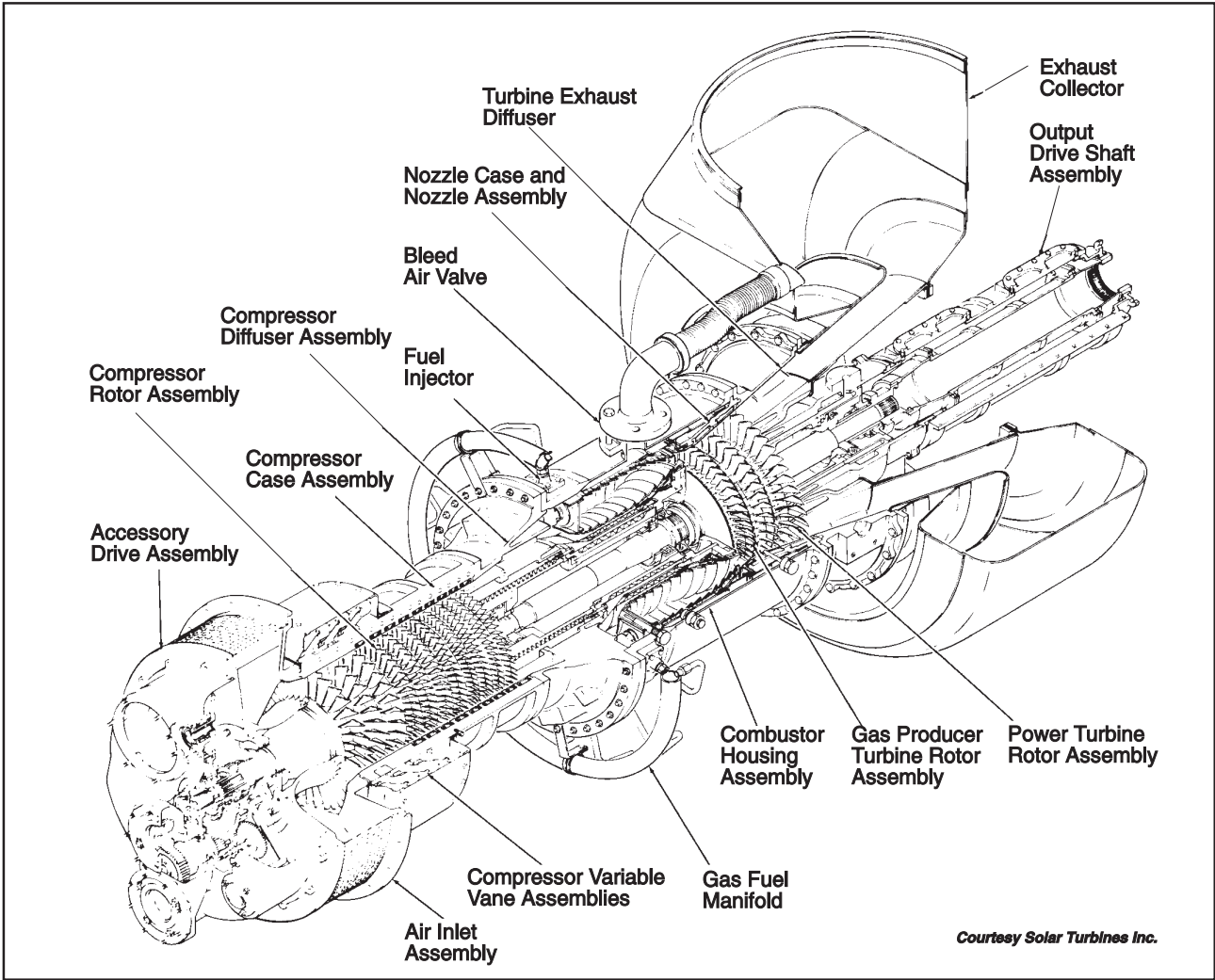
- Lighter and more compact, an asset where weight limitations are important such as offshore installations.

Single Shaft/Split Shaft

Gas turbine designs are also differentiated by shaft configuration. In a single shaft design, all rotating components of the gas turbine are mounted on one shaft. In a split shaft design, the air compressor rotating components are mounted on one shaft, and the power turbine rotating components are mounted on another shaft. The driven equipment is connected to the power turbine shaft. The single shaft design is simpler, requiring fewer bearings, and is generally used where the speed range of the driven equipment is narrow or fixed (as in generator sets). It requires a powerful starting system since all the rotating components (including the driven equipment) must be accelerated to idle speed during the start cycle.

A split shaft design is advantageous where the driven equipment has a wide speed range or a high starting torque. The air compressor is able to run at its most efficient speed while the

FIG. 15-21
Gas Turbine Internals



power turbine speed varies with the driven equipment. The split shaft design allows a much smaller starting system since only the air compressor shaft is accelerated during the start cycle.

GAS TURBINE CYCLES

The basic gas turbine cycle is termed the Brayton cycle. The ideal Brayton cycle is a closed cycle consisting of an isentropic compression process; a constant pressure external heating process; an isentropic expansion process; and finally a constant pressure external cooling process which returns the working substance to the inlet state of the compression process. A schematic and TS diagram of the ideal Brayton cycle are shown in Fig. 15-22. The turbomachinery used in the process includes an axial flow or centrifugal compressor and an axial or radial flow turbine.

Simple Open Cycle

The simple open cycle gas turbine takes atmospheric air into the compressor as the working substance. Following compression, the air enters the combustion chamber where the temperature is raised by the combustion of fuel. The gaseous combustion products are then expanded back to the atmosphere through a turbine. A diagram of this cycle is shown in Fig. 15-23. The turbine in this system derives enough power from the high temperature gas to drive both the compressor and load.

Regenerative Ideal Brayton Cycle

The use of a regenerator in an ideal Brayton cycle acts to reduce the amount of available energy lost by external heat exchange. The system schematic is illustrated in Fig. 15-24. This available energy loss is due to irreversible heat input and is illustrated in Fig. 15-25. A heat exchanger or regenerator is placed in the system to transfer heat internally from the hot exhaust gas to the cooler air leaving the compressor. This preheating of the combustion air thus reduces the amount of external heat input needed to produce the same work output.

Combined Cycle

Instead of using the hot exhaust gas for regeneration, this approach uses exhaust gas to generate steam. This steam can be used either as a supplement to the plant steam system or to generate additional horsepower in a Rankine cycle. In the basic Rankine cycle, the hot exhaust gas passes successively through the superheater, evaporator, and economizer of the steam generator before being exhausted to the atmosphere. The steam leaving the boiler is expanded through a steam turbine to generate additional power. The cycle is closed by the addition of a condenser and feed water pump completing a basic Rankine cycle. Since the steam cycle does not require any additional fuel to generate power, the overall thermal efficiency is increased. Fig. 15-26 shows schematically a typical installation and its TS diagrams.

AUXILIARY SYSTEMS

Lube Systems

Two types of oils are used in lubricating gas turbine equipment. They are mineral and fire-resistant synthetic based oils. The oil type used depends on the bearing construction of the particular turbine.

Babbitt type sleeve and thrust bearings, typical of heavy duty turbines, use a mineral based oil. Driven equipment such

FIG. 15-22
Ideal Brayton Cycle

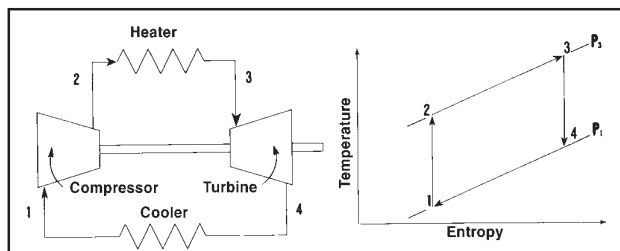


FIG. 15-23
Simple Open Cycle

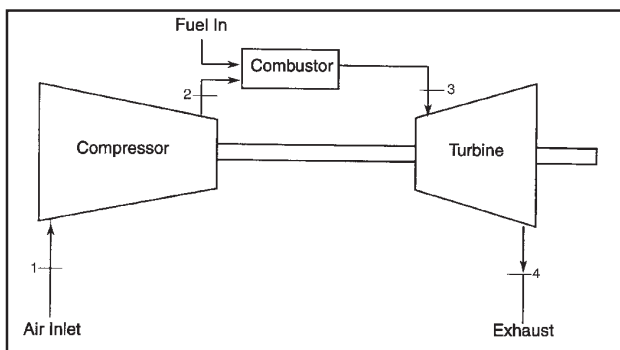


FIG. 15-24
Regenerative Ideal Brayton Cycle

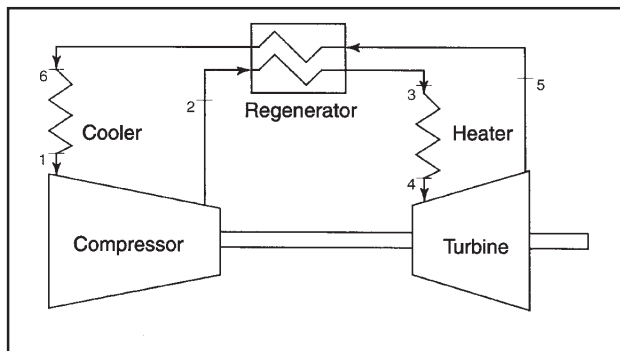
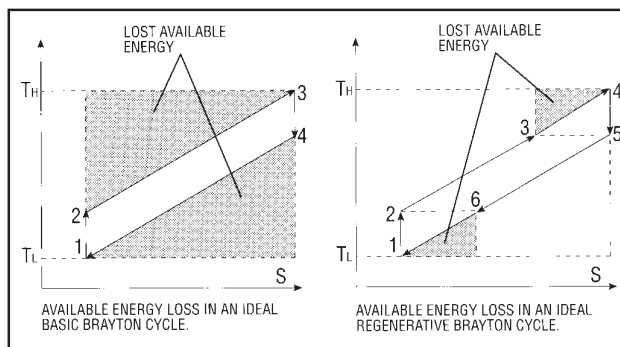


FIG. 15-25
Ideal Brayton Cycle Available Energy



as compressors, gear, and generators also use this type oil, thus a common, combined lube system can be provided for the train.

Aircraft derivative gas generators all incorporate anti-friction type ball and/or roller bearings. A synthetic oil is used in this service and is provided in a separate system from the mineral oil system used to lubricate the driven equipment. An oil scavenging system is also typical of these gas generators. Engine mounted pumps are used to scavenge oil from the main bearing pumps and return it to the reservoir.

Air Filtration

The primary reason for inlet air filtration is to prevent unwanted dirt from entering the gas turbine. By reducing the contaminants which contribute to corrosion, erosion, and fouling, the gas turbine life is extended.

There are various types of filters. The main types are as follows:

Inertial — This type removes the larger particulates from the inlet air.

Prefilters — These are medium filters usually made of cotton fabrics or spun-glass fibers, used to extend the life of a high efficiency filter further downstream.

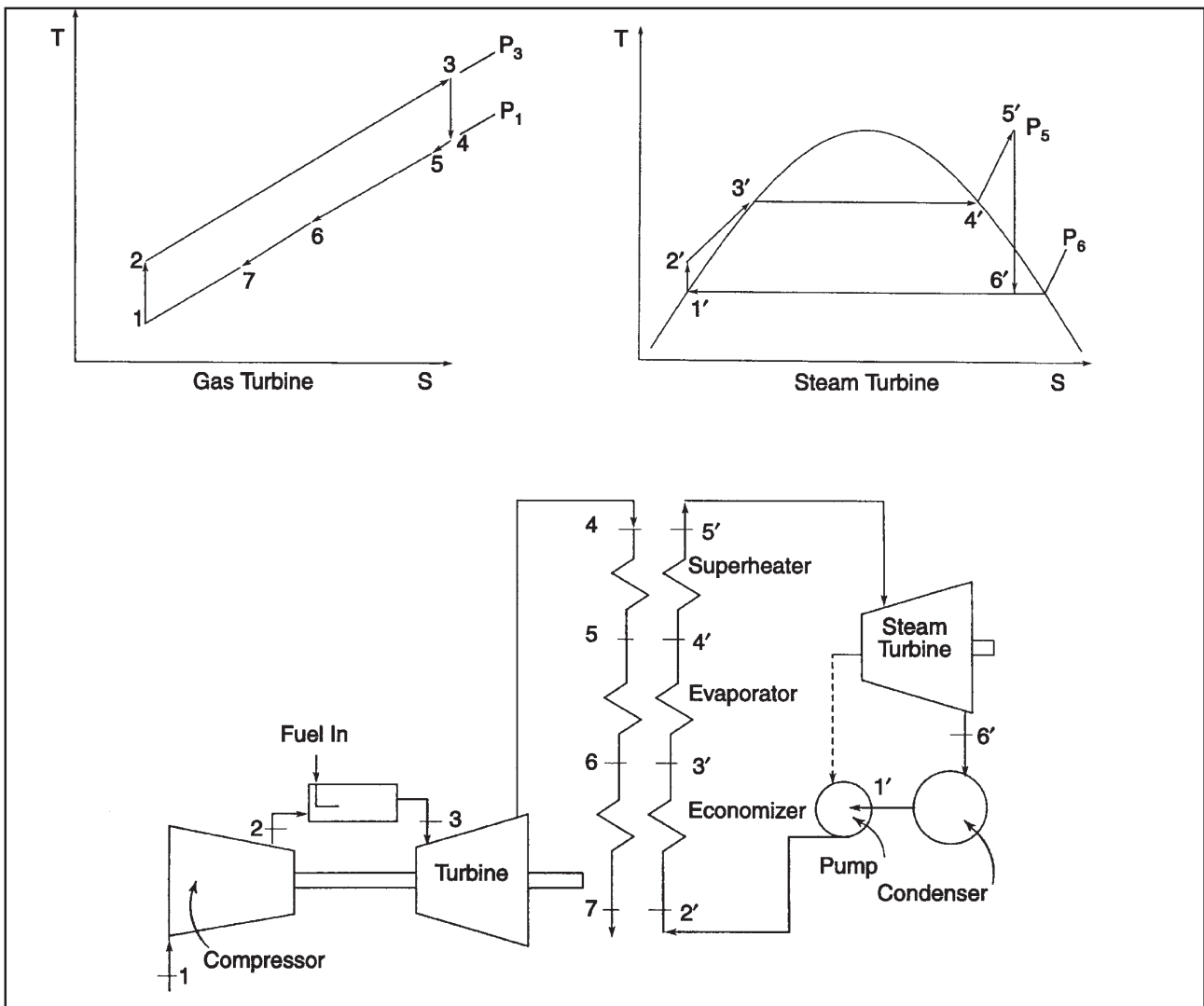
Coalescers — These filters are used to remove moisture from the inlet air system.

High Efficiency Media — These filters remove smaller dirt particles from the inlet air.

Marine or Demister — These filters are used in marine environments to remove both moisture and salt.

Self-Cleaning — These filters are composed of a number of

FIG. 15-26
Combined Cycle



high efficiency media filter “banks.” Air is drawn through the media at a low velocity and, at a predetermined pressure drop across the system, a reverse blast of air removes built-up dirt on the filter and lowers the pressure drop. This filter can be used in any environment. It is particularly useful in colder climates where ice build-up is a problem. The reverse blast of air also removes any ice that has built up on the filter.

Another method of eliminating icing problems is to install an anti-icing system. In this system, heated air from the gas generator discharge is introduced through distribution manifolds immediately downstream of the inlet air silencer.

The selection of a filtration system is largely dependent on the site location and operating conditions. Fig. 15-27 suggests filtration for various types of environments.

Since filters do protect the gas turbine and help extend its useful life, some type of filtration is always recommended.

Acoustics

The noise created by a gas turbine engine is considerable and must be reduced to protect plant personnel and minimize environmental impact. The main sources of noise in a gas turbine installation are the intake, the exhaust, and casing radiated noise.

The noise associated with the intake is characterized as high frequency noise. This type of noise is the loudest and most disturbing to the ear since it is in a range where hearing is most sensitive. The second most objectionable noise is produced by the gas generator and power turbine and is radiated from the casing. Although the exhaust noise contains more energy, the casing noise is more objectionable since it contains more noise in a frequency range where the ear is most sensitive. The exhaust noise is a low frequency noise which is only slightly audible. It does, however, possess a considerable amount of energy which results in a detectable pressure change.

A variety of methods can be used to attenuate noise. The most common are the use of silencers and enclosures. The inlet noise is the first area considered since this is where the largest amount of sound power is produced. Inlet noise is the loudest directly in front of the inlet opening. Consequently, the least expensive method for obtaining some of the required noise reduction is to place an elbow at the inlet. Additional silencing is usually necessary and can be attained by the use of acoustic baffles before the elbow.

Casing radiated noise can be reduced by using an acoustical enclosure over the turbine. If an enclosure is used, it is neces-

sary to provide gas and fire detection and fire extinguishing equipment inside the enclosure.

The last major source of noise to be silenced is the gas turbine exhaust noise. Since most turbines exhaust vertically, there is generally no need for an elbow. However, a silencer with acoustic baffles is needed and the exhaust ducting should be sound insulated.

GAS TURBINE PERFORMANCE

The performance of a gas turbine is usually expressed in terms of power and heat rate. Power is the net power available at the output shaft of the turbine after all losses and power take-offs have been subtracted.

Heat rate is a measure of thermal efficiency or the amount of heat energy (in the form of fuel) which must be input to the gas turbine to produce the output power. Heat rate is usually expressed in terms of Btu/(hp · hr) or Btu/(kW · hr) based on the lower heating value of the fuel. Heat rate and thermal efficiency are related as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thermal efficiency} &= \frac{2544}{\text{Heat Rate, } \frac{\text{Btu (LHV)}}{\text{hp} \cdot \text{hr}}} \\ &= \frac{3414}{\text{Heat Rate, } \frac{\text{Btu (LHV)}}{\text{kW} \cdot \text{hr}}} \end{aligned}$$

Power and heat rate both vary depending on environmental conditions such as ambient air temperature, altitude, barometric pressure, and humidity. Therefore, when performance is stated for a gas turbine, the ambient conditions must be defined. In order to compare different gas turbines, a set of standard conditions known as ISO (International Standards Organization) conditions have been defined as follows:

- ISO Conditions: Ambient Temperature = 59°F = 15°C
- Altitude = 0 ft (sea level)
- Ambient Pressure = 29.92 in. Hg
- Relative Humidity = 60%

All gas turbine performance is stated in ISO conditions. To arrive at site rated horsepower, the ISO conditions must be corrected for the following:

- Altitude (Fig. 15-28)
- Inlet Losses (Fig. 15-29)
- Exhaust Losses (Fig. 15-30)
- Temperature (Fig. 15-31)
- Humidity (below)

For changing relative humidity, the power output does not change, and the heat rate changes only slightly. For example, for an increase in relative humidity from 60 to 100 percent, a typical correction factor for the heat rate is 1.0016. For a decrease to zero percent, a typical correction factor is 0.9979.

Performance is also affected by other installation variables including power take-offs and type of fuel used. Inlet loss is the pressure drop which occurs as the outside air passes through the inlet filters and plenum. Similarly, exhaust loss is the pressure drop through the exhaust stack, silencers, and heat recovery equipment (if any) which creates a back pressure on the turbine. Power take-offs include any devices such as oil pumps, generators, etc. which are directly driven from the gas turbine output shaft and thus reduce the available output power. Sometimes it is necessary to correct power and/or heat rate for the

FIG. 15-27
Gas Turbine Air Filtration

Type of Environment	Suggested Filtration
Rural Country	High Efficiency Media
Urban/Industrial	Inertial & High Efficiency Media
Desert	Inertial and Media or Self-Cleaning
Tropical	Inertial & Media
Arctic	High Efficiency Media with Anti-Icing or Self-Cleaning
Offshore	Demisters

The system outlined here is the International System of Units (Système International d'Unités), for which the abbreviation SI is being used in all languages.

The SI system, which is becoming universally used, is founded on seven base units, these being:

Length.....	meter	m
Mass.....	kilogram	kg
Time.....	second	s
Electric current.....	ampere	A
Thermodynamic temperature.....	Kelvin	K
Luminous intensity.....	candela	cd
Amount of substance.....	mole	mol

POWER

The derived SI unit for power is the Watt (W), this being based on the SI unit of work, energy and quantity of heat – the Joule (J). One Watt (1 W) is equal to one Joule per second (1 J/s). One Watt is a very small unit of power, being equivalent to just 0.00134102 horsepower, so for engine ratings the kilowatt (kW) is used, 1 kW being equal to 1.341 hp and 1 hp being the equivalent of 0.7457 kW. The British unit of horsepower is equal to 1.014 metric horsepower (CV, PS, PK, etc.).

- 1 kW = 1.341 hp = 1.360 metric hp
- 1 hp = 0.746 kW = 1.014 metric hp
- 1 metric hp = 0.735 kW = 0.986 hp

TORQUE

The derived SI unit for torque (or moment of force) is the Newton meter (Nm), this being based on the SI unit of force – the Newton (N) – and the SI unit of length – the meter (m). One Newton (1 N) is equivalent to 0.2248 pound-force (lbf) or 0.10197 kilogram-force (kgf), and one meter is equal to kilogram force (kgf) and one member is equal to 3.28084 feet (ft), so one Newton meter (1 N m) is equal to 0.737562 pound-force (lbf ft). or 0.101972 kilogram-force meter (kgf m).

- 1 Nm = 0.738 lbf ft = 0.102 kgf m
- 1 lbf ft = 1.356 Nm = 0.138 kgf m
- 1 kgf m = 9.807 Nm = 7.233 lbf ft

PRESSURE AND STRESS

Although it has been decided that the SI derived unit for pressure and stress should be the Pascal (Pa), this is a very small unit, being the same as one Newton per square meter (1 N/m²), which is only 0.000145 lbf/in² or 0.0000102 kgf/cm². So many European engine designers favor the bar as the unit of pressure, one bar being 100,000 Pascal (100 kPa), which is the equivalent of 14.504 lbf/in² or 1.020 kgf/cm², so being virtually the same as the currently accepted metric equivalent. On the other hand, for engine performance purposes, the millibar seems to be favored to indicate barometric pressure, this unit being one thousandth of a bar. Then again, there is a school that favors the kilonewton per square meter (kN/m²), this being the same as a kilopascal, and equal to 0.145 lbf/in² or 0.0102 kgf/cm².

- 1 bar = 14.5 lbf/in² = 1.0197 kgf/cm²
- 1 lbf/in² = 0.069 bar
- 1 kgf/cm² = 0.98 bar

The American Society of Mechanical Engineers in 1973 published its Performance Test Codes for Reciprocating Internal Combustion engines. Known as PTC 17, this code is intended for tests of all types of reciprocating internal combustion engines for determining power output and fuel consumption. In its Section 2, Description and Definition of Terms, both the FPS and corresponding SI units of measurements are given.

SPECIFIC CONSUMPTION

Fuel consumption measurements will be based on the currently accepted unit, the gram (g), and the Kilowatt Hour (kWh). Also adopted is heat units/power units so that energy consumption of an internal combustion engine referred to net power output, mechanical, is based on low unsaturated heat value of the fuel whether liquid or gaseous type. Thus the SI unit of measurement for net specific energy consumption is expressed: g/kWh.

- 1 g/kWh = 0.001644 lb/hph = 0.746 g/hph = 0.736 g/metric hph
- 1 lb/hph = 608.3 g/kWh
- 1 g/hph = 1.341 k/kWh
- 1 g/metric hph = 1.36 g/kWh

HEAT RATE

Heat Rate is a product of Lower Heating Value (LHV) of Fuel (measured in Btu/lb or kJ/g for liquid fuel and Btu/ft³ or kJ/m³ for gas fuel) multiplied times (sfc) specific fuel consumption (measured in lb/hph or g/kWh).

For Liquid Fuel

Heat Rate (Btu/hph) = LVH (Btu/lb) X sfc (lb/hph)

For Gaseous Fuel

Heat Rate (Btu/hph) = LVH (Btu/ft³) X sfc (ft³/hph)

To convert these units to SI units:

Btu/hph X 1.414 = kJ/kWh
 Or
 Btu/kWh X 1.055 = kJ/kWh

LUBRICATING-OIL CONSUMPTION

Although the metric liter is not officially an SI unit, its use will continue to be permitted, so measurement of lube-oil consumption will be quoted in liters per hour (liters/h).

- 1 liter/h = 0.22 Imp gal/h
- 1 Imp gal/h = 4.546 liters/h

TEMPERATURES

The SI unit of temperature is Kelvin (K), and the character is used without the degree symbol (°) normally employed with other scales of temperature. A temperature of zero degree Kelvin is equivalent to a temperature of -273.15°C on the Celsius (centigrade) scale. The Kelvin unit is identical in interval to the Celsius unit, so direct conversions can be made by adding or subtracting 273. Use of Celsius is still permitted.

- 0 K = 273°C; absolute zero K
- 1°C = 273 K

WEIGHTS AND LINEAR DIMENSIONS

For indications of "weight" the original metric kilogram (kg) will continue to be used as the unit of mass, but it is important to note that the kilogram will no longer apply for force, for which the SI unit is the Newton (N), which is a kilogram meter per second squared. The Newton is that force which, when applied to a body having a mass of one kilogram, gives it an acceleration of one meter per second squared.

"Weight" in itself will no longer apply, since this is an ambiguous term, so the kilogram in effect should only be used as the unit of mass. Undoubtedly, though, it will continue to be common parlance to use the word "weight" when referring to the mass of an object.

The base SI unit for linear dimensions will be the meter, with a wide range of multiples and sub-multiples ranging from exa (10¹⁸) to atto (10⁻¹⁸): A kilometer is a meter x 10³, for example, while a millimeter is a meter x 10⁻³.

To give an idea of how currently used units convert to SI units, the tables below give examples.

KILOWATTS (kW) TO HORSEPOWER (hp) (1 Kw = 1.34102 hp)				
kW hp	kW hp	kW hp	kW hp	kW hp
1 1.341	21 28.161	41 54.982	61 81.802	81 108.623
2 2.682	22 29.502	42 56.323	62 83.143	82 109.964
3 4.023	23 30.843	43 57.664	63 84.484	83 111.305
4 5.364	24 32.184	44 59.005	64 85.825	84 112.646
5 6.705	25 33.526	45 60.346	65 87.166	85 113.987
6 8.046	26 34.867	46 61.687	66 88.507	86 115.328
7 9.387	27 36.208	47 63.028	67 89.848	87 116.669
8 10.728	28 37.549	48 64.369	68 91.189	88 118.010
9 12.069	29 38.890	49 65.710	69 92.530	89 119.351
10 13.410	30 40.231	50 67.051	70 93.871	90 120.692
11 14.751	31 41.572	51 68.392	71 95.212	91 122.033
12 16.092	32 42.913	52 69.733	72 96.553	92 123.374
13 17.433	33 44.254	53 71.074	73 97.894	93 124.715
14 18.774	34 45.595	54 72.415	74 99.235	94 126.056
15 20.115	35 46.936	55 73.756	75 100.577	95 127.397
16 21.456	36 48.277	56 75.097	76 101.918	96 128.738
17 22.797	37 49.618	57 76.438	77 103.259	97 130.079
18 24.138	38 50.959	58 77.779	78 104.600	98 131.420
19 25.479	39 52.300	59 79.120	79 105.941	99 132.761
20 26.820	40 53.641	60 80.461	80 107.282	100 134.102

POUNDS FORCE FEET (lbf ft) TO NEWTON METERS (Nm) (1 lbf ft = 1.35582 Nm)				
lbf ft Nm	lbf ft Nm	lbf ft Nm	lbf ft Nm	lbf ft Nm
1 1.356	21 28.472	41 55.589	61 82.705	81 109.821
2 2.712	22 29.828	42 56.944	62 84.061	82 111.177
3 4.067	23 31.184	43 58.300	63 85.417	83 112.533
4 5.423	24 32.540	44 59.656	64 86.772	84 113.889
5 6.779	25 33.896	45 61.012	65 88.128	85 115.245
6 8.135	26 35.251	46 62.368	66 89.484	86 116.601
7 9.491	27 36.607	47 63.724	67 90.840	87 117.956
8 10.847	28 37.963	48 65.079	68 92.196	88 119.312
9 12.202	29 39.319	49 66.435	69 93.552	89 120.668
10 13.558	30 40.675	50 67.791	70 94.907	90 122.024
11 14.914	31 42.030	51 69.147	71 96.263	91 123.380
12 16.270	32 43.386	52 70.503	72 97.619	92 124.735
13 17.626	33 44.742	53 71.858	73 98.975	93 126.091
14 18.981	34 46.098	54 73.214	74 100.331	94 127.447
15 20.337	35 47.454	55 74.570	75 101.687	95 128.803
16 21.693	36 48.810	56 75.926	76 103.042	96 130.159
17 23.049	37 50.165	57 77.282	77 104.398	97 131.515
18 24.405	38 51.521	58 78.638	78 105.754	98 132.870
19 25.761	39 52.877	59 79.993	79 107.110	99 134.226
20 27.116	40 54.233	60 81.349	80 108.466	100 135.582

These tables are reproduced from the booklet "Vehicle Metrics" published by Transport and Distribution Press Ltd., 118 Ewell Road, Surbiton, Surrey, KT6 6HA England.

type of fuel used in the gas turbine. The turbine manufacturer's performance brochure should be consulted for necessary corrections.

The following example shows the method of calculating performance for a gas turbine at site conditions using data typically supplied in the manufacturer's performance brochure.

Example 15-3 — Calculate maximum available site power and heat rate for the example gas turbine at the following conditions:

- Turbine ISO Horsepower = 27,500
- Turbine ISO Heat Rate = 7,090 Btu/(hp · hr)
- Ambient Temperature = 80°F
- Altitude = 1000 ft (above sea level)
- Inlet Pressure Drop = 4 in. H₂O
- Exhaust Pressure Drop = 2 in. H₂O
- Relative Humidity = 60%
- Fuel = Natural Gas

Solution Steps

Find the power altitude correction factor from Fig. 15-28. For 1000 ft altitude, the correction factor is 0.965.

Find power inlet loss correction factor from Fig. 15-29. For 4 inches of water, the correction factor is 0.984.

Find power exhaust loss correction factor from Fig. 15-30. For 2 inches of water, the correction factor is 0.9965.

Find the power ambient temperature correction factor from Fig. 15-31. For 80°F the correction factor is 0.915.

Since relative humidity is 60% and fuel is natural gas, no corrections are required.

Calculate the maximum available site power by multiplying maximum-no-loss power by each of the correction factors.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Power (site)} &= \text{power} (0.965) (0.984) (0.9965) (0.915) \\ \text{Power (site)} &= 27,500 (0.965) (0.984) (0.9965) (0.915) \\ \text{Power (site)} &= 23,800 \text{ hp} \end{aligned}$$

For the heat rate find the inlet loss correction factor, exhaust loss correction factor, and ambient temperature correction factor from Figs. 15-29, 15-30, and 15-31, respectively. (Note: Heat rate is not affected by altitude.)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Inlet loss factor} &= 1.0065 \\ \text{Exhaust loss factor} &= 1.003 \\ \text{Temperature factor} &= 1.03 \end{aligned}$$

Calculate site heat rate by multiplying no-loss heat rate by the correction factors.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Heat rate (site)} &= (\text{Heat rate}) (1.0065) (1.003) (1.03) \\ \text{Heat rate (site)} &= [7090 \text{ Btu}/(\text{hp} \cdot \text{hr})](1.0065)(1.003)(1.03) \\ \text{Heat rate (site)} &= 7370 \text{ Btu}/(\text{hp} \cdot \text{hr}) \end{aligned}$$

The above calculation procedures may vary slightly with different manufacturers but will follow the same principles.

Basic specifications for some of the commonly used gas turbine engines are shown in Fig. 15-32.

FIG. 15-28
Altitude Correction Factor

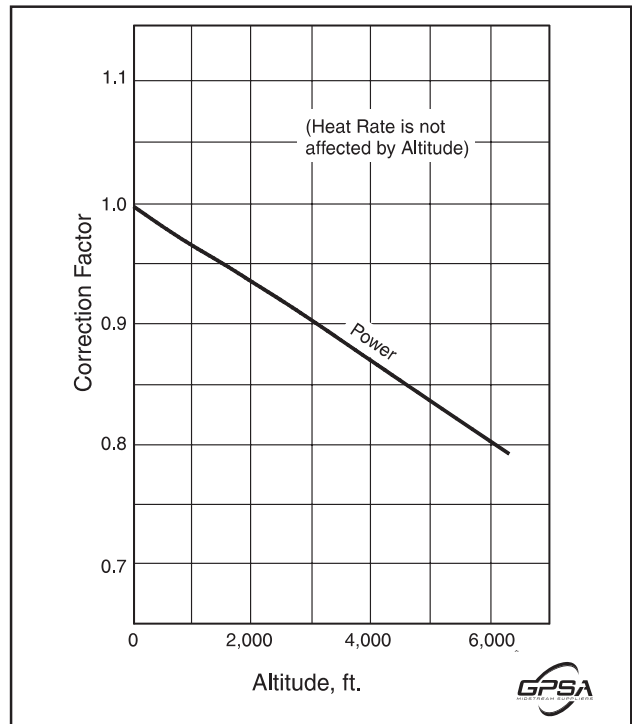


FIG. 15-29
Inlet Loss Correction Factor

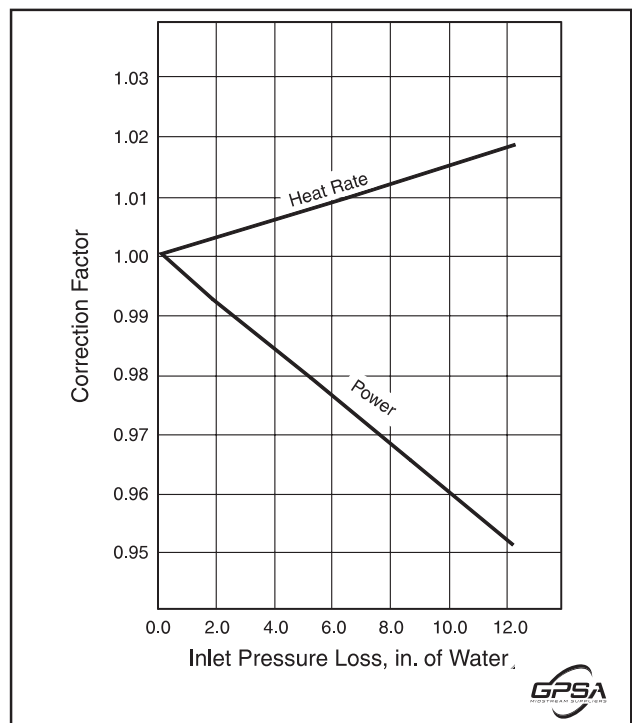


FIG. 15-30
Exhaust Loss Correction Factor

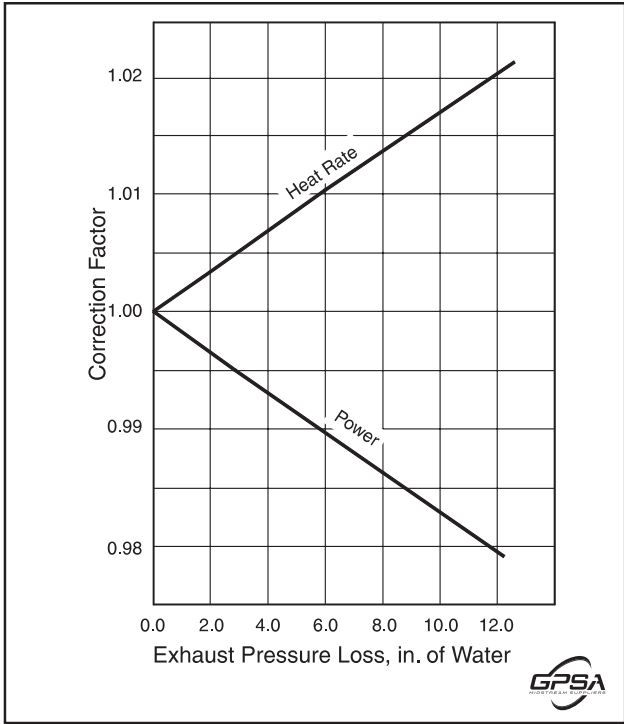
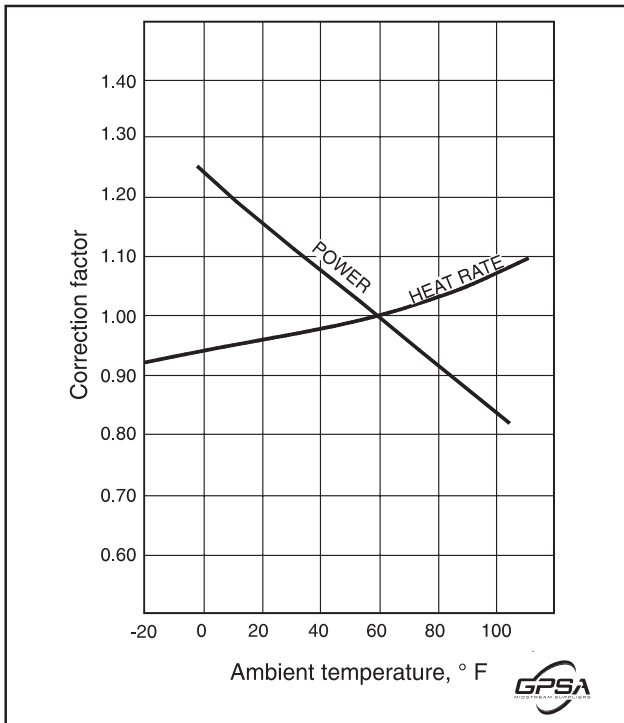


FIG. 15-31
Ambient Temperature Correction Factor



Gas Turbine Emissions

The gas turbine, in general, is a low emitter of exhaust gas pollutants relative to other heat engines in similar service. This is because the fuel is burned with ample excess air to ensure complete combustion at all but minimum load conditions. It is unique in its ability to burn a wide variety of fuels making each application unique in terms of exhaust emissions. However, gas turbine engine emissions recently have become a major factor in the design, selection, and operation of the unit. Various federal, state, and local authorities have issued standards and codes to control pollution of the atmosphere.

Carbon monoxide (CO) emissions occur because of incomplete combustion of fuel carbon. CO emissions for distillate and other liquid fuels are generally higher than for natural gas.

Unburned hydrocarbons (UHC) are formed by the incomplete combustion of fuel. Like CO emissions, they are directly related to combustion efficiency. However, because most gas turbine units on the market today have good combustor designs, the CO and UHC emissions are of secondary importance to NO_x emissions.

Sulfur oxides (SO_x) exhausted from gas turbines are a direct function of sulfur content in the fuel.

The high temperature and oxygen content during combustion tends to favor the formation of SO₃ and SO₂ at equilibrium. Sulfur oxide emissions from pipeline natural gas are virtually zero while wellhead gases, process gases, coal gases, and other fuels may contain significant quantities of sulfur in the form of H₂S.

Gas turbine particulate emissions are influenced by the fuel properties and combustion conditions. Particulates generally refer to visible smoke, ash, ambient non-combustibles, and products of erosion and corrosion in the hot gas path. Particulate and smoke emissions are usually small when burning natural gas, but are a significant consideration when operating on liquid fuels.

Of the exhaust components the most significant are the oxides of nitrogen (NO_x). The amount of NO_x produced is a function of the fuel burned, firing temperature, compressor discharge temperature, and residence time in the combustion zone. Since the trend towards high turbine efficiencies leads to higher pressure ratios and firing temperatures, the emission rates of NO_x are higher for these units.

Nitrogen oxides are categorized into two areas according to the mechanism of formation. NO_x formed by oxidation of free nitrogen in the combustion air or fuel is called "thermal NO_x," while that due to oxidation of organically bound nitrogen in the fuel is referred to as "organic NO_x." As implied by the name, thermal NO_x are mainly a function of the stoichiometric flame temperature. The formation of thermal NO_x is on the order of parts per million (by volume) or ppmv; however, the conversion of organic NO_x is virtually 100%. Efforts to reduce thermal NO_x by reducing flame temperatures have little effect on, and actually may increase, organic NO_x.

UHC emissions can be reduced by proper combustor design for maximum efficiency. Sulfur oxides can be eliminated by removing sulfur compounds from the fuel. Similarly, particulates can be minimized by appropriate fuel treatment. However, reduction of NO_x formation also produces increased inefficiency.

Two general approaches are used for NO_x reduction:

- The use of an inert heat sink such as water or steam injection.

FIG. 15-32
2011 Basic Specifications — Gas Turbine Engines (Mechanical Drive)

Model	Power Rating (ISO Rating) hp	Heat Rate (LVH) Btu/hp-hr	Pressure Ratio	Power Shaft RPM	At ISO RATING CONDITIONS		
					Turbine Inlet Temp. °F	Exhaust Flow lb/s	Exhaust Temp °F
Dresser- Rand							
VECTRA 30G	31,469	6816	17.9	6510	1530	149.7	1017
VECTRA 40G	42,102	6347	22.4	6510	1521	190.2	979
VECTRA 40G4	45,902	6316	23.6	6510	1571	198.4	1006
DR-63G PC	59,436	6042	27.9	3780	1578	280.0	855
DR-63G PG	66,822	6054	29.7	3930	1666	259.3	907
GE Oil & Gas							
GE10-2 DLE	15907.2	7762.2	15.8	7900		103.6	912
GE10-2	16288.1	7620.9	15.6	7900		103.6	901
PGT16	19143.1	7042.7	20.1	7900		103.8	928
PGT20 SAC	24300.4	6974.1	19.7	6500		138.0	895
PGT20 DLE	24926.9	6984.7	19.8	6500		137.3	915
PGT25 DLE	31194.9	6793.2	17.9	6500		151.0	983
PGT25 SAC	31205.6	6756.4	17.9	6500		151.9	971
MS5002C	37950.9	8700.9	8.8	4670		274.0	963
MS5002C POWER CRYSTAL	39520	8714	9.1	4670		270.0	1004
PGT25+DLE	41673.6	6207.2	21.5	6100		184.7	934
PGT25+SAC	42070.7	6187.4	21.5	6100		185.8	932
MS5002E	42912.7	7052.6	17	5714		225.5	947
MS5002D	43717.3	8411.1	10.8	4670		311.7	948
PGT25+G4 DLE	45164.3	6207.2	23	6100		197.3	955
PGT25+G4 SAC	45492.8	6208.7	23	6100		198.4	954
MS5002D POWER CRYSTAL	45553	8413	10.4	4670		308.0	993
LM6000 PD	58809.2	5985.3	28.3	3600		274.9	851
LM6000 PF	58809.2	5985.3	28.3	3600		274.9	851
MS6001B	58955.4	8140.4	12.3	5160		322.3	1016
LM6000 PC SAC FIXED IGV	59384.5	5971.9	27.9	3600		276.9	850
LM6000 PC SAC OPEN IGV	59558.8	5976.1	28.2	3600		278.9	846
LM6000 PC SAC VARIABLE IGV	59663.4	5967.6	28.1	3600		278.2	849
MS7001EA	121362	7584.1	12.9	3600		662.0	1011
LMS100	134370	5767.6	40	3600		456.1	783
MS9001E	175272	7357.9	12.8	3000		926.6	1001
MAN Diesel & Turbo SE							
THM 1203A	8046	10870	7.8	7800	1724	78.0	959
THM 1304-10R	12606	7011	10	9030	1787	100.0	
THM 1304-10	13008	8715	10	9030	1787	100.0	932
THM 1304-11	15019	8206	10.8	9030	1823	108.0	941

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FIG. 15-32 (Cont'd)
2011 Basic Specifications — Gas Turbine Engines (Mechanical Drive)

Model	Power Rating (ISO Rating) hp	Heat Rate (LVH) Btu/hp-hr	Pressure Ratio	Power Shaft RPM	At ISO RATING CONDITIONS		
					Turbine Inlet Temp. °F	Exhaust Flow lb/s	Exhaust Temp °F
THM 1304-12	16226	8001	11	9030		108.0	959
THM 1304-14	17701	7881	11	9030		108.0	1013
FT8	34690	6615	19.5	5775		188.5	856
MTU Friedrichshafen GmbH							
LM2500-PE	30180	6784	17.9	3600		152.0	975
LM2500-PH	36210	5986	19.3	3600		167.0	932
LM2500+(PK)	41840	6440	22	3600		192.0	959
LM6000	60346						
Rolls-Royce							
501-KC5	5500	8495	9.4			34.2	1060
501-KC7	7400	7902	13.5			46.2	968
Avon2648	21923	8323	9.6			179.0	799
Avon2656	22807	8022	9.6			179.0	788
RB211 - G62	39600	6705	20.8			209.0	916
RB211 - GT62	41450	6585	21.7			214.0	918
RB211 - GT61	44650	6285	21.7			210.0	
RB211 - H63	50848	6134	23			235.0	
RB211 - H63	59005	6247	25.1			254.6	
Trent 60 DLE	70418	5939	34			337.8	824
Trent 60 WLE	79120	6074	35.3			358.6	
Siemens AG Energy Sector							
SGT-100	7640	7738	14.9	13650		43.4	1009
SGT-200	10300	7616	12.6	11525		64.9	919
SGT-300	11000	7738	13.3			63.9	928
SGT-400	18000	7028	16.8	10000		86.8	1031
SGT-500	26177	7373	13			215.9	696
SGT-600	34100	7250	14	8085		177.0	1009
SGT-700	42960	6805	18	6930		208.0	982
SGT-750	49765	6362	23.8	6405		249.8	864
Solar Turbines Incorporated							
Saturn 20	1590	10370	6.7	22300		14.3	968
Centaur 40	4700	9125	10.3	15500		41.8	833
Centaur 50	6130	8500	10.3	16500		41.5	959
Taurus 60	7700	7965	11.5	13950		47.7	950
Taurus 70	10310	7310	16.5	11400		58.6	923
Mars 90	13220	7655	16.3	9400		88.5	869
Mars 100	16000	7370	17.7	9500		93.1	905
Titan 130	20500	7025	16.1	8500		110.3	941
Titan 250	30000	6360	24.1	7000		150.4	869

Data reproduced by permission from Diesel & Gas Turbine Worldwide Catalog, courtesy of Diesel & Gas Turbine Publications.

COMPRESSOR HORSEPOWER SELECTION CHART

(Brake Horsepower Per Million Cu. Ft.)

SUCTION PRESSURE	DISCHARGE PRESSURE (PSIG)																				STAGE								
	25	50	75	100	125	150	175	200	250	300	350	400	450	500	550	600	650	700	750	800		850	900	950	1000	1050	1100	1150	1200
0	65	99	128	144	156	168	178	187	203	218	233	241	248	254	260	266	272	277	282	286	291	295	299	303	307	311	315	3	
10	35	63	85	104	121	131	140	149	163	175	186	196	205	214	223	231	233	237	242	245	250	253	257	260	264	267	270	3	
20		43	62	78	92	106	118	126	139	151	160	170	178	186	193	199	206	212	218	225	231	226	229	232	236	239	242	245	3
30		29	47	62	74	85	96	107	123	133	143	152	159	167	173	179	185	191	196	201	206	211	216	221	226	230	224	227	3
40			36	50	61	72	81	90	107	121	130	138	145	152	158	164	170	175	180	185	190	194	198	202	206	210	214	218	2
50			26	41	52	61	70	78	93	106	119	127	134	141	147	153	158	163	168	173	177	181	185	189	193	196	200	203	2
60				32	44	53	61	69	83	95	108	118	125	131	137	143	148	153	158	162	166	170	174	178	182	185	188	192	2
70				25	37	46	54	61	74	86	97	109	117	123	129	135	140	145	149	153	157	161	165	169	172	176	179	182	2
80					30	40	47	54	67	78	89	98	109	117	122	127	132	137	142	146	150	153	157	161	164	167	171	174	2
90					24	34	42	49	61	72	81	91	100	109	116	121	126	131	135	139	143	147	150	154	157	160	163	166	2
100						28	37	44	55	66	75	84	92	100	109	116	120	125	129	133	137	141	144	148	151	154	157	160	2
125							25	32	44	54	63	71	78	85	92	99	106	113	117	121	124	128	131	134	137	140	143	146	2
150								22	35	45	53	60	67	74	80	86	92	98	103	110	114	118	121	124	127	130	133	135	2
175									27	37	45	52	57	60	71	76	82	87	92	97	102	107	112	115	118	121	123	126	2
200										30	38	45	52	58	63	68	73	78	83	88	92	96	101	105	110	113	116	119	2
250											26	33	40	46	51	56	60	65	69	73	77	81	85	88	92	95	99	102	1
300												23	30	36	41	46	50	54	58	62	66	69	73	76	79	83	86	89	1
350													21	27	33	38	42	46	50	53	57	60	63	67	70	73	75	78	1
400															25	30	35	39	43	46	50	53	56	59	60	64	67	70	1
450																23	28	32	36	40	43	46	49	52	55	58	60	63	1
500																	22	26	30	34	38	41	44	46	49	52	54	57	1
550																		20	25	20	32	36	39	41	44	46	49	51	1
600																			23	27	30	34	37	39	42	44	46	1	
650																					22	26	29	32	35	38	40	42	1
700																						22	25	28	30	33	36	38	1
750																							20	24	27	29	32	34	1

NOTE: 1 MMSCFD MEASURED 14.7 AND 60°F NOT CORRECTED FOR COMPRESSIBILITY 2 "N"=1.26 3 SUCTION TEMPERATURE 100°F 4 NATURAL GAS

For 900 rpm loads, synchronous motors should be considered at 1000 hp and above.

Motor requirements below 500 hp in the 900 to 1800 rpm speed range are normally handled by standard induction motors.

514 to 720 rpm — Synchronous motors are often selected above 1 hp per rpm, such as 800 hp at 720 rpm, 700 hp at 600 rpm, and 600 hp at 514 rpm.

Below 514 rpm — The synchronous motor should be considered for sizes down to 200 hp because of higher efficiency, improved power factor, and possible lower cost. At high voltages (4 kV and above), the synchronous motor becomes more economical at even lower horsepower.

Motor Voltage

The proper selection of voltage for a given motor drive can vary from a routine procedure to a complex study requiring a complete electrical system analysis. In many instances the in-plant distribution system is well established at a particular voltage, say 2300 (2.3 kV). The new machine may be small compared to available system capacity on the 2.3 kV bus so no problem is involved in purchasing a standard motor of that voltage. In more complicated cases additional substation capacity may be necessary to accommodate the new machine. However, when very large units are to be added, many factors must be considered. A new distribution voltage level, a new transmission line, or a higher voltage transmission from the electric utility might be necessary.

MOTOR ENCLOSURES

Motor enclosure selection should be predicated upon the environmental conditions under which the motor must operate. Directly related to this is the amount of maintenance required to provide long-term reliability and motor life. In general, the more open the enclosure is to the atmosphere, the lower the first cost of the machine but the higher the maintenance costs that may be necessary. Enclosures frequently used in a-c motors are listed below.

Drip-Proof

These are generally used only indoors or in enclosed spaces not exposed to severe environmental conditions. Maintenance requirements will depend upon general cleanliness of the location and any chemical contaminants in the area.

Weather-Protected Type I

This is the least costly outdoor machine. It is essentially a drip-proof guarded motor with heaters and outdoor bearing seals and is very susceptible to weather and atmospheric contamination. Considerable maintenance may be required to ensure satisfactory winding and bearing life.

Weather-Protected Type II

This is the more commonly used outdoor enclosure. It is more expensive than the WP-I but minimizes the entrance of water and dirt. Maintenance is less than for WP-I types. Chemical contaminants in gaseous form may be carried into a WP-II machine with the ventilating air and attack parts that are vulnerable to them.

FIG. 15-33
Energy Evaluation Chart
NEMA Frame Size Motors, Induction

HP	Approx. Full Load RPM	Amperes Based on 460V		Efficiency in Percentage at Full Load	
		Standard Efficiency	High Efficiency	Standard Efficiency	High Efficiency
1	1,800	1.9	1.5	72.0	84.0
	1,200	2.0	2.0	68.0	78.5
1-1/2	1,800	2.5	2.2	75.5	84.0
	1,200	2.8	2.6	72.0	84.0
2	1,800	2.9	3.0	75.5	84.0
	1,200	3.5	3.2	75.5	84.0
3	1,800	4.7	3.9	75.5	87.5
	1,200	5.1	4.8	75.5	86.5
5	1,800	7.1	6.3	78.5	89.5
	1,200	7.6	7.4	78.5	87.5
7-1/2	1,800	9.7	9.4	84.0	90.2
	1,200	10.5	9.9	81.5	89.5
10	1,800	12.7	12.4	86.5	91.0
	1,200	13.4	13.9	84.0	89.5
15	1,800	18.8	18.6	86.5	91.0
	1,200	19.7	19.0	84.0	89.5
20	1,800	24.4	25.0	86.5	91.0
	1,200	25.0	24.9	86.5	90.2
25	1,800	31.2	29.5	88.5	91.7
	1,200	29.2	29.1	88.5	91.0
30	1,800	36.2	35.9	88.5	93.0
	1,200	34.8	34.5	88.5	91.0
40	1,800	48.9	47.8	88.5	93.0
	1,200	46.0	46.2	90.2	92.4
50	1,800	59.3	57.7	90.2	93.6
	1,200	58.1	58.0	90.2	91.7
60	1,800	71.6	68.8	90.2	93.6
	1,200	68.5	69.6	90.2	93.0
75	1,800	92.5	85.3	90.2	93.6
	1,200	86.0	86.5	90.2	93.0
100	1,800	112.0	109.0	91.7	94.5
	1,200	114.0	115.0	91.7	93.6
125	1,800	139.0	136.0	91.7	94.1
	1,200	142.0	144.0	91.7	93.6
150	1,800	167.0	164.0	91.7	95.0
	1,200	168.0	174.0	91.7	94.1
200	1,800	217.0	214.0	93.0	94.1
	1,200	222.0	214.0	93.0	95.0

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	1,200	2.8	2.6	72.0	84.0
2	1,800	2.9	3.0	75.5	84.0
	1,200	3.5	3.2	75.5	84.0
3	1,800	4.7	3.9	75.5	87.5
	1,200	5.1	4.8	75.5	86.5
5	1,800	7.1	6.3	78.5	89.5
	1,200	7.6	7.4	78.5	87.5
7-1/2	1,800	9.7	9.4	84.0	90.2
	1,200	10.5	9.9	81.5	89.5
10	1,800	12.7	12.4	86.5	91.0
	1,200	13.4	13.9	84.0	89.5
15	1,800	18.8	18.6	86.5	91.0
	1,200	19.7	19.0	84.0	89.5
20	1,800	24.4	25.0	86.5	91.0
	1,200	25.0	24.9	86.5	90.2
25	1,800	31.2	29.5	88.5	91.7
	1,200	29.2	29.1	88.5	91.0
30	1,800	36.2	35.9	88.5	93.0
	1,200	34.8	34.5	88.5	91.0
40	1,800	48.9	47.8	88.5	93.0
	1,200	46.0	46.2	90.2	92.4
50	1,800	59.3	57.7	90.2	93.6
	1,200	58.1	58.0	90.2	91.7
60	1,800	71.6	68.8	90.2	93.6
	1,200	68.5	69.6	90.2	93.0
75	1,800	92.5	85.3	90.2	93.6
	1,200	86.0	86.5	90.2	93.0
100	1,800	112.0	109.0	91.7	94.5
	1,200	114.0	115.0	91.7	93.6
125	1,800	139.0	136.0	91.7	94.1
	1,200	142.0	144.0	91.7	93.6
150	1,800	167.0	164.0	91.7	95.0
	1,200	168.0	174.0	91.7	94.1
200	1,800	217.0	214.0	93.0	94.1
	1,200	222.0	214.0	93.0	95.0

Totally Enclosed Forced Ventilated (TEFV)

TEFV enclosures can be used indoors or outdoors in dirty or hazardous environments. Since the motor cooling air is piped in from a separate source the influx of dirt and gaseous contaminants is minimized. Maintenance is minimal depending upon the cleanliness of the cooling air.

Totally Enclosed Water-to-Air Cooled (TEWAC)

The totally enclosed water-to-air cooled machine uses an air to water heat exchanger to remove heat generated by motor losses. It is the quietest enclosure available and will usually result in the lowest maintenance costs. It will breathe during shutdown but often a breather filter is used to remove particulate contaminants. It is more efficient than a TEFC motor because it does not have the external fan to drive. Its first cost is greater than WP-II but less than TEFC, excluding any additional capital cost for a cooling water system. Operating costs are higher because of the necessity to continuously supply it with cooling water.

Totally Enclosed Fan Cooled (TEFC)

This is the highest degree of enclosure for an air cooled machine. In large sizes, the TEFC motor has an air-to-air heat exchanger. Internal motor air is recirculated around the outside of the tubes while outside air is driven through the tubes by a shaft driven fan. These motors are quite expensive especially in large sizes because of the high volume of cooling air required relative to motor size. These motors are indicated for use in very dirty or hazardous locations.

The TEFC enclosure minimizes the maintenance required for these very dirty applications. However, the machines will breathe when shut down and vapor and gaseous contaminants can be drawn into them. TEFC motors are usually noisy because of the large external fan.

Explosion-Proof

An explosion-proof machine is a totally enclosed machine whose enclosure is designed and constructed to withstand an internal explosion. It is also designed to prevent the ignition of combustibles surrounding the machine by sparks, flashes, or explosions which may occur within the machine casing.

THE INDUCTION GENERATOR

The induction generator can be used as a convenient means of recovering industrial process energy that would otherwise be wasted. Excess steam or compressed gas can often drive such a generator to convert useless energy to valuable kilowatts.

An induction generator is simply an induction motor driven above its synchronous speed by a suitable prime mover. This results in production rather than consumption of electric energy. Normally the induction generator does not differ in any aspect of electrical or mechanical construction from an induction motor. Only the operating speed range separates one mode of behavior from the other.

Important differences exist between the induction generator and the more widely used synchronous generator. These are basically the same as the differences between induction and synchronous motors. Besides low cost and simplicity of control an important benefit is that the induction machine is instantly convertible from generator to motor operation or vice versa.

The synchronous generator needs precise prime-mover speed control to maintain its output at correct frequency. When connected to a public utility system such a machine cannot be allowed to deviate more than a fraction of a cycle from rated frequency without being tripped off the line. However, speed changes do not affect the voltage or power output of the generator — only the frequency.

For the induction machine, voltage and frequency remain constant, set by the connected power system, whatever the driven speed. The speed change does directly affect the power output of the generator and therefore the temperature of its windings. Unless other machines are coupled into the same drive to dampen speed swings, close control of rpm is almost as necessary to the induction generator as to the alternator.

Smaller generators (down to 300 kW) are finding many uses. Among them:

- Recovering energy of compression on the downhill side of a natural gas pipeline.
- Producing electric power from the expansion of geothermal steam.
- Generating power through expansion of compressed gases in cryogenic production.
- Recovering energy from single-stage waste steam turbines in the 5-175 psig inlet pressure range.

SPEED VARIATION

Because of the continuing increase in the cost of electric energy, variable speed drives offer an economical means of reducing energy requirements in many areas of operation.

Variable Frequency Electric Motors

For many years variable speed applications relied on either d-c motors or a constant speed a-c motor coupled to various mechanical systems to provide the range of speeds required. Solid-state electronics provide an effective means of speed control for a-c motors by changing the frequency of the electrical signal. They can be used with both induction and synchronous motors.

A standard a-c motor operating at 60 hertz will operate at a constant speed, depending upon the number of magnetic poles it has in accordance with the formula:

$$\text{rpm} = \frac{120f}{p} \quad \text{Eq 15-2}$$

However, if the input frequency can be varied in accordance with the speed requirements, then a wide range of speeds can be obtained. For example, with a frequency range from 50 to 120 hertz, a 4-pole motor has a speed range from 1500 through 3600 rpm.

Fixed Speed Electric Motors With Fluid Couplings

The speed of an equipment item driven by a fixed-speed electric motor can be varied with a fluid coupling. This is essentially a pump discharging to a power-recovery turbine, both in the same casing. The pump is connected to the driver shaft and the turbine to the driven shaft. The turbine speed is varied by varying the amount of fluid in the casing. Increasing the fluid increases the circulation between the pump and turbine, thereby increasing the speed of the turbine. A fluid coupling

the fly-ball governor replaced by speed pick-ups and the hydraulic relays with electronic circuit boards. A third generation control system was developed and replaced the electronic circuitry with digital logic. A microprocessor is used and the control logic is programmed into the governor. The major advantage of this system is the ability to utilize two governors simultaneously, each capable of governing the turbine alone. If the primary governor incurs a fault, the back-up governor assumes control of the turbine and provides diagnostic information to the operator.

STEAM TURBINE EFFICIENCY

Factors Affecting Efficiency

The objective of the steam turbine is to maximize the use of the available steam energy where the available steam energy is defined as the difference between the inlet and exhaust energies (enthalpies) for a 100% efficient constant entropy (i.e., isentropic) process. There are numerous loss mechanisms which reduce the efficiency from the isentropic such as throttling losses, steam leakage, friction between the steam and the nozzles/buckets, bearing losses, etc. Efficiency can range from a low of 40% for a low horsepower single-stage turbine to a high approaching 90% for a large multistage, multi-valve turbine.

Techniques to Improve Efficiency

Various techniques are employed to maximize turbine efficiency, each designed to attack a specific loss mechanism. For example, the number of stages utilized can range from the fewest possible to develop the load reliably to the thermodynamically optimum selection. Spill bands can be utilized to minimize throttling losses. High efficiency nozzle/bucket profiles are available to reduce friction losses. Exhaust flow guides are available to reduce the pressure within the exhaust casing.

The specific features employed on a given application are usually based on the trade-off between capital investment and the cost to produce steam over the life of the turbine.

Operation at Part Load

Most equipment driven by steam turbines are centrifugal machines where horsepower varies as the cube of speed. Part load efficiency varies as a function of speed, flow, and the number of stages. By assuming horsepower to vary as the cube of speed the turbine part load efficiency can be approximated as a percentage of the design efficiency (Fig. 15-11).

EXAMPLES

Figs. 15-11 through 15-19 and 24-30 and 24-31 allow estimates to be made of steam rate, turbine efficiency, number of stages, and the inlet and exhaust nozzle diameters. The following examples illustrate the use of these figures:

Example 15-1 — Given a steam turbine application with the following characteristics:

Inlet Pressure	600 psia
Inlet Temperature	750°F
Exhaust Pressure	2 psia
Required Horsepower	6000 hp
Speed	7000 rpm

Determine:

- The actual steam rate (ASR).
- The inlet and exhaust nozzle diameters.
- The approximate number of stages.
- The steam rate at a partial load of 4000 hp and 6100 rpm.

Solution Steps

Using Figs. 24-30 and 31, the theoretical steam rate (TSR) may be determined from the difference in the inlet enthalpy and the theoretical exhaust enthalpy (i.e. isentropic exhaust

FIG. 15-11

Part Load Efficiency Correction Factor vs Percent Power Multi-Valve Steam Turbines

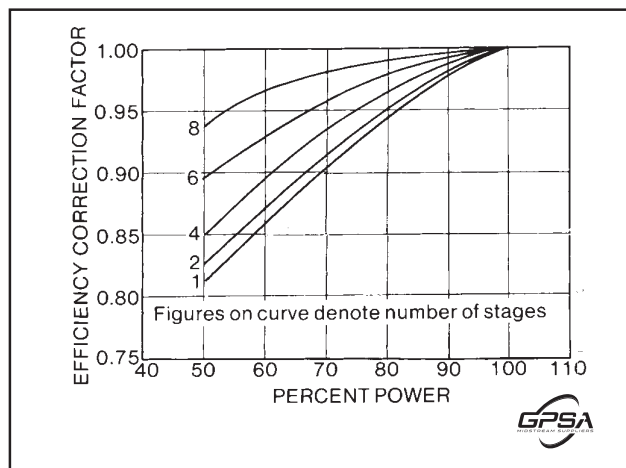
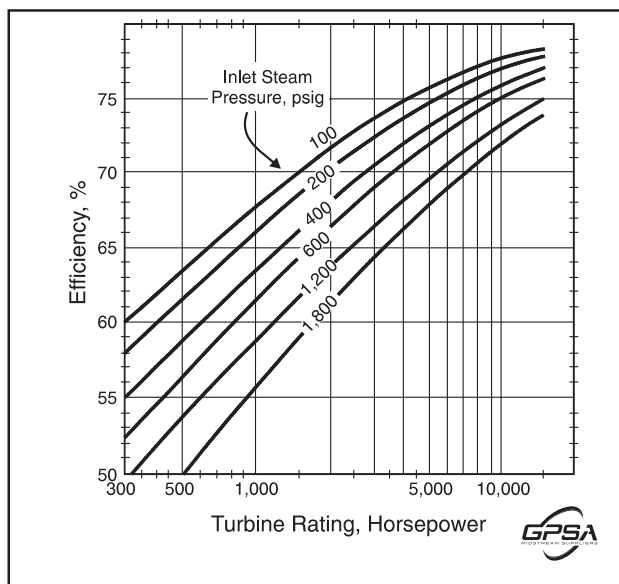


FIG. 15-12

Basic Efficiency of Multi-Valve, Multi-Stage Condensing Turbines



ABBREVIATIONS

abs	absolute	m	meter
ata	atmosphere	mm	millimeter
	absolute	m ²	square meter
Btu	British thermal unit	m ³	cubic meter
Btu/hr	British thermal unit/hour	m ³ /min	cubic meter/minute
°C	Celsius	mph	mile per hour
cfm	cubic foot/minute	N	Newton
cm	centimeter	N/m ²	Pascal
cm ²	square centimeter	Nm ² /hr	normal* cubic meter/hour
cm ³	cubic centimeter	psi	pound/square inch
cu.ft.	cubic foot	psia	pound/square inch absolute
°F	Fahrenheit	psig	pound/square inch gage
ft/sec	foot/second	scf	standard* cubic foot
ft-lb	foot-pound	scfm	standard* cubic foot/minute
gal	gallon	sq	square
hp	horsepower		
in	inch		
in. Hg	inch mercury		
in. H ₂ O	inch water		
kcal	kilocalorie		
kg	kilogram		
KJ	kilojoule		
kPa	kilopascal		
KW	kilowatt		
L	liter		

* "Normal" = 0°C and 1.01325 x 10⁵ Pascals
 * "Standard" = 59°F and 14.73 psia

CONVERSION FACTORS

TO CONVERT FROM ENGLISH	TO S.I. METRIC	MULTIPLY BY	TO OLD METRIC	MULTIPLY BY
sq. in.	mm ²	645.16	cm ²	6.4516
sq. ft.	m ²	0.0929	m ²	0.0929
lb/cu.ft.	kg/m ³	16.0185	kg/m ³	16.0185
lb _f	N	4.4482	N	4.4482
lb _f /ft	N/m	14.5939	N/m	14.5939
Btu	kJ	1.0551	kcal	0.252
Btu/hr	W	0.2931	kcal/hr	0.252
Btu/scf	kJ/mm ³	37.2590	kcal/nm ³	0.1565
in	mm	normal* cubic	cm	2.540
ft	m	meter/hour	m	0.3048
yd	m		m	0.914
lb	kg		kg	0.4536
hp	kW		kW	0.7457
psi	kPa		kg/cm ²	0.070
psia	kPa abs		bars abs	0.0716
psig	kPa gage		ata	0.070
in. Hg	kPa		cm Hg	2.540
in. H ₂ O	kPa		cm H ₂ O	2.540
°F (Interval)	°C = (°F - 32) / 5/9		°C = (°F - 32) / 5/9	
ft-lb	N • m	1.3558	N • m	1.3558
mph	km/hr	1.6093	km/hr	1.6093
ft/sec	m/sec	0.3048	m/sec	0.3048
cu. ft.	m ³	0.0283	m ³	0.0283
gas (US)	L	3.7854	L	3.7854
cfm	m ³ /min	0.0283	m ³ /min	0.0283
scfm	nm ³ /min	0.0268	nm ³ /hr	1.61

TO CONVERT FROM OLD METRIC	TO S.I. METRIC	MULTIPLY BY
cm ²	mm ²	100.
kcal	kJ	4.1868
kcal/hr	W	1.16279
cm	mm	10.
kg/cm ²	kPa	98.0665
bars	kPa	100.
atm	kPa	101.325
cm Hg	kPa	1.3332
cm H ₂ O	kPa	9.8064
nm ³ /hr	nm ³ /min	0.0176

MILLIMETERS (mm) TO INCHES (in)

(1 millimeter = 0.03937 inch)

mm in	mm in	mm in	mm in	mm in
1 0.039	21 0.827	41 1.614	61 2.402	81 3.189
2 0.079	22 0.866	42 1.654	62 2.441	82 3.228
3 0.118	23 0.906	43 1.693	63 2.480	83 3.268
4 0.157	24 0.945	44 1.732	64 2.520	84 3.307
5 0.197	25 0.984	45 1.772	65 2.559	85 3.346
6 0.236	26 1.024	46 1.811	66 2.598	86 3.386
7 0.276	27 1.063	47 1.850	67 2.638	87 3.425
8 0.315	28 1.102	48 1.890	68 2.677	88 3.465
9 0.354	29 1.142	49 1.929	69 2.717	89 3.504
10 0.394	30 1.181	50 1.968	70 2.756	90 3.543
11 0.433	31 1.220	51 2.008	71 2.795	91 3.583
12 0.472	32 1.260	52 2.047	72 2.835	92 3.622
13 0.512	33 1.299	53 2.087	73 2.874	93 3.661
14 0.551	34 1.339	54 2.126	74 2.913	94 3.701
15 0.591	35 1.378	55 2.165	75 2.953	95 3.740
16 0.630	36 1.417	56 2.205	76 2.992	96 3.779
17 0.669	37 1.457	57 2.244	77 3.032	97 3.819
18 0.709	38 1.496	58 2.283	78 3.071	98 3.858
19 0.748	39 1.535	59 2.323	79 3.110	99 3.898
20 0.787	40 1.575	60 2.362	80 3.150	100 3.937

KILOGRAMS (kg) TO POUNDS (lb)

(1 kilogram = 2.20462 pounds)

kg lb	kg lb	kg lb	kg lb	kg lb
1 2.204	21 46.297	41 90.390	61 134.482	81 178.574
2 4.409	22 48.502	42 92.594	62 136.687	82 180.779
3 6.614	23 50.706	43 94.799	63 138.891	83 182.984
4 8.819	24 52.911	44 97.003	64 141.096	84 185.188
5 11.023	25 55.116	45 99.208	65 143.300	85 187.393
6 13.228	26 57.320	46 101.413	66 145.505	86 189.598
7 15.432	27 59.525	47 103.617	67 147.710	87 191.802
8 17.637	28 61.729	48 105.822	68 149.914	88 194.007
9 19.843	29 63.934	49 108.026	69 152.119	89 196.211
10 22.046	30 66.139	50 110.231	70 154.324	90 198.416
11 24.251	31 68.343	51 112.436	71 156.528	91 200.621
12 26.455	32 70.548	52 114.640	72 158.733	92 202.825
13 28.660	33 72.753	53 116.845	73 160.937	93 205.030
14 30.865	34 74.957	54 119.050	74 163.142	94 207.235
15 33.069	35 77.162	55 121.254	75 165.347	95 209.439
16 35.274	36 79.366	56 123.459	76 167.551	96 211.644
17 37.479	37 81.571	57 125.663	77 169.756	97 213.848
18 39.683	38 83.776	58 127.868	78 171.961	98 216.053
19 41.888	39 85.980	59 130.073	79 174.165	99 218.258
20 44.093	40 88.185	60 132.277	80 176.370	100 220.462

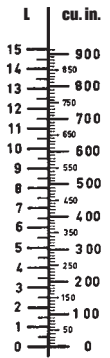
TEMPERATURE CONVERSION TABLES*

0 TO 100		2.78	37	98.6	23.9	75	167.0	93	200	392	299	570	1058	510	950	1742	
-17.8	0	32	3.33	38	100.4	24.4	76	168.8	99	210	410	304	580	1076	516	960	1760
-17.2	1	33.8	3.89	39	102.2	25.0	77	170.6	100	212	413	310	590	1094	521	970	1778
-16.7	2	35.6	4.44	40	104.0	25.6	78	172.4	104	220	428	316	600	1112	527	980	1796
-16.1	3	37.4	5.00	41	105.8	26.1	79	174.2	110	230	446	321	610	1130	532	990	1814
-15.6	4	39.2	5.56	42	107.6	26.7	80	176.0	116	240	464	327	620	1148	538	1000	1832
-15.0	5	41.0	6.11	43	109.4	27.2	81	177.8	121	250	482	332	630	1166			
-14.4	6	42.8	6.67	44	111.2	27.8	82	179.6	127	260	500	338	640	1184			
-13.9	7	44.9	7.22	45	113.0	28.3	83	181.4	132	270	518	343	650	1202			
-13.3	8	46.4	7.78	46	114.8	28.9	84	183.2	138	280	536	349	660	1220			
-12.8	9	48.2	8.33	47	116.6	29.4	85	185.0	143	290	554	354	670	1238			
-12.1	10	50.0	8.89	48	118.4	30.0	86	186.8	149	300	572	360	680	1256	554	1030	1886
-11.7	11	51.8	9.44	49	120.0	30.6	87	188.6	154	310	590	366	690	1274	560	1040	1904
-11.1	12	53.6	10.00	50	122.0	31.1	88	190.4	160	320	608	371	700	1292	566	1050	1922
-10.6	13	55.4	10.56	51	123.8	31.7	89	192.2	166	330	626	377	710	1310	571	1060	1940
-10.0	14	57.2	11.12	52	125.6	32.2	90	194.0	171	340	644	382	720	1328	577	1070	1958
-9.44	15	59.0	11.7	53	127.4	32.8	91	195.8	177	350	662	388	730	1346	582	1080	1976
-8.89	16	60.8	12.24	54	129.2	33.3	92	197.6	182	360	680	393	740	1364	588	1090	1994
-8.33	17	62.6	12.8	55	131.0	33.9	93	199.4	188	370	698	399	750	1382	593	1100	2012
-7.78	18	64.4	13.3	56	132.8	34.4	94	201.2	193	380	716	404	760	1400	599	1110	2030
-7.22	19	66.2	13.9	57	134.6	35.0	95	203.0	199	390	734	410	770	1418	604	1120	2048
-6.67	20	68.0	14.4	58	136.4	35.6	96	204.8	204	400	752	416	780	1436	610	1130	2066
-6.11	21	69.8	15.0	59	138.2	36.1	97	206.6	210	410	770	421	790	1454	616	1140	2084
-5.56	22	71.6	15.6	60	140.0	36.7	98	208.4	216	420	788	427	800	1472	621	1150	2102
-5.00	23	73.4	16.1	61	141.8	37.2	99	210.2	221	430	806	432	810	1490	627	1160	2120
-4.44	24	75.2	16.7	62	143.6	37.8	100	212.0	227	440	824	438	820	1508	632	1170	2138
-3.89	25	77.0	17.2	63	145.4				232	450	842	443	830	1526	638	1180	2156
-3.33	26	78.8	17.8	64	147.2				238	460	860	449	840	1544	643	1190	2174
-2.78	27	80.6	18.3	65	149.0				38	100	212	243	470	878	649	1200	2192
-2.22	28	82.4	18.9	66	150.8				43	110	230	249	480	896	654	1210	2210
-1.67	29	84.2	19.4	67	152.6				49	120	248	254	490	914	660	1220	2228
-1.11	30	86.0	20.0	68	154.4				54	130	266	260	500	932	666	1230	2246
-0.56	31	87.8	20.6	69	156.2				60	140	284	266	510	950	671	1240	2264
0	32	89.6	21.1	70	158.0				66	150	302	271	520	968	677	1250	2282
0.56	33	91.4	21.7	71	159.8				71	160	320	277	530	986	682	1260	2300
1.11	34	93.2	22.2	72	161.6				77	170	338	282	540	1004	688	1270	2318
1.67	35	95.0	22.8	73	163.4				82	180	356	288	550	1022	693	1280	2336
2.22	36	96.8	23.3	74	165.2				88	190	374	293	560	1040	704	1290	2354

Note: The numbers in bold face type refer to the temperature either in degrees Centigrade or Fahrenheit which is desired to convert into the other scale. If converting from Fahrenheit degrees to Centigrade degrees, the equivalent temperatures will be found in the left column; while if converting from degrees Centigrade to degrees Fahrenheit, the answer will be found in the column on the right.

VOLUME CONVERSION FACTORS

1 L = 61.02 cu. in.
 10 cu. in. = 0.164 L



with a particular service. Internal combustion engines are classified according to speed in the following broad categories:

- High speed — above 1500 rpm
- Medium speed — 700 to 1500 rpm
- Low speed — below 700 rpm

High speed engines can offer weight and space advantages but will usually require more maintenance than a medium or low speed engine. High speed engines are often selected for standby or intermittent applications. As a general rule the lower the speed the longer the service life. Although internal combustion engines are usually selected to run over a limited speed range, they will operate well over large ranges of speed just as an automobile engine does.

PERFORMANCE RATING

Several measurements of performance can be used to compare engines. Four commonly used measurements are:

1. Specific fuel consumption, (lb or Btu)/(bhp·hr)
2. BMEP, psi
3. Specific weight, lb/bhp
4. Output per unit of displacement, bhp/cu in.

The relationship between brake mean effective pressure (BMEP) and brake horsepower (bhp) is given below.

$$\text{BMEP} = \frac{(\text{bhp}) (33,000)}{(\text{S}) (\text{A}) (\text{N})} \quad \text{Eq 15-3}$$

The value of N is equivalent to RPM for two-stroke-cycle engines, and RPM divided by two for four-stroke cycle. BMEP indicates how much turbocharging increases the brake horsepower which is the power delivered to the driven equipment by the engine output shaft.

The intended use of the engine will determine the most important measure of performance. For an aircraft engine the first and third items may be the most important; while for a stationary engine in continuous service with no space or weight limitations, the first item would be of primary importance.

The power delivered is directly related to atmospheric conditions. Operation in areas of low atmospheric pressure (high altitudes) will reduce the power output. High inlet air temperature will also reduce the power output. Engines are rated for various altitudes above sea level (i.e. barometric pressures) and ambient temperatures (e.g. 1500/3000 feet and 90°F according to DEMA; 1500 feet and 85°F; and so forth). A rule of thumb for derating naturally aspirated engines is 3.5% reduction in power for each 1000 ft above the rating altitude, and 1% reduction for every 10°F above the rating temperature. For exact deration of naturally aspirated engines, or for turbocharged engines, the manufacturers must be consulted.

Following are gas-engine design parameters. The values vary considerably depending on the engine type, make and model, and on the site conditions, but ranges of typical values are given.

- Fuel-gas requirements (i.e. heat rate) [6500 to 8500 Btu/(bhp · hr), LHV].
- Heat rejection at the power-end exhaust manifold [1500 to 3000 Btu/(bhp · hr) with jacket water cooling, or 800 to 1500 without].

- Heat rejection at a turbo aftercooler if applicable [100 to 500 Btu/(bhp · hr)].
- Heat rejection at the lube-oil cooler [300 to 900 Btu/(bhp · hr)].

New technologies have reduced specific weights (i.e. lb/bhp), increased fuel efficiencies, lengthened the periods between overhauls, and reduced emissions. Precisely programmed electronically controlled fuel injection incorporates ambient and other important operating conditions to minimize fuel consumption and emissions over full operating ranges. Many engine designs include pre-combustion chambers that jet flames into the main combustion chambers effectively igniting leaner air/fuel mixtures (i.e. “lean burn”) resulting in higher efficiencies and lower emissions. New thermal-barrier coatings (TBCs) insulate many engine components from thermal shock and reduce heat losses that would otherwise decrease thermal efficiencies.

Engine Energy Balance

A gas engine converts the combustion energy in the fuel to mechanical power and heat. The combustion energy is usually distributed as follows:

	% Range
Mechanical power	30–40
Heat rejected to cylinder cooling	25–40
Heat rejected to oil cooler	3–5
Heat rejected to turbo aftercooler	4–9
Heat rejected to exhaust	25–30
Heat rejected to atmosphere (i.e. surface heat loss)	3–6

The mechanical power is the sum of the brake horsepower (bhp) (i.e. available shaft power), and the power to drive such engine auxiliaries as a lube-oil pump, cooling-water pump, radiator fan, and alternator (for a spark ignition engine).

Fig. 15-35 includes engine power ratings, specific fuel requirements (i.e., “heat rates”), heat rejections and exhaust con-

FIG. 15-34

Grades of Diesel Fuel, ASTM D-975 (1995) Classification

	1-D	2-D	4-D
Flash point, °F Min	100	125	130
Carbon Residue, % Max	0.15	0.35	—
Water and Sediment, % by Vol Max	0.05	0.05	0.50
Ash, % by Wt Max	0.01	0.01	0.10
Distillation °F			
90% Pt	550	640	—
Min	—	540	—
Viscosity at 104°F			
Centistokes			
Min	1.3	1.9	5.5
Max	2.4	4.1	24.0
Sulfur, % by Wt	0.05	0.05	2.0
Cetane No. Min	40	40	30
Aromaticity, % by Vol Max	35	35	—

ditions for a variety of gas engines. The values are based on full design operating power at the speeds noted for various altitudes above sea level and ambient temperatures.

An engine's power efficiency, typically called "thermal efficiency," is calculated from the following equation:

$$\text{Thermal Efficiency} = \frac{100 \times 2544}{\text{Heat Rate (Btu/(bhp} \cdot \text{hr), LHV)}}$$

The total heat rejected is calculated from the following equation:

$$\text{Heat Rejected} = (\text{Heat Rate} - 2544) \text{ Btu/(bhp} \cdot \text{hr)}$$

The heat rejected to the engine exhaust gas is calculated from the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Exhaust Heat} = & \text{Total heat rejected minus the sum of the} \\ \text{Btu/(bhp} \cdot \text{hr)} & \text{ heat rejected to cylinder cooling, oil} \\ & \text{cooling, turbo aftercooling, and engine-} \\ & \text{surface heat loss to the atmosphere} \end{aligned}$$

It is technically feasible to recover part of the heat. Low temperature heat at about 180°F, for such as space heating, can be recovered from the cooling circuits for cylinder jackets, lube oil and turbo charged air. Higher level heat at above 300°F can be recovered by heat exchange with engine exhaust. Below 300°F water vapor will condense with CO₂ absorption, acid formation, and resulting corrosion. A heat recovery arrangement is illustrated in Fig. 15-36. Technical feasibility depends upon the economic criteria and improves as the engine size increases. Heat recovery can increase the overall thermal efficiency to as high as 75%. For example, an engine's thermal efficiency can be increased from a typical regular value of 33% to 75% by recovering about 60% of the heat normally rejected to the coolant and exhaust.

Example 15-4 — Calculate the thermal efficiency, total heat rejected, and total exhaust heat for a Waukesha L7042GL at 1200 RPM, 77°F and sea level, and its full power rating.

Solutions Steps

From Fig. 15-35

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Full Power} &= 1480 \text{ bhp} \\ \text{Heat rate} &= 7284 \text{ Btu/(bhp} \cdot \text{hr), LHV} \\ \text{Heat rejected to water} & \\ \text{cooling, oil cooling, turbo} &= 1953 + 298 + 427 + 189 \\ \text{intercooling, and radiation} &= 2867 \text{ Btu/(bhp} \cdot \text{hr)} \end{aligned}$$

Therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Thermal efficiency} &= \frac{100 \times 2544}{7284} = 34.9\% \\ \text{Heat rejected per bhp} &= 7284 - 2544 = 4740 [\text{Btu/(bhp} \cdot \text{hr)}] \\ \text{Total heat rejected} &= 4740 [\text{Btu/(bhp} \cdot \text{hr)}] \cdot 1480 \text{ bhp} \\ &= 7.0 \text{ MMBtu/hr} \\ \text{Exhaust heat per bhp} &= 4740 - 2867 = 1873 \text{ Btu/(bhp} \cdot \text{hr)} \\ \text{Total exhaust heat} &= 1873 [\text{Btu/(bhp} \cdot \text{hr)}] \cdot 1480 \text{ bhp} \\ &= 2.77 \text{ MMBtu/hr} \end{aligned}$$

AUXILIARIES

Bearings

Hydrodynamic journal bearings are found in all types of industrial turbomachinery, which include pumps, electric motors, steam turbines, electric generators, and gas compressors. The hydrodynamic bearing types most commonly found in turbomachinery are:

- Plane cylindrical
- Pressure dam
- Tilting pad

For all bearing types, the fundamental geometric parameters are journal diameter, pad arc angle, length-to-diameter ratio, and running clearance. Some bearing types, such as tilting pad bearings, have additional geometric variations including number of pads, preload, pad pivot offset angle, and orientation of the bearing (on or between pads). The key operating conditions are oil viscosity, oil density, rotating speed, gravity load at the bearing, and applied external loads (such as gear mesh or pump volute loadings). A machinery expert should be consulted for further details concerning types of bearings and their applications and designs.

Gears

There are many different types of open gears such as spur, helical, spiral bevel, and worm. This section will focus on enclosed high speed helical gear reducers or increasers commonly used in the natural gas, refinery, and petrochemical industries.

Speed Increasers and Reducers — Speed increasers are usually used on centrifugal compressors, axial compressors, blowers, and centrifugal pumps driven by motors, turbines, and industrial combustion engines. Speed reducers are used on reciprocating compressors, rotary positive displacement compressors, centrifugal pumps, generators, and fans driven by turbines and motors.

High Speed Gears — High-speed gears are generally defined as having either or both of the following:

1. Pinion speed of at least 2,900 rpm.
2. Pitch line velocities above 5,000 ft/min.

There are units operating with pitch line velocities in excess of 35,000 ft/min and transmitting 30,000 hp.

Gearing — High speed gears can be selected with either single helical gearing (used extensively in Europe) or opposed double helical (i.e., "herringbone") gearing (predominant in the United States). Pros and cons of each type of gear design are numerous with double helical gearing being more efficient because there is only one thrust bearing required. The thrust bearing is usually on the low speed shaft.

Surface Finish — High speed gears are classified as precision quality gears. Fig. 15-37 shows a minimum surface finish and quality required for various pitch line velocities as recommended in Figure 1, page 14 of AGMA 2001-C95, Fundamental Rating Factors and Calculation Methods for Involute Spur and Helical Gear Teeth.

FIG. 15-35
Engine Ratings and Operating Parameters

Note: Figures may be approximate due to variations in engine services and are representative of new engines only. Refer to manufacturer for exact information.

ENGINE	Full Power at Full Speed (bhp)	Full Speed (rpm)	Strokes Per Cycle	BMEP (psi)	Fuel Reqmt [Btu/(bhp-hr)] LHV	Heat Rejection Btu / (bhp · hr)				Exhaust rate [lb/(bhp-hr)]	Exhaust temp °F
						Jacket Water Cooler	Oil Cooler	Turbo Intercooler/ Aftercooler	Atmosphere i.e. Surface Heat Loss		
Caterpillar											
G3304 NA	95	1800	4	Not Avail.	7875	2574	421	N/A	316	6.85	1089
G3304B NA	95	1800	4	Not Avail.	7875	2679	404	N/A	316	7.00	1047
G3306 NA	145	1800	4	Not Avail.	7775	2503	409	N/A	311	6.74	1101
G3306B NA	145	1800	4	Not Avail.	7775	2486	371	N/A	311	6.78	1160
G3306 TA	203	1800	4	Not Avail.	8098	2673	423	152	324	7.06	1064
G3306B TA	205	1800	4	Not Avail.	8066	2651	395	139	323	7.00	1094
G3406 NA	215	1800	4	Not Avail.	7845	2532	414	N/A	313	7.43	1039
G3406 TA	276	1800	4	Not Avail.	7418	2763	Note (1)	81	297	6.53	1004
G3408 NA	255	1800	4	Not Avail.	7643	2392	378	N/A	305	7.07	1069
G3408 TA	332	1500	4	Not Avail.	7507	2890	Note (1)	45	301	6.50	957
G3408C LE	425	1800	4	Not Avail.	7595	2108	333	402	310	9.96	806
G3412 TA	500	1500	4	Not Avail.	7800	2725	431	54	312	6.61	974
G3412C LE	637	1800	4	Not Avail.	7635	2179	344	435	311	9.84	788
G3508 TA	524	1200	4	Not Avail.	7712	2694	402	157	313	6.62	914
G3508 LE	670	1400	4	Not Avail.	7510	1630	258	408	285	9.62	985
G3508B LE	690	1400	4	Not Avail.	7254	938	230	698	304	10.62	931
G3512 TA	790	1200	4	Not Avail.	7824	2812	445	187	277	6.58	892
G3512 LE	860	1200	4	Not Avail.	7402	1933	288	457	254	9.92	823
G3512 LE	1005	1400	4	Not Avail.	7368	1838	274	493	254	9.96	834
G3512B LE	1035	1400	4	Not Avail.	7237	1008	230	617	270	10.39	975
G3516 TA	1050	1200	4	Not Avail.	7700	2789	441	170	260	6.16	912
G3516 LE	1150	1200	4	Not Avail.	7324	1896	283	392	238	9.83	846
G3516 LE	1340	1400	4	Not Avail.	7405	1886	281	427	238	9.80	873
G3516B LE	1380	1400	4	Not Avail.	7301	1018	195	670	266	10.42	992
G3520B LE	1480	1200	4	Not Avail.	7455	1259	195	520	255	10.90	985
G3520B LE	1725	1400	4	Not Avail.	7205	1056	194	607	255	10.28	989
G3606 LE	1775	1000	4	Not Avail.	6649	604	306	470	238	12.05	847
G3608 LE	2370	1000	4	Not Avail.	6629	605	306	446	238	11.90	857
G3612 LE	3550	1000	4	Not Avail.	6629	614	306	469	238	12.03	838
G3616 LE	4735	1000	4	Not Avail.	6605	607	304	435	237	11.85	856
G12CM34	6135	750	4	Not Avail.	5839	361	383	757	120	6.09	653
G16CM34	8180	750	4	Not Avail.	5839	361	414	757	120	6.00	653
Cummins											
G5.9	99	2200	4	99	8454	2051	Not Avail.	na	651	Not Avail.	1327
G8.3	118	1800	4	103	8455	2335	Not Avail.	na	388	Not Avail.	1342
GTA8.3	175	1800	4	152	7369	1642	Not Avail.	347	388	Not Avail.	1341
QSL9G	175	1800	4	142	8088	2634	Not Avail.	304	700	Not Avail.	1077
G855	188	1800	4	97	8528	2692	Not Avail.	na	488	Not Avail.	1179
GTA855	256	1800	4	132	8439	2863	Not Avail.	286	636	Not Avail.	1347
KTA19G	380	1800	4	144	8091	2317	Not Avail.	208	791	Not Avail.	1341
KTA38G	760	1800	4	144	7942	3012	Not Avail.	149	404	Not Avail.	1197

FIG. 15-35 (Cont'd.)
Engine Ratings and Operating Parameters

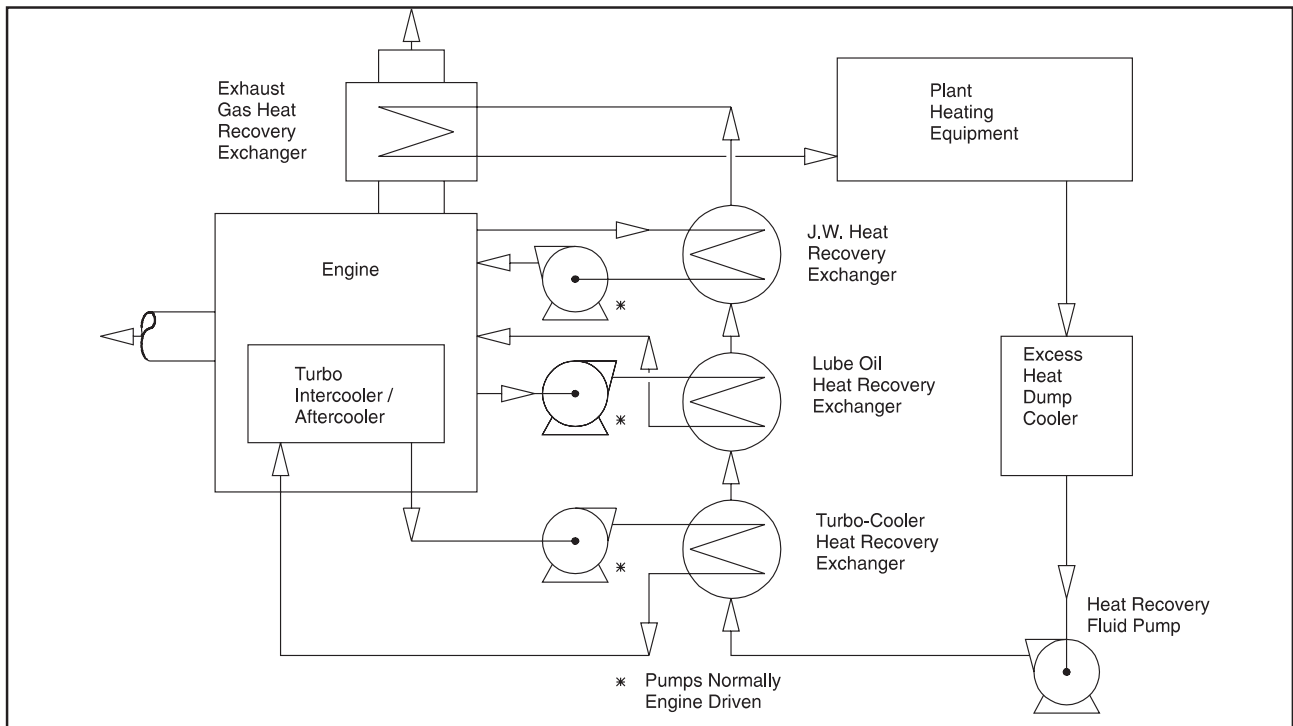
Note: Figures may be approximate due to variations in engine services and are representative of new engines only. Refer to manufacturer for exact information.

ENGINE	Full Power at Full Speed (bhp)	Full Speed (rpm)	Strokes Per Cycle	BMEP (psi)	Fuel Reqmt [Btu/(bhp-hr)] LHV	Heat Rejection Btu / (bhp · hr)				Exhaust rate [lb/(bhp-hr)]	Exhaust temp °F	
						Jacket Water Cooler	Cylinder Cooling	Turbo Intercooler/Aftercooler	Atmosphere i.e. Surface Heat Loss			
Wartsila (4)												
6L34SG	3,621	750	4	287	5,435							
9L34SG	5,431	750	4	287	5,435	725 (5) (6)	295 (5)	233 (5) (7)	94 (5)	9.82	779	
12V34SG	7,241	750	4	287	5,435	744 (5) (6)	295 (5)	214 (5) (7)	94 (5)	9.82	779	
16V34SG	9,655	750	4	287	5,435							
20V34SG	12,069	750	4	287	5,435	700 (5) (6)	295 (5)	240 (5) (7)	92 (5)	9.84	797	
Waukesha												
F186	240	1800	4	96	7570	2788	225	—	204	6.45	1064	
F186L	400	1800	4	160	7123	1875	243	473	155	9.37	836	
F186SI	400	1800	4	160	7523	2285	423	195	248	6.57	1116	
H24G	320	1800	4	96	7897	2984	234	—	184	6.73	1098	
H24GL	530	1800	4	160	7120	1879	242	475	138	9.37	838	
H24GSI	530	1800	4	160	7497	2294	423	194	213	6.55	1114	
L36GL	800	1800	4	160	7114	1874	241	473	120	9.36	838	
L36GSI	800	1800	4	160	7389	2335	371	188	178	6.45	1116	
P48GL	1065	1800	4	160	7092	1924	237	472	110	9.33	836	
P48GSI	1065	1800	4	160	7373	2318	366	188	157	6.44	1113	
F3521G	515	1200	4	96	7336	2470	383	—	336	6.41	1059	
F3521GL	738	1200	4	138	7383	2054	314	432	199	10.99	703	
F3514GSI	740	1200	4	138	8180	2577	409	162	439	6.97	1169	
F3524GSI	840	1200	4	158	8037	2489	376	165	402	6.85	1192	
L5790G	845	1200	4	96	7446	2550	378	—	375	6.50	1044	
L5774LT	1280	1200	4	146	6961	1670	360	303	277	9.07	842	
L5794LT	1450	1200	4	165	6995	1687	337	358	247	9.11	849	
L5794GSI	1380	1200	4	158	7665	2249	348	129	438	6.51	1136	
L7042G	1025	1200	4	96	7351	2469	382	—	316	6.42	1058	
L7042GL	1480	1200	4	138	7284	1953	298	427	189	10.84	710	
L7042GSI	1480	1200	4	138	7833	2430	243	190	401	6.84	1126	
L7044GSI	1680	1200	4	158	7919	2350	343	150	389	6.74	1179	
P9390GL	1980	1200	4	138	7198	1784	321	446	165	10.72	762	
P9390GSI	1980	1200	4	138	7930	2518	262	194	320	6.93	1177	
12V275GL+	3625	1000	4	220	6550	596	262	708	83	11.77	820	
16V275GL+	4835	1000	4	220	6579	620	219	734	81	11.82	812	

Notes

- (1) The heat rejected to the oil cooler is included with that to the jacket-water cooler.
- (2): G35088 LE, G3512B LE, G3516B LE, G3600, GCM34 and G33008 engine information based on 0.5 gram NOx rating
- (3): All G3300, G3400NA, G3400TA and G3500 engine information based on catalyst setting
- (4) Performance data is based upon the A2 version at High Efficiency setting and reference conditions in accordance with ISO 3046/1-6
- (5) Tolerance 10%
- (6) Jacket water circuit (HT circuit) includes jacket and HT charge air cooler heat
- (7) LT charge air cooler portion only

FIG. 15-36
Example Engine Heat Recovery Arrangement



Gear Ratings

Various parameters affecting the durability, strength ratings, and scoring temperatures include:

Horsepower — The horsepower rating of high speed gears is determined from the durability rating and strength rating on the gear or pinion as specified in AGMA 6011-G92, Specifications for High Speed Helical Gear Units. In addition, the rating is limited by the scuffing temperature as determined in accordance with AGMA 217.01, Information Sheet, Gear Scoring Design Guide for Aerospace Spur and Helical Power Gears, and Annex A of AGMA 2001-C95.

Durability — The durability hp rating for a specific gear set is primarily dependent on the speed and allowable contact stress of the gear and does not vary significantly with tooth size. The allowable contact stress is dependent on the surface hardness of the gear or pinion tooth and varies with material composition and mechanical properties.

Strength — The strength hp rating for a specific gear set varies mainly with the speed, allowable fatigue stress of material, and with tooth thickness. The tooth form, pressure angle, fillet radius, number of teeth, helix angle, and pitch line velocity also affect the strength horsepower rating.

Allowable fatigue stress is dependent on the tensile strength of the material and varies with heat treatment and chemical composition.

Scuffing Temperatures — The scuffing or flash temperature index is the calculated temperature of the oil in the gear mesh. This temperature is arrived at by calculating the temperature rise of the lubricant in the mesh and adding it to the inlet oil temperature. The temperature rise for a given set of gears increases with the tooth loading, speed, and surface finish (i.e. increasing roughness).

The temperature of the gears will increase as the pitch is decreased, pressure angle is decreased, or helix angle is increased.

Design Factors

The following design factors must be considered for high speed drives.

Housings — Must be of rugged design for strength and rigidity to maintain precise alignment of gears and bearings.

Bearings — Should be split-sleeve, babbitt lined, steel-backed precision journal bearings with thrust faces for axial loads. Fixed pad or tilting pad (Kingsbury type) should be used where required. Tilt pad radial bearings may also be required for high rpm, high load applications.

Shafts — Precision machined from heat treated, high quality alloy (4140 is common) steel. Adequately sized to rigidly maintain gear alignment and protect from overload.

FIG. 15-37
Gear Quality

Pitch Line Velocity (ft/min)	Surface Quality (RMS) (micro inches)	Minimum Gear Quality Number
Under 8,000	45	10
8,001 – 10,000	32	11
10,001 – 20,000	32	12
20,001 – 30,000	20	12-13
Over 30,000	16	12-14

Pinions — Normally cut integral with shaft from a high-quality forging that is through hardened or surface hardened by carburizing or nitriding. Grinding is the most common finishing method but precision hobbing, shaving, or lapping are also used.

Gears — Usually made from a high-quality forging that is through hardened or surface hardened by carburizing or nitriding and is separate from the low speed shaft. Gear may be integral with the shaft when operating conditions require. Grinding is the most common finish method but precision hobbing, shaving, or lapping are also used.

Dynamic Balance — Balance all rotating elements to assure smooth operation at high rpm.

Seals — Shaft seal should be of the labyrinth type, with clearance between shaft and seal of 0.020 to 0.030 inch. To prevent oil leakage through the clearance, the labyrinth is made interlocking with grooves machined in the cap to create air back pressure during rotation to retain the lubricant. High speed gears are usually used on critical process trains where down time is quite costly and catastrophic failure must be avoided at all costs. Therefore, gear drives are be-

coming more and more instrumented. Optional monitoring equipment often specified by users include:

- Vibration probes and proximitors (to measure shaft vibration).
- Keyphasors (provide timing and phase reference).
- Accelerometers (measure casing acceleration).
- Direct reading dial type thermometers in stainless thermowells (measure bearing temperature).
- Resistance temperature detectors (RTDs) and thermocouples (measure bearing temperature).
- Temperature and pressure switches (alarm and shutdown functions).

Lubrication

The majority of high horsepower, high speed gears are lubricated from a common sump which also lubricates the driving and the driven equipment. These systems are normally designed to operate with a high-grade turbine oil with a minimum viscosity of 150 SSU at 100°F. A good operating pressure range for the oil is 25 to 50 psi, with 25 micron filtration.

Couplings

A coupling is required to connect a prime mover to a piece of driven machinery. The purpose of a coupling is to transmit rotary motion and torque from one piece of machinery to another. A coupling may also serve a secondary purpose such as accommodating misalignment of the two pieces of equipment. There are two general categories of couplings: rigid and flexible.

Rigid Couplings — Rigid couplings are used when the two machines must be kept in exact alignment or when the rotor of one machine is used to support the rotor of another machine. Very precise alignment of machine bearings is necessary when using this type of coupling. Manufacturing tolerances are also extremely important. One common application for rigid couplings is in the pump industry where



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the prime mover, generally an electric motor, is positioned vertically above the pump.

Flexible Couplings — Flexible couplings, in addition to transmitting torque, accommodate unavoidable misalignment between shafts. Mechanically flexible couplings provide for misalignment by clearances in the design of the coupling. The most common type of mechanically flexible coupling is the gear type. Material flexible couplings use the natural flexing of the coupling element to compensate for shaft misalignment. Metal, elastomer, or plastic having sufficient resistance to fatigue failure may be used for the flexing element of the coupling. Many types of flexible couplings are in common use and selection for a particular application depends on many factors including cost, horsepower, shaft speed, and reliability. A specialist should always be consulted for proper selection on any critical piece of equipment.

Vibration Monitoring

The oldest and most basic type of vibration measurement involved the use of the human senses to feel and listen to a machine. The basic approach has not changed, just the method. It was always difficult to justify enough time for one individual, or a group of individuals, to acquire periodic measurements on a large number of machines. Also, with the advent of high speed, high performance machines, failures can occur faster than personnel can react. In addition, very subtle changes can occur over a long period of time, making it difficult to realize by the human senses, but still affecting the machine's mechanical stability and safety. Vibration monitoring is simply the full-time electronic measurement and monitoring of vibration levels from a given machine. Typically, the monitoring responds to the overall signal input from the transducer regardless of the source of vibration (in-balance, bearing wear, coupling problems, misalignment, etc.).

A typical vibration monitor provides two levels of alarm: alert and danger, that can be adjusted to fit the characteristics of a given machine. These set points have associated relays which can be connected to external audible or visual annunciators on the control panel. If the alert or danger set point is exceeded, the monitor and annunciator will alert operations and maintenance personnel of this event. Ideally, the alert alarm will indicate that the machine condition has changed significantly, but allow some discrete time before the machine is in a dangerous condition. For most applications, if the machine does reach the danger level of vibration and continued operation would probably result in machine failure, automatic shutdown is mandatory regardless of the time lag that has occurred between alert and danger signal.

There are three types of vibration sensors: (1) accelerometers, (2) velocity transducers, and (3) proximity probes. For most large critical machinery, and certainly for machinery with fluid film-type bearings, the important measurement to be made is rotor motion relative to the machine bearing

or bearing support. For this application, the proximity probe transducer has proven to be the most reliable indicator of machinery malfunctions.

The proximity probe is a noncontacting transducer, typically installed on the bearing or bearing housing, and observes the rotor radial dynamic motion and position with respect to the bearing clearance. This same type of proximity probe can be used to measure axial position and vibration as well.

For machines which exhibit significant amounts of casing motion, it may be necessary to add to this system a seismic transducer measuring machine casing vibration. Some unique applications dictate that measurements are necessary in the high frequency region, where accelerometers are typically employed.

The American Petroleum Institute (API) has published a specification describing vibration monitoring systems, API 670, "Vibration, Axial Position, and Bearing Temperature Monitoring Systems."

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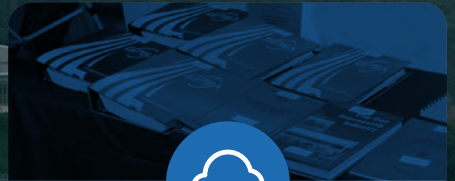
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Practical advice for analyzing, preventing cylinder valve failures

Key opportunities to improve the performance, longevity of the most frequent failing compressor component revolve around timing, failure patterns. By **Paul Modern**

Cylinder valves are the single most common cause of unscheduled reciprocating compressor shutdowns. As equipment operators try to extend maintenance intervals, the question is, "Why do valves fail more often than other compressor components?" The necessary follow-up question is, "How do we improve valve reliability?" This article intends to summarize the main causes of valve failure, recognizable failure patterns and key opportunities to improve performance.

Failure susceptibility

First, though, why are valves so susceptible to failure? Valve design is often a series of conflicting requirements: reliability vs efficiency, multiple gas duties, multiple pressure duties, varying amounts of lubrication and so forth. Despite design requirements, however, the valve can only be optimized for one set of running

conditions. A compressor valve is pressure and flow operated. Flow forces keep the valve seal element open against springs. Spring loads close the valve as the flow forces decay at the end of the compressor stroke. That closure timing is critical for valve life.

Now take a valve designed to run in hydrogen gas at 435 psi (30 bar) discharge in a refinery hydrocracking application. While the main valve duty is hydrogen, the compressor will also need to run on nitrogen – a much heavier gas – for catalyst regeneration. The mass flow and drag forces will be completely different with the nitrogen and delay the closing timing significantly, which will result in closing impacts at higher speeds.

Incomplete data

Further, the valve must perform in often-difficult regimes over many millions of opening and closing cycles. Even a slow-speed compressor running at 400 rpm would see 210 million valve events in one year. That's 24,000 events every hour, with two impacts per event, bringing component fatigue to the forefront of concerns.

Finally, data from the field is often incomplete, inaccurate or difficult to quantify. Valve design is an exact science, often performed with inexact information.

Given the difficulties of valve design and



FIGURE 1

A broken outer edge on a valve plate is often an indicator of impact failure.

operating conditions, what can a valve failure tell us? Often, there are clues in the timing or patterns of failure.

Valve failure timing

Accurate run logs and maintenance records are the first data points needed in valve failure analysis. The runtime for the valve that failed and how that compares to historical runtimes is critical knowledge. Start-up or very-low-run-hour failures should be investigated with a different thought process than failures that occur after many operating hours.

Compressor turnarounds have a habit of creating difficult environments for the valves. Pooled lubrication oil in discharge pockets, condensate liquid forming in cylinders, the introduction of inlet pipe scale and debris, nitrogen start-up runs, lack of initial run lubrication – all of these can cause failure

PAUL MODERN is the chief engineer for valves and flow control at Cook Compression. He has more than 20 years of experience relating to valve products in reciprocating compressors. He has a degree in Aerospace Engineering from Bristol University and has also worked on turbocharger flow-based analysis.





FIGURE 2
A mottled witness pattern on the back face of a valve plate might indicate excessive opening impacts.

even before the valve has a chance to run in its correct operating environment.

If a valve has been running well between maintenance intervals for many years and then failures start to occur, what changed? Has the duty or gas changed significantly? Has the quality of the valve supply or reconditioning changed? Has the lubrication rate been altered? Has the maintenance period been extended? Did something upstream or downstream of the compressor change? Accurate information about the operating history can help pinpoint a cause.

One particularly vexing suction valve problem on an air compressor in India turned out to be tree blossoms blocking an inlet filter at a certain time of the year. By tracking the timing of the failures, the root cause was discovered.

Pressure and temperature logs are useful data for determining whether a failure was instantaneous or the result of performance degradation over time. Inter-stage pressures and valve cap temperatures over time could indicate whether valves are leaking and accurate logs can be

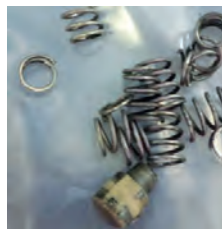


FIGURE 4
Spring fatigue failure may result from excessive valve flutter cycles.

invaluable in determining a root cause.

The other key part of valve failure analysis is to examine the valves themselves for failure patterns. These will typically point to specific mechanical and/or



FIGURE 5
Valve guard breakage at the center stud and polishing on the clamp face due to clamping issues.

environmental failure mechanisms that can then be addressed.

Mechanical valve failure mechanisms

Chief among mechanical valve failure mechanisms is failure from closing and opening impacts. As noted earlier, valves will open and close millions of times in their lifespan. Each time they do, the sealing element impacts the seat and the guard at either end of the motion. Limiting the speed of these impacts is critical to valve life and is a function of the valve springs. Valves are designed dynamically in order to optimize spring loads for a particular duty. Poor spring choice can lead to late closure and high impact speeds, which almost always leads to failure.

Impact-related failures often manifest

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FIGURE 6

Fretting on the valve guide due to movement in the valve pocket.



FIGURE 7

Unloader top cap showing wear marks from the actuator.

as broken outer segments on plate type valves or broken (often radially cracked) rings on ring-type valves. Impact issues may also be seen as a mottled witness pattern on the contact faces of the seal elements. If opening speeds are too high, there is potential for spring damage due to the over-travel of the spring in the pocket.

Another mechanical failure mechanism is valve flutter, caused by excessive spring forces for the specific duty. In this instance, pressure opens the valve as required, but the flow and drag forces are insufficient to keep the valve open against the springs. The spring loads close the valve early, which

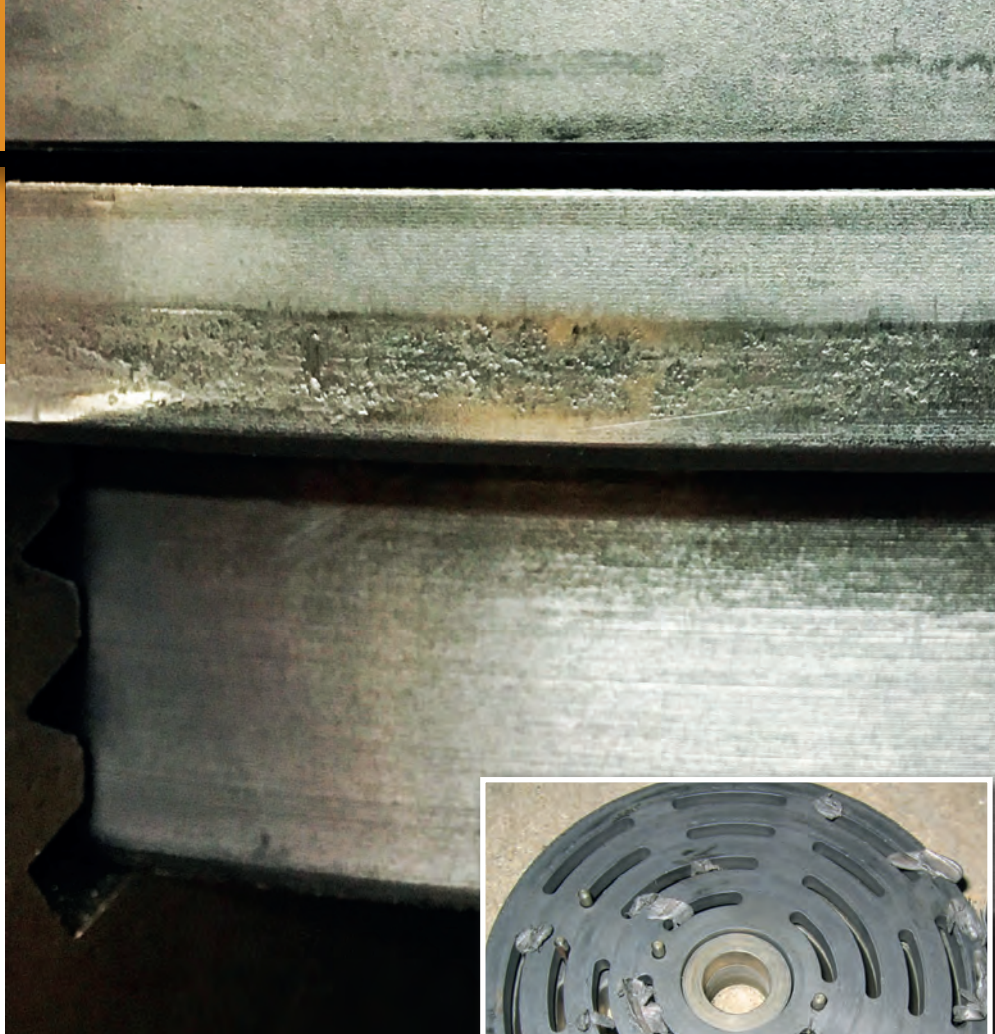


FIGURE 9

Piston ring debris caught in a compressor valve.



in turn reduces the flow area, increasing the forces and momentarily re-opening the valve. This flutter repeats, possibly many times for each normal valve event. If a valve normally opens and closes millions of times, a fluttering valve will multiply that figure and create an extreme wear and fatigue regime.

Valve flutter can often be seen as excessive wear on the valve guide or sealing elements. Springs may also fail due to fatigue from the extreme cycles. On ring-type valves, the rings may spin within the valve and cause further wear in a circular pattern on the back face.

Clamps

Valve clamping is a mechanical failure mechanism that is simple to spot but often overlooked. Valves are held in place

in the valve pocket by a cage and cover arrangement. If the clamping forces are too low or the clamp height of the valve is too far reduced due to reconditioning, then the valve can potentially move in the pocket. The hammering action of the valve would likely be noisy, and failure is usually quick due to the forces involved. Physical evidence includes fretting or polishing on the valve guide or clamp faces. Hanging guards may fail at the center stud, and in extreme cases, the seat or guard might fail at the clamping location.

On valves with finger unloaders, actuator adjustment introduces another potential failure mechanism. Actuators depress a valve unloader finger to hold the valve open during start-up or capacity control. Normally a specific gap must be maintained between the actuator spindle end and the

FIGURE 8

Finger unloader wear on a valve plate.



unloader top cap. The consequences of poor adjustment can be heavy wear to the unloader cap and, potentially, wear from the unloader fingers on the seal elements. This wear can cause localized fatigue points and eventual failure.

Environmental causes of valve failure

The cause of valve failures may also be

related to the operating environment: lubrication, gas type, liquid build-up and the presence of dirt or debris.

Any particulate or debris that passes through a valve is likely to become trapped between the moving seal element and the seat. Over the course of the repeated valve opening and closing impacts, this trapped debris can cause damage to the seat and sealing elements. With plastic

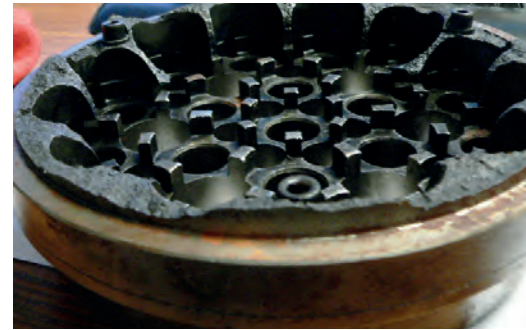


FIGURE 11A

Valve seat destroyed by a liquid slug; the top half of the seat was broken away, exposing the seal elements and springs.



FIGURE 11B

Simulated overpressure peak (circled) at the discharge valve opening on a PV curve.

seal elements, particles can become embedded in the seal, creating small leak paths that lead to increased temperatures and seal degradation. In extreme cases, the embedded particle can weaken the seal element. During visual inspection of a valve, debris may still be evident in the valve; otherwise, impact marks from the trapped debris may be visible on seats and seal elements. Dirt or abrasive media can also lead to other problems, such as blocked spring pockets. Dirt that mixes with lubrication oil can create a lapping paste that causes erosion of the valve internals.

Liquids

Liquids are an even more damaging contaminant in compressor cylinders, even in small quantities. When liquid forms from condensate or upstream process and gets trapped in pipework, pulsation bottles, inlet

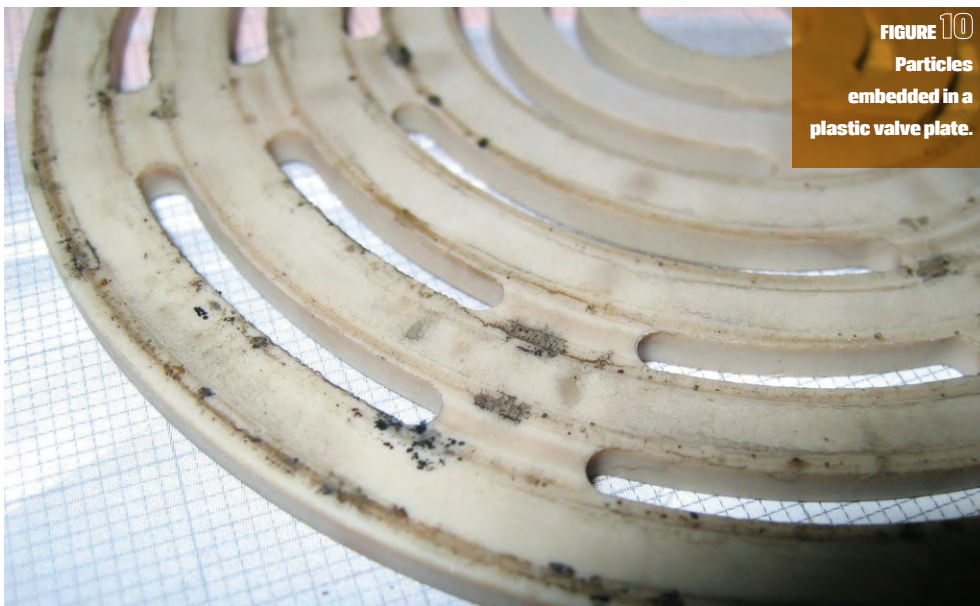


FIGURE 10
Particles embedded in a plastic valve plate.

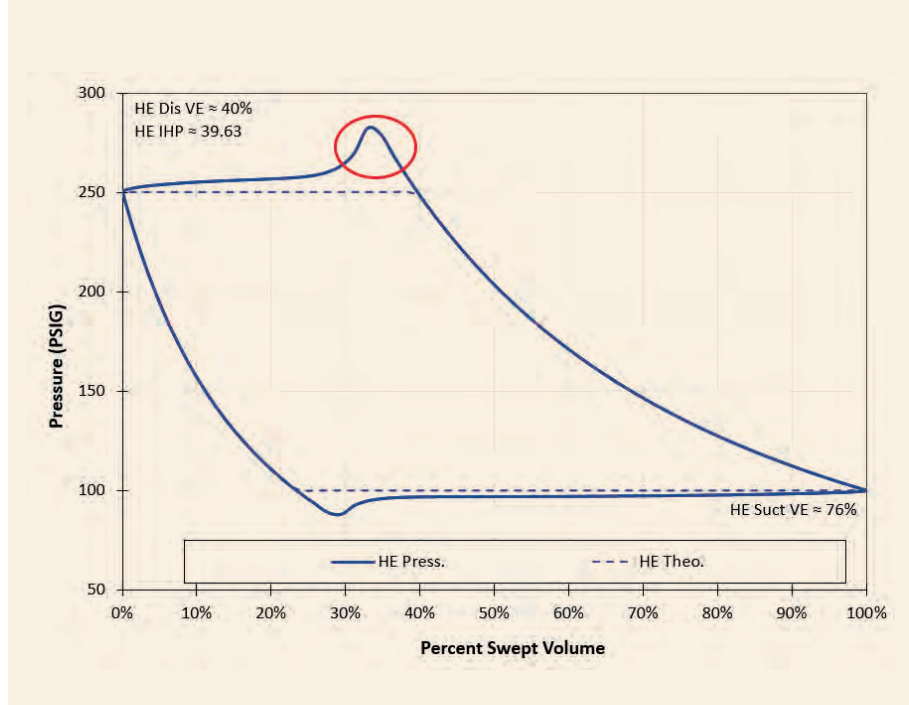


FIGURE 12
Simulated overpressure peak (circled) at the discharge valve opening on a PV curve.

separators, etc., it can then get sucked through the cylinder. This process is called liquid slugging. Excessive lubrication can also lead to oil pooling in the cylinder. In either case, the consequences for the valve are usually catastrophic. Liquid damage often manifests as failure in the center of the valve components, sometimes failing with a radiating pattern from the center. In less extreme cases, valve springs may collapse in the valve due to shock loading, which may lead to other impact failure modes. Despite the severity of valve damage, however, it is likely better that the valve fails instead of more expensive items within the compressor. Liquid events can go far beyond valve failures; they can cause failures of piston rods, connecting rods, or even cylinders.

Excess oil

Valve failures may also result from more localized oil excesses within the valve itself. Excess oil in a valve has a suction effect, sticking the seal elements to the valve seat or guard and changing the opening and closing timing. The seal elements are held in place until pressure forces build up sufficiently to overcome the suction and

move the elements. The effect is often impact-related failures from the increased opening and/or closing velocity, as valves either open with high overpressure or close late as spring forces build up. If PV analysis curves are available, the overpressure is often evident in the valve events. During valve inspection, oil will likely be visible on the valve surfaces, and excessive, burnt-on or sticky oil residues will be evident when the

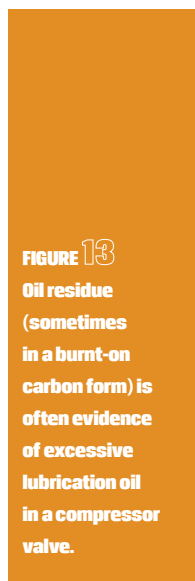


FIGURE 13
Oil residue (sometimes in a burnt-on carbon form) is often evidence of excessive lubrication oil in a compressor valve.



FIGURE 14
Corrosion in metal plate valve due to extended compressor shutdown period in a PET air compressor.

valves are disassembled. Anything greater than a light coating is problematic.

Harsh gas

Harsh gas environments can further accelerate valve failures by attacking valve materials. Sour gases containing hydrogen sulfide can cause stress corrosion cracking in certain non-resistant metal grades. Specialty gases can react badly with poorly specified materials. Chlorine, for example, is extremely difficult when not bone dry, and it requires specific nickel alloys. Propylene may contain trace tetraethyl aluminum, which attacks PEEK. Knowledge of impurities



The system outlined here is the International System of Units (Système International d'Unités), for which the abbreviation SI is being used in all languages.

The SI system, which is becoming universally used, is founded on seven base units, these being:

Length.....	meter	m
Mass.....	kilogram	kg
Time.....	second	s
Electric current.....	ampere	A
Thermodynamic temperature.....	Kelvin	K
Luminous intensity.....	candela	cd
Amount of substance.....	mole	mol

POWER

The derived SI unit for power is the Watt (W), this being based on the SI unit of work, energy and quantity of heat – the Joule (J). One Watt (1 W) is equal to one Joule per second (1 J/s). One Watt is a very small unit of power, being equivalent to just 0.00134102 horsepower, so for engine ratings the kilowatt (kW) is used, 1 kW being equal to 1.341 hp and 1 hp being the equivalent of 0.7457 kW. The British unit of horsepower is equal to 1.014 metric horsepower (CV, PS, PK, etc.).

- 1 kW = 1.341 hp = 1.360 metric hp
- 1 hp = 0.746 kW = 1.014 metric hp
- 1 metric hp = 0.735 kW = 0.986 hp

TORQUE

The derived SI unit for torque (or moment of force) is the Newton meter (Nm), this being based on the SI unit of force – the Newton (N) – and the SI unit of length – the meter (m). One Newton (1 N) is equivalent to 0.2248 pound-force (lbf) or 0.10197 kilogram-force (kgf), and one meter is equal to kilogram force (kgf) and one member is equal to 3.28084 feet (ft), so one Newton meter (1 N m) is equal to 0.737562 pound-force (lbf ft). or 0.101972 kilogram-force meter (kgf m).

- 1 Nm = 0.738 lbf ft = 0.102 kgf m
- 1 lbf ft = 1.356 Nm = 0.138 kgf m
- 1 kgf m = 9.807 Nm = 7.233 lbf ft

PRESSURE AND STRESS

Although it has been decided that the SI derived unit for pressure and stress should be the Pascal (Pa), this is a very small unit, being the same as one Newton per square meter (1 N/m²), which is only 0.000145 lbf/in² or 0.0000102 kgf/cm². So many European engine designers favor the bar as the unit of pressure, one bar being 100,000 Pascal (100 kPa), which is the equivalent of 14,504 lbf/in² or 1.020 kgf/cm², so being virtually the same as the currently accepted metric equivalent. On the other hand, for engine performance purposes, the millibar seems to be favored to indicate barometric pressure, this unit being one thousandth of a bar. Then again, there is a school that favors the kilonewton per square meter (kN/m²), this being the same as a kilopascal, and equal to 0.145 lbf/in² or 0.0102 kgf/cm².

- 1 bar = 14.5 lbf/in² = 1.0197 kgf/cm²
- 1 lbf/in² = 0.069 bar
- 1 kgf/cm² = 0.98 bar

The American Society of Mechanical Engineers in 1973 published its Performance Test Codes for Reciprocating Internal Combustion engines. Known as PTC 17, this code is intended for tests of all types of reciprocating internal combustion engines for determining power output and fuel consumption. In its Section 2, Description and Definition of Terms, both the FPS and corresponding SI units of measurements are given.

SPECIFIC CONSUMPTION

Fuel consumption measurements will be based on the currently accepted unit, the gram (g), and the Kilowatt Hour (kWh). Also adopted is heat units/power units so that energy consumption of an internal combustion engine referred to net power output, mechanical, is based on low unsaturated heat value of the fuel whether liquid or gaseous type. Thus the SI unit of measurement for net specific energy consumption is expressed: g/kWh.

- 1 g/kWh = 0.001644 lb/hph = 0.746 g/hph = 0.736 g/metric hph
- 1 lb/hph = 608.3 g/kWh
- 1 g/hph = 1.341 k/kWh
- 1 g/metric hph = 1.36 g/kWh

HEAT RATE

Heat Rate is a product of Lower Heating Value (LHV) of Fuel (measured in Btu/lb or kJ/g for liquid fuel and Btu/ft³ or kJ/m³ for gas fuel) multiplied times (sfc) specific fuel consumption (measured in lb/hph or g/kWh).

For Liquid Fuel

Heat Rate (Btu/hph) = LVH (Btu/lb) X sfc (lb/hph)

For Gaseous Fuel

Heat Rate (Btu/hph) = LVH (Btu/ft³) X sfc (ft³/hph)

To convert these units to SI units:

Btu/hph X 1.414 = kJ/kWh
Or
Btu/kWh X 1.055 = kJ/kWh

LUBRICATING-OIL CONSUMPTION

Although the metric liter is not officially an SI unit, its use will continue to be permitted, so measurement of lube-oil consumption will be quoted in liters per hour (liters/h).

- 1 liter/h = 0.22 Imp gal/h
- 1 Imp gal/h = 4.546 liters/h

TEMPERATURES

The SI unit of temperature is Kelvin (K), and the character is used without the degree symbol (°) normally employed with other scales of temperature. A temperature of zero degree Kelvin is equivalent to a temperature of -273.15°C on the Celsius (centigrade) scale. The Kelvin unit is identical in interval to the Celsius unit, so direct conversions can be made by adding or subtracting 273. Use of Celsius is still permitted.

- 0 K = 273°C; absolute zero K
- 1°C = 273 K

WEIGHTS AND LINEAR DIMENSIONS

For indications of "weight" the original metric kilogram (kg) will continue to be used as the unit of mass, but it is important to note that the kilogram will no longer apply for force, for which the SI unit is the Newton (N), which is a kilogram meter per second squared. The Newton is that force which, when applied to a body having a mass of one kilogram, gives it an acceleration of one meter per second squared.

"Weight" in itself will no longer apply, since this is an ambiguous term, so the kilogram in effect should only be used as the unit of mass. Undoubtedly, though, it will continue to be common parlance to use the word "weight" when referring to the mass of an object.

The base SI unit for linear dimensions will be the meter, with a wide range of multiples and sub-multiples ranging from exa (10¹⁸) to atto (10⁻¹⁸): A kilometer is a meter x 10³, for example, while a millimeter is a meter x 10⁻³.

To give an idea of how currently used units convert to SI units, the tables below give examples.

KILOWATTS (kW) TO HORSEPOWER (hp) (1 Kw = 1.34102 hp)				
kW hp	kW hp	kW hp	kW hp	kW hp
1 1.341	21 28.161	41 54.982	61 81.802	81 108.623
2 2.682	22 29.502	42 56.323	62 83.143	82 109.964
3 4.023	23 30.843	43 57.664	63 84.484	83 111.305
4 5.364	24 32.184	44 59.005	64 85.825	84 112.646
5 6.705	25 33.526	45 60.346	65 87.166	85 113.987
6 8.046	26 34.867	46 61.687	66 88.507	86 115.328
7 9.387	27 36.208	47 63.028	67 89.848	87 116.669
8 10.728	28 37.549	48 64.369	68 91.189	88 118.010
9 12.069	29 38.890	49 65.710	69 92.530	89 119.351
10 13.410	30 40.231	50 67.051	70 93.871	90 120.692
11 14.751	31 41.572	51 68.392	71 95.212	91 122.033
12 16.092	32 42.913	52 69.733	72 96.553	92 123.374
13 17.433	33 44.254	53 71.074	73 97.894	93 124.715
14 18.774	34 45.595	54 72.415	74 99.235	94 126.056
15 20.115	35 46.936	55 73.756	75 100.577	95 127.397
16 21.456	36 48.277	56 75.097	76 101.918	96 128.738
17 22.797	37 49.618	57 76.438	77 103.259	97 130.079
18 24.138	38 50.959	58 77.779	78 104.600	98 131.420
19 25.479	39 52.300	59 79.120	79 105.941	99 132.761
20 26.820	40 53.641	60 80.461	80 107.282	100 134.102

POUNDS FORCE FEET (lbf ft) TO NEWTON METERS (Nm) (1 lbf ft = 1.35582 Nm)				
lbf ft Nm	lbf ft Nm	lbf ft Nm	lbf ft Nm	lbf ft Nm
1 1.356	21 28.472	41 55.589	61 82.705	81 109.821
2 2.712	22 29.828	42 56.944	62 84.061	82 111.177
3 4.067	23 31.184	43 58.300	63 85.417	83 112.533
4 5.423	24 32.540	44 59.656	64 86.772	84 113.889
5 6.779	25 33.896	45 61.012	65 88.128	85 115.245
6 8.135	26 35.251	46 62.368	66 89.484	86 116.601
7 9.491	27 36.607	47 63.724	67 90.840	87 117.956
8 10.847	28 37.963	48 65.079	68 92.196	88 119.312
9 12.202	29 39.319	49 66.435	69 93.552	89 120.668
10 13.558	30 40.675	50 67.791	70 94.907	90 122.024
11 14.914	31 42.030	51 69.147	71 96.263	91 123.380
12 16.270	32 43.386	52 70.503	72 97.619	92 124.735
13 17.626	33 44.742	53 71.858	73 98.975	93 126.091
14 18.981	34 46.098	54 73.214	74 100.331	94 127.447
15 20.337	35 47.454	55 74.570	75 101.687	95 128.803
16 21.693	36 48.810	56 75.926	76 103.042	96 130.159
17 23.049	37 50.165	57 77.282	77 104.398	97 131.515
18 24.405	38 51.521	58 78.638	78 105.754	98 132.870
19 25.761	39 52.877	59 79.993	79 107.110	99 134.226
20 27.116	40 54.233	60 81.349	80 108.466	100 135.582

These tables are reproduced from the booklet "Vehicle Metrics" published by Transport and Distribution Press Ltd., 118 Ewell Road, Surbiton, Surrey, KT6 6HA England.

in the gas stream can also significantly change material selection. Even air duty can be corrosive due to moisture content within the gas. Sometimes the effects of chemical incompatibility are easy to spot; other times, a microscopic investigation of the materials may be necessary to see the corrosion. Simple changes to material grades can have highly beneficial effects on valve life.

Finally, an often overlooked issue for valves is flow-induced pressure pulsations, which can affect valve timing and lead to impact-related failures. API 618 sets guidelines for maximum peak-to-peak pulsation levels. If impact-type valve problems persist, it may be worthwhile to perform a pulsation study of the compressor to check for abnormal levels and implement corrections.

Giving valves a better chance

Valves have a hard-enough life when well specified and operating in a clean, low-oil, low-dirt environment. Add in corrosive gas, dirt, debris, sticky oil and pulsations and you have a recipe for failures in short order.

The first step in improving valve performance is to minimize environmental challenges for compressor valves. Minimize liquid carryover. Ensure inter-stage coolers and inlet pipework are designed correctly with no low spots where liquid can accumulate; ensure drain traps are checked regularly, even if it is an automated process; and ensure cylinder jacket temperatures are maintained 10 to 15 degrees above inlet gas temperatures to avoid condensation in cylinders.

Minimize sticky or dirty gas by ensuring that appropriate lubrication rates are maintained. The specified oil must also be compatible with the gas to avoid sludge or carbon build-up. Filtration or separation of water or dirt must be adequate at the compressor inlet.

Using the correct valve type for the application is also critical to compressor performance. Certain valve types perform better in harsh or dirty environments. High-speed applications require different valve characteristics. Material choices must suit the chemical and temperature environment. One size does not fit all.

Also, ensure that the valve supplier is aware of the full range of operating conditions and the amount of time spent operating at those set-points. Without that information, there is no way a designer can appropriately balance the valve characteristics for multiple duties or for varying pressures, gas mixes or rpm. Even small details such as the runtime with a clearance pocket open could potentially make a difference to the valve design.

Of course, the above list of failures is not exhaustive and multiple factors may combine to shorten valve life. In valve design and valve failure analysis, it is best to consult an expert who brings years of application experience.

CT2



FIGURE 15
Valve body corrosion due to moisture combining with corrosive elements in the gas.



FIGURE 16

Process dropout in vinyl chloride gas.

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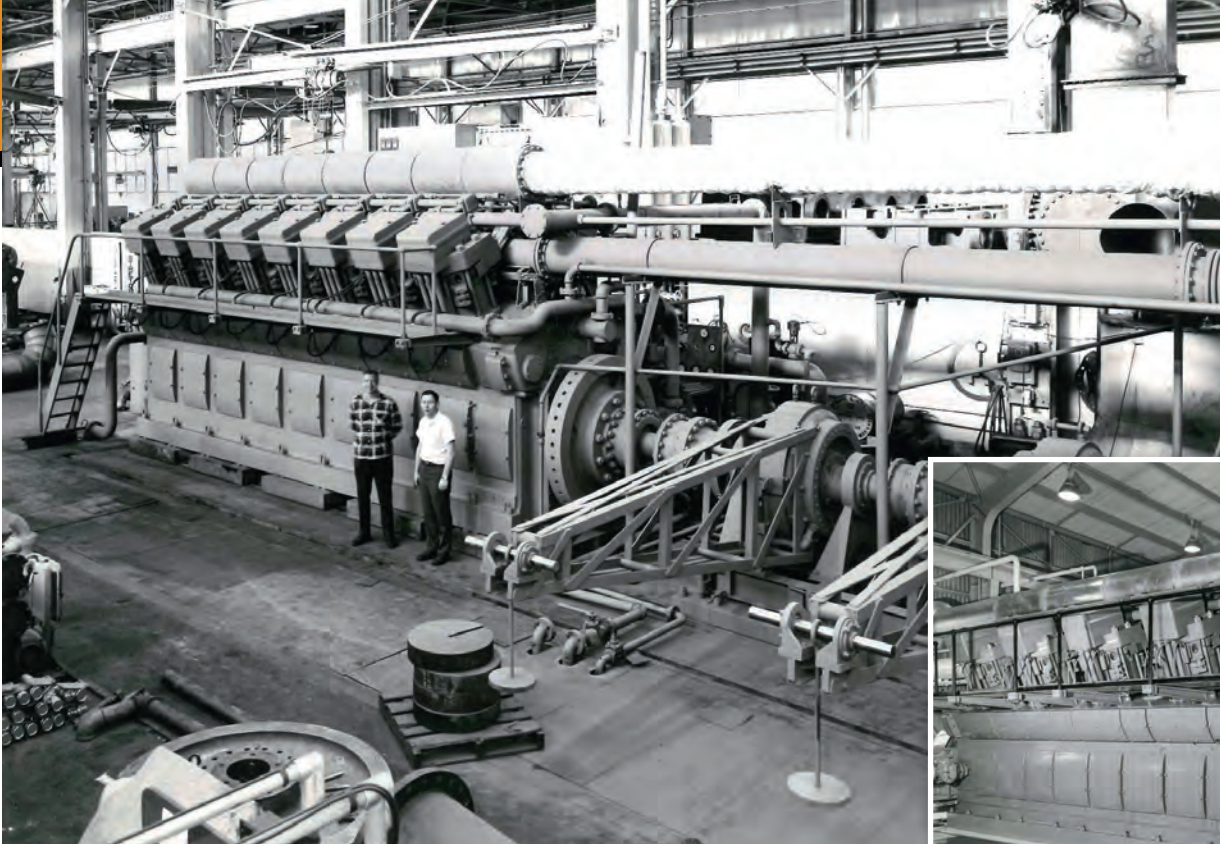
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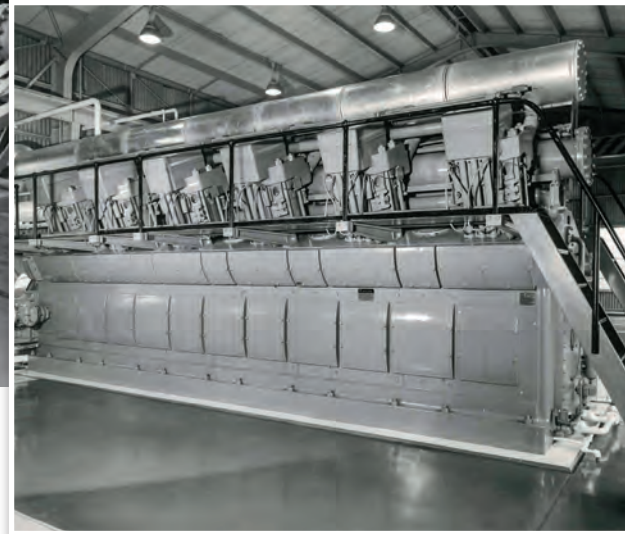


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SYSTEM REPAIR



Left: Shop test of the 16PKVT, January 1961.
Bottom: The 512KVT, which operated at 3000 bhp at 330 rpm, March 1961.



KVT to KVTR revamp conversion

Work provided modern structure, less emissions.

By **T.M. (Mac) Sine** and **Jesse Burgey** of Siemens

The Ingersoll-Rand KVT integral gas engine-compressor was developed in the late-1950s in response to industry demands for higher horsepower and improved fuel economy. Ingersoll-Rand had introduced its first turbocharged engine series, the pulse turbocharged

KVS engine, in the early 1950s. The 15.25 X 18.0 in. KVS engines are rated at 121 psi. BMEP at 330 rpm, utilizing the Buchi-system turbocharger configuration with Otto Cycle valve timing including a substantial scavenge period.

Production of the KVT engines began in 1959, and continued through 1967 when the KVT was replaced by the 17 X 22 in. KVR engine.

The KVT engine is rated at 135.7 psi. BMEP at 330 rpm (at 115o F. air manifold temperature) and was advertised as achieving a specific fuel consumption (SFC) of 6300 btu/bhp-hr.

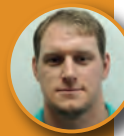
To keep the KVT fleet in service for years to come, Dresser-Rand's gas engine engineers considered various strategies that could be applied on a KVT engine to improve engine operation plus reduce NOx emissions and ultimately concluded that for the KVT, what was needed was to improve its operating stability via improved air/fuel

AUTHORS CORNER

MAC SINE is a gas engine engineer at Siemens. He joined Dresser-Rand in January 1988 as a project supervisor and became a test and development engineer in 1990, whereby he supported the production of both two- and four-stroke-cycle, large-bore, slow-speed integral gas engine compressors. He also has experience with engine application engineering, engine revamp engineering, designing engine control systems, torsional critical speed analysis, conducting in-plant and site-specific customer engine schools and field support.



JESSE J. BURGEY is a senior mechanical project engineer at Siemens. Jesse began his career with Dresser-Rand in 2006 where he focused on leading gas engine emissions reduction retrofit projects as well as torsional analysis for both two-stroke-cycle and four-stroke cycle, large bore, slow-speed integral gas engine-compressor performance. In 2009, Jesse moved to Fort Collins, Colorado to work at the company's Gas Engine Technology Center. Here, he concentrates on emissions reduction retrofits for gas engines, automation and controls, application engineering and product development activities.



mixing. To do so, key combustion related design elements of the KVT engine were re-engineered; leveraged from the highly reliable and fuel efficient KVR engine, which also uses the Miller Cycle with constant pressure turbocharging. These elements include the cams, piston crowns, cylinder heads, and manifolds.

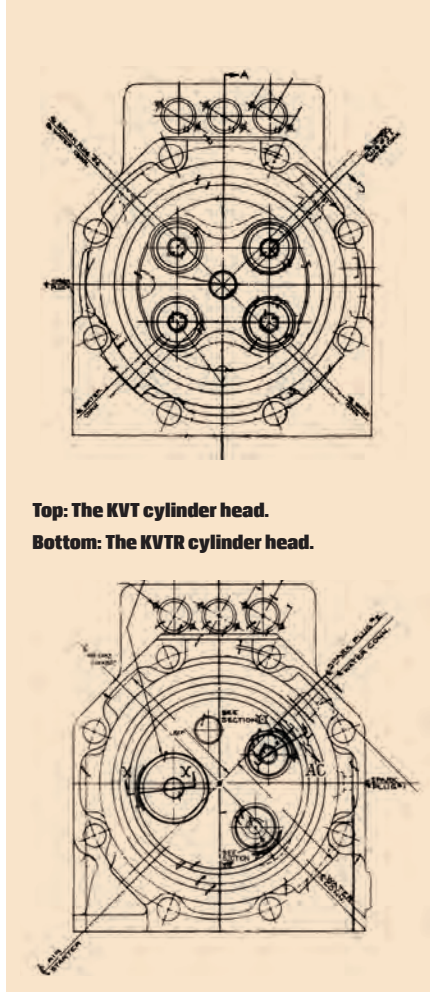
The extensive changes from the base KVT engine configuration lead to the adoption of the new engine model designator: KVTR. The KVTR engine design incorporates electronic port fuel injection, which provides advanced firing pressure balancing plus engine speed governing. Pre-combustion chamber (PCC) ignition is another standard KVTR feature, using either a bolt-in or screw-in PCC, depending on client preference. Making the change from a KVT engine into a KVTR engine constitutes a substantial revamp order that includes the assigning of a new engine serial number specific to the KVTR revamp engine series.

The base rating on the KVTR engine is 135.7 psi. BMEP at 330 rpm at 110 degrees F. air manifold temperature, at emissions levels of 1.5 g/bhp-hr NO_x, 3.5 g/bhp-hr carbon monoxide (CO), and 1.35 g/bhp-hr non-methane hydrocarbon (N-MHC), at SFC of 6820 btu/bhp-hr (+/- 3%). When the KVTR revamp is applied on 512 and 616 KVT engines there is a potential for an increase in brake horsepower up to a 154 psi BMEP level. Additionally, with an appropriate turbocharger match, NO_x reduction to below 1.5 g/bhp-hr can be achieved.

The KVTR revamp configuration began to be "roughed-out" in the 2003-4 period, during discussions with a Canadian client concerning what D-R would propose to enable their KVT engines located in the Province of Ontario to meet impending NO_x emissions regulations.

Cylinder heads

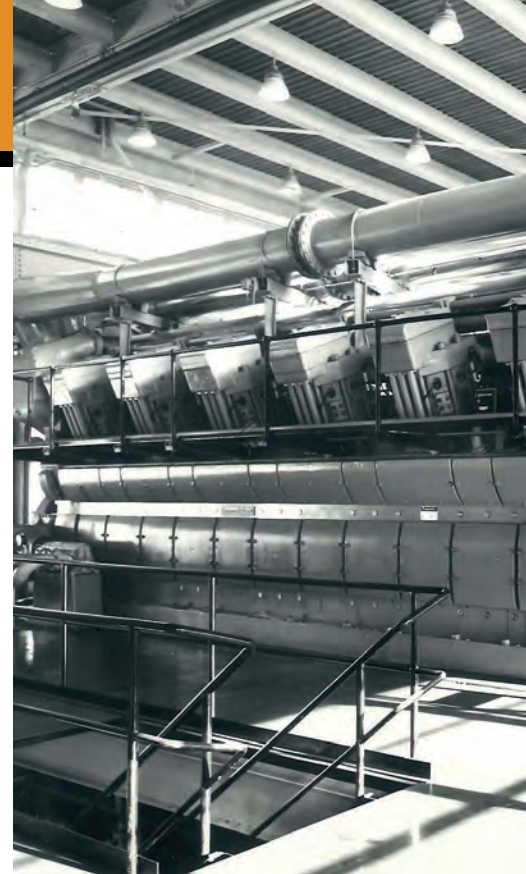
The KVT cylinder head departed from the "conventional" I-R design in that it is constructed with two intake valves and two exhaust valves. The dual-valve arrangement is not conducive to locating a tangent-converging inlet passage so, instead, the inlet passage provides a "down flow"



arrangement at the valve seat counterbores that can impart a degree of tumble to the air fuel mixture within the cylinder. Tumble refers to charge motion about a horizontal axis, in contrast to swirl, which takes place about a vertical axis.

The combustion chamber in the KVT cylinder head is configured with two "squish lips" located opposite one another on the centerline of the combustion chamber. These can be seen in the accompanying picture of the combustion chamber side of the KVT cylinder head. The squish lips are used to remove clearance volume from the combustion chamber, in support of the design value of expansion ratio.

The original designer(s) of the KVT engine are to be credited with having the forethought of future expansion of the KVT frame into a higher-horsepower engine that ultimately became the KVR. For this reason, the KVT, KVH and KVR engines utilize the



same bolt circle diameter on the cylinder/cylinder head stud pattern. This became a key point in the definition of components that would be used in the KVTR configuration.

The cylinder head designs employed in the KVH and KVR engines are similar, but with a 1-in. difference in the combustion chamber diameter. Both heads utilize a single large intake valve in conjunction with the "fire nozzle inlet passage." One aspect that the KVT and KVH cylinder heads do have in common is the shape of the exhaust passage downstream of the two valve seat counterbores. A review of the exhaust passage shape revealed that it is necked-down at the juncture with the seat counterbore chamber and then opens into a relatively constant inside diameter extending to the manifold port face on the exterior of the cylinder head. Like the KVT and KVH, the KVR cylinder head design utilizes dual exhaust valves but, during the development of the KVR cylinder head, the exhaust passage was re-shaped into a relatively smooth diverging interior with no neck-down at the juncture with the seat counterbore chamber.

Two variations of the KVR cylinder head are in production: one utilizing a bolt-in PCC and the other a non-PCC design. The non-PCC design can be machined to accept



The pulse turbocharged 512KVH engine (3400 bhp at 330 rpm).

a screw-in PCC. These two variations were carried into the KVTR cylinder head design, therefore, the choice of a bolt-in PCC or a screw-in PCC is left to client preference.

Pistons

The original-design KVT piston was evaluated for its suitability to be used in conjunction with the KVR-style cylinder head, with no change being made to the depth of the combustion chamber within the head and a determination was made that a change in the design of the piston would have to be made to achieve the KVTR target expansion ratio.

The majority of KVT engines were built with "single-piece" power pistons; that is, the piston crown and the piston skirt are not individual components that can be replaced separately. However, in the late-1960's, a 2-piece piston design was developed for the KVT engines and two KVT engines were built-new using this 2-piece piston assembly. Additionally, the three KVT engines at the Ontario, Canada, site had been retrofitted with the 2-piece pistons. Therefore, the decision was made to use the 2-piece piston

design in the KVTR package, with a new piston crown being developed, specific to the KVTR engine.

Ultimately, the original-design KVTR piston crown came to be designated as the "A" crown. The "A" crown design has been superseded by a "B" crown design.

The piston skirt in the original KVT 2-piece design is made with a tin-plate anti-friction coating. The current KVTR piston skirt is made with a Molykote D-10 anti-friction coating. However, the older KVT tin-plated skirt can be mated with a new KVTR crown to make a piston assembly for a KVTR revamp engine.

The installation of 2-piece pistons during a KVTR revamp into an engine previously equipped with 1-piece pistons requires that a drilling modification be made to the small end of the connecting rods, to provide an oil spray hole directed at the interior cavity of the piston crown. This modification is detailed on a drawing that is provided to the client along with other revamp drawings and information.

Cams, intake valve seats and air/fuel mixing

By the time that the KVTR engine concept was under discussion, Woodward Corp. was manufacturing their solenoid operated gas admission valve (SOGAV); an electronic-actuated FGIV intended to be used for

fuel injection outside of an engine cylinder. Dresser-Rand had gained experience with the SOGAVs via the installation of "port-type" fuel injection systems on multiple KVG engines.

Building on the passage fuel injection testing experience from the 1980's, a decision was made to utilize "port-type" fuel injection on the KVTR engine, using the SOGAV hardware, in conjunction with the bias dam intake seat and the secondary dwell intake cams. This configuration of hardware had been previously tested on the K4X Laboratory Engine, in KVR-PCC configuration, in 2007. In this configuration, the SOGAV is installed on the air inlet elbow, between the air manifold and the cylinder head.

Ultimately, the design of delivery adaptor that yielded the lowest SFC during this K4X-KVR Port-4 testing was a design that came to be called the "false valve" adaptor. The "false valve" adaptor is based upon the geometry of a conventional poppet-type FGIV at full lift, providing a conical dispersion of fuel into the air stream within the air inlet elbow.

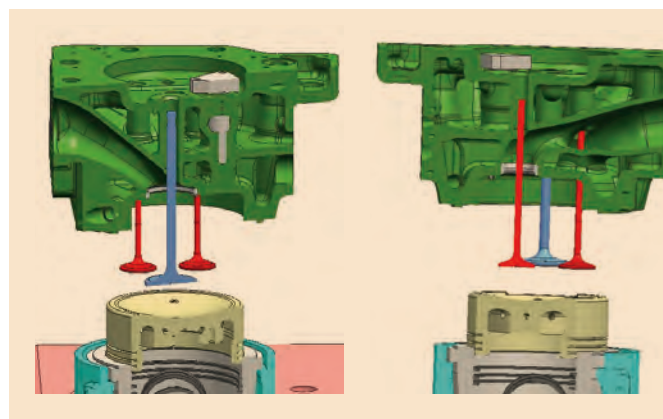
The "false valve" delivery adaptor that was designed for K4X Port-4 testing with the engine in the KVR-PCC configuration was sized in relation to the fuel flow needed to run the engine at the 80-deg. F rated KVR operating condition. During the design phase of the KVTR project, a new "false valve" delivery adaptor was designed specifically for the KVTR engine operating conditions.

Turbocharger and air aftercooler

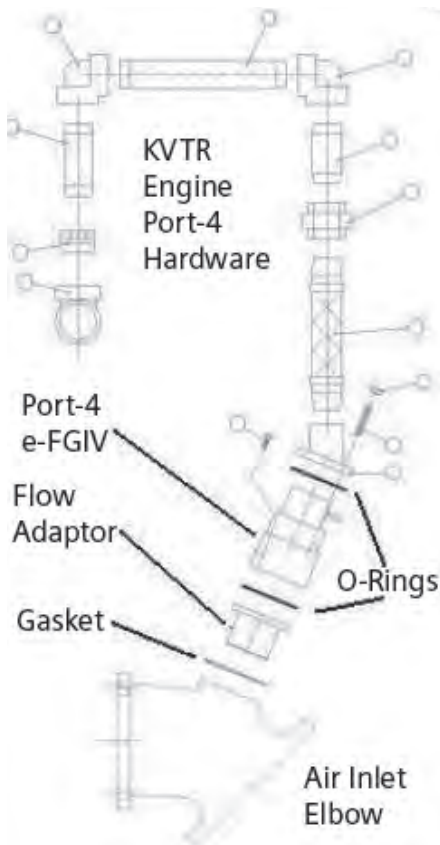
The key to a successful low-NOx engine design is to apply the appropriate



The KVTR two-piece piston assembly.



Left: The KVTR cylinder head intake passage. Right: The KVTR cylinder head exhaust passage.



turbocharger to deliver the air required to serve as the diluent during combustion, in conjunction with the ignition energy needed to consistently ignite the lean main-chamber air/fuel charge. Accordingly, for the turbocharger, the decision was made to utilize a new high-ratio turbocharger within the KVTR package, rather than attempt to upgrade an existing KVT turbocharger. The turbocharger is supplied with a turbine wastegate valve driven by the engine control panel to achieve air/fuel ratio control via manipulation of turbocharger speed that, in turn, determines the engine air manifold pressure. The turbocharger is also equipped with jet assist acting on the blower wheel. The application of a low level of jet assist will help the engine to start faster and idle better, although the KVTR engines can be started and idled without the application of jet assist. Jet assist is also applied during loading of the engine, to mitigate "turbo lag" that is a characteristic of a constant pressure turbocharger system. The turbocharger is lubricated with oil routed from the engine oil

pump, flowing through a set of filters that are dedicated to the turbocharger.

One aspect of the KVT combustion air system that can be eliminated during a KVTR revamp is the air pre-heater that is installed upstream of the blower inlet on the KVT turbocharger. The pre-heater was used as a means of establishing air/fuel ratio control by maintaining a constant blower inlet temperature and also to mitigate the tendency of the blower to reach a surge condition in low ambient temperatures. Elimination of the blower inlet pre-heater also means that the associated control hardware used for control of the coolant temperature serving the pre-heater can be removed.

Fuel system

The size and location of the fuel manifolds on the KVTR engine are unchanged from the KVT engine, therefore, the original fuel manifolds remain in place. However, on a 410KVTR engine the original-size bank orifices within the fuel manifold assembly must be enlarged by drilling to a 1" diameter. On a 512KVTR, the fuel manifold bank orifice size remains unchanged from the KVT-original diameter.

The original jumper piping between the fuel manifold and the cylinder heads is replaced with a new arrangement, supplying the SOGAV on each air inlet elbow. Individual cylinder orifice plates are not used on the KVTR engines, with power cylinder peak firing pressure balancing being accomplished by electronically "trimming" the opening of the SOGAV at each cylinder.

Upstream of the fuel manifold, the KVT

governor-operated gas control valve is removed and replaced by a simple spool piece. The Port-4 fuel system requires that the fuel gas manifold pressure be biased against the prevailing engine air manifold pressure, therefore, a bias-capable fuel gas supply regulator must be installed in the fuel gas supply piping upstream of the fuel manifold. On the KVTR revamp engines presently in operation, a 25 psig. bias above the engine air manifold pressure has proven to be an optimum setting. The supply point for the PCC fuel gas regulator (that is also a bias-type regulator) must be located upstream of the main bias regulator, in order to provide a constant supply pressure at the inlet of the PCC fuel gas regulator.

Fuel consumption

The 410KVTR-102EP and later -103EP engines were equipped with the same "A" piston crowns as supplied for the 512KVTR-101EP engine. Following the conclusion of the K4X - KVTR piston crown development work, new "B" piston crowns were provided to replace the "A" crowns in both of these engines. The -103EP engine was the first to have the "B" piston crowns installed and when this change was made the engine readily achieved the guaranteed fuel consumption at the guaranteed exhaust emissions levels, as is shown by the following performance data:

Problem with "B" piston crowns

Following the commissioning of the 410KVTR-104EP engine that was revamped with

COMPRESSOR HORSEPOWER SELECTION CHART

(Brake Horsepower Per Million Cu. Ft.)

SUCTION PRESSURE	DISCHARGE PRESSURE (PSIG)																				STAGE								
	25	50	75	100	125	150	175	200	250	300	350	400	450	500	550	600	650	700	750	800		850	900	950	1000	1050	1100	1150	1200
0	65	99	128	144	156	168	178	187	203	218	233	241	248	254	260	266	272	277	282	286	291	295	299	303	307	311	315	3-Stage	
10	35	63	85	104	121	131	140	149	163	175	186	196	205	214	223	231	233	237	242	245	250	253	257	260	264	267	270	3-Stage	
20		43	62	78	92	106	118	126	139	151	160	170	178	186	193	199	206	212	218	225	231	226	229	232	236	239	242	245	3-Stage
30		29	47	62	74	85	96	107	123	133	143	152	159	167	173	179	185	191	196	201	206	211	216	221	226	230	224	227	3-Stage
40			36	50	61	72	81	90	107	121	130	138	145	152	158	164	170	175	180	185	190	194	198	202	206	210	214	218	2-Stage
50			26	41	52	61	70	78	93	106	119	127	134	141	147	153	158	163	168	173	177	181	185	189	193	196	200	203	2-Stage
60				32	44	53	61	69	83	95	108	118	125	131	137	143	148	153	158	162	166	170	174	178	182	185	188	192	2-Stage
70				25	37	46	54	61	74	86	97	109	117	123	129	135	140	145	149	153	157	161	165	169	172	176	179	182	2-Stage
80				30	40	47	54	61	74	86	98	109	117	122	127	132	137	142	146	150	153	157	161	164	167	171	174	2-Stage	
90				24	34	42	49	56	69	81	91	100	109	116	121	126	131	135	139	143	147	150	154	157	160	163	166	2-Stage	
100				28	37	44	51	58	71	84	92	100	109	116	120	125	129	133	137	141	144	148	151	154	157	160	2-Stage		
125					25	32	39	46	54	63	71	78	85	92	99	106	113	117	121	124	128	131	134	137	140	143	146	2-Stage	
150					22	28	35	42	50	58	66	74	80	86	92	98	103	107	111	114	118	121	124	127	130	133	135	2-Stage	
175						27	34	41	49	57	65	71	76	82	87	92	97	102	107	112	115	118	121	123	126	129	132	2-Stage	
200							30	38	45	52	58	63	68	73	78	83	88	92	96	101	105	110	113	116	119	122	125	2-Stage	
250									26	33	40	46	51	56	60	65	69	73	77	81	85	88	92	95	99	102	105	2-Stage	
300										23	30	36	41	46	50	54	58	62	66	69	73	76	79	83	86	89	92	2-Stage	
350											21	27	33	38	42	46	50	53	57	60	63	67	70	73	75	78	81	2-Stage	
400													25	30	35	39	43	46	50	53	56	59	62	64	67	70	73	2-Stage	
450													23	28	32	36	40	43	46	49	52	55	58	60	63	66	69	2-Stage	
500														22	26	30	34	38	41	44	46	49	52	54	57	60	63	2-Stage	
550															20	25	29	32	36	39	41	44	46	49	51	54	57	2-Stage	
600																23	27	30	34	37	39	42	44	46	48	50	52	2-Stage	
650																		22	26	29	32	35	38	40	42	44	46	2-Stage	
700																			22	25	28	30	33	36	38	40	42	2-Stage	
750																					20	24	27	29	32	34	36	2-Stage	

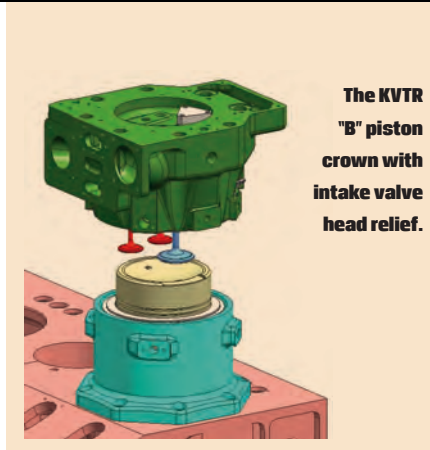
NOTE: 1 MMSCFD MEASURED 14.7 AND 60°F NOT CORRECTED FOR COMPRESSIBILITY 2 "N"=1.26 3 SUCTION TEMPERATURE 100°F 4 NATURAL GAS

the "B" piston crowns installed; the client reported that during a borescope inspection of the engine's combustion chambers, "nick marks" could be observed at one side of the valve head relief that is machined into the "B" piston crowns. The "nick marks" seemed to correspond with a small crescent of the outside diameter of the intake valve head. With the purpose of the valve head relief machined into the piston crown being to prevent contact between the intake valve head and the piston crown, receiving this report provoked considerable concern among the KVTR project team members. The "nick marks" were not observed in all cylinders and among the crowns showing "nick marks" the depth of each mark was not consistent from cylinder to cylinder; in what could be described as a random nick in the affected crowns.

Immediately following receipt of the client's report, the K4X - KVTR combustion chambers were examined again via borescope with special attention being focused on all surfaces of the piston crown notch in each of the two crowns and these borescope checks within the K4X combustion chambers revealed no evidence of contact between the intake valve head and the edge of the relief notch in the piston crown.

Next, one cylinder of the K4X engine was positioned with the piston at TDC and the intake valve was jacked-open to bring the valve head down into the piston crown relief. In this state, again viewed through the borescope, clearance could be observed between the O.D. of the valve head (at the margin on the valve head) and the wall of the piston crown relief, just as the original "B" crown design had intended.

Relative to the inconsistent degree of "coining-in" of the valve head on each piston crown that had been contacted by an intake



The KVTR "B" piston crown with intake valve head relief.

valve, the question was raised: Could the cylinder heads and/or the frame and/or frame top on the 410KVTR-104EP engine have a machining anomaly that has resulted in cylinder-to-cylinder differences in the height of each piston crown, at TDC, relative to the combustion chamber valve deck in the cylinder heads?

A checking tool was fabricated to measure the installed height at the center of the piston crown relative to a fixed reference point on the cylinder head and baseline measurements taken on the "B" piston crowns in the K4X engine. Next, the crown height checking tool was forwarded to the client site and measurements obtained in each cylinder of the 410KVTR-104EP engine. The measurements thus obtained were consistent with the measurements that had been obtained on the K4X engine, thereby ruling-out any irregularities in the mechanical configuration of the 410KVTR-104EP engine.

Valve-to-crown contact cause

Within D-R Painted Post, investigation continued to identify the root cause of the valve-to-crown contact at the edge of the valve head relief. The 410KVTR-104EP engine was disassembled, and the "B" piston crowns, along with the never-installed set of "B" crowns for the -102EP engine, were

returned to Painted Post for examination. Additionally, the never-installed set of "B" piston crowns that had been supplied for the 512KVTR-101EP engine was brought back to Painted Post.

In the I-R heritage two-piece piston design, the crown is retained to the skirt by six studs, arrayed in a specific pattern in the mating surface at the underside of the crown. The six-hole pattern is located relative to the piston pin centerline in the piston skirt. The placement of the six-hole pattern is defined on both the crown and skirt drawings. Because the location of the intake valve head relief in the "B" piston crown design is also placed in relation to the piston pin boss (in the piston skirt) centerline, the first check performed on all of the returned "B" crowns was to assess the placement of the valve head relief relative to the crown's bolt circle pattern. This was performed on an inspection table, using special-made studs in the piston crown, to permit picking-up of the same reference point on each crown. Every crown checked-out as having been made accurately to the drawing.

The CAD-UG model that had been utilized in the design of the "B" crown was reviewed; picked-apart and re-constructed by a designer who had not previously been involved with the KVTR project. No substantial findings were uncovered in this exercise.

One of the advantages of the two-piece piston crown design is that it provides the ability to replace a worn or damaged crown separate from the piston skirt; a skirt usually remains suitable for service over a greater number of operating hours than the crown. Typically the top piston ring grooves in the crown will reach replacement wear limits before the ring grooves in the skirt reach a wear limit. The three Canadian KVT engines had all been equipped with the two-piece design of KVT power pistons, long before the

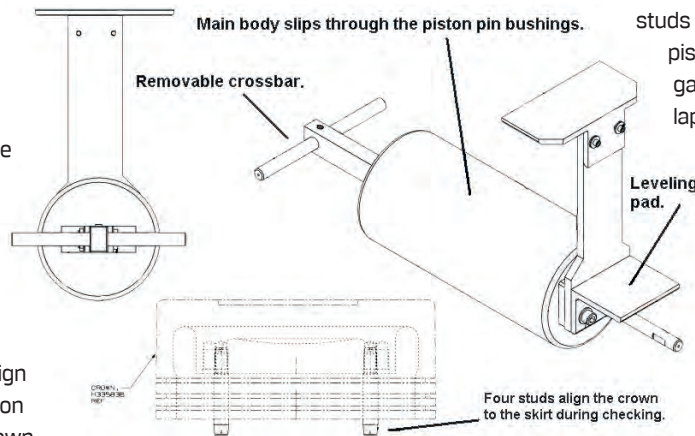
ENGINE SN DATE				410KVTR-103EP MARCH 4, 2011		
Run Number	% Torque	AMP, psig.	NOx, g/bhp-hr	CO, g/bhp-hr	SFC, Btu/bhp-hr	Spark Timing, °BTDC
2	97.9	12.3	0.94	3.41	6778	10.9
12	101.2	13.2	0.95	3.13	6668	10.8

KVTR revamp was conceived. As each of these engines was revamped, the KVT piston skirts were inspected and all skirts that were fit for continued service were matched with new KVTR piston crowns. It was the re-use of existing piston skirts that was ultimately found to be a contributor to the "random nick" crown contact incidents.

With the two-piece piston design for the KVT engines, the combustion chamber surface of the piston crown requires no "orientated" feature other than two threaded lifting eye holes that are placed on the piston pin centerline. The sequence of manufacturing steps employed to make both the crowns and the skirts was reviewed with personnel in the Power Piston Cell. It was this discussion that uncovered the root cause of the crown contact. The Ingersoll-Rand heritage designs for the two-piece pistons were completed in the mid-1960's, long before the advent of Computer Aided Manufacturing. To facilitate consistency in the repetitive operations of drilling the fastener holes in the piston crowns (threaded holes) and in the piston skirts (thru holes), drill jigs were constructed. In placing the drill jig prior to drilling the thru holes in the piston skirts, the drill jig was "eyeball aligned" with the center of the piston pin bores. Accordingly, the rotational orientation of the six-hole pattern for the crown-to-skirt fasteners was subject to some variation from the true centerline of the piston pin bores.

Further examination

On a piston crown not having a machined relief that must also relate to the piston pin centerline, having a few degrees of "clocking" of the crown-to-skirt fastener hole pattern would not result in any substantial problem. The lifting eye holes would be clocked slightly from the actual piston pin centerline, but not to an extent that lifting the piston assembly would become problematic. Further examination of the group of piston crowns plus a skirt from the 410KVTR-104EP engine indicated that 7-degrees appeared



Pictured is the KVTR "B" crown go/no-go gage.

to be a maximum amount of clocking that could be expected. The "B" piston crowns used in the development testing in the K4X engine had not shown any indication of clocking because their valve head reliefs had been machined into each piston crown after the crowns had been assembled to their respective piston skirts.

With the understanding of what had happened to promote the "random nick" contact, the KVTR team reached a decision to increase the width of the intake valve head relief to avoid contact between the intake valve head and the relief in the crown, on a piston assembly having up to 10-degrees of clocking. At this point, the "B" piston crown drawing was revised according to the revised CAD model.

Next, a go/no-go gage was designed to enable an assessment of the suitability for an existing KVT piston skirt to be matched to a new KVTR "B" piston crown. The go/no-go gage indexes in the piston pin bushings in the piston skirt and has a tang that must enter the valve head relief in the piston crown. If the tang will not enter the valve head relief in the piston crown, the piston skirt is rejected. The Ingersoll-Rand heritage designs for the two-piece pistons require that the piston crown be lapped to the piston skirt prior to installing the crown studs, followed by tightening the fasteners to complete the assembly. This can be a time-consuming process. The KVTR go / no-go gage assembly includes a set of special

studs that are temporarily installed into the piston crown so that a crown can be gaged on a particular piston skirt prior to lapping and final assembly. In this way, if a particular skirt and crown pair are not suited because of clocking of the skirt's hole pattern greater than 10-degrees, the skirt can be rejected without any time spent lapping and assembling the actual crown-to-skirt studs and nuts.

To complete the remediation of this issue, all of the never-installed "B" piston crowns from the 410 and 512 KVTR engines were re-machined to increase the width of the intake valve head relief in the piston crown to accommodate the maximum 10-degree clocking of the mounting hole pattern. The maximum 10-degree clocking value was chosen to limit the effect upon the expansion ratio (a decrease) resulting from the increased width of the valve head relief. New piston crowns, made from the revised "B" drawing were supplied to replace any crowns that had actually been contacted by an intake valve head.

During the subsequent KVTR piston assembly operations, the go/no-go gage was used successfully to assess the KVTR piston assemblies and identify any piston skirts having greater than 10-degrees of clocking in the crown-to-skirt stud hole pattern.

Conclusion

In original configuration, KVT engine design features related to air, fuel, and exhaust transport influence the in-cylinder air, fuel and exhaust flows in a way that engine operational stability and the ability to consistently meet exhaust emissions reduction targets can be affected. The KVTR revamp was conceived to address these issues and enable modernization of the KVT engines. The revamp work scope is substantial when compared to typical emissions reduction projects, however, after modification, KVTR engines can provide reliable and emissions compliant horsepower for years to come. KVH engines will also benefit from the KVTR revamp for emissions reduction and modernization.

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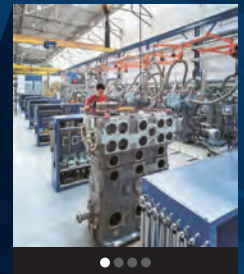


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Compressor foundation assessment and repairs key to reducing vibrations

Costly problems can be mitigated by optimizing multiple facets related to the foundation. By **Michael Golla**

Compressors are critical to many processes, and the foundations that support compressors need to be designed, assessed and repaired properly to minimize vibration and increase compressor reliability. Although machine bearings, misalignment or other mechanical issues can cause vibration, most vibration problems stem from the foundation. The foundation may have been designed improperly or deteriorated over time or damaged. Perhaps the compressor changed without determining if the existing foundation is suitable for the new weight and dynamic forces.

Many old foundations were not designed properly for vibration and have exceeded their design life. Vibration may also occur due to improper design and age. Sources of vibration can be identified with various techniques, and foundations can be repaired to reduce vibration from 50 to 100% in many cases.

This article will focus on reinforced concrete foundations that are commonly used to support compressors

and absorb vibration and will discuss design, assessment and repair to reduce vibration.

Foundation design

For compressors, a reinforced concrete foundation typically consists of grout, concrete, anchor bolts, jack bolts and soil (see Figure 1). The compressor frame is typically bolted to a baseplate or soleplate attached to the grout and concrete foundation. Jack bolts, chocks or shims might be used at the anchor bolt locations to assist with alignment.

Old foundations built more than 40 years ago might not feature designs that can properly handle vibration based on today's standards. Without considering vibration, they might have been designed for static conditions using rules of thumb, such as foundation weight at three to five times compressor weight, with improper rebar

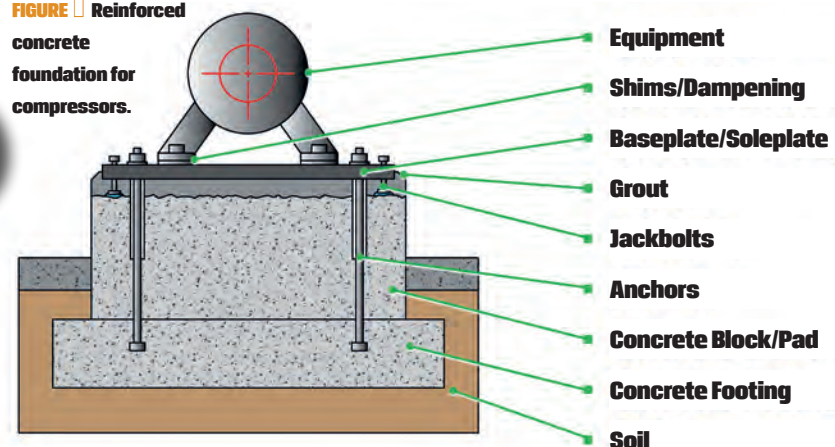
design and spacing to minimize vibration forces. Additionally, grout, soil and anchor bolt material and designs have improved over the years to reduce vibration.

API 686 and ACI 351 provide good guidelines for foundation design (and repair) using modern standards and best practices. API uses the phrase "system" often to reinforce the importance of a unified foundation where all parts work together to minimize vibration.

Grout design/installation

Precision grouts (for applied loads) are a combination of hydraulic cement, fine aggregate and other ingredients. These grouts are designed to uniformly transfer machine load and forces to the foundation. They help resist applied forces as concrete cannot do this alone. The grout also helps to minimize vibration by filling voids due to irregularities between the compressor frame or soleplates and the concrete. Grout is critical for compressor alignment too, and many vibration issues have been resolved by simply replacing

FIGURE 1 Reinforced concrete foundation for compressors.



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grout and re-installing the compressor on the new grout for re-alignment. Grout-induced misalignment is a common cause of excessive vibration.

Grout technology has improved significantly over the years and there are many factors to consider when choosing a precision grout from the various manufacturers. Compression strength affects maximum support load. Creep resistance helps avoid misalignment and loss of bolt torque. Modulus of elasticity is a measure of stiffness and deflection of under load. The coefficient of thermal expansion is important for temperature change effects. Flowability and bearing area are critical for the baseplate contact to evenly distribute the load. The coefficient of thermal expansion and flowability is most important for rotating equipment.

In addition to choosing the proper grout, the grout installation process is also important. There are good guidelines and best practices for formwork, mixing, placement, expansion joints and others. Grout failures are common in the field and include design and installation issues. From a design perspective, point load cracking can occur due to sharp or square edges in the grout design, and grout can separate from the concrete if large grout shoulders are used, causing grout "edge lifting" (see photo #1). Additionally, grout can crack if expansion joints are not used or are not spaced properly. Poor installation can lead to a lack of bonding and voids. Grout should touch the steel above and the concrete below. Steel and concrete surfaces must be prepared properly per guidelines, and grout placement techniques by an experienced contractor must be used to ensure a good bond.

Anchor bolt design/installation

Anchor bolts are another critical part of the foundation to resist forces and minimize vibration, and they are just as important as the grout. The grout prevents downward movement and the anchor bolts prevent upward movement. Concrete is strong in compression but weak in tension. Anchor bolts provide the tensile strength. Key

considerations include the bolt material and fabrication, the type of termination, tension/torque relationships, allowed stretch, and adequate concrete cover. Many foundations designed prior to the 1980s do not follow today's standards for anchor bolts, potentially causing vibration issues (see Figure 2).

The importance of anchor bolts and termination design has been thoroughly researched in recent years, resulting in new standards for anchor bolt material, thread design and lengths that can also help minimize foundation cracking under stress. For example, "J" and "L" bolt designs, square plates and thin washers used in the past were not strong enough, resulting in concrete cracking and increased vibration. New designs are much improved. Round plates and plain nuts, instead of square plates and thin washers, help reduce tensile stresses caused by anchor bolts in the concrete. Extra rebar can be installed at the termination point of anchor bolts to provide extra strength and prevent cracking. Additionally, the metallurgy, number, diameter and length of anchor bolts are critical. Undersized anchor bolts were common on older machines. Bolts should now be as long as possible.

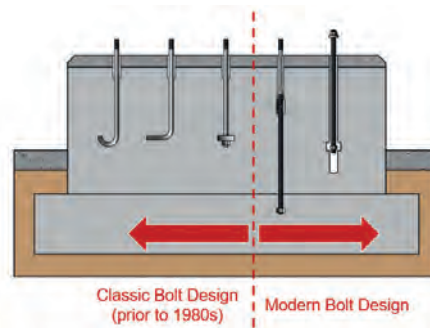


FIGURE 2 Anchor bolt design evolution.



Foundation assessment

If the foundation is causing vibration or if machine vibration or other factors are causing deterioration of the grout and concrete, there are numerous methods for assessing the situation, especially for finding the source of vibration and designing the proper repair.

The foundation may need to be assessed and repaired for several reasons:

- Process-driven changes (change of equipment, etc.)
- Defects (design, materials, construction, past repairs, etc.)
- Deterioration (dynamic load effects or vibration, thermal effects, chemical attack, foundation settlement)
- Damage (equipment failure, impact, spills, etc.)

Assessment methods include a review of drawings and past repair methods; a site inspection of the foundation (concrete block, grout, alignment, anchor bolts, soil, crack patterns); and numerous non-destructive, semi-destructive and laboratory testing techniques.

Different techniques can be used to determine sources of vibration; rebar design (if drawings don't exist), crack depth in concrete; voids in concrete or grout; and the condition, composition and strength of concrete.

Vibration

As mentioned earlier, the foundation is a frequent cause of vibration, due to foundation design or degradation over time. The foundation serves as a unified system with all parts working together to move vibration from the compressor down to the soil. If one part is not working

Grout cracking and edge lifting due to excessive grout placement, lack of expansion.

Grout installation with expansion joints and anchor bolt sleeves.



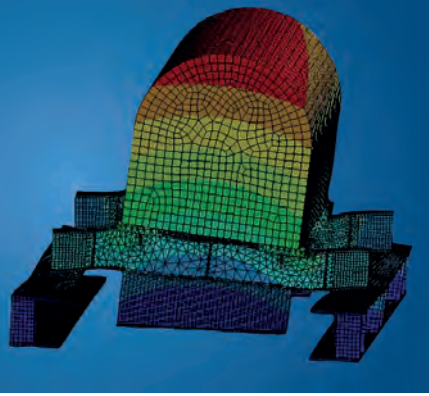


FIGURE 3
ODS example
of compressor
motor vibration
(without animation).

properly, then vibration can occur.

Vibration analysis

Various methods can be used to determine if the foundation is contributing to machine vibration.

Three other common vibration analysis methods, especially for compressor foundations, are operation deflection shape (ODS), motion amplification video (MAV) and finite element analysis (FEA).

ODS uses sensors to measure vibration at different locations on the foundation system at the compressor operating speed and frequency on a given day. Software is used to provide a 3D animation of the foundation movement (see Figure 3). It might be able to determine if a particular part of the foundation is vibrating excessively, such as a cylinder support pedestal, due to resonance, inadequate design, or deteriorated concrete.

MAV is a relatively new technology and uses a special camera and software to amplify and measure vibrations not visible to the human eye. Each camera view pixel becomes a vibration measurement sensor. MAV can sometimes identify loose anchor bolts, oil weeping from cracks, frame movement on grout (due to poor bonding) or other sources of vibration. It might also find low-frequency vibration missed by conventional vibration analysis methods.

MAV is much faster than ODS, and the

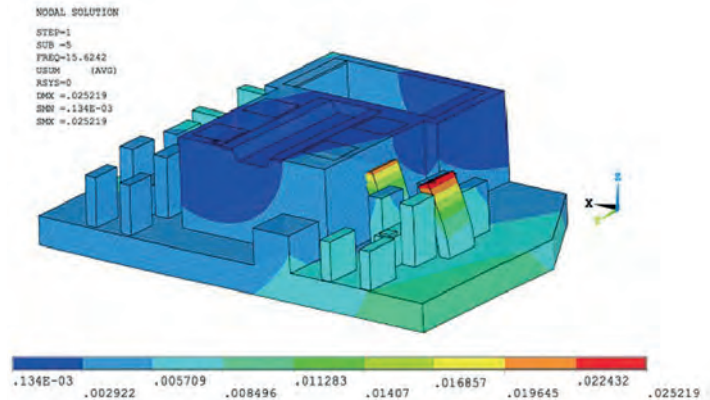


FIGURE 4
FEA results to
determine source
of foundation
vibration.

resolution is more intuitive without the animated, cartoon-like image of ODS. In summary, MAV can be a cost-effective and quick method for finding sources of vibration, especially for reciprocating compressors that operate at lower frequencies than types of turbomachinery.

In general, ODS can be used for complex machinery issues requiring 3D views and trending, while MAV can be used for specific areas requiring high-spatial resolution.

FEA uses foundation drawings, compressor operating frequencies and dynamic forces, and concrete and soil condition data (if available) to create a theoretical 3D model of the foundation and then determine how the foundation reacts to various frequencies and forces. It doesn't require sensors or cameras and offers several unique benefits over other methods. For example, in addition to finding the source of the vibration without site work, FEA can be used to redesign the foundation/supports that are vibrating excessively.

Many compressors are routinely re-grouted without reducing vibration, and FEA might confirm that parts of the foundation need to be redesigned or repaired to reduce vibration, increase bearing life, reduce maintenance costs and increase the reliability of the machine.

Case study

Here is an example of using a licensed, specialized contractor to provide high-quality assessment, repair design and repair methods to fix a compressor foundation and reduce vibration.

A four-throw, reciprocating compressor

– built in 1970 with a conventionally reinforced concrete foundation and below-grade mat – experienced excessive vibration that caused frame movement at the grout interface and localized cracking in foundation components. Bearing life was reduced, causing unexpected shutdowns and increased maintenance costs.

ODS confirmed that two cylinders (one side of compressor concrete block) were moving too much and FEA confirmed that two separate cylinder support piers (not attached to the block) were resonating at compressor operating frequency (see Figure 4) and also contributing to vibration. FEA was then used to redesign the supports to eliminate the resonance. The solution included strengthening and enlarging the pier foundations, connecting them together with traditional rebar and post-tensioned bolts. The foundation block was also rebuilt to remove cracks and restore strength.

Vibration dropped substantially, which improved bearing life and decreased maintenance costs.

Summary

Compressor foundations can be very complex and inadequate foundations can suffer from vibration and decreased compressor reliability. All parts of the foundation are critical to performance. Assessment, design and repair quality are essential, and vibration reduction can be significant after using trained and experienced inspectors, licensed and specialized design engineers with equipment foundation experience, and knowledgeable repair contractors.

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7 Compression	Tyler	Texas	USA					0	48	0	36	Chris Forstik	CEO	chris.forstik@compression.com
ABBY Services Inc.	Canonsburg	Pennsylvania	USA	x	x	x	x	3	750	2	560	D.W. Fulmer	Applications	sales@abbyservicesinc.com
ABC Compressors	Eibar		Spain	x	x			5	6800	4	5000	Lucio Arizaga	Oil & Gas Manager	larizaga@abc-compressors.com
Adicomp Srl	Isola Vicentina		Italy	x	x	x		4	1350	3	1000	Pietro De Favari Tron	Managing Director	pietro.defavetr@adcomp.com
Aerzen USA	Coatesville	Pennsylvania	USA			x		0	13,410	0	10,000	Tim Grady	Lead Application Engineer Process Gas Division	tim.grady@aerzen.com
AG Equipment Co.	Broken Arrow	Oklahoma	USA	x	x	x		20	10,000	15	7456	Kent Bright	President	kbright@agequipmentcompany.com
Allegacy Equipment	Waller	Texas	USA	x	x	x		50	10,000	37	7500	Will Reyes	President	w.reyes@alegacy.biz
ANGI Energy Systems LLC	Janesville	Wisconsin	USA	x	x			40	900	30	675	Jared Hightower	Vice President, Sales	jhightower@angienergy.com
Applied Compression Systems	Cranbrook	BC	Canada	x	x	x	x	2	1000	1.5	745	Mike Sanderman	Operations Manager	mike@appliedcompression.com
Arrow Engine Co.	Tulsa	Oklahoma	USA	x	x			15	550	19	410	Shari Vanhooser	Director of Sales	svanhooser@arrowengine.com
INTEGRITY Compression LLC	Houston	Texas	USA	x	x		x	20	8000	15	5965	Tommy Balke	COO	tommybalke@integritycompression.net
Brahma Compression	Calgary	Alberta	Canada			x		5	400	4	298	Monte Scott	Sales	monte.scott@foremost.ca
Cast. Aluminum Solutions	Batavia	IL	USA	x				Any	Any	Any	Any	Jeffrey Awe	Global Marketing Director	jawe@castaluminum.com
Clauger-TechnoTrigo S.p.A.	Castel Maggiore		Italy	x	x	x		0	13,412	0	10,000	Silvana Bazzani	"Head of Sales Process, Gas and Efficiency"	sbazzani@clauger.net
Cobey Inc.	Buffalo	New York	USA	x	x			0	30,000	0	22,065	Eric McKendry	Vice President	cobey@cobey.com
COMOTI	Bucharest		Romania	x		x		30	3740	22	2500	Marius Teodorescu	Marketing and Sales Director	marius.teodorescu@comoti.ro
Com-Pac Systems Inc.	Odesa	Texas	USA	x	x	x		25	4000	19	2983	Jack Motley	President	jackmotley@compressorpackaging.com
Compact Compression Inc.	Calgary	Alberta	Canada	x	x			10	100	7.5	75	Chris Scrupa	Business Development Manager	cscrupa@compactcompression.com
Compass Energy Systems Ltd.	Calgary	Alberta	Canada	x	x	x	x	5	8000	4	5964	Scott Douglas	Vice President, Sales	sdouglas@compassnrg.com
Compass Manufacturing	Oklahoma City	Oklahoma	USA		x	x		70	8000	50	6000			compass@chk.com
Compressor Systems Holland BV	Vianen	Utrecht	Netherlands	x	x	x	x	1.3	2000	1	1500	Bob Visser	Managing Director	bvr@compressorsystems.com
Corken Inc.	Oklahoma City	Oklahoma	USA	x	x			7.5	75	5.6	55.9	Patrick Cormack	Lead Application Engineering	pcormack@idexcorp.com
Custom Compression Systems	New Iberia	Louisiana	USA	x				95	5000	71	3728	Joey Belfour	Vice President of Operations	JBelfour@customcompressionsystems.com
Dearing Compressor & Pump Co.	Youngstown	Ohio	USA	x	x	x	x	5	10,000	3	7457	Richard H. Dearing Jr.	President	rick@dearingcomp.com
Encore Oilfield Services, LLC	Granbury	Texas	USA	x	x			50	1,860	37	1387	John Simonetti	Owner/CEO	jsimonetti@encoreofs.com
Elliott Co.	Jeannette	Pennsylvania	USA	x	x	x	x	100	120,000	74.5	89,500	Mike Giunta	Sales Manager	mgiunta@elliott-turbo.com
Enerflex Ltd.	Houston	Texas	USA	x	x	x		0	10,000	0	7460	Aaron York	Director, Sales, United States of America	ayork@enerflex.com
Enerproject SA	Mezzovico	Ticino	Switzerland	x	x		x	30	4700	20	3500	Vito Notari	Business Development Manager	vito.notari@enerproject.com
Euro Gas Systems SRL	Targu Mures	Mures	Romania	x	x	x		200	21,500	150	1600	Roger Wachter	General Manager	roger.wachter@eurogassystems.com
FIMA Maschinenbau GmbH	Obersonthem		Germany	x				1	6800	1	5000	Michael Loercher	Sales Engineer	m.loercher@fima.de

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Flatrock Compression Ltd.	Houston	Texas	USA		X		26	500	19	373	Brian McDonald	President	brian.mcdonald@flatrockcompression.com
Flogistix	Oklahoma City	Oklahoma	USA		X		20	800	15	597	Drake Andarakas	Vice President, Sales and Marketing	sales@flogistix.com
FLSmith Inc.	Bethlehem	Pennsylvania	USA			X	10	500	7.5	375	Brian Warmkessel	Market Manager	brian.warmkessel@flsmith.com
Foremost	Calgary	Alberta	Canada		X	X	5	400	3.7	298	Steve Moe	Sales Manager	steve.moe@foremost.ca
Gas & Air Systems, Inc.	Hellertown	Pennsylvania	USA	X	X	X	1	2000	1	1500	Stephen St. Martin	President - General Manager	sestmartin@gasair.net
Gas Compressors Ltd.	London		UK	X	X	X	7	20,000	5.5	15,000	Tony Silk	Head of Sales	info@gascompressors.co.uk
GEA North America	York	Pennsylvania	USA		X		0	5623	0	4193	Todd Kennedy	Process Systems Sales Manager	todd.kennedy@gea.com
GRAF GASTECH	Nonantola	Modena	Italy		X		16	750	22	1000	Mario Marmile	Oil & Gas manager	m.marmile@grafspait
Great Plains Gas Compression Holdings, LLC	Hugoton	Kansas	USA	X	X		30	5000	4	3729	Gloria Pollok	Vice President, Sales and Marketing	gpollok@thegpgc.com
HBR Equipamentos Ltda	Sao Paulo		Brazil	X	X		0	5000	0	3729	Valdir Zuffo	Director of Operations	valdir.zuffo@hbr.net
Howden	Renfrew	Scotland	U.K.	X	X	X	0	20786	0	15500	Douglas Latta	Product Director	Screw.bareshaft@howden.com
Indus Energy Systems (IES)	Corona	California	USA	X	X	X	10	10,000	7.5	7500	Jogen Bhalla	Business Development	jogen.bhalla@indus-energy.com
Industrias Juan F. Secco S.A.	Rosario	Santa Fe	Argentina		X		0	10,000	0	7457	Osvaldo Calvo	International Business	ocalvo@secco.com.ar
INGC	Moscow/Perm		Russia	X	X	X	40	46,500	30	34,000	Ivan Shestoporov	Chief Engineer	ishestoporov@ingc.ru
J J Crewe and Son	Kearneysville	West Virginia	USA	X	X		5	10,000	2	7,457	Jay Crewe	President	jay@jjcrewe.com
Jereh Oil & Gas Engineering Corp.	Yantai	Shandong	China		X		85	10,002	63	7458	David Qu	Sales Manager	dawei.qu@jereh.com
J-W Power Co.	Addison	Texas	USA		X	X	25	6000	19	4474	James R. Barr	Vice President, Sales	sales@jwenergy.com
Kingsly Compression Inc.	Cambridge	Ohio	USA	X	X		5	1400	4	1491	Michael A. Scott	President	Michael.Scott@kingslycompression.com
Kirloskar Pneumatic Co. Ltd.	Pune	Maharashtra	India	X	X		30	10,000	22	7456	Samit Gujarathi	DGM	samit.gujarathi@kirloskar.com
Kobelco Compressors America Inc.	Corona	California	USA	X	X		134	40,230	100	30,000	Kenji Fujimatsu	Head of Sales Department	sales@kobelco-kca.com
Mayekawa USA Inc.	Houston	Texas	USA		X		0	4500	0	3300		Sales	customerservice@mayekawausa.com
McClung Energy Services	Longview	Texas	USA	X			50	400	37	298			aforbitt@estisccompression.com
Mitsubishi Heavy Industries Compressor International	Houston	Texas	USA	X		X	500	150,000	375	111,855	Clayton Jurica	Sales Manager	Clayton.Jurica@nhhcompressor.com
Natural Gas Compression Systems Inc.	Traverse City	Michigan	USA		X	X	0	2500	0	1864	Bill Jenkins	Vice President, Sales	jenkins@ngcsi.com
Natural Gas Services Group, Inc.	Midland	Texas	USA		X		50	1500	37	1119	Jim Hazlett	Vice President, Technical Services	jim.hazlett@ngsg.com
Neuman & Esser USA Inc.	Katy	Texas	USA	X			0	40,000	0	30,000	Scott DeBaldo		scott.debaldo@neuman-esser.com
NEXT Compression	Calgary	Alberta	Canada	X	X	X	25	6000	18	4474	Alyssa Gultner	Sales & Marketing Manager	marketing@nextcomp.ca
NG Metalurgica S.A.	Piracicaba	S o Paulo	Brazil	X	X	X	0	20,000	0	14,925	Júlio Cella	Application and Sales Engineer	jcella@ngmetalurgica.com.br
OTA Compression LLC	Irving	Texas	USA	X	X		0	125	0	93	Vickie L. Gage-Tims	Vice President, Sales	sales@otacompression.com

COMPANY	LOCATION			TYPES OF COMPRESSORS				CAPACITY RANGE				CONTACT		
	City	State/ Province	Country	Centrifugal	Reciprocating	Screw	Other	Min (HP)	Max (HP)	Min (kW)	Max (kW)	Contact Name	Title	E-Mail
Palmero San Luis	Buenos Aires	Buenos Aires	Argentina		X	X		100	6700	75	5000	Matias Maggi	Compression Manager	mmaggi@palmero.com
PEB Engineers & Constructors	Zoetermeer	South (Z-H)	Netherlands		X	X		26	9383	20	7000	Duncan Naumann	Sales Manager, Gas Compressor Systems	dhn@peb.nl
Propak Systems Ltd.	Airdrie	Alberta	Canada		X	X		0	10,000	0	7456			sales@propaksystems.com
PSE Engineering GmbH	Hannover		Germany		X			100	10,000	75	7500	Dirk Heyer	Division Manager, Compression Systems	info@pse-eng.de
Reagan Power & Compression Inc.	Broussard	Louisiana	USA		X	X		0	10,000	0	7455	Joe Beilon	Executive Vice President	jbeilon@reaganpower.com
Ron Porter LLC	Carmel	Indiana	USA	X	X	X	X	20	300	15	225	Ron Porter	Founder	porter.ronald@comcast.net
ROOTS Systems, Inc.	Houston	Texas	USA				X	0	1341	0	1000	Mike Eliyoun	Regional Sales Engineer, Americas	mike.eliyoun@roots-blowers.com
SSR Compression LLC	Tulsa	Oklahoma	USA		X	X		0	400	0	298	David Bellamy	President	dbellamy@sandrcorpression.com
SES Technical, Inc.	Alpharetta	Georgia	USA		X			1	1400	0.75	1044	Jim Zuccarell	Director, Compression Systems	jim@skidsolutions.com
Safe	San Giovanni in Persiceto	Bologna	Italy	X				67	6714	50	5000	Dario Salvadori	Team Leader, Oil & Gas/ Industrial Applications	dsalvadori@safegas.it
SCFM Compression Systems	Tulsa	Oklahoma	USA	X	X	X	X	50	10000	40	7000	Happy Pendley	Sales	hpndley@scfm.com
SEC Energy Products & Services	Houston	Texas	USA		X			50	10,000	37	7457	Brian Niessing	Senior Sales Manager	bniessing@sec-ep.com
Sertco	Okemah	Oklahoma	USA		X			20	200	15	149	Steve Morris		steve@sertco.com
SES International BV	Deiden	Overijssel	Netherlands		X	X		34	11560	25	8500	Rogier Levers	"Sales Manager, Gas Compressor Systems"	rogier.levers@sesintl.nl
Shandong Kerui Compressor	Dongying	Shandong	China		X	X	X	50	10,000	37	7456	David Ni	Executive Dep. General Manager	nidw@keruigroup.com
Siad Macchine Impianti S.p.A.	Bergamo		Italy		X			13	11,900	10	8700	Mauro Acquati	Compressor Division Sales Manager	mauro_acquati@siad.eu - c.c.: pabla_piccinelli@siad.eu
Startec Compression and Process Ltd.	Calgary	Alberta	Canada	X	X	X	X	5	8000	4	5965	Will Van Den Elzen	Business Development Manager	wvandenzelzen@startec.ca
Technical Thai Service Co., Ltd.	Muangrayong	Rayong	Thailand	X	X	X	X	20	20,000	15	15,000	Alex Westphal	Managing Director	alexwest@technicalgroup.com
UEC-gas Turbines, JSC	Rybinsk	Yaroslavl Oblast	Russia	X				5361	33,512	3998	24,989	Igor Yudin	Managing Director	inbox@odk-gt.ru
UECompression	Henderson	Colorado	USA	X	X	X	X	50	7500	37	5592	Greg Herman	VP Sales and Marketing	gherman@uecompression.com
VPT Kompressoren GmbH	Remscheid	NRW	Germany		X	X		5	3500	5	3500	Carsten Kollenbach	CEO	C.Kollenbach@vpt-kompressoren.de
Wasco Engineering Group	Singapore	Singapore	Singapore	X	X	X	X	100	10,000	75	7500	Madhana Gopal	Regional Sales Manager	madhana.gopal@wascoenergy.com
York Process Systems (Johnson Controls)	Waynesboro	Pennsylvania	USA	X		X		100	15,000	75	11,200	Robert Fahey	General Manager	robert.f.farhey@jci.com

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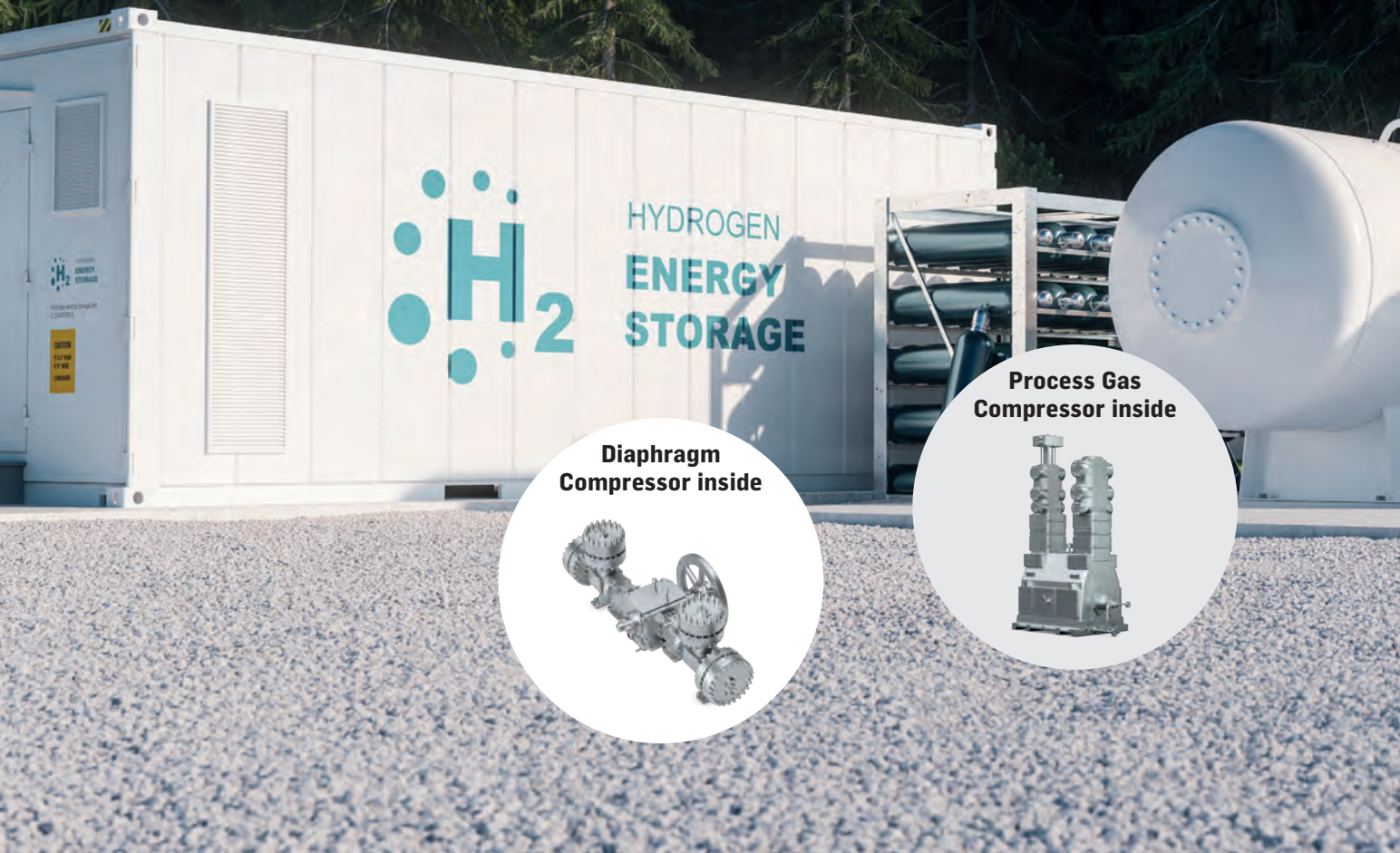
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