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LESLIE J.
BSc, CEng, F
Extra First Class E

THOMAS
CEng, FI
Extra First Class E



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The object of this book is primarily to provide Certificates of Competency of the subject of General Engineering syllabus for Engineer Cadet courses.

The text is intended to cover examinations. The syllabus and the same for all examinations but require the most detailed answers.

The book is not to be considered as a general work but rather as a specific one, and most of the sketches are intended to meet examination requirements. If some interest aspect is required the specialist text book, e.g., lubrication, etc., as the range of modern machines makes it sometimes whereby all the subject cannot be covered in one volume.

The best method of study is to go through the chapter, practising sketchwork as far as possible until it has been mastered to attempt the exercises at the end of the chapter. Finally, the miscellaneous questions in the book should be worked through. The best way to prepare for examinations is the work on old examination papers. There is no substitute for them. If there are no examination papers available, nor indeed any one to give practice in answering questions. As a guide it is suggested that the student should first read the information given in the book, then attempt the exercises in turn, basing his answer on a good sketch, occupying about one side of A4 paper.

In order to keep as closely abreast of the examination questions the book

The Department of Transport has issued papers and have given permission for them

CON

CHAPTER 1—Materials

Manufacture of processes. Cast lurgy of steel and ties of materials ness, etc. Testi tensile, hardness destrucive test metals — hard annealing, etc.

— casting, forging irons and steels elements. Non-f metallic mate properties and metals. Welding processes, pre Soldering and br

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CHAPTER 3—Boilers and Anc

Safety valves — adjustment, tes indicators — di boiler mounting

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emergency operation to steering gear, electric control, fin detail, block diagram, stabilisation ...

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Sewage and sludge arrangements and ballast, rules.

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CHAPTER 11—Instrumentation

Instruments — sensors, indicating elements, pressure, level, calibration, display, scanning, terminology, amplifier, transducer. Control theory — closed loop, proportional, integral, Pneumatic and electronic controllers. Electronic $P + I + D$ controllers. Control systems — diaphragm, telegraph, flyball, control, automation, unattended monitoring (UMS), bridge control.

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Management problems.

industrial management — organisation of divisions, planning, production, personnel, development etc. Further terminology, queueing theory. IDP. O & M. OR. Some practical applications, critical path analysis, planned maintenance, replacement policy, ship maintenance costs, optimal maintenance policy, co-ordination. On-ship management — shipping company structure, administration. Report writing — English usage, examination requirements, specimen question and answer, test examples technique.

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INDEX

MANUFACTURE OF IRON

Iron ores are the basic material for various steels and irons in present-day manufacture. An ore may contain many impurities and the iron content. Some of the more important are:

- (1) Hematite 30 to 65%
- (2) Magnetite 60 to 70% iron.

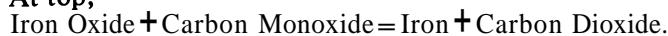
Iron ores are not usually fed directly into blast furnaces as natural or as mined condition. Their preparation may consist of some treatment such as (e.g. washing out the earthy matter, screening and sintering processes).

Crushing produces even sized particles which are separated from the larger lumps. These fines are mixed with coal or tar during the process of agglomeration of the fines and coke. After removal of some of the volatiles, the sintered ore is fed into the blast furnace. The remaining coke — which serves as a fuel — is added with flux. Preparation of the iron ore reduces the amount of coke saving in fuel and a greater rate of reduction.

In the blast furnace the charge passes through the tuyères at the highest temperature is normally about 1,500°C. At the entry points (tuyères), being a mixture of air and coke, some of the reactions which take place are:

- (1) At bottom, Carbon + Oxygen → Carbon Dioxide
- (2) At middle, Carbon Dioxide + Carbon → Carbon + Carbon Monoxide

(3) At top,



From (3) the iron which is produced from this oxidation-reduction action—is a spongy mass which gradually falls to the furnace bottom, melting as it falls and taking into solution carbon, sulphur, manganese, etc. as it goes. The molten iron is collected in the hearth of the furnace, with the slag floating upon its surface. Tapping of the furnace takes place about every six hours, the slag being tapped more frequently. When tapped the molten iron runs from the furnace through sand channels into sand pig beds (hence *pig iron*) or it is led into tubs, which are used to supply the iron in the molten condition to converters or Open Hearth furnaces for steel manufacture. Pig iron is very brittle and has little use, an analysis of a sample is given below.

Combined Carbon	0.5%	Manganese	0.5%
Graphite	3.4%	Phosphorus	0.03%
Silicon	2.6%	Sulphur	0.02%

Open Hearth Process

In this process a broad shallow furnace is used to support the charge of pig iron and scrap steel. Pig iron content of the charge may constitute 25% to 75% of the total, which may vary in mass—depending upon furnace capacity—between 10 to 50 tonnes. Scrap steel is added to reduce melting time if starting from cold.

Fuel employed in this process may be enriched blast furnace

Constituent		When Melted%	6 to 20 hours later Finished Steel%
Metal	Carbon	1.1	0.55
	Silicon	—	0.1
	Sulphur	0.04	0.03
	Phosphorus	0.4	0.03
	Manganese	—	0.6
	Silica	19.5	—
Slag	Iron oxide	5.6	—
	Alumina	1.2	—
	Manganous oxide	8.7	—
	Lime	50.0	—
	Magnesia	5.0	—
	Phosphorus	9.0	—
	Sulphur	0.2	—

TABLE 1.1

gas (blast furnace gas may be used) which melts the charge by burning, the degree of carbon content is achieved by adding a pure iron oxide or by reducing either by oxidation or reduction.

At frequent intervals samples are taken for analysis and when the desired analysis is obtained the furnace is tapped. Analysis of metal and slag is given below.

Bessemer Process

In this steel making process the charge of molten pig iron contains:

The refining sequence can be described as follows: the appearance of the flames discharge from the air will bring about oxidation; pouring the charge, a mixture of coke (or other form of coke) and manganese, etc., of the steel.

The principal difference between Bessemer and open hearth steels of similar carbon content is the higher nitrogen content in the Bessemer steel. The higher degree of oxidation gives a greater tendency for embrittlement and ageing in the finished product. The Bessemer steel 0.015% approximates to 0.005% approximately.

Modern Processes

Various modern steel making processes have been developed and put into use, some examples being the Kaldo, Rotor and Spray processes.

The L.D. method of steel making was developed in the initials of twin towns in Australia. It consists of a converter similar in shape to the Bessemer converter with trunnions to enable it to be rotated in various positions.

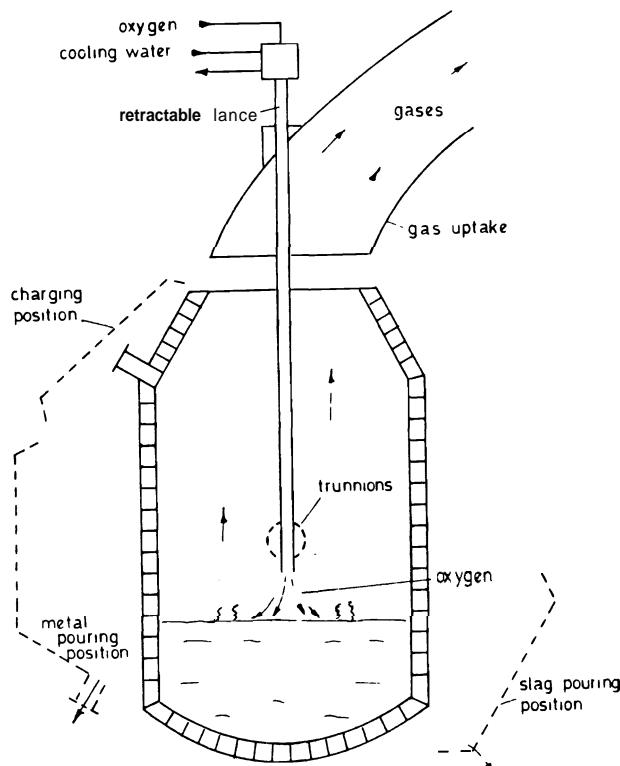
Fig. 1.1 is a diagrammatic arrangement of the L.D. converter. Scrap metal and molten iron, 11 bar pressure, are fed into the converter which is rotated to the position after charging. A water jacket surrounds the converter and be lowered into the converter at 11 bar approximately, would boil the molten iron causing oxidation.

withdrawn and the converter is first tilted to the metal pouring position and finally to the slag pouring position.

If the metal is of low phosphorus content oxygen only is used, if however, it is high in phosphorus, powdered lime is injected with the oxygen and the blow is in two parts, the process being interrupted in order to remove the high phosphorus content slag.

The Kaldo and Rotor processes have not found the same popularity as the L.D., even though they are similar in that they use oxygen for refining. They both use converters which are rotated and the process is slower and more expensive.

B.I.S.R.A. (*i.e.* the British Iron and Steel Research Association) have developed a process in which the molten iron running from the blast furnace is subjected to jets of high speed oxygen that spray the metal into a container. This gives rapid



L.D. PROCESS
Fig. 1.1

refining since the oxygen and the advantages with this system are carrying the molten metal from the plant is eliminated, and the st

Open Hearth furnaces have oxygen lances in their roofs. The process is becoming more process. Eventually open hear

Acid and Basic Processes

When pig iron is refined by processes is employed. If the process, if it is high in lime content. Hence the furnace lining which of siliceous material or basic material the slag. Thus avoiding the reaction:

$\text{ACID} + \text{BASE} = \text{SALT} + \text{WATER}$

Low phosphorus pig irons produces an acid slag, silica containing basic lining, hence silica bricks.

High phosphorus pig iron reacts in order to remove the phosphorus rich in lime which is a basic silica brick lining. Hence a oxidised dolomite (carbonates).

Both acid and basic processes are the Bessemer, L.D., and H

CAST IRON

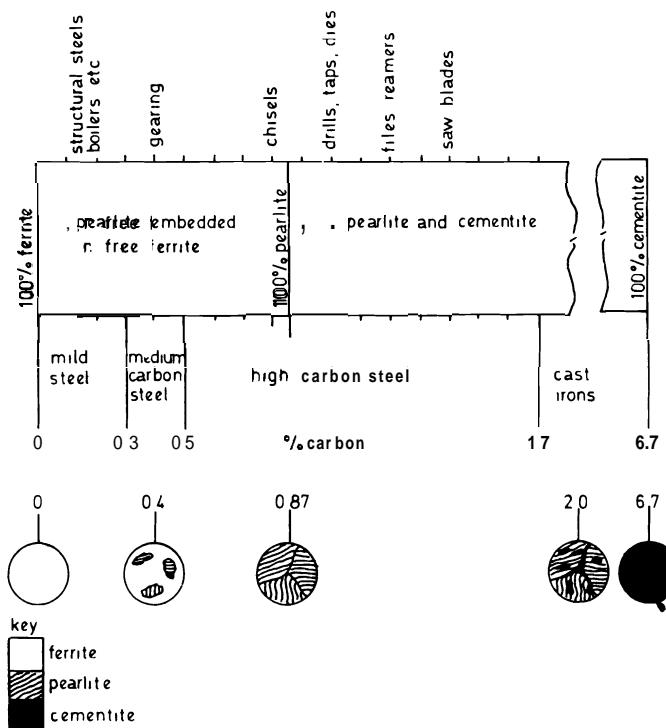
Cast iron is produced by a small type of blast furnace) which is suitably adjusted. The fluid suitable for casting; other properties wear resistant, high compressive

SIMPLE METALLURGY OF IRON

Carbon can exist in two states. In the former state, diamond carbon.

Pure iron (ferrite) is soft in strength, when carbon is added

form a hard brittle compound. This compound of iron and carbon called iron carbide or cementite (Fe_3C) lies side by side with ferrite in laminations to form a structure called pearlite, so called because of its mother of pearl appearance. As more carbon is added to the iron, more iron carbide and hence more pearlite is formed, with a reduction in the amount of free ferrite. When the carbon content is approximately 0.9% the free ferrite no longer exists and the whole structure is composed of pearlite alone. Further increases in carbon to the iron produces free iron carbide with pearlite reduction.



MICROSTRUCTURE VARIATION WITH INCREASING CARBON CONTENT

Fig 1.2

The steel range terminates at approximately 2% carbon content and the cast iron range commences. Carbon content for cast iron may vary from 2% to 4%. This carbon may be present in either the form of cementite or graphite (combined or free carbon) depending upon certain factors one of which is the

cooling rate. Grey or malleable iron contains graphite and can be easily machined. White cast iron contains cementite and gives white cast iron which is brittle. Grey cast iron hence is not normally encouraged. The following diagram (Fig. 1.2) analyses the properties of these materials.

PROPERTIES OF IRON-CARBON ALLOYS

The choice of a material for a particular application depends upon the conditions under which it is used.

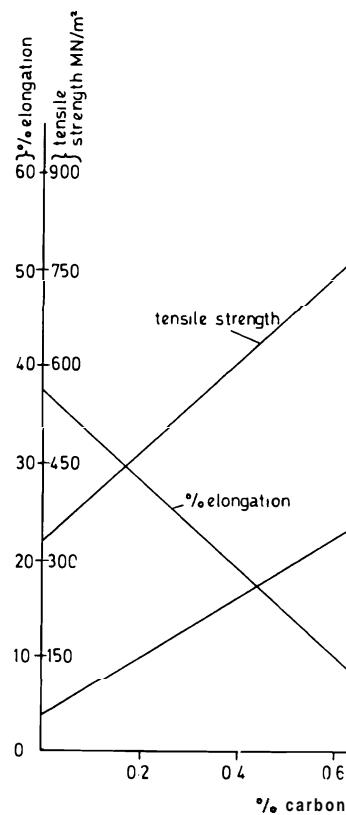


DIAGRAM SHOWING EFFECT OF CARBON ON PROPERTIES BY INCREASING CARBON CONTENT

Fig. 1.3

Conditions could be simple or complex and hence in choosing, the engineer requires some guidance. This guidance is invariably in the form of a material's mechanical properties and those of principal interest are as follows:

Ductility: Is that property of a material which enables it to be drawn easily into wire form. The percentage elongation and contraction of area, as determined from a tensile test are a good practical measure of ductility.

Brittleness: Could therefore be defined as lack of ductility.

Malleability: Is a property similar to ductility. If a material can be easily beaten or rolled into plate form it is said to be malleable.

Elasticity: If all the strain in a stressed material disappears upon removal of the stress the material is elastic.

Plasticity: If none of the strain in a stressed material disappears upon removal of the stress the material is plastic.

Hardness: A material's resistance to erosion or wear will indicate the hardness of the material.

Strength: The greater the load which can be carried the stronger the material.

Toughness: A material's ability to sustain variable load conditions without failure is a measure of a material's toughness or tenacity. Materials could be strong and yet brittle but a material which is tough has strength and resilience.

Other properties that may have to be considered depending upon the use of the material include; corrosion resistance, electrical conductivity, thermal conductivity.

Questions are often asked about the properties, advantages and disadvantages of materials for particular components, e.g. ship-side valve, safety valve spring etc. A method of tackling such a problem could be to (1) consider working conditions for

the component e.g. erosive, corr
shock etc. (2) shape and metho
forging, machining, drawing etc
brazed, welded, metal-locked etc

Hence for a ship-side valve, **(1)** working conditions: corrosive temperature, relatively low strength. Material required should be hard, relatively high impact value. Manufacture: relatively intricate, cast. Material could be spheroidal or phosphor bronze. Taken into account: expensive, easier to repair, increased impact value.

TESTING OF

Destructive and non-destructive materials to determine their suit-

Tensile Test

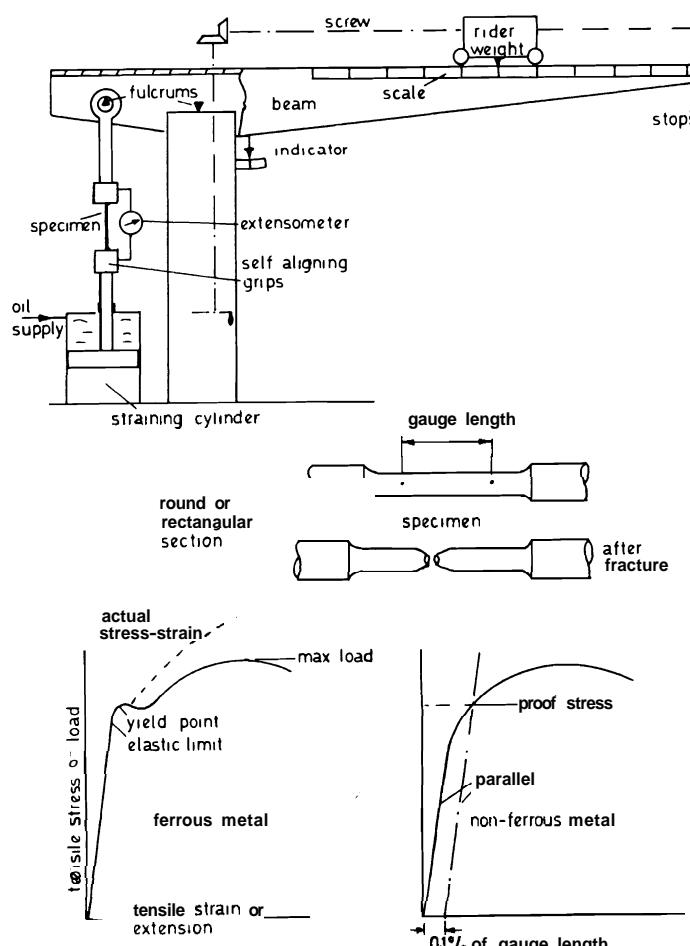
Tensile Test This test is carried out to ascertain the tensile strength of a material.

A simple tensile testing machine specimen is held in self aligning gradually increasing tensile load in a floating condition by moving oil pressure to the straining extensometer fitted across the specimen as the load is applied. Modern machines using mainly hydraulic difficult to reproduce for examination the authors have retained this system load with respect to extension the curve be drawn, the actual stress-strain curve purposes on the same diagram. This shows that the values of stress in the necking using the original cross sectional area the actual fact the cross sectioned area the specimen is extended.

Specimens may be round or rectangular, the gauge length being formed by re-entrant angles at the ends, the centre portion of the specimen. This form is adopted as rapid changes of section can

gauge length to cross sectional area of specimen, is important, otherwise varying values of percentage elongation may result for the same material. A formula attempting to standardise this relationship in the U.K. is;

gauge length = $4\sqrt{\text{Cross sectional area}}$.



NOMINAL STRESS-STRAIN DIAGRAM
Fig. 1.4

In the tensile test the specimen broken ends are fitted together reference marks and the small Maximum load and load at yield these foregoing values the follow

$$\text{Percentage elongation} = \frac{\text{Final length} - \text{Original length}}{\text{Original length}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Percentage contraction of area} = \frac{\text{Original area} - \text{Contracted area}}{\text{Original area}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Ultimate tensile stress (u.t.s.)} = \frac{\text{Load at fracture}}{\text{Original cross-sectional area}}$$

$$\text{Yield stress} = \frac{\text{Yield load}}{\text{Original cross-sectional area}}$$

Percentage elongation and percentage contraction of area are measures of a materials ductility. Yield stress is a measure of a materials strength. It is the stress at which there is a permanent set in the material e.g. 0.2%.

Factor of Safety—this is defined as the ratio of working stress allowed to ultimate stress, hence

$$\text{Factor of Safety} = \frac{\text{u.t.s.}}{\text{Working stress}}$$

Components which are subjected to alternating or fluctuating fatigue conditions are given higher factor of safety than those subjected to static loading e.g. tanks. Factor of safety for tanks stays about 7 to 8.

Hooke's law states that stress is proportional to strain i.e. if a material is stressed within the elastic limit, then

$$\therefore \text{Stress} \propto \text{Strain}$$

$$\text{or Stress} = \text{Strain} \times \text{Modulus of elasticity}$$

The constant is given the symbol E and is called Young's modulus or the modulus of elasticity.

$$\therefore \frac{\text{Stress}}{\text{Strain}} = E$$

The modulus of elasticity of a material is an indication of stiffness and resilience. As E increases then stiffness increases. By way of a simple explanation, we could consider two identical simply-supported beams, one of cast iron, the other of steel, each carrying a central load W. The deflection of a beam loaded in this way is given by

$$\delta = \frac{WL^3}{48EI}$$

Where δ = deflection of beam under the load W.

Where L = length of the beam.

Where I = second moment of area of section.

Where E = modulus of elasticity of the material.

Since the beams are identical $\delta \propto \frac{1}{E}$

i.e. $\delta \times E$ = a constant.

E for steel is greater than E for cast iron, hence, δ for steel is less than δ for cast iron. Hence, steel is stiffer than cast iron. For this reason as well as strength, less steel is required in a structure than cast iron.

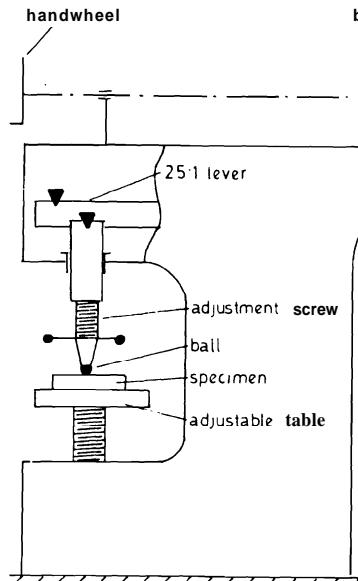
0.1% Proof Stress

For non-ferrous metals and some alloy steels no definite yield point is exhibited in a tensile test (see Fig. 1.4). In this case the 0.1% proof stress may be used for purposes of comparison between metals. With reference to the graph (Fig. 1.4) a point A is determined and a line AB is drawn parallel to the lower portion of the curve. Where this line AB cuts the curve the stress at that point is read from the graph. This stress is called the 0.1% proof stress, i.e. the stress required to give a permanent set of approximately 0.1% of the gauge length.

Hardness Test

The hardness of a material determines basically its resistance

to wear. There are numerous methods of determining hardness, only two will be mentioned here.



BRINELL HARDNESS TEST

Fig.

Brinell Test: This test consists of applying a known load to a specimen by means of a 10 mm diameter steel ball. The Brinell number is a function of the depth of indentation, thus:

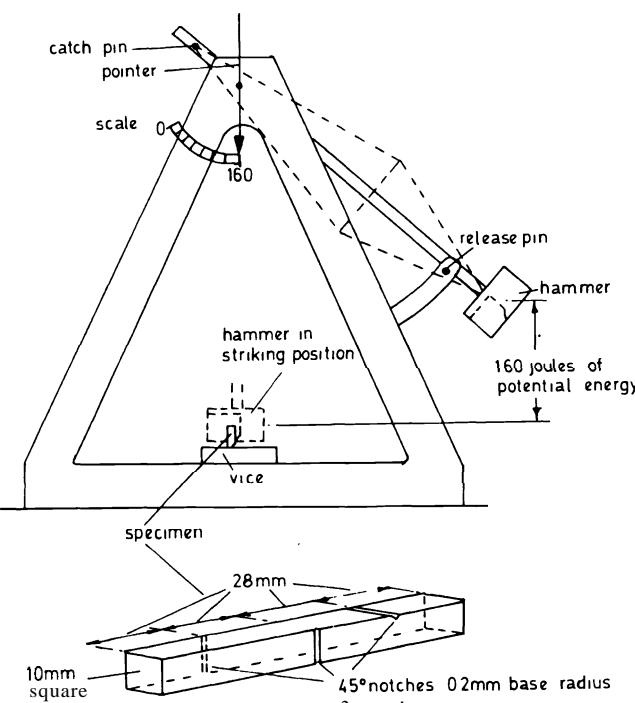
$$\text{Brinell number} = \frac{\text{Load in kg}}{\text{Area of indentation}}$$

Only the diameter of the indentation is determined by a low powered microscope. Tables have been compiled to avoid ascertaining the hardness numerically. These are 30,000 N for steels, 10,000 N for brass, 5,000 N for aluminium. Duration is usually 15 seconds. (Industry is calculating Brinell numbers, i.e. the area of indentation in mm². Hence, their value is a factor of 10.)

Vickers Pyramid Test: The surface of the metal under test is indented by a diamond square-based pyramid and the Vickers pyramid number (VPN) is determined by dividing the area of indentation into the load applied. This test is also suitable for extremely hard materials, giving accurate results, whereas the Brinell test's reliability is doubtful above 6,000 Brinell. Table 1.2 gives some typical values.

Material	Brinell Number	V.P.N.
Brass	600	600
Mild steel	1300	1300
Grey cast iron	2000	2050
White cast iron	4150	4370

TABLE 1.2



IZOD IMPACT MACHINE
Fig. 1.6

Impact Test

This test is useful for determining the effect of heat treatment, working and other factors on a material. It is otherwise indicated by the tensile strength test, which is a measure of a material's resistance to breaking.

A notched test piece is gripped in a vice and struck by a hammer. The hammer is raised until it has fractured the hammer arm enough to allow it to fall. The hammer is then carried for the remainder of the stroke. The impact value is taken as the completion of the hammer's swing. The impact value is the energy lost by the hammer in fracturing the specimen. The impact value is measured by carrying out upon the same specimen several tests and taking the average value. The fracture is the impact value.

By notching the specimen the impact value is a measure of the material's notch toughness. The notch toughness is a measure of the material's ability to withstand crack propagation. From the previous section it can be clarified to some extent: When a notch is present in a loaded material (e.g. shafts, beams, etc.) the notch occurs and the foregoing test measures the energy required to failure at these discontinuities.

Table 1.3 gives some typical impact values for various materials, considerable variations in impact values can be achieved by suitable treatment and testing conditions.

IZOD Value (Joules)
18/8 Stainless steel
0.15C, 0.5 Mn steel
S.G. iron (annealed)
Grey cast iron
up to 30

TABLE 1.3

Charpy V Notch, using a similar arrangement, the Charpy V Notch machine where the specimen is suspended from a beam and breaks upon two parallel stops between which there is a notch. The advantage to be gained is that the impact value of specimens can be very quickly determined.

The advantage to be gained is that the impact value of specimens can be very quickly determined.

impact values for specimens at different temperatures can be accurately obtained.

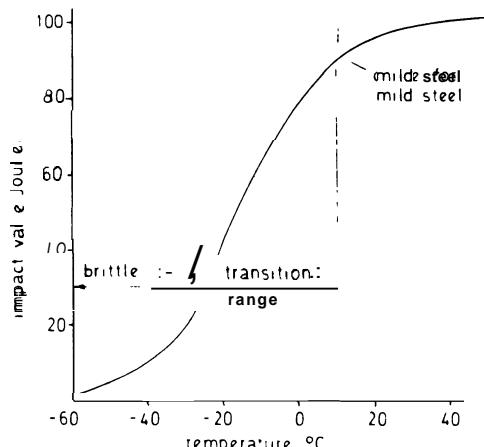


Fig. 1.7

Brittle Fracture, is a fracture in which there is no evidence of plastic deformation prior to failure. It can occur in steels whose temperature has been lowered, the steel undergoes a transition. Fig. 1.7 illustrates the considerable drop in impact value for mild steel as it passes through the transition range of temperature.

Factors which affect the transition temperature are:

1. Elements; carbon, silicon, phosphorus and sulphur raise the temperature. Nickel and manganese lower the temperature.
2. Grain size; the smaller the grain size the lower the transition temperature, hence grain refinement can be beneficial.
3. Work hardening; this appears to increase transition temperature.
4. Notches; possibly occurring during assembly *e.g.* weld defects or machine marks. Notches can increase tendency to brittle fracture.

Obviously transition temperature is an important factor in the choice of materials for the carriage of low temperature cargoes *e.g.* LPG and LNG carriers. A typical stainless steel used for containment would be, **18.5% chrome, 10.7% nickel, 0.03% carbon, 0.75% silicon, 1.2% manganese U.T.S. 560 MN/m², 50% elongation, Charpy V Notch 102 Joules at -196°C.**

Creep test

Creep may be defined as the material under a constant stress. conditions at a much lower stress ascertained in a straight tensile conducted to determine a limit rate.

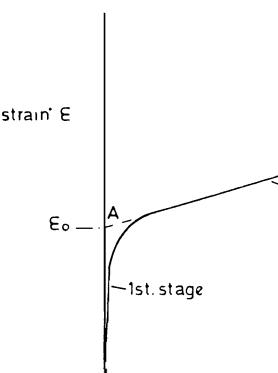
The creep test consists of applying a stress which is maintained at a uniform level for a long period of time and a number of specimens are subjected to this test simultaneously at the same temperature. In this way the stress at which the material is going to be employed can be determined, the results given in Table 1.4. Creep test at a particular temperature:

Component

Turbine discs
Steam pipes, boiler tubes
Superheater tubes

TABLE

Fig. 1.8 shows a typical creep curve with minimum uniform creep rate V_0



CREEP
Fig.

necessary that the test be conducted long enough, in order to reach the second stage of creep. Hence, for a time t greater than that covered by the test, the total creep or plastic strain is given approximately by $\epsilon_p = \epsilon_0 + Vt$.

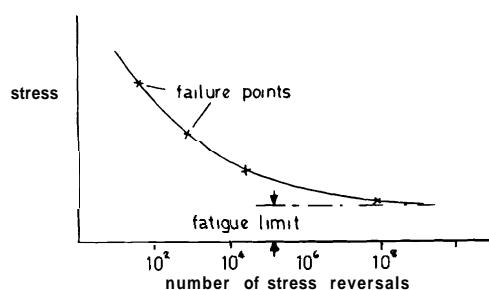
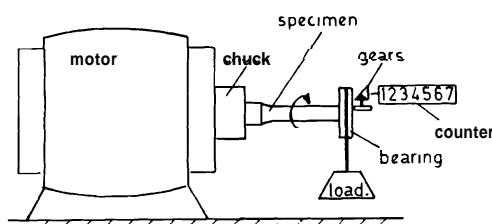
Where ϵ_p is the plastic strain which would be expected at the end of the first stage, this is important to the designer when considering tolerances, t is the time usually in hours.

Fine grained materials creep more readily than coarse grained because of their greater amorphous metal content, *i.e.* the structureless metal between the grains.

Fatigue Test

Fatigue may be defined as the failure of a material due to a repeatedly applied stress. The stress required to bring about such a failure may be much less than that required to break the material in a tensile test.

In this test a machine that can give a great number of stress reversals in a short duration of time is employed. The test is carried out on similar specimens of the same material at



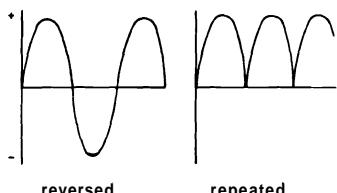
FATIGUE TESTING

Fig. 1.9

MATI
different stresses and the number noted for each stress, normally would not be exceeded if failure plotted on a graph (Fig. 1.9) from (fatigue limit) can be ascertained stress reversals will be high, to logarithms of the stress and nu S—log N curve.

Materials have varying fatigue increased by suitable treatment, reduced due to 'stress raisers'; fillets, etc. Environment alters limit could be reduced by about

Fig. 1.10 shows the different types of stress that a component could be subjected to in practice.



TYPES OF STRESSES

Fig.

Reversed stress: stress range is constant, *e.g.* propeller shaft.

Repeated Stress: component is loaded and unloaded. *e.g.* piston.

Fluctuating Stress: component is subjected to tensile, but the stress passes through zero, *e.g.* bolts.

Alternating Stress: stress range is large, hence it changes sign, but is asymmetric about the zero line. *e.g.* piston rod, pump, crane.

What is of greatest importance is the stress, this governs the life of the

that if the range of stress passes through zero this can have the effect of lowering the life span for the same stress range.

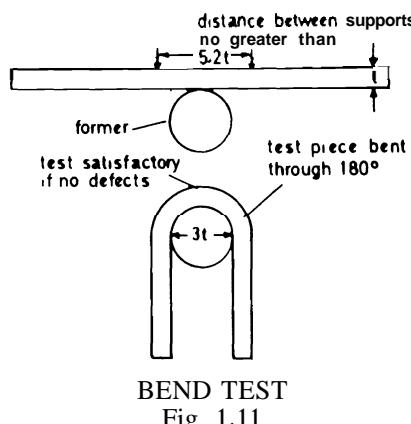
A **fatigue** failure is normally easily recognisable, one portion of the fracture will be discoloured and relatively smooth, whilst the other portion will be clean and also fibrous or crystalline depending upon the material. The former part of the fracture contains the origin point of failure, the latter part of the fracture is caused by sudden failing of the material.

Bend Test

This is a test which is carried out on boiler plate materials and consists of bending a straight specimen of plate through 180 degrees around a former. For the test to be satisfactory, no cracks should occur at the outer surface of the plate (see Fig. 1.11).

Non-Destructive Tests

Apart from tests which are used to determine the dimensions and physical or mechanical characteristics of materials, the main non-destructive tests are those used to locate defects.



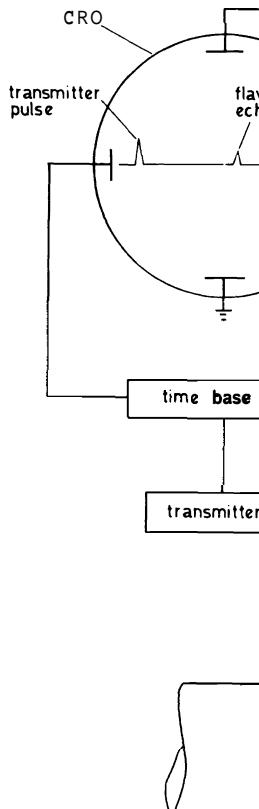
Methods of Detecting Surface Defects e.g. Cracks.

1. A visual examination, including the use of a microscope or hand lens.

2. Penetrant testing.

Penetrant liquids must have a low viscosity in order to find their way into fine cracks.

a) Oil and whitewash. This is one of the oldest and simplest of



ULTRASONIC
Fig.

the penetrant tests, the oil is first applied to the metal surface. If the metal surface is wiped clean, painted or dusted over the metal, the oil will discolour the whitewash on the surface. It is used because of its low viscosity and the fact that it alternately stressed and unloaded the surface.

b) Fluorescent penetrant wiper. The metal surface which is then washed, under ultra violet light. A developer may be used to cause re-emergence of the penetrant on the surface.

c) Red dye penetrant. This is probably the most popular of the penetrant methods because of its convenience. Three aerosol cans are supplied; red dye penetrant, cleaner and developer.

Components must be thoroughly cleaned and degreased, then the red dye is applied by spraying on. Excess dye is removed by hosing with a jet of water, or cleaner is sprayed on and then wiped off with a dry cloth. Finally, a thin coating of white developer is applied and when it is dry the component is examined for defects. The red dye stains the developer almost immediately but further indication of defects can develop after thirty minutes or more.

Precautions that must be observed are (1) use protective gloves (2) use aerosols in well ventilated places (3) no naked lights, the developer is inflammable.

3. Magnetic Crack Detection.

A magnetic field is applied to the component under test, and wherever there is a surface or a subsurface defect, flux leakage will occur. Metallic powder applied to the surface of the component will accumulate at the defect to try and establish continuity of the magnetic field. This will also occur if there is a non-metallic in the metal at or just below the surface.

Methods of Detecting Defects Within a Material.

1. Suspend the component and strike it sharply with a hammer to hear if it rings true.

2. Radiography.

This can be used for the examination of welds, forgings and castings: X-rays or y-rays, which can penetrate up to 180 mm of steel, pass through the metal and impinge upon a photographic plate or paper to give a negative. Due to the variation in density of the metal, the absorption of the rays is non-uniform hence giving a shadow picture of the material—it is like shining light through a semi-transparent material. X-rays produced in a Coolidge tube give quick results and a clear negative. Radioactive material (e.g. Cobalt 60) which emits y-rays does not give a picture as rapidly as the X-rays, however, to compensate for its slowness, it is a compact and simple system.

3. Ultrasonics.

With ultrasonics we do not have the limitations of metal thickness to consider as we have with radiographic testing, high frequency sound waves reflect from internal interfaces of good

metal and defects, these reflected waves are displayed onto the screen of a cathode ray tube. The position of a defect can be ascertained by checking material thicknesses e.g. in a heat exchanger tube (see Fig. 1).

A portable, battery operated unit is connected with cable to a set of headphones or a microphone. e.g. vacuum, air lines, superheated steam etc.

A recent application of ultrasonics is in the inspection of a generator placed inside the sound. By using a head set and a microphone placed on the generator where a tube is thinned it vibrates and transmits the sound through the tube walls.

TREATMENT OF MATERIALS

Hardening and Tempering

In the process of converting iron from the molten state to the solid state, two distinct changes occur. First, the liquid changes from liquid to dry powder. Second, the powder is heated up to its melting point to form a solid. During this process there is heat absorption. The temperature at which these changes occur are called '**critical points**' of the material. These points are of great importance. At these critical points the internal structure of the material takes place and the properties available if these points are not exceeded.

With steels, these changes in the internal structure affect also the form of iron carbide. At the upper critical point (about 720 to 900°C in the solid state, depending on the carbon content) the iron carbide begins to dissolve. If the steel is cooled slowly, the iron carbide will remain in solution and the structure will revert to its original state. If at this stage the steel is suddenly cooled, the iron carbide will remain in solution and the structure will have reverted to its original state. If the steel is cooled rapidly, the iron carbide will precipitate out of solution and form a new structure which has been hardened. This new structure consisting of iron and carbon is called martensite and is basically responsible for hardening.

If a steel of approximately 0.4% carbon is heated above its upper critical point and was then suddenly cooled by

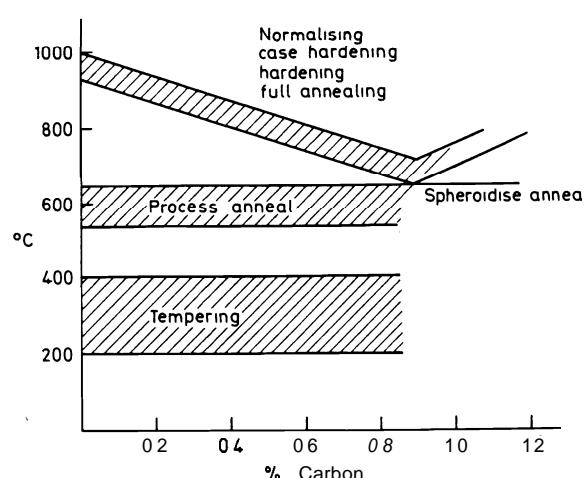
numeral would be increased from approximately 2,000 to 6,000. In this condition the steel would be fully hardened *i.e.* fully martensitic. Choosing a temperature lower than the above but not lower than 720°C (lower critical) and then quenching, will produce a partly hardened steel having a Brinell numeral between 2,000 to 6,000.

Hardening material in this way produces internal stresses and also makes the material brittle. To relieve the stresses and restore ductility without loss of hardness or toughness, the material is tempered.

Tempering consists of heating the material to about 250°C, retaining this temperature for a duration of time (this depends upon the mass and the degree of toughness required) and then quenching or cooling in air.

The combination of hardening and tempering is greatly employed with steels and alloy steels, a wide range of properties is available thereby. Components such as drills, chisels, punches, saws, reamers and other tools are invariably subjected to the above process.

Straight carbon steels whose carbon content is below 0.2% are not usually subjected to hardening and tempering processes. The reason could be attributed to the smaller quantity of Martensite which would be produced.



TREATMENT DIAGRAM

Fig. 1.13

Annealing and Normalising

The object of annealing is to restore the original ductility, stress relieve or a combination of both. For forgings, sheets, wires, and wire rods, annealing is the first stage of an annealing process. This process consists of heating the material to a pre-determined temperature, holding it for a certain time and then allowing it to soak at this temperature, the rate of cooling being controlled by the rate of heat loss. For full annealing, the temperature for carbon steels is about 1000°C, the upper critical temperature. Essentially, for full annealing and normalising, the material is heated to the same temperature whereas for normalising the material is heated to a temperature below the upper critical temperature of the furnace.

These processes of full annealing and normalising are not used on castings since they will affect the size and shape of grain. The casting is heated to a temperature below the upper critical temperature and held there until it is uniform in temperature throughout. This produces a uniform grain size and a grain size about 500°C with a grain size about 500°C with a grain size about 500°C. For a carbon steel casting could be increased from 18% in the as cast condition to 25% in the annealed condition.

The more rapid cooling of the casting during normalising gives a better, closer grain size.

If steel has been cold worked or over heated, the grain size and the pearlite are distorted. For this reason, increased ductility is brought about by a process known as annealing. This respects to full annealing except that the temperature is between 500 to 600°C, the upper critical temperature.

Blackheart Process

For high carbon castings, *e.g.* 45Cr, the blackheart process may be used to produce a machined component that would not otherwise be machined.

The castings are placed in air-tight containers and kept at a temperature of 500°C for a period of time depending upon material analysis. This causes the breakdown of the cementite in the steel.

carbon' in a matrix of ferrite, which has a black appearance—hence 'Blackheart'.

Work Hardening

If a metal is cold worked it can develop a surface hardness *e.g.* shot peening is a method of producing surface hardness, this consists of blasting the surface of a component with many hardened steel balls. Expansion and contraction of copper piping, used for steam, etc., can lead to a hardness and brittleness that has to be removed by annealing. Lifting tackle such as shackles, chains, etc., can develop surface hardness and brittleness due to cold working, hence they have to be annealed at regular intervals (as laid down by the factory act).

What actually happens is that the work forces cause dislocations to be set up in the crystal latticework (*i.e.* the geometric arrangement of the metal atoms) of the metal and in order to remove these dislocations considerable force is required, this considerable force is the evidence of work hardening, since it really is the force necessary to dent the surface of the material.

Case Hardening

This is sometimes referred to as 'pack carburising'. The steel component to be case hardened is packed in a box which may be made of fire clay, cast iron, or a heat resisting nickel-iron alloy. Carbon rich material such as charred leather, charcoal, crushed bone and horn or other material containing carbon is the packing medium, which would encompass the component. The box is then placed in a furnace and raised in temperature to above 900°C. The surface of the component will then absorb carbon forming an extremely hard case. Depth of case depends upon two main factors, the length of time and the carbonaceous material employed. Actual case depth with this process may vary between 0.8 mm to 3 mm requiring between two to twelve hours to achieve, for these limits.

Gudgeon pins and other bearing pins are examples of components which may be case hardened. They would possess a hard outer case with good wearing resistance and a relatively soft inner core which retains the ductility and toughness necessary for such components.

Nitriding

In this process the steel component is placed in a gas tight container through which ammonia gas (NH_3) is circulated.

Container and component are heated to approximately 500°C. Nitrides form at, and close to the surface, which leads to a marked degree. A nitride film of nitrogen, usually nitride promotes diffusion into steel such as aluminium, chromium, molybdenum, tungsten, etc. Actual depth of hard case is dependent on the time of heating compared to case hardening, which may take 12 hours for nitriding, compared to 2 hours for case hardening. As the temperature is increased during case hardening is the more gradual the diffusion of nitrogen into the unhardened part, thus reducing the risk of cracking.

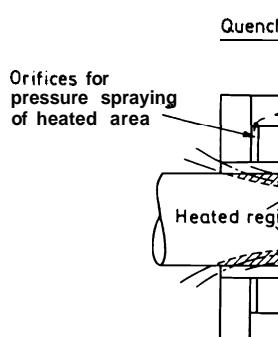
Flame Hardening

This process is used for increasing the surface hardness of irons, steels, alloy cast irons and tool steels. In surface hardening there is no loss of strength or resistance.

To flame harden a component an oxy-acetylene torch is used to preheat the component to a temperature between 800° to 1000°C. Following the oxy-acetylene torch, a quenching agent is applied inducing hardness. Care in operating the torch to prevent overheating must be prevented.

Induction Hardening

This is a method of surface hardening using electrical energy.



INDUCTION
Fig.

In Fig. 1.14, a high frequency a.c. electromagnetic field is shown heating up the surface of the components to be hardened by hysteresis and eddy currents, after heating the surface is quenched.

Hysteresis loss is heat energy loss caused by the steel molecules behaving like tiny magnets which are reluctant to change their direction or position with each alteration of electrical supply thus creating molecular friction.

Eddy currents are secondary electrical currents caused by the presence of nearby primary current. The resistance of the steel molecules to the passage of eddy currents generates heat.

Important points regarding induction hardening are:

1. Time of application of electrical power, governs depth to which heat will penetrate.
2. Reduces time of surface hardening to **seconds**—i.e. the process is very fast.
3. Rapid heating and cooling produces a fine grained martensitic structure.
4. Due to speed of operation no grain growth occurs or surface decarburization.
5. No sharp division between case and core.

Components that are induction hardened include such as gudgeon pins and gear pinions.

Spheroidising Anneal

Spheroidising of steels is accomplished by heating the steel to a temperature between **650° to 700°C** (below lower critical line) when the pearlitic cementite will become globular. This process is employed to soften tool steels in order that they may be easily drawn and machined. After shaping, the material is heated for hardening and the globules or spheres of cementite will be dissolved. Refining of the material prior to spheroidising may be resorted to in order to produce smaller globules.

FORMING OF METALS

Sand Casting

A mould is formed in high refractory sand by a wooden pattern whose dimensions are slightly greater than the casting to allow for shrinkage. To ensure a sound casting the risers have to be carefully positioned to give good ventilation.

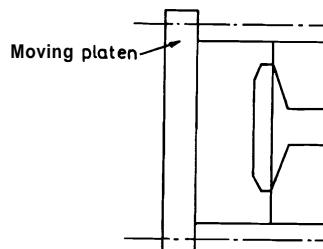
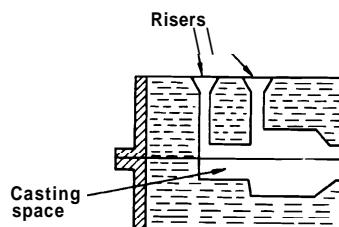
Defects that can occur in casting

1. Shrinkage cavities.
2. Blowholes caused by inefficiencies in the casting.
3. Oxidation.
4. Impurities.

Sand casting is slow and expensive. The metal and casting shape are limited.

Die Casting

Used mainly for aluminium and zinc. The molten metal is either poured in under pressure or gravity and pressure die casting gives a fine grained uniform structure and tight grain whereas for sand casting it has a coarse grain.



DIE CASTING
FIG.

Centrifugal Casting

A metal cylindrical mould is rotated at speed about its axis and molten metal is poured in. Centrifugal action throws the molten metal radially out onto the inner surface of the mould to produce a uniform close-grained—due to chilling effect of mould—non-porous cylinder.

Such a casting process can be used for piston rings, the rings being cut from the machined cast cylinder, or for producing cast iron pipes.

Forging

This is the working and shaping of hot metal by mechanical or hand processes with tools called swages. During the process the coarse, as cast, structure of the metal is broken down to form a finer-grained structure with the impurities distributed into a fibrous form.

Items that are forged include connecting rods, crankshafts, upset ends of shafts and boiler stays, etc.

Cold Working

The pulling of metal through dies to form wires and tubes, cold rolling of plate, expansion of tubes in boilers and heat exchangers, caulking of plates, etc., are all examples of the cold working of metals.

ELEMENTS IN IRONS AND STEELS

The following normally occur naturally in the iron ore from which the steels, etc., are originally made.

Manganese

This element which is found in most commercial irons and steels is used as an alloying agent to produce steels with improved mechanical properties. Manganese is partly dissolved in the iron and partly combines with the cementite. Providing the manganese content is high enough, martensite, with its attendant hardness and brittleness will be formed in the steel even if the steel is slow cooled. For this reason the manganese content will not normally exceed 1.8% although one heat treated steel known as Hadfields manganese steel, contains 12 to 14% manganese.

Silicon

Tends to prevent the formation of cementite and produce

graphite. In steels it increases ductility. As a graphitiser it is used to prevent the formation of white cast iron. The quantity of silicon is between 0.5 to 3.5%.

Sulphur

Reduces strength and increases 'shortness', that is, liable to sulphur content in a finished iron.

Phosphorus

This also causes brittleness and reduces fluidity and reduces factors when casting steels and 'shortness', that is, liable to cracking. The phosphorus content does not affect strength.

EFFECT OF ALLOYING ELEMENTS

Nickel

This element increases strength and not greatly reduce ductility until medium carbon steel with 3 to 5% nickel. Connecting rods, piston and pump components are made of this grained material.

Chromium

Increases grain size, induces erosion and corrosion. This element is added to produce stainless steels such items as turbine blades, pipes, etc.

Molybdenum

Used to increase strength, especially at high temperatures used for superheater tubes, turbine rotors, etc. Its use is its action in removing sulphur occurring in those steels which are Nickel-Chrome steels.

Vanadium

Increases strength and fatigue resistance with molybdenum for boiler tubes.

Other alloying elements include; Tungsten which induces self hardening properties and is used for heat resisting steels, *e.g.* machine tools, copper which improves corrosion resistance, cobalt which is used as a bond in stellite alloys. Manganese and silicon are also employed as alloying agents, these have been previously dealt with.

NON-FERROUS METALS

Copper

This material is used extensively for electrical fittings as it has good electrical conduction properties. It is also used as the basis for many alloys and as an alloying agent. If copper is cold worked its strength and brittleness will increase, but, some restoration of ductility can be achieved by annealing. Hence, in this way, a wide range of physical properties are available.

Brass

Brasses are basically an alloy of copper and zinc, usually with a predominance of copper. When brasses are in contact with corrosive conditions, *e.g.* atmospheric or in salt water, they may dezincify (removal of the zinc phase) leaving a porous spongy mass of copper. To prevent dezincification, an inhibitor is added to the brass. One such inhibitor is arsenic of which a small proportion only is employed. Brasses have numerous uses, decorative and purposeful. Marine uses include: valves, bearings, condenser tubes, etc. Alloying elements such as tin, aluminium and nickel are frequently employed to improve brasses. With these elements the strength and erosion resistance of brasses can be greatly improved.

Bronze

Bronze is basically an alloy of copper and tin, but, the term bronze is frequently used today to indicate a superior type of brass. It resists the corrosive effect of sea water, has considerable resistance to wear, and is used for these reasons for many marine fittings. With the addition of other alloying elements its range of uses becomes extensive. Manganese in small amounts increases erosive resistance, forms manganese bronze (propeller brass). Phosphorus, used as a deoxidiser prevents formation of troublesome tin oxides, improves strength and resistance to corrosion, provides an excellent hard glassy bearing surface. Aluminium and zinc give aluminium bronze

and gunmetal respectively, *w* casting.

Aluminium

This material is progressively used for specific items in the atmospheric corrosion and its s that of steel. In the pure state it and by mechanical and therm raised to equal and even surpass of ductility. In this form it is work.

Copper-Nickel Alloys

Cupro-nickel alloys have corrosion and erosion. The 80 used for condenser tubes as the estuarine and sea waters. A composed of approximately principally copper, is used for impellers, scavenge valves and metal retains its high strength addition of 2 to 4% aluminium 'K' monel, it can be temper-h increased still further without properties.

White Metals

White metal bearing alloys materials containing antimony Tin base white metals are some metals!, after Sir Isaac Babbitt these metals are the most common because of (1) their good bearing structure.

The use of copper in ,a distribution of the hard cuboidal of antimony and tin within the of friction for a white metal approximately 0.002. The melting with composition but is approx See Table 1.5.

Composition %				Uses
Tin	Antimony	Copper	Lead	
86	8.5	5.5	—	Heavy duty, high temperatures.
78	13	6	3	Normal loading.
—	20	—	80	Normal to low load bearings (Magnolia metal relatively cheap).

TABLE 1.5

Titanium

Ideal where resistance to erosion and impingement-corrosion are the more important requirements. It is virtually completely resistant to corrosion in sea water, only under exceptional conditions of erosion would the protective oxide film be damaged. When alloyed with about 2% copper a moderate increase in strength results. Used in heat exchangers, usually of the plate variety.

NON-METALLIC MATERIALS**Plastics (polymers)**

Most are organic materials, synthetic and natural, consisting of combinations of carbon with hydrogen, oxygen, nitrogen and other substances. Dyes and fillers can be added to give colour and alter properties. Some of the fillers used are; glass fibre for strength, asbestos fibre to improve heat resistance, mica for reducing electrical conductivity. Polymers can be plastic, rigid or semi-rigid, or elastomeric (rubber like).

Some of their general properties are (1) good thermal resistance. Most can be blown to give cellular materials of low density which is useful for thermal insulation, also stops the spread of fire (2) good electrical resistance (3) unsuitable for high temperatures. Since they are hydro-carbon they will contribute to fires producing smoke and possibly toxic fumes (P.V.C. releases hydrogen chloride gas) (4) good corrosion resistance.

Some polymers and other materials in common use are:

Nitrile. Used in place of rubber, unaffected by water, paraffin, gas oil and mineral lubricating oil. Can be used for tyres in

hydraulic systems (see Pilgrim jointing etc).

P.T.F.E. Unaffected by dry considerate range of chemicals lubricated bearings, gland rings

Epoxy Resin. Pourable epoxy temperature is unaffected by extremely tough, solid and durable engines, winches, pumps etc. Heavy foundations, simplified alignment and cost.

Rubber. Attacked by oils and strong acids. In a highly vulcanised state it is used for bucket rings in feed pumps.

Asbestos. Unaffected by steam, lubricants. In the presence of water Near universal jointing and packing (health).

Cotton. Unaffected by water and acids. Give strength to rubber and plastic used in packing.

Silicon Nitride. Used as seals in water pumps. U.T.S. 700 MN/m² inert chemically and galvanically water pumps).

No attempt has been made to cover all the materials for components discussed in this chapter, will be appropriate point.

WELDING

Welding processes may be divided into pressure welding and non pressure welding.

Any welding process which is referred to as a forge welding process usually require a filler metal or flux, however, should be clean and free from

The oldest form of forge welding. The process consists of the parts to be welded in a blacksmith's fire, then the parts of the

Material	Composition %	Treatment	U.T.S. MN/m ²	0.1% P.S. MN/m ²	Fatigue Limit MN/m ²	% Elongation	Modulus of Elasticity kN/mm ²	Brinell Hardness Numerical	Uses
Admiralty Brass	70 Cu 29 Zn 1 Sn	Annealed	340	75		70		650	Condenser tubes and tube plates. Arsenic added to prevent dezincification.
		Cold Worked	590	430		10		1750	
Aluminium	Nearly Pure	Annealed	59		31	60	14	150	As a base metal for many aluminium alloys. Electrical fittings.
		Annealed	370	105		70	21	650	
Aluminium Brass	76 Cu 22 Zn 2 Al	Cold Worked	610	460		8		1750	Condenser tubes and tube plates. Improved resistance to erosion with addition of aluminum.
		Annealed	320	85	114	67.5	20	620	
Brass	70 Cu 30 Zn	Cold Worked	460	380	152	19.5			General purpose brass Bearing liners, etc.
		Sand Cast	310		138	0	23	2500	
Cast Iron (Grey)	3.25 C. 2.25 Si 0.65 Mn	Annealed	217	46	66	60	21	420	Cylinder heads, pistons, etc.
		Nearly Pure							
Copper		Annealed	355	105		45		800	As a base metal for many alloys. Electrical fittings.
		Cold Worked	650	540		5		1750	
Cupro-Nickel	70 Cu 30 Ni	Sand Cast	295	124		16	18.6	850	Cooler and condenser tubes where good resistance to erosion and corrosion is required.
		Annealed	540	210		45	36	1200	
Gun Metal	88 Cu 10 Sn 2 Zn	Cold Worked	730	570		20		2200	Pump impellers, valves, turbine blading, scavenging pump valves.
		Hot Rolled	370	105		40	20	750	
Monel Metal	68 Ni 29 Cu Fe and Mn	Cold Worked	710	640	186	5.5		1880	General purpose brass.
		Annealed							
Muntz Metal	60 Cu 40 Zn	Hot Rolled	370	105		40	20	750	An excellent bearing alloy. Develops hard glassy surface in use.
		Cold Worked							
Phosphor Bronze	95 Cu 5 Sn approx. Small amount of P.	Annealed	480			37		1400	Turbine nozzles and blading.
		Softened	460		260	30		1700	
Stainless Steel	0.08 C 13.5 Cr 0.15 Ni	Hot Rolled	310	200	186	30	40	1000	Valves, turbine blading.
		1.0 Slag 0.01 S.							
Wrought Iron	0.02 C. 0.02 Si 0.05 P 1.0 Slag 0.01 S.								Decorative.

TABLE I 6

heat source and hammered together.

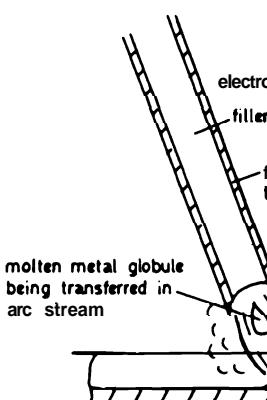
Resistance welding is another process where heat and pressure are supplied to the metal or flux is required. The form of the weld depends upon (1) the metal supplied (2) the metal to be welded and (3) the time of application of current. The processes of resistance welding are: studs welding, water tube boilers.

Welding processes which do not require a filler metal are referred to as fusion welding. These processes require a filler metal and are the most popular and most convenient electric arc welding process, a manual welding process.

Electric Arc Welding

In this process an electric arc is used which may serve as the filler metal. The heat which is generated causes the molten metal to be transferred from the electrode.

If the electrode is bare, the arc is therefore difficult to control. Contamination from the atmosphere.



SECTION THROUGH ELECTRODE
Fig. 1.6

brittle weld. To avoid these defects, flux coated electrodes are generally used.

The flux coating melts at a higher temperature than the electrode metal core thus the coating protrudes beyond the core during welding. This gives better stability, control and concentration of the arc. The coating also shields the arc and the molten metal pool from the atmosphere by means of the inert gases given off as it **vaporises**.

Silicates, formed from the coating, form a slag upon the surface of the hot metal and this protects the hot metal from the atmosphere as it cools. Also due to the larger contraction of the slag than the metal as cooling is taking place, the slag is easily removed.

Electric arc welding may be done using **d.c.** or **a.c.** supply. About 50 open circuit volts are required to strike the arc when **d.c.** is used, and about 80 volts when **a.c.** is used.

a.c. supply is usually more popular than **d.c.** for the following reasons.

- (1) More compact plant.
- (2) Less plant maintenance required.
- (3) Higher efficiency than **d.c.** plant.
- (4) Initial cost is less for similar capacity plants.

Disadvantages of **a.c.** supply are:

- (1) Higher voltage is used, hence greater shock risk.
- (2) More difficult to weld cast iron and non-ferrous metals.

Fig. 1.17 gives an indication of the ideal weld and also some of the imperfections that may occur on the surface or internally to the weld and adjacent metal.

The defects are generally due to mal-operation of the welding equipment and for this reason welders should be tested regularly and their welding examined for defects. Some of the defects with causes are:

- (1) Overlap: This is caused by an overflow, without fusion, of weld metal over the parent metal. The defect can usually be detected by a magnetic crack detector.
- (2) Undercut: This is a groove or channel along the toe of the weld caused by wastage of the parent metal which could be due to too high a welding current or low welding speed.
- (3) Spatter: Globules or particles of metal scattered on or around the weld. This may be caused by too high a current

- or voltage making the metal too soft.
- (4) Blowhole: This is a large cavity in the weld.
 - (5) Porosity: A group of small holes in the weld.
 - (6) Inclusion: Any slag or foreign matter, e.g., grease etc. During welding the slag is forced in front of the molten metal or when welding is interrupted when another run is to be laid. It should be allowed to cool, then cleaned and brushed off.
 - (7) Incomplete root penetration: This occurs when the weld metal fails to penetrate the base metal.
 - (8) Lack of Fusion: This could occur between the parent metal, between different parts of the weld, or between contact surfaces of the parts being joined by incorrect current or voltage.

Most of the surface defects can be removed by grinding but internal defects must be detected by radiographic or ultrasonic methods.

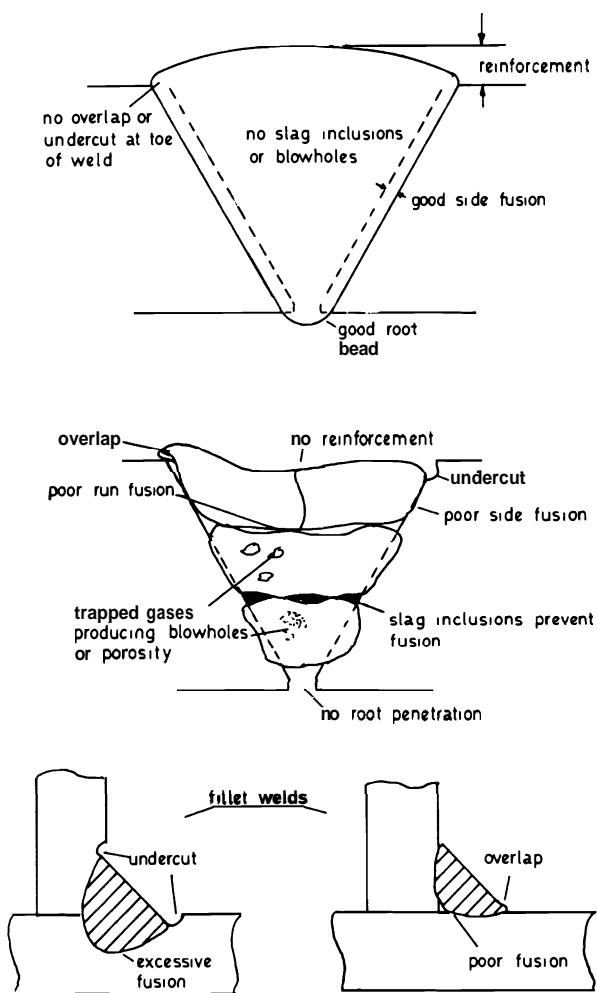
Inspection of welding should be carried out both before and after, since the defects increase the cost of material and labour.

During welding by the metal arc, the following factors should be observed: rate of electrode feed; rate of fusion; slag control; length and width of weld.

Other forms of electric arc welding include tungsten inert gas (TIG), plasma arc welding, aluminium, magnesium, copper and stainless steel to be welded with.

In this welding process (cold arc welding) the arc is struck between a tungsten electrode and the part to be welded. The tungsten electrode and the part to be welded are completely surrounded by an inert gas, usually argon, at a pressure of 10 to 20 atmospheres. The inert gas is obtained by liquefaction.

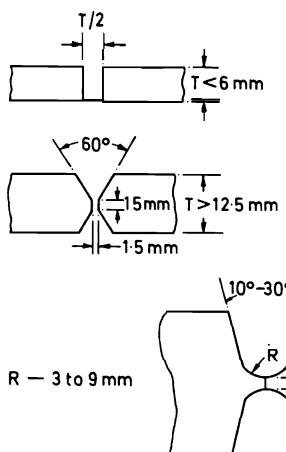
By completely excluding the oxygen in the air, the argon gas prevents oxidation of the weld metal.



SOUND WELD AND SOME WELD DEFECTS
Fig. 1.17

formed, thus enabling welding flux.

For oxy-acetylene welding, of solid drawn steel bottles under pressure. Modern torches are often of the c for either welding or cutting purposes. Various sizes of nozzles are supplied for



TYPICAL V AND U BUTT WELLS
Fig. 1.18

For welding, a neutral flame or flame which neither oxidises nor reduces the metal. Fluxes containing ferrous and non-ferrous metals, such as aluminium, copper, etc. It is also used for hard surfacing of materials such as

Downhand welding

A preferable terminology is welding from the upper side of joints which are approximately horizontal.

Heat Affected Zone

In welding or brazing it is that part of the material which has had its microstructure and mechanical properties altered but it has not been melted.

Difference between welding, brazing and soldering.

Welding: filler metal used has a melting point at or slightly below that of the base metal.

Brazing: filler used has a melting point above 500°C (approx) but below that of the base metal.

Soldering: filler metal used has a melting point below 500°C (approx).

Brazing and Soldering processes are similar in that the filler metal must (1) wet the parent metal (2) be drawn into the joint by capillary action. Brazing filler metals are alloys of copper, nickel, silver and aluminium. Soldering filler metals are lead & tin or aluminium & zinc alloys.

A flux is used to dissolve or remove oxides, in the case of brazing, borax is used, for soldering; resin in petroleum spirit.

GAS CUTTING

The cutting of irons and steels by means of oxy-acetylene equipment is a very common cutting process that most engineers will have encountered at some time in their lives. Flame cutting or burning as it is sometimes called is convenient, rapid and relatively efficient and inexpensive.

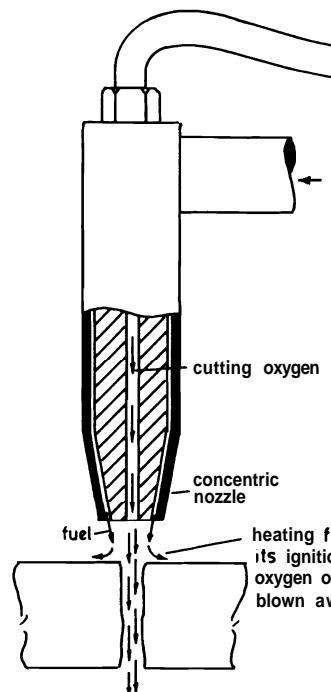
A flame cutting torch is different to a welding torch in that it has a separate, valve controlled, supply of cutting oxygen in addition to the normal oxygen and acetylene supplies (Fig. 1.19).

When cutting, for example steel plate, the plate is first pre-heated by means of the heating flame until it reaches its ignition temperature, this is usually distinguishable by colour (bright red to white). Then the cutting oxygen is supplied and immediately burning commences. The cutting oxygen oxidises the iron to a magnetic oxide of iron (Fe_3O_4) which has a low melting point, this oxide easily melts and is rapidly blown away by the stream of cutting oxygen.

Once the ignition point is reached the cutting process is rapid, since the heat is supplied, in addition to that given by the heating flame, by the oxidation of the iron. It should be noted that the iron or steel is itself not melted but is oxidised or burnt.

Due to the rapid cooling of the plate edge, that takes place once the torch has passed, local hardness generally occurs. Hence dressing of the plate edges by machining or grinding to

remove the hardened material is surface cracking may develop.



OXY-ACETYLENE
(Other gases—Oxy-Hydrogen—
Fig. 1.19)

TEST EXAMPLES 1

TEST EXA

Class 3

1. What is meant by the following terms:
 - a) Elastic limit,
 - b) U.T.S.
 - c) Safety factor.
2. What is the advantage of case hardening, how is it done, and give an example of a component which may have this treatment.
3. Explain the essential differences between the properties of cast iron and mild steel.

Class 2

1. Briefly describe the tests determine its suitability for clearly what is meant by metallurgical terms:
 - (a) Work hardening,
 - (b) Case hardening,
 - (c) Annealing,
 - (d) Normalising,
 - (e) Yield point,
 - (f) Creep.
2. Sketch graphically, the load-steel test piece. Would you tested a non-ferrous metal limit, limit of proportionality
3. State the approximate proportion of (a) Cast Iron and (b) Cast Steel in which the carbon may occur. Compare the physical properties of these materials and name some of the more important shipboard structural members in which these materials are used.
4. Explain the difference between the properties of steel. Discuss the importance of steel in shipboard structural members.
5. Describe the effects of varying the following constituents on the properties of steel:
 - a) Carbon,
 - b) Phosphorus,
 - c) Manganese,
 - d) Molybdenum.

TEST EXAMPLES 1

Class 1

1. Name four copper alloys associated with Marine Engineering, giving in each case, its constituents, physical properties and a practical example of its use.
2. Explain why a material may fracture when stressed below its yield point. Give examples of components which might fracture in this way if suitable precautions are not taken. Explain how such fractures can be avoided with reference to the materials chosen, careful design and workmanship.
3. Give the approximate composition, and the properties of the following metals:
 - (a) Manganese bronze,
 - (b) Cupro-nickel,
 - (c) Babbitts metal.

In each case give two examples of the metals in use on board ship, and explain why the metal is chosen for the applications you mention.
4. Give properties, uses and constituents of:
 - (a) Phosphor bronze,
 - (b) Black heart malleable iron,
 - (c) Monel metal.
5. Describe the following:
 - (a) Case hardening,
 - (b) Flame hardening,
 - (c) Nitriding,
 - (d) Induction hardening.

CHAPTER

FUEL TECH

LIQUID

Crude petroleum is first class types:

Paraffin Base in which the res-

more than 5% paraffin wax. Asphalt Base in which the residu-

than 2% paraffin wax and is

(bitumen).

Mixed Base in which the resi-

between 2 and 5% paraffin wax

The type obtained depends on

the type of refining necessary a-

produced.

The raw petroleum at the well

natural gas, which has a high mo-

directly utilised and is piped or

separation, by heating and cool-

head motor spirit (straight run g-

is taken to the refinery for pro-

ducts depending on the type o-

found in residual oils and is an i-

and soft, being mainly combusti-

cause considerable gum deposits

Composition of Petroleum

Consists in all its forms of hyd-

(up to 5%) of nitrogen, oxygen

together with water emulsified i-

natural gas.

Hydrocarbons

The exact proportions and composition decide the character of the petroleum and hence the refining and processing required. Types of hydrocarbon are made up of at least nine recognisable series, a series being a range of products with the same molecular structure pattern, from $C_n H_{2n+2}$ to $C_n H_{2n-12}$. The four main series are:

Paraffins. $C_n H_{2n+2}$

for example, methane ($C_1 H_4$), butane ($C_4 H_{10}$)

Naphthenes. $C_n (CH_2)$

for example, cyclo—butane ($C_5 H_{10}$)

Aromatics. $C_n H_{2n-6}$

for example, benzene ($C_6 H_6$)

Olefines. $C_n H_{2n}$

for example, ethylene ($C_2 H_4$)

The first two given are usually classified as *saturated* and the latter two as *unsaturated*. Unsaturated series are rarely found in the crude petroleum but tend to be found by molecular bonding alteration during later processing. Although **olefines** and naphthenes have the same C/H ratio they are distinguished by an important difference in molecular structure.

The lowest members of any series are gases, graduating to liquids as the molecular structure becomes more complex, thence to semi-solids and to solids. Considering for example the paraffin hydrocarbon series: methane ($C_1 H_4$) to butane ($C_4 H_{10}$) are gases, pentane ($C_5 H_{12}$) to nonane ($C_9 H_{20}$) are all liquids of decreasing volatility.

By octadecane ($C_{18} H_{38}$) there is a mineral jelly and further up the series gives paraffin wax solid ($C_{21} H_{44}$). With slight deviations from the molecular grouping system millions of different combinations called *isomers* are possible. Composition and characteristics then tend to become chemically complex, this particularly applies to high grade gasoline for aviation and motor vehicle fuels.

Crude oil is first treated for water and dirt removal, natural gas and straight run gasolines being commonly tapped off, and the bulk of the crude is passed to the refinery for distillation. Any refinery must be fairly flexible to cope with reasonable variations of crude type and variation in market demands for the output of distillates.

The Distillation Process

As a first stage the refinery divides the crude into basic products. This depends on the type of crude and the fractions and their distillation temperatures. The approximate distillation would be approximately as shown in Fig. 2.1.

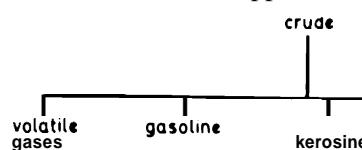
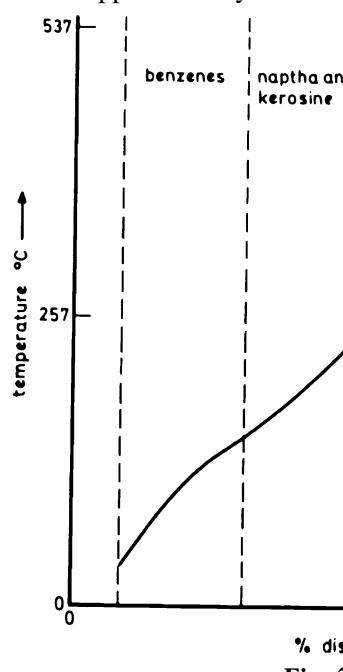


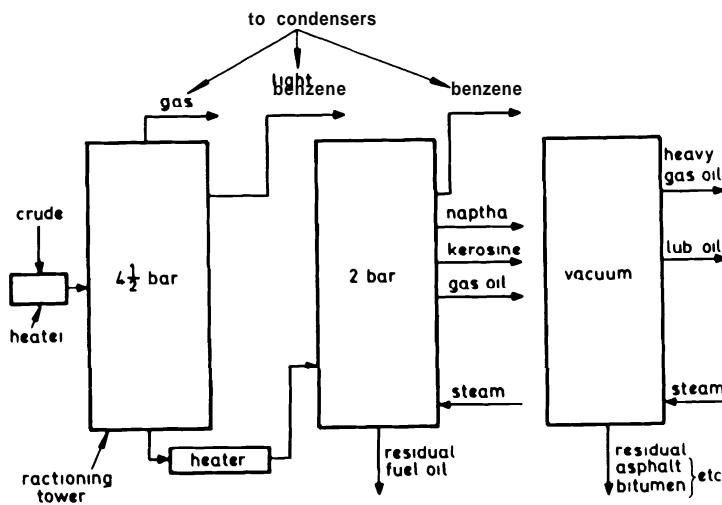
Fig. 2.1

The temperatures for distillation of the various fractions would be approximately as shown in Fig. 2.2.



The actual stages as shown may differ slightly from the graph. The cut point often has some degree of overlap.

Simple Refinery Layout



Referring to Fig. 2.3:

The crude is fractioned into the various distillates by heating in fractioning towers, the distillates being tapped off at the necessary points.

The actual layout is slightly more complex due to recirculation for stripping, reflux for enriching, provision of condensers for gas cooling, etc., all with the object of improving the quality of the distillate. The provision of the vacuum stage is to reduce the required temperatures of distillation for the heavier fractions to avoid oil cracking. Lubricating oils are produced by vacuum distillation, the principal yield being from mixed base crude oil.

Further Processing

To improve the quality of the distillates for use in specialised equipment, such as for aviation and automobile industry requirements, considerable blending and molecular structure alteration takes place. The object in certain specialised cases is improvement in Diesel Ignition Quality, Knock Rating (see later), sulphur removal, addition of corrective additives to improve performance, etc. These are complex processes such as thermal and catalytic cracking, alkylation, cyclisation, dehydrogenation, polymerisation, isomerisation, etc. Olefins and aromatics of widely varying chemical bonding are produced

by these processes. The cracking from heavy hydrocarbon molecules may be by thermal (high temperature) or catalytic means. Cracking, causing volatilisations, must be avoided.

TESTING OF LIQUIDS

(1) Density (ρ)

Storage of liquids is often based on physical properties such as density, for the mass to volume ratio. This is important for bunker arrangements, injectors, purifiers, etc.

$$\text{Density } (\rho) = \frac{\text{Mass } (m)}{\text{Volume } (V)}$$

units usually kg/m³ (fresh water = 1000 kg/m³).

If the temperature cannot be measured directly (e.g. for high viscosity oils) then a correction factor, γ , is used. 15°C is added to the observed density and 15°C , is subtracted from the observed density and the result is divided by hydrometer. The datum temperature is 15°C . The density at 15°C has its maximum density of 1000 kg/m³.

The reciprocal of density is specific gravity.

(2) Viscosity

May be defined as the resistance offered by a fluid to relative motion being due to the internal molecular forces between the molecules of the fluid producing shear stress.

Absolute (dynamic) viscosity is the force required to move a plane fluid surface of area one square metre at a velocity of one metre per second over another plane fluid surface at the rate of one metre per second. The ratio of the absolute viscosity to the dynamic viscosity is called the coefficient of viscosity.

$$F = \eta A \frac{dy}{dx}$$

$$\text{Dynamic } (\eta) = \frac{Fdy}{Adv} \left[\frac{ML}{T^2} \cdot \frac{1}{L^2} \cdot \frac{LT}{E} \right] = \left[\frac{ML}{T^2} \cdot \frac{T}{L^2} \right] \text{ Ns/m}^2$$

$$\text{Kinematic } (\nu) = \frac{\eta}{\rho} \left[\frac{ML^3}{TLM} \right] = \left[\frac{L^2}{T} \right] \text{ m}^2/\text{s.}$$

Kinematic methods are increasingly being used, centistokes at 50°C (1 m²/s = 10⁶ c St) is the measurement (sometimes 40°C or 80°C). Kinematic viscosity is measured by capillary flow of a set liquid volume from a fixed head (Poiseuille), a similar method (Ostwald) is much used by the oil industry and a technique using a steel ball falling through the liquid (Stokes) can also be applied.

For practical purposes viscosity is still often measured on a time basis. It is expressed as the number of seconds for the outflow of a fixed quantity of fluid through a specifically calibrated instrument at a specified temperature.

Considering Fig. 2.4:

The time for 50 ml outflow is taken by stopwatch. Temperature accuracy is vital and a variation of ± 0.1°C is a maximum for temperatures up to 60°C. Water is used as the liquid in the heating bath up to 94°C and oil for higher temperatures. The result is expressed as time in seconds at the quoted temperature, e.g. 500 s Redwood No. 1 at 38°C.

Samples and apparatus require to be clean and the appliance must be level.

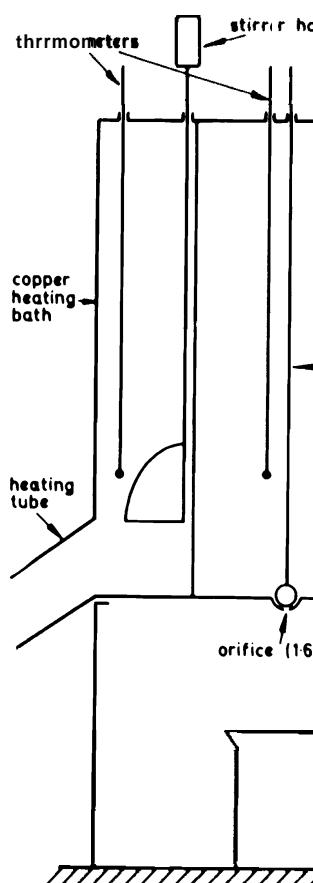
Viscosity Scales

In British practice the Redwood viscometer was used. Redwood No. 1, the outflow time in seconds of 50 ml of fluid, used up to 2000 s. Redwood No. 2, for oils with outflow times exceeding 2000 s (usually, but not always), designed to give ten times the flow rate of the Redwood No. 1 orifice.

In American practice the Saybolt Universal and Saybolt Furol were used in a similar manner to the above, employing a different orifice size as in the Redwood.

In European practice the Engler viscometer was used, which compares the outflow times of oil and water, results quoted in Engler degrees.

International standardisation has encouraged the development of the kinematic method, units centistokes at 50°C (sometimes 80°C for high viscosity oils).



THE REDWOOD
Fig.

Temperature

Increase of temperature has a marked effect on viscosity. Temperature and viscosity are inversely proportional. Choice of an oil for a particular application therefore requires that it is necessary to heat high viscosity oils to a suitable temperature, about 30 cSt at the injector and 7 cSt at 38°C. This is particularly important for internal combustion engines (the viscosity of oil decreases as temperature increases).

It is essential to specify the temperature at which viscosity is quoted otherwise the values will not be comparable. A correlation curve is used to relate viscosity to temperature.

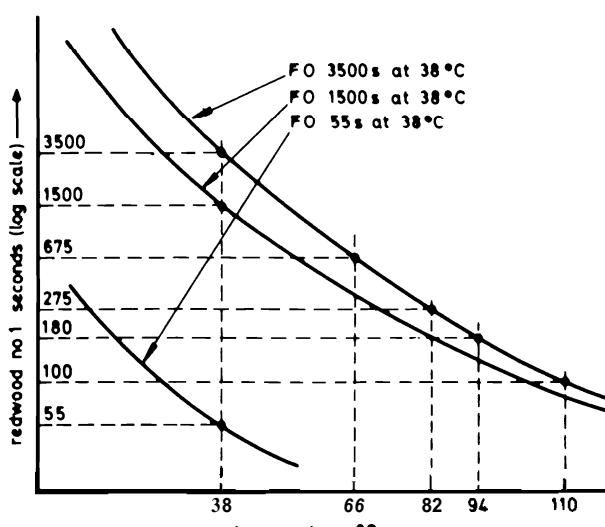


Fig. 2.5

The scale readings between viscometers can be related to each other by graphs or the use of constants. It is not possible to calculate viscosities at different temperatures without the use of viscosity—temperature curves. Each oil and blend type differs with the effect of temperature change so a curve requires to be plotted for each type, three typical viscosity—temperature curves are shown on the diagram given (Fig. 2.5). From Fig. 2.5 it is seen that 3.5 ks Redwood No. 1 at 38°C (note the use in this case of the No. 1 orifice above 2 ks) is 575 at 66°C, 275 at 82°C, 180 s at 94°C and 100 s at 110°C.

Factors influenced by viscosity may be summarised as: frictional drag effects, pipe flow losses, flow through small orifices (atomisation), load capacity between surfaces, fouling factor, spread factor, etc.

Viscosity Index is a numerical value which measures the ability of the oil to resist viscosity change when the temperature changes. A high viscosity index would refer to an oil capable of maintaining a fairly constant viscosity value in spite of wide variation in the temperature. The value of viscosity index is usually determined from a chart based on a knowledge of the viscosity values at different temperatures.

Approximate relationship between

cSt	30	60	120
R No. 1 secs	200	400	1000

(3) Flashpoint

This is the minimum temperature of a flammable vapour, which on being exposed to a flame over specified apparatus would cause ignition.

The test may be **open** or **closed**, depending on whether the apparatus is sealed or not. The open test is more severe because the lid seal allows access of air to the liquid surface. The test apparatus, which is of the usual marine range, is the Farnsworth-Perry test.

For oils below 45°C the Abbe refractometer

Referring to Fig. 2.6:

When the operating handle is moved upwards it opens the ports (down movement of the handle causes the ports to close below the ports by means of a ratchet mechanism). The sketch for simplicity). The flame is introduced into one port **above** the oil surface. Below the judged flashpoint the flame is quickly raised in a period of intervals.

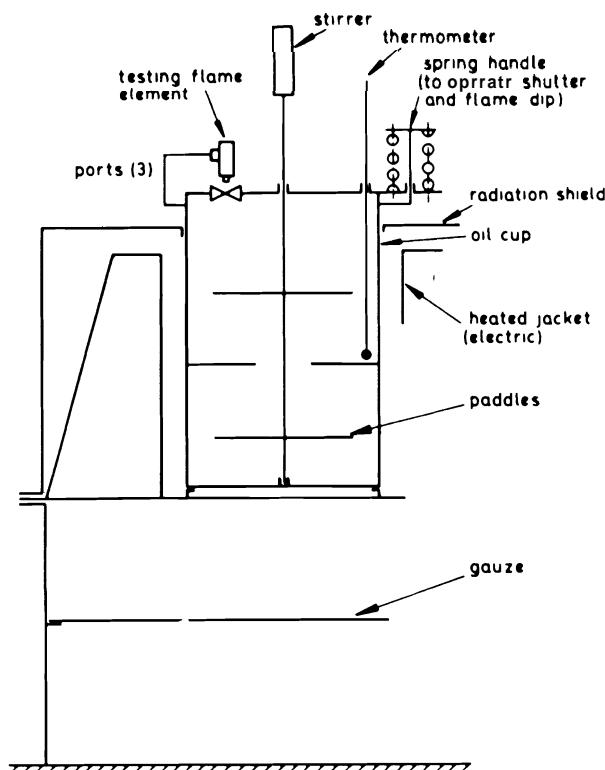
Just before the flashpoint is reached around the flame, the flame is visible through two observation ports, stirring the depression. A fresh sample must be taken that no trace of oil remains in the oil cup.

Some aspects relating to oils may be considered as follows:

Oils with flashpoints below 22°C are **dangerous—highly flammable**, etc.

Flashpoints in the range 22°C and vaporising oils.

Flashpoints above 66°C are (for purposes) and include gas; Diesel closed flashpoint values for dif-



THE PENSKY MARTEN (CLOSED) TEST Fig. 2.6

Pentane	-49°C	Petrol	-17°C
Carbon Disulphide	-30°C	Paraffin	25°C
Acetone	-18°C	Diesel Oil	95°C
Benzene	-11°C	Heavy Fuel Oil	100°C
Methanol	10°C	Lubricating Oil	230°C

These values are average only, the grade and type cause wide variations, for example, the term petrol could relate to values between -60°C to 25°C .

As flashpoint is indicative of the fire and explosion risk, for storage and transport, it is an important property of the oil. For shipboard requirements it is a rule that the oil for propulsion

should have a minimum closed oil in storage should not be he

In special cases where high degrees of heating are required, it is allowable to heat the oil to within 10° of its flash point. Great care should always be taken to heaters situated on the suction side of the pump not to cause oil vaporisation and vapour formation.

(4) Calorific Value

Is the heating value from the mass of fuel, i.e. MJ/kg, kJ/g?

Approximate heat energy va

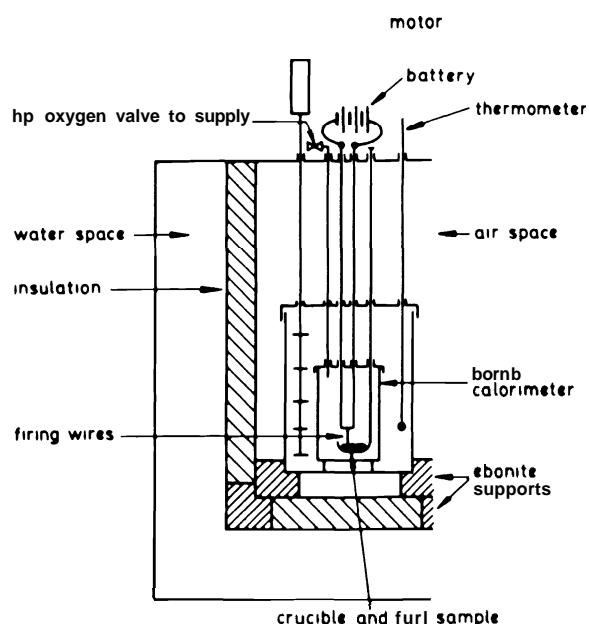
Coal
Fuel Oil
Diesel Oil
Pure Hydrocarb

The value quoted is the **high** preference to the lower value. The heat in water vapour formed by combustion are cooled, vapour heat becomes re-available for

The *lower* calorific value is engineers viewpoint, being the water evaporation, but this does this is a fault of utilisation and actual heat available and is the quotation. Fuels always exhibit extent during storage.

There are numerous makes; differences are only slight. The detailed and only a brief synopsis; close details, if desired, the reader specifications. Consider Fig. 2.

The oxygen supply is to give should not be less than $2\frac{1}{2}$ times The interior of the bomb must vapours from combustion. This by means of a lens to 0.002



THE BOMB CALORIMETER
Fig. 2.7

enclosing water, of amount 15-20 litres, should be maintained steady up to the test.

A small specimen is fired by electric charge under conditions of **pressurised** oxygen and the temperature rise of apparatus and coolant is noted. 0.01 kg of distilled water are in the bomb to **absorb** sulphuric and nitric acid vapours (from sulphur trioxide and nitrogen). Mass of fuel \times hcv = W.E. of apparatus complete \times its temperature rise. The above calculation, using masses in kg and temperatures in $^{\circ}\text{C}$, gives the hcv of the fuel (**MJ/kg** or **kJ/kg**). The water equivalent (W.E.) of the apparatus is determined by a test using benzoic acid. This is the calorific value reference fuel, hcv 26.5 MJ/kg, showing relatively no deterioration of calorific value during storage. Correction factors are now applied for acids formed under bomb conditions only, radiation cooling effect, etc. The temperature of test is based on 15°C approx. It should be noted that under the bomb's combustion conditions (high excess air and pressure) sulphuric and nitric acids are formed. Whereas

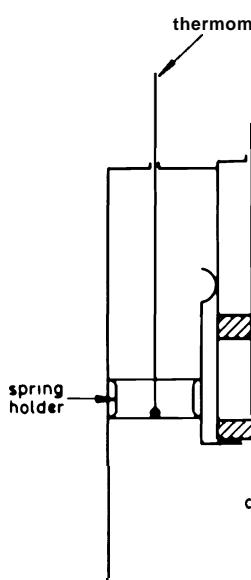
under furnace combustion conditions, due to sulphur dioxide, with no acids formed, the water equivalent of the apparatus and nitrogen would pass off in steam.

(5) Pour Point

This is a determination of the temperature at which oil will pour or flow under specified conditions. This value is an important consideration in the selection of working under low temperatures of machine lubricants, telemotors, etc.

Referring to Fig. 2.8:

Various mixtures are used to determine the pour point. The temperature solid carbon dioxide at -11°C above the expected pour point. The temperature intervals of 3°C the surface oil tilt and replaced in



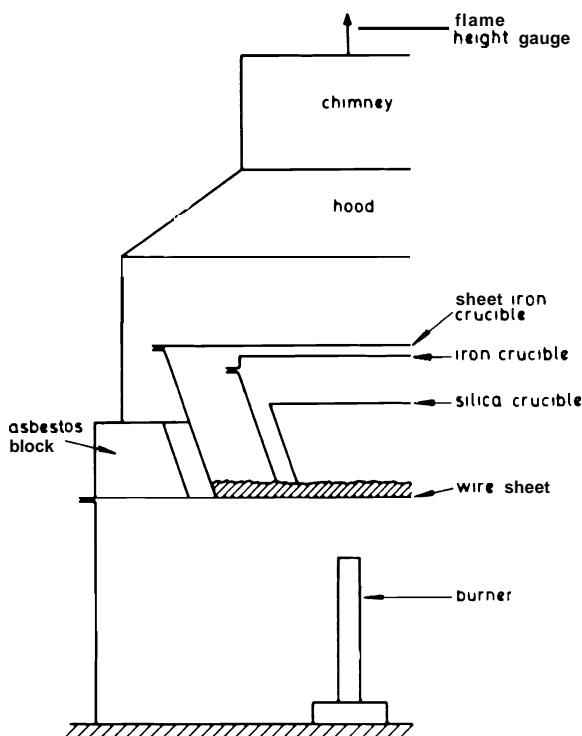
POUR POINT
Fig. 2.8

When surface of oil will not tilt, for a time interval of 5 s, note temperature, add 3°C and this is the pour point. The oil is heated to 46°C before the test and is cooled in progressive stages of about 17°C in different cooling agent baths, in each case the jar must be transferred to another bath when the oil reaches a temperature of 28°C above the bath temperature.

(6) Carbon Residue (Conradson method)

This test indicates the relative carbon forming propensity of an oil. The test is a means of determining the residual carbon, etc., left when an oil is burned under specified conditions. This test has been used much more in recent times in line with the use of high viscosity fuels in Z.C. engines.

The mass of the sample placed in the silica crucible must not exceed 0.01 kg.



CONRADSON CARBON TEST APPARATUS
Fig. 2.9

Initial heating period 10 minutes, final heating period 13 minutes \pm 1, further heating period 30 minutes \pm 2 minutes, total heating period 30 minutes \pm 2 minutes, fit to allow vapours to escape.

The heating and test methods are similar to those for removal of sample and weighing. The 'Carbon Residue (Conradson)' test is usually used to obtain a uniformity of results.

(7) Water in Oil

A quick test for presence of water in a substance is to add a sample to white copper sulphate ($CuSO_4$) which turns to blue copper sulphate ($CuSO_4 \cdot 5H_2O$) in the presence of water.

The following test is more suitable for oil:

Referring to Fig. 2.10:

The test usually conducted is the Z.P. standard method. 100 ml of sample is mixed completely with 100 ml of special high grade gasoline having standard properties. Steady heat is applied for about one hour. Water vapours are carried over with the distilled gasoline and are condensed in the condenser and measured in the lower part of the receiver. The result being expressed as say 1% Water, I.P. Method.

Note. This sketch is very much simplified. The actual apparatus must be constructed to specific and

exact **B.S.** dimensions which are highly detailed. The test must also be carried out under closely controlled conditions.

(8) Fire Point

This is the temperature at which the volatile vapours given off from a heated oil sample are ignitable by flame application and will burn continuously. The firepoint temperature can be anything up to about 40°C higher than the closed flashpoint temperature for most fuel oils.

(9) Acidity (or alkalinity)

This is indicated by the neutralisation (or saponification) number. This number is the mass, in milligrammes, of an alkali which is often potassium hydroxide, needed to neutralise the acid in one **gramme** of sample. The oil is often alkaline, in this case the acid to neutralise it is in turn neutralised by the alkali and the result is then expressed as base neutralisation number. Alternatively the quantities can be expressed in ppm for 1 ml of oil sample (usually dissolved in industrial methylated spirits). Phenolphthalein can be used as the indicator. Total Base Number (TBN) is often used for alkalinity indication for lubricating oils.

(10) Ash

A sample of oil (250 ml minimum) is cautiously and slowly evaporated to dryness and ignition continued until all traces of carbon have disappeared. The ash is then expressed as a mass percentage of the original sample. Ash consists usually of hard abrasive mineral particles such as quartz, silicates, iron and aluminium oxides, sand, etc. A residue test (% by volume after heating to 350°C) is sometimes used.

(11) Other Tests

These are numerous, examples being: asphaltenes, sediment, suspended solids, oxidation, emulsion number, cloud point, setting point, precipitation number, etc.

These are more complex laboratory tests whose description is difficult to simplify and therefore are not considered further. Three other tests however, not mentioned previously, are regarded as of extreme importance in Z.C. engine practice. In view of this these tests namely, octane number, cetane number and crankcase oil dilution, will now be considered.

(12) Octane Number

Is indicative of the knock characteristic of some I.C. engines, this can cause damage.

Normally on spark initiation the mixture at a speed of about 10 rev/s the flame front has its temperature at the spontaneous ignition point. This means that by the time the last part of the flame front reaches the end of the cylinder the front speeds can reach 2.2 km/h. The rise and heavy shock waves dependent on many variables such as turbulence, mixture strength, compression ratio, etc.

Test

Iso-octane ($C_8 H_{16}$) has very good anti knock properties and is taken as upper limit 100. Normal octane number is the percentage mixture of iso-octane and normal heptane. Knock characteristics as the name suggests are measured under fixed conditions on a special electronic detonation detection unit. Iso-octane has octane numbers over 100. Performance Number is used (T.E.L.) is usually added in small amounts to octane, this chemical has a very low knock rating and is in fact often used as a knock improver.

(13) Cetane Number

Is an indication of the ignition quality of a fuel. In a compression ignition engine, cold starting is required. Also injection and firing, called ignition, otherwise collected fuel will not ignite and Diesel knock results. The best ignition quality and are measured in rev/s. The cetane number can be correlated with the performance (13.3 rev/s) a cetane number of 15 is a minimum, whilst for very slow combustion a cetane number of 15 is a maximum.

A Diesel fuel used in a hot petrol engine would cause detonation, *i.e.* it has a low octane number.

Test

Cetane is a paraffin hydrocarbon, hexadecane ($C_{16}H_{34}$) being its correct designation, of high ignition quality and is taken as the upper limit of 100. Alpha-methyl-naphthalene is of low ignition quality and is taken as the lower limit of zero. Thus cetane number is numerically the percentage by volume of cetane in a mixture of cetane and alpha-methyl-naphthalene that matches the chosen fuel in ignition quality.

There are a number of tests, one is by measurement of the delay period when running, by use of a cathode ray tube on a standard engine. Another, which is probably the best, is to use a standard engine running under fixed conditions with a variable compression ratio to give a standard delay, and using the compression ratio as an indication of cetane number.

An alternative method called Diesel index can be used but it is not as reliable as cetane number. Density is often indicative of cetane number especially in the middle ranges, *i.e.*, density 850 kg/m³, cetane number about 61, density 950 kg/m³, cetane number about 37. Some success has been achieved by the use of additives such as acetone peroxide.

(14) Crankcase Oil Dilution

Is the percentage of fuel oil contamination of lubricating oil occurring in Z.C. engines. The lubricating oil sample is mixed with water and heated, fuel volatiles are carried over with the steam vapour formed. By condensation of these vapours and separation, the fuel content can be measured and can be expressed as a percentage of the original lubricating oil sample by mass.

It is also important to check the lubricating oil for water contamination, for this purpose a similar separation test by heating is satisfactory. Severe corrosion of crankshafts has been caused by sulphur products from fuel oil mixing with any water in the lubricating oil to form sulphuric acids which are carried round the lubricating oil system.

Analysis of Fuel Oils (Typical)

It is not practice to assume a trend with one variable will apply to another. As a generalisation the 'heavier' the oil the higher the viscosity and flashpoint and the lower the calorific value. This would indicate extra heating, purification, etc., systems;

Constituent or Property	Petro
Carbon %	85.5
Hydrogen %	14.4
Sulphur %	0.1
Density, kg/m ³	733
Higher calorific value, MJ/kg	47.0
Lower calorific value MJ/kg	43.7
Viscosity, cSt at 50°C	1.5
Closed Flashpoint °C	0

TAB

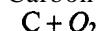
reduced storage volume for a given fuel demand for a given power

Proposed ISO Specification
Table 2.2 is a draft specification providing an agreed standard for

COMBUSTION

The combustible elements in hydrocarbons (H_2) and sulphur (S). These combine with oxygen (O_2) from atmospheric air. Exothermic reactions are those in which most combustion reactions, burnings, require heat supplied externally.

Combustion of Carbon



Relative Masses $12 + (16 \times 2) = 44$
 $1 + 23 = 24$

Thus 1 kg of carbon requires 24 kg of oxygen (O_2). This releases 24 MJ/kg of carbon burned. If the carbon is incompletely burned to form carbon monoxide (CO) then the relative masses of unburned the following results:

$2C + O_2 \rightarrow 2CO$
Relative Masses $(2 \times 12) + (16 \times 1) = 40$
 $1 + 1 = 2$

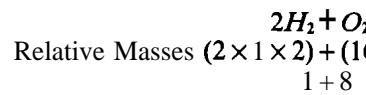
Grade	MA	MB	MC	MD	ME	MF	MG	MH	MI	MJ
Inspected Parameter	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max	Min	Max
Density at 15°C	—	—	0.90	—	0.920	—	0.990	—	0.990	—
Viscosity kinematic cSt at 40°C	1.5	5.5	—	11.0	—	14.0	—	—	—	—
Viscosity kinematic cSt at 80°C†	—	—	—	—	—	15	—	75	—	130
Flash point PM (closed) °C	43	—	60	—	60	—	60	—	60	—
Pour point (upper) °C Dec-31 Mar	—	—	—	0	—	24	—	30	—	30
Pour point (upper) °C Apr-30 Nov	—	—	—	6	—	24	—	30	—	30
Cloud point °C	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ramsbottom carbon w%‡	—	—	—	0.25	—	2.5	—	—	—	—
Condensate carbon w%	—	—	—	—	—	—	12.0	—	22.0	—
Sulphur wt%	1.0	—	2.0	—	2.0	—	3.5	—	5.0	—
Ash wt%	0.01	—	0.01	—	0.05	—	0.10	—	0.20	—
Sediment by extraction w%	—	0.01	—	0.02	—	—	—	—	—	—
Sediment (total existent)	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Water volume %	—	0.05	—	0.25	—	—	0.50	—	—	—
Cetane index	—	—	35	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ignition quality	—	45	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Metal contents ppM	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Vanadium	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Aluminum †	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

*Considered important but currently no standard test method available.
†An acceptable test method has to be agreed.

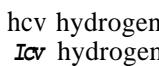
TABLE 2.2

Thus 1 kg of carbon requires 11 MJ/kg of carbon monoxide. This chemical energy is 144.4 MJ/kg of carbon burned. This is incomplete combustion.

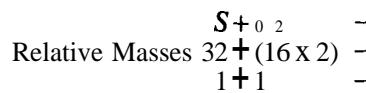
Combustion of Hydrogen



Thus 1 kg of hydrogen requires 144.4 MJ/kg of water vapour (steam) (H_2O). The heat of combustion are cooled and the water vapour. If the steam is uncondensed, which is usual, it is the net (or lower) heat liberated $144.4 - (9 \times 2.465) = 122.2$ MJ. (The enthalpy of vaporisation of water at 100°C).



Combustion of Sulphur



Thus 1 kg of sulphur requires 9.32 MJ/kg of sulphur burned. A small percentage of the sulphur is partly expelled as sulphur trioxide (SO_3) to SO_2 during normal combustion (1%), and the chemical reaction is



This reaction is of negligible viewpoint but is very important for corrosion. The residual oils

appreciable amounts of sulphur (up to 6%) and so increase the amount of SO₃ in the flue gases. The presence of SO₃ has been shown to raise the acid dewpoint of the gases. This results in the condensation of acid vapours on colder metal surfaces, from the sulphur the formation of sulphurous and sulphuric acids with resulting corrosion. Mild steels are most severely attacked by the dilute acids at temperatures of about 28°C below the dewpoint, for cast irons 50°C.

This is a very relevant problem in air heaters and economisers of boiler plant and cylinder liners of I.C. engines.

Chemical reaction:

$SO_3 + H_2O \rightarrow H_2SO_4$ (sulphuric) or $SO_2 + H_2O \rightarrow H_2SO_3$ (sulphurous) then $2H_2SO_4 + O_2 \rightarrow H_2SO_4$

Certain catalysts are known to accelerate the formation of sulphur trioxide, such as vanadium pentoxide which can be present in the fuel, also metallic catalysts such as platinum.

Sulphurous acid is relatively harmless and unstable and in the presence of free oxygen, which invariably exists in flue gases, turns to the more harmful sulphuric acid.

Dilute acids attack the metal continuously but strong acids cause an initial attack which is then stifled by a passive gas layer or skin developed on the metal surface.

Calorific Value

Can be assessed from the approximate empirical formula:

$$hcv = 33.7C + 144.4\left(H_2 - \frac{O_2}{8}\right) + 9.32S$$

$$Icv = hcv - 2.465 \text{ (kg } H_2O).$$

Value varies from 32.5 MJ/kg for coal to 44.5 MJ/kg for fuel oils, as discussed previously.

Air for Combustion

Atmospheric air is composed of nitrogen (N₂) and oxygen (O₂) in ratio 77% to 23% by mass, neglecting proportions of other gases as small in comparison.

Nitrogen takes no part in the combustion process merely representing a large but unavoidable heat loss as being inert it is heated and passes up the uptakes to waste. The oxygen required for combustion on a theoretical basis can be determined from the combustion equations.

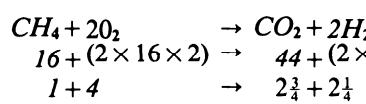
$$\text{Theoretical oxygen} \times \frac{100}{23} = \text{Theoretical air.}$$

In practice complete combustion requires air in excess of that required, i.e. about 12 kg of air per kg of fuel. In the compression ignition type of engine, normally required, i.e. about 15 kg of air. The difference is apparent in that the CO₂ value is 18% theoretically whereas 12% is actually obtained in plant and I.C. engine respectively due to incomplete air dilution of the gases. All the values are based on perfect gases measured at standard temperature and pressure. Standard temperature (0°C) and pressure (1.013 bar) are adopted as a basis in combustion calculations. Standard pressure (ntp) is sometimes used (0.987 bar) and 0°C.

The terms stp and ntp are often used. The assumptions made should be clearly stated and always be quoted by volume, e.g.

Combustion of Hydrocarbons

Consider as an example methane (CH₄)



Thus 1 kg of methane requires 16 kg of oxygen for combustion and forms 23 kg of water vapour.

Other hydrocarbons, for example ethane (C₂H₆), propane (C₃H₈), etc., are often considered. Methane is a gas released in the burning-welding gas and hexane is a liquid. A series of common gases and their properties are given in Table 2.3.

The hydrocarbons usually have calorific values of 100% and 10% but for volatile gases.

All the figures given in Table 2.3 are based on standard pressure and temperature and should not be applied too rigidly.

Temperature increase tends to increase the flammability, e.g. CH₄ at 15.5°C

at 405°C range 4.8 to 16%. Pressure increase is similar but more marked with upper limit increasing and lower limit falling, up to 52 bar. Gas concentration and mixture will also have pronounced effects. Values of spontaneous ignition temperature being lower usually in oxygen and also being affected by pressure, concentration, mixture, and temperature. In the case of other fuels the spontaneous ignition temperatures in common cases are:

cetane 236°C, diesel oil 246°C, gas oil 355°C, gasoline 399°C, steam coal 469°C, coke 555°C (average), etc.

SPONTANEOUS IGNITION TEMPERATURE		
GASES	°C IN AIR	°C IN OXYGEN
HYDROGEN	588	588
CARBON MONOXIDE	649	649
METHANE	700	577
BENZENE	742	731
ACETYLENE	422	416
CYLINDER OIL	420	—
KEROSENE	294	—

LIMITS OF FLAMMABILITY IN AIR		
GASES	% VOL. LOWER	% VOL. UPPER
HYDROGEN	4.0	75.0
CARBON MONOXIDE	12.5	74.0
METHANE	5.0	15.0
BENZENE	1.4	7.4
PETROL	1.4	6.0
COAL GAS	5.3	31.3

TABLE 2.3

Flame Temperature

This varies mainly with the fuel type, typical figures for gaseous fuels would be: methane 1872°C, hydrogen 2037°C, carbon monoxide 1957°C.

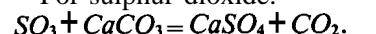
The values quoted are theoretical calculated values as the actual values are very difficult to measure, variables such as gas mixtures, radiation and dissociation, etc., are allowed for by the use of charts, in every case these effects serve to reduce temperature. Theoretical values are based on cold gas with theoretical cold air supplied, excess air decreases the flame temperature and air preheat together with rapid combustion increases the value. Hydrogen would give 6297°C by itself with

theoretical oxygen, 2307°C with 100% excess air. An average figure taken as 1200°C. Flame temperature, particle size, etc., are complex due to much research.

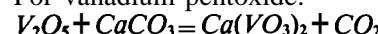
Oil Fuel Additives

Fused slag products, which give from the vanadium and sulphur particular type of additive gives

For sulphur dioxide:



For vanadium pentoxide:

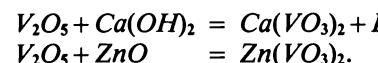


There is an increase in CO_2 combustion of the carbon. It is flue gas temperature indicating combustion.

Similar reactions to the above Carbonate ($BaCO_3$) in place of the above. The sulphate compound melting point and there is little effect of Vanadium Pentoxide removing the formation of sulphur trioxide.

Additives are usually added to bunker tank before bunkering the fuel (for 100 ppm of V or Sr) usually claimed to give less carbon and less gum and general deposit.

It is unwise to ballast oil fuel accelerates the deposit of V_2O_5 , water compounds act as a flux and directly. For really elevated Hydroxide or Zinc Oxide additives



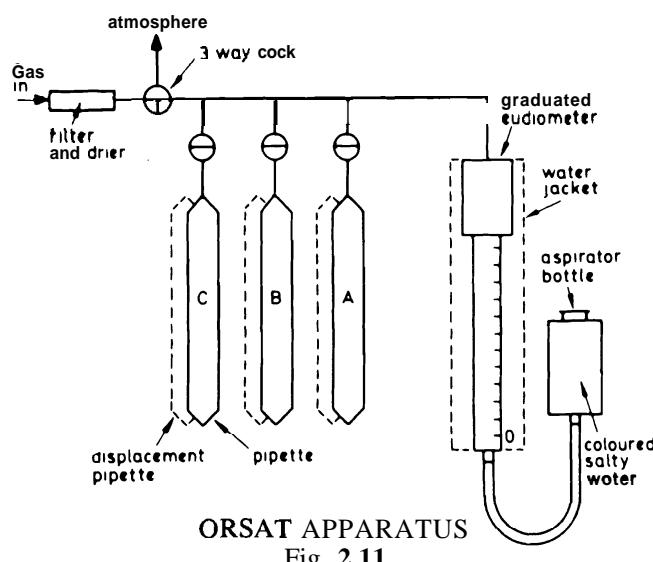
Oxides of Barium, Calcium, Zinc additives for some years to try to air heaters.

ANALYSIS OF FLUE GASES

Various types of apparatus are available. The Orsat apparatus is suitable for a detailed analysis, and three types of CO_2 recorder in fairly common use, are now described. It is suggested that for *examination* purposes the student should be familiar with the Orsat apparatus and any *one* type of CO_2 recorder.

The Orsat Apparatus

The enclosed volume of the apparatus is 100 ml. Pipette A contains a solution of potassium hydroxide in distilled water which absorbs carbon dioxide. Pipette B contains a solution of potassium hydroxide and pyrogallic acid in distilled water which absorbs oxygen. Pipette C contains a solution of cuprous chloride in hydrochloric acid (or ammonia). Pipettes **must** be used in sequence A, B then C. Aspirator bottle water is mixed with sulphuric acid or made salty to stop absorption and methyl orange or other acids or alkalis are commonly used as colouring fluids (see Fig. 2.11).



By using the aspirator, *i.e.* raising and lowering to act as a pump the sample is first drawn in, passed through each pipette in turn, measured, and then discharged. The reduction in

volume at each stage, always taken eudiometer and aspirator coincident, the percentage volume of the registered in any hot gas analysis washed out by, for example, a s

Typical results:

2.4 ml	12.6 ml
$100 - 2.4$ $= 97.6 \text{ ml gas}$	$12.6 - 2.4$ $= 10.2 \text{ ml } CO_2$

$$\% CO_2 = \frac{1020}{97.6} =$$

$$\% O_2 = \frac{40}{97.6} =$$

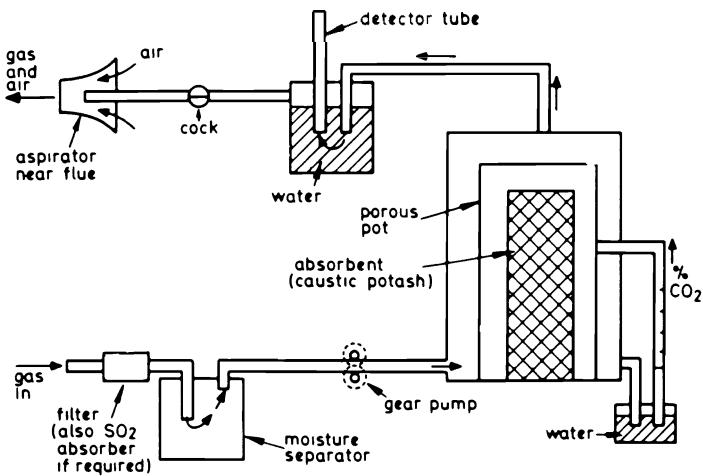
$$\% CO = \frac{10}{97.6} =$$

$$\% N_2 = 100 - 100 =$$

Always a dry flue gas analysis (*i.e.* is a volumetric analysis, which gases of exhaust containing water are quickly cooled in transit to condenses and sulphur dioxide in water so that the Orsat apparatus by difference quite correctly as no the CO_2 reading) are present in the apparatus. If the gas sample is recorder by a fan so that the sulphur dioxide would register manganese sulphate chemical ha

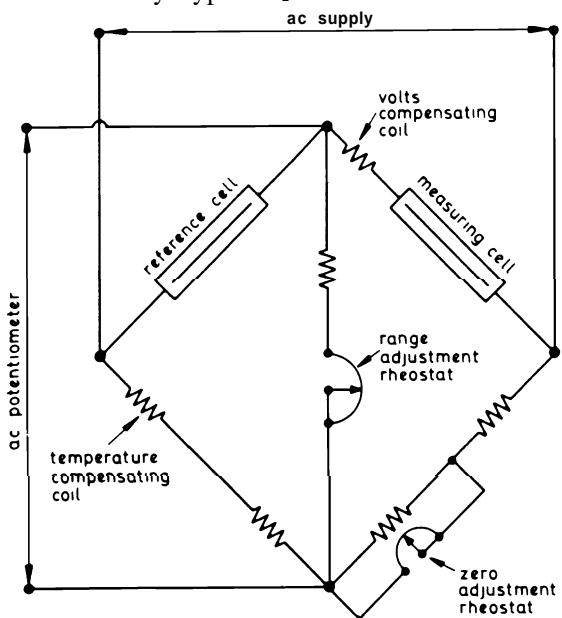
Chemical Absorption Type CO_2

Referring to Fig. 2.12, the CO_2 is absorbed in a porous pot and is absorbed. This creates a vacuum. The pressure on the H_2O gauge calibrated dire



CHEMICAL ABSORPTION TYPE CO_2 RECORDER
Fig. 2.12

Thermal Conductivity Type CO_2 Recorder



THERMAL CONDUCTIVITY TYPE CO_2 RECORDER
Fig. 2.13

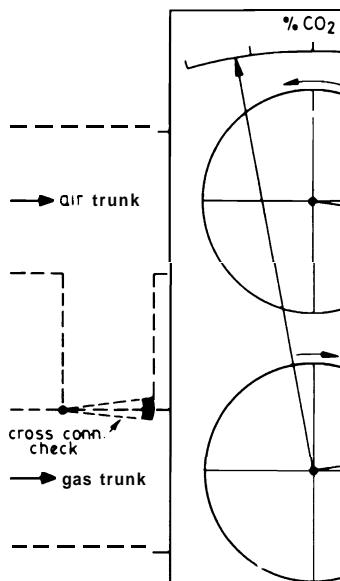
Referring to Fig. 2.13:
Approximate thermal conductivities:

$$\text{CO}_2 = 1, \text{H}_2\text{O} = 1, \text{CO} = 1$$

The sample enters via a filter and is removed as same conductivity as proportional to heat dissipation conductivity of gas in cell, per cent. Air is used in reference between gas sample and air, from viewpoint is CO_2 (as H_2O removed). This assumes no CO or H_2 , if the very small proportions) they will sample is first passed over a burner off before the reading.

Bridge electrical unbalance is measured the unbalance current is measured.

Mechanical Type CO_2 Recorder



MECHANICAL TYPE
Fig. 2.14

Referring to Fig. 2.14:

Density of flue gas is proportional to CO_2 content. Couple (torque) of impeller to vane is proportional to density of the medium in the narrow gap. The torques if both in air would balance. Therefore the CO_2 content increases the density, hence torque, the torque unbalance which is directly proportional to the CO_2 content is conveyed through the link mechanisms to the recorder scale or pen. Gas and air are arranged to be at equal total pressure, temperature and saturation. Stainless steel components are used and bearings are of the ball race type with spring loaded adjustments.

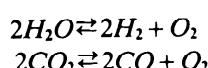
Clean Air Act

It is an offence to discharge smoke into the atmosphere, however in marine practice allowance is made for soot blowing, lighting up and breakdown. Emissions from a forced draught oil fired boiler furnace or an oil engine must not be longer than 10 minutes with dark smoke in the aggregate in any period of 2 hours and not more than 4 minutes continuous dark smoke except when soot blowing a water tube boiler.

The practical applications of smoke colour indications and combustion equipment effects are discussed later in this chapter. Smoke detectors are included in Chapter 8. There is an increasing use of R numbers and gas analysis indicators.

Dissociation

Most combustion reactions are reversible. At high temperatures the molecule bonds tend to disrupt and form molecules of the original form absorbing heat in the process.



There is an increase in volume which is resisted by high pressures so as pressure rises dissociation reduces.

CO_2 1 bar 0.1% dissociation at 1760 K, 6% at 2260 K, 55% at 3250 K.

CO_2 102 bar 0.01% dissociation at 1760 K, 0.1% at 2260 K, 17% at 3250 K.

H_2O 1 bar 0.04% dissociation at 1760 K, 2% at 2260 K, 28% at 3250 K.

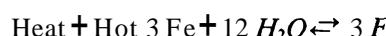
H_2O 102 bar 0.004% dissociation at 1760 K, 0.3% at 2260 K, 3% at 3250 K

These figures only relate to the mixtures and rich oxygen content considerably.

Once the temperature falls (post combustion) and heat is again evolved (non reversible split up under heat) reversible split up under heat.

In an I.C. engine dissociation occurs at high combustion temperatures and expansion occurs, which tends to adiabatic.

In a fire there is a danger that an extinguishing agent (say soot) could in fact feed the fire and for example the displacement which



goes to completion giving liberal amounts of heat which makes the combustion more rapid and dangerous called 'Rusting' fires. Although the reaction is reversible the main factor is decomposition and dissociation of steam vapour. However as dissociation is regarded as decomposition then the process is regarded as dissociation.

The Boiler Combustion Heat Balance

A typical analysis of the heat balance would be as in Table 2.4.

ITEM
IN FUEL (hcv)
IN STEAM
IN EXCESS AIR
IN DRY GASES
IN WET VAPOURS
IN UNBURNED GASES
IN RADIATION

TABLE 2.4

It can be seen that dry combustion gases, excess air and wet vapours are losses. Minimum excess air and lowest practical flue gas temperature (bearing in mind complete combustion and corrosion in uptakes, etc.) reduce these losses together with close attention to CO_2 content, i.e. to reduce unburned combustion gas loss.

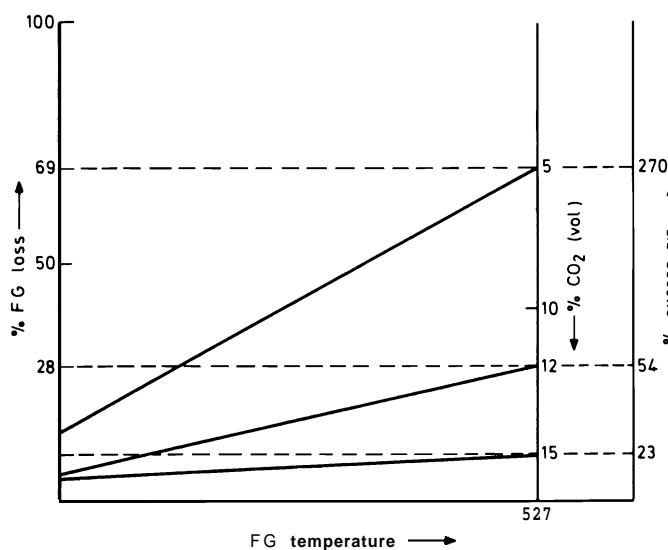


Fig. 2.15

The % flue gas (F.G.) loss can be seen to increase with flue gas temperature increase, increase with excess air increase and increase with fall in gas CO_2 content (see Fig. 2.15).

The condition of the gases leaving the funnel is often the best indication of combustion conditions. Black smoke due to insufficient air (among other things), white smoke due to too much air, blue smoke due to burning of lubricating oils (in Z.C. engines), yellow smoke indicative of high sulphur bearing fuels, etc.

However CO_2 content is often required to give the efficiency of combustion for a particular plant. Each plant however will have its own optimum figure and this may vary for boilers between 10 and 14% depending on many variables.

COMBUSTION

Good combustion is essential to a boiler, it gives the best possible amount of deposits upon the heat transfer surfaces. If the combustion is good, measured in some installations the % O_2 content of the gases.

If the % CO_2 content is correct the gases are in a non smoky condition, the fuel is correct. With correct % CO_2 required for combustion will be less heat loss by radiation, boiler efficiency since less heat is lost. If the small amount of excess air is increased then the % CO_2 content is increased.

Condition of burners, oil temperature, condition of air regulator, air temperature are all factors which affect combustion.

Burners. If these are dirty or the size of the atomisation of the fuel will be affected. If the burner is a jet, in various forms, rotary cup, etc.

Oil. If the oil is dirty it can foul the filter provided in the oil supply lines. Oil particles but filters can get damaged. The filter should be smaller than the filter plate.

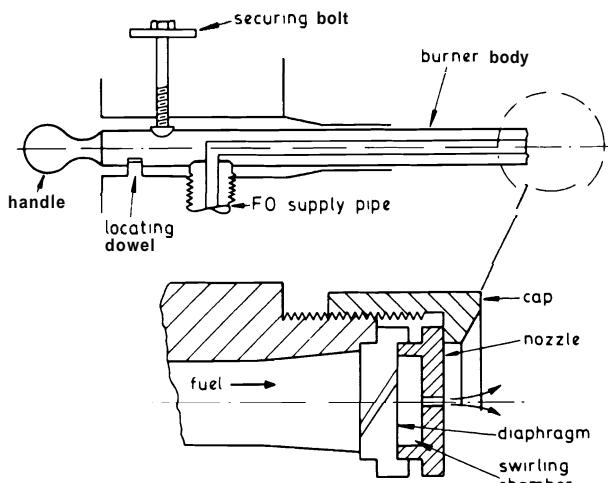
Water in the oil can affect combustion by burners being extinguished and a water film could also produce panning with spray defects.

If the oil temperature is too low it will be thick since its viscosity will be high. If the oil temperature is too high the burner flame will be excessive carbon deposits can then form. Spray defects, these could again damage adjacent refractory and damage the swirlers.

Oil pressure is also important since it affects the lengths of spray jets.

Air registers. Good mixing of the fuel particles with the air is essential, hence the condition of the air registers and their swirling devices are important, if they are damaged mechanically or by corrosion then the air flow will be affected. Pressure drops over the venturi of 25 mm water gauge give air speeds of about 20 m/s. Modern swirler type stabiliser designs give more efficient mixing with pressure drops up to 300 mm water gauge and air speeds up to 70 m/s.

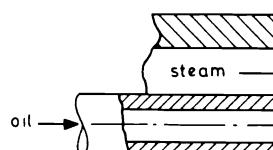
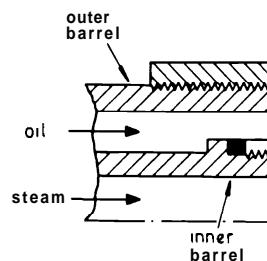
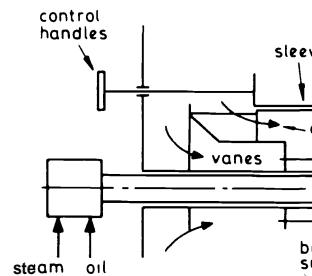
Air: The excess air supply is governed mainly by the air pressure and if this is incorrect combustion will be incorrect.



O.F. BURNER (WALLSEND-HOWDEN)
Fig. 2.16

Fig. 2.16 shows a simple pressure jet burner arrangement for a boiler (Wallsend-Howden). Preheated pressurised fuel is supplied to the burner tip which produces a cone of finely divided fuel particles that mix with the air supplied around the steel burner body into the furnace. A safety point of some importance is the oil fuel valve arrangement. It is **impossible** to remove the burner from the supporting tube unless the oil fuel is shut off, this greatly reduces risk of oil spillage in the region of the boiler front.

Fig. 2.17 shows the boiler front air register (top sketch) and tip (middle sketch) for the Y-jet steam atomising oil burner



STEAM ATOMISI
Fig.

which is finding increased favour for the following reasons:

1. Deposits are greatly reduced washing of the gas surfaces need as before (18 months or more b)
2. Atomisation and combust lower dew point gives reduced a
3. % CO₂ reading is increased

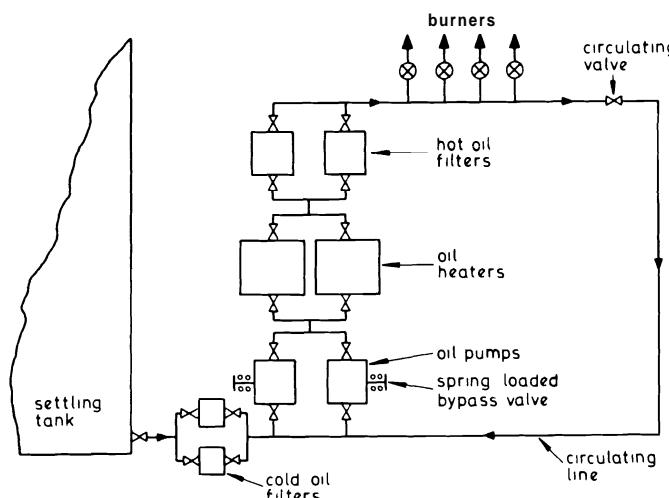
to 1% or below) hence the boiler efficiency is greatly improved (excess air lowered from 15% to under 5%).

4. Atomisation is excellent over a wide range of loads and the turndown ratio is as high as 20:1 (turn down ratio compares maximum and minimum flow rates).

5. With improved combustion, and turndown ratio, refractory problems are reduced.

The major disadvantage of this type of burner is that it uses steam—which means water and fuel—but the steam consumption in the latest type of steam atomiser is extremely small, less than 1% of the oil consumption at peak loads. Maximum oil pressure is 22 bar and steam is supplied at 12 bar, a steam control valve may be fitted to reduce the steam pressure at low loads.

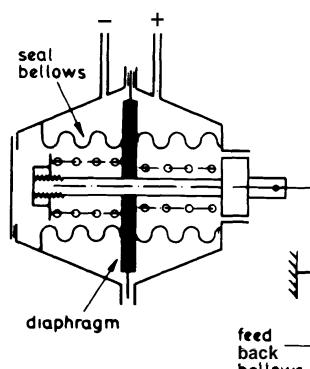
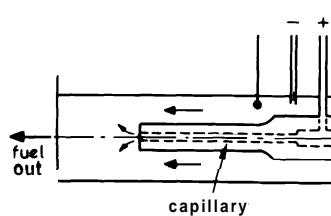
The ultrasonic atomiser (bottom sketch of Fig. 2.17) consists of an annular steam **nozzle**, a resonator and nozzle with holes. It gives high turn down ratio and low excess air. Ultrasonic energy wave vibration, 5-10 kHz, produced by high speed steam or air flow against the resonator edge ahead of the oil holes gives atomisation with very minute oil droplets.



BOILER O.F. SUPPLY SYSTEM

Fig. 2.18 illustrates a simple boiler O.F. supply system.

FUEL TEC



VISCOMETER AND DP

Viscosity Control

Consider the viscometer (Fig. 1) which consists of a constant speed electric motor driving a small constant quantity of oil (fully lubricated) through the fine capillary tube. As the flow is laminar, as distinct from turbulent, across the capillary tube is directly proportional to the differential pressure of the oil. This differential pressure, $P_1 - P_2$, is led from the viscometer by a transmitter ($D.P.$ cell).

Differential pressure from the diaphragm of the transmitter. It is caused by increased viscosity, cau-

beam to move to the left. The air inlet nozzle is closed in and air pressure builds up in the feedback bellows due to a relay (not shown on Fig. 2.19), supplying increased air pressure to the feedback bellows. Equilibrium occurs when the feedback force equals the originating force, under these conditions air escape is minimal. The feedback bellows pressure is the control output signal. Transmitter diaphragm chambers are filled with glycerine or silicone as oil would clog the parts.

The output signal is fed to a controller (and recorder) to control the steam flow to the oil fuel heater which will cause viscosity adjustment. The actuator has a piston and valve positioner. The controller has desired value setting and incorporates a reset (integral) action. This detail has been simplified on Fig. 2.19, lower sketch, so that the output pressure increase from the feedback bellows (due to viscosity increase) directly increases air pressure on a diaphragm valve to open up steam to the oil heater, to reduce fuel viscosity.

It is generally not good control practice to control one variable by means of another (this induces time delays and can cause appreciable offset) but it is sometimes unavoidable.

Note.

The Viscotherm unit works on a similar principle but there is no relay. The free end of the flapper is spring loaded, tending to push the flapper on to the nozzles. Movement of the balance beam left is arranged to close discharge and open supply (pressure increases). Movement right closes supply and opens discharge (pressure decreases). At equilibrium both nozzles are almost closed which minimises air wastage.

GASEOUS FUELS

There has been a steady increase in the number of 'parcel' tankers which carry a wide range of chemicals. Such vessels are expected to comply with DTp recommendations before an IMO 'Certificate of Fitness for the Carriage of Dangerous Chemicals in Bulk' is issued. Reactions with air, with water, between incompatible chemicals, and with self reactive chemicals can arise and the United States Coast Guard publish 'Bulk Liquid Chemicals; Guide to the Compatibility of Chemicals' — see Table 2.5. These vessels have special requirements relating to construction, materials, pumping systems, tank coatings, safety, etc. It is only proposed here to outline fuel technology aspects.

Chemicals Not on Chart.

The following chemicals form an unsafe combination with each reactivity group shown:

Carbon bisulfide: 1, 4, 19, 20, and epichlorohydrin.

Diphenyl methane diisocyanate, polymethylsilene polyphenyl isocyanate and tolylene diisocyanate: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 22, 23, 24, and carbon bisulfide.

Motor Fuel antiknock compounds: 1, 4, 5, 6, 7, 15, 19, and 20.

Nitropropane: 1, 2, 3, 4, 19, and 24.

1 Inorganic Acids	1														
2 Organic Acids	x	2													
3 Caustics	x	x	3												
4 Amines & Alkanolamines	x	x	x	4											
5 Halogenated Compounds	x	x	x	x	5										
6 Alcohols, Glycols & Glycol Ethers	x	x	x	x	x	6									
7 Aldehydes	x	x	x	x	x	x	7								
8 Ketones	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	8							
9 Saturated Hydrocarbons	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	9						
10 Aromatic Hydrocarbons	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	10					
11 Olefins	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	11				
12 Petroleum Oils	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	12				
13 Esters	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	13				
14 Monomers & Polymerizable Esters	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	14				

LNG (liquefied natural gas) is a cryogenic, clear, colourless liquid with methane as its main constituent (about 87% by volume), ethane (about 9%), propane (about 3%) and traces of butanes and pentanes. Boiling point is about -162°C and heating value of the gas is about 10 MJ/m^3 . Heat flow through insulation causes gradual evaporation which maintains pressure above atmospheric and prevents ingress of air.

LPG (liquid petroleum gas) includes such as propane, butane and ammonia. Boiling points are lower than for LNG.

Combustion Equipment

Vapourisation of the liquid (boil off about 0.2% per day) due to heat entry can be utilised as boiler or engine fuel, re-liquefied by suitable vapour pumps and compressors, or the adoption of both is possible. Utilisation as a dual fuel requires sophisticated instrumentation on the gas side and safety interlocks between the two fuel systems. The supply gas can vary appreciably in composition during the voyage and close monitoring of composition, dryness, etc. are necessary with facility for pressure variation, variable heat input etc. Complexities also arise due to differing air requirements, flame speeds, etc. but suitable plant is readily available and the gaseous fuel gives rapid, efficient and clean combustion.

Explosive and Toxic Vapour Concentration

Vessels should be equipped with duplicate combination instruments, one at least of which to be portable, and if instruments for one detection function only are provided then duplicates of each are necessary. Oxygen analysers, to indicate alarm when oxygen content falls below 18% (by volume) in a space, should also be provided.

Toxic Vapours

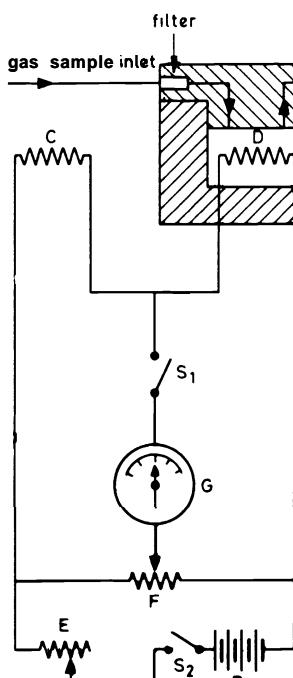
A number of chemicals have toxic limits well below their combustible **gas/air** concentration ratio and it is unsafe to enter spaces even if the gas concentration is below the Lower Explosive Limit (LEL). The Threshold Limit Value (TLV) gives the concentration of a substance in air in ppm which must not be exceeded if daily eight hour exposure over extended time periods is intended. Typical TLV values are Anilene (5), Carbon Tetrachloride (10), Benzene (25), Methanol (200) but the value can be very low, under 0.02, for certain chemicals. Detection

apparatus utilises input via a beaker reaction on selected chemicals.

Explosive Vapours

With low flash point products atmosphere lies between the creating the risk of explosion.

-49°C , Hexane -23°C , hydrocarbons), Benzene -11°C , Acetone -18°C (Ketone), Me Disulphide -30°C . Vapour pressure during isothermal isobaric evaporation liquid and vapour are in equilibrium fraction). LEL and HEL are a function of pressure (see also Chapter 8).



GAS EXPLOSION D
Fig.

Gas Explosion—Detector Meter (Fig. 2.20)

The instrument is first charged with fresh air from the atmosphere using the rubber aspirator bulb (A). On-off switch (S_2) is closed together with check switch (S_1) and the compensatory filament (C) and detector filament (D) allowed to reach steady state working temperature. The zero adjustment rheostat (F) can now be adjusted so that galvanometer (G) reads zero. Voltage is adjustable from battery (B) by the rheostat (E). Switch S_2 is now opened.

The instrument is now charged from the suspect gas space and while operating the bulb, the switch S_2 is again closed. If a flammable or explosive gas is present it will cause the detector filament to increase in temperature. This disturbs the bridge balance and a current flows. Galvanometer (G) can be calibrated so that the scale is marked to read '% of Lower Limit of Explosive Concentration of Gas'.

TEST EX**Class 3**

1. What is meant by the term calorific value of fuel oil?
2. Why is the flash point an important factor in lubricating oil, state how? Give one reason why the flash point of a fuel oil used in an engine might be lower than that of another.
3. When referring to fuel oils, what two numbers are often used?
4. Complete the following equations:
(i) $C + \frac{1}{2} O_2 \rightarrow$
(ii) $C + \frac{1}{2} O_2 \rightarrow$
(iii) $H_2 + \frac{1}{2} O_2 \rightarrow$

TEST EXAMPLES 2

Class 2

1. Sketch the apparatus used and describe the test to determine the following properties of oil:
 - (a) viscosity,
 - (b) calorific value.
2. (i) Suggest, with reasons, which of the following data is relevant and significant to the quality of fuel oil:
 viscosity, conradson number,
 pour point, total base number,
 closed flash point, octane number,
 open flash point, specific gravity.
 (ii) Define the significance of lower and higher calorific value in assessing the standard of liquid fuel.
3. (a) Specify, with reasons, where test samples should be drawn from a main lubricating oil system.

 Describe shipboard tests to determine:
 - (b) water content,
 - (c) acidity,
 - (d) suspended solids.
4. (a) Describe, with sketches, an instrument for indicating the carbon dioxide content of the gases in the uptake.
 (b) Explain the meaning and importance of the readings obtained.

TEST EX...

Class 1

1. With reference to fire or explosion, define each of the following properties:
 - (a) vapour pressure,
 - (b) explosive limits,
 - (c) flash point,
 - (d) density,
 - (e) fire point.
2. Define each of the following properties of lubricating oil:
 - (a) pour point,
 - (b) cracking point,
 - (c) flash point,
 - (d) auto-ignition point.
 State, with reasons, why these characteristics be of primary importance in assessing oil quality.
3. Explain the effects of different calorific value and viscosity on engine performance.
 Describe how engine performance need changing in order to burn light distillate fuel.
4. For a carbon dioxide recorder:
 - (a) state the principle of operation;
 - (b) state the action to be taken if the reading becomes unacceptably low;
 - (c) state the normal main reading;
 - (d) state how the accuracy of the instrument is adjusted.

$$\frac{9.81 \times H \times E}{A \times C} = \text{a constant}$$

also $\frac{A}{2} = \frac{\pi D^2}{4}$ approximately
the seating of one valve, in m²

$$\therefore \frac{\pi D^2}{2} \times C = \text{a constant.}$$

i.e. $D^2 C = \text{a constant.}$

CHAPTER 3

BOILERS AND ANCILLARIES

SAFETY VALVES

At least two safety valves have to be fitted to any one boiler. They may both be in the same valve chest, which must be separate from any other valve chest. The chest may be connected to the boiler with only one connecting neck.

The safety valves must never be less than 38 mm in diameter and the area of the valves can be calculated from the following formula:

$$C \times A \times P = 9.81 \times H \times E \quad (1)$$

Where H = Total heating surface in m².

,, E = Evaporative rate in kg of steam per m² of heating surface per hour.

,, P = Working pressure of safety valves in MN/m² absolute.

,, A = Aggregate area through the seating of the valves in mm².

C is a discharge coefficient whose value depends upon the type of valve.

$C = 4.8$ for ordinary spring loaded safety valves.

$C = 7.2$ for high lift spring loaded safety valves.

$C = 9.6$ for improved high lift spring loaded safety valves.

$C = 19.2$ for full lift safety valves.

$C = 30$ for full bore relay operated safety valves.

If we consider a boiler operating under fixed conditions of discharge rate (*i.e.* $H \times E$), pressure P then, from (1):

Hence if C is increased, it will reduce the lift of the valve more, thus improving the type of valve fit.

Typical valve lifts are as follows:
When $C = 4.8$ lift = 1.5 mm
,, $C = 7.2$ and 9.6 lift = 1.2 mm
,, $C = 19.2$ and 30 lift = 0.6 mm

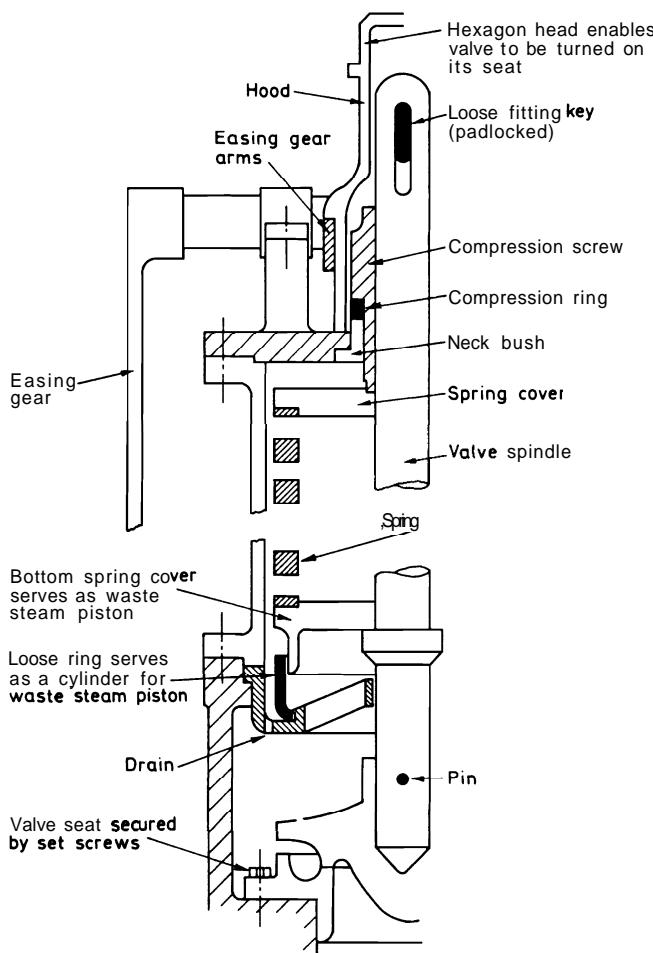
Where $D_1 > D_2 > D_3$ and D_1 , D_2 , D_3 are the diameters of the valves in mm.

Improved High Lift Type

For low pressure water tube Scotch and other varieties, the Cockburns improved high lift valve are shown in Fig. 3.1.

This valve has generally superimposed types of safety valve. The essential three safety valves are as given below:

Ordinary	High Lift
Winged valve No waste steam piston	Winged Waste No float



IMPROVED HIGH LIFT SAFETY VALVE
Fig. 3.1

Hence the improvements to the high lift safety valve are (1) Removal of valve wings, this improves waste steam flow and reduces risk of seizure (2) Floating ring or cylinder which reduces risk of seizure.

The three spring loaded safety valves, ordinary, high lift and improved high lift, all make use of a special shaped valve seat

and a lip on the valve which gives increasing downward force of in Fig. 3.2.

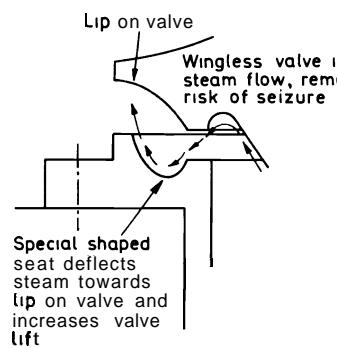


Fig.

For superheated steam the area of the valves is increased, the

$$A_s = A(1 + \frac{T_s}{T_0})$$

Where A_s = aggregate area to mm^2 for superheated steam,
 A = aggregate area to mm^2 for saturated steam,
 T_s = degrees of superheat.

A_s is obviously greater than the specific volume of the steam at the temperature at constant pressure required to avoid accumulation of volume per unit mass).

The area of the valve chest must be at least equal in cross section to the aggregate area A_s , determined by the area of the steam pipe and steam passage having a sectional area of at least:

- 1.1 x A for Ordinary, High lift and Improved high lift safety valves,
 2 x A for Full lift safety valves,
 3 x A for Full bore relay operated safety valves.

A drain pipe must be fitted to the lowest part of the valve chest on the discharge side of the valves and this pipe should be led clear of the boiler. The pipe must have no valve or cock fitted throughout its length. This open drain is important and should be regularly checked, for if it became choked, there is a possibility of overloading the valves due to hydraulic head, or damage resulting due to water hammer.

Materials

Materials used for the valves, valve seats, spindles, compression screws and bushes must be non-corrodible metal, since corrosion of any of these components could result in the valve not operating correctly. Often the materials used are: Bronze, stainless steel or monel metal, depending upon conditions. The valve chest is normally made of cast steel.

Maintenance and Adjustment

The makers figures relating to lip clearances, seating widths and wing clearances, etc., must be adhered to. All working parts should be sound, in alignment and able to function correctly.

When overhauling safety valves, care must be taken to ensure the parts are put back in their correct order. When dismantled, the parts are hung by a cord and sounded by gently tapping with a hammer. If they do not ring true, examine for faults. Check drains and easing gear.

Adjustment or setting of safety valves of the direct spring loaded type: With compression rings removed, screw down compression screws, raise boiler pressure to the required blow off pressure. Screw back compression screw until valve blows, then screw down the compression screw carefully, tapping the valve spindle downwards very lightly whilst doing so, until the valve returns to its seat and remains closed.

When set, split compression rings have to be fitted, then hoods, keys, padlocks and easing gear. Finally check and operate easing gear to ensure it is in good working order.

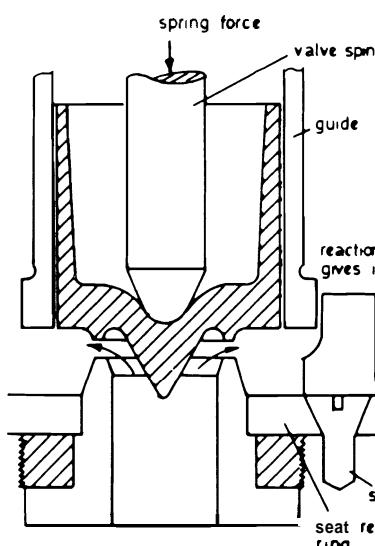
For a multi-boilered installation, raise all the boiler pressures to the required blow off pressure, make sure the boilers are connected up, then proceed as described above, setting each valve in turn.

Accumulation of Pressure Test

Classification societies require that all safety valves must be subjected to a pressure test to ensure the valve has the correct capacity for the boiler. To conduct the test, steam outlets to and from the boiler must be closed and maximum firing rate arranged so that the pressure must not exceed 10 per cent above the rated pressure. Duration of test (water permitted) is 10 minutes for cylindrical boilers and 7 minutes for vertical tube boilers. In the case of water tube boilers the test is carried out on superheaters or economisers.

Full Lift Safety Valve

The full lift safety valve is a direct acting valve which incorporates a waste steam pipe. The valve spindle is guided operating inside the guide acts as a reaction gear.



FULL LIFT SAFETY VALVE
(for pressure testing)

Details of spring, compression nut, easing gear and valve chest etc., have been omitted for convenience since they are somewhat similar to that for the improved high lift valve.

The operation of the valve is as follows: When the valve has lifted a small amount the escaping steam pressure can then act upon the full area of the valve, this increases the lift until the lower edge of the valve just enters the guide. At this point the reaction pressure generated by the escaping steam with the guide causes the valve to lift further until it is fully open. When the valve is fully open the escape area is said to be equal to the area of supply through the seating.

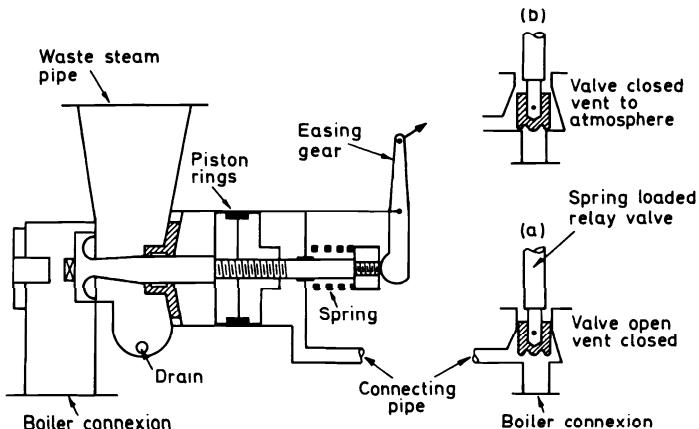
Full Bore Safety Valve

Fig. 3.4 is a diagrammatic arrangement of a full bore relay operated safety valve suitable for water tube boilers whose working pressure is in excess of 21 bar [2.1 MN/m²].

The operation of the valve is as follows: When the boiler pressure reaches the desired blow off pressure the relay valve lifts, blanking as it does so a series of ports leading to the atmosphere (see Fig. 3.4a).

Steam is then admitted via the connecting pipe, into the cylinder of the main valve, and since the area of piston is about twice that of the valve, the valve opens against boiler pressure.

When the boiler pressure falls, the relay valve closes, uncovering as it does so the ports above it (see Fig. 3.4b). This



FULLBORE RELAY OPERATED SAFETY VALVE
Fig. 3.4

communicates the cylinder of the valve with the atmosphere and the boiler pressure drops rapidly.

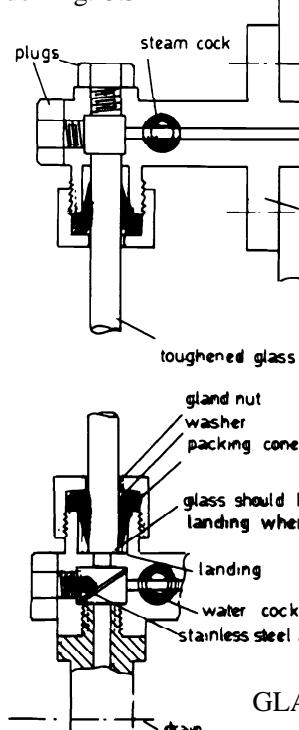
This type of valve is suitable for use where the greater the boiler pressure the greater the saving.

The main valve spring assists the closing of the valve ensures that the valve will be closed quickly.

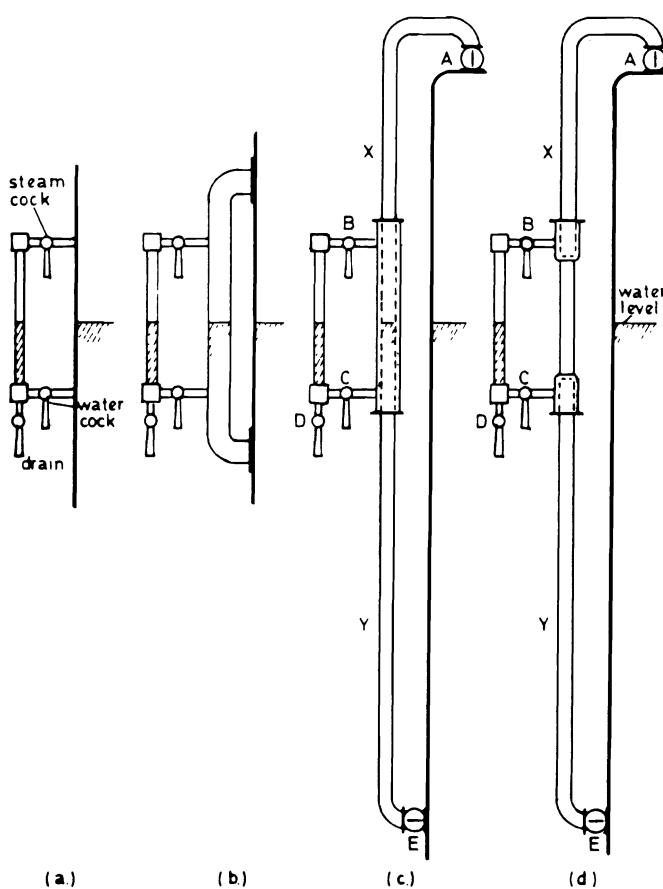
If the valve is to be used for a superheated steam system or for a water tube boiler the main valve may be sometimes made common to the main steam drum. In such cases, if the valve is to be taken separately from the main steam drum, this arrangement should be adopted to prevent the valve piston and cylinder to become separated.

DIRECT WATER LINE

Consider Fig. 3.5



This glass water gauge is fitted directly to the boiler shell and is suitable for boilers whose working pressure does not exceed 34.5 bar [3.45 MN/m²].



WATER LEVEL INDICATORS
Fig. 3.6

Fig. 3.6a

Blowing Procedure

- (1) Close steam and water cocks. Should then blow out of the cocks are not leaking.
- (2) Open and close water cock. Connexion to the boiler is checked.
- (3) Open and close steam cock. Connexion to the boiler is checked.
- (4) Close the drain.
- (5) Open the water cock. Water flows up the top of the gauge glass.
- (6) Open the steam cock and then the level of the water in the

If when (5) is reached the water does not flow up the gauge glass, then close the water cock connexion to the boiler. Feed water into the boiler.

If when the water cock has been closed the top of the gauge glass and then opened again the water flows down and out between the water cock connexion and the bottom of the gauge glass. In this case it is necessary to clean out the boiler.

If after (5) when the glass is opened and the water in the glass is above the steam cock and there is a danger of priming, do not put water into it.

Fig. 3.6b

This glass water gauge arrangement is similar to Fig. 3.6a except that the gauge is connected to the boiler. The pipe has plugs to the bottom, which can be removed in order to clean out the pipe.

The blowing procedure for this

Fig. 3.6c

These fittings 3.6c and 3.6d respectively, are convenient for keeping the gauge glass clear of other boiler fittings etc., so that the gauge glass can

personnel. In addition, by shutting off the terminal cocks on the boiler they should enable the water gauge steam and water cocks to be overhauled whilst the boiler is steaming.

To determine whether the pipes and terminal cocks are clear a blowing procedure sometimes referred to as cross blowing is adopted. With reference to Fig. 3.6c: Cocks A, C and D open, cocks B and E closed, this checks that A, pipe X and the column are clear.

Then with cocks E, B and D open, cocks A and C closed, checks that E and pipe Y are clear.

Next blow the water gauge glass as described for 3.6a with A and E open.

Fig. 3.6d

In this case there is no direct communication between the pipes X and Y hence to check whether the pipes and cocks are clear the blowing procedure employed for 3.6a should be used.

With reference to Figs 3.6c and d. If either of the steam cocks A and B are choked then water will gradually fill the gauge glass due to the steam above the water condensing.

If either of the water cocks are choked water will again fill the glass due to the steam condensing in the upper connexions.

When a water gauge of the types 3.6c and d are blown through and all connexions are clear and all cocks are in operative order the water level in the glass will be the water level in boiler. However, after a period of time (which depends upon conditions e.g. ventilation arrangements, etc.) it will normally be found that the water level in the glass will have fallen. This is due to (1) The cooling of the water in the pipe Y, thereby increasing its density. (2) The reduction of condensation of steam in the pipe X, which is caused by an accumulation of air in the upper connexions due to steam condensing.

Hence when blowing through a water gauge of either of the types 3.6c and d check the water level in the glass before blowing with the water level in the glass immediately after blowing, and the difference in levels must then be taken into account whilst operating the boiler.

When any gauge glass fitting is in operation the cock handles should be vertical. If they were arranged horizontally and the gauge is in operation, vibration effects may cause the cock handle to gradually tend to take up a vertical position thereby closing the cock in the case of steam and water cocks, and opening in the case of the drain. (The steam and water cocks for 3.6d cannot be used as test cocks).

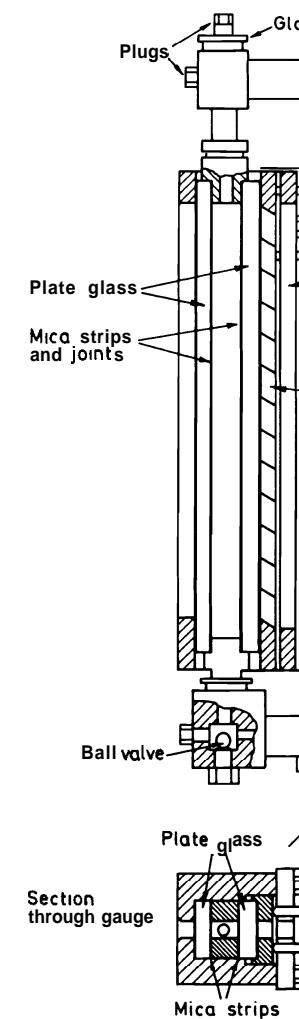


PLATE TYPE OF
Fig.

The relation of handle position to correct working position is also important from another aspect, since if the handle became over strained in relation to the plug body of the cock, the handle may be in the correct working position but the cock may be closed.

It is normal to fit extended controls for the cocks so that the gauge can be blown through from a remote and safe position.

A protective glass arrangement should be provided which partly surrounds the gauge glass to prevent injury to personnel in the event of gauge glass breakage under steam. A steam restrictor and water shut off ball valve (see Fig. 3.5) are sometimes incorporated with the fitting to reduce the severity of breakage.

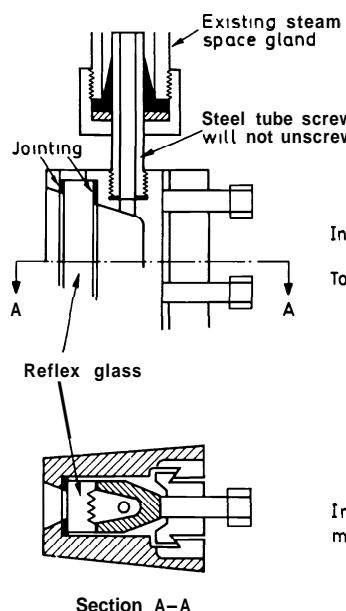
Care must be taken when renewing a gauge glass to ensure that it is of the correct length in relation to the fittings. If it was too long, blockage of the steam connexion may occur due to accumulation of deposits around the top of the glass. If the glass is too short and is not fully inserted into the packing, the packing may work its way over the open end of the gauge glass causing a blockage.

Fig. 3.7 is a plate type of gauge glass suitable for high pressures of up to 79 bar [7.9 MN/m²]. The toughened soda lime glass plate is capable of withstanding severe mechanical stress and temperature but it has to be protected from the solvent action of the boiler water. This is achieved by interposing between glass and steam joint, a mica strip so that the water does not come into contact with the glass. Light is deflected up through the louvre plate and is reflected downwards by the water meniscus which then shows up as a bright spot.

Fig. 3.8 shows the Klinger reflex glass that can be fitted new with its own glands and cocks or can be installed into existing gauge cock fittings. Steel tubes, which have spanner flats, enable the gauge to be fitted in place of a glass tube without having to dismantle the cocks. In operation, the light is reflected from the steam space and absorbed in the water space thus giving a bright and dark strip respectively whose contrast can be clearly seen at a distance. No protective glass is required but the reflex glass is only suitable for pressures up to 20.6 bar since as the pressure and temperature increases the solvent action of the water increases.

Remote Water Level Indicators

There are various types of remote water level indicators. Their



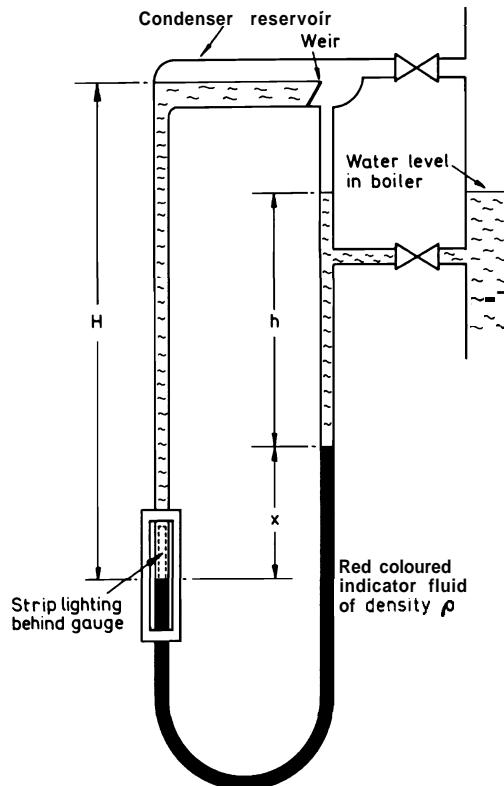
Section A-A

KLINGER REE
(for steam pressure
Fig.

purpose is to bring the water level position in the engine or boiler to be seen. These indicators when fitted to the normal statutory requirements of boilers.

Fig. 3.9 is a diagrammatic arrangement of a water level indicator. The lower part contains a red coloured indicating fluid and has a density greater than that of water. The equilibrium condition for the density of the indicating fluid is:

If the water level in the boiler increased and H must therefore increase the water in the condenser reservoir to steam.



REMOTE WATER LEVEL INDICATOR
Fig. 3.9

If the water level in the boiler rises, h will be increased, x will be reduced and H must therefore be reduced. Water will therefore flow over the weir in the condenser reservoir in order to maintain the level constant.

A strip light is fitted behind the gauge which increases the brightness of the red indicating fluid, which enables the operator to observe at a glance from a considerable distance whether the gauge is full or empty.

Fig. 3.10 is another type of remote water level indicator. In this case the operating fluid is the boiler water itself. The operation of the gauge is as follows:

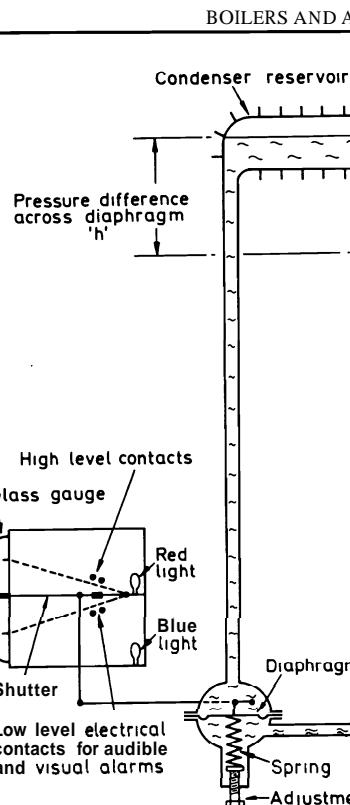


Fig. 3.10

If we consider a falling water difference across the diaphragm, the diaphragm to deflect downwards is transmitted by means of a link to the shutter which in turn moves causing an increase in the amount of blue colour seen.

It will be clearly understood that then the red will be reduced and

Separating the blue and red colour can clearly be seen from a considerable black band which moves with separation of the two colours.

An adjustment screw and spring difference in diaphragm load t

positioning of the shutter and band in relation to the reading of a glass water gauge fitted direct to the boiler is possible.

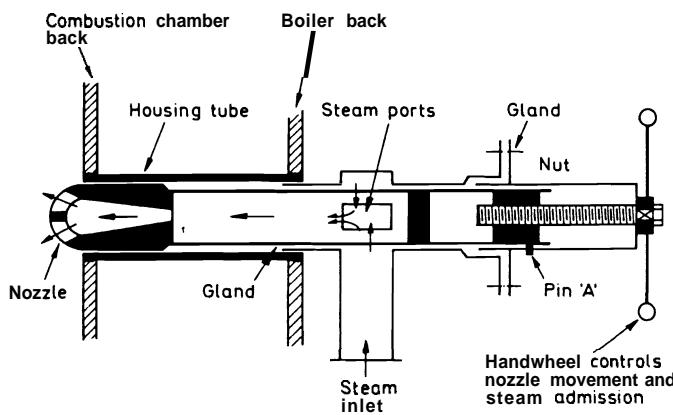
High and low level alarms of the visual and audible types can be easily incorporated with the instrument. Some form of make and break electrical contacts are usually provided for this purpose.

OTHER BOILER MOUNTINGS

Soot Blowers

Between periodic boiler cleaning the gas surfaces of the boiler tubes should be kept as clean as practicable. To facilitate this, soot blowers, steam or air operated, are often fitted. They enable the tube surfaces to be cleaned of loose sooty deposits rapidly without shut down of the boiler.

Fig. 3.11 shows a typical soot blower arrangement fitted to a Scotch type boiler.



SOOT BLOWER
Fig. 3.11

With steam supplied to the blower and the steam supply line thoroughly drained. Rotation of the blower hand wheel causes the supply tube and nozzle to move towards the combustion chamber. Nozzle and tube are rotated as they move inwards by means of a scroll cut in the nut and a stationary pin A in the body assembly that runs in the scroll. Ports in the tube

communicate the steam supply line.

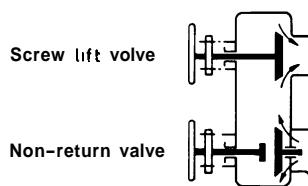
The arrangement enables rotation of the tube and nozzle to be discharged to the tube side of the boiler.

When not in use, the retractable tube is withdrawn within the housing tube and the nozzle is closed to prevent overheating, which could cause damage to the nozzle.

Too frequent use of the blower will cause wastage of the tube and nozzle. It is recommended that the blower regularly even if the boiler is not in use, without steam supply to the blower, to keep it in operable order.

Feed Check Valves

Feed check valves for main feed pipes are normally of the double shut off type, diagrammatically in Fig. 3.12.



DIAGRAMMATIC ARRANGEMENT OF FEED CHECK VALVE
Fig. 3.12

The double shut off arrangement is required to allow the feed check valve to be overhauled without closing the boiler. This is since if the screw down valve is shut off, the boiler will be isolated from the feed line. This can only be done when the boiler is opened up.

The non-return valve is necessary to prevent water from flowing back through the line if a joint in the line blows, then the water will be discharged out of the feed line.

risk of leakage into the feed line whilst it is under repair and the boiler is steaming.

BOILERS

Waste Heat Boilers

With Diesel machinery the amount of heat carried away by the exhaust gases varies **between** 20 to 25 per cent of the total heat energy supplied to the engine. Recovery of some of this heat loss to the extent of 30 to 50 per cent is possible by means of an exhaust gas boiler or water heater.

The amount of heat recovered from the exhaust gases depends upon various factors, some of which are: Steam pressure, temperature, evaporative rate required, exhaust gas inlet temperature, mass flow of exhaust gas, condition of heat exchange surfaces, etc.

Composite boilers are often used in conjunction with Diesel machinery, since if the exhaust gas from the engine is low in temperature due to slow running of the engine and reduced power output, the pressure of the steam can be maintained by means of an oil fired furnace. Steam supply can also be maintained with this type of boiler when the engines are not in operation.

It is not proposed to deal with all the various types and makes of waste heat boilers in detail, since for **DTp** (E.K. General) written examination requirements, only a brief outline of the basic principles involved is generally required.

The Cochran boiler whose working pressure is normally of the order of 7 bar (0.7 MN/m²) is available in various types and arrangements, some of which are:

Single pass composite, *i.e.* one pass of the exhaust gases and two uptakes, one for the oil fired system and one for exhaust system. Double pass composite, *i.e.* two passes for the exhaust gases and two uptakes, one for the oil fired system and one for the exhaust system. Double pass exhaust gas, no oil fired furnace and a single uptake. Double pass alternatively fired, *i.e.* two passes from the furnace for either exhaust gases or oil fired system with one common uptake.

The material used is good quality low carbon boiler steel plate. The furnace is pressed out of a single plate and is seamless.

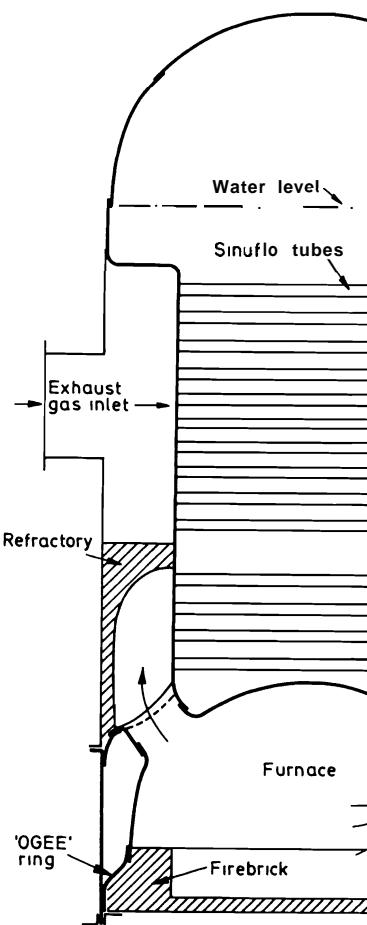
Connecting the bottom of the furnace to the boiler shell plating is a seamless 'Ogee' ring. This ring is pressed out of thicker plating than the furnace, the greater thickness is

BOILERS AND A

necessary since circulation is it elsewhere in the boiler and deposit and the boiler shell plating.

Hand hole cleaning doors circumference of the boiler in the

The tube plates are supported



DIAGRAMMATIC ARRANGEMENT
COMPOSITE COCHRAN BOILER
Fig. 3.11

gusset stays, the gusset stays supporting the flat top of the tube plating.

Tubes fitted, are usually of special design (Sinuflo), being smoothly sinuous in order to increase heat transfer by baffling the gases. The wave formation of the tubes lies in a horizontal plane when the tubes are fitted, thus ensures that no troughs are available for the collection of dirt or moisture. This wave formation does not in any way affect cleaning or fitting of the tubes.

Fig. 3.14 shows the method of attachment of the furnace and 'Ogee' ring for Cochran and Clarkson welded boilers, welded to Class 1 Fusion Welding Regulations.

'Tell tale' holes drilled at equal intervals in the boiler shell enable leakage between the shell to be detected.

Also in Fig. 3.14 are shown the methods of manufacture and arrangement of the tubes to increase velocity and turbulence to be increased so that more heat is extracted and tubes maintained.

The Sinuflo tube is fitted to Cochran and Clarkson Spanner boilers and the plain twisted metal strip tube retarder is common to a wide range of cases main tank type boilers.

Cochran Boiler (Spheroid)

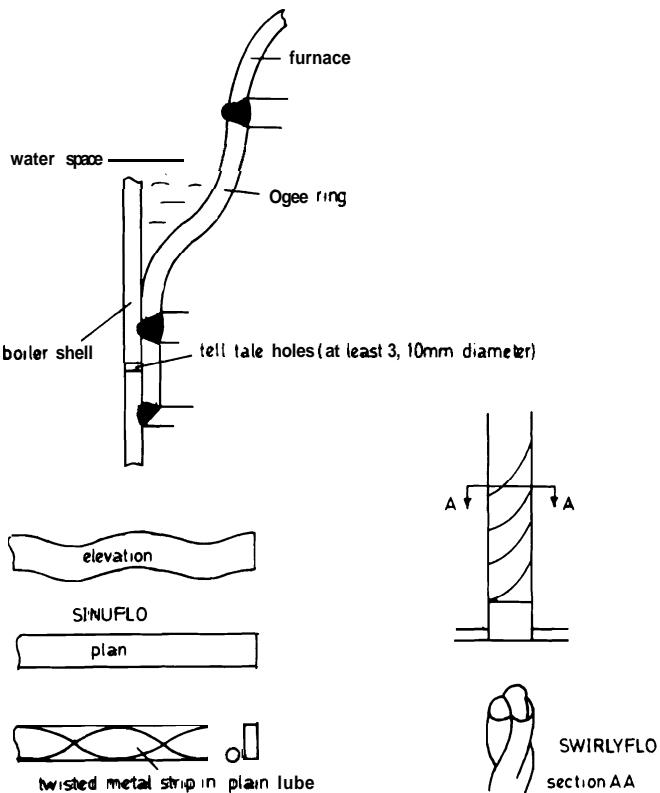


Fig. 3.14

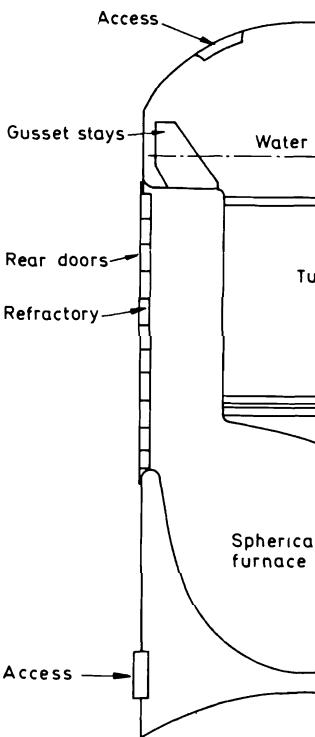


Fig. 3.14

This **auxiliary** boiler has an all welded shell, a seamless spherically shaped furnace and small bore tubes. The advantages of this boiler compared to older designs are:

1. Increased steam output for the same size, mass and cost of earlier designs.
2. Increased radiant heating surface.
3. Efficient and robust ($\eta \geq 80\%$).
4. Easy to maintain.
5. No furnace brickwork required—apart from burner quarls.
6. With small tubes, fitted with retarders, gas velocity and turbulence are increased. This gives cleaner tubes and better heat transfer.

The boiler can be supplied in various sizes ranging from:

	diameter	height	heating surface	pressure	evaporative rate
1.	1.448 m	3.734 m	26 m ²	17.2 bar	995 kg/h
2.	2.591 m	6.325 m	120.8 m ²	10.3 bar	4550 kg/h

Cochran Exhaust Gas Boiler

This consists of all welded tube and wrapper plates made of good quality boiler steel. Tubes are made of electric resistance welded mild steel and are swelled at one end and expanded into tube plate. The boiler is provided with the usual mountings: blow down, feed checks, gauge glass, safety valves, steam outlet and feed control, etc. If it is to be run as a drowned unit (Fig. 3.16a) then the mountings would be modified to suit.

Scotch Boiler

A number of Scotch boilers are still in use today as main and auxiliary units. Few, if any, are being manufactured.

Plain low carbon boiler steel of good quality having an ultimate tensile strength between 430 to 540 MN/m² is used for the construction. All flanged plating must be heated after flanging to 600°C and then allowed to cool slowly in order to stress relieve, stays which have their ends upset must undergo a similar process.

Furnaces are corrugated for strength, the arrangement also gives increased heating surface area as compared to a plain furnace of similar dimensions. Various types of corrugation are

available, but the suspension baffle for a given working pressure and thickness can be less than for hence heat transfer will be improved.

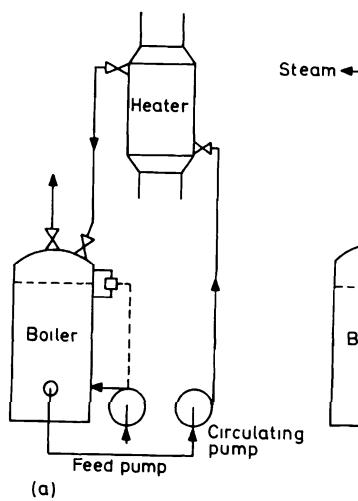
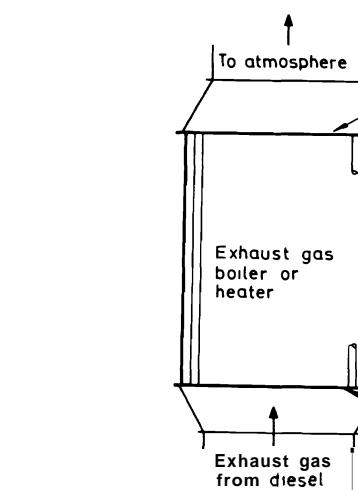
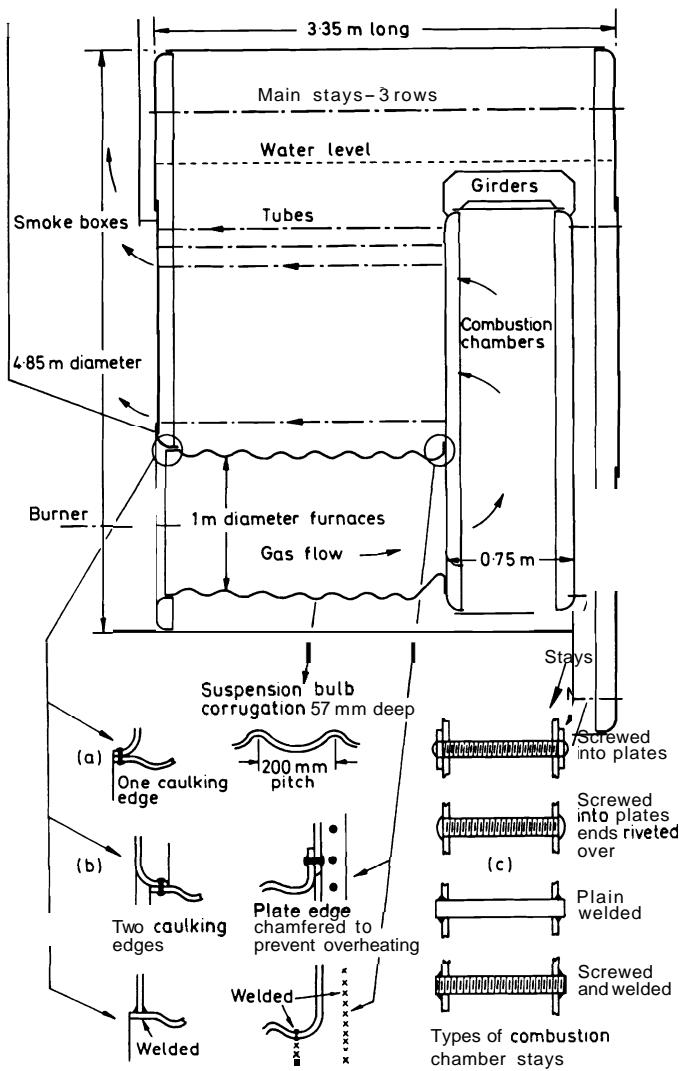
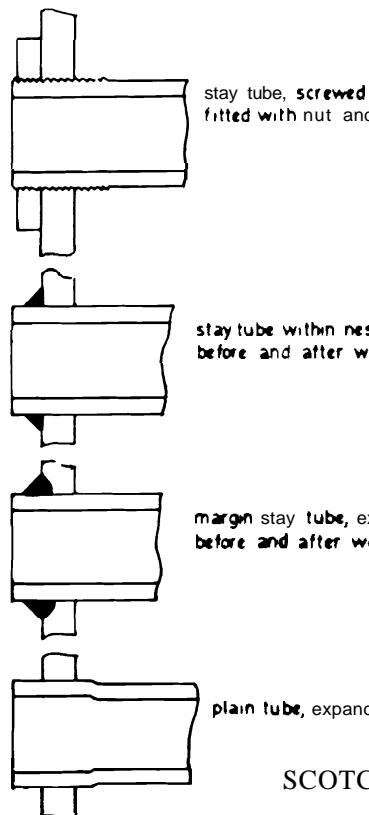


Fig. 3

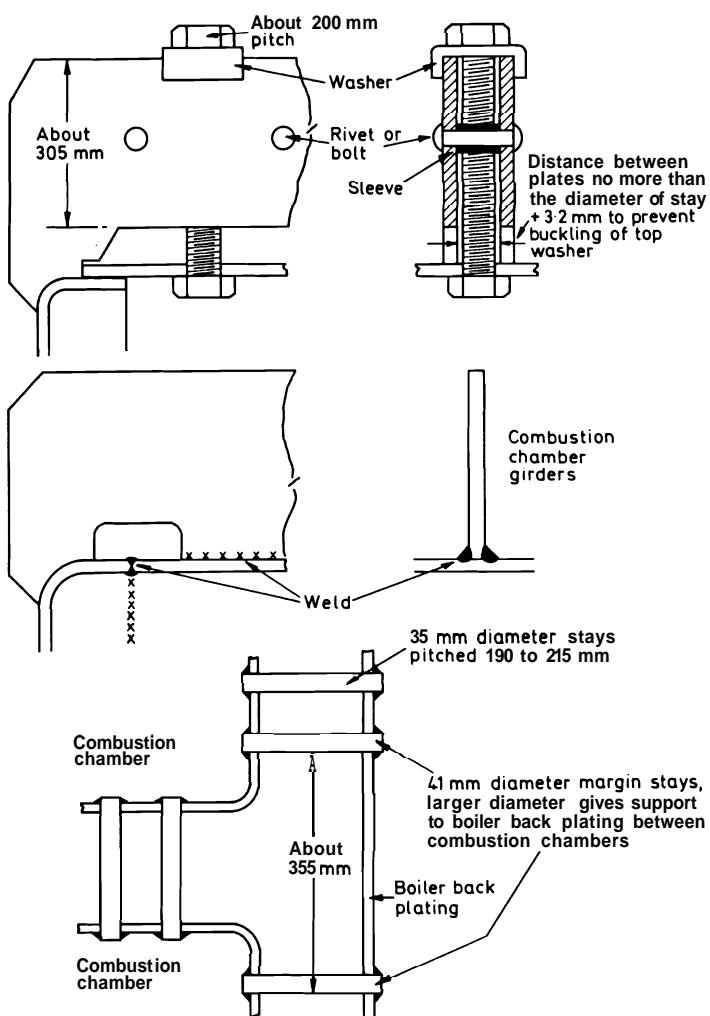


SCOTCH BOILER
Fig. 3.17



Furnace front attachments for renewal could be any of those shown. The arrangement, which compares renewal but has only one caulking edge, is obviously a more water tight arrangement than the two caulking edges, but re-caulking is more difficult in this case.

The furnaces must be so arranged that furnace renewal can be carried out with minimum inconvenience. With this object in view, their flange, which is connected to the boiler plate, so designed that by suitable arrangement the stay tubes can pass through the opening in the flange.



SCOTCH BOILER

Fig. 3.19

All flat plating and nearly flat plates of the combustion chambers are given adequate support. Tubes, stays and girders serve this purpose. (Figs. 3.18 and 3.19).

Boiler tubes, in addition to connecting the combustion chamber to boiler water, support the tube plate and combustion chamber.

Plain tubes are expanded into the tube plate. The plain tubes usually extend about one-third of their length which facilitates driving back a tube when it becomes loose.

Stay tubes, within the tube plate, have the same outside diameter as plain tubes but are thicker again with the same bore. They are used for the boiler.

Stays for combustion chamber girders and boiler end plates are shown in Fig. 3.17. Stays to be found at the bottom of the boiler shell giving support to the boiler end plates and bottom of the boiler are shown in Fig. 3.18. They are about 66 mm diameter.

Combustion chamber girders and combustion chamber may be connected by either of both of which are shown in Fig. 3.19.

Boiler end plating may be arranged as shown in Fig. 3.17 or in two pieces, one being thicker than the lower. Either may be used.

The longitudinal seams of the boiler are riveted double strap butt joints. The longitudinal seams are welded in Scotch boilers, certain classifications being required to be fulfilled, these include annealing, tensile, bend and impact tests and macrographic examination. The stay tubes are welded to the shell plating.

Manholes cut into the shell are compensated by means of a cover which is riveted or welded in place.

Reference has been made to the description of the Scotch boiler construction. There are riveted types in use today, but this type has been superseded by the welded types.

SOME DEFECTS, CAUSES AND REPAIRS FOR AUXILIARY BOILERS

Furnaces

Defects that could occur to a furnace are: deformation, wastage and cracking.

Deformation

With cylindrical furnaces, this can be determined by sighting along the furnace or by use of a lath swept around the furnace or by furnace gauging.

The causes of deformation are: scale, oil, sludge or poor circulation, resulting in overheating of the furnace and subsequent distortion.

Local deformations could be repaired by cutting through the bulge, heating and pressing back the material into the original shape, and then welding. By cutting through the bulge prior to heating and pressing facilitates flow of metal during pressing. Alternatively, the defective portion could be cut out completely and a patch welded in its place.

If the furnace is badly distorted then the only repair possible may be renewal.

A weakened furnace may be repaired temporarily by pressing back the deformation and welding plate stiffeners circumferentially around the furnace on the water side.

Wastage

The causes of wastage are corrosion and erosion. If it is great in extent then renewal of the furnace may be the only solution. Localised corrosion could be dealt with by cutting out the defective portion of furnace and welding in a new piece of material.

Cracks

Circumferentially around the lower part of the connecting necks cracks may be found. These cracks are caused by mechanical straining of the furnace and the defect is generally referred to as grooving.

If the groove is shallow compared to plate thickness (depth can be ascertained by drilling or by ultrasonic detection) it is usual to cut out the groove and weld. However, if the grooving is deep the material is cut right through and welded from both sides.

Cracks, due to overheating, have occurred, these must be made above.

Combustion Chamber

The defects which can occur similar to those that can occur

Deformation

In addition to the causes of must be added that of water shortage top would be the first place to show distortion due to water shortage.

Local deformations can be removed by cutting through the defective portion of plate, general heating of stay or tubes, and welding in a new piece of plate through the centre of stay or tube. This reduces the risk of contraction stresses.

Slight distortion of combustion chamber plating could occur due to the condition, this defect is common. In the stays or tubes no repair work is essential to keep the surfaces free from further distortion.

Badly distorted combustion chamber

Another cause of combustion chamber corrosion of stays or tubes leads to the plating. The remedy is to renew the stays or tubes.

Wastage

Leakages past tubes, stays and supports cause wastage. If the wastage is great the portion of plate can be built up and renewed where required. If extensive areas of plating should be cut out and renewed where required.

Cracks

These can develop due to mechanical straining.

Likely places are, the landing plates and seams on the fire side due to

only), and impairing of heat transfer, and around tubes and stays due to straining of the boiler and or scale build up around the necks of the tubes or stays.

If the cracks in the seams are not extensive and they are dry they may be left. However, if they are extensive they should be cut out, filled in by welding, and have their rivets renewed.

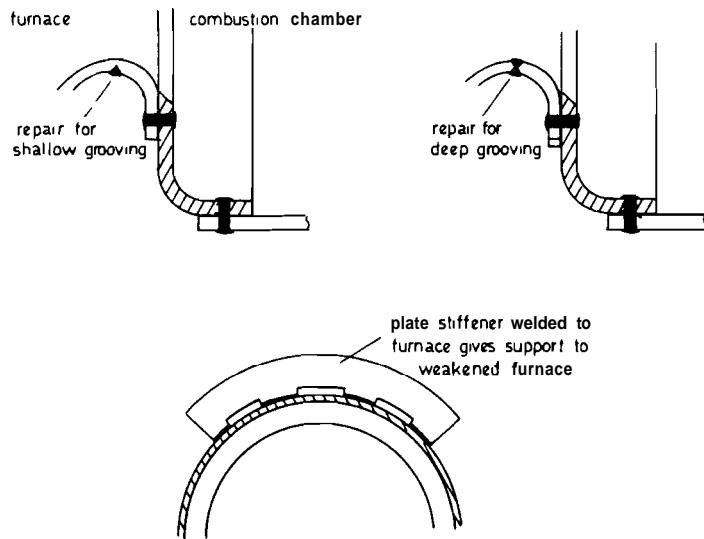


Fig. 3.20

Radial grooving of the plating around stays and or tubes if not extensive can be repaired by cutting out the crack and filling in with welding. If the grooving is extensive the defective portion of plate should be cut out and a new portion welded in its place.

Shell and End Plates

The principal defects to which the shell and end plating may be subjected are wastage and cracking.

Wastage

This generally occurs at places of leakages, such as riveted seams and boiler mountings.

Leakages at seams and between boiler mountings and shell in the water region of the boiler lead to salt deposition due to water flashing off to steam, leaving behind as it does so some of the

salts it contained. These deposits are cleaned away and the plating is protected from further wastage and cracking.

The cracking that could occur due to embrittlement, this is dealt with later.

Repairs for wastage may be by renewals. If the wastage is not excessive, or renewal of the plating tends to be excessive.

If seam leakage is slight and the plating is sound after examination the material is fit for use. If the repair necessary may be re-caulked. This is taken however, to ensure over-tightening of the joints. This can lead to lifting of the plates. Deposits could accumulate between the plates.

Cracking

In addition to the cracking due to embrittlement, grooving of the plating may occur especially where the furnace flue gases take the furnace.

Repairs for grooving are often made by renewals of the affected portion of the plating.

Repairs for cracks due to embrittlement or renewals of the affected portion of the plating. If the main seam of a boiler is extensively cracked, this is as drastic as boiler renewal.

Hydraulic Test

When repairs have been carried out the boiler must be subject to a hydraulic test.

Before testing, the boiler must be cleaned and foreign matter must be removed from the interior of the boiler and the repairs should be checked.

Any welded repair should be tested under pressure to see if any faults develop. This will reveal any stresses that may be in the welds, such as those in the form of cracks.

The boiler safety valves have to be removed and the boiler mountings, apart from the feed pump, must be removed. The boiler can then be filled with clean water.

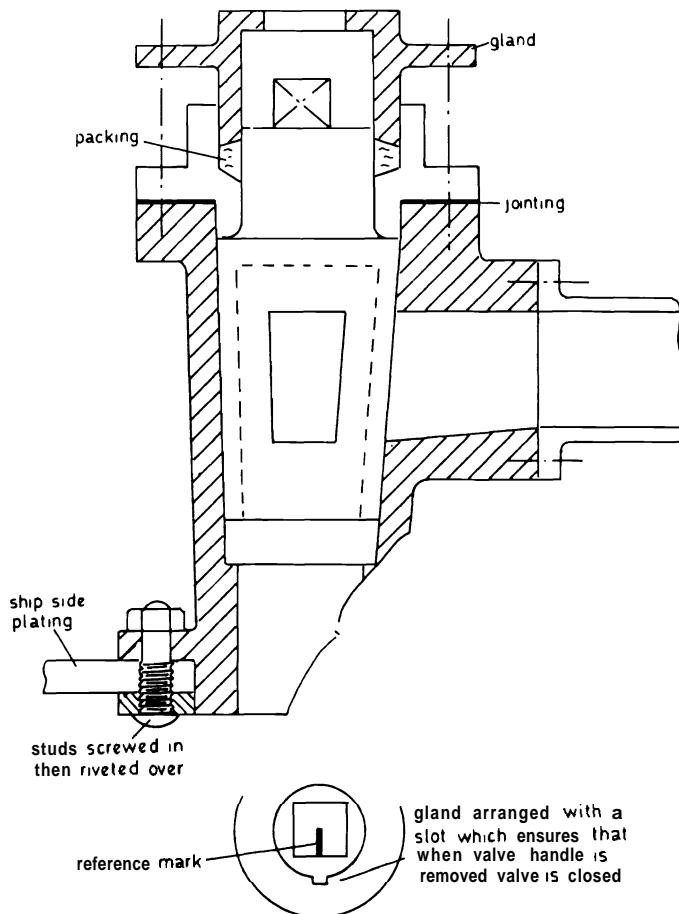
Using a hydraulic pump unit the boiler can be tested either direct or to the feed pump.

applied. The testing pressure is normally $1\frac{1}{2}$ times the working pressure, applied for at least 30 minutes.

With the boiler under pressure it can now be examined for leakages and faults. Weld repairs should again be given repeated blows with a hammer to see if they are sound.

Blowing Down and Opening Up a Boiler

If repairs or an examination of the boiler have to be carried out it will have to be emptied. It would always be better, if time



SHIP SIDE BLOW DOWN VALVE
Fig. 3.21

is available, to allow the boiler to cool down, then pump the water out, shut down, then pump the water back in again to avoid sudden shock cooling due to the water expanding.

If the boiler has to be blown down as quickly as possible after shut down, the ships side blow down cock must be opened. The blow down valve on the boiler can be gradually closed. The operator has some measure of control over the rate of blow down. For example the external blow down valve on a ship's side was in a corroded condition and caused the boiler blow down valve to stick. This caused the blow down pipe and a possible explosion. When engaged in opening up the ship's side blow down valve arrangement of a ship's side blow down valve, the cock must be in the open position. This is a measure to ensure that the cock does not stick.

Our senses tell us when the blow down valve is fully open, the noise level falls and the pressure drops low. Care must be taken to ensure that no steam enters the boiler, the boiler water may contain steam which could cause a violent boil over. To help prevent sea water entry, a non-return valve (on some water tube boilers) or a ball valve (on some fire tube boilers) is provided but even with a ball valve it is advisable to start closing the blow down valve as soon as the pressure is low enough, and when the pressure is low enough the valve must be closed down and then closed.

At this stage allow as much time as possible for the boiler to cool down and lose all its pressure. Once the pressure is atmospheric open up the air vent valve to ensure that the pressure inside the boiler is atmospheric.

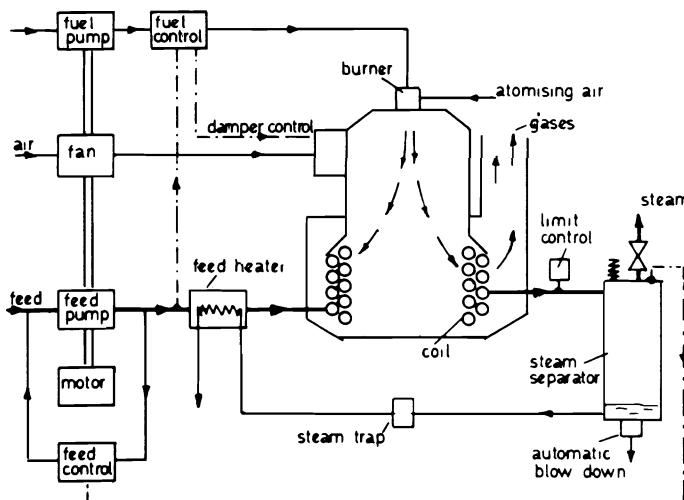
Either boiler door can be opened, but not both, provided the top door is open, secure a rope to the top door handle to make the other end of the rope pass over a pulley and remove the dog retaining nuts from the dogs. Stand well back and know that the door is now open and the dogs can immediately open up the bottom door. If the dogs remain closed this would lead to a current of air passing through the boiler and subsequent thermal stresses.

If it is the bottom door, slacken back on the dog retaining nuts by a very small amount, use a large plank of wood and break the door joint from a safe distance so that if there is any hot water remaining in the boiler no injury will occur to anyone. Again, do not immediately open up the top door of the boiler.

PACKAGED AUXILIARY BOILER

Fig. 3.22 shows in a simplified diagrammatic form a coiled-tube boiler of the Stone-Vapor type. It is compact, space saving, designed for u.m.s. operation, and is supplied ready for connecting to the ships services.

A power supply, depicted here by a motor, is required for the feed pump, fuel pump (if fitted), fan and controls.



PACKAGE COIL TYPE BOILER

Fig. 3.22

Feed water is force circulated through the generation coil wherein about 90% is evaporated. The un-evaporated water travelling at high velocity carries sludge and scale into the separator, which can be blown out at intervals manually or automatically. Steam at about 99% dry is taken from the separator for shipboard use.

The boiler is completely automatic. For example, the steam demand is increased when the separator is sensed and a servo-fuel controller demands increased fuel and fuel supply.

With such a small water content it is virtually impossible and a safety valve protects the coil against abnormal pressure. In addition the servo-fuel control will automatically reduce the failure of water supply.

Performance of a typical unit:

Steam pressure
Evaporation
Thermal efficiency
Full steam output in about 3 to 4 min.

Note. Atomising air for the fuel pump is supplied at about 5 bar.

REDUCING VALVE

Fig. 3.23 illustrates diagrammatically how a reducing valve can be used for the reduction of pressure. When the valve passes through the valve nozzle, the flow area is reduced. The process is one of throttling, hence the name. As the pressure is reduced, the density of the fluid increases. If the pressure reduction is nearly complete, the pressure is constant throughout the valve. If the pressure is reduced by the air, or on the air, its density is constant.

The reducing valve shown is made of brass or cast iron. A valve, valve seat and seat ring are made of materials depends upon operating conditions.

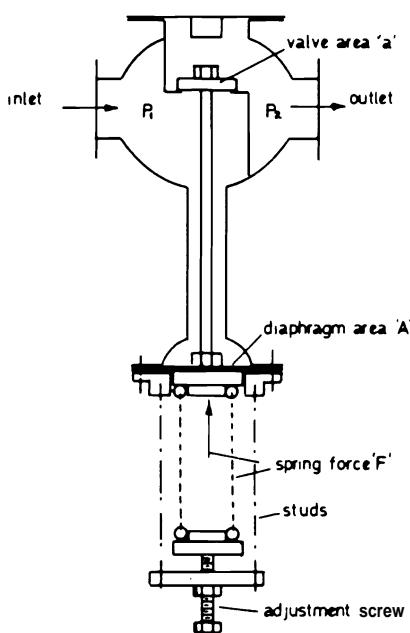
Fitted on the discharge side of the valve, it records the reduced pressure and connects to the low pressure side of the valve in case of valve failing.

Since the valve must be in action of the forces which act on it, the downward force = Upward force.

$P_1 \times A = (P_1 - P_2) \times a$

If P_1 , A and a are constant we have P_2 varies directly as F i.e. $P_2 \propto F$

Hence if the supply pressure is kept constant the discharge pressure can be reduced or increased at will by rotating the adjustment screw.



REDUCING VALVE
Fig. 3.23

EVAPORATORS

Fresh water production from sea water for domestic and boiler feed purposes has become an essential requirement aboard most vessels. The stowage space that would have been used for fresh water can now be utilised for fuel or extra space made available for cargo when a fresh water making plant is utilised, for even the simplest plant can produce about 10 tonnes of water for every tonne of fuel used.

Various types of evaporating plant are available but the principal types used on board are the 'single effect plants' and 'double effect plants'.

Single effect means that evaporation takes place at one pressure only. A single effect plant consists of an evaporator and in this case the heating coil is in parallel.

Double effect means that evaporation takes place at two different pressures and the evaporation coils are in series.

The essential requirement of an evaporator is that it should produce fresh water as efficiently as possible in measure of a plant's economy. The performance ratio is the kg of water produced per kg of steam supplied. For single effect plants the performance ratio is 1.9, and for two effect plants it is 1.95.

Although performance ratio is not the only factor to compare various plants it does give an indication of the efficiency of the plant. If the steam which is supplied to the evaporator is 'waste' steam, i.e., it may or may not be used for heating before arrival at the evaporator, which produces the steam may be obtained from the exhaust of a diesel engine providing an extra economy. A further economy may be obtained in some form of performance ratio by using waste heat in diesel engine cooling water.

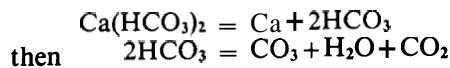
The performance of any evaporator is affected by scale formation and the rate of scale formation is rapid, hence the performance ratio falls. The evaporation rate must be reduced and the heating element over heated in order to facilitate scale removal. In order to minimise loss of evaporator contents, heating elements which are interrupted the higher will be.

If scale could be completely removed the performance ratio would be 1.95 more water could be produced per kg of steam for evaporators but naturally it depends upon the type of water production. Three scales formed in evaporators are:

Calcium carbonate (CaCO_3)
Magnesium hydroxide (Mg(OH)_2)
Calcium sulphate ($\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$)

Calcium carbonate and magnesium hydroxide scale formation depends principally upon the temperature of the water. Calcium sulphate scale formation is proportional to the square root of the temperature.

density of the evaporator contents. The reactions which take place when sea water is heated are:



If heated up to approximately 80°C:
 $\text{CO}_3 + \text{Ca} = \text{CaCO}_3$

If heated above 80°C:
 $\text{CO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{HCO}_3 + \text{OH}$
 then $\text{Mg} + 2\text{OH} = \text{Mg(OH)}_2$

Hence if the sea water in the evaporator is heated to a temperature below 80°C calcium carbonate scale predominates. If it is heated above 80°C magnesium hydroxide scale is deposited.

If the density of the evaporator contents is in excess of 96,000 p.p.m. (3/32) calcium sulphate scale can be formed but evaporator density is normally 80,000 p.p.m. (2½/32) and less, hence scale formation due to calcium sulphate should be no problem.

However, when such an element is used, it is important to ensure it is not subjected to high temperatures for long periods of time.

A safeguard consisting of a float valve controlled by a steam line, controlled by a differential pressure gauge, will automatically open to allow steam to pass across the element (maximum pressure 10 lb/in²) when the element reaches a certain temperature.

4. Use Continuous Chemical Treatment

(a) *Organic polyelectrolyte compounds*

This minimises scale formation in all types of evaporators producing water at temperatures up to 100°C. It would be continuously fed into the system (to ensure overdosing does not occur). In addition to the use of evaporator feed, the rate of flow of water through the system must be controlled to prevent scale formation.

The compound is alkaline and has a similar action to caustic soda, it should be added to the system in small quantities.

(b) *Polyphosphate compounds*

These prevent the formation of scale by forming a protective film which minimises the possibility of foaming. They are non acidic, relatively cheap and easy to use. They should be added to the system in small quantities to allow it to be used in evaporators. They are particularly useful for purposes if the dosage rate is controlled.

It is suitable only for low pressure systems. It is soluble in water at temperatures around 100°C it forms a stable precipitate which is insoluble in water at temperatures below 90°C.

(c) *Ferric Chloride* (FeCl_3) is a strong acid. It is hygroscopic, non toxic, and soluble in water. When dissolved in water it becomes acidic, forming ferric hydroxide which should be worn by personnel.

It completely prevents the formation of scale. It is added to the system and magnesium hydroxide scale is removed. The system is then flushed with a concentrated solution of ferric chloride which is injected through plastic injection equipment. The system is then flushed with water until the concentration is reduced to a minimum. The process is repeated until the system is completely free of scale.

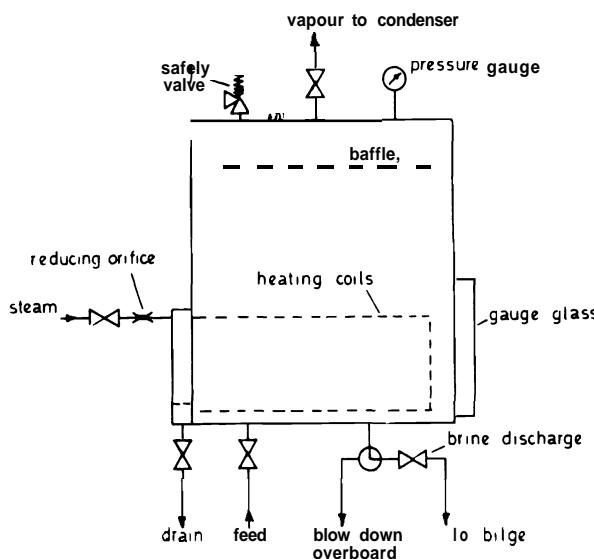
Note. High vacuum plant operating at temperatures up to 45°C, using diesel engine cooling water, has relatively low tube surface temperatures. Steam coil surface temperatures are usually higher than those of the cooling water.

METHODS OF CONTROLLING AND MINIMISING SCALE (EVAPORATORS)

1. **Use low Pressure Evaporation Plant** i.e. operating at a temperature below 80°C so that calcium carbonate scale predominates—that is a soft scale which is easily removed and not such a poor conductor of heat as other scales.

2. **Use Magnetic Treatment:** a unit consisting of permanent magnets, preceded by a filter, is installed in the evaporator feed line. The water passes through a strong magnetic field which alters the charge on the salts so that amalgamation of the salt crystals, formed during precipitation in the evaporator, is prevented and the salt then goes out with the brine.

3. **Use flexing elements:** a heating element made of thin gauge monel metal built like a concertina may be used. The advantage of such an element is that when pressure, and hence temperature, vary slightly the element flexes considerably thereby cracking off scale effectively and permitting longer running periods of the evaporator between shut downs.



DIAGRAMMATIC ARRANGEMENT OF A SIMPLE VERTICAL EVAPORATOR

Fig. 3.24

Cleaning

Heat exchange surfaces are usually cleaned by circulating a 10% hydrochloric acid solution. A pump is connected to the feed inlet to the evaporator and solution return is by gravity via the brine discharge into an open acid tank from which the pump draws the solution.

The single effect vertical evaporator shown in Fig. 3.24 is still in common use. It operates with a vapour pressure between 1.34 to 1.48 bar and steam for the heating coils is supplied direct from the boiler. The initial cost for such an evaporator is relatively low, it is also compact and thereby space saving. The shell and dome of the evaporator is made of good quality close grained cast iron and the heating coils are made of solid drawn copper. Mountings provided are: vapour outlet valve, steam inlet, coil drain valve, feed check valve, blow down valve, brine ejector, safety valve, gauge glass with fittings, salinometer cock and a compound pressure gauge. In the diagram, a reducing orifice fitting is shown on the steam inlet. Its purpose is to reduce the pressure of steam entering an evaporator shell in the event of failure of a heating coil.

Statutory requirements:

- (1) If the main body is a single casting the thickness of the walls shall not be less than 12 mm and the maximum pressure not exceeding 2 bar.
- (2) Cast iron should not be used for the main body.
- (3) Cast iron, bronze or gun metal shall not be used if the temperature does not exceed 200°C.
- (4) Stress on studs for covers and plates shall not exceed 100 kg/mm². The studs are 22 mm diameter.
- (5) Studs should be at least 22 mm long and shall not be frequently removed.
- (6) Where a reducing orifice is used it shall be made of non-corrodible metal and should not be less than 6.3 mm.
- (7) An accumulation of pressure shall not exceed 1.5 times the accumulation of pressure above the working pressure.

LOW PRESSURE EVAPORATORS

This type of single effect evaporator is more economical than the older single effect evaporators shown in Fig. 3.24.

Low pressure (*i.e.* operating at lower pressures) evaporation plant are widely used.

1. Control over type of scale formation due to presence of carbonate which is soft and easily removable.
2. Heating medium supplied at lower temperatures *e.g.* diesel cooling water.
3. Improved heat transfer across the heat transfer surface due to higher temperature difference between the heating and lower pressures.

Materials For Low Pressure Plant

The shell is usually fabricated steel (or non-ferrous metal like the more expensive cupro-nickels) which has been shot blasted then coated with some form of protective. One type of coating is **sheet rubber** which is rolled and bonded to the plate then hardened afterwards by heat treatment. The important points about protective coatings are:

- (1) They must be inert and prevent corrosion.
- (2) They must resist the effects of acid cleaning and water treatment chemicals.
- (3) They must have a good bond with the **metal**.

Heat exchangers use aluminium brass in tube or plate form and with the type of fresh water generator shown in Fig. 3.25 the condenser plates are usually made of titanium, an expensive and virtually **corrosion/erosion** resistant material.

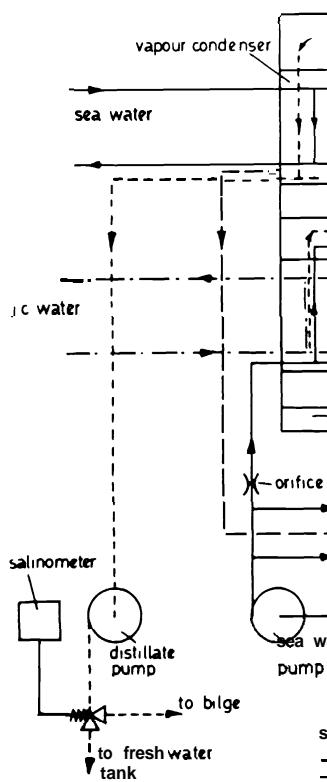
A knitted monel metal wire demister which scrubs the vapour of sea water droplets is a standard internal fitting.

Heat from diesel engine cooling water is used to evaporate a small fraction of the sea water feed in the plate type evaporator. Unevaporated water is discharged as brine and that which is evaporated passes through the demister to the plate type vapour condenser, where, after condensation it is discharged to the fresh water storage tank by the fresh water pump.

In the event of the salinity of the fresh water density exceeding a pre-determined value (maximum usually four **p.p.m.**) the solenoid controlled dump valve diverts the flow to the bilge, preventing contamination of the made water. Excess salinity could be caused by sea water leakage at the condenser or the evaporator priming, the former is the most **likely**.

Feed supply rate to the evaporator is fixed by the orifice plate and sufficient water goes to the ejectors to ensure a high vacuum condition in the shell at all times and that all brine is easily dealt with.

This type of relatively simple, compact, space saving unit is easily accessible for cleaning. Capacity can be altered by altering the number of plates in the heat exchangers and adjusting the orifice size. It can be easily arranged for **u.m.s.** remote operation if required.



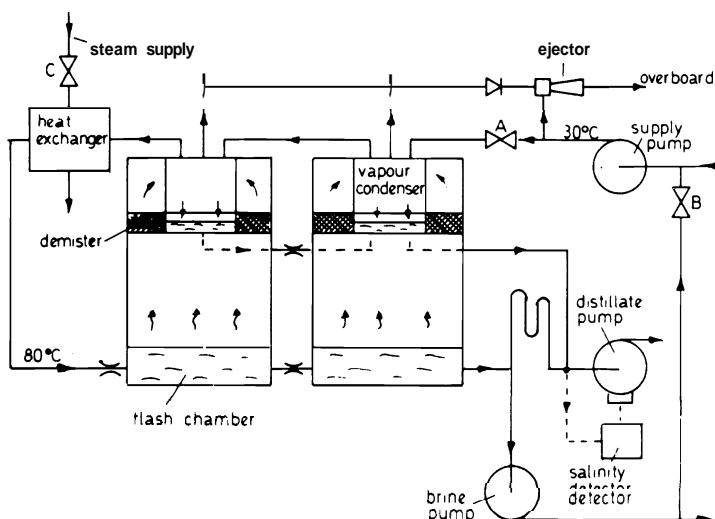
FRESH WATER GENERATOR
Fig.

TWO STAGE FLASH

A double effect flash evaporator

It consists of two identical stages with protective internal coatings of monel metal wire and vapour coil brass U tubes expanded into the shell.

Sea water is pumped through the second stage, then the first stage, so that the temperature increases in the second stage before entering the steam supplied heat exchanger.



TWO STAGE FLASH EVAPORATION PLANT
Fig. 3.26

The pressurised, heated sea water flows through an orifice into the first flash chamber whose low pressure corresponds to a saturation temperature less than that of the incoming heated sea water. Hence some of the water must be evaporated, in order that its temperature can fall to around that which corresponds to the pressure in the chamber.

Unevaporated water flows through an orifice—which maintains pressure difference—into the second chamber where more water is evaporated since the pressure is lower than in the first chamber.

A brine pump extracts low density unevaporated water and discharges the bulk overboard. Some however may return to the suction side of the supply pump through the auto-valve B to maintain the feed inlet temperature at about 30°C irrespective of how low the sea water temperature may be.

The vapour and non-condensable gases in each of the chambers pass through the demisters then over and down through the vapour condensers. Distillate flows from the first stage to the second through an orifice then it is extracted by the distillate pump and delivered to the storage tank. A salinity detector controls the distillate pump, if the density is too high

the pump stops and the distillate to the brine pump suction to be

Non-condensable gases are e
maintains the high vacuum cond
For complete automatic opera

1. The steam inlet valve C would
to maintain sea water feed temper
 80°C .

2. Valve A, in addition to bei
would also be controlled by two
first chamber.

3. The valve B and the distillate
outlined above.

Output from such an evapo
tonnes/day depending upon the

Drinking water

Drinking water made from
distillation plants will be safe to
1. If it is boiled at temperatures
pressure plants operate at temp
 60°C .

2. Additives to diesel engine c
Those not allowed for health
However, sodium nitrite—ev
dangerous to health—is used in

3. Inhibitors which are sometimes
prevent fouling by the growth of
used if the sea water is used in pa

4. The evaporator is not used

coastline to about **20** to **50** miles

TEST EXAMPLES 3**Class 3**

1. With the aid of a simple sketch, explain how a watergauge fitted directly to a boiler is tested for accuracy when the boiler is steaming.
2. Describe the start up sequence of an automatic auxiliary boiler.
3. Describe how fire tubes are attached to the tube plate of a fire tube boiler.

TEST EX**Class 2**

1. Describe the essential steps involved in the cleaning of an auxiliary boiler. State what types of scale are likely to be found. Explain how each type is examined the fire side as the water side.
2. With reference to auxiliary boilers:
 - (a) State with reasons what causes the necessity for lapping in valves and fittings.
 - (b) State why the drain must be closed when the water is being heated.
 - (c) State how setting is done when the water is being heated.
 - (d) State why opening gear should be kept in good order at all times.
3. Sketch and describe a sea water desalination plant using engine coolant as the heating medium. State how the distillate is rendered fit for drinking purposes.
4. Describe how to 'blow down' a steam generating boiler for inspection. Identify the parts of the boiler which normally require attention during internal inspection.
5. Sketch and fully describe the components required for the control of a remote boiler water level. State which instrument is liable to an early failure due to defects?

TEST EXAMPLES 3**Class 1**

1. Assess the value of regular systematic inspection of auxiliary boilers and ancillary equipment. With particular reference to a vertical, smoke tube, hemispherical furnace boiler, identify three common faults on the water side and two common faults on the fire side. Describe the remedial action in each case to **retard** development.
2. With reference to main safety valves for handling steam at 60 bar, 500°C explain:
 - a) why precise, rapid and ample valve movement is essential during opening and closing.
 - b) how the **characteristics** in (a) are achieved in practice.
3. Discuss the merits of fitting a low pressure exhaust gas boiler into the uptakes of a Diesel engined installation. Sketch a boiler suitable for this purpose.
4. What are the essential differences between an ordinary single spring loaded safety valve and an improved high lift safety valve? How **would** you set the safety valves for a multi-boilered installation? What is meant by accumulation of pressure and how would you conduct a test to determine if the safety valves are of correct capacity?
5. Sketch and describe two types of remote boiler water level indicator. To what defects are the indicators of your choice liable and how would you remedy these defects?

CHAPT

CORROSION, WATER TEST

CORRO

The corrosion of metals may returning to its original form of corrode more rapidly than others. Iron for example is an oxide of iron steels and irons used in engineering corrosion; moisture, acids, salts, material to revert to oxide of iron. (An oxide is an element combined must be present for the transformation by reaction with the atmosphere surface which is by nature passive to further corrosion. If this film is broken in certain metals be very which is used in stainless steels, chromium oxide upon the surface to further corrosion. Aluminium, which forms.

Corrosion is a complex subject. Research into its mechanisms will continue in the future. Various theories have been proposed, some having been adopted only to be abandoned. Formation of galvanic cells is a cause of corrosion and these can occur in fresh water, sea water or other electrolytes. Protection could be provided by dissimilar metal coatings, a thin film on the surface of a metal structure, inclusion, composition

oil degradation products in the electrolyte coming into contact with the metal surface.

CORROSION OF METALS IN SEA WATER

Sea water is circulated, heated and stored within a vessel. It is a strongly corrosive medium because it is a good electrolyte.

With dissimilar metals in sea water, galvanic action results and the more anodic metal corrodes. Table 4.1 is an extract from the galvanic series of materials in sea water, any material in the table is anodic to those above it.

Titanium	Noble end of table.
Graphite	
Monel metal	
Stainless steel (with oxide film)	
Inconel	
Nickel	
170/30 Cupro-Nickel	
Gunmetal	
Aluminium bronze	
Copper	
Admiralty brass	
Manganese steel (without oxide film)	
Cast iron	
Mild steel	
Zinc	
Aluminium	
Manganesium	Base end of table.

TABLE 4.1

Hence, steel is anodic to bronze in sea water, therefore, it will corrode—we may say that the steel has given 'cathodic protection' to the bronze.

Sacrificial anodes are sometimes used deliberately to give cathodic protection to more expensive material, e.g., iron anodes give protection to brass tubes and plates in condensers, magnesium anodes give protection to steel plates in tanks.

Practical points and methods of minimising galvanic effect.

1. Choose materials close to each other in the series.

2. Make the key component of metal to be protected.

3. Provide a large area of the corrosion is increased, it is spread.

4. Do not use graphite greases as severe corrosion of the bronzes as a result.

Graphitisation of Cast Iron

Cast iron contains up to 3.5% form of graphite flakes (or spherulites) in the matrix. In sea water the metal matrix is the more noble material—and the graphitisation of cast iron may still occur. One would expect cast iron to protect itself since the graphite is higher in the table.

Velocity of Sea Water

If the velocity of the sea water increases the corrosion rate increases to a limiting value. The reason for this is (1) supply of oxygen; (2) erosion of the metal by corrosion.

Stress Corrosion

A metal consists of crystalline arrangement is regular together with the metal surrounding them. Corrosion of the metal, due to galvanic action, in the presence of stress. These stresses are 'locked up' within the metal. They are relieved by the corrosion, this causes the metal to corrode and eventually leads to possible failure.

Stress corrosion is most common in aluminium alloys where embrittlement—due to the formation of intermetallic compounds—occurred in aluminium alloys.

De-zincification

Brass is an alloy of copper and zinc. Zinc is more anodic to the copper and it corrodes leaving a porous mass of copper, hence de-zincification. Brasses in which arsenic has been added to the brass is less than 37%.

A similar attack can occur to aluminium bronzes called de-aluminification, 4% to 5% nickel added to the bronze can avoid this problem but trouble may still take place at welds.

OTHER CORROSION TOPICS

Fretting Corrosion

Can occur where two surfaces in contact with each other undergo slight oscillatory motion, of a microscopic nature, relative to one another. Components to which this may occur are those which have been shrunk, hydraulically pressed or mechanically tightened one to the other.

The small relative motion causes removal of metal and metal oxide films. The removed metal may combine with oxygen to form a metal oxide powder that will, in the case of ferrous metal, be harder than the metal itself thus increasing the wear. Removed metal oxide film would be repeatedly replaced increasing the damage. Factors affecting the damage caused by fretting corrosion:

1. Damage increases with amplitude and frequency of movement.
2. Damage increases with load carried by the surfaces.
3. Damage is reduced if oxygen level is low and moisture is present.
4. Hardness of the metal affects the attack, with ferrous metals the damage decreases as the hardness of the metal increases.

Pitting Corrosion

Corrosion may be over a large area *i.e.* plate type of corrosion or it may be localised *i.e.* pitting corrosion.

Pitting corrosion is caused when there is, relatively, a large cathodic area and a small anodic area. Hence the intensity of attack at the anode is high. Large area differences could be caused by mill scale, oxide films, acid pockets of water, scale from salts, pores or crevices, oils, gases and ingress of metals into the boiler. It is a very dangerous form of corrosion, its rate is generally increased with temperature increase hence where metal surfaces are hottest failure may take place earlier. It should be prevented.

Corrosion Fatigue

If a metal is in a corrosive environment and is also subjected to a cyclic stress it will fail at a much lower stress concentration

than that normally required for due to the progressive weakening of the metal. Tests would probably reveal the crack to be *inter-crystalline* which occurs when cyclic stresses may be due to the thermal conditions, *i.e.* thermal cycling.

BOILER CORROSION

To help the reader understand electro-chemical corrosion it is necessary to understand some ionic and atomic theory and the pH value which is an indication of the alkalinity.

Atoms and Ions

An atom is composed of a nucleus containing protons and neutrons. The number of protons determines the atomic number and the neutrons are uncharged. The nucleus carries a positive charge and the neutrons are uncharged. Electrons however are negatively charged. In a neutral atom, the number of protons plus the number of electrons, hence the resultant electric charge is zero. In other words the atom will be electrically neutral. If an atom gains or loses an electron it becomes electrically charged, either in excess of either positive or negative charge. This is referred to as an ion (Greek word for a particle).

Water is basically composed of hydrogen and oxygen atoms, but it does also contain ions.

Hydrogen Ion

A hydrogen ion is an atom of hydrogen with a positive charge of one electron. It would normally be written as H⁺. It has lost one electron and is therefore positively charged.

Hydroxyl Ion

A hydroxyl ion is a compound consisting of one oxygen atom and one hydrogen atom. It has gained an electron. It would be written as OH⁻. It has one extra electron and is therefore negatively charged.

pH Values

Water contains the previously defined hydrogen and hydroxyl ions, the relative concentration of these ions is important. The product of the hydrogen and hydroxyl ion concentration in water at approx. 25°C must always equal 10^{-14} gm ion/litre of solution. If the hydrogen ion concentration exceeds the hydroxyl concentration the water is acidic. If the concentrations are equal the water is neutral. When the hydroxyl ion concentration is greater than the hydrogen, the water is alkaline.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{example: } & 10^{-5}(H^+) \times 10^{-9}(OH^-) \text{ solution Acid} \\ & 10^{-7}(H^+) \times 10^{-7}(OH^-) \quad , \quad \text{Neutral} \\ & 10^{-9}(H^+) \times 10^{-5}(OH^-) \quad , \quad \text{Alkaline} \end{aligned}$$

Note the product of the concentrations is always 10^{-14} and the powers 5, 7 and 9 for the hydrogen ion concentration serve to indicate the degree of acidity or alkalinity of the solution. Hence the pH values now becomes apparent, p (for power), H (for hydrogen ion). Therefore the pH value is, the logarithm of the reciprocal of the hydrogen ion concentration.

$$\text{e.g. } 10^{-5} = \frac{1}{105}, \text{ reciprocal} = 105, \text{ logarithm} = 5.$$

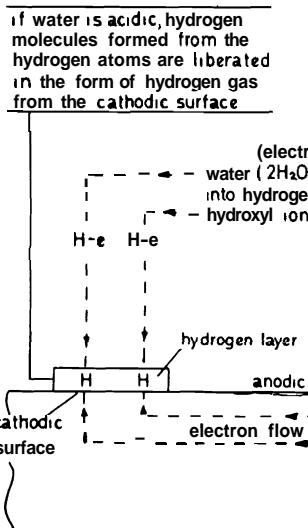
pH values range from 0 to 14 i.e. from very acidic to very alkaline.

If the water temperature is increased, the hydrogen ion concentration increases and hence there is an increase in acidity or a decrease in alkalinity. Chemicals when added to water alter the hydrogen ion concentration and hence the pH value. Acids lower the pH value, alkalis increase the pH value.

In electro chemical corrosion of metals the pH value is very important for it governs the degree of corrosion.

Electro Chemical Corrosion

When iron is in contact with water which contains hydrogen ions, corrosion may result. The hydrogen ions in contact with the metal surface become hydrogen atoms by taking an electron from the metal. The resultant metal ion (caused through loss of electrons) combines with the hydroxyl ions in contact with the metal surface and so form a metallic hydroxide, which is soluble in the water depending upon the pH value, hence the metal is corroded. This action is similar to a battery action wherein current is caused to flow from anodic to cathodic regions, the



Fig

migrating ions in the electrolyte metal form the circuit.

Hydrogen, which has formed to the combination of the hydroxyl ions, form a polarising layer upon the metal surface to prevent further corrosion. If no hydroxyl ions are present in the water, it will corrode the metal. In water and no polarisation will occur. Also, if the water is acidic enough, the hydrogen layer on the surface of the metal in the presence of oxygen will prevent polarisation and corrosion. Thus, the need for boiler water to be treated is to remove dissolved oxygen content.

Some causes of boiler corrosion:

Oils

Lubricating oils may contaminate the water in the boiler, thus causing lubrication of machinery and its parts. Oils such as animal and vegetable

boiler liberating their fatty acids, these acids can cause corrosion. Hence it is advisable to use pure mineral oil for lubrication of machine parts where contamination of feed can result, but oil of any description should never be allowed to enter the boiler as it can adhere to the heating surfaces causing overheating. It can also cause priming due to excessive ebullition.

Mechanical Straining

This is not a corrosive agent in itself but due to the break down of the surface of the metal, pitting type corrosion could result due to differential aeration. (Differential aeration: if a portion of metal becomes partially **inaccessible** to oxygen it becomes anodic and corrosion may result.) Mechanical straining of boiler parts may be due to mal-operation of the boiler, raising steam too rapidly from cold, missing or poorly connected internal feed pipes, fluctuating feed temperature and steaming conditions. Grooving is caused through mechanical straining of boiler plates, and where a groove is present there is always the danger of corrosion resulting in the groove.

Galvanic Action

When two dissimilar metals are present in a saline solution galvanic action may ensue, resulting in the corrosion of the more base metal. Zinc for example would serve as an anode to iron and iron would serve as an anode to copper. Sacrificial anodes are frequently used to give cathodic protection. In Scotch boilers zinc plates are sometimes secured to furnaces and suspended between tube nests, these act as sacrificial anodes giving cathodic protection to the steel plating, etc., of the boiler.

Corrosion of non-ferrous metals in steam and condensate systems may result in deposits of copper on boiler tube surfaces (known as 'copper pick up'), which due to galvanic action can lead to boiler corrosion.

Caustic Embrittlement

The phenomena of caustic embrittlement (or intercrystalline fracture) is believed to be caused by high concentrations of caustic soda (Sodium hydroxide NaOH) and the material under stress. The stress corrosion cracks follow the grain or crystal boundaries of the material and failure of the affected part could result. Concentrations of sodium hydroxide required for

embrittlement to occur vary with about 6,000 grains/gallon at 300 concentration required. Normal never be found in a boiler, but, and boiler mountings, etc., when steam, leaving behind the solid concentrations required.

Sodium hydroxide depresses sulphate, and sodium sulphate precipitate. Use is made of this caustic embrittlement. When hydroxide are high and sodium sulphate can precipitate and form Ratios of sodium sulphate to cause the engineers safeguard, from recommended that the ratio of should not fall below 2.5 at all times been used as inhibitors against quebracho tannin and sodium nitrite.

Caustic corrosion in **high pressure** by gouging of the tubes and hydroxide and a concentrating results in the destruction of the protective film (Fe_3O_4) and the base metal concentrated sodium hydroxide.

Effects of Salts and Gases in Feed Water

Feed water employed for unevaporated fresh, evaporated and total dissolved solids. The first and last of these three for low pressure boilers, such as fresh water is principally employed water for water tube boilers. All dissolved salts are harmful to the boiler scale formation and corrosion. Chlorides and salt waters should be low in salt water, leaking condenser or the causes.

Salt Water

Average sea water contains a total dissolved solids. These soli-

ANALYSIS OF SEA WATER

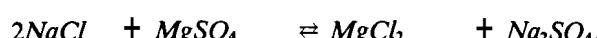
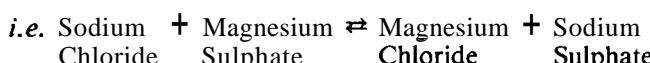
Salt	Chemical	Approximate % of Total Dissolved Solids	p.p.m.
Sodium Chloride	$NaCl$	79	25,000
Magnesium Chloride	$MgCl_2$	10	3,000
Magnesium Sulphate	$MgSO_4$	6	2,000
Calcium Sulphate	$CaSO_4$	4	1,200
Calcium Bicarbonate	$Ca(HCO_3)_2$	Less than 1	200

TABLE 4.2

Each of these salts will now be considered in detail, with regard to their effect under boiler conditions.

Sodium Chloride ($NaCl$)

This is common salt. Heavy concentrations of this salt can cause foaming and priming. Under boiler conditions, the density at which sodium chloride will come out of solution increases as the pressure and temperature increases. In other words its solubility is a variable. Each salt present in the boiler water will in general have varying solubility with temperature variation, and solubility curves for individual salts alone in water can also be affected by the presence of other salts or compounds. In the case of chlorides their solubility is very high and therefore they should normally not come out of solution under normal boiler conditions. Sodium chloride could in conjunction with magnesium sulphate form sodium sulphate and magnesium chloride.

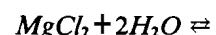


In a chemical equation of the foregoing nature the number of atoms on either side of the equation must be the same.

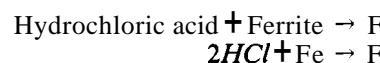
Magnesium Chloride ($MgCl_2$)

Is soluble under normal boiler conditions, but it can to some extent be broken down forming hydrochloric acid and magnesium hydroxides.

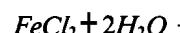
CORROSION, WATER T.



Magnesium hydroxide has a low solubility. Under normal boiler conditions due to its low solubility it can deposit as scale. By suitable treatment it can be precipitated in the form of a sludge which can be blown out of the system. This sludge can cause corrosion according to the following reaction:



then Ferrous chloride + Water \rightarrow



From the reaction it can clearly be seen that the hydrochloric acid attacks the iron. The hydrochloric acid which breaks down to form an iron chloride. With suitable treatment this corrosion can be prevented.

Magnesium Sulphate ($MgSO_4$)

Is soluble under normal boiler conditions. When the density is carried it may deposit as scale. It may to some extent combine with magnesium chloride and sodium chloride.

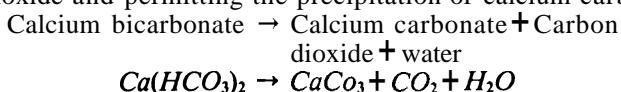
Calcium Sulphate ($CaSO_4$)

This salt is possibly the most abundant salt in the boiler water. It can deposit as scale which greatly affects the efficiency of the boiler. The mechanism of scale formation is not fully understood. It could be described as follows. When calcium sulphate is formed upon a heating surface, the water becomes overheated, as it is in contact with the plate around the periphery of the scale. If the salts are those which increase the rate of heat transfer, the increase of temperature (Calcium sulphate) will cause the water to boil over, causing a violent explosion.

be deposited in the form of a crystal ring, this is because the water has become supersaturated locally with these salts. Further, when the bubble bursts, the water coming into contact with the overheated plate will again be overheated locally, causing more salt deposition. It would follow therefore that a general statement could be made regarding salts and scale formation due to same, *i.e.* salts whose solubility decreases with increase in temperature are those which form scale upon heating surfaces and sludge upon cooling surfaces. Salts whose solubility increases with increase in temperature do not normally form scale upon heating surfaces but a sludge may be formed if their saturation point is reached.

Calcium Bicarbonate ($Ca(HCO_3)_2$)

This salt is decomposed when heated, liberating carbon dioxide and permitting the precipitation of calcium carbonate.



Calcium carbonate has a low solubility and this solubility decreases with increase in temperature, it can therefore form scale. The scale so formed is soft and porous in nature and is not such a poor conductor of heat as calcium sulphate scale.

Fresh Water

Unevaporated fresh water is often used as make up feed for boilers, it can contain some or all of the salts present in salt water and other salts besides, but usually in small proportions. Whether a water is classified as salt or fresh, basically depends upon whether it is potable or not. An average sample of fresh water is a practical impossibility, only samples of fresh water can be given.

ANALYSIS OF A FRESH WATER SAMPLE

Salt	Symbol	p.p.m.
Sodium Chloride	$NaCl$	50
Sodium Nitrate	$NaNO_3$	35
Magnesium Sulphate	$MgSO_4$	30
Calcium sulphate	$CaSO_4$	90
Calcium carbonate	$CaCO_3$	200

TABLE 4.3

Hardness Salts

Alkaline hardness salts are bicarbonates of calcium and magnesium. Calcium and magnesium are since they will be decomposed liberating carbon dioxide and

Non alkaline or permanent sulphates, nitrates and silicates. Hardness due to these salts is removed by chemical treatment.

Total hardness therefore, is the sum of alkaline hardness salts present. The scale producing solids a knowledge of hardness is essential.

Silicates

Silica is found in most water especially when new, from castings and welds.

In low pressure boilers silica reacts with magnesium to form calcium magnesium silicate which precipitate and form a hard scale.

In high pressure boilers silica reacts with magnesium elements to form complex silicates which are extremely hard and difficult to remove. As the boiler water is in excess, the solubility of silica decreases as boiler pressure increases. Silica volatilizes and deposit on turbine blades.

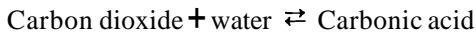
Carbon Dioxide

If the water contains dissolved carbon dioxide, carbonic acid may be formed, which can cause corrosion.

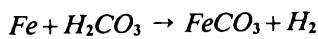
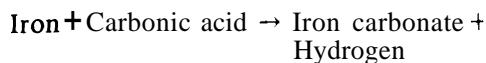
The carbon dioxide may be removed from the water due to contact with the air or by adding alkalis due to breakdown of bicarbonates.

Carbonic acid partially dissociates into hydrogen ions and carbonate ions, hence the hydrogen ion concentration increased. The bicarbonate ions react with the metal to form ferrous bicarbonate, which decomposes into carbon dioxide and carbonic acid, which is washed away. If there is a supply of dissolved oxygen, the carbon dioxide is converted into ferric carbonate which is converted into ferric hydroxide. Thus the metal is protected.

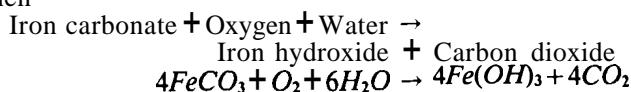
providing there is a continuous supply of dissolved oxygen in the water. This reaction due to carbon dioxide is represented below in a simplified form.



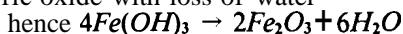
then



then



Iron hydroxide (ferric hydroxide Fe(OH)_3) may break down further to form ferric oxide with loss of water



Hydrogen

When acid corrosion is rapid e.g. when the acid is concentrated under a deposit, damage due to newly formed (nascent) hydrogen molecules at the cathode can result. These hydrogen molecules penetrate the boiler tube metal and react with carbon $\text{C} + 4\text{H} \rightarrow \text{CH}_4$ to produce methane. This carbon loss weakens the metal and the methane gas exerts a pressure which separates the grains of steel. Hydrogen damage can also occur when hydrogen is released by caustic corrosion.

External Corrosion

It must not be forgotten that corrosion of a boiler can occur externally. Causes of corrosion in this case could be, sooty deposits in the uptakes in the presence of moisture which could form sulphuric acid which can corrode, a standing boiler (*i.e.* not under steam) with damp lagging and acidulated bilge vapours.

BOILER WATER TREATMENT

The principal objects of boiler feed water treatment should be:

- (i) Prevention of scale formation by (a) using distilled water or (b) adding salts into the form of a non-acid scale.
- (ii) Prevention of corrosion by maintaining the boiler water in a neutral condition from dissolved gases.
- (iii) Control of the sludge formation by removing it over with the steam.
- (iv) Prevention of entry into the boiler of foreign materials such as oil, waste, mill-scale, iron oxide, sand, etc. By careful use of steam traps, effect watch on steam drains), effecting a system of maintaining the steam and water in a non-corrosive condition.

Lime and Soda Treatment (low pressure)

Lime (calcium hydroxide Ca(OH)_2) and soda (sodium carbonate Na_2CO_3) are used to remove magnesium compounds in the water.

LIME & SODA TREATMENT

Calcium hydroxide [lime, Ca(OH)_2] reacts with magnesium compounds as follows:

$\text{Ca}(\text{HCO}_3)_2$	$+ \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$	$\rightarrow 2\text{CaCO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
Calcium bicarbonate	Calcium hydroxide	\rightarrow Calcium carbonate
$\text{Mg}(\text{HCO}_3)_2$	$+ 2\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$	$\rightarrow \text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2 + 2\text{CaCO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
Magnesium bicarbonate	Calcium hydroxide	\rightarrow Magnesium hydroxide
MgSO_4	$+ \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$	$\rightarrow \text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2 + \text{CaSO}_4$
Magnesium sulphate	Calcium hydroxide	\rightarrow Magnesium hydroxide
$\text{Mg}(\text{NO}_3)_2$	$+ \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$	$\rightarrow \text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2 + \text{Ca(NO}_3)_2$
Magnesium nitrate	Calcium hydroxide	\rightarrow Magnesium hydroxide
MgCl_2	$+ \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$	$\rightarrow \text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2 + \text{CaCl}_2$
Magnesium chloride	Calcium hydroxide	\rightarrow Magnesium hydroxide

Sodium carbonate [soda ash, Na_2CO_3] reacts with the calcium compounds originally in the water and those found through using Calcium hydroxide as follows

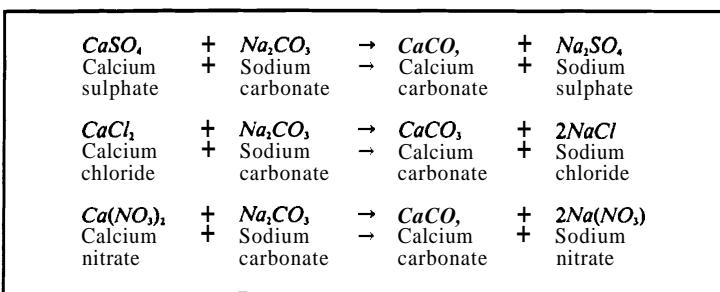


TABLE 4.5

Calcium hydroxide is used to react with magnesium compounds and alkaline hardness salts. Sodium carbonate is used to react with the calcium compounds in the boiler feed including those formed through employing calcium hydroxide. This combination of lime and soda, gives zero hardness and alkaline feed water.

Unevaporated fresh water used as make up feed would contain alkaline hardness salts, which would precipitate and form a soft sludge or scale when the water is heated in the feed heater, economiser or boiler. Hence the water should be treated with lime and soda prior to its entry into the system. Tables 4.4 and 4.5 indicate the reactions which occur when lime and soda are used.

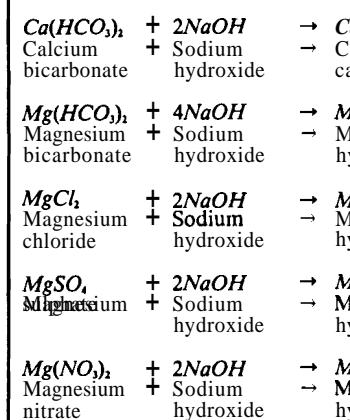
Caustic Soda Treatment

This could be used in place of the soda and lime treatment. Caustic soda (sodium hydroxide, NaOH) reacts with the alkaline and non-alkaline magnesium compounds, the alkaline calcium compounds, and it also forms sodium carbonate which can react with the non-alkaline calcium compounds. Table 4.6 indicates the reactions which occur when sodium hydroxide is used.

The sodium carbonate which is formed by employing sodium hydroxide should be in sufficient quantity to deal effectively with the non-alkaline calcium compounds. If however, this is not the case, sodium carbonate will have to be used in conjunction with sodium hydroxide.

Care must be exercised when handling caustic soda as heavy

CAUSTIC SODA (Sodium Hydroxide)



concentrations can cause skin

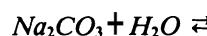
The foregoing treatments, I declined considerably in usefulness, interest and interest in emergency conditions.

Table 4.7 lists the water boilers, the action of the chem-

For the precipitation of scale to give alkalinity, phosphates with the calcium in the form of phosphate [$Ca_3(PO_4)_2$], which is low in the form a sludge or powder, can be achieved by using coagulants with the magnesium compound [$Mg_3(PO_4)_2$] which also precipitates.

Through using phosphates conditioning high concentrations since at high temperatures sodium follows:

Sodium Carbonate + Water \rightarrow



WATER TREATMENT RECOMMENDATION (BS 1170 1983)

Purpose	Chemical	Type of boiler
To prevent scale	Sodium Phosphates	All, up to 84 bar W.P.
To give alkalinity and minimise corrosion	Sodium Hydroxide or Sodium Carbonate	All, up to 84 bar W.P. All, up to 60 bar W.P.
To condition sludge	Polyelectrolytes or Starch or Tannins or Sodium Aluminate	all, up to 84 bar W.P. All, up to 84 bar W.P. All, up to 84 bar W.P. All, up to 31.5 bar W.P.
To remove traces of oxygen	Sodium Sulphite or Hydrazine	All, up to 42 bar from 31.5 to 84 bar
To reduce risk of caustic cracking	Sodium Sulphate or Sodium Nitrate	All, up to 31.5 bar All, up to 31.5 bar
To reduce risk of carry over of foam	Antifoams	All, up to 84 bar
To protect feed and condensate systems from corrosion	Filming amines or Neutralising amines	All, up to 60 bar 17.5 to 84 bar.

TABLE 4.7

PHOSPHATE TREATMENT

$3CaCO_3$ Calcium carbonate	+	$2Na_3PO_4$ Sodium phosphate	$\rightarrow Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ \rightarrow Calcium phosphate	$+ Na_2CO_3$ Sodium carbonate
$3CaSO_4$ Calcium sulphate	+	$2Na_3PO_4$ Sodium phosphate	$\rightarrow Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ \rightarrow Calcium phosphate	$+ 3Na_2SO_4$ Sodium sulphate
$3CaCl_2$ Calcium chloride	+	$2Na_3PO_4$ Sodium phosphate	$\rightarrow Ca_3(PO_4)_2$ \rightarrow Calcium phosphate	$+ 6NaCl$ Sodium chloride
$MgSO_4$ Magnesium sulphate	+	$2Na_3PO_4$ Sodium phosphate	$\rightarrow Mg(PO_4)_2$ \rightarrow Magnesium phosphate	$+ 3Na_2SO_4$ Sodium sulphate

TABLE 4.8

It will be noted that the form of the precipitate will vary in the case of high pressures and temperatures, there is a tendency to the right than to the left, as the temperature increases the caustic soda content of the precipitate.

From the reactions shown it can be seen that the precipitate formed through using trisodium phosphate is more stable than that formed by the breakdown of the sodium carbonate. If the concentration is excessive, it should give the boiler protection for a longer time than is necessary to maintain a moderate pressure.

Phosphates normally used in water treatment are sodium metaphosphate, disodium phosphate and trisodium phosphate. The metaphosphate and disodium phosphate system as they are slower to form scale than sodium carbonate produce scale or sludge in the boiler. Trisodium phosphate does not form scale or sludge in the boiler since they are quite soluble in water.

In the presence of sodium metaphosphate, monosodium phosphate is converted into trisodium phosphate. By adding the requisite alkalinity, we can see that the phosphate ions react with calcium removal by the formation of silicates present in the water. They tend instead to remain in solution.

Coagulants

The use of coagulants in the treatment of water is to remove precipitates, rendering them insoluble. Coagulants are non-adherent and can be easily removed. The most common coagulant is sodium phosphate, magnesium hydroxide and aluminium hydroxide. They form scale, by using coagulants, the scale is converted into a harmless, into a non-adherent precipitate. The coagulants which are used for this purpose are, polyelectrolytes, organic polymers of high molecular weight, such as polyacrylate, which may be present in boiler water. Polymers such as aluminate, starch, tannin, cellulose and polyacrylate can also be used with success. These polymers can break down and form aluminates, starch, tannin and cellulose which can combine with the magnesium hydroxide to form a precipitate which can be blown out of the boiler. The coagulants can remove traces of oil which may be present in the water. Note: Coagulants form colloidal precipitates.

Colloids generally consist of sub-microscopic particles (clusters of atoms or molecules) with like electrical charge, that repel each other and prevent the formation of larger particles. They combine with precipitates of opposite electrical charge to produce a floc.

Deaeration

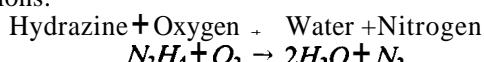
It has been stated that for corrosion to take place oxygen must be present to accomplish the formation of metal oxides. Hence deaeration of the feed water is essential.

Deaeration can be accomplished either mechanically or chemically, or a combination of both. It is usual to carry a reserve of chemicals in the boiler water in order to deal with any ingress of dissolved oxygen that may result due to mal-operation of the deaerating equipment, or some other circumstances. The oxygen scavenging chemicals used for deaerating the water are usually sodium sulphite or hydrazine. Sodium sulphite reacts as follows:



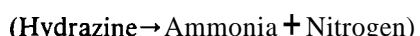
Sodium sulphate, which is formed through using sodium sulphite to deaerate, remains in solution in the boiler water under normal conditions.

Hydrazine solution (60% Hydrazine 40% water approximately) is finding increasing popularity for oxygen scavenging, it reacts under boiler conditions with the oxygen to form water, reactions:



thus having the advantage of not increasing the boiler water density.

Initially it was thought that excessive dosage of hydrazine could lead to steam and condensate line corrosion due to ammonia being produced as the excess hydrazine decomposed:



However, a controlled excess is beneficial to the steam and condensate system as it counteracts the effect of carbon dioxide corrosion.

There may be a delay in the build up of corrosion in the boiler water since it reacts with (from Fe_3SO_4) that may be present.

Hydrazine should be stored in a safe place since it is a fire hazard. When handling it should be worn—treat in the same way as acid.

Sodium sulphite may still be required. If that is the case then the following points are important:—(a) pH value is important, at about 7 pH it is a good indicator. Sodium sulphite should be injected into the system in small amounts. (b) In high pressure boilers the pH is reduced down to give hydrogen sulphide (H_2S) which can attack the metal. This increases dissolved solids content.

Condensate Line Treatment

Where the steam is wet, and the water is not treated, corrosion can occur due to the presence of oxygen carried over with steam. To overcome this, add to the system a volatile alkaliser such as diethanolamine or hexylamine, they combine with the dissolved carbonates and bicarbonates which then decompose to give back the CO_2 and the alkaline hydroxide to the steam system.

If the pH value of the condensate is correct, it should ensure no corrosion in the condensate sections of the plant.

Filming amines: the most common is diethanolamine, it is insoluble in water at room temperature. Filming amines prevent corrosion by forming an adsorbed layer on metal surfaces.

Neutralising amines: colourless liquids and whose fumes are toxic.

Monocyclohexylamines or monoethylamines are available in sealed containers and should be handled carefully.

Antifoams: these are complex organic compounds of low molecular weight. They are used to prevent foam in the boiler drum and thus prevent carry-over of water. They are included in boiler chemical mixtures.

Prevention of Caustic Embrittlement

Sodium sulphate is used for the prevention of caustic embrittlement and the ratio of sodium sulphate to caustic soda should be kept at or above the recommended value of 2.5.

Alternatively sodium nitrate may be used, the ratio of sodium nitrate to caustic soda should not fall below 0.4 to 1 at all times.

BOILERS NOT IN SERVICE

When boilers are taken out of service for short or long periods of time they must be protected from corrosion.

In the case of water tube boilers out of service for a short period of time (*e.g.* two days) the boiler can be fired at intervals to keep the boiler pressure above about 3.5 bar and the boiler water must be maintained in composition as required for the boiler when under normal steaming conditions. Alternatively the boiler could be filled whilst hot, with hot deaerated alkaline feed water and about 0.5 kg of anhydrous sodium sulphite added for each tonne of water in the boiler. In this latter case, the boiler must be topped up periodically and any air in the system must be got rid of.

With fire tube boilers out of service for short periods the only action that need be taken is to ensure that the alkalinity to phenolphthalein is not less than the recommended value, or completely fill the boiler with alkaline water.

If the boiler is to be taken out of service for long periods it should be drained completely, then dried out by means of heater units. Then trays of quicklime should be placed internally in suitable positions throughout the boiler before it is sealed up. Blanks should be fitted to the pipe connections in the event of steam being maintained in other boilers and the blow down should be blanked in any case. The lime should be renewed at least once every two months.

CLEANING OF NEW BOILERS

The purpose of pre-commission chemical cleaning is mainly to remove surface rust and mill scale which occur during boiler erection and manufacture and also dirt and traces of oil.

A comprehensive example of the treatment which would be carried out by a firm of specialists in boiler treatment could be, in order:

1. Boil out the boiler at atom solution to remove traces of oil
2. Wash out boiler with a heat and mill scale.
3. Rinse boiler with a weak acid.
4. Flush the boiler out repeatedly.
5. Subject the boiler to a pressure test carried out under pressure which would be subjected to a similar pressure.
6. Would obviously be omitted and carried out under atmospheric pressure with heat.

BOILER WATER TESTS

Boiler water should be regularly tested. The following tests the boiler water should be conducted and the results obtained from the tests.

For low pressure boilers such as vertical Cochran or thimble tube boilers, the following tests are still frequently used as tests.

Salinometer

The range of the scale is not standardised. The salinometer is floating in pure water at a density of one at zero. When the salinometer is floating in salt water at 93°C the salinometer reads 100. (The density of salt water at 93°C is 1.030.)

If sea water is used as make up water for a boiler it is recommended that the boiler is cleaned as close as possible to $\frac{1}{2}$ (approximately) attainted by resorting to blow down. Make up feed for boilers should be as soft as possible but if it has to be used a certain amount of hardness can be provided by using a salinometer.

Litmus Papers

These are used to ascertain the pH of the water. A litmus paper test shows that the boiler water may change colour from blue to red if the water is acidic, or red if the water is alkaline. This is a very rough indication of the pH.

FREQUENCY OF TEST	DAILY	DAILY	WEEKLY	DAILY	DAILY	DAILY	DAILY
BOILER WATER TEST	Alkalinity to Phenolphthalein	Chlorides (Max)	Caustic Alkalinity	EDTA Hardness (Max)	Sulphite Excess	Phosphate Reserve	Hydrazine Reserve
RESULTS EXPRESSED	p.p.m. as CaCO_3	p.p.m. as NaCl	p.p.m. as CaCO_3	p.p.m. as CaCO_3	p.p.m. as Na_2SO_3	p.p.m. as PO_4	p.p.m. as N_2H_4
PRESSURE(bar)	TYPE						
UP TO 17.5	SCOTCH						
UP TO 17.5	VERTICAL	300-700	3000	150-500	10000	5	50-100
UP TO 17.5	PACKAGE OR STM/STM GEN	300-500	1200	150-400	4500	5	50-100
UP TO 17.5	WATERTUBE	150-300	350	75-250	3000	5	50-100
17.5-31	WATERTUBE	150-300	150	100-250	1500	5	50-100
31-42	WATERTUBE	100-150	100	50-100	750	1	20-50
42-60	WATERTUBE	50-100	50	40-60	600	1	-
60-80	WATERTUBE	50-80	30	40-60	450	1	-
							20-30
							0.1-1.0

TABLE 4.9

For accurate testing of the salinometer and litmus paper method gives recommended values for Na_2CO_3 to ascertain whether these values refined testing methods are used.

Alkalinity

Tests for alkalinity are as follows:

(1) Alkalinity to Phenolphthalein

Take 100 ml sample of boiler water add 1ml (10 drops) of Phenolphthalein add N/50 sulphuric acid to colour.

Calculation: ml of N/50 acid used.

Phenolphthalein is less soluble in carbonates, and when it is added to hydroxides and or carbonates the acid used after this colouration will form hydroxides, forming salts, it will be neutralised by the molecules present forming bicarbonates. These molecules are less alkaline than phenolphthalein so the colouration will disappear once a certain amount of acid has been dealt with by the action of the acid formed from two carbonate molecules. The quantity of acid used is a measure of the hydroxides (caustic) present and the colouration disappears.

(2) Total Alkalinity

Take alkalinity to phenolphthalein add 10 drops of methyl-orange indicator add N/50 sulphuric acid until colour disappears.

Calculation: ml of N/50 acid used = p.p.m. CaCO_3 .

Methyl-orange indicator is less soluble in phenolphthalein or as is more soluble in alkalis. It can be used to determine alkalinity to phenolphthalein and bicarbonates. It results when the methyl-orange indicator is added to phenolphthalein sample no bicarbonates are present. Therefore, the alkalinity to phenolphthalein is due to hydroxides alone. Note: Hydroxides are together in a solution but hydroxides are less soluble in phenolphthalein.

(3) *Caustic Alkalinity*

Calcium Hardness
 Take 100 ml sample of boiler water,
 add 10 ml of barium chloride,
 add 10 drops of phenolphthalein, result pink colouration,
 add N/50 sulphuric acid to clear the sample.
 Calculation: ml of N/50 acid used $\times 10 = \text{p.p.m. } CaCO_3$

In this test barium chloride is first added to the boiler water sample in order to precipitate all the carbonates which are present. The test is then carried out as for the alkalinity to phenolphthalein test but in this case only the hydroxides (caustic) will be measured.

Chloride Test

Take alkalinity to phenolphthalein sample,
 add 2 ml of sulphuric acid,
 add 20 drops of potassium chromate indicator,
 add N/35.5 silver nitrate solution until a brown colouration
 results.
 Calculation: ml of N/35.5 solution used x 10 = p.p.m. Cl
 or ml of N/50 silver nitrate solution used x 10 = p.p.m.
 CaCO_3

Chlorides may be present in the boiler water sample and it is essential that they be measured as they would be an indication of salt water leakage into the feed system, either a leaky condenser or a primed evaporator, etc. The alkalinity to phenolphthalein sample taken, has had the hydroxides and carbonates dealt with and they will play no further part in the test now conducted for chlorides. The sample is made definitely acidic by the addition of a further small quantity of acid, this is to speed up the chemical reactions which next take place. Silver nitrate has an affinity for potassium chromate and chlorides, its principal preference however is for the chlorides. When it has neutralised the chlorides present in the sample it is then free to react with the potassium chromate, in doing so it produces a reddish brown colouration. It is therefore apparent that the amount of silver nitrate solution used is a direct measure of the chloride content of the boiler water sample. Note: As the drops of silver nitrate strike the sample, a reddish brown local colouration results which quickly disappears if chlorides are present. This should be ignored.

Sulphite Test

Take 100 ml of boiler water
add 2 ml of sulphuric acid,
add 1 ml of starch solution
add potassium iodide-iodate
colour
Calculation: ml of iodide-
p.p.m. Na_2SO_3 .

The boiler water sample is made up of chemical reactions which are to iodate produces a blue colouration but it has a preferential chemical present in the sample. Hence when a solution has dealt with all the starch react with the starch present in the colouration. It is therefore a potassium iodide-iodate solution. The sulphite content of the boiler water in the atmosphere should be excluded; an incorrect result may occur. If the reserve of sodium sulphite is present, no need to conduct a test for dissolved

Phosphate Test

Take 25 ml of filtered boiled water, add 25 ml vanadomolybdate solution, fill comparator tube with hand compartment of com-

In left hand compartment mix equal volumes of vialised water. Allow colour to stand for 5 minutes and then compare with disc reading.

Hardness Test

Take 100 ml of filtered boi
add 2 ml (20 drops) of amm
add **0.2g** of mordant bla
dissolved.

If hardness salts are present
Titrate with EDTA solution

and then blue (with some waters a greyish coloured end point is reached).

Calculation: ml of EDTA solution used $\times 10 = \text{p.p.m. } \text{CaCO}_3$

pH Value

A boiler water's pH value can be obtained by three basic methods.

- (1) Litmus papers.
- (2) Colourimetrically.
- (3) Electrolytically.

The litmus paper method has already been described but the test does not give a very accurate pH result, indicating merely if the water is acidic or alkaline. Tests (2) and (3) however give a reasonably accurate pH value.

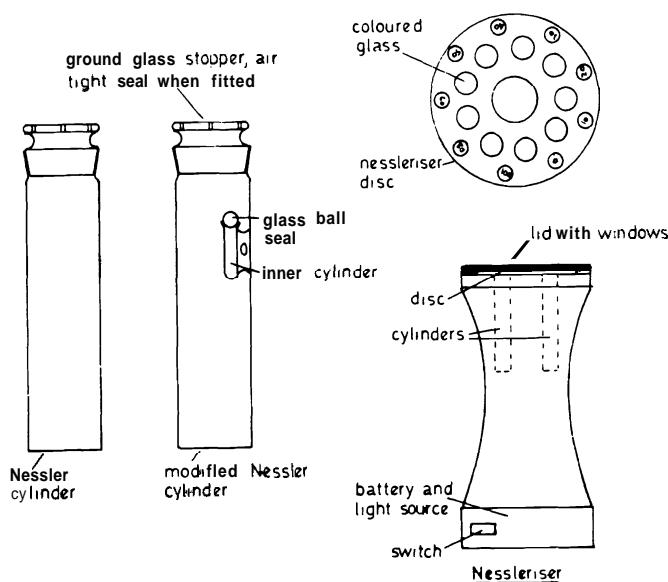


Fig. 4.2

Colourimetric Method (see Fig. 4.2)

Take sample of boiler water.

Place one thymol blue tablet

Add 50 ml of sample to Nessleriser dissolved.

Put 50 ml of sample into the other

Place (1) in right hand compartment

Place (2) in left hand compartment

Place appropriate disc in Nessleriser then read the pH value from

Electrolytic Method

An electric cell, using the boiler water as the electrolyte, has two special electrodes, both made of platinum. The difference between the electrodes is proportional to the hydrogen ion content of the electrolyte. The potential difference is measured across the electrodes connected into the external circuit and the meter will read pH values.

Dissolved Oxygen Test

Take 500 ml of boiler water sample add 0.3 ml of manganese chloride add 0.3 ml of potassium hydroxide add 1 ml of hydrochloric acid add 2 ml of ortho-tolidine.

In this test it is essential that the sample is taken from the same part of the system throughout the time the sample is being tested. To arrange this a sampling flask is used. After adding the reagents and chemicals to the boiler water sample, the sample is compared colourimetrically with standard indicator solutions whose dissolved oxygen content is known. Where colours of sample and indicator are the same, the dissolved oxygen content of the boiler water is known.

Alternative test

To 8 ml of prepared stock reagent add 1 ml of glucose tablet dissolved in glycerol. This solution is added to make Leuco reagent.

Some of the Leuco reagent (which remains stable for several hours) is used to fill the inner cylinder.

A glass ball is then placed on to the inner cylinder sealing in the reagent — no air must be trapped below the ball. Boiler water sample is run into the Nessler cylinder for at least 2 minutes to obtain a good sample and exclude all air, the cylinder stopper is quickly fitted and then by inverting the cylinder the glass ball will fall from the inner cylinder and the reagent will mix with the sample. When the two are thoroughly mixed the cylinder is placed into one compartment of a Nessleriser and a cylinder containing boiler water sample only is placed in the opposite compartment. An appropriate Nessleriser disc is then fitted and rotated until the colours match, when this occurs a reading in **ml/litre** is obtained in the small window.

If the dissolved oxygen content is high (above 0.2 **ml/litre**) it is recommended that no attempt should be made to reduce it by means of sodium sulphite (Na_2SO_3), otherwise considerable quantities of this chemical would have to be used increasing the total dissolved solids content of the boiler water.

When dissolved oxygen content is high, it could be due to a leakage into that part of the system which operates at a pressure below atmospheric, faulty deaeration equipment, air ejectors, etc., the matter should be corrected as early as possible to reduce risk of corrosion.

Total Dissolved Solids

These are ascertained by use of a hydrometer or electrical conductivity meter.

Hydrometer: Usually graduated in grains per imperial gallon (to convert grains per imperial gallon to **p.p.m.** multiply by 14.3). Care must be taken when using the hydrometer to account for the water meniscus and to ascertain accurately the temperature of the sample. Temperature correction tables for the hydrometer are usually supplied with it.

Conductivity Meter: A portable, battery operated, electrical conductivity meter is used in this test. The removable conductivity cell is washed out and filled with a treated boiler water sample (treatment consists of cooling to 15 to 20°C, adding phenolphthalein and removing pink colouration with acid). The filled cell is plugged into the meter, its temperature checked and the temperature control set to correspond. A range switch is set to approximate range of reading expected, then a central control is operated until 'null' balance of the electrical bridge circuit (the cell forms one resistance) is achieved. Position of the central control indicates the total dissolved solids in the water usually in **p.p.m.** but it may be conductivity in micromhos

(to convert; **p.p.m.** total dissolved micromhos $\times 0.7$).

Hydrazine Test

Take 250 ml of boiler water sample to 25°C. Add 15 ml of 0.5N hydrazine to 25°C. Add 25 ml of bo 4-dimethylaminobenzaldehyde to Add 35 ml of boiler water sample Place (1) in right hand compartment Place (2) in left hand compartment Match samples against disc colour

Calculations: $\frac{\text{disc reading}}{25} = \text{p.p.m.}$

The hydrazine reserve in the boiler 0.1 to 1 **p.p.m.**

TEST EXAMPLES 4

Class 3

1. Why is oil in boiler water considered dangerous, where does it usually come from and how can it be removed?
2. Water for boilers is usually kept as pure as reasonably possible. Give reasons why this is so.
3. Briefly describe why boiler water needs to be tested periodically and state two of the tests.

Class 2

1. Give an analysis of the sample of:
(a) Sea water,
(b) Fresh water.
Which of these solids cause corrosion?
2. Discuss the contamination action should be taken in to prevent damage to boil are made?
3. What are the causes of precautions would you take?
(a) when boiler is stea
(b) when boiler is idle
How would you test the alkalinity?
4. Suggest with reasons w impurities in the feed water at 7 bar, dry saturated are l formation:

a)	silica,
b)	iron compounds,
c)	sodium chloride,
d)	magnesium bi-carbo
e)	calcium bi-carbona
f)	calcium sulphate,
g)	sodium sulphate,
h)	magnesium chlorid
5. Give a reason why sodium and hydrazine are each u Describe any three of the a to boiler water. Explain ho treatment. State two prec storing and handling these

TEST EXAMPLES 4

Class 1

1. Describe how you would make a quantitative test of boiler water for:
 - (a) alkalinity,
 - (b) chlorinity,
 - (c) hardness.

State the values obtained from the above tests that you would consider suitable for a water tube boiler. Describe in each case the action you would take if a test gave an unsatisfactory result.
2. Why is it necessary to keep oxygen out of the boiler? Describe how this is done mechanically and chemically. State the procedure for laying up a boiler:
 - (a) for a considerable period,
 - (b) a few days.
3. Enumerate the scale forming solids in fresh and sea water respectively. How would you steam a boiler on contaminated feed? Give reasons for your action.
4. Describe the boiler water tests carried out for boilers, and the results expected from:
 - (a) low pressure boilers,
 - (b) high pressure boilers,
5. Specify, with reasons, those parts requiring particularly close scrutiny during internal and external examination of independently fired auxiliary boilers. With reference to those examinations distinguish between metal fatigue due to caustic embrittlement, corrosion fatigue, overheating (plastic flow) and direct overpressure.

CHAP

STEERING

This chapter will include Telemetering, Power (Amplifier) Units, Actuators and will conclude with a short account of ship stabilisers.

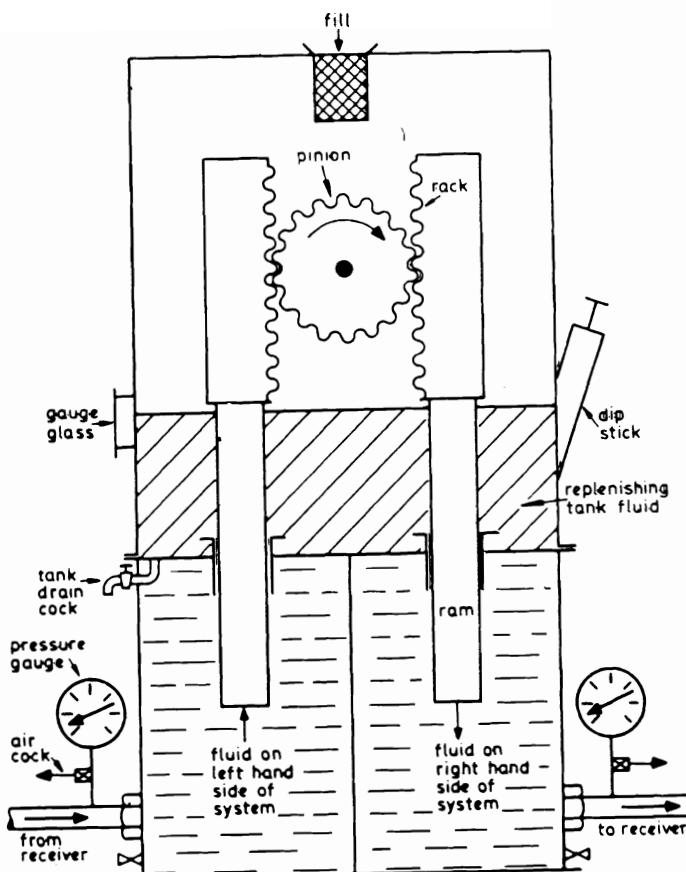
TELEMETER (TRANSMITTER)

The steering gears to be described are electrical, when operated by an electric motor, or by air pressure using closed loop control principles. The system uses a 'master and slave' principle. The movement of the master steering wheel at the bridge and the receiver at the stern is converted into a fluid movement which is transduced hydraulically and then transduced electrically. This signal may be retained as an ornamental record.

Hydraulic Transmitter (Fig. 5.1)

As the bridge steering wheel rotates, the right hand pinion causes the right hand ram to move down, pushing oil out to the receiver unit. The left hand ram moves up, so a greater volume of oil is taken from the receiver unit. The fluid is returned to the receiver unit, hence any down movement of the receiver unit creates an identical movement at the receiver. The same quantity of fluid which has been taken from the receiver unit is created by the left hand ram moving up. The replenishing tank acts as an oil reservoir.

The casing is usually gunmetal, and the pipes are led in by drilled leads. These are required in the system to allow for temperature changes and also to provide a connection between both sides of the system.



HYDRAULIC TRANSMITTER
Fig. 5.1

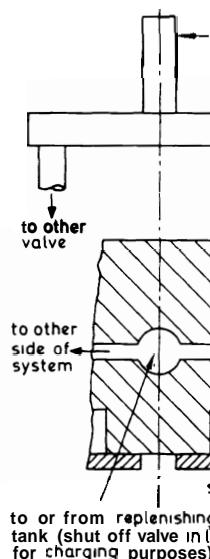
The device is called the bypass valve, which has the additional functions of topping up the system in the case of leakages and acting as a relief valve in case of pressure rise.

The Bypass Valve

Referring to Fig. 5.2:
Operation can only be carried out when the wheel is in the mid

position. This is achieved by having a wheel, which rests against a circular disc, in mid position. The wheel is driven by a revolving disc allows the fluid to pass through it. With some types the wheel is turned by hand whilst with other types the wheel is turned by a cam each time the wheel passes the disc. In the former the rod is operated by a cam each time the wheel passes the disc. In the latter the rod is operated when either pressure or a signal is applied to the wheel. The two sides of the system are connected to the replenishing tank via a connection to the replenishing tank, so that any expansion or contraction is corrected. In some types a relief valve is provided in the replenishing tank, set about 18 kg/cm². The valve opens when working in the opposite direction to the transmitter, when loaded (about 2.5N). Other types have a valve in the replenishing tank with no valve in the system.

To test most gears for tightness, first one side then the other, at a

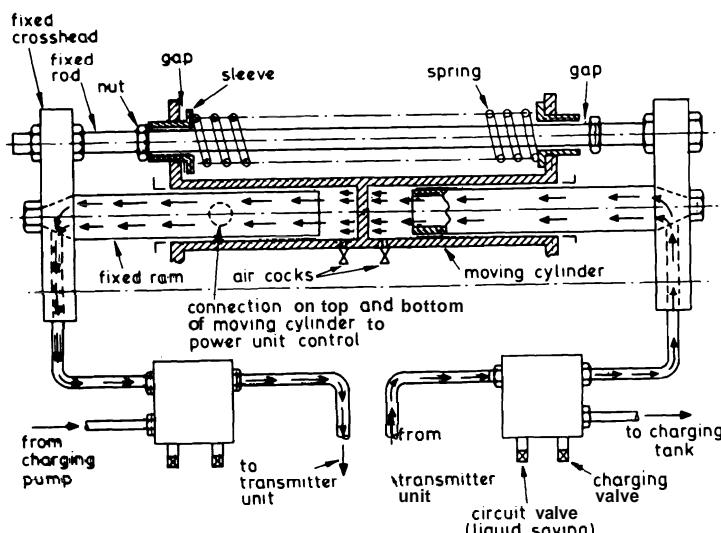


BYPASS VALVE
Fig. 5.2

should hold for a considerable time). Leakage at either side means that all pipe joints and glands must be examined. To test the bypass valve the above procedure is repeated but with the liquid saving (or circuit valves) on the receiver telemotor shut, this loads each of the valves on the bypass unit in turn.

Hydraulic Receiver (Fig. 5.3)

Considering the starboard (*clockwise*) movement of the bridge wheel (as mentioned for the steering telemotor). The depressed right hand ram pressurises the right hand side of the system. The pressure force acts on the central web of the moving cylinder until the movement caused corresponds to the movement of the ram in the steering telemotor. Oil is pushed back on the left hand side of the moving cylinder central web to the steering unit.



HYDRAULIC RECEIVER
Fig. 5.3

After a small initial movement the left hand sleeve butts against the nut and further movement by the moving cylinder to the left compresses the springs. When the steering wheel is returned mid-ships the springs, which are under initial compression, return the moving cylinder to mid position.

For a port wheel rotation the receiver moves down and the receiver moves opposite direction *i.e.* in the g with the bypass valve the centralising device.

The moving cylinder is connected to the unit of the steering engine. The telemotor unit by wheel rotation control device which causes rotation rudder movement.

Electro-Hydraulic Type

Utilises control signals from a microprocessor amplified to operate solenoid valves which allow flow from a small oil pump to the actuator controlled by the microprocessor.

Telemotor Fluid

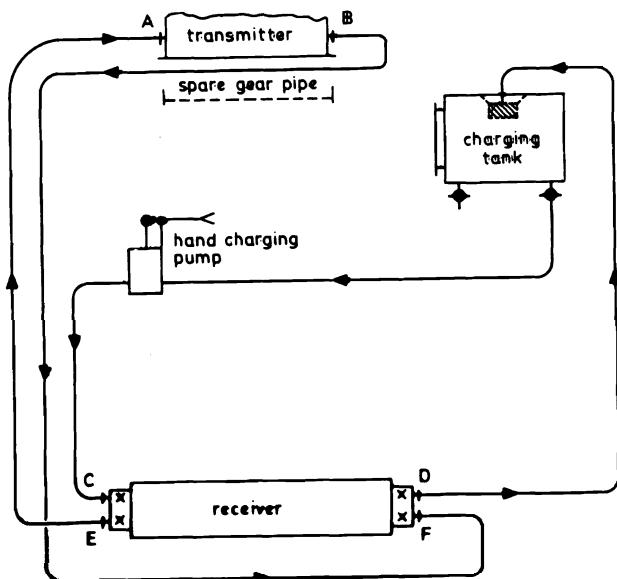
Good quality mineral lubricating properties:

(1) Low pour point (2) non sludging (3) good lubricating properties (5) High viscosity index (HVI) to reduce frictional drag, but not too difficult. Typical properties are: density 850 kg/m³, viscosity 15.5 cSt (at 50°C), viscosity 12 cSt (at 100°C), pour point—30°C.

Charging System (Fig. 5.4)

First consider the *cleaning* operation. Replenishing tanks are first drained of clean oil until perfectly clean. The telemotor is similarly drained and finally washed through with water which have been drained off at the lower end of the telemotor. Charging at the steering telemotor through the spare gear pipe and the pipes at the top of the telemotor are disconnected. Clean oil is now introduced and a head must be maintained.

Using the pump, oil is pumped into the system at C, the pipe connection at C being closed. Open the charging valves C and D and pump until the oil is clear. Continue pumping until the oil is clear and then close valve D, when clear, close valve C.



CHARGING SYSTEM

Fig. 5.4

D, remove spare gear pipe and couple up pipes to steering telemotor.

Considering now the **charging**. Open all air cocks. A constant head must at all times be maintained in the charging tank otherwise air can be admitted to the system. A spring loaded valve is provided, normally in the return line, to the charging tank to prevent oil **backflow** from the highest point (steering telemotor) when charging, and giving air entry and vacuum problems.

The steering wheel is put to mid position, bypass valve open, charging shut off valve open. Pump until replenishing tank is full and all air clear at steering telemotor, close shut off valve and air cocks.

Repeat the procedure for the receiver telemotor until all air is clear and oil returns to the charging tank. Close charging valves, close bypass valve, open charging shut off valve.

The gear is now ready for testing (a) for leaks (b) that movement at each receiver corresponds in direction and amount (c) that there is definitely no air in the system.

Air in System

Air in any hydraulic system or telemotor system is no exception.

Air being compressible gives time lags and irregular operation presence in the system is indicative of faulty steering. It should usually be kept out with a tight seal. Should air get into the system it should be purged through the air cocks. Should a large quantity of air enter the system, faulty steering then probably the cause is a leak in the system and recharge. Water and dirt should be kept out of the system.

Emergency Operation

In the event of a total failure requirement that the ship can be aft. This is usually carried out steering wheel station to the receiver unit and hand gear unit control unit through a sliding pin fitted to the *receiver linkage hole*, the control unit, the hand gear main pin is removed and put into the this operates the control unit merely slides in the sleeve. Only be used in the required position, hand position and both the main lashed amidships.

Pin detail can be seen in Fig.

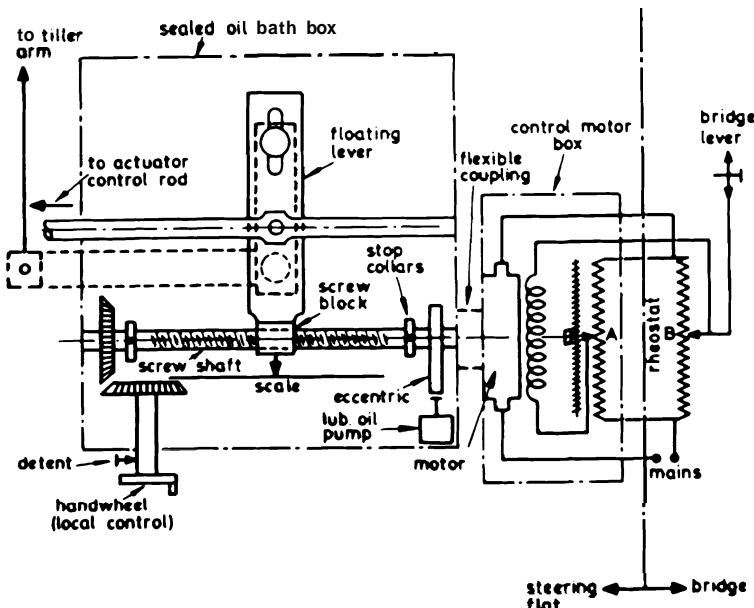
Electrical Telemotor

Bridge remote control is either pilot. The system of Fig. 5.9 grouped into an oil bath box as principle is almost identical but

A bridge lever moves rheostat to rotate the control torque motor equilibrium when the motor will Ward Leonard System electrical

Electrical input is most common motor drive via a flexible coupling rotates the screw shaft in the carriage block to move and, through the ball

of the actuator control rod. This electrical-mechanical transducer **also** has limit switches and may utilise synchros and gear trains.



ELECTRICAL TELE MOTOR Fig. 5.5

To change to local mechanical input control the electrical control is switched off and the spring detent on the handwheel lifted whilst the handwheel shaft is pushed home so that the spur gear engages when the detent is released to lock the shaft (electrical remote input, mechanical local input).

Control Terminology

It is useful to consider control aspects. The *deviation* signal on the control rod is the result of a proportional movement of the screw block from the helm (desired value) and the feedback signal from the tiller arm rod—shown under as dotted—acting on the floating lever.

POWER (AMP)

The function of the power transduce) the receiver output signal transmission to the final control rudder.

Electrical

A separately excited generator description is given under Electrical chapter.

Hydraulic

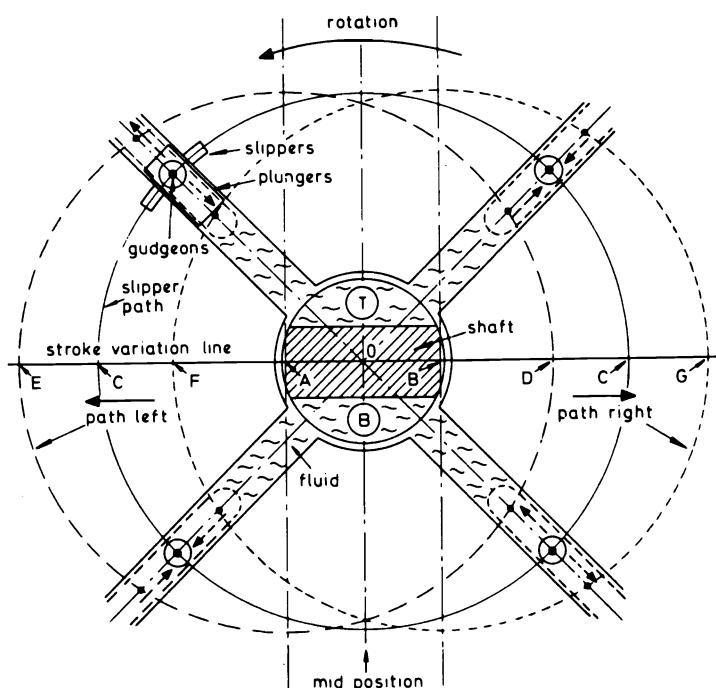
A variable delivery oil pressure will now be considered.

The *Hele-Shaw* Pump

Considering Fig. 5.6:

The shaft is stationary and cylinders rotates around the shaft speed and direction electrically. plungers are connected to sliders inside two circular rings on each centre of the rings coincide with the travel is at mid position. At this fixed radius distance from the means there is no relative motion between the shaft and no pumping action takes place.

If now the circular slipper ring is moved along its operating rod, through the casing, so as to bring the centre of rotation of the slipper eccentric to the centre of the shaft, the distance the plunger gudgeons are moved, the distance is OF. With the direction of travel from G to F the plunger is moving away from the fixed central shaft and port A is in discharge. In completing the circle the plungers are moving out relative to the shaft and the bottom port B acts as a suction port. In the sketch dotted, likewise the reverse positions.



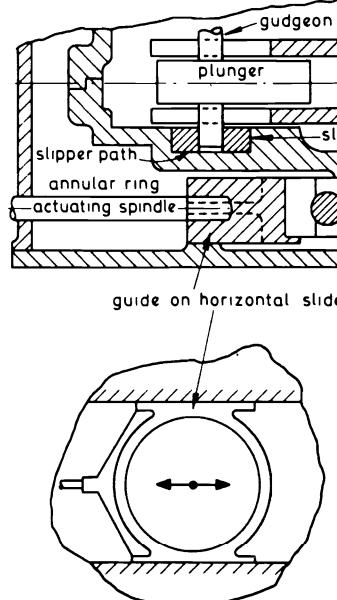
HELE-SHAW PRINCIPLE
Fig. 5.6

If the circular slider rings are moved left so the centre of plunger rotation is at *A* then the *shortest* distance is *OD* and the *greatest* distance is *OE*, i.e. plungers are moving *out* in top half of rotation and *T* is a *suction* and *in* during bottom half of rotation and *B* is a *discharge*. The path and plunger movement are shown here as dashed line.

As the stroke of the plungers depends on the movement of the slider path **horizontally** and hence the eccentricity, so the pump is of the variable delivery type. Also direction of flow depends on movement left or right of central position so that for unidirectional rotation the direction of flow is reversible.

A simplified construction sketch is as shown (Fig. 5.7).

The drive for the cylinder body can be seen rotating in roller bearings outside the fixed central shaft with the oil block fastened to the casing. Plunger and gudgeon pin connection to sliders can be seen with the slider running in the annular



HELE-SHAW PUM
Fig.

groove of the circular ring. They are fixed but are free to rotate as this reduces oil churning and wear.

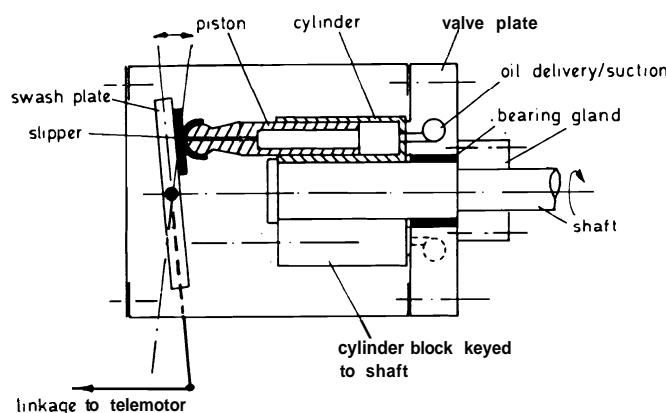
The control or actuating spindle moves the floating ring **horizontally** to move the floating ring guide on horizontal slide.

In practice the pump is usually of cylinders, usually seven or eight, giving better hydraulic flow and better pumping efficiency.

Variable Delivery Pump—Alternative

This type of pump has been developed later). Consider Fig. 5.8.

This utilises a similar principle of piston drive from a tilting swash plate.



VARIABLE DELIVERY PUMP
Fig. 5.8

axial piston drive from a tilting trunnion or from cam faces (see ball piston type, Fig. 5.17).

Slipper pads bear against the swash plate face and the plungers are driven in and out axially for each revolution of the rotor. For one direction of tilt ports on one side of the horizontal centre line become suction and on the other side of this centre line become discharge. For the opposite direction of tilt the direction of flow is reversed. The quantity of discharge depends on the angle of tilt. In mid position no relative movement exists between piston and end plate and no pumping action takes place.

ACTUATOR (SERVO) MECHANISMS

There are two main types of steering 'engine' now in use namely electro-hydraulic and all electric. For each type two designs are given:

Electro-Hydraulic: Ram, Rotary Vane.

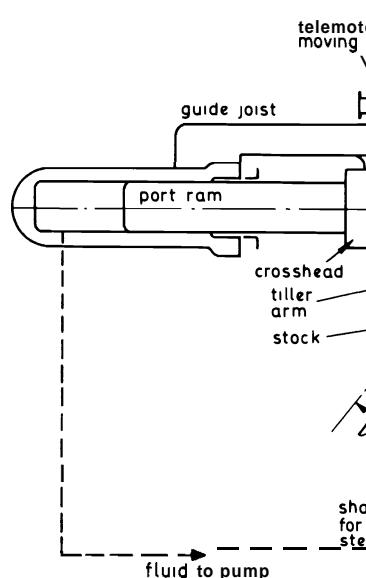
All Electric: Ward Leonard, Single Motor.

Electro-Hydraulic Ram Steering Gear

The pump unit delivers to rams which are virtually directly coupled to the rudder stock forming the actuator mechanism.

Referring first to the diagrammatic plan view of the electro hydraulic steering gear given in Fig. 5.9. Consider a movement

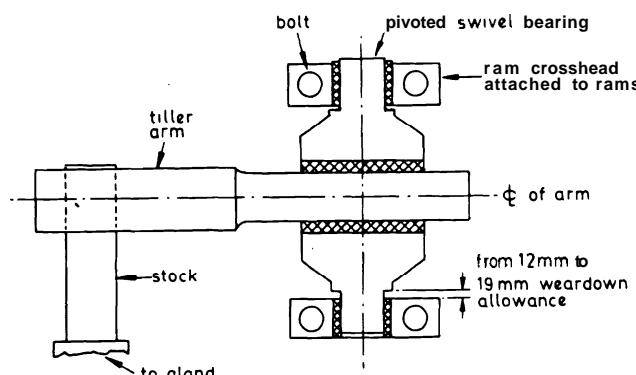
of the wheel to starboard and the rudder movement will be to starboard to port (right to left)



ELECTRO-HYDRAULIC RAM STEERING GEAR
Fig. 5.9

The steering telemotor moves (as previously) but is mounted on a pivot degrees so that the movement of the receiver motion is given to a pivot (fulcrum) so that the other end of the hand gear control, two positions of movement stops. The movement is controlled by the pump stroke control actuating lever for the stroke of the pressure pump. The pump drives the constant speed pump now *delivers* oil from the port ram. The rams move in the guide joists. Stops are provided.

As the rams slide across they push on the ram crossheads moving the tiller arm to port, the arm sliding through the swivel bearing. The crosshead detail is shown in Fig. 5.10. A wear down rudder allowance of 19 mm is provided so as not to induce bending stresses on the ram. With the tiller arm going to port the rudder moves to starboard. The rotating stock movement is led back by a spring link to the pump control floating lever. This constitutes the hunting gear (feed back) in that when the telemotor movement stops, the floating lever stops going to the left. The bottom of the lever is being pushed to the right and so the stroke control of the pump is almost immediately brought back to pump mid position. This means the pump stops pumping and the unit is virtually fluid locked at the required rudder position.



CROSSHEAD ARRANGEMENT
Fig. 5.10

The tiller-rudderhead bearing and carrier usually have the main casting of cast steel, with a large machined base for fitting to the deck. A bronze thrust ring is on top of this casting and the tiller boss has a machined ring face to go against this thrust face. The thrust ring is in halves and doweled against rotation and lubrication is provided. The main gland bush, in halves, is usually of **gunmetal** and is grease lubricated.

Fabricated assemblies are common in modern practice.

Rudder, stock and other parts have weight transmission to the tiller by means of a steel support plate and eyebolt on top of the rudder stock.

At the pump block are no leading to the sump or replenishing leads (*XX*). The rams are also led into the system is well filtered pure lub coupling up to the hand steering with the motor running, having replenishing tank and ram cylinder bypass valves open. The bypass fully rotated port and starboard ram cylinders, etc., at the air fold units in the block, consisting of two other valves, of the **spring relief valves**. Each valve connects the pressure in either ram (depending on the design) to give way when subject to severe pump actuating spindle is moved rudder to the previous position relief valves, when operating, a (with increased offset between them which will be reduced as soon as when relief valves close).

The relief valves lifting prevent maximum loading on the rams, torque that is exerted on the torsional stress is so limited that it works on the well known principle knowing the maximum lifting the ram load is fixed, applying gives the torque exerted, which stock diameter, and horse power of pump. Higher pressure systems 190 bar. For a detail of the pu

Emergency Operation

In many installations four side of a double tiller arm, together units. All connections are normally in service, the other is a stand by if the service motor fails. See a

During manoeuvring in dangerous often used together. Such instances operate from emergency es

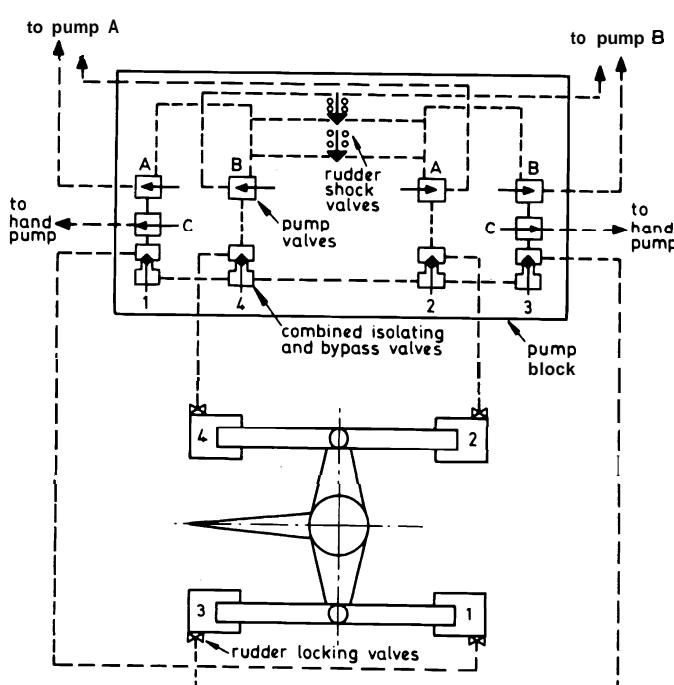
generator circuits in the event of a main power failure. The above considerations satisfy the most onerous required regulations.

For less onerous rule requirements a hand pinion drive (as shown in Fig. 5.9) or hand pumping may be acceptable. In the extreme case of emergency a block and hawser arrangement could be rigged up.

A complete armature and field coil would normally be carried as part of the spare gear.

Control Valve Block

Refer to Fig. 5.11 which illustrates a system which is acceptable, but by no means standard, for electro-hydraulic type gears.



CONTROL VALVE BLOCK

Fig. 5.11

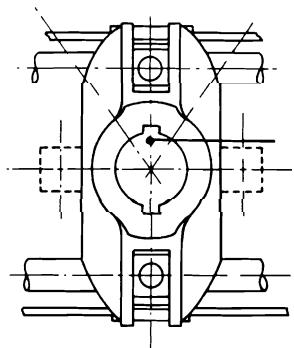
Rudder locking valves on all of emergency.

The main valve block contains rudder shock (relief) valves (2) valves for each pump A and B) isolating and bypass valves com

When a pump is not in use it relieved of a starting load by This valve is kept in a bypass p up and its discharge pressure is bypass connection is then auto connection opened, by valve m hydraulically to the steering g Fig. 5.11. An alternative is between motor and pump, wh but when stopped the pawls en rotation.

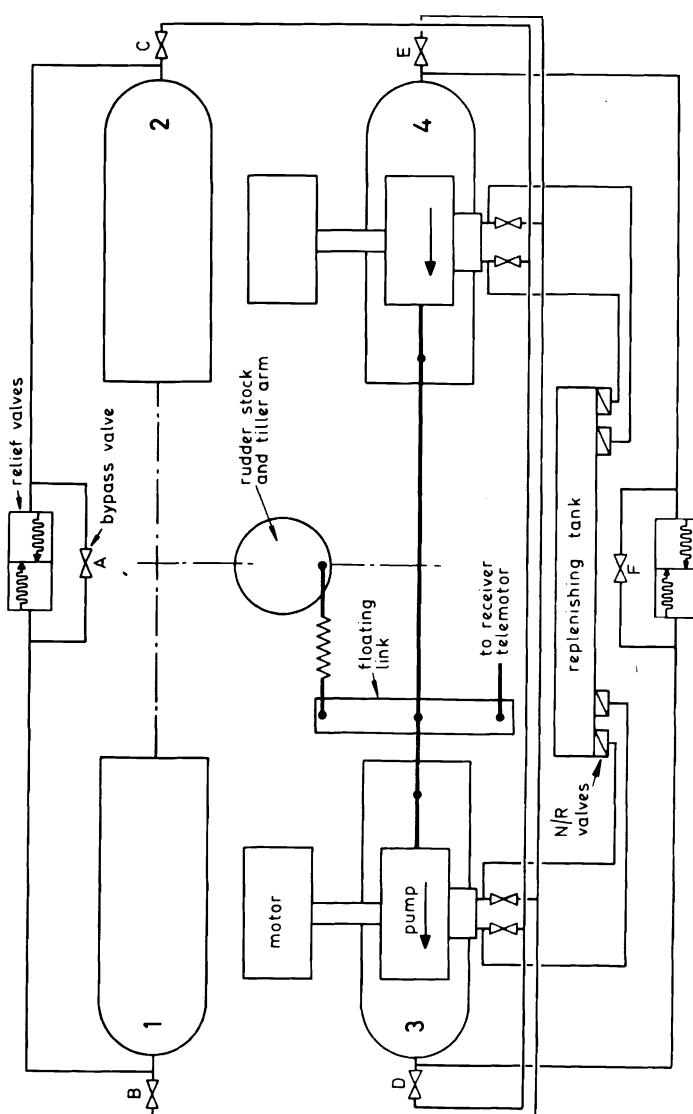
Under **normal** conditions eith and to bring in the other pump starter. The four pump valves two hand pump valves marked

For **emergency** conditions w pump valves are closed and the



RAPSON SLIDE F

Fig.



FOUR RAM STEERING GEAR
Fig. 5.13

Five combinations of rams are possible (1) all four cylinders closed, (2) two port, two starboard, (3) one port, three starboard, (4) two starboard, two port, (5) all four rams open. This arrangement is not usually possible as valves 1 and 2 are all open on the isolating connection. To operate the rams, valves 1 and 2 are closed, and valves 3 and 4 should be open. Similarly, if valves 1 and 2 are open, and valves 3 and 4 closed, the procedure applies for the other three combinations. These are classed as open if the isolating connection is obviously open or closed, and vice versa).

Fork Type Tiller (Fig. 5.12)

This is a more recent design. The rams act upon a codpiece which is machined into upper and lower

Rapson Slide (Fig. 5.12)

This illustrates the increased mechanical advantage (frictionless) of this type of gear.

The mechanical advantage increases with angle and is 1.5 at 90°. At 0° the mechanical advantage is unity.

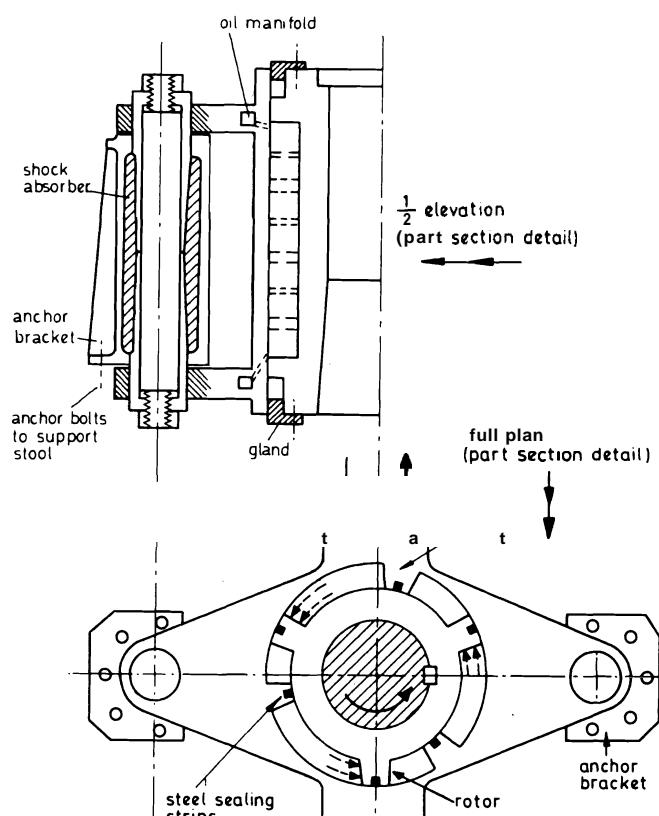
Four Ram Steering Gear

Fig. 5.13 illustrates diagrammatically the four ram type of four ram gear with a pump and motor. In the previous example. In this case, there are five possible (1) all four cylinders closed, (2) two port, two starboard, (3) one port, three starboard, (4) two starboard, two port, (5) all four rams open. This arrangement is not usually possible as valves 1 and 2 are all open on the isolating connection. To operate the rams, valves 1 and 2 are closed, and valves 3 and 4 should be open. Similarly, if valves 1 and 2 are open, and valves 3 and 4 closed, the procedure applies for the other three combinations. These are classed as open if the isolating connection is obviously open or closed, and vice versa).

The hunting gear arrangement shown in Fig. 5.13 and two pumps are normally used.

Electro-Hydraulic Rotary Vanes

Details are as sketched in Fig. 5.14. The vane unit is normally designed to withstand 90 bar as distortion and leakage pressures. The design is simple and popular in practice. In fact the mechanical advantage is not as great as may be imagined.



ROTARY VANE UNIT (3 VANE)

Fig. 5.14

and integrated construction utilised in modern hydraulic ram designs. There is however, a definite space saving but the first cost is usually higher. Absorption and transmission of torque relief is essential to avoid excess radial loading of vanes. Support has resilient shock absorber mountings which also allows for small misalignment—where spade type rudders are used axial and radial thrust bearings are provided. The three vane type is used for rudder angles of 70° and for larger angles a two vane unit would be used. Vanes, of SG iron, are secured to the rotor or stator by dowels and keyed (full length). The vanes themselves act as rudder stops. Steel sealing strips backed by synthetic rubber are fitted into grooves along the working faces of rotor and stator vanes.

Comparison of Units

Torque is dependent (for one effective leverage. The ram design of these variables—pressure is constant to about half that on rams (due to certain torque the vane unit must be integral design produces weight and size when the vane alternative hydraulic pressure system operation is readily achieved with this type is more flexible to alternative support, and shock loadings, resulting with vane units because of the clearance between rudder and actuator.

Automatic Fail Safe System

Donkin utilise the bedplate up to two thirds height, so each pump. Each pump is associated mounted one above the other complete half power steering gear rudder movement at maximum at two thirds maximum ship speed (in tank) the two systems are joined fitted with a solenoid operated allowing a free balanced flow of oil.

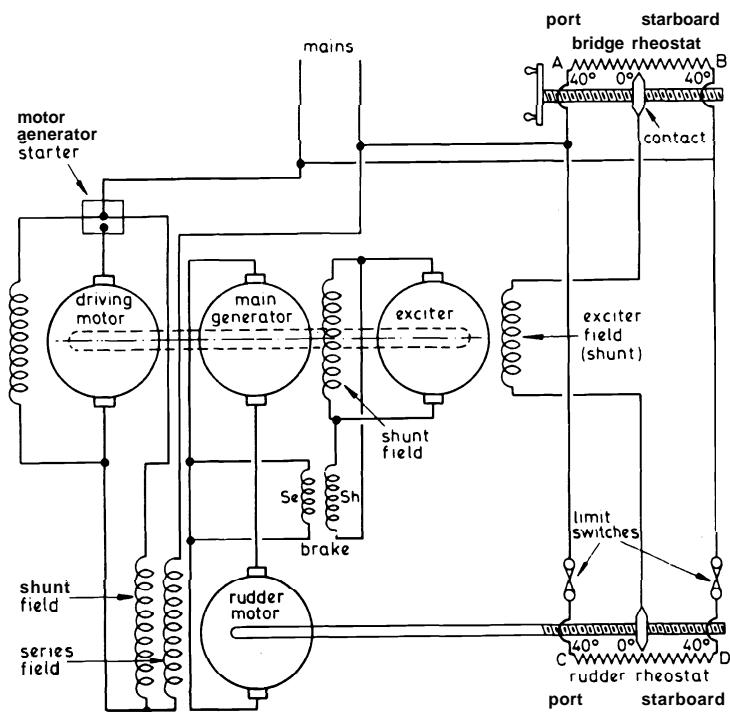
If leakage of oil does occur, the switch closes, which isolates simultaneously closes its associated two systems, putting the ram cylinder in the bypass condition. Operation interruption to steering; audible the bridge.

As the choice of circuit isolating circuit has been chosen, the oil float fall and eventually close the set. This at once changes over corresponding isolating valve elimination, the correct circuit in the second stage of the float switch still remain thus ensuring an continued working of the rudder circuit is now completely isolated can be carried out without inter-

Two or four ram units have been fitted to vessels up to 90,000 g.r.t.

The Ward Leonard Electrical Steering Gear

In this case telemotor, power and actuator units are considered in one. A brief and simplified description of the electrical principles involved, sufficient only for examination purposes, is given.



ELECTRICAL STEERING GEAR (WARD LEONARD)
Fig. 5.15

There are four electrical facts that are important in the system:

(1) If a direct current generator is driven at constant speed and direction then the magnitude and direction of the voltage is dependent on the **magnitude** and direction of the current through the field windings.

(2) The magnitude and direction of a direct current motor having a fixed field is dependent on the magnitude and direction of the torque.

(3) When a steady current flows in a conductor there is a steady voltage drop along the conductor.

(4) If a voltage is applied across two conductors joined in parallel the maximum current that can flow in either conductor is dependent on the points on the conductors.

Considering Fig. 5.15, the current in the main generator is connected up as a 'Wheatstone bridge'. It is supplied from a mains supply. With the two conductors joined in parallel the maximum current that can flow in either conductor is dependent on the points on the conductors.

If the wheel is moved say from port to starboard, the contact moves on the screw towards the bridge rheostat. This means that the voltages (Fact 3). Current therefore flows in a fixed direction, if the wheel is moved towards A, current would have to flow in the direction of the magnitude of the current. The movement of the steering wheel therefore gives the necessary voltage difference. Thus a variable magnitude and direction of current will flow in the exciter shunt field.

The main motor drives the generator taking current from the generator. In equivalent positions no current flows in the generator because no current is induced in its armature. Similarly for the main generator, no current is supplied to the rudder motor as it is field excited from the generator. It cannot produce torque without an armature current.

With the bridge contact moving in one direction through the exciter shunt field produces volts which sends a current through the field. A current now flows through the generator and the rudder motor rotates the rudder. The rudder functions so that the rudder motor follows the rudder rheostat to follow the bridge contact. When the bridge contact is stopped,

two contacts into equivalent voltage again to cause no current to flow through the exciter and subsequent circuits and so stop the rudder motor in the correct position.

If the wheel is moved to port, current flows in the reverse direction so that the generator produces *reverse* direction current (Fact 1). This current will produce *opposite* direction of rotation for the rudder motor (Fact 2) and the contact of the rudder rheostat is hunted *towards* C until equilibrium again exists. The exciter is really a current amplifier to reduce the current required at the rheostat contacts whilst giving sufficient current through the generator field. The series field of the rudder motor automatically gets a boost current when the driving motor comes on extra power with the generator and exciter producing current, and this boost serves to overcome the inertia of the rudder gear. Limit switches are fitted on the contacts to cut off current at about 36° positon before the mechanical stops are reached. The brake is kept on whilst no current flows in the rudder motor armature and when current flows another resistance comes into parallel so *reducing* the total resistance and allowing rotation of the rudder. The brake functions to slip at a predetermined load so producing current, and this boost serves to overcome the inertia of the movement and is usually transmitted by a pinion, wheel and spur gear or by worm and wheel to a rudder quadrant.

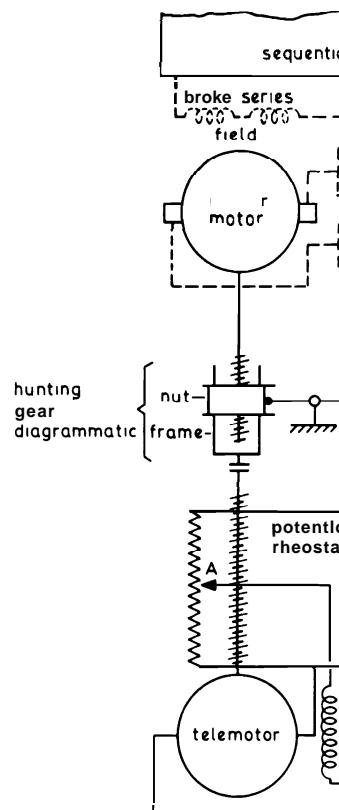
To stop excessive hunting a damping coil in the exciter circuit is provided which is wound in opposition to the exciter field winding.

Emergency Operation

Many installations are provided with completely separate twin electrical equipments on to one quadrant. A changeover switch allows independent operation and either equipment can be directly operated from a rheostat aft for hand emergency steering. The electric circuit will be on the essential services emergency circuit, being battery operated or battery and emergency generator operated. In addition a spur gearing from prop to quadrant teeth can be provided. The above conditions would serve to satisfy the most onerous rules applicable. Suitable spare gear for all essential parts would require to be supplied.

Electric Single Motor Steering Gear.

Consider Fig. 5.16.



ELECTRICAL S
(SINGLE)
Fig.

The armature of the telemotor and so is the potentiometer rheostat by the wheel then current flows between A and B. The telemotor rotates so as to bring equilibrium.

Through a screw nut, frame reverser switch is moved up and flows through the brake field (to rudder motor series field and

armature. The shunt field of the rudder motor (not shown) is permanently connected to the mains but this is insufficient to cause rotation unless the series field is also excited. Rotation of the rudder motor is arranged to hunt back the rheostat contact A through a floating lever frame and screw nut arrangement as well as opening the reverser switch.

If the reverser is moved in the other direction the current direction is reversed through the rudder motor armature, but not through the field, so that rotational direction changes.

SOME RULES APPERTAINING TO STEERING GEARS

(1) All vessels must be provided with efficient main and auxiliary steering gear of power operated type. An auxiliary gear is not required if the main gear is provided with duplicate power units and duplicate connections up to the rudder stock.

(2) The vessel must have means provided to allow steering from a position aft.

(3) Two tillers, or their equivalent, are required unless the working tiller is of special design and strength.

(4) Power operated gears must be fitted with a device to relieve shock.

(5) Any lead connections, steam, hydraulic or electric should be independent to the gear only. Electric leads and fuses are to allow 100% overload.

(6) Moving parts of steering gears should be guarded to avoid injury to personnel.

(7) Hydraulic systems should employ non freezing fluid.

(8) A clear view from the steering position is required and the wheel, tell tale indicators, and rudder movement must correspond in the correct amount and in the correct direction for the ship's head.

(9) Operating trials should be carried out on steering gears to ascertain degree of action, time of operation, angle of heel at speeds, etc.

It should be noted that the steering gear should have a reasonably quick action, as an indication 'full port' to 'full starboard' rudder movement should take place in about 30 s with vessel at speed.

In view of serious accidents the IMO regulations relating to duplication of rudder actuators should be noted (also see automatic 'fail-safe' system, earlier): Every oil tanker, chemical tanker or gas carrier of 10,000 tons gross tonnage and upwards shall comply with the following:

(i) The main steering gear shall be capable of meeting the requirement, inter-connection of the two systems shall be provided. Loss of one power actuating system shall be regained in not more than 30 s after loss of one power actuating system.

(ii) The main steering gear shall be capable of meeting the requirement,

(1) two independent and separate power actuating systems each capable of meeting the requirement,

(2) at least two identical power actuating systems capable of acting simultaneously in normal service and capable of meeting the requirements. Wherever practicable, to meet the requirement, inter-connection of the two power actuating systems shall be provided. Loss of one power actuating system shall be capable of being automatically isolated so that the remaining power actuating system or systems shall remain fully operational.

(iii) Steering gears other than those mentioned above shall achieve equivalent standards.

For oil tankers, chemical tankers and gas carriers of 10,000 tons gross tonnage and upwards, and for ships having a deadweight of 10,000 tons and upwards, other solutions to those mentioned above may be acceptable. Such regulations may be issued by the appropriate classification society.

THE SHIP STABILISATION SYSTEM

As the operating principle of the ship stabilisation system is similar to that of an electro-hydraulic steering gear, it will be necessary to have a working knowledge of stabilisers.

The electric circuits and hydraulic systems involved are numerous and a detailed consideration of all would be unnecessary. A simplified presentation of the basic stabiliser system considered in three parts, namely, the ship, the hydraulic operation and gear, and the control system.

A knowledge of the operating principles of the ship's roll and yaw, fin action of the ship rolling, yawing and heeling, the ship's control system (using the analysis of the ship's motion, steering gear, avoiding the rather complex calculations involved in the analysis of the ship's motion and motor descriptions) is adequate for the purpose of this book.

Note. Development in the stability of ships has been rapid in recent years. Even the type of gear described may not be suitable for ships built in the last few years. Modern designs are available which provide a much greater athwartships roll resistance than the designs described in this book.

types in which the fin gear is retracted by swinging round on trunnions into the ship's hull. The fin itself rotates on the fin shaft, being rotated by an oil motor. Hydraulic systems have also been simplified.

Electrical Control

A selection switch on the bridge gives settings related to hand control, normal stabilising or automatically controlled rolling, together with an output control switch for beam sea, following sea, etc., conditions. The electrical control is identical with the hydraulic telemotor principle but functions with electrical relays. This means that a transmitted signal produces a corresponding movement at the stabiliser station, through a hunting gear, which is converted to a mechanical movement with hydraulic amplification to operate the fin operating gear.

There are two gyroscopes. One is a *vertical keeping* gyroscope whose signal goes through two selective transmitter **magslips** to a follow through **magslip** which is similarly operated by a rolling velocity gyroscope. The combined selected signal is transmitted to the hunter **magslip** of the oil motor and pump. The mechanical movement of a gyroscope alters the rotor position of the transmitter **magslip** and the current flow moves the rotor of the hunter **magslip** to a corresponding **positon** (just as transmitter and receiver telemotors). The rotor movement of the hunter **magslip** operates to allow oil to be pumped from the pump to the oil motor which rotates. The pump is driven at constant speed and direction by a small motor. The oil motor can rotate in either direction from neutral depending on the direction of movement of the hunter **magslip** rotor. As the motor rotates, a mechanically driven resetting transmitter **magslip** serves as a hunting gear and tends to fetch the hunter **magslip** back to the neutral position and stop rotation of the oil motor.

Hydraulic Operation

This has two distinct functions, the first is to *extend* or house the fins and the second, which is under gyroscope control, is to *tilt* the fins.

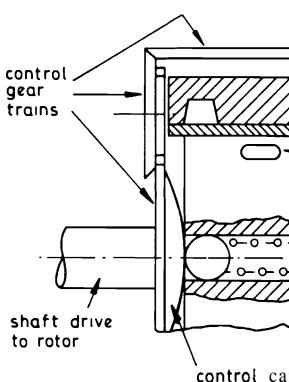
Oil is supplied from the storage tank to the servo pump which is driven at constant speed and direction by a motor. The pump is of the variable delivery tilting box (or swashplate) type but there is no reversal of suction and discharge lines.

The pump supplies oil in two pressure ranges, low pressure (29 bar maximum) to tilting control and high pressure (77 bar

maximum) for fin housing, selected by control cylinder. When supplied to the housing piston rod it moves the central tube into the fin shaft which is then held in its new position. Oil behind the piston forces the piston rod to move to the *outside* of the central tube because of the increase in oil due to volume of piston rod is supplied from the storage tank, during the housing operation, the piston rod is reversed. Control valves for the system are located in the central control box.

Consider now the fin tilting operation. When the signal for the tilting operation is controlled by the gyroscope signal, it is transmitted to the hunter **magslip** which rotates the rotor of the oil motor. The amount *and* direction of movement of the rotor of the oil motor is controlled by the hunter **magslip** rotor which serves to hold the position and stop motor rotation.

The oil pump and motor are connected so that the pump continuously drives the pump shaft which drives the motor rotor, running in a liner and the pump and motor cylinders are formed by axial bearing. The pump cylinder contains two balls separated by a ring of faces as they rotate run on the faces of the cylinder (Fig. 5.17).



OIL PUMP (P.
Fig. 5.17)

In the sketch shown the balls have a slight taper so that they roll from one face to the other and this is the non pumping position.

rotatable in opposite directions by use of the gear trains. In the **maximum** pumping position the two cam peaks both face each other so that during rotation the balls approach and leave each other. This produces a discharge (at about 7 bar pressure) and a suction during each revolution, a port at mid length of each cylinder leads out from the rotor. Four equidistant radial ports in the liner lead oil to wells, two suction and two discharge, in the casing, which lead oil to the suction and discharge ports which are located at opposite sides of the pump. Thus a variable delivery pump is supplying oil to the oil motor. The oil motor is similar in construction to the pump but the cams are **fixed**. Oil pressure supplied between the balls from the pump causes rotor rotation when the balls are **descending** the cams, on the return stroke oil is discharged to exhaust. By movement of the main valve, rotation is reversed in that pressure oil is now led to the port previously acting as exhaust and exhaust occurs through the port previously acting for pressure. The pump supplies oil to a pressure controller which functions to maintain a constant pressure under all outputs. The pump discharge to the control valve is then directed to the motor, whose rotational direction is dependent on the rotation of the hunter **magslip** rotor. With the main control valve shut the pump merely idles and the gear is then in the neutral position.

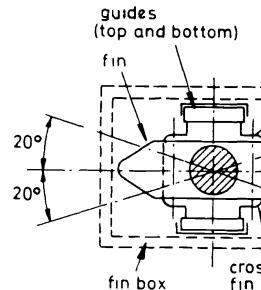
The final servo operated stage is now almost identical in operation to that of the electro-hydraulic steering gear. The movement from the cam operates the tilting control valve. This allows oil from the servo pump to move the tilting control cylinder in the required direction which in turn causes the fin tilting pumps, which are **continuously** driven by the main power unit electric motor, to deliver oil to move the rams in the tilting cylinders across.

The tilting control cylinder is virtually acting as a receiver telemotor, with similar hunting gear arrangement. The rams instead of rotating a tiller serve to tilt the ram by means of the toothed quadrant (see Fig. 5.18).

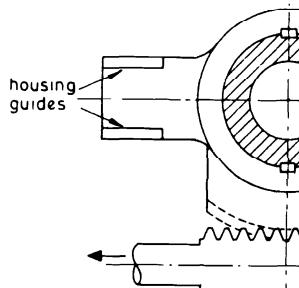
The variable delivery pump for the fin tilting and servo unit has been described previously (see Fig. 5.8).

Fin Detail

The principle of operation is to impose on the hull a rolling motion **equal** and **opposite** to that caused by the wave motion, this is achieved by utilising the forward velocity of the ship through the water. On the ship rolling to starboard the starboard fin is set by the gyroscope signal so that its **leading** edge is **above**



DETAIL OF FIN



DETAIL OF QUAD

Fig. 5.18

the axis of tilt so causing an **upward** thrust on the hull. The opposite tilt i.e., with its **leading** edge below the hull, gives a **downward** thrust.

Two rectangular fins, one at the bow and one at the stern, are mounted on the hull. They are directly opposite if space is available. The trailing edge of each is a hinged flap which is automatically rotated by a simple linkage. This flap gives a very much increased area. The fins are mounted on standard rectangular plates which are fitted on to a taper and is bolted to the hull. The fins being welded over the built up iron plate. The tail flap is inclined at 30° to the horizontal.

maximum 20" position and in the **same** direction, both being in line horizontally in neutral position (see Fig. 5.18).

Fins and shafts are placed athwartships, near amidships, near the turn of the bilge, and the axes of fins and shafts are inclined downwards to the outboard ends at about 15° to the horizontal plane. The 20° of tilt is suitable at about 15 knots but this maximum is reduced to about 11° at 24 knots to keep reasonable fin loading.

The fin is supported near the load application by a fin shaft crosshead which moves on top and bottom guides during housing or fin extending operations. Guides and shaft are inside the fin box, of fabricated construction, which is flanged at the outboard end and welded to stools at the inboard end. The flanging is bolted to a trunking which is welded to the hull adjacent to the tank top. The fin shaft passes through the fin box and trunk (which completely contain the fin in the housed position) emerging from the fin box inboard through a sea gland. When housing or extending, the fin is centralised and as it is drawn in or out by oil pressure from oil feed led in and out via the yoke and piston rod (as described previously), the guide shoes on each side of the fin shaft guide it along the extension guides (see Fig. 5.18).

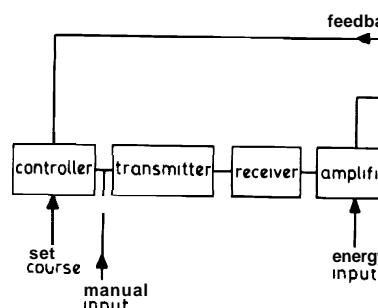
The crosshead guides, sea gland, etc., on the sea side are oil and grease lubricated by lubricators worked off the fin tilting shaft ram motion.

AUTO CONTROL

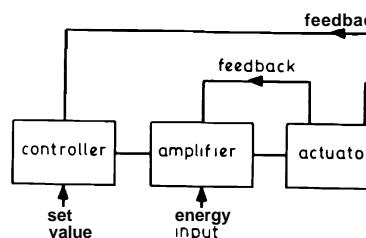
Both the ship steering gear (on auto pilot) and the ship stabiliser utilise classic control principles best illustrated by block diagrams.

Fig. 5.19 shows a block diagram for auto steering. The controller will be three term with adjustment for beam sea (or wind) and dead band operation to reduce response to small random signals. Both rudder and ship are acted upon by external forces.

Fig. 5.20 shows a block diagram for stabilisation. The controller is usually two term and feedback from the measure unit has roll angle and velocity components from gyroscopes. Every input utilises the forward velocity of the ship and the usual 'hunting action' feedback applies between amplifier (hydraulic oil pumps) and actuator (fin tilt). The ship is acted on by external forces, selector switches allow for variation in sea conditions.



BLOCK DIAGRAM
Fig. 5.19



BLOCK DIAGRAM
Fig. 5.20

TEST EXAMPLES 5

Class 3

1. Itemise the tests you would carry out on a steering gear before leaving port.
2. If the main steering gear failed on a small coaster describe how you would rig an emergency steering system to enable the ship to get to a port.
3. Briefly describe how the torque is transmitted to the rudder stock in a rotary vane steering gear.
4. Explain how the following are achieved for a ship's electro-hydraulic steering gear:
 - (i) relief of over pressure in the rams' hydraulic circuit,
 - (ii) replenishment of hydraulic oil to make good losses caused by minor leakages from glands.

Class 2

1. (a) Sketch a hunting steering gear label.
 (b) Explain the purpose.
 (c) State how worn steering gear operates.
2. With reference to hydraulics:
 (a) relief valves are positioned.
 (b) the pump is of construction.
 (c) the ram glands have moulded packing.
3. Describe a simple test to ensure that telemotor systems are 'air free'.
 (a) Define two ways of testing.
 (b) Give reasons why they must be 'air free'.
4. With reference to electro-hydraulic steering gear, explain how the ship can be steered in the following circumstances:
 (a) destruction by fire.
 (b) destruction by fire.
 (c) bearing failure in the rams.

TEST EXAMPLES 6

TEST EXAMPLES 5

Class 1

1. With reference to stabiliser fins which either fold or retract into hull apertures:
 - (a) make a simplified sketch of the essential features of the activating gear for both fin extension and altitude,
 - (b) explain how it operates.
 2. With reference to steering gears explain why:
 - (a) multi-piston variable stroke pumps are used rather than rotary positive displacement pumps with controlled recirculation or delivery,
 - (b) independent, widely separated power supplies to the electrically driven pumps are provided together with duplication of pumps in many instances, yet the hydraulic telemotor system has usually only one run of double piping from the bridge to the receiver,
 - (c) pump, piston and cylinder wear is of considerable consequence.
 3. State effects of the following faults in steering gear telemotor systems:
 - (a) low liquid level in replenishment tanks,
 - (b) weak receiver springs,
 - (c) worn cup leathers or rings in transmitters or receivers,
 - (d) leaking pump connections,
 - (e) specify with reasons the nature and properties of the fluid generally used in such systems.
 4. With reference to steering gears, explain:
 - (a) why four rams are commonly employed on large vessels,
 - (b) how the steering function is maintained despite loss of hydraulic fluid from the telemotor system.

The method of alignment and
considerably with the type of vessel.

Midship installations with long, rigid shafting. Similarly, long narrow vessels present different problems to get the required flexibility of welded vessels given the riveted types.

As a main basis the alignment of an engined vessel, having a long range, for example say a four cylinder detail after some introduction, description, to give a complete alignment in ship, crankshaft and lastly engine to shafting as

Then the amendments necessary and aft end installations will be

General Considerations

Hog and sag effects due to effects of waves, etc, can quite often exceed the effect of ship length and even more.

The effect of waves and sea and over the **bedplate** length of this indeterminate influence given is to put a heavy engine and alignment, on a flexible beam for sea influences, such realisation reasonable flexing and allowance accepted.

Stiffening of tank tops and engine seating supports, together with the use of rigid bedplates, can reduce central deflection to a maximum of about 13 mm over the engine room length and less, and to about 2 mm maximum over the **bedplate** from the no load to the full load condition. Invariably the **bedplate** has a sag form when light ship of say 1 mm and a hog form when fully loaded of say 1 mm. The average ship is rarely sagged as can be shown by drawing load and buoyancy curves for average conditions. An engine crankshaft set true at light ship *could* when hogged 2 mm introduce static bending stresses of say 90 MN/m². Most engine builders have their own records and experiences for dealing with this problem (see Fig. 6.4).

It is often suggested that the engine main bearings in the above case should be lined down in a deflection curve, of 1 mm maximum in the **centre** of length, for the new engine. This means the shafting is true at $\frac{1}{2}$ load and maximum static bending stresses are on each side of this, *i.e.* 45 MN/m² instead of true at light ship giving all bending on one side, *i.e.* 90 MN/m².

The figures quoted are intended for illustration only, using high values, in many cases lining in a curve may only require a deliberate offset of about one tenth of the quoted figures, *i.e.* 0.1 mm. The degree of offset depends on the type of ship and engine, stiffness, variations due to loading, etc. These factors can only be established correctly by experience before the builder can decide on the best method of lining up to suit the requirements of these variables. In the following alignment description this offset will not be considered (but see Fig. 6.4).

Older alignment methods used piano wires and micrometers, feelers between coupling faces, etc., whereas modern methods utilise optical telescopes and targets giving accuracies of $\pm 2\text{pm}$ per 1 m length. To fully describe the methods it will be assumed that the shafting and engine are first lined up by the older method, being checked at each stage by the modern method, although in practice such duplication may not be considered due to time factors, that is not to say that it would not be advisable. Increased power, size and cost of modern vessels and engines make it essential to ensure correct initial alignment so as to avoid continuous trouble later.

Shafting Alignment in Ship

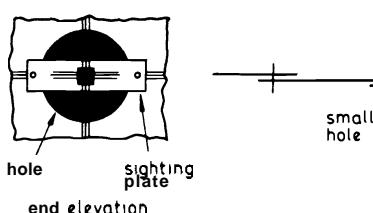
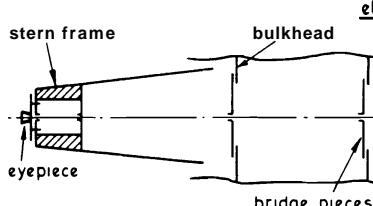
Reference datums here are the height of the shaft above the keel aft, and the height of the crankshaft centre above the keel extended to the forward machinery space bulkhead (also centre

athwartships) forward. These are shown in the ship drawings.

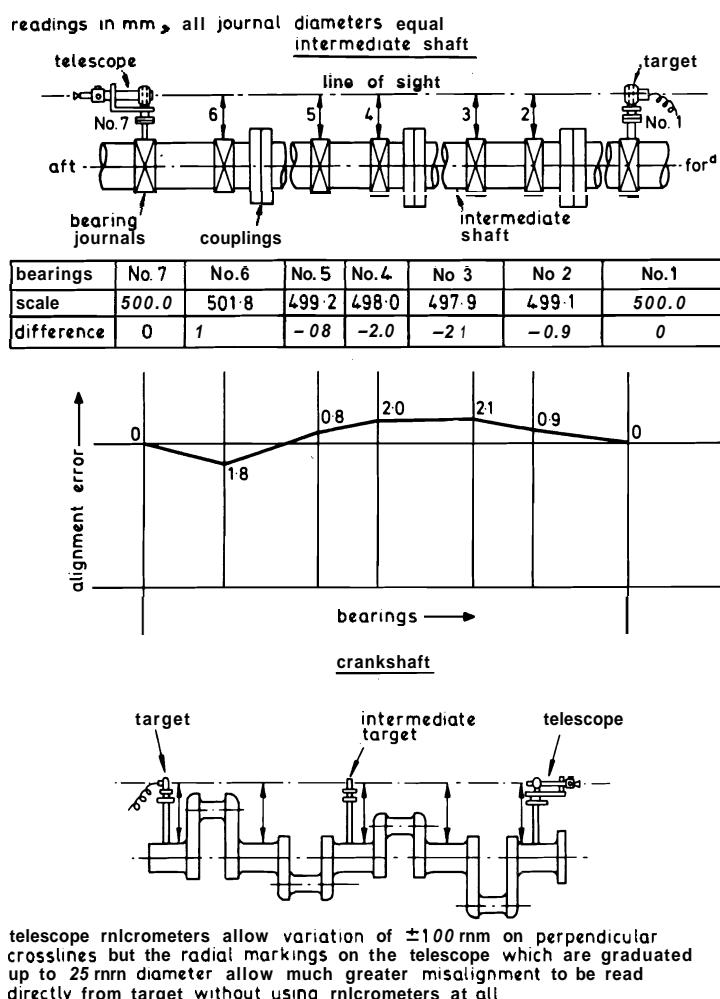
The rough bore of the stern frame flange has a small hole (say 10 mm diameter) at height above the keel. With this hole as reference a line is drawn for the setting up of the stern frame. Similarly at the engine room forward end of the bulkhead has the small hole at height above the keel and at the

An electric light is sighted through the stern frame and machinery space bulkhead and bridge pieces. From the stern frame this light can be seen through the bridge pieces, the aft peak bulkhead and the after bulkhead. At any water-tight bulkhead through which the light passes sighting plates are used. At the stern frame the plate is moved vertically up until the light passes through. At the bulkhead the plate is moved vertically down until the light passes through. Another horizontal reference mark is now established. A line drawn through these two reference lines gives the **horizontal** centre line of the shafting.

sight holes say 800 μm max error 16 μm



SIGHTING
Fig.



SIGHTING BY OPTICAL TELESCOPE Fig. 6.2

The same procedure is now repeated using vertical boards, moved horizontally port to starboard, bisection of these two lines gives the vertical centre. Rough bores are now bridged, the centre is fixed temporarily with a tin plate and a small hole is centred. Now from aft to forward a continuous light should be

visible through all bulkheads, drawn for exact boring. The ship is ready for the optical tele-

The optical telescope with vertical-horizontal micrometer spherical mounting on a spigoted plate and bolted into being an exact fit. The target horizontal markings is fitted mounting with a light. This asse and set at the correct height a forward machinery space bulkh

The telescope is now adjusted the target is perfectly centred Targets are now fitted into adapt fit into all intermediate bores. in turn so giving any vertical o should be refocused on to the intermediate bore checking. M thought desirable to check square on the initial lining up which s accuracy.

At this stage the sterntube, to be fitted and the ship launched a or the stern frame may be blank the launching. The intermediate the engine by using feelers at f faces and chocking the tunnel on to the stools. The intermediate checking with the telescope.

The line of sight for telescopes extreme ends, positioned at equal diameters by cups mounted on blocks strapped to the shaft. To the first bearing in the tunnel bearing before the tail end sh established. Readings can now bearings by focusing on a light on each bearing in turn. A great misalignment and the chocking effected. It is also advisable to equality and also to take a correct port and starboard lin

permanently chocked and bolted down, coupling bolts fitted and thrust block (if separate) fitted and bolted to place. The ship is now ready for the engine fitting.

Crankshaft and Bedplate Alignment in Shops

The **bedplate** is first levelled up on the shop floor, usually being in two parts, the whole assembly having been surface planed and the main bearing gaps machined. The **bedplate** is now lined up and rough chocked by the use of spirit levels. Piano wires are mounted along the full length of the bedplate, one port and one starboard, passing over end pulleys and loaded. Micrometer readings between wire and the machined top edge of **bedplate** are taken at say 1 m intervals, standard allowance being made for the wire sag, and the **bedplate** chocked up until a true horizontal reading is achieved. The **bedplate** is now ready for optical checking.

The telescope is mounted vertically, standing on adjustable tripod feet, the reference plane being obtained by mounting a pentagonal prism under the telescope (with a micrometer adjustment) and rotating it about an axis concentric with the telescope, this prism deviates the line of sight by 90°. The flat plane, being independent of gravity, is adjusted to pass through three definite height targets on the **surface** and a travelling target enables all other points on the surface to be adjusted to bring the whole area into that common plane. The **bedplate** lining up is completed by a set of readings through the bearing bores by piano wire or light method, being checked by optical telescope in a similar manner to the method previously described prior to fitting sterntube and tail end shaft (see Fig. 6.2).

A dummy shaft is now used to bed into the lower halves of the main bearing bushes, after which the crankshaft is bedded to place. A set of readings would be taken on the shaft, as described for the intermediate shaft, by optical telescope, the engine would then be assembled, crankshaft deflections taken and the test bed trial carried out. Before the engine is dismantled a set of piano wire readings, port and starboard, would be taken from the **bedplate** together with a recheck of crankshaft deflections. If the telescope was used then optical readings along the bedplate, port and starboard, would replace piano wire readings and in addition a set of readings on the crankshaft through the running gear would be taken, using the oil holes through the bearing caps for the scales. The engine is now dismantled to an extent whereby it can be easily transported and lifted into place on board ship.

The description given is some what simplified, the two method description given in the original article states that if the engine setting in the intermediate shaft is taken, then ship alignment is to be corrected back to this correct reference position.

Engine to Shafting in Ship

The aft engine coupling is lined up by optical telescope face coupling with feelers. Scratches are made on the **bedplate** and the engine is held in position. The engine is now aligned by optical telescope readings taken before displacement and crankshaft deflections taken. The holding bolts are then fitted from a template set to align the engine to the **bedplate** in place. The **bedplate** is then checked to give the whole integral setting of crankshaft and engine. The use of the optical telescope in conjunction with the feeler gauge allows a spot check on alignment of the engine to the **bedplate** at any time.

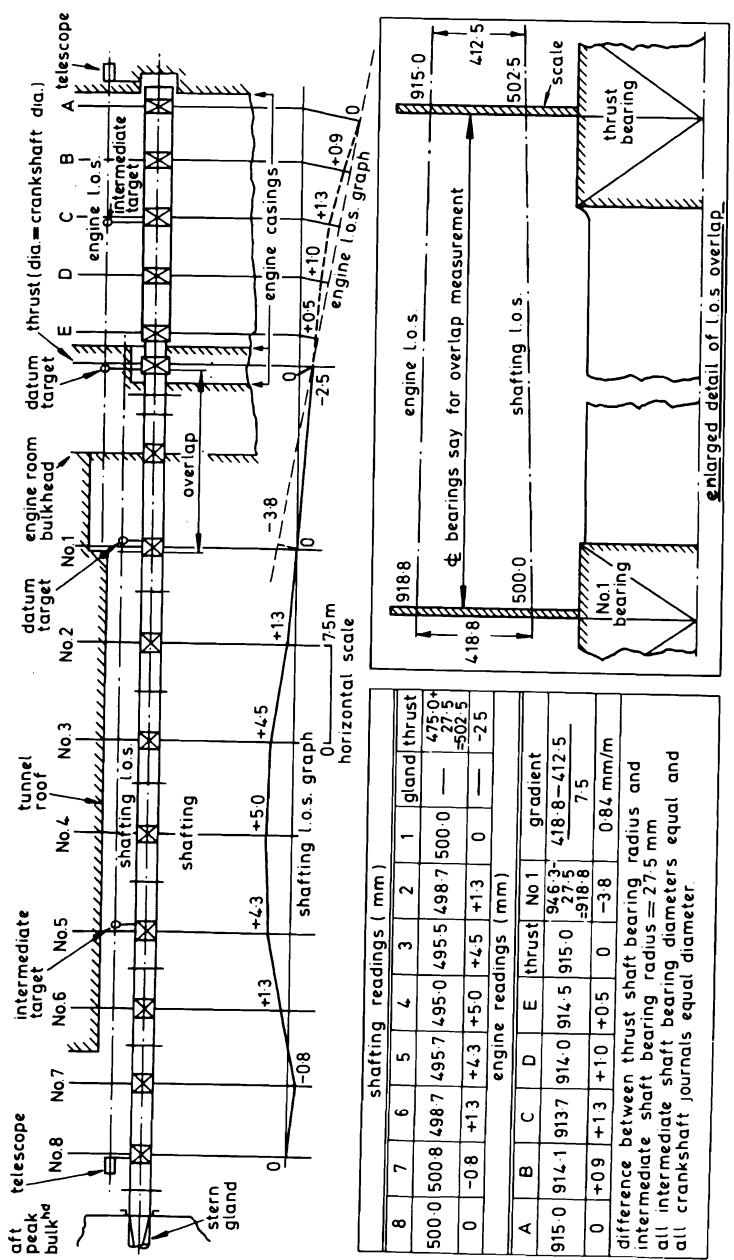
Unfortunately a complete ship's engine is not always available to align the engine to the **bedplate**. In such cases the end of the crankshaft is usually aligned by optical telescope during construction, as the height of the engine above the **bedplate** causes the line to follow the bulkhead of the aft engine room.

Therefore the two lines of sight are extended to give an overall alignment. The measurement differences at N.P. and S.P. should be identical, indicating that the engine is correctly aligned. Any difference between the two indicates a gradation error. If the maximum overlap a tube may be required to align the engine to the **bedplate** in the tunnel roof with a down tube to align the engine to the intermediate shafting. Fouling of the propeller and turning wheel, this can be overcome by turning the propeller and turning the wheel over whilst the engine is being aligned.

This completes ship and engine alignment. The final readings would be as plotted on the drawing of the cylinder oil engine and shafting.

Aft End Installations

Such engined vessels do not have the benefit of the effects due to the short rigid hull. The engine need to be lined down to the correct position being lined exactly true, light



SIGHTING IN SHIP
Fig. 6.3

main problem with these vessels is that the weight of the engine, throws a heavy load on the crankshaft. These vessels are somewhat more prone to crankshaft failure. Very great torsional vibration characteristics exist, so it is advisable to fit the tunnel at the stern in two halves and it would be advantageous to do this strictly. The alignment methods described (due to shorter shaft length) are not good, so that even though the shaft length may be increased, it caused serious trouble in such cases as much as 6 mm aft (crankshaft) with an engine failure occurred in the past. Optical telescope sighting forward to aft over the stern is the most advantageous.

Turbine Engineered Vessels

The alignment of shafting in these vessels is similar to that shown here, from the engine aspect, through the turbine wheel shafts through the gearcase-turbine joint to the wheel thence to the thrust block. These vessels have commonly reflected backscatter due to excessive pitting, scuffing, heat treatment and reduction pinions. The turbine wheel alignment is a complex involving long inside runouts, from the turbine stools and later to the thrust block, using piano wires and light methods. In modern practice use of the optical telescope (from a fixed standard flat plate to the gearcase-turbine joint) to any number of points for checks of all bearings, making the task much easier. The gearwheel wheel alignment is checked by the thrust block face having previously checked the thrust wheel bearings. The following factors are to be considered:

- (1) The lift of the shafts due to the ship's motion must be taken into account.
- (2) Due to the high rotational speeds, the effect of precessional torque effects.
- (3) The flexible coupling coupling misalignment.

(4) Turbine troubles, when they do occur, seem to persist and invariably stem from initial mis-alignment or vibration characteristic errors.

Pilgrim Wire Method

Reference has already been made to the use of taut (piano) wires and some elaboration of this method is relevant. This technique produces fairly accurate results especially in a vibration free situation. For crankshaft alignment with five cylinder engines and above, using telescope or wire methods, it is usually necessary to remove one connecting rod to allow the sight (or wire) to pass over the full shaft length. The alternative is to take readings with an overlap across two central main bearings, possibly at two different heights, and then adjust to a common datum. Allowance for wire sag varies with wire diameter and tension, an empirical formula is generally used. For a wire of 0.5 mm diameter, tension 200 N, an approximate expression is $\text{sag} = L^2/29.25$ where sag is in mm and L (half length of wire) is in m. Interpretation of readings, and variation with ship loading conditions, are as described for telescope methods (Fig. 6.3).

A light method can be used in calibration. One pole of battery is earthed and the other, in series with an indicator lamp, is connected to dial indicator touch stylus. As wire is earthed the slightest touch of stylus on wire causes indicator lamp to light.

CRANKSHAFT DEFLECTIONS

Excessive deflection of this form, in main or auxiliary reciprocating machinery, *i.e.* variation of distance between crankwebs during a full engine turn, causes dangerous bending stresses in web and fillet between crankpin and web. This deflection is indicative of true deflection, *i.e.* vertical hog or sag measurement, thus the value of these deflections can be assumed to be then dependent on two main factors *for a given mass per unit length* (conn. rods, pistons, etc.).

(1) Distance between supports of shaft (*i.e.* main bearing inner faces), as the further apart the supports the greater the sag effect.

(2) Distance out from shaft centre line the measurement is taken. This is usually close to the extreme edge of the web. For a sawcut in a shaft the further one moves from the shaft centre the greater the gap. The web's extreme distance and size of section is usually proportional to the engine stroke.

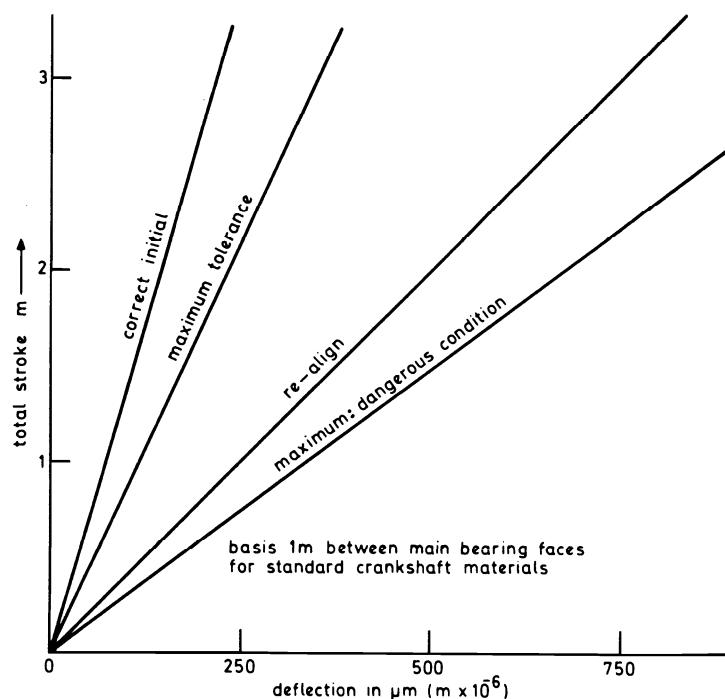
SHAFTING ALIGNMENT
SHIP LOAD
Fig.



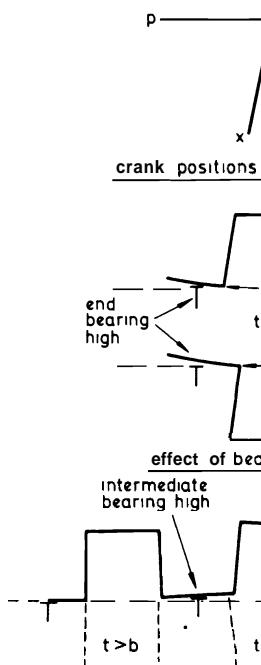
Note:
Vertical deflection = $5 \frac{mgI^4}{384EI}$ for a simply supported uniformly distributed loaded beam.

Thus as a generalisation it may be said that crankshaft deflection is proportional to total engine stroke and distance between main bearing faces. On this assumption Fig. 6.5 has been prepared. To illustrate its use:

Consider an engine of 1.5 m stroke and 1.5 m between main bearing faces. From Fig. 6.5 allowable test bed deflections (maximum) based on 1 m between bearing faces is 167 μm , therefore for this engine (1.5 m between bearing faces) maximum initial deflection allowed is 250 μm . Based on Fig. 6.5 as a rough approximation: Correct 70 $\mu\text{m}/1 \text{ m stroke}/1 \text{ m face distance}$ (max. 118). Realign 240 $\mu\text{m}/1 \text{ m stroke}/1 \text{ m face distance}$ (max. 330). A set of typical figures for a six cylinder IC engine and the method of taking deflections is as illustrated (Fig. 6.6 and Table 6.1).



CRANKWEB ALLOWABLE DEFLECTIONS
Fig. 6.5



DEFLECTION READING
Fig. 6.6

Stresses caused by static deflection as a rough guide, each μm creates a stress at somewhere about 1 pm central bending stress of about 33 kN/mm².

It must be pointed out that crankshafts must be treated with extreme caution. A rough picture and guidance. Some engines have a deflection difference at 10°C of up to 10% for opposed piston designs generally within close limits. A scale ratio for t

	Cylinder Number					
Crank position	1	2	3	4	5	6
x	0	0	0	0	0	0
p	50	20	60	-80	-30	10
t	100	30	120	-140	-80	40
s	50	30	60	-80	-60	30
y	-20	20	-20	0	0	-20
b = (x + y)/2	-10	10	-10	0	0	-10
Vertical plane misalignment (t-b)	110	20	130	-140	-80	50
Horizontal plane misalignment (p-s)	0	-10	0	0	30	-20

Positive deflection when crankwebs open out.
Gauge readings in μm (mm/1000).
High bearings—No. 1 (end) and between Nos. 3 and 4 cylinders.

TABLE 6.1

Interpretation of crankshaft deflections gives an indication of high and low bearings. Before any check is made it is advantageous to make sure the shaft is bedded into the lower half *i.e.* use of feelers. Deflections should be used in conjunction with optical telescope readings and **weardown** bridge gauges.

When a bearing between two cranks is higher than those on either side of it, both sets of crankwebs will tend to open out when the cranks are on bottom dead centre and close in when cranks are on top dead centre, vice versa if a low bearing between two cranks. The scale ratio between vertical bearing heights compared with crankshaft deflections is often taken as 2:1 *i.e.* 0.1 mm change in bearing height produces 0.05 mm change in crankshaft deflections).

SHAFTING STRESSES

Ratio of strengths of solid and hollow shafting; Consider a solid shaft, diameter D_1 , compared to a hollow shaft, diameter outside D_2 diameter inside d_2 .

$$\frac{\text{Strength solid}}{\text{Strength hollow}} = \frac{\text{Torque Solid } (T_1)}{\text{Torque hollow } (T_2)} = \frac{q_1 J_1 r_2}{q_2 J_2 r_1}$$

where r is shaft radius

as $\frac{T}{J} = \frac{q}{r}$, q is working load, J is polar second moment of area thus for the same working stress

$$\frac{\text{Strength solid}}{\text{Strength hollow}} = \frac{J_1 D_2}{J_2 D_1} = \frac{360^3}{380^3} = 0.95$$

$$\frac{\text{Strength solid}}{\text{Strength hollow}} = \frac{D_1 D_2}{(D_1^3 - d_2^3)}$$

Consider a solid 360 mm dia. shaft compare this to a hollow 380 mm dia. shaft of same length, this has a mass of $360^3 \times 380^3$ kg/m^3 . Strength solid = $\frac{360^3 \times 380^3}{(380^3 - 250^3)}$ Strength hollow i.e. approximately the same.

∴ Approx. 40% weight reduction in shafting is however more expensive. A 300 mm dia. shaft with a flaw of 30 mm dia. power is proportional to torque.

$$\frac{T}{J} = \frac{q}{r} \text{ and therefore } T = \frac{2Jq}{D}$$

$$\therefore T = \frac{2 \times \pi D^4 \times q}{D \times 32}$$

Thus power ℓ torque ℓ diameter D

Thus power reduction for 25% reduction in diameter

$$\text{Reduction ratio} = \frac{2503}{300^3} = \frac{1.5}{2.7}$$

i.e. power reduction to about 40%

Before considering the recommended sizes for the various types of shafts, it is necessary to build up a set of simple calculations for different shafting lengths in turn. Once these have been considered, **much simplification** can be achieved which is necessary in order to clarify the situation and obtain a reasonably simple picture.

Intermediate Shafting

This is usually involved in the first part of the calculation. The shaft is subject to torsion, based on the required horse power and taking a safe stress the diameter can be arrived at. The couplings and coupling bolt dimensions can also be calculated. The fundamental torsion equation $T/J = q/r = G\theta/l$ being the basis for most calculation.

End thrust, from the propeller, is small in comparison with other stresses and it acts on all the shafting. A thrust ahead of about $500 \times 10^3 \text{ N}$ would only induce a compressive stress of about 1.73 kN/m^2 , this can normally be ignored except where such thrust is transmitted to the hull, i.e. at the base of the thrust collar.

Bending stresses could really only arise from the ship movements and alignment variation and the effects should not be large.

Summarising then, one could say that the intermediate shaft is subject to a torsional shear stress which influences the factor of safety and hence resultant working stress, a slight compensation would be allowed for end thrust (reversed), bending and possible variations of torque due to propeller racing.

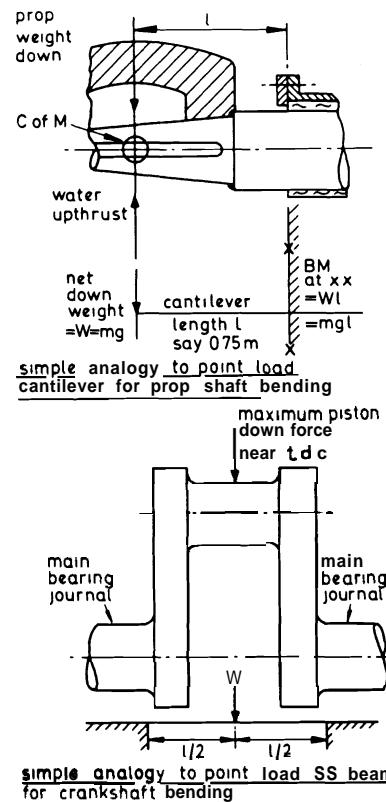
Thrust Shaft

Calculation is almost the same as for the intermediate shaft but virtually no misalignment bending would occur in such a short shaft length over a stiffened tank top. The thrust action on the collar would require a thicker diameter at the collar root but once clear of say the thrust pads the shaft could be tapered down to the intermediate shaft diameter.

Propeller Shaft

The shaft is subject to torque and end thrust, as is the intermediate shaft, but torque variations due to propeller racing would be somewhat more fluctuating. In addition the shaft is subject to a bending stress due to the propeller net weight in still water. Assuming the propeller immersed in still water and taking the loading as existing in Fig. 6.7. The weight, after allowing for upthrust of water is say 45 kN , and treating as a simply supported cantilever beam then the bending moment is $mg l = Wl$ i.e. $45 \times \frac{3}{4} = 33 \text{ kN m}$ on the shaft where it enters the hull.

This is fairly appreciable but when the propeller rises out of the water due to racing in heavy seas this value is increased considerably, so it must be assessed as a heavy, fluctuating, largely indeterminate, bending moment.



SHAFTING
Fig.

Coupled with the above it should be noted that the shaft is worked in a corrosive medium. There is a risk of direct contact between shaft and hull. The precautions taken to exclude this risk should be considered. It should be noted that the fatigue strength of the shaft is lower than that for the same parts in air.

Summarising for this shaft there will be a combination of bending and twisting, with varying magnitude, together with end thrust and corrosive attack.

With these facts in mind the factor of safety is usually over 12. The tail shaft is usually made of a

probably the weakest link in the machinery. Various types of material have been used here, such as nickel and chrome additions to mild steel, but the preferred material after much experience is often still mild steel because of ductility, strength factors and fatigue resistance. Tensile strength not normally to exceed 540 MN/m². Propeller shafts are withdrawn for examination every two years (five years for those fitted with continuous liners or oil type with special stress reduced keyways or keyless or most c.p. designs).

Crankshafts

Consider the turning moment diagrams illustrated in Fig. 6.7:

The maximum to mean torque ratio for the single cylinder **IC** engine is **9.0:1.5, i.e. 6:1.**

Two facts emerge: (1) the torsional shearing stress due to turning moments of the engine is fluctuating, (2) variation of maximum to mean torque ratio is high with **IC** engines. The **mean** torque is the power transmitted to the drive per revolution but the shafting sizes must be based on the **maximum** torque.

Next referring to the combined torque diagram it is seen that for cranks at π rad, firing order 1, 3, 4, 2 the ratio is 2.5:1 which is much improved in comparison to the single cylinder **IC** engine. On this diagram only one revolution is considered and the induction, exhaust, compression effects, etc., for Nos. 2 and 4 cylinders, occurring during this 2π rad have been omitted for simplicity, although the combined curve has taken them into account. It can be seen that the addition of cylinders gives a smoother turning moment and a reduced maximum to mean torque ratio. However the main two facts are apparent in that there is still torque fluctuation and the torque ratio is high for **IC** engines. This analysis gives some idea of the torsional stresses involved and the next factor to consider is bending.

It should be noted that the net or output available torque is the summation of applied gas torque and inertia torque required to accelerate or retard the moving parts, being a numerical addition, due account taken of positive and negative torque signs at any crank angle.

Mass of parts also needs consideration.

Referring to Fig. 6.7 we may consider the case for simplicity as a simply supported beam with a central point load, this load having a maximum value near tdc.

Consider an **IC** engine with 762 mm dia. cylinders and maximum firing pressure of 5.5 MN/m² then maximum firing force is:

$$W = \pi/4 \times 0.762^2 \times 5.5 \times 10^6$$

Assuming the simply supported beam

$$\text{Bending moment} = \frac{mgL}{4} = 0.833 \text{ MN}$$

assuming distance between supports L = 1.57 m.

The conclusions are: (1) a bending moment of 0.833 MN is produced by the engine, being a form of impact load.

There will be some slight end reactions but these are negligible in comparison with bending and torsional stresses.

After consideration of simple bending theory and taking into account main shaft lengths a reasonable estimate of the bending stresses involved should now be available. The regulations or rules can now be applied.

SOME SHAFTS

(Class I passenger vessel)

Ingot steel for shafts and couplings is available in bars of 430-500 MN/m², the coupling being forged to fit over the shaft or have the shaft ends machined to receive the couplings may be ingot steel or cast iron.

Crankwebs for built up crankshafts may be made of cast steel and shaft liners should be subject to the requirements of the regulations.

Intermediate Shaft (diameter 100 mm)

To comply with empirical formulae for shaft design principles and practical experience, the following values are given for each and every engine type. The values apply to electric drive, motor machinery, compressors, turbines, cylinders, firing intervals, types of shafts, etc.

Crankshafts and Turbine Wheels

As above.

Crankwebs (built up shafts)

Thickness parallel to shaft axis = 1.57 m.

thickness radially around **crankpin** $0.438 \times$ crankshaft diameter.

Webs should be securely shrunk on to pins, shrinkage allowance about **diameter/625**, dowels may be fitted.

Thrust Shaft

At collar root diameter to be **$1.15d$** .

Outside collar root may be tapered down to d .

Sterntube Shaft

$1.14d$.

If any part of the shaft is in contact with sea water these sizes are to be increased **$2\frac{1}{2}\%$** .

Note: this is the case of a shaft passing through sterntubes, which does not support the propeller weight (*i.e.* twin screw bracket support).

(Clearance will be dependent on bearing type, lubrication method, sealing design, hammering, etc.).

Propeller Shaft

This is the case of the shaft which supports the weight of the propeller.

$$\text{diameter} = (d \times c) + P/K$$

$c = 1.14$

P = propeller diameter in mm

$K = 144$ if i. a continuous liner is fitted, ii. the shaft is oil lubricated and sea water is excluded and iii. where the shaft material is resistant to corrosion by the water in which it will operate.

$K = 100$ for all other shafts.

At the coupling, the flange may be tapered down to **$1.05d$** .

Stern bush

Of required thickness and of length four times the shaft diameter inside bush (traditional types — less for modern designs).

Liners

Thickness from prescribed formula and shrunk or hydraulically pressed on, without dowels. Shaft and liner joint at all points must exclude entry of sea water and any cavity, *i.e.* non fitting strip should be filled with a suitable composition.

Couplings and Coupling Bolts

Coupling bolt, diameter from thickness at least equal to bolt diameter at least **$0.27d$** . Fillet radii on shanks. Note: in all cases, shafting, coupling resistance to astern pull.

THE PROPELLER SHAFT

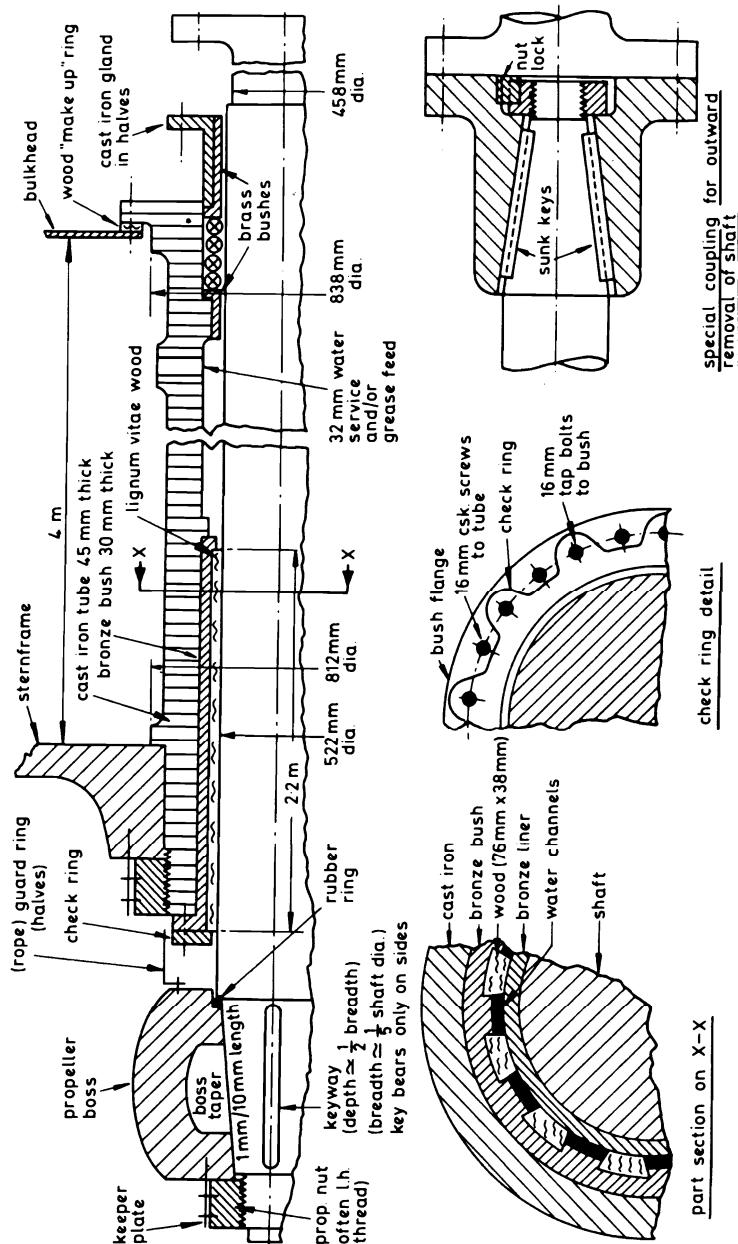
Water Lubricated Type

A design for a 6 MW shaft operating in water should be self-explanatory. The shaft is usually 100×10 mm with the continuous liner 100×10 mm. For twin screw vessels it is recommended that the coupling be 100×10 mm. The coupling with this in mind is also 100×10 mm. It is costly and adds complexity. Self-lubricating bearings are used on the shafting surfaces but are not generally available in standard sizes. Impregnated plastic resin bearings have been used successfully in this type. This type is called Tufnol.

This is a **thermo-setting** laminate made of glass fiber and phenolic resin as the main components. The fibers are impregnated with the resin and the two materials are pressurised under heat until they are bonded into one sheet. This gives the laminate its high hardness and swelling together with a low coefficient of friction plus an anti-friction factor (flatwise) approximately twice that of steel. The coefficient of friction of 0.005 has been achieved and short length-diameter ratios can be used with continuous bearing surface contact loadings with this material. A well designed bearing is essential and great care must be taken.

The best method of fitting these bearings is to use water grooves (UV type) are as follows: the bearing is heated to cause expansion due to water absorption and the bearing is shrunk onto the shaft normal to the laminate and will fit with a clearance of about 0.05 mm thickness. Diametric clearance of 0.05 mm is required for the shaft.

This material can be used for general bearings, gears, resiliency, etc. Physical properties of a typical bearing would be:



PROPELLER SHAFT AND STERN TUBE (WATER)
Fig. 6.8

ALTERNATIVE KEYS

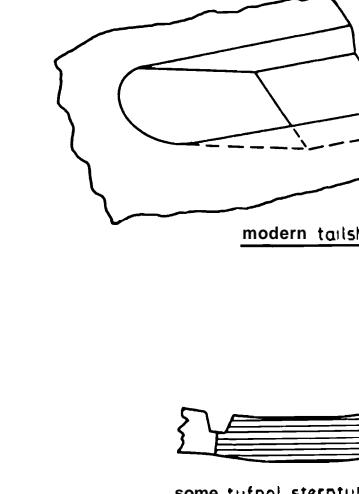
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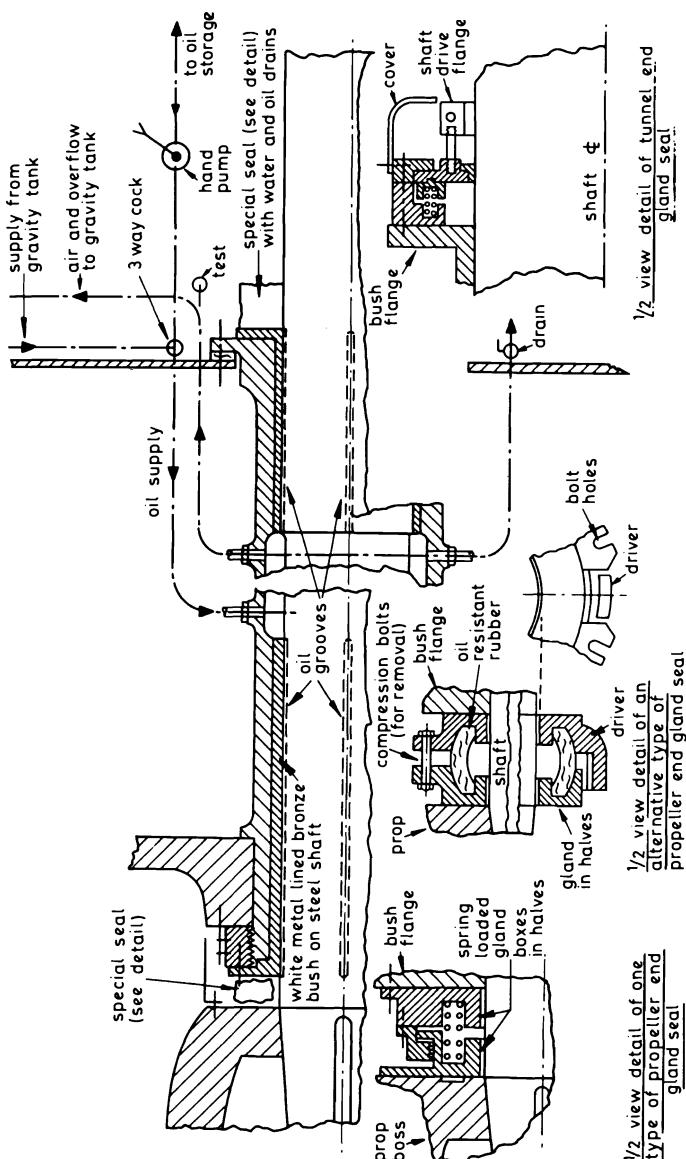
Compressive stress (ultimate, flatwise)
Shear strength (ultimate, flatwise)
Youngs modulus
Impact value

(Note the more modern type)

Oil Lubricated Type

This stern tube has been in use for many years and is still available but the same principle applies. The tube is fitted with a gland and should be regularly drained off.





PROPELLER SHAFT AND STERTUBE (OIL)
Fig. 6.10

emptied and drained. A typical 6.10. **Weardown** for the white metal to avoid hammering inspections is about six years. plastic material is often used it claimed to have superior load capacity to fatigue and shock loading, with Stern tube seals, with oil lubricated rubber rings increasingly. Fluorocarbon has been shown to be more effective than rubber for seal rings. In these designs the bearing is located in the support housing after the middle chamber. Two similar rings are arranged in a floating housing. Coated liners can also be used.

Withdrawable Stern Gear System

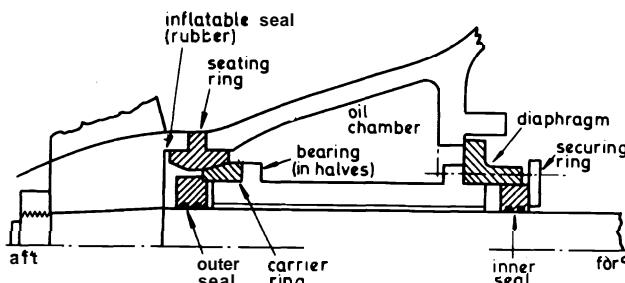
The advantage of this arrangement is that alignment or repair can be carried out afloat and without the need to disconnect the shaft. It can be used with propellers, flange or cone mounted. With the bearing (split in halves) the shafting weight is supported on the sternframe. The overall layout is similar to Fig. 6.10, except that there is an integral tube-bearing (or removed) from inboard—see Fig. 6.11.

The whole unit, including the stern tube, is withdrawn from the shaft inboard for inspection. The practice of hydraulic floating is used, giving the advantages of simplicity and reduced cost compared with the conventional design. The bearing is a standard (150 mm) spherical SKF roller bearing, which is withdrawn inwardly by a hydraulic cylinder. Connection to the propeller shaft is by SKF oil injection. Inner and outer seals are used, each having a diameter of 150 mm.

Alternative Stern Gear

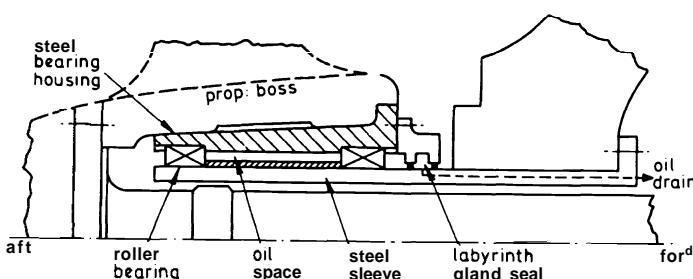
The tendency to fit increasing propellers (in excess of 70 tonnes), so as to increase revolutions to give higher power output, has led to shaft flexibility and reduced bending moments.

features. This has been achieved in the design illustrated in Fig. 6.12.



WITHDRAWABLE STERN GEAR
Fig. 6.11

The propeller has its own self contained bearing and the drive torque shaft is more flexible. Hollow helical (spiral spring) roller bearings are used giving differential radial expansion allowance and flexibility to shock loading—plain outer races allow shaft axial movement. Note the flanged connection to the propeller boss—this is simple and trouble free but it requires a special (muff) coupling at the inboard end to allow withdrawal aft. Such a coupling is shown in Fig. 6.9—astern thrust resistance is increased with an inner nut. A similar design to Fig. 6.12 is available utilising a plain bearing inside the propeller boss in place of roller bearings. If shaft withdrawal inboard is essential a cone and taper, with nut arrangement can be used to secure a flanged coupling for bolting to the propeller boss (to replace the flange detail as sketched in Fig. 6.12).



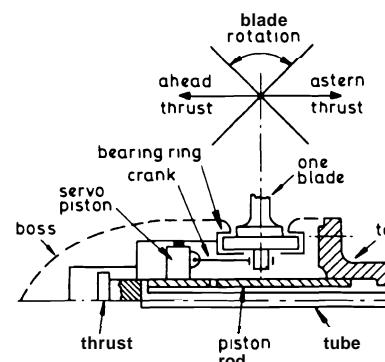
ALTERNATIVE STERN GEAR
Fig. 6.12

Propeller

Consideration deserves special attention to the propeller. This is achieved by reference to a wide range of topics including propeller design, pitch theory, efficiency, controllability, and the principles involved.

Controllable Pitch Propeller

Use of these propellers has increased greatly in recent years. Unidirectional gas turbine and steam turbines have the ability to control. Engine room (or bridge) selector which fixes engine speed and pitch. These principles apply from each. Consider Fig.



CONTROLLABLE PITCH PROPELLER
Fig. 6.13

The input fluid signal acts on the servo piston to move the piston rod and tube. The tube is connected to the bearing ring and directs pressure oil to one side (left) of the servo piston. The servo piston moves the valve outside the tube (in the annular space) to move the servo piston. Movement of the servo piston causes the pin ring and sliding blocks to rotate.

The feedback restoring signal returns to the servo piston to restore it to neutral position at correct pitch. The servo piston is controlled by a spring(s) force (*i.e.* servo piston) orifice (*o*) by control piston (*p*). The feedback signal is supplied to the servo piston. The part of the tailshaft includes a

device (not shown). Emergency local pitch control, communication/alarm systems and fail-safe (navigable ahead pitch) are required.

SHAFTING ANCILLARIES

In case of engine breakdowns it is usually advisable to fit a shaft friction brake at the first coupling from the propeller shaft so as to allow engine examination with safety. In case of towing, after breakdown, a trailing collar working on a tunnel bearing face is often fitted to allow shaft disconnection and reduce propeller resistance by allowing idling. Under normal conditions the collar is set about 18 mm clear.

The Torsionmeter

The first requirement is the determination of the shaft power (shaft kW or shaft MW) constant from a shaft calibration, a typical calculation would be as follows:

A shaft of 300 mm dia. and 6.5 m long is rigidly clamped at one end and the free end has a clamp and lever, applied to which loads can be added at a radius of 3 m. A load force of 222 kN produces an angle of twist of 1 degree.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{shaft kW} &= 2\pi NT \text{ if } T \text{ in kN m} \\ &= 6.284 \times N \times 222 \times 3 \text{ in this example,} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{shaft kW for } 1^\circ \text{ twist} &= 6.284 \times N \times 666 \text{ in this example,} \\ \text{shaft kW for } \theta^\circ \text{ twist} &= 6.284 \times N \times 666 \times \theta \text{ for any case,} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{shaft MW} &= 4180 \times N \times \theta \\ &= 4.18 \times N \times \theta \end{aligned}$$

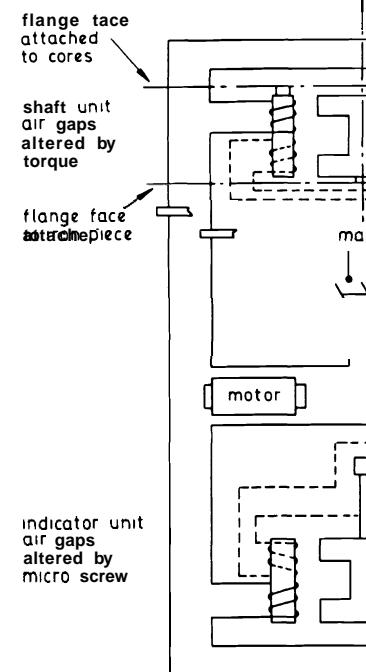
$$\therefore \text{the meter or shaft constant} = 4.18$$

Thus knowing the angle of twist in degrees for the given shaft length the shaft MW for the given rev/s can be determined. The requirement then for the torsionmeter is to measure the angle of twist in degrees between two points the correct datum length apart.

There are four types of torsionmeter:

(1) Mechanical—gearing set from shaft with a differential screw reading device—this is not popular as wear immediately gives errors.

(2) Acoustical—the pitch of a note from a vibrating wire varies



ELECTRICAL TO
Fig. 6

with the torque (tension produced) difficulty of cyclic variations.

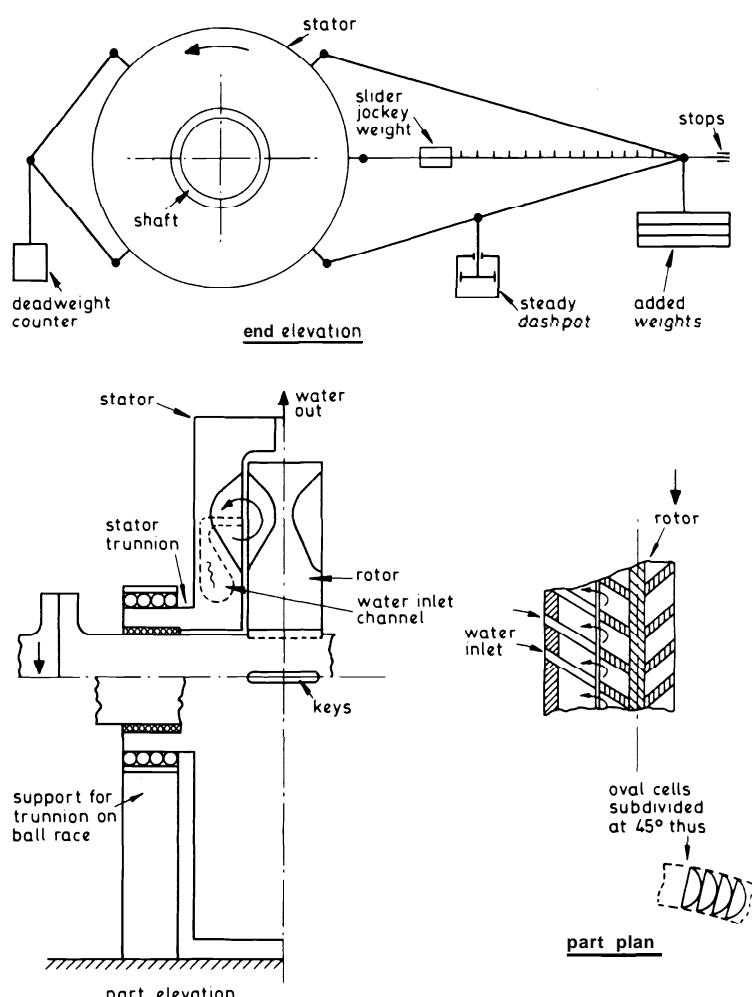
(3) Optical—lag of a light flash tends to give average value over indication of cyclic variations.

(4) Electrical—variation of the twist—possibly most accurate and will be briefly considered (Fig. 6).

Two sleeves rigidly fixed to shaft axis, twist causes relative movement of flanges. Two cores are attached to the other so that relative movement of flanges, alters the air gap between them.

The primary circuit is wound to give a.c. secondary circuits are in opposition.

driven interrupter to give ac supply is required if dc mains. With no torque the air gaps are equal and the two secondary circuits are equal and opposite, but when torque is applied air gaps become unequal and a current flows in the secondary circuit which can be read on the galvanometer. An identical unit is fitted in the indicator box and by rotation of the handle the iron



DYNAMOMETER PRINCIPLE

Fig. 6.15

piece can be moved until the air gaps are again equal and the galvanometer reads zero, after which the indicating box dial is indicated. The length of shaft between the two supports.

By application of the meter counter the length of shaft is thus determined.

The Dynamometer

Consider the hydraulic type as shown in Fig. 6.15. The engine under test drives the dynamometer shaft directly coupled. The shaft bears on a bearing housing containing the stator which is supported by two bearings.

Each face of the rotor has poor cooling fins and has an oval cross section divided from the stator by narrow vanes, the stator is similar. Water enters through a central channel, entering between 45° faces of the rotor. The water is constantly deflected by the vanes due to vortex action so the torque is transmitted to the rotor via the water. This torque tends to turn the rotor being resisted by a load measured by the counter. The torque will equal the applied torque.

$$\text{Shaft power} = \text{Torque} \times \text{Speed}$$

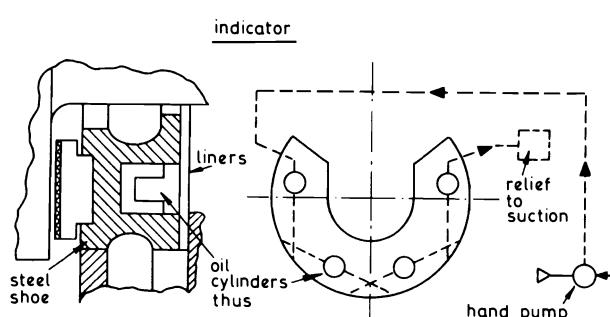
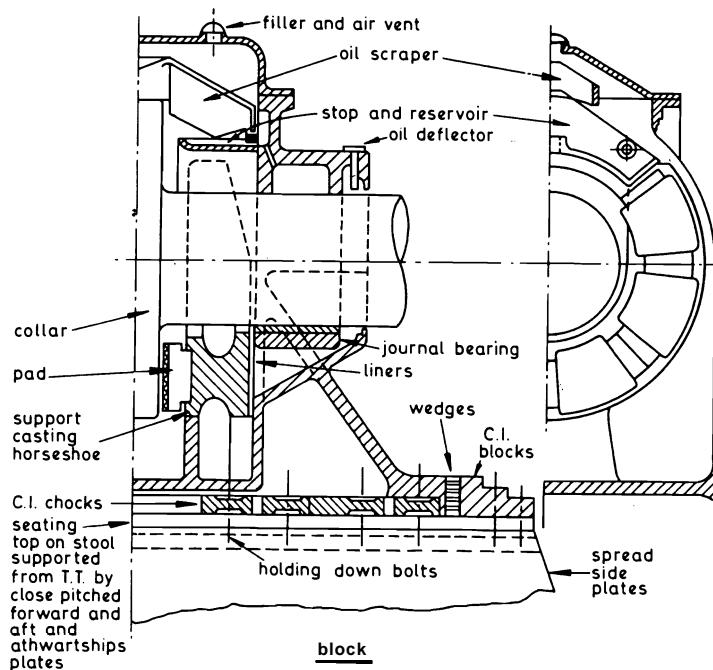
For testing in both directions of rotation, one engine is run astern, the other ahead.

In modern practice the load is simplified by use of levers. In some cases the load is caused by a measurable electrical effect, this causes variation of eddy currents in the rotor in place of the hydraulic resistance.

The Thrust Block

Modern types of work on the ship's propeller. The thrust of the collar is transmitted through the propeller shaft and casing. The white metal surface is harder than the oil film at pressures up to 100 bar. The yield of white metal say 560 bar.

The oil scraper bears on the white metal collar and delivers oil to the bearing.



THRUST BLOCK
Fig. 6.16



SHAFT

cascades on to the pads and bears inverted horse shoe cast circumferentially by the stop. The ensuring location in fore and clearance, which can be adjusted pad back varies from half to two the leading edge (see also Fig. 6.16)

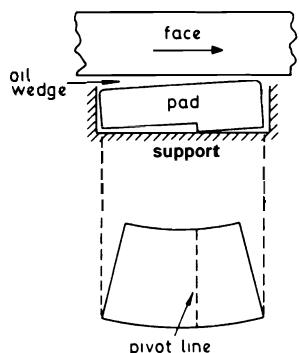


Fig.

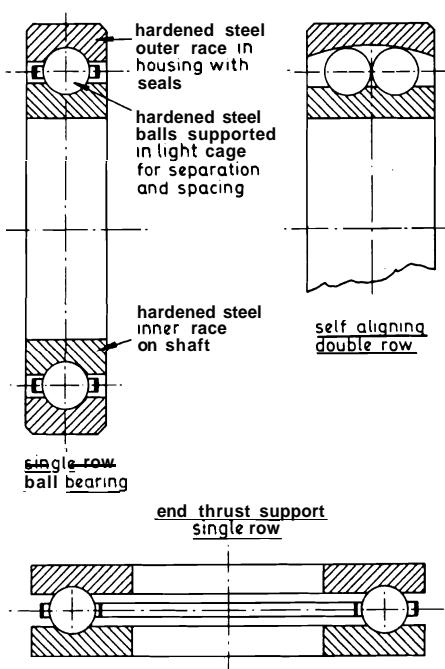
The lower half casting acts provided with oil level gauge glass. oil clearance is approximately 1/16 in. The shaft. The wedges at base have and act to relieve the holding down the double bottom tank below the double bottom tank below pitched. Clearances are measured movement.

Michell Thrust Indicator

The standard block is modified replaced by a forged mild steel casting the back making up interconnection pressure gauge, piping and relief valve. Pressure from the hand pump move forward so transferring pressure to the liners. The pressure is read on the gauge. When the indicator has been traversed the relief valve will open. Astern thrust could be measured by the position of the piston loading

Ball and Roller Bearings

Wherever rolling friction, as with a wheel on a road, is substituted for sliding friction, as with a pin rotating in a journal, the frictional effects are much reduced. Such bearings are expensive, require minimum grease lubrication, must be sealed from dirt entry and grease escape and once overloaded are rapidly destroyed. However they are shorter, allow more accurate shaft centring (negligible diametric clearance), have a virtually constant coefficient of friction of about 0.003 at all speeds (a journal bearing cannot match this figure until high speed film lubrication exists) and can be self aligning. Simple sketches of three types of ball bearing are given in Fig. 6.18, similar types of roller bearings are available, their main advantage being that greater bearing loads are possible for a given diameter.

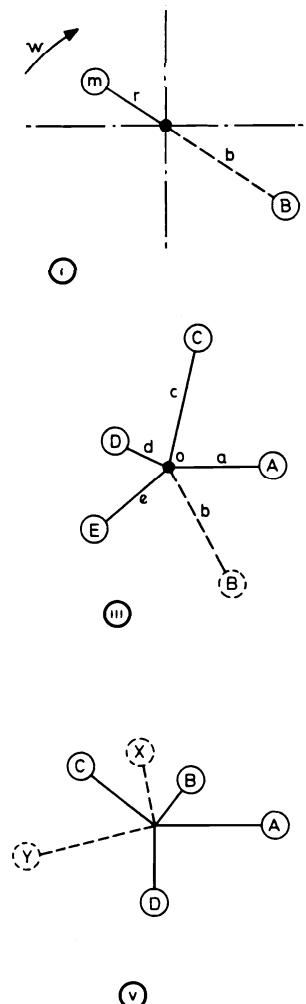


BALL AND ROLLER BEARINGS

Fig. 6.18

SIMPLE BA

This is a complex subject cle some very simple fundamentals points could be expanded a little when considering IC engines wi



SIMPLE BA

Fig.

Single Revolving Mass (Fig. 6.19.i)

An unbalanced mass m at radius r , to balance introduce an opposite **mass**, B at radius b , in the plane of rotation such that:

$$Bw^2b = mw^2r$$

i.e. equal centrifugal force effects.

$$Bb = mr$$

Several Revolving Masses in One Plane (Figs. 6.19.ii and 6.19.iii)

Draw a mass moment (actual mass \times radius) polygon and closing side give Bb magnitude and direction.

(from od on Fig. 6.19.ii)

Several Revolving Mases in Different Planes (Figs. 6.19.iv, 6.19.v and 6.19.vi)

A couple is a tendency to rock the shaft in its bearings in the form of an end to end turning moment.

Magnitude of the couple shown = Px (see Fig. 6.19.iv)

Proceed as before and draw the mass moment polygon to find the unbalance mass moment as in Fig. 6.19.ii. Assume it is necessary to add say two balance masses, having equivalent mass moment to that found, for convenience at say **X** and **Y**, i.e. one big mass to a particular point may not be convenient so the mass is split up (see Fig. 6.19.v and 6.19.vi). These two masses are also in different planes.

By using one of the planes, X or Y, as a fixed reference it can be fixed and then ignored, having no moment. Then a couple polygon or a tabulation is drawn for the other position. Thus the masses, radii and location of the planes for balance are determined.

Inertia Force of a Reciprocating Mass

$$F = F_p + F_s + \dots$$

i.e. primary + secondary +
extended to further orders such as 4th, 6th, etc.

$$F_p \approx ma \cos \theta$$

$$F_s \approx ma \cos 2\theta/n$$

m refers to the mass of the reciprocating parts, a acceleration of crosshead, n ratio of connecting rod to crank length, and θ the crank inclination to tdc. A single revolving mass cannot totally balance a reciprocating mass. However partial primary balance can be attempted with the object of shifting the form of the unbalance to a more acceptable condition.

In Line Engines

The reciprocating masses are arranged in a straight line. The stroke component of equal masses gives a mass moment polygon (mass moments) on revolution and also a couple polygon, for each cylinder. Where possible, couple balance can simply be arranged (for an even number of cylinders) by arranging one half of crankshaft in reverse firing order say 1, 3, 4, 2 (4 strokes).

SIMPLE VIBRATION

General Vibration

This subject is a compromise between theoretical knowledge and practical experience and only approximate methods are given. There are three modes of vibration - longitudinal, axial and torsional.

Every vibration problem reduces to a system of differential equations of forces:

$$\text{Inertia} + \text{Damping} + \text{Spring}$$

Each force may be modified, either by inertia, damping or spring, providing oil type dashpots, or by varying shaft stiffness to vary spring force. This will change the frequency of an engine exciting force.

Consider the alternating current circuit consisting of an inductor L , a capacitor C series circuit at a particular frequency. The reactance X_L equals the capacitive reactance X_C . If $X_L = X_C$ the circuit behaves as a purely resistive circuit. If $X_L > X_C$ the circuit equals resistance and current $I = I_m$ and voltage $V = V_m$. This condition gives maximum current. If $X_L < X_C$ the resonance is called an acceptor circuit. At resonance the circuit it is rejector at resonance.

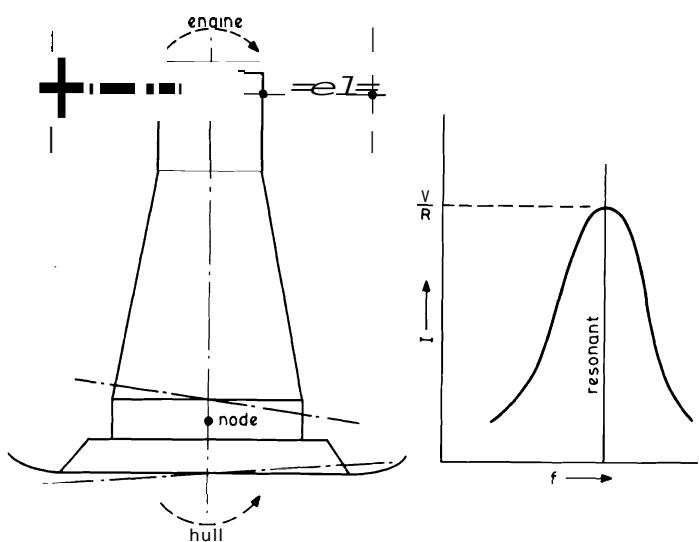
In the mechanical system there are three degrees of freedom, inertia, damping and stiffness. In the electrical system there are three degrees of freedom, resistance and capacitance. Resonance occurs when the natural frequencies of the systems have their equivalents at the same frequency. In engine systems. Variations to amplitudes of vibration from those earlier can cause a critical speed. Critical speed is the particular running speed at which resonance occurs.

Note the electrical resonance conditions.

Transverse Vibration

This occurs in the athwartships direction with large reciprocating engines. It is usually due to cylinder pressure forces and inertia forces giving a resulting couple about the engine crankshaft centre line and through the guide shoe. Propeller torque variations can increase or decrease this couple.

The usual solution is to stay the engine to the hull with lateral stays. Such stays must be connected to the hull by pins that would shear if the hull was distorted in collision. The hull attachment must be rigid, transverse deck beams are best. The stays must provide adequate and even stiffness to raise the resonant frequency above the service rev/s. When dealing with resonant frequencies inside the running range great care is required as minor stiffening can make the vibration worse. Doubling resonant frequency can quadruple exciting forces within the running speed.



TRANSVERSE VIBRATION RESONANCE CURVE
Fig. 6.20

Such vibration of the order of 1 mm can cause failure to pipes and welded joints as well as being most unpleasant in machinery and accommodation spaces. The rocking tendency can be seen from Fig. 6.20.

Axial Vibration

Some axial movements of a propeller shaft have been noted, a movement of $\pm 1 \text{ mm}$ causing bending stresses of 28 MN/m^2 . A propeller excited occurring at 2 vibrations per second at 2 revolutions per minute. A 4 bladed propeller is causing the same axial movement passing the aperture every $\frac{1}{4}$ revolution. The introduction of 5 bladed propellers and seatings have done much to reduce axial vibration. Some experiments have been tried with the Michell thrust indicator to intr

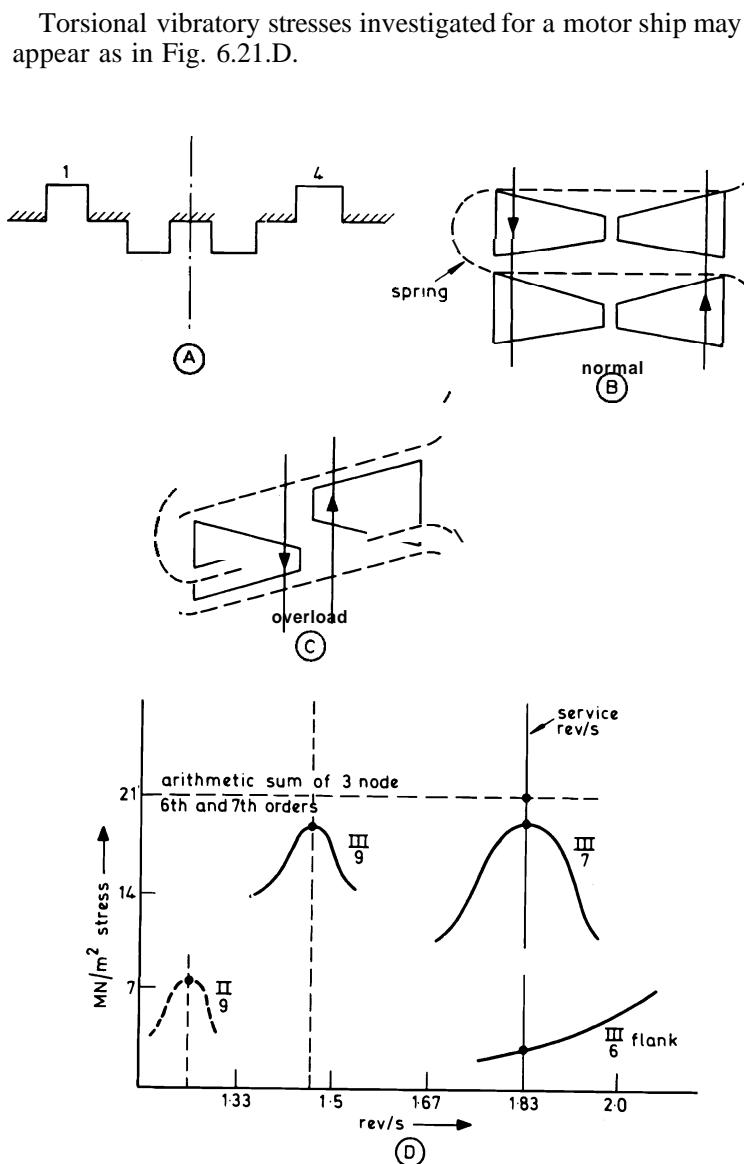
Torsional Vibration

A node is a point at which there is no vibration, i.e. at the node the shaft vibrates with the sections at each side vibrating with the same frequency. One node gives one mode, two nodes two modes, etc., most shafts having either a one or two mode form of vibration as at least a first approximation. In calculation the shaft system is considered as a single engine in one, flywheel and propeller.

Only one serious critical occurrence of torsional vibration for aft end installations occurs at 1st order revolutions and for midship installations at 2nd order being a broad generalisation. The 1st order decider in crankshafts, 9th order in propellers, whilst the one node is usually at the stern, the 2nd order shafting 2nd order 4 vib/s and the 3rd order 6 vib/s.

Detuners and Dampers

The object of the forward detuners which are sometimes fitted is usually to reduce the natural frequency of the system and centre and reduce vibration. The effect of increasing the shaft stiffness with the torque variation is to increase the natural frequency as load changes. The effect of torsional vibrations is reduced as the amplitude settles down to a steady state. Thus this is really a flexible mass system self adjusting. Referring to Fig. 6.21, the spring is supported over a long horizontal span at overloads. The spring carries a mass, which is thus floating.

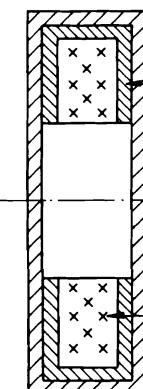


VIBRATION CHARACTERISTICS (TORSIONAL)
Fig. 6.21

Torsional Vibration Damper

A vibration damper will dissipate energy by exciting forces. This energy will appear as either strain energy or heat energy at the antinodes. Shown is the principle of a 'Holset' type of damper. The fluid is between the driven case and the damper may be fitted at an angle.

Torsional vibration elimination by detuning, for example in magnetic centrifugal friction coupling or



TORSIONAL VIBRATION DAMPER
Fig. 6.22

Torsional Elastic Curves

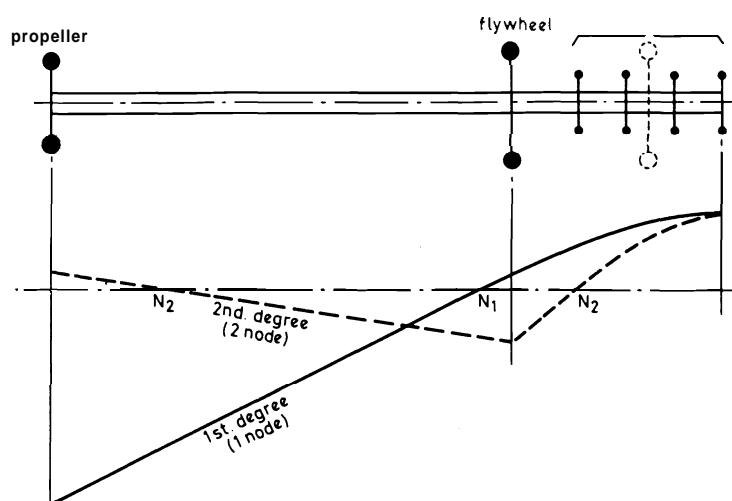
Fig. 6.23 illustrates a four rotor propeller system which as a first approximation a three rotor torsional system and inertia the critical speeds can be drawn to represent the amplitudes. Intersection of elastic line and service speed node or nodes depending on the number of rotors placed at N_1 , or two rotors shown for N_2 . Higher degrees of

Aft Engined Vessels

Modern vessels have higher powers hence giving greater magnitude exciting forces. Welded structures give less damping than riveted structures. Propeller excited forces are usually the result of insufficient hull-propeller clearances and incorrect blade form. To cause hull vibration the excitation force would act on or near the antinode. The main antinode is usually at the aft end so that large aft engined reciprocating units are most prone to vibration effects, *i.e.* large motor tankers.

Class 3

- How is alignment of a crankshaft affected by the condition of the ship having a large roll?
- What are the forces on a ship's hull? Are these forces uniform along the ship's length? Give reasons for your opinion.
- What is the purpose of the main engine and the bearing cooled?
- Explain how a variable



TORSIONAL ELASTIC CURVES
Fig. 6.23

TEST EXAMPLES 6

Class 2

1. With reference to keyless propellers explain:
 - (a) why keys and key ways have been eliminated,
 - (b) how angular slip is avoided,
 - (c) why mounting upon and removal from a propeller shaft requires a different technique than that employed for propellers with keys.
2. (a) Sketch a coupling enabling external withdrawal of propeller shafts.
 (b) Give a general description of the coupling.
 (c) Give one advantage and one disadvantage of this coupling compared to the solid flange type.
3. With reference to controllable pitch propellers:
 - (a) explain why the blade attitude, assumed upon control failure is considered safe,
 - (b) describe how the 'fail safe' feature operates,
 - (c) state how the ship can be manoeuvred when the bridge control is out of action.
4. (a) Describe how unequal loading of main transmission shaft bearings may be partially corrected at sea.
 (b) Suggest, with reasons, what remedial action should be taken upon arrival in port.
 (c) State the indications whilst at sea, that unequal loading of such bearings exists.

Class 1

1. Describe how alignment of the propeller shaft is checked.
 State how alignment is affected by appreciable hull deflection.
2. (i) Make a simple sketch of a coupling mechanism for propeller shafts.
 (ii) Describe briefly how a telemotor is used with a coupling.
 (iii) State what 'fail safe' means and explain the logic of the system.
3. Identify the defects which are commonly susceptible to damage. Explain how propeller shafting detects these defects.
4. (a) Sketch a 'muff' coupling connecting adjacent lengths of propeller shafting.
 (b) Describe the method of mounting a propeller shaft on an adjacent length of shafting.
 (c) State how a stern tube coupling is mounted.

CHAPTER 7

REFRIGERATION

The field of refrigeration is large and varied, much expansion and development having taken place in recent years.

In view of the introduction of new plants such as air conditioning, completely automated main and domestic units, etc., it has been considered advisable to concentrate on accepted modern practice.

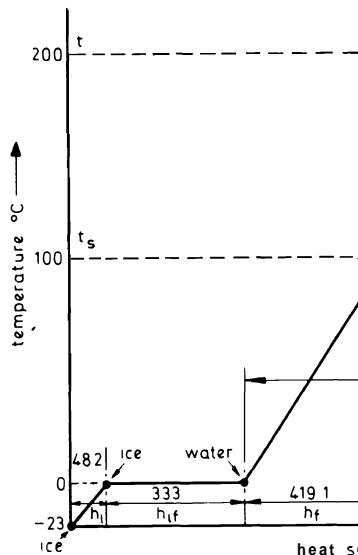
BASIC PRINCIPLES

Ice-Water-Steam Phase Changes

Most refrigerant vapours have similar characteristics and properties to steam except that they have a much lower boiling point. Consider changes that occur when 1 kg of ice at say -23°C is converted into superheated steam at say 1.013 bar, 200°C .

These temperature-heat energy changes are best illustrated graphically (Fig. 7.1).

- (1) Heat added to raise the temperature of 1 kg of ice at -23°C to $0^{\circ}\text{C} = 1 \times 2.094 \times 23 = 48.2 \text{ kJ}$.
(Specific enthalpy, of solid ice is -48.2 kJ at -23°C i.e. h_i)
- (2) Heat added for fusion of 1 kg of ice at 0°C to 1 kg of water at $0^{\circ}\text{C} = 1 \times 333 = 333 \text{ kJ}$.
(Specific enthalpy of fusion, for ice is -333 kJ i.e. h_{if})
- (3) Heat added to raise the temperature of 1 kg of water at 0°C to saturation temperature (t_s) 419.1 kJ . At 1.013 bar, $t_s = 100^{\circ}\text{C}$ and $h_f = 419.1 \text{ kJ}$. (Tables).
(This is liquid specific enthalpy, for water).
- (4) Heat added for vaporisation of 1 kg of water at 100°C to 1 kg of steam at 100°C (i.e. constant $t_s = h_{fg} = 2256.7 \text{ kJ}$ (2.257 MJ). (Tables).
(This is specific enthalpy of vaporisation, for steam).
- (5) Heat added to superheat 1 kg of steam from 100°C (t_s) to 200°C (t) $= 299.2 \text{ kJ}$. (Tables).



ICE-WATER-STEAM

Fig.

- (This is specific enthalpy of fusion)
Degree of superheat = $(t - t_s)$
(6) Heat added to change water to steam at $100^{\circ}\text{C} = 2675.8 \text{ kJ}$
(This is specific enthalpy of vaporisation)

The given diagram should clearly show the specific enthalpy of vaporisation, superheat, etc. when considering the refrigeration cycle. If the capacity (c_p) is constant (with no phase change) then the heat added per unit mass is given by
Heat exchange $Q = m c_p (t_2 - t_1)$. The datum for water is taken as 0°C . The state change at that point, but at -40°C , this having no significant effect on the scale does the same).

Note

The preferred term for heat added is enthalpy. Heat/kg, as energy.

heat capacity of ice is **2.094 kJ/kg** and the specific enthalpy of fusion of ice is **333 kJ/kg**.

A subcooled or undercooled liquid is a liquid existing at a temperature lower than the saturation temperature for that pressure whilst a liquid exactly at saturation temperature is a saturated liquid, *e.g.*, water at atmospheric pressure is a subcooled liquid at **77°C** and a saturated liquid at **100°C**.

Wet saturated, dry saturated and superheated vapour refers to the degree of heat saturation, wet vapour has dryness fraction (or quality).

Specific volume is volume occupied by 1 kg of liquid or vapour in m^3 (reciprocal of density).

REFRIGERANTS

Desirable Properties of a Refrigerant

1. Low boiling point (otherwise operation at high vacua becomes a necessity).
2. Low condensing pressure (to avoid heavy machine and plant scantlings and reduce the leakage risk).
3. High specific enthalpy of vaporisation (to reduce the quantity of refrigerant in circulation and lower machine speeds, sizes, etc.).
4. Low specific volume in vapour state (reduces size and increases efficiency).
5. High critical temperature (temperature above which vapour cannot be condensed by isothermal compression).
6. Non corrosive and non solvent (pure or mixed).
7. Stable under working conditions.
8. Non flammable and non explosive (pure or mixed).
9. No action with oil (the fact that most refrigerants are miscible may be advantageous, *i.e.* removal of oil films, lowering pour point, etc., provided separators are fitted).
10. Easy leak detection.
11. Non toxic (non poisonous and non irritating).
12. Cheap, easily stored and obtained.

Refrigerants

Three vapours are:

Freon 12 (CCl_2F_2) (Dichlorodifluoro Methane)
Carbonic Anhydride (CO_2) (termed Carbon Dioxide)
Anhydrous Ammonia (NH_3) (termed Ammonia)

Many other refrigerants are (halogenated hydrocarbons) being

No refrigerant has all the advantages having various advantages and disadvantages and carbon dioxide are not now usually used to illustrate properties so as to allow

PROPERTY
DISCHARGE PRESSURE, bar
SUCTION PRESSURE, bar
CRITICAL PRESSURE, bar
CRITICAL TEMPERATURE, °C
SPECIFIC ENTHALPY OF LIQUID, kJ/kg,
AT -15°C
SPECIFIC ENTHALPY OF VAPORISATION,
kJ/kg, AT -15°C
SPECIFIC ENTHALPY OF VAPOUR, kJ/kg,
AT -15°C
SPECIFIC ENTHALPY OF LIQUID, kJ/kg,
AT 30°C
SPECIFIC ENTHALPY OF VAPORISATION,
kJ/kg, AT 30°C
SPECIFIC ENTHALPY OF VAPOUR, kJ/kg,
AT 30°C
SPECIFIC VOLUME OF LIQUID, m^3/kg
BOILING TEMPERATURE, °C, AT 1013 bar
SPECIFIC VOLUME OF VAPOUR, m^3/kg AT
-15°C
QUANTITY, kg/s FOR 200 kJ/s ($\times 10^{-3}$)
VOLUME, m^3/s FOR 200 kJ/s ($\times 10^{-3}$)
THEORETICAL POWER RATIO
LIQUID SPECIFIC HEAT CAPACITY kJ/kgK
CORROSIVE (PURE)
TOXIC
FLAMMABLE
EXPLOSIVE
COST
LEAKAGE TEST
MISCELLANEOUS WITH OIL

NH_3 VERY STABLE IN WATER. HIGHLY SOLUBLE
 CCl_2F_2 ATTACKS RUBBER.

LIBERATES TOXIC PHOSGENE GAS FROM THE

TABLE

Properties of Refrigerants

The properties of the refrigerant table (Table 7.1) advantages and disadvantages can be summarised and a choice made depending on the properties, conditions of use, etc., available today (see later).

In order to compare refrigerants under various conditions of working, standard conditions are adopted. These conditions are defined as pressures corresponding to saturated vapour temperatures of -15°C at compressor intake and 30°C at compressor discharge; 5°C subcooling and 5°C superheating fix the final refrigerant temperatures used at intake to expansion valve and to compressor respectively. For simple conditions -15°C and 30°C are used, discounting subcooling and superheating, and the given properties are based on this standard (Table 7.1).

This condition is referred to as the standard.

Table 7.1 can be analysed to give advantages and disadvantages of one refrigerant with another, simply to illustrate this consider CO_2 :

Advantages are:

Low boiling point, low specific volume (hence low volume flow rate), cheap, non explosive, non flammable, non corrosive, non toxic, etc.

Disadvantages are:

Very high pressures (hence heavy construction and careful joint attention is required), low specific enthalpy of vaporisation (hence high mass flow rate), low critical temperature (reduces plant efficiency at higher sea temperatures), rather low comparable efficiency, etc.

Not all the properties can be fully analysed from Table 7.1 but quite sufficient properties are given to enable a good comparison between the main refrigerants to be drawn.

Freon Refrigerants

Whilst Freon 12 has been the main Freon refrigerant used in the past there is now an increasing use of Freon 11 (a very low pressure refrigerant; particularly suitable for large air conditioning installations), Freon 22 (very suitable for low temperatures without negative evaporator pressures *i.e.* in vacuum) and Freon 502 (for hermetic *i.e.* integral gas tight motor and compressor). The main advantage claimed is an improved refrigerating effect for a given size of machine. Again it should be noted that there is no ideal choice in the Freon group as there are advantages and disadvantages for R.11 (CCl_3F),

R.12, R.13 (CCl_2F_2), R.22, R. (R:-refrigerant).

Table 7.2 allows quick comparison types of Freon refrigerants.

PROPERTY	FREON
	CCl_3F
DISCHARGE PRESSURE, bar	7.1
SUCTION PRESSURE, bar	1.1
REFRIGERATING CAPACITY, J/s	318
POWER, kW	89
REFRIGERATION/EFFECT RATIO	1.1
COMPRESSION HEAT RATIO	1.1

The above figures relate to standard conditions of a W-type machine (178 mm x 140 mm),
The actual refrigeration effect would be about 66 kJ/kg for Freon 12.

TAB

THE VAPOUR COMPRESSOR

Operating Cycle

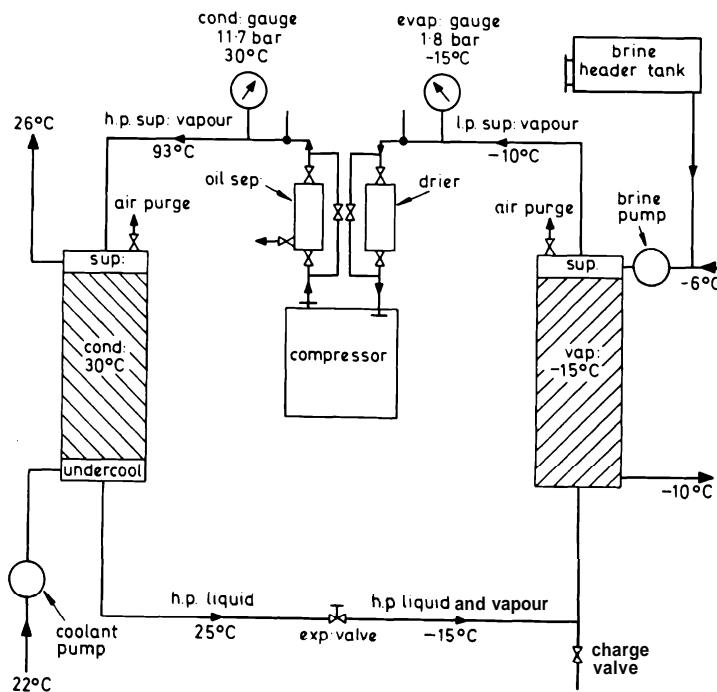
Marine practice would require units.

Considering Fig. 7.2:

The vapour is discharged at a degree of superheat 63°C and the condensation temperature 35°C . At the transference rate a temperature is obtained between cooling water inlet and outlet as usual. The condenser gauge reading is the pressure and corresponding saturation temperature scale, for example Freon 12 will have a superheated vapour temperature of 93°C .

Some undercooling, which is dependent on the condenser, under standard conditions, liquid will leave at 25°C . This passes through an expansion valve where throttling occurs until the desired vaporisation pressure is reached. The change to vapour will occur, the greater the

the flash off percentage. This represents a loss, as any vapour formed before the evaporator will not now extract its specific enthalpy of vaporisation from the brine, giving a resultant loss of refrigeration effect. Ideally the fluid should be totally wet entering and just dry leaving the evaporator which means full specific enthalpy of vaporisation absorption from brine. In theory superheating is non advantageous but in practice it is advantageous to make the vapour superheated at entry to the compressor, giving a fairly high superheat leaving the compressor.



THE VAPOUR COMPRESSION SYSTEM

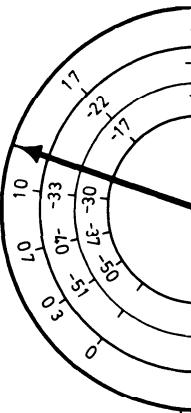
Fig. 7.2

The vapour now leaves the evaporator under assumed standard conditions having 5°C of superheat. The evaporator gauge registers vaporisation (saturation) pressure and corresponding saturation temperature (t_s) on a dual scale, for example again Freon 12 would be 1.8 bar, -15°C , the actual

superheated vapour temperature being -10°C . For good heat differential of about 5°C between temperatures is usual.

The vapour now enters the again. It should be clearly under definite condition, *i.e.* a sea particular expansion valve setting. Variations of sea temperature indicate completely different re-differentials of 8°C and 5°C should

Note, using Table 7.1, for CO_2 entering totally as liquid vapour would absorb 275 kJ, vaporisation, this figure would under the same conditions. However, extracting 1375 kJ (1.38 MJ) has a of NH_3 has a volume of 0.51 effect a high mass flow rate of (capacity) rate for NH_3 , which illustrates the error of strictly when considering advantages. 158.7 kJ/kg (1.35 MJ/kg) and has a volume is $0.093 \text{ m}^3/\text{kg}$ and the



COMPOUND PP
Fig.

The compound pressure gauge shown in Fig. 7.3 illustrates the dual scale of saturation temperature and pressure. Ammonia is shown for illustrative comparison purposes only, *i.e.*, normally only one refrigerant, pressure and temperature is on the scale. Commonly all readings are taken in temperatures only. Correct differentials are an indication of correct working with sufficient vapour charge.

Under correct running conditions the compressor discharge pipe should be fairly hot to the touch and the suction pipe should be just frosting up near the compressor. The compressor discharge and suction lines are commonly provided with crossover valves in addition to the stop valves. These valves allow the pumping out of the hp side to the lp side for overhauls and allow an easy discharge for starting. Refrigerant is added, with the machine running normally, at the charge cock.

Many of the circuits employ a liquid receiver after the condenser and CO_2 types commonly had intermediate liquid cooling receivers. The capacity of a liquid receiver is usually sufficient to cover the outlet to the liquid line. Methods of control of the flow of refrigerant are: (a) low side float, (b) high side float, (c) hand manual control, (d) capillary, (e) direct expansion with constant pressure, (f) direct expansion with constant superheat, these are discussed later.

The system should always be kept clear of water, air and dirt.

Common Faults and Simple Detection

1. Undercharge: low discharge gauge reading, lack of frost on suction pipe, lengthy running times.
2. Air in system: high discharge gauge reading (assuming sufficient vapour), jumping of gauge pointers, inefficient working.
3. Dirty condenser or insufficient cooling water: high discharge gauge reading and incorrect condenser temperature differentials.
4. Overcharge: unlikely, but gives high discharge gauge reading and very sensitive expansion valve working.
5. Oil on cooling coils: incorrect condenser and evaporator temperature differentials (oil is an insulator), excess frost on suction pipe.
6. Choked expansion valve: caused by dirt or freeze up by water, gives starving of evaporator and rapid condenser pressure rise.

7. Short cycling: condenser coil discharge cut outs, choked expansion valve cut outs, etc.

Thermodynamic Cycles

The circuit appears on the theoretical diagrams of Figs. 7.4 and 7.5. Entropy being a theoretical quantity remains constant during frictionless processes.

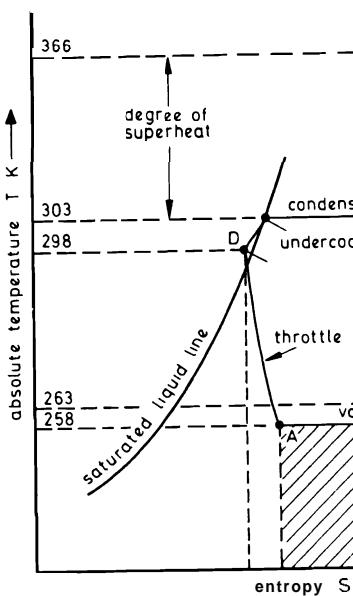
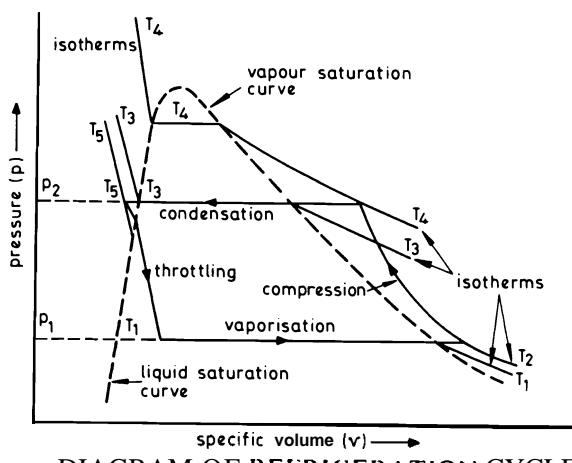


Fig. 7.4
ABSOLUTE TEMPERATURE-ENTROPY DIAGRAM

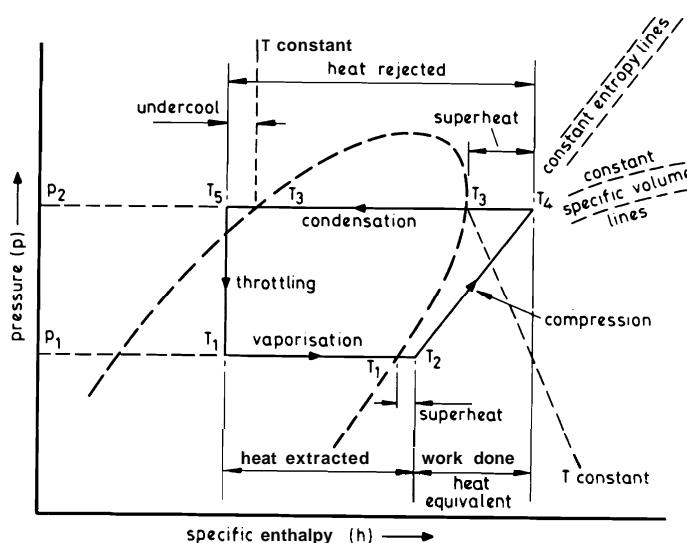
Referring to Fig. 7.4:

Heat energy received from cold source = area A_{ABCD}
Heat energy rejected in the condenser = area A_{DCB}
Heat energy equivalent of work done = heat rejected

$$\begin{aligned} &= \text{area } A_{ABCD} \\ &= \text{area } A_{DCB} \\ &+ \text{area } A_{BC} \end{aligned}$$



p - v DIAGRAM OF REFRIGERATION CYCLE

p - h DIAGRAM OF REFRIGERATION CYCLE
Fig. 7.5

Coefficient of Performance = $\frac{\text{heat energy received}}{\text{heat energy equivalent of work done}}$

The compression is taken to be isentropic (frictionless adiabatic) for calculation work, this means the compression line

is vertical (constant entropy). On usual basis. Coefficient of approximately 4.7.

It should be noted how under the left, increases the heat receiving increasing refrigerant effect.

Refrigeration Cycle p - v Diagram

This diagram is shown to refrigeration cycle with other m theoretical work on p - v diagram is rarely used in refrigeration.

Refrigeration Cycle p - h Diagram

Once basic theory has been established the emphasis shifts in practice to the diagram has the big advantage that work done heat equivalent can be plotted on h axis in kJ/kg.

Intermediate Liquid Cooling

It has been mentioned previously that refrigeration effect due to flash being throttled through the expansion valve before the expansion valve reduces quality, and increasing evaporation. (Although this applies only taken as serious with CO_2) specific enthalpy to specific enthalpy practical flash off loss is about 1% effect for Freon.

This does not justify the use of valves and an intermediate liquid

Critical Temperature

Is that temperature beyond which by isothermal compression, i.e., compression will liquefy if the critical temperature for that substance (31°C) and once the sea temperature critical had been reached (8°C) due to

the efficiency of the CO_2 plant steadily decreases. The critical temperature for most refrigerant vapours is however well above the normal condensing temperatures.

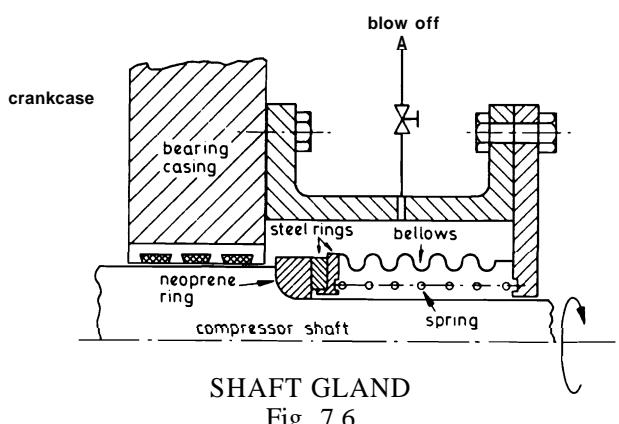
COMPRESSOR

There are four main types: reciprocating, rotary, centrifugal and screw.

Reciprocating compressors are in the majority in marine applications as they are most suited to low specific volume vapours and large pressure differentials, characteristics of all the main refrigerants.

Reciprocating

Almost all modern machines are motor driven, high speed (up to 30 rev/s) single acting types which have adopted many improvements in line with the automobile industry. The only gland seal here is the crankshaft seal where the shaft emerges from the crankcase, such seal being mainly subject to suction pressure (Fig. 7.6).



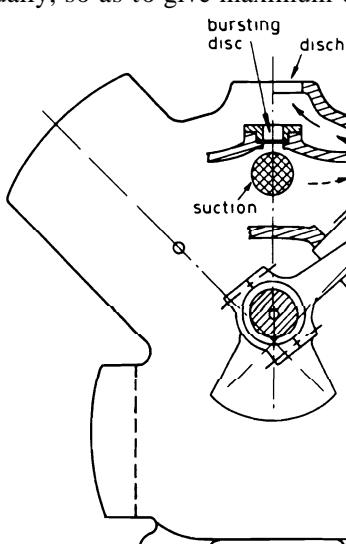
General

The actual machine itself needs little practical description to the trained engineer as most of the construction is standard reciprocating practice. Multi cylinder in line types are popular but there is an increasing usage of Vee and modified W designs.

Pistons are usually of the trunk type with upper oil seal rings and a lower oil seal ring, the latter being either in the head of piston or in the cylinder. Some arrangements have the suction and discharge valves in the cylinder head. Compressors are made in castings of iron or steel. The crankcase may be of the trunk type or more conventional type with a separate base plate. Lubrication being either dip and splash or pressure.

Modern valves are of the reed type and are made of high grade steel. They have a usual lift of about 2 mm in average. The valve retainer is normally held down to the seat by a spring. If oil or liquid is discharged the valve will not lift so reducing over pressure. Pressure relief or overpressure cut outs are also standard.

With valve in piston head type, the valve is cut away at the side to the centre of the piston. There is no connection to the valve stem here and there is no connection to the valve body. This reduces oil pumping effects. Screw valves are fully seated, full open or full shut, without any intermediate changes. All reciprocating compressors require a minimum reasonable piston clearance. This is usually, so as to give maximum clearance.



Veebloc

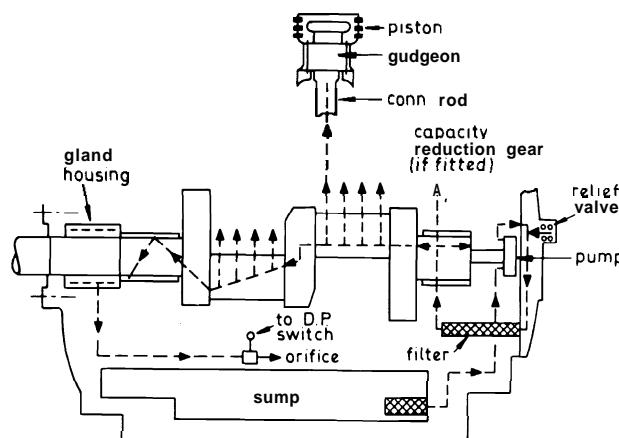
In general there are 4, 6 or 8 cylinders radially round the upper half of the cast iron crankcase with from two to four connecting rods from each of two crank throws (see Fig. 7.7 for 4-cylinder V and Fig. 7.8 for 8-cylinder W types).

The aluminium piston is fitted with two compression rings and one scraper ring, piston and gudgeon details are given in Fig. 7.8.

A differential oil pressure switch and overload electrical switch protect the machine from low oil or high vapour pressure. In addition the discharge valve cage is spring-loaded to lift in case of liquid carry-over and there is an over-pressure nickel bursting disc to relieve excess discharge pressure to the suction side of the machine. Connecting rods are aluminium with steel-backed, white metal bearings, the crankshaft is SG iron.

Provision is made for reducing the capacity of the machine either manually or automatically. Capacity reduction gear lifts and holds open the alloy steel suction valves of a specified number of cylinders, this is operated by oil pressure on a servo piston in the automatic type. This can also provide total or partial un-loading for easier starting.

The lubrication should be clear from Fig. 7.8. Oil is supplied by a rotor type of pump in which the inner rotor has one less tooth than the outer rotor and oil is induced to flow between the two rotors.



W TYPE COMPRESSOR LUBRICATION

Fig. 7.8

An eight-cylinder machine of 1000 kW is running at about 12.5 rev/s with a refrigerating capacity of 1000 kW for a refrigerant of R12.

For low suction temperature of -20°C and high temperature of discharge of 40°C, temperatures may be reached in the cylinder. This is even more liable to occur in the loaded state. It is most often found that bore-stroke size of compressor is smaller than cooler—operation direct expansion is particularly when automatic unloading above conditions apply. Compressor provided or special change over of an 8-cylinder unit will operate in a semi-condensing condition for temperatures below this 6°C. For compression and the remaining compression.

For suction pressures below atmospheric the risk of air leakage is an important factor.

Crankcase oil heaters are used when the machine stopped, this prevents the oil frothing on starting. Automatic with solenoid operated liquid stop valve, Fig. 7.15 later).

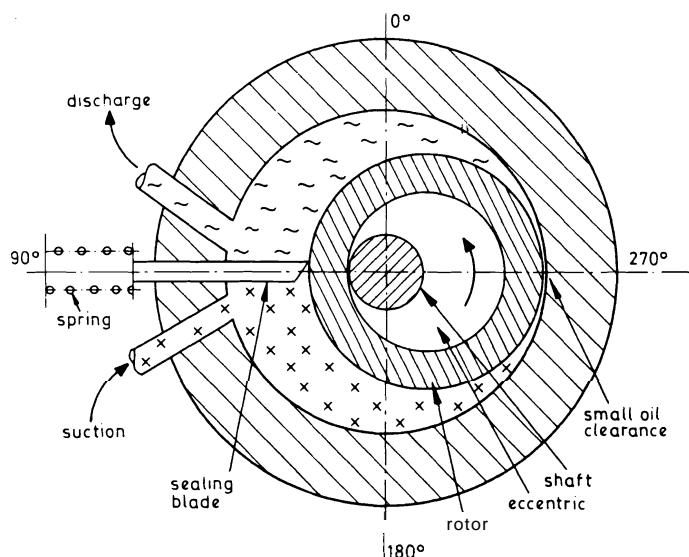
Rotary

These types are usually of the screw or lobe type.

At the position shown the discharge valve is half completed, 270°C. At 0° the valve is closed and induction at suction stroke and end of suction. At 180° compression stroke has just started. The rotor acts as the discharger and the inductor.

Such compressors mainly find use in domestic units but modern practice is for cargo purposes.

A variation on the above is where the eccentric rotor contains springs (centrifugal force). When any rotor rotates, it creates an oil film between eccentric rotor and housing.



ROTARY COMPRESSOR

Fig. 7.9

means pressure equalisation and easy starting but requires the fitting of a non return valve in the suction line. To reduce sizes these machines are direct drive from the motor.

Centrifugal

These machines work on a similar principle to the centrifugal pump whereby discharge velocity energy is converted to pressure head. For high pressure differentials, as normally exist, a series of impellers are required on a fast running rotor, each impeller feeding to the next in series to build up pressure. These machines are best suited to low differential pressure, high volume capacity work such as air conditioning. Capacity reduction is effected by directional blades at the rotor inlet port. Efficiency is increased if interstage flash vapour formed during liquid expansion is returned to an appropriate stage of the compressor.

Screw

These compressors can be visualised as a development of the gear pump. A male rotor with say four lobes on the shaft, meshes with a female rotor of say six lobes on a parallel shaft. Clearance between lobe screws and casing is kept to a minimum

with sealing strips and oil film between adjacent lobes of the female rotor. At the end of the compressor a volume of gas, on rotation, a lobe of the male rotor moves compressing the vapour and, due to the eccentricity, moves axially to the outlet port at the same time as sliding sleeves around the barrel close the outlet port nearer to the inlet.

Lubricant

The first essential for such a machine is a lubricant which has a pour point, i.e. must remain liquid at low temperatures. The lubricant must be able to carry the refrigerant round the system and through the evaporator coils so drastically reducing the temperature. The oil should be free from refrigerant and water. It should prevent plant corrosion and freeze at low temperatures. Viscosity should not be seriously affected by temperature.

Typical analysis:

Density 900 kg/m³

Flashpoint 235°C

Viscosity 12cSt at 50°C

Pour point -42°C.

A pure mineral oil is advised as it is suitable for reciprocating compressors.

Compressors should not be run at high temperatures as there is danger of oil vaporisation and subsequent explosion.

HEAT EXCHANGERS

Condensers

Condensers used in water cooling systems are all of the shell and tube type. The tubes are made of mild steel with vapour inlet and outlet connections, on the main body being located outside of the tubes and falls to a coil which commonly acts as the liquid receiver. The coil may be multi pass (usually 2, 4 or 8 passes) and the outlet branches at one end) the coil plates are ferrous, of welded construction, expanded into place, or non-ferrous, of aluminium brass expanded into place.

(zinc or iron) should be provided and steel tube plates are best treated with chromium for corrosion resistance.

Temperature differences are not high and the little expansion can be taken up by metal resilience. (It should be noted that non ferrous metals are attacked by ammonia refrigerant, this will mean all jointing of lead or soft iron and use of steel tubing.) Air cooled condensers are only used for small domestic units; they usually have finned tubes and air circulation may be fan assisted.

Evaporators

Modern evaporator grid types are only used on small plants and the distance between supply and return headers is very short so giving quick maximum extraction of vapour formed.

Large evaporators are invariably of the shell **and** tube type almost identical to condensers in design and construction. Brine circulates through the tubes in multi-pass flow and the vapour-liquid mixture enters at the bottom at one end. The evaporated vapour leaves at the top of the other end so that speedy vapour extraction, full heat flow and full evaporation are achieved.

Heat Transfer (Fluids)

The two examples following serve to revise basic theory:

1. A liquid refrigerant evaporates at 3°C and cools water from 11.5 to 6.4°C in a heat exchanger of cooling surface area 360 m^2 for which the overall heat transfer coefficient is $100 \text{ W/m}^2\text{K}$. Evaluate the log mean temperature difference and heat transfer rate.

$$\Theta = \frac{(11.5 - 3.0) - (6.4 - 3.0)}{\ln(8.5 - 3.4)} = 5.566 \text{ K}$$

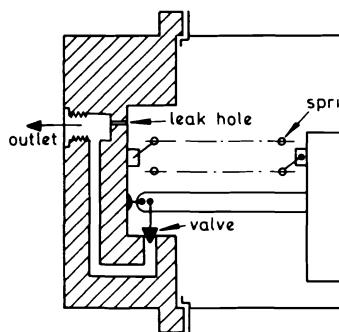
$$Q = 100 \times 5.566 \times 360 = 200376 \text{ W}$$

2. Calculate the effectiveness of a heat exchanger which cools air from 25 to 15°C with refrigerant evaporating at 5°C .

$$\eta = \frac{25 - 15}{25 - 5} \times 100 = 75\%$$

Liquid Level Control

Hand operated expansion valves have the disadvantage that they require fairly regular manual adjustments. The float type of



HIGH PRESSURE
Fig.

valve automatically maintains diagrammatic part sectional view Fig. 7.10.

There are two types of float low pressure.

The high pressure type as skinned fitted with the float operating with the object of draining the liquid to the float level and feeding. The level is adjustable by altering prevent gas locking an equalising the condenser top.

The low pressure type is to maintain the liquid in the evaporator. The valve is connected to the evaporator to draw off the liquid in the evaporator and is drawn off the flows in to take its place.

Control by capillary tube hermetically sealed units. The size of the cooling unit and receiver, connected between the high and low pressure is strictly tied to refrigerant quantity. Thus once fixed for a specific application without altering the capillary tube.

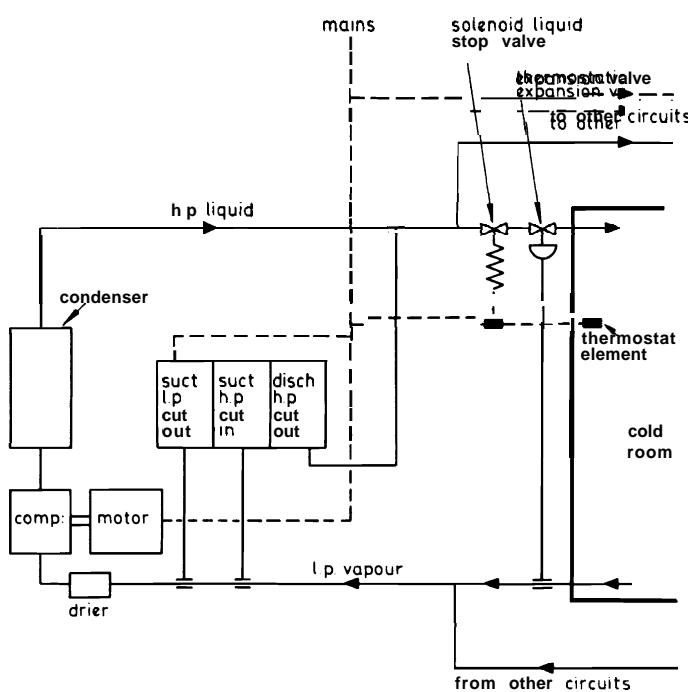
Small domestic units are usu-

where the refrigerant coil is in the cold room. Such types work on constant pressure or constant superheat expansion valve control and are described later in detail.

DIRECT EXPANSION UNITS

The control automation required is (1) start, (2) stop, (3) expansion valve, (4) emergency cut out, (5) cooling air or water circulation, (6) oil separation, (7) liquid in suction line, etc. Obviously this is closely related to electrical control. A few of the components have been simplified and are presented here:

Referring to Fig. 7.11:



DIRECT EXPANSION UNIT
Fig. 7.11

The compressor is started and stopped by a thermal element pressure switch. An emergency pressure cut out is provided and

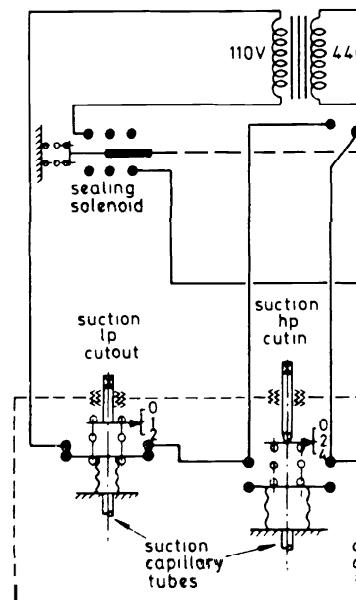
the expansion valve is of the function of the solenoid liquid circuits and to shut just before compressor clears the suction liquid knock when restarting.

When there are a number of ice tanks, ready use chambers, etc. on the main line.

Each circuit has its own thermal solenoid stop valve. When one cuts off, it shuts the liquid stop valve and so on happens progressively to all circuits until the rapid drop in suction pressure starts the compressor.

Electrical Control Switch (Fig. 7.12)

The capillary tubes are usually located in the refrigerant itself so that



ELECTRICAL CONTROL
Fig. 7.12

pressure variations on the flexible metallic bellows. The motion of the bellows operates the trip switches. As the temperature of the suction line *increases*, the bellows pressure *increases* against the spring compression upwards and *closes* the selector switch (*hp* cut in at centre) at say 2 bar, so cutting in the motor. With the compressor running the suction temperature *falls* and hence the bellows pressure *falls*. This action against a tensile spring will eventually *open* the other selector switch (*lp* cut out at left) at say 1 bar so cutting out the motor and compressor. The differential between these two is set for reasonable running.

The emergency *hp* cut out, to operate if cooling failure and pressure build up occurs, works to *open* the switch as for cut out action.

The sealing contactor maintains the electrical circuit when the *hp* suction cut in opens with the machine running.

For manual operation push buttons (start and stop) would replace the two suction bellows.

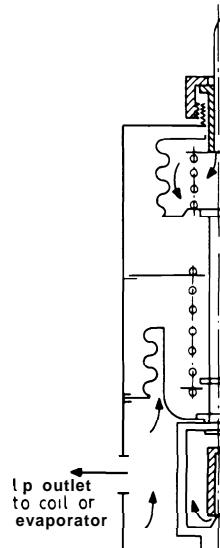
Electrical protection is by thermal trips operating the main contactors, these have an inherent time delay during heating.

Thermostatic Expansion Valve (Fig. 7.13)

The expansion valve shown is the thermostatic type which is designed usually to give a vapour just superheated leaving the cold room.

Considering Fig. 7.13 in relation to forces: *Down* forces are *hp* liquid valve force, adjustable compression spring force and power bellows force. *Up* forces are evaporator vapour pressure upon body bellows and tension spring force. For given spring settings the spring forces and *hp* liquid valve forces balancing gives equilibrium, then force tending to *close* valve depends on evaporator saturation temperature and force to *open* valve depends on temperature of bulb at location, *i.e.* valve operation is controlled by difference of these two temperatures, *i.e.* superheat. Degree of suction superheat is controlled by the adjusting nut and is usually set at about 5°C. If the room temperature tends to *rise* the superheat *increases*, bellows down force from capillary tube *increases* and the valve *opens* to increase flow of liquid refrigerant until the temperature equilibrium is restored. The valve has a certain equilibrium setting at one pressure and another setting at another pressure, *i.e.* the valve has no control over suction pressure.

The pressure control type expansion valve works to maintain a fixed evaporator coil pressure. This type is similar to the lower part of the valve sketched but is more simple. It consists of the



THERMOSTATIC BELLOWS
Fig. 7.13

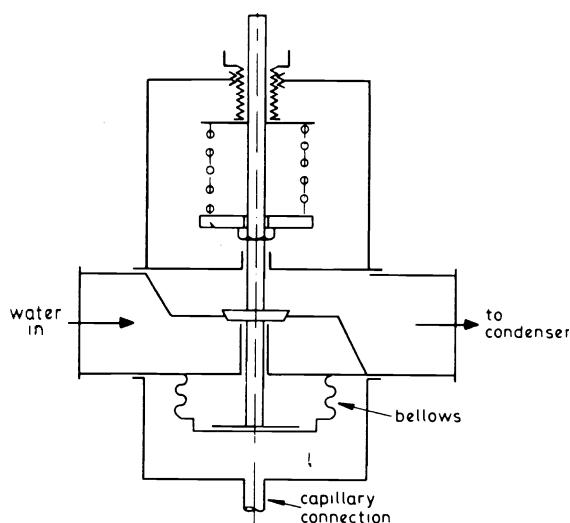
liquid valve and body bellows, an adjustable compression spring (evaporator pressure) balances given setting. Evaporator pressure increase *closes* valve, rising pressure causes closure.

Automatic Water Valve (Fig. 7.14)

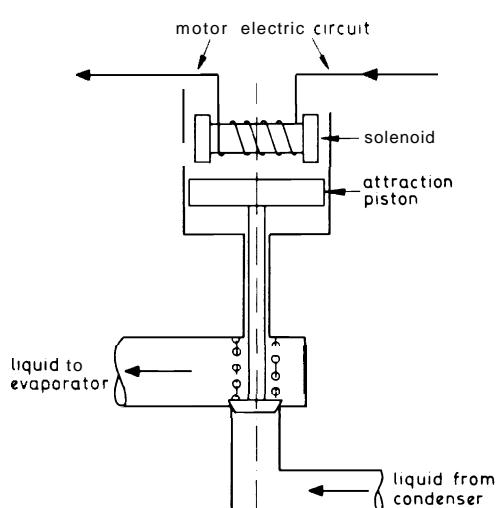
When the condenser temperature rises the bellows pressure increases and circulation. This device operates compressor cut in and serves to can easily be modified to operate

Magnetic Liquid Stop Valve (Fig. 7.15)

When current flows in the magnet it pulls up the valve and holds it open. It allows the solenoid current to flow until the room cools the current fails.



AUTOMATIC WATER VALVE
Fig 7.14



MAGNETIC LIQUID STOP VALVE
Fig. 7.15

time delay the compressor will avoid liquid knock on restarting.

In multiple circuits this valve particular chamber to which it is connected. Each room has its own stop valve and expansion valve as well as a heating coil. These circuits will cut out **in sequence**. The coolest chamber closure will then open.

The thermostat switch is simple with a spring action against the room temperature and employs a differential.

Sight glasses for liquid observation at various points in the domestic system.

Automatic Oil Separator

The oil is retained in the separator unbalances a float causing the back to the compressor.

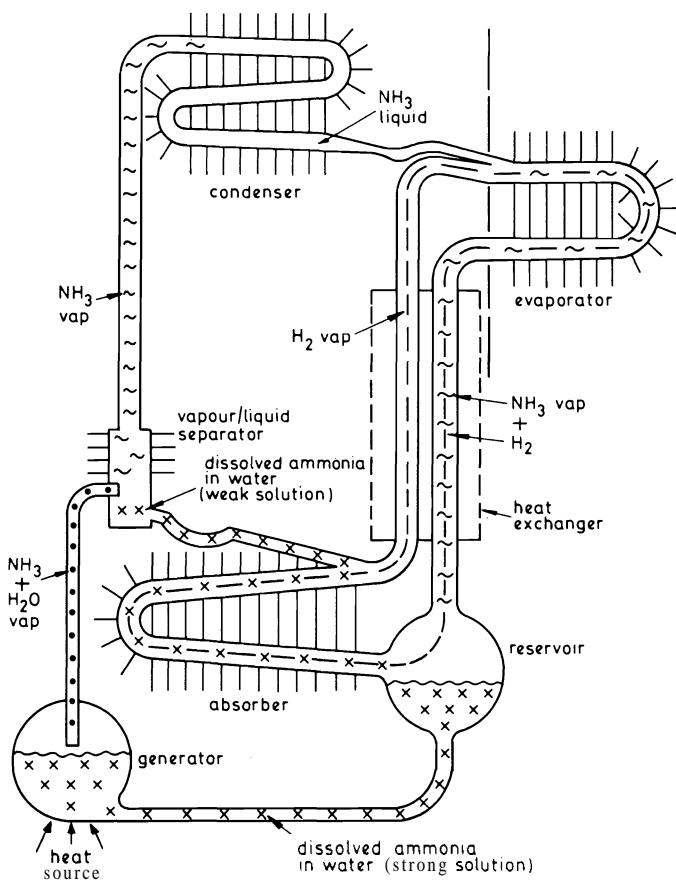
The float is dead loaded so as possible before the valve reseats.

ABSORPTION TYPE

This device has no moving parts in operation when provided with a gas burner or electric element. The ratio of the partial pressures, is as follows. Consider Fig. 7.16:

1. Hydrogen vapour, which enters the absorber and rises until it meets the entry to the evaporator. Due to the lowering of the ammonia pressure as previously exerted by vaporisation of the ammonia, are carried down to the absorber where it dissolves the ammonia and the

2. Ammonia vapour, which is carried with the water vapour from the absorber. The water vapour and some ammonia vapour then rises, reduced in pressure and vaporised to be absorbed in the absorber. A pipe goes down into the lower pipe to the



ABSORPTION TYPE REFRIGERATION UNIT
Fig. 7.16

3. Water vapour leaves the generator, is condensed in the separator, falls through the absorber dissolving the ammonia vapour, and returns to the generator.

The unit requires no compressors, or pumps, and is silent and vibrationless. It is fairly often used in domestic units on shore, but rarely on board ship, as correct and steady level is critical for correct working.

Condenser, evaporator and vapour liquid separator, are air-cooled, with fins welded or brazed on to the piping to give extended surface heat transfer.

In many designs the hydro absorber to the underside of through the evaporator and c the reservoir where ammonia ammonia condensing and hyd

The precise method adopted equipment and the thermody media in the unit.

BRINE

Properties of Brine

It is an advantage if the cool contains a fluid which is virtua the space in the event of leaka

Small domestic units circu (direct expansion) but larger evaporator and a loop of circ the cold chambers and back advantage is that the brine pip cold than refrigerant coils when the advantage that various cir cooling, chilling, defrosting, e

The brine as used is a mixt and calcium chloride ($CaCl_2$). more dense the brine in circula up. Table 7.3 gives the dens points.

Under certain conditions s used with water but an alkali su be required as an addition as brine should be maintained conditions, this can easily be phenolphthalein, etc. Brine regularly by standard hydrom check should also be taken for tank which serves to keep a he

There is a possibility that the become explosive or inflammable gas liberation due to corrosive naked lights.

The brine circuit consists distribution headers, mixing t then the various piping sy

FREEZING POINT(°C)	DENSITY AT 15.5°C (kg/m ³)
- 3	1050
- 7	1100
- 13	1150
- 21	1200
- 32	1250
- 46	1290

TABLE 7.3

maintained under pressure. The piping is usually tested to 7 bar, or $2.5 \times W.P.$, whichever is the greater, pipes commonly of mild steel externally galvanised and painted, about **40** mm bore.

It is usual to regulate the flow of brine by the return valves on the distribution and return headers.

For chilling chambers about $3m^3$ of chamber would require about $1 m^2$ of pipe cooling surface, increased to **4.5** m^3 if air circulated. For freezing chambers the ratio is about **1.5** m^3/m^2 ($2.2 m^3/m^2$ air circulated).

Normally **1250** kg/m³ density would be satisfactory for most brine circulation with a pH value of **8.5**.

Non-freezing solutions can also be based on organic fluids; ethylene and propylene glycol are in general use.

Battery System

This system is to blow air across a brine or direct expansion grid and circulate the storage space. It is well suited to higher temperature storage, e.g., shellac, as there is no dripping from overhead grids on to the cargo. Also this system gives some control over the humidity as moisture will be deposited on the cooling coil. The supply of air circulation to any storage room will reduce the brine cooling surface required by as much as **50%**. Direct expansion grids employ only about **40%** of brine cooled grid pipe surface but do not have the same large reserve of cold.

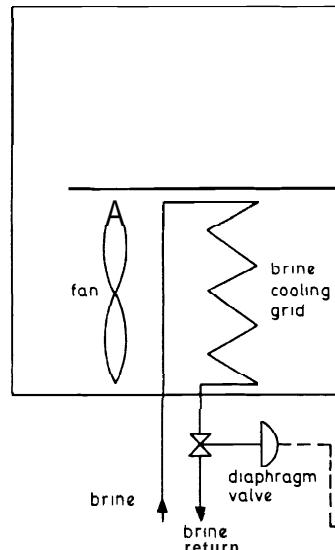
Ice Making

The ice tank is usually wrought iron and contains lead coated sheet steel ice moulds.

The moulds are immersed in a brine bath and a cooling coil, brine or refrigerant, lowers the bath temperature until the water in the moulds is converted to ice. The tank is insulated and coil supply and return valves are fitted.

A direct expansion coil would have a low surface area per kg of ice per kg of water.

Hold Ventilation Control

HOLD VENTILATION T
Fig.

Shown in Fig. 7.17 is a method of hold ventilation control very suitable for fruit and vegetable cargoes situated in a bypass pocket where the delivery temperature whether frozen or chilled is to be controlled.

The diaphragm operated control valve is a direct acting (fail in the open position) or a normally closed (fail in the shut position).

For fruit cargo where frost damage is a danger, the valves which would fail in the open position are used.

For chilled meat cargo where the temperature of the cargo during a period of time would pass below the freezing point again reduced to the correct temperature is preferred.

Refrigerated containers may be used for the carriage of fruit or the containers may be connected to the ship's

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF AIR CONDITIONING

Air conditioning is the control of humidity, temperature, cleanliness and air motion. Winter conditioning relates to increasing temperature and humidity whilst summer conditioning relates to decreasing temperature and humidity. Basically the practical difference is dependent upon whether the air fluid is passed over a hot grid (steam) or cold grid (brine or direct expansion refrigerant). Water can be used instead of brine.

Comfort cooling for accommodation will only briefly be described although the field covers in addition much industrial usage as well as heating applications in both cases.

Specific Humidity

Is the ratio of the mass of water vapour to the mass of dry air in a given volume of mixture.

Per Cent Relative Humidity

Is the mass of water vapour per m^3 of air compared to the mass of water vapour per m^3 of saturated air at the same temperature. This also equals the ratio of the partial pressure of the actual air compared to the partial pressure of the air if it was saturated at the same temperature *i.e.*

$$\frac{m}{m_s} = \frac{p}{p_s}$$

Partial Pressures, Dalton's Laws

Barometer pressure = partial pressure $N_2 + p.p. O_2 + p.p. H_2O$, from Dalton's Laws, viz:

1. Pressure exerted by, and the quantity of, the vapour required to saturate a given space (*i.e.* exist as saturated steam) at any given temperature, are the same whether that space is filled by a gas or is a vacuum.
2. The pressure exerted by a mixture of a gas and a vapour, of two vapours, or of two gases, or a number of same, is the sum of the pressure which each would exert if it occupied the same space alone, assuming no interaction of constituents.

Dew Point

When a mixture of dry air and water vapour is cooled until all the vapour it is said to be saturated. The temperature (at constant pressure) at which condensation begins is called the dew point. This temperature contains all the moisture that can be held in the air at that pressure. As the amount of water vapour increases, so the dew point rises; as the pressure varies, so the dew point varies.

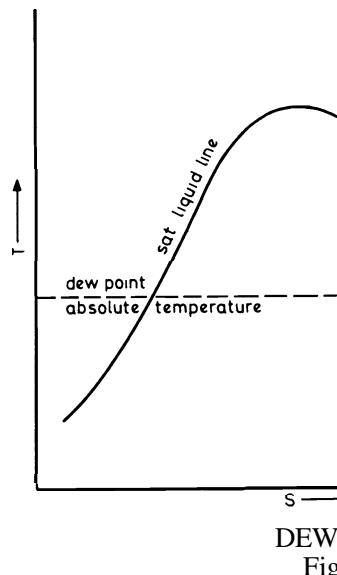


Fig.

It can be seen from Fig. 7.18 that the air becomes more humid as it is cooled, bringing the low pressure super-saturated air closer to the dew point, after which condensation occurs. The air must be cooled at constant temperature until the saturation point is reached, at which point the dew point can be found.

$$\% \text{ R.H.} = \frac{m}{m_s} \times 100 = \frac{p}{p_s} \times 100 - \frac{p \text{ dew point}}{p_s} \times 100.$$

where g refers to the saturation condition. This means dry air contains maximum moisture content (100% R.H.) at the saturation condition.

Dry Bulb and Wet Bulb Temperatures

The hygrometer (or **psychrometer**) consists of an ordinary thermometer which gives the dry bulb temperature and a wet bulb thermometer (wetted gauze cover). The wet bulb reading will be less than the dry bulb reading, the difference is quoted as the wet bulb depression. The drier the air, the more rapid the moisture evaporation from the gauze giving a cooling effect. Thus the greater the difference between the readings the drier the air and the less the % R.H. Still air thermometers are inaccurate and hand sling types to secure air motion across the wick until equilibrium conditions exists are preferred.

Psychrometric Chart

Cooling air at constant pressure gives constant moisture content, increasing in relative humidity until saturation (dew point) is reached.

Cooling air in practice gives some pressure drop due to fluid friction but this is not high in a correctly designed plant. If the cooling rate is kept in line with the pressure drop then the relative humidity will stay constant, if the cooling rate is slower the relative humidity will reduce, if the cooling rate is faster (as it will be usually in practice) then the relative humidity will increase.

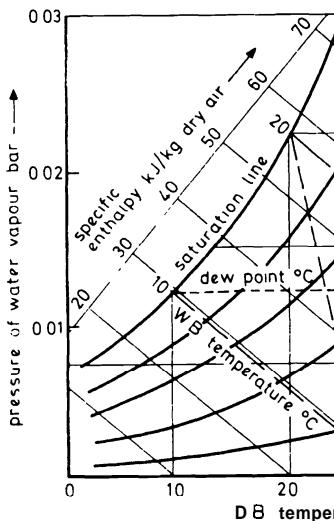
When dealing with air mixtures, for example, Z 17 m³ of air at 35°C D.B. and R.H. 40% mixed with X 83 m³ of air at 27°C D.B. and R.H. 50%, set off on Fig. 7.19 and proportion XZ off so that:

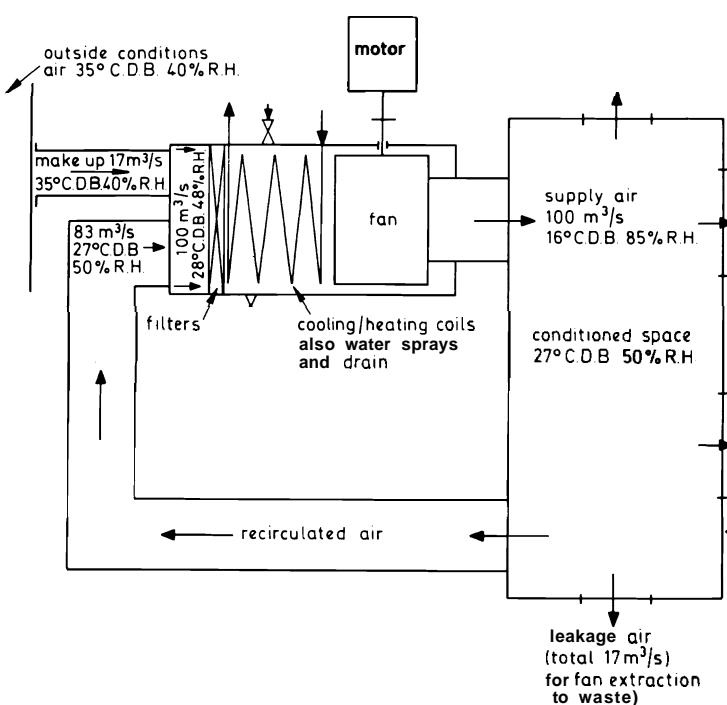
$$\frac{XY}{XZ} = \frac{\text{mass of } 17 \text{ m}^3}{\text{mass of } 83 \text{ m}^3}$$

the masses being found from specific volumes (ignoring small water mass) then Y is condition of 100 m³ of mixture. (100 m³ 28°C D.B. R.H. 48%).

Points X, Y and Z on Fig. 7.19 as shown are merely illustrative. The chart is drawn for a pressure of 1 bar but is sensibly accurate between 0.9 and 1.1 bar.

From wet and dry bulb readings the various properties of the air-vapour mixture can be estimated. Enthalpy is a function of





AIR CONDITIONING CIRCUIT

Fig. 7.20

recirculated depends on the installation, space conditions (smoking, etc.), degree of air motion (draughts, etc.) and so number of air changes per day is a balance of quantity and temperature. Thus temperature, humidity and air motion are interrelated and the designer must correlate correctly. About 0.1 m³/m² floor space (accommodation) to 1.33 m³/m² floor space (kitchens) may be regarded as typical maximums, air motion about 100 mm/s.

The air conditioning unit (compressor, evaporator, condenser, etc.) will usually be independent from the rest of the refrigerating plant, although located often in the same space. The brine supply will be distributed to the cooling grids incorporated in a unit. The number of units would depend on the number of accommodation circuits necessary, say at least one unit per accommodation deck. Size of the plant would depend on the type of vessel.

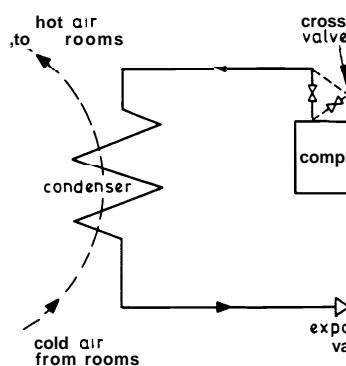
Each unit would exist in a single unit. Fig. 7.20. Leakage air must be cut to doors. Air circulation would be from the system to the various spaces, which would bypass the shut down heating elements, in this case at humidity before leaving the unit.

The temperature and humidity drainage condensation being led will be determined by the initial louvres. The flow is usually by and the humidistat or thermostat together with fan controls. Clean filters. In marine practice viscous the filter medium (glass wool, inserted between metal grids assembly mounted as a removable immersed in an odourless oil usually arranged to be cleaned.

Other types are available which destroyed when dirty but they similarly dry filters (paper or precipitator types are available application in marine services as

Simple Heat Pump Circuit

The circuit, in conventional form, Fig. 7.21 should be clear. It is accommodation in winter.



SIMPLE HEAT

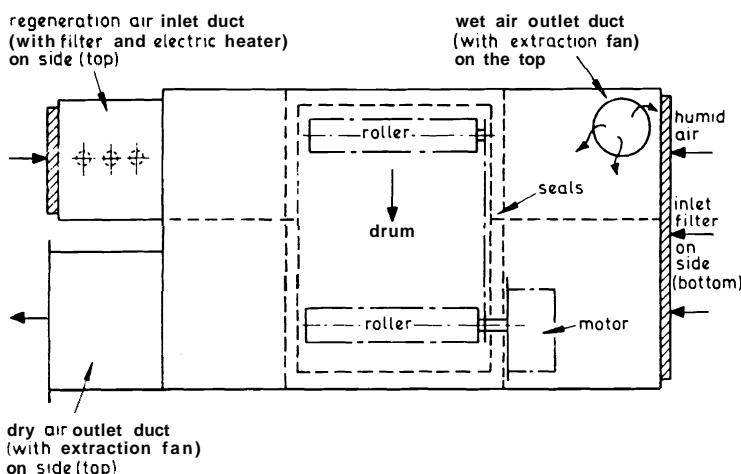
Fig.

By reversing the direction of flow, by means of the cross-over valves, the heat pump can cool the accommodation in summer. Coefficient of performance averages about 5.

Dehumidifier (Fig. 7.22)

Moisture is removed from the humid air by passing the air through a fluted rotating drum of asbestos type material surface impregnated with water absorbing salts. A separate stream of heated air passes through the drum over a 1.6 radius sector in the opposite direction to continuously remove the moisture deposited on the salts. The drum is mounted on two rollers covered with a high frictional coefficient material. A motor drive to the rollers causes rotation of the drum in the two air streams.

Heat input of 6.7 W would remove $21.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/s}$ of moisture from humid air at 27°C and 60% R.H. and flow rate of $0.77 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$.



DEHUMIDIFIER (DIAGRAMMATIC PLAN VIEW)
Fig. 7.22

The dehumidifier prevents moisture damage to cargo from direct moisture deposit or moisture deposited on internal ship surfaces.

One unit is normally provided for each hold and an electrical control and recording panel is provided on the unit as well as at a centralised station.

The fan units would normally change in one day for the full day. They are arranged to give re-circulation of air.

Two recorders are normally fitted with sensors for ship skin moisture, weather dew point, sea water temperature and the other for cargo moisture point, cargo temperature and temperatures are given at the top. Fruit and vegetables are mainly dried but meats generally must be frozen as freezing is at lower temperatures and needs to be monitored, for such and controlled.

INSULATION

Shipside insulation is as shown alternative space saving method the air space so moving the vessel with zinc sheathing right up to

Tank top insulation is as shown lower battens and bottom tank omitted. In the case where the bilge, with a tank margin plate doors must be provided as shown.

Deckhead insulation is virtually bulkhead insulation, the faster.

All insulation should be rat proofing is also required. Air point and moisture will form water and rots the material. Vapour and all joints and concrete plates be coated with odourless asphalt.

Hatch covers, inspection doors usually of the wedge type, the having ball rubber joint inserts.

Brine rooms etc., are usually inside to give a smooth clean air compressor to the brine or effectively insulated. Silicate c

kg/m^3 and granulated cork about 128 kg/m^3 . Plastics which flow easily and form firm hygienic mouldings are now in more general insulation use. Fibre glass and cork slabs are also used. See Table 7.4.

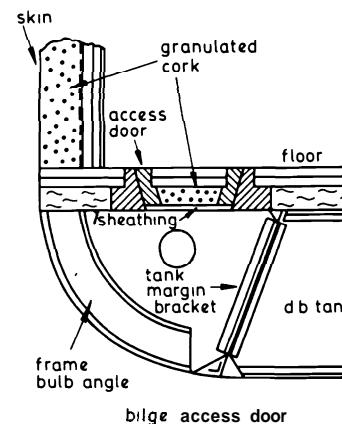
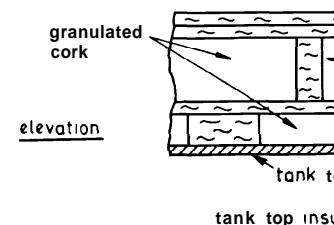
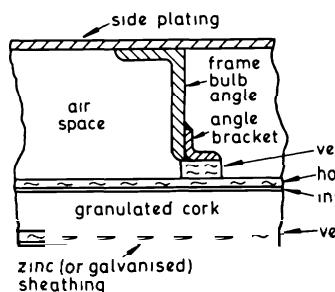
Cargo containment-piping systems for LNG and LPG utilise aluminium-stainless steel with membrane double skin tank construction and perlite insulation (boxed) — alternative polyurethane foam **inside** and/or outside. Cascade re-liquefaction plants are usually provided.

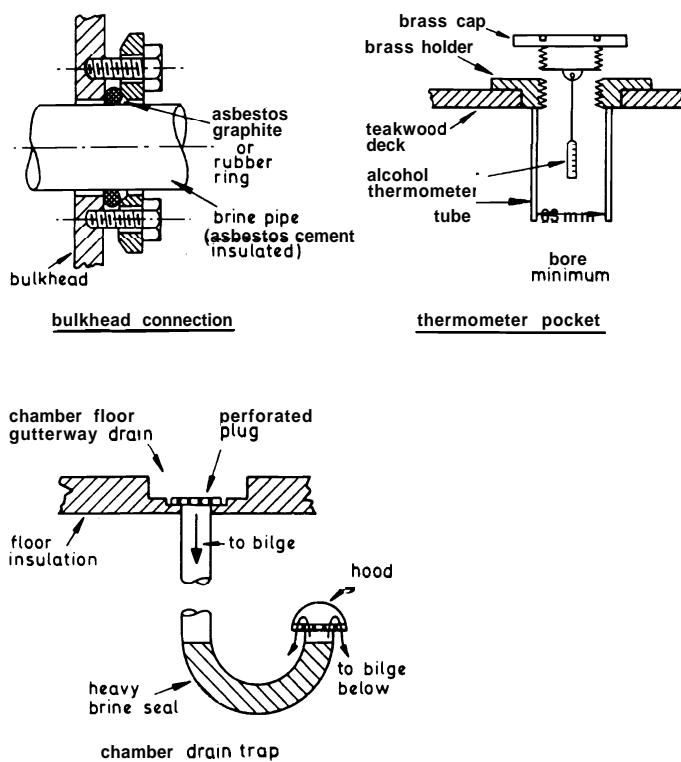
INSULATING MATERIAL	THERMAL CONDUCTIVITY AVERAGE VALUES W/mK
Polyurethane Foam	0.026
Expanded Polystyrene	0.034
Corkboard	0.043
Fibreglass	0.043
Rockwool	0.036
Kapok	0.035
Ground Cork	0.043
Celotex	0.052
Building Brick	0.346—0.692
Concrete	0.737—1.373

TABLE 7.4

PRODUCT	APPROX: STORAGE TEMPERATURE °C
Chilled Beef	2
Frozen Beef	-4
Chilled Mutton	2
Frozen Mutton	-6
Poultry	-8
Fish	-7
Milk	0
Butter	-11
Cheese	1
Eggs	-1
Chocolate	2
Wines	7
Beer	1
Vegetables	2
Apples and Pears	1
Peaches and Oranges	7

TABLE 7.5

INSULATION
Fig



INSULATION DETAILS (2)

Fig. 7.24

Heat Transfer (Insulation)

The two examples following serve to revise basic theory:

1. A brick wall, **0.225 m** thick with a thermal conductivity of **0.6 W/mK**, measures **5 m** long and **3 m** high, and has a temperature difference of **25 K** between inside and outside faces. What is the heat conduction rate?

$$Q = \frac{0.6 \times 5 \times 3 \times 25}{0.225} = 1,000 \text{W}$$

2. A brick wall **0.24 m** thick has a concrete surface facing **0.015 m** thick. Thermal conductivities are **0.6** and **1.5**

W/mK respectively; surfaces inside and out, are **3.33**. Evaluate the overall heat transfer coefficient and estimate the heat conduction rate.

$$R_t = R_i + R_c + R_b + R_o$$

$$\frac{1}{U} = \frac{1}{h_i} + \frac{x_c}{k_c} + \frac{x_b}{k_b} + \frac{1}{h_o}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3.333} + \frac{0.015}{1.5} + \frac{0.24}{0.6}$$

$$= 0.76$$

TEST EXAMPLES 7**Class 3**

1. Sketch a simple refrigerant cycle of the compression type and on the sketch show a position in the cycle where you would expect the refrigerant to be:
 - (a) a liquid,
 - (b) a gas.
2. Describe the basic refrigerant circuit for a compression type plant. What kind of gas is commonly used in this type of plant?
3. State the reasons why Freon 12 is a popular refrigerant gas.
4. Explain why the refrigerant gas in a compression type domestic refrigeration plant is passed through a condenser after being compressed.

Class 2

1. (a) Draw a line diagram of a refrigerant circuit servicing a large plant. Label all parts and indicate the direction of flow.
(b) Explain how the system maintains constant pressure in the system.
2. Suggest, with reasons, the advantages of a system which is subject to considerable pressure fluctuations simultaneously prevailing in the system.
 - (a) compressor in gear at normal speed,
 - (b) throttling regulated by valve,
 - (c) no detectable loss of refrigerant,
 - (d) brine temperature controlled.
3. With reference to refrigeration plants:
 - (a) very low evaporation temperatures are required,
 - (b) automatic expansion valves are used to regulate the pressure in the system,
 - (c) compressors are required to handle liquid refrigerant which has been 'carry over' of liquid refrigerant from the evaporator,
 - (d) air in the system is removed by a pump,
 - (e) over charge of refrigerant is avoided.
4. Briefly describe how in marine refrigeration systems:
 - (a) sea temperature control is achieved,
 - (b) the limitations in the use of short cycling are overcome,
 - (c) short cycling is avoided.
 - (d) short cycling is avoided.

TEST EXAMPLES 7

Class 1

1. (i) Draw a line diagram of an accommodation air conditioning plant, labelling the principal components and showing the direction of air flows in all ducts.
 (ii) Explain why humidity control is essential for comfort.
 (iii) State how ambient temperature affects humidity control.
 (iv) Give a reason why compensation for air losses is necessary and how it is accomplished.
2. (i) Identify, with reasons, those properties of Freon which makes it such an attractive refrigerant.
 Give reasons why each of the following gases has fallen into disfavour as a refrigerant:
 (ii) carbon dioxide,
 (iii) ammonia,
 (iv) methyl chloride,
3. Give a reasoned opinion as to the validity of the following references to accommodation air conditioning:
 - (i) 'rule of thumb' method whereby rate of air change is directly related to cubical capacity of the compartment concerned is quite satisfactory for all practical purposes,
 - (ii) mechanical ventilation with air heating is inadequate for comfort in ships operating within a wide range of ambient air temperature and humidity,
 - (iii) humidity control is absolutely essential for long term comfort of personnel.
4. In refrigeration what is meant by:
 - (a) specific heat capacity,
 - (b) specific enthalpy of evaporation,
 - (c) specific volume,
 - (d) critical temperature,

Give typical values for each of the above for three refrigerants.

CHAPTER

FIRE AND

One of the most dangerous encounter on shipboard is that of **cure**, is a well worn axiom that

PRINCIPLE

This may be stated in general combination of combustible elements and oxygen, resulting in the liberation of energy.

Materials such as coal, wood, oil, etc., manufactured from them contain the element. Any of these materials if burnt, in other words, the carbon will combine with oxygen to form carbon dioxide and the energy will be liberated.

Oils and vapours given off by hydrocarbon *i.e.* they contain hydrogen and carbon which again, under certain conditions of temperature and pressure, will ignite.

FIRE PREVENTION AND

Cleanliness, vigilance and common sense are the weapons with which to prevent fires.

Tank tops should be kept clean and dry. It is recommended that tank tops be painted white or light colours. Leaking oil and fuel oil leakages from drip trays, pipes, etc., should be easily spotted and the leakage controlled to prevent dangerous accumulation of oil and fuel.

Bilges must be kept clean and dry. Bilges should be maintained in good working order.

All fire fighting appliances must be in good order and tested regularly. Emergency

collapsible bridge oil valves, watertight doors, etc., should all be tested frequently and kept in good operative order. All fire detection devices should be regularly tested and any faults rectified.

All engine room personnel should be fully conversant with the recognised procedure for dealing with a fire aboard ship and should know the whereabouts and method of operating *all* fire fighting equipment.

When coal is carried, as cargo, the compartment or compartments where it is situated should be well ventilated and the coal should, as far as possible, be stacked in such a way so that it presents as large a surface area as possible to the atmosphere. This will reduce risk of an outbreak of fire due to spontaneous combustion of the coal. Personnel should be thoroughly familiar with the problems associated with any special cargo the vessel may be carrying, *e.g.* LPG, LNG and chemical carriers.

TYPES OF FIRES AND METHODS OF EXTINGUISHING

(1) Oil Fires

The vapours given off from the oil can be ignited, causing a rise in temperature of the oil so that more oil vapour is readily given off from the oil to replace that already burnt. The methods of extinguishing oil fires are as follows:

- (a) Sand, used for small oil fires, it serves as a blanket so excluding the atmosphere.
- (b) Water spray, this must *completely* cover the surface of the burning oil, the water has a cooling effect that will reduce the rate at which vapour is given off from the oil. The water spray also smothers.
- (c) Foam, serves as a blanket to smother the fire.
- (d) Dry powder, serves as a blanket to smother the fire.
- (e) Inert gas, *e.g.* Carbon dioxide, heavier than air hence it displaces the oxygen bearing atmosphere.
- (f) Steam, smothers the fire.
- (g) Asbestos blanket, used for smothering small fires.

(2) Coal Fires

The methods by which a coal fire is extinguished are principally by cooling. Hence water is generally used. Soda-acid, carbon dioxide and water portable extinguishers may be used to extinguish small coal fires.

(3) Material Fires

Wood, paper, waste, bedding when burning may be extinguished with water or, again, soda-acid, carbon dioxide or powder portable extinguishers.

(4) Electrical Fires

Electrical equipment may take fire if a live component or components or insulation becomes faulty. It is possible to interrupt the supply to the faulty component and the fire may then be extinguished. If this is *not* possible to interrupt the supply, dry powder or carbon dioxide may be used to extinguish the fire. *e.g.* CO_2 .

FIRE DETECT

Fire Patrols

These are not normally carried out on most vessels but they should be made before departure, especially in hold compartments, engine rooms, etc. (2) when the vessel is put into port, personnel whilst the vessel is in port may have been using oxy-acetylene equipment on one side of a bulkhead. The beginnings of a fire were being detected.

The patrol should, in addition to the above, correct any possible dangerous conditions, such as drums, incorrectly stored chemicals, etc.

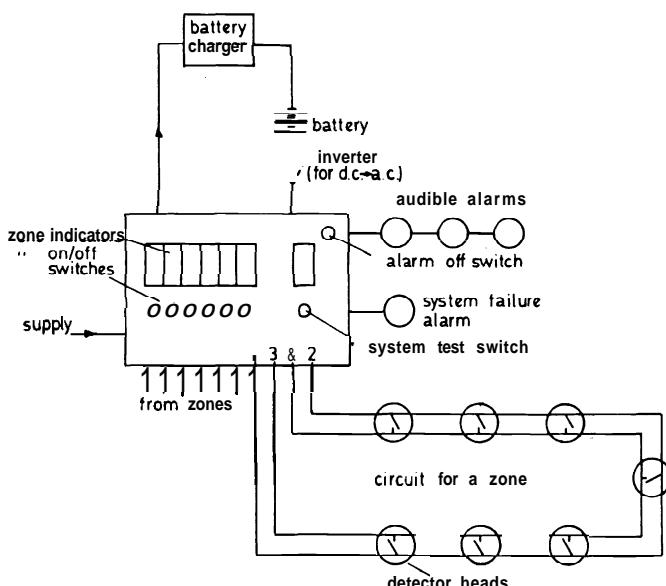
Fire Alarm Circuits

These consist of an alarm system in machinery spaces, which gives visual and audible circuits, audible alarms and audio signals.

Circuits

When the contacts in a detector circuit (in normal conditions) they short the line to the audible fire alarm. The line is connected to the alarm.

monitored through 1 to 2 and 3 to 4, hence any fault which develops, *e.g.* damaged insulation, break in the cable, causes the system failure alarm to sound.



FIRE ALARM CIRCUIT

Fig. 8.1

Power failure

In the event of failure of mains supply power, automatic auxiliary power is supplied from fully charged stand-by batteries for up to 6 hours. Most systems operate on 24V. dc, however, for those operating at mains supply of 220V. ac an inverter converts the 24V. dc to 220V. ac.

Audible Alarms

The fire alarm is usually an intermittent audible signal whereas fault and manual test are normally a continuous audible signal.

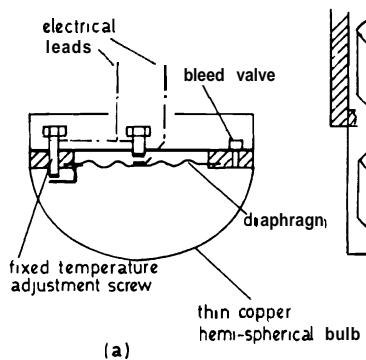
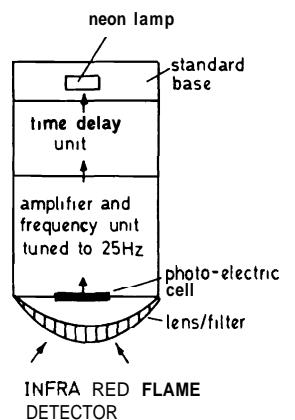
Fire Detector Heads

Various types are available for fitting into an alarm circuit, choice is dependent upon fire risk, position, area to be covered, volume and height of compartment, atmosphere in the space,

etc. To economise and simplify used in the circuit into which diodes are fitted.

Heat Sensors

These may be fixed temperature detectors or a combination. They respond and give alarm if the temperature *e.g.* moving into tropical regions



FIRE DETECTOR
Fig. 8.2

Fig. 8.2(a) Pneumatic Type:

Increase in temperature increases the air pressure inside the hemi-spherical bulb, if the bleed of air through the two way bleed valve from the inside of the bulb is sufficient the diaphragm will not move up and close the contacts. If however the rate of rise of temperature causes sufficient pressure build up inside the bulb to close the contacts, alarm will be given. In either case a bi-metal unit will at a pre-determined temperature close the contacts on to the fixed temperature adjustment screw, giving alarm.

Fig. 8.2(b) Bi-metal Coil Type:

Two bi-metal coils attached to a vertical support bracket are encased in a protective metal cap. When the temperature increases A will move to close the gap C at a faster rate than B moves to maintain the gap, this is due to B being better insulated from the heat than A. If the rate of rise of temperature is sufficient, gap C will be closed and alarm given. At a *fixed* temperature gap D, then gap C will be closed, giving alarm.

Quartzoid bulbs of the type fitted into a sprinkler system are fixed temperature detectors used for spaces other than engine and boiler rooms.

the poorer the ventilation air the quicker will be the response of the alarm sounds.

Fixed temperature setting depends on accommodation or machine 55°C to 70°C.

The detector is useful for dust sealed but it does not give as early types of detectors. It can be tested by blower or muff.

Infra Red Flame Detector

Fig. 8.2 also shows in simple detector. Flame has a characteristic frequency of 25 Hz and use is made of this fact. Infra-red radiation from flames reaches a cell. The signal from the cell is processed which is tuned to 25 Hz, then in the incidence of false alarms, fire (determined period), trigger an alarm.

Relevant Points

Very early warning of fire is provided where fire risk is high, *i.e.* machinery rooms, where naked flame torches are used. Reflected radiation can be a problem with running machinery. Obscuration may be inoperative. It can be tested by

Photo-electric Cell Smoke Detector

Three types are in use, those that operate by light scattering, those that combine scatter and obscuration.

Light Scatter Type (Fig. 8.4):

A photo-cell separated by a barrier from an intermittently flashing light source whose containment allows smoke to pass through the barrier on to the photo-cell and

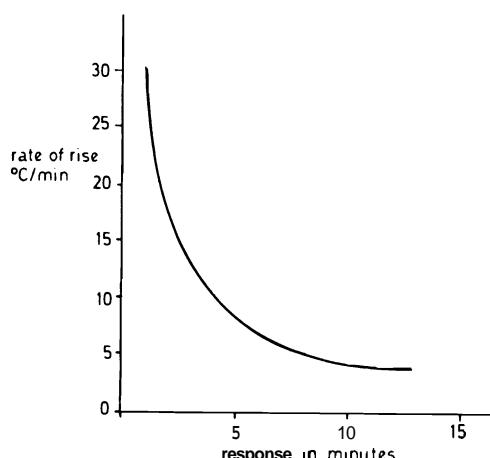
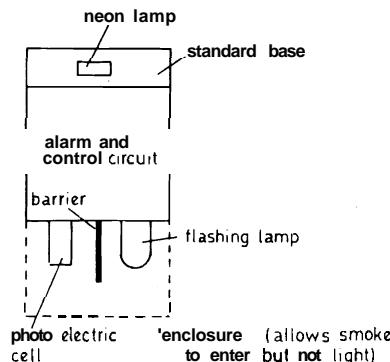
**DETECTOR RESPONSE CURVE**

Fig. 8.3

Relevant Points

Sensitivity: a typical response curve for a rate of rise detector is shown in Fig. 8.3. The greater the heat release rate from the



SMOKE DETECTOR. LIGHT SCATTER TYPE
Fig. 8.4

Relevant Points

Smoke may be present without much heat or any flame, hence this detector could give early warning of fire. Photo-cells and light sources are vulnerable to vibration and dirt. Testing can be done with smoke from a cigarette.

The light obscuration type is used in oil mist detectors for diesel engine crank cases and the obscuration/scatter type is to be found in the detecting cabinet of the carbon dioxide flooding system shown in Fig. 8.17.

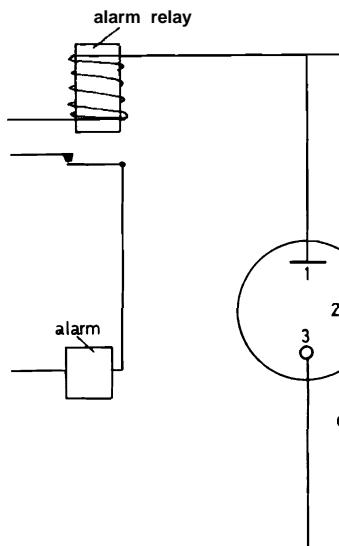
Standard Bases

The standard bases shown in the figures for the various detector heads have a neon light incorporated which flashes to indicate which detector head has operated. Detector heads can be simply unplugged from the base and tested in a portable test unit which has an adjustable time delay, audible **alarm** and battery.

Combustion Gas Detector

A circuit diagram of a combustion gas detector is shown in Fig. 8.5. Two ionisation chambers connected in series contain some radioactive material which emits a continuous supply of **ionising** particles.

The detecting chamber is open, the reference chamber closed and operating at a constant current since it contains air which is being ionised and the applied potential ensures that saturation point is passed. Current strength is dependent upon the applied



COMBUSTION G...
Fig.

potential, since if the potential is high enough, the ions will reach the electrodes, some will be neutralised.

When the potential reaches a certain level, the ions will reach the electrodes giving saturation current. This current will remain approximately constant with an increase in potential. In this way, the potential remains constant.

If combustion particles, visible to the eye, enter the open detecting chamber the resistance of the air molecules is increased. These particles are more mobile than ionised air particles and therefore move more easily and lack of mobility, can readily move towards the electrodes of opposite charge and hence be neutralised. This causes an increase in the resistance of the detecting chamber. An increase in resistance produces a substantial increase in potential at the centre point B.

Normal voltage A to C is 220 Volts. When voltage shift, due

detecting chamber, reaches 110V across BC this is sufficient to trigger a discharge in the valve from 2 to 3, the capacitor then unloads itself across 2 to 3 encouraging a discharge from 1 to 3, by-passing the chambers and causing heavy current flow through the alarm relay and the alarm to sound.

It can be tested by cigarette smoke or the use of butane gas delivered from an aerosol container. It is a very sensitive fire alarm and a time delay circuit may be incorporated to minimise the incidence of false alarms.

CRITICAL ANALYSIS OF FIRE EXTINGUISHING MEDIUMS

Water

High latent heat, 2256.7 kJ/kg at atmospheric pressure hence it has a very large cooling effect. If it absorbs this heat it expands to 1,700 times its liquid volume to produce steam which is a smothering atmosphere.

It is plentiful, non-toxic, safe to use on most fires, can be easily directed over considerable distances.

When used on oil fires all the liquid surface should be covered by the water spray, and surrounding hot metal should be cooled to prevent re-ignition. If water droplets enter the hot oil they will be converted to steam—this rapid expansion from water to steam leads to spluttering and possible spread of the fire. The water droplets should be fine enough (mist or fog) so that they cool by taking heat from the burning vapours, this is especially necessary in the case of oils with low fire points, e.g. crude, petrol, etc., direct cooling of these oils is not possible.

Steam

Has a very limited cooling effect, its higher temperature makes the control of smoldering fires somewhat protracted. It is not always available and large quantities are necessary. Steam should not be used in conjunction with carbon dioxide for hold compartments, since to use it after carbon dioxide would be to replace a good fire fighting medium with a relatively poor one. Steam smothering is not recommended.

Foam

Foam, which is used principally for extinguishing oil fires, may be generated chemically or mechanically.

Chemical generation of foam together a solution of sodium aluminium sulphate in the presence of liquorice). The result of the chemical reaction is the formation between these two solutions, is a foam containing carbon dioxide. This accompanies the reaction, in the ratio of one part of one solution to eight of the other.

Mechanical generation of foam requires a suitable agitator, a dry powder gun, a horn and hydrolised blood with a synthetic detergent concentrate.

Chemical foam deteriorates in performance; regular testing is required.

'Throw capability' depends upon the volumetric ratio of the amount of foam used in its formation. Low ratios give a reasonable throw but medium and high ratios 150:1 and 1,000:1 respectively).

Mechanical foam can be pumped from guns at suitable deck stations, even over considerable distances, depending on the type of gun.

A mechanical low expansion foam is a free flowing agent (per fluorinated hydrocarbons) which, due to its low surface tension and thereby enabling it to spread evenly across large areas, may be used for extinguishing fires on carriers and chemical tankers. The foam film, forming, foam or light foam, is an additive, immiscibility with certain liquids, thus preventing break down of the foam film.

Foam extinguishes oil fires by forming a blanket from the flames burning on the surface of the fuel, thus cutting off the supply of fuel to the fire. The foam film may in part be converted to steam, which has a smothering action.

Carbon Dioxide

Relatively low latent heat here. When released it expands to some extent and produces a heavier than air, colourless gas with a three dimensional action, dispersing the oxygen level and smothering the fire.

Its vapour pressure is approximately 100 bar at 20°C and is liquid at ambient temperature.

40 bar. Containers (except for bulk systems) are heavy, which limits the size of portable extinguishers.

Carbon dioxide is non-corrosive, toxic, does not deteriorate and does no damage. It is a non-conductor of electricity, clean and relatively inexpensive fire fighting medium suitable for most fires except those that liberate oxygen whilst burning.

Vaporising Fluids

Halogenated hydrocarbons BCF and BTM are accepted for use on shipboard.

BCF is known as Halon 1211 (C_2ClF_3)
BTM is known as Halon 1301 (C_2BrF_3)

Since their characteristics are somewhat similar, and the BCF is slightly preferable, only the BCF will be discussed.

BCF

Higher latent heat than carbon dioxide therefore it has a better cooling effect. It extinguishes fires by breaking the fire chain, *i.e.* it acts as a 'negative catalyst' and extinguishes a flame in milli-seconds.

Its vapour pressure is about 1.2 bar at 0°C hence containers of BCF are only slightly pressurised and therefore light and portable.

BCF is less toxic and 40 per cent more effective by weight than carbon dioxide. This means less storage space and only 5 to 5.5 per cent saturation of a compartment is required.

It has a high electrical resistance, better throw characteristic than carbon dioxide, is expensive, relatively difficult to obtain and its products of pyrolysis are toxic (*i.e.* the gases and vapours given off when BCF contacts flame or burning surfaces).

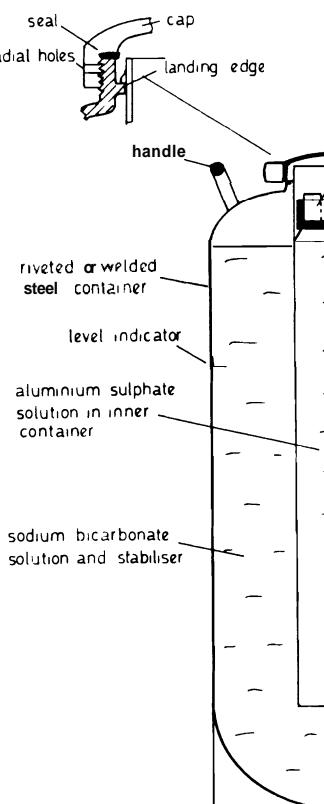
As previously stated BCF and BTM characteristics are similar, their main difference being vapour pressures, BTM vapour pressure being higher means heavier, stronger storage vessels, less portability, quicker discharge and probable first choice for fixed installations.

Halons are very expensive, the weight required is one third to one half that of carbon-dioxide required, they have to be discharged very quickly (in fixed fire installations about 20s maximum) and they are not suitable for deep seated smouldering fires. Hence for large spaces and holds carbon dioxide will remain the most popular.

FIRE EXTINGUISHERS

Nine Litre Foam Fire Extinguisher Construction

A 9 litre portable foam fire extinguisher construction is shown in Fig. 8.6. The inner container is made of lead or zinc coated steel, the outer container is of aluminium construction. Cap and nozzle are of brass. A fitting lead valve may be situated on the outer container to provide a seal. The cap has radial holes drilled through it which connect the extinguisher with the atmosphere. When unscrewed, hence these holes are blocked.



9 LITRE PORTABLE FOAM FIRE EXTINGUISHER
Fig. 8.6

Contents

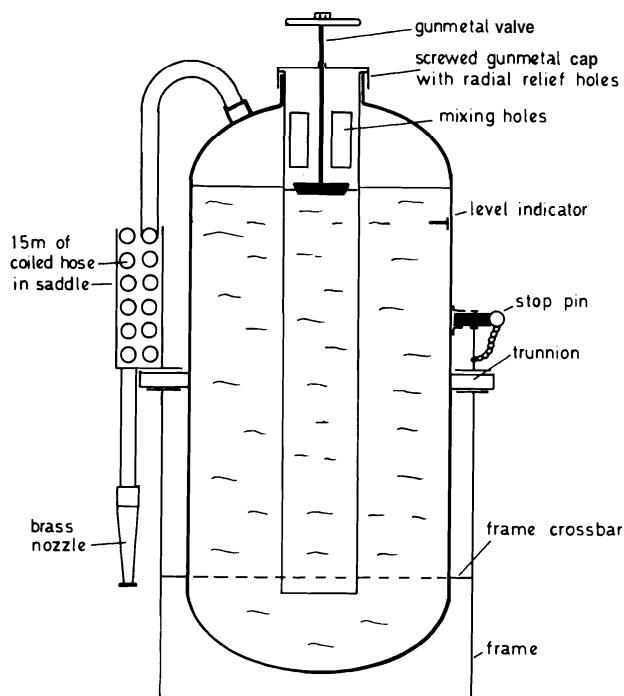
The inner container is filled with a solution of aluminium sulphate and the annular space formed by the inner and outer containers is filled up to the level indicator with a solution of sodium bicarbonate and foam stabiliser. Proportions of solutions approximately 1:3 inner and outer containers respectively, total solutions 9 litres.

Operation

By inverting the extinguisher the lead seal will fall, clearing the ports in the inner container and the two solutions can then freely mix. As the solutions mix they react, generating foam under pressure which is discharged through the nozzle.

Performance

9 litre foam fire extinguisher generates approximately 72 litres of foam. Working pressure 7 bar (0.7 MN/m^2), testing pressure



136-LITRE FOAM FIRE EXTINGUISHER

Fig. 8.7

25 bar (2.5 MN/m^2), length of jet 15 m, discharge $1\frac{1}{2}$ minutes approximately.

136-litre Foam Fire Extinguisher

This fire extinguisher is similar to the screw down valve, hose and

To operate, the hose is unremoved and the extinguisher from the crossbar. This causes the two foam.

The performance figures are working pressure 15 bar (1.5 MN/m^2), (2.5 MN/m^2), length of jet 15 minutes approximately.

Testing

In order to test the extinguisher solution should be mixed with graduated vessel and this should Testing should be carried out thorough inspection and test ev

Nine Litre Portable Mechanical Construction

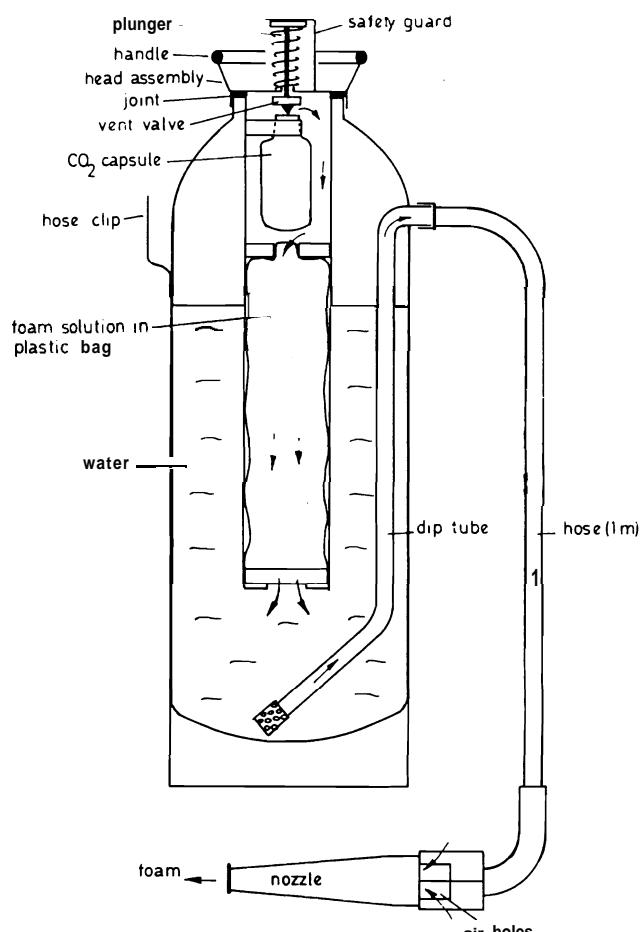
The body is made of welded brass neck ring silver soldered assembly which incorporates the brass pressing. When the head is ring it presses down on to a the charge container thus pre charge container in place.

A nozzle made of aluminium is connected to a reinforced hose coupled to a brass elbow cou stainless steel diptube.

To prevent accidental dis provided which also, when in plunger valve open which vents dribbling from the nozzle.

Contents

The body is filled with 8.25 container is made up of (1) 0.85 in a sealed plastic bag (2) a sea



PORTRABLE MECHANICAL FOAM FIRE EXTINGUISHER

Fig. 8.8

pressure of 53 bar, both of which are contained in an aluminium alloy tube.

Operation

When the plunger is depressed it pierces the thin copper seal releasing CO_2 which ruptures the plastic bag and forces out the liquid foam concentrate into the water, where rapid mixing takes

place. The foam solution is then forced through the hose to the nozzle giving a quality fire-smothering air foam.

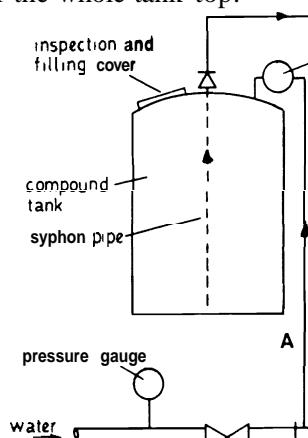
Performance

The 9 litres of solution produce a foam, length of jet approximating to about 50 seconds and the body.

This type of extinguisher can be used if the quantity needed is to fill body with water, then add new charge container and replace.

FOAM SPREADING SYSTEM

When fitted, permanently piped or operated external to boiler or engine, to spread foam to boiler and/or engine, sufficient capacity to give a dense foam over the whole tank top.

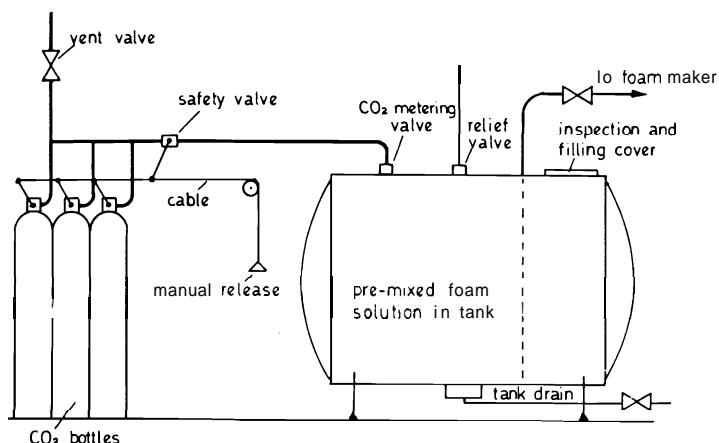


MECHANICAL FOAM SPREADING SYSTEM
Fig. 8.9

Water at a pressure of at least 6 bar (0.6 MN/m^2), supplied from the ship's mains, passes through the water control valve into the venturi fitting. Two small bore pipes are connected to the venturi fitting, pipe A is the high pressure pipe led through a water meter to the top of the foam compound tank, pipe B is the low pressure pipe which permits a controlled quantity of foam compound to be entrained into the venturi fitting. The protein foam compound and water pass along the main delivery pipe to the foam makers situated in the boiler or engine room, as the mixture passes through the foam maker air is entrained which then produces a stable foam which is delivered to the foam spreaders. A diagrammatic representation of a foam maker is included with Fig. 8.9.

Pre-mixed Foam

This type of mechanical foam installation is self contained, i.e. does not require motive power from the ship's pumps. To put the system in operation it is only necessary to pierce the CO_2 bottle seals by means of the operating gear provided. The CO_2 is then delivered at a pressure of approximately 42 bar (4.2 MN/m^2) to the metering valve. As the CO_2 passes through the orifice plate it falls in pressure to 8 bar (0.8 MN/m^2) or less. The solution in the storage tank is driven out via the delivery pipe to the foam makers situated in the boiler or engine room space, wherein, air enters the system and foam is produced for distribution to the foam spreaders.



PRE-MIXED FOAM INSTALLATION
Fin. 8.10

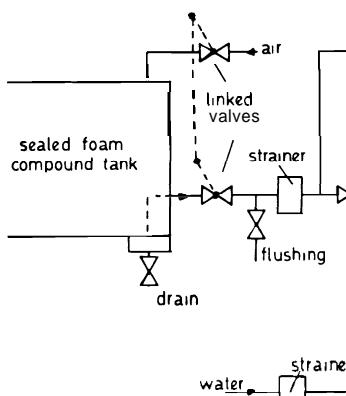
FIRE AN

For tanker installations the pump room, the engine or boiler system to which hoses can be making nozzles attached (see Fig.

Foam Compound Injection System

Fig. 8.11 shows diagrammatic system often found on tankers. Tank and pumps may be situated

Foam compound is drawn from the compound pump, air enters the system via a valve (this being linked to the pump) simultaneously and delivery is made through the injector unit. The injector unit maintains the correct compound ratio for a wide range of foam spreaders etc. A fire pump delivers sufficient pressure to the deck foam guns so that foam can reach the spreaders for machinery spaces.



FOAM COMPOUND
Fig. 8.11

To bring the system into operation it is only necessary to open the linked **air/foam** compound valves and start the pumps. After use the system must be thoroughly flushed through and recharged.

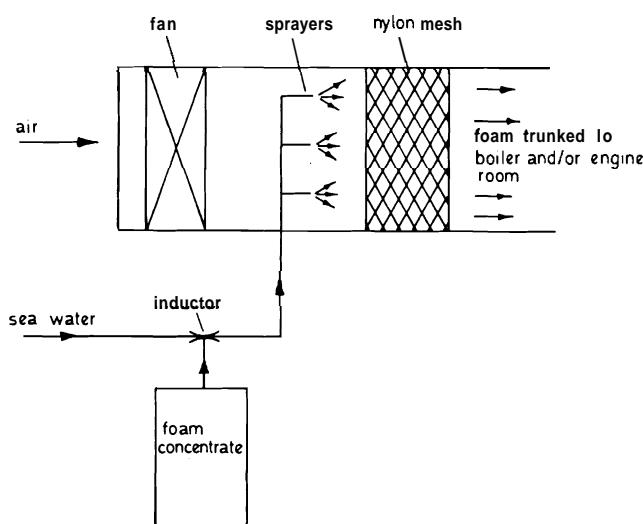
In chemical foam installations the principal disadvantages is the deterioration of the chemicals and chemical solutions, hence regular checking is necessary to ensure the system is at all times capable of effective operation. However, with the chemical foam system good quality uniform foam is capable of being produced.

With mechanical foam systems, storage and deterioration of the foam compound presents no difficulty, which is one of the reasons why this particular type of system is generally preferable.

High Expansion Foam System

This recently introduced foam system has been recognised by the **DTP** as an alternative fire extinguishing medium for boiler and engine room compartments.

The generators are large scale bubble blowers which are connected by large section trunking to the compartments (Fig. 8.12).



HIGH EXPANSION FOAM SYSTEM
Fig. 8.12

A $1\frac{1}{2}$ m long, 1 m square generator produces $1\frac{1}{2}$ m³/min of foam which would cover a **10 m** square room in about 15 minutes. One litre of concentrate combines with 30 litres of water (taken from the sea) to give **30,000** litres of foam.

Advantages:

- (1) Economic;
- (2) Can be rapidly applied to a fire with existing ventilation system;
- (3) It can penetrate through the foam with little ill effect.

Disadvantages:

- (1) Persistent, could take up to 24 hours to clear from an enclosed compartment;
- (2) Large quantities of foam may be trunked to bottom of compartment, creating currents carrying it away.

FIRE EXTINGUISHING

CO₂ Portable Fire Extinguisher Construction

A **4.5** portable **CO₂** fire extinguisher consists of a cylindrical body made of solid drawn steel. The pressure is **227 bar** (**22.7 MN/m²**) and it is coated with zinc, the external surface being polished.

A solid brass pressing forms the neck of the extinguisher. This is screwed into the neck of the cylinder and incorporates a lever-operated valve. The valve has a disc and a discharge horn made of a material that can be swivelled into the discharge position.

Contents

The body is charged with **4.5 kg CO₂** at **53 bar** (**5.3 MN/m²**) approximately.

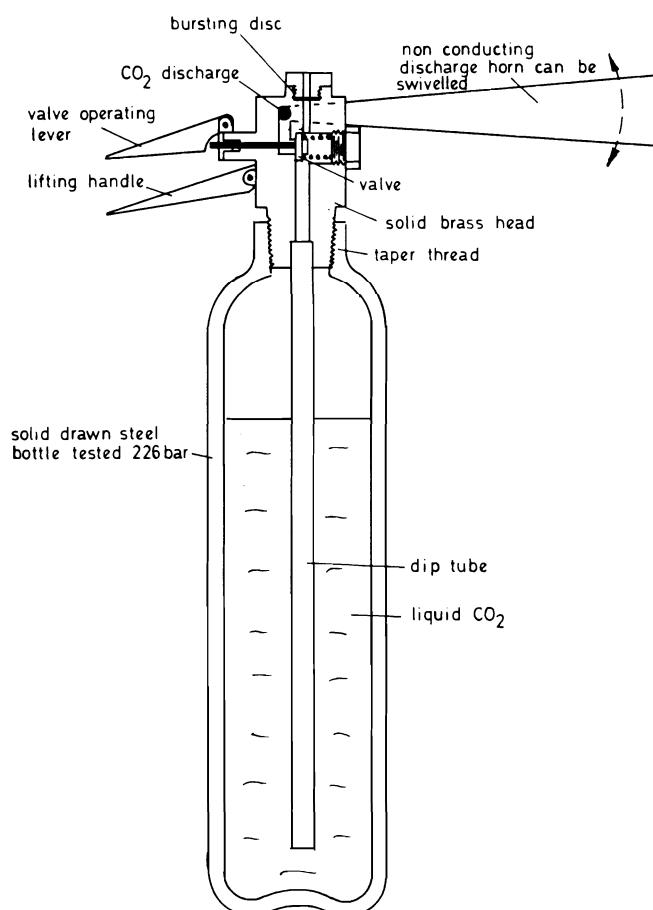
Operation

A safety pin (not shown in sketch) is removed and the valve operating lever is pulled. The gas in the cylinder would pass into the discharge tube and the **CO₂** would pass into the discharge tube.

Performance

Range about 3 to 4 m in still air, duration of discharge about 20 s, about 2.5 m³ of gas is produced.

Note: CO₂ extinguishes a fire by cooling and smothering, the gas has the advantage that it can get into inaccessible places. CO₂ extinguisher contents, can be checked by regular weighing, this should be done about every four months.



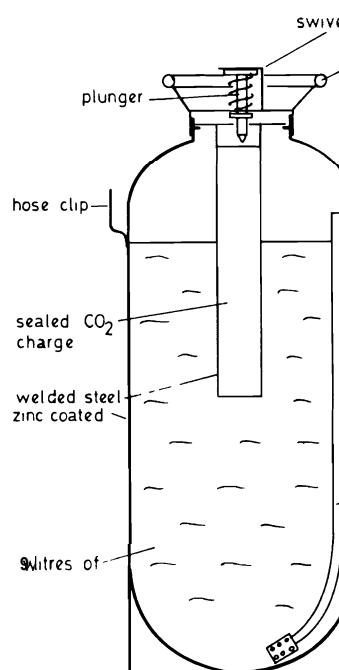
CO₂ FIRE EXTINGUISHER
Fig. 8.13

CO₂ and Water Portable Fire Extinguisher Construction (Fig. 8.14)

The body of the extinguisher is made of a solid drawn steel cylinder with the external surface painted black. A brass double purpose nozzle is soldered to the top of the cylinder. A swivel guard, which incorporates a pressure gauge, is screwed into it and held in position by a hose clip. Small radial vent holes are drilled in the side of the cylinder to serve to relieve internal pressure. The nozzle is unscrewed in the event of the cylinder bursting.

A brass double purpose nozzle is attached to the top of the cylinder. The reinforced rubber hose and nozzle can be used to give water jet or spray as desired.

When the swivel guard is in position, the plunger is held in place by the loaded piercer is slightly depressed so that the extinguisher is vented when not in use due to change in atmospheric conditions.



CO₂ AND WATER PORTABLE FIRE EXTINGUISHER
Fig. 8.14

Contents

The body contains 9 litres of fresh water, usually a wetting agent is added to the water which enables the water to spread more readily. The inner container is welded steel, zinc coated, and is charged with 74 mg of CO_2 at a pressure of approximately 36 bar (3.6 MN/m²).

Operation

The hose is first uncoiled from the body and the swivel guard is swung to uncover the plunger. The plunger is then depressed, this releases the CO_2 which then drives the water out of the extinguisher via the dip tube and hose.

Performance

Length of jet 10.6 m approximately, spray 6.06 m with about 36 m² of cover. Duration of discharge approximately 60 seconds. Body tested hydraulically to 25 bar (2.5 MN/m²).

Dry Powder Portable Fire Extinguisher

Construction (Fig. 8.15)

Body is of riveted or welded steel with a brass neck ring. The neck ring incorporates the CO_2 injection tube. Screwed over the neck ring is the head assembly which is fitted with a spring-loaded plunger and has screwed into it, a replaceable CO_2 bottle.

Connected to the outlet end of the discharge tube is a reinforced hose which leads to a brass nozzle that is fitted with a lever-operated control valve.

Contents

The body of the extinguisher contains approximately 4.5 kg of dry powder, this powder charge is principally sodium bicarbonate with some magnesium stearate added to prevent the powder from caking. The CO_2 bottle contains about 60 mg of CO_2 .

Operation

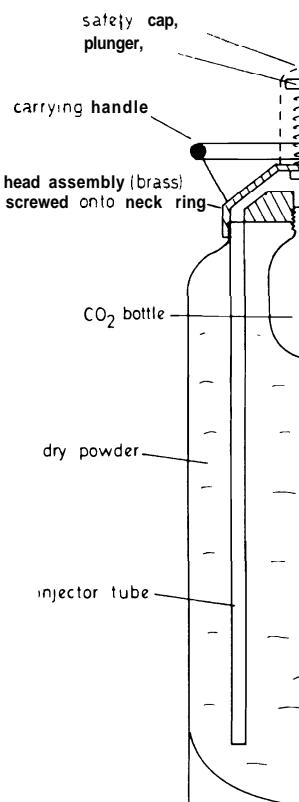
The extinguisher is removed from its supporting bracket and the safety cap is removed. When the plunger is depressed it pierces the CO_2 bottle seal, CO_2 then blows out the powder charge.

Performance

Range about 3 to 4 m, duration of discharge about 15 s. Body is tested to 35 bar (3.5 MN/m²).



FIRE A



DRY POWDER FI

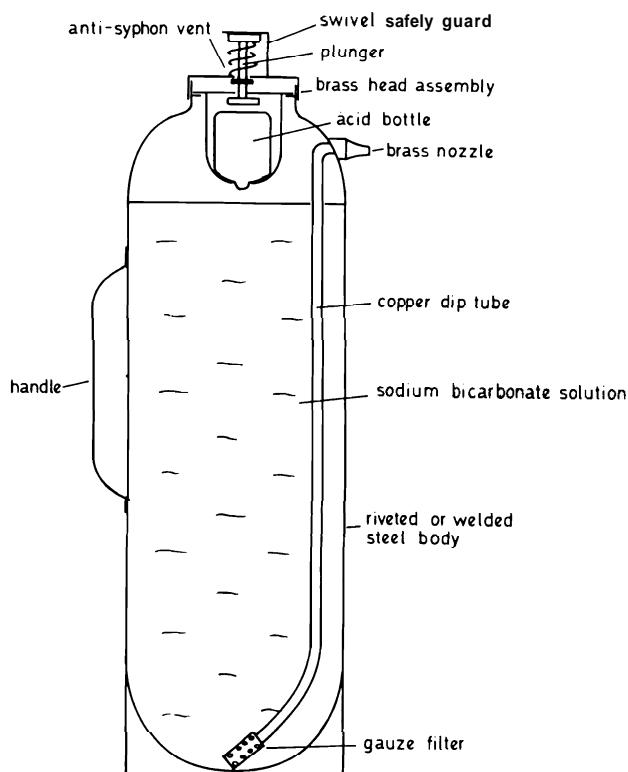
Dry powder acts to smother the fire by forming a blanket. Owing to the great volume of powder in the cloud the operator can approach the fire without danger.

The sodium bicarbonate powder reacts with the water in the fire, produce CO_2 which should be directed on to the base of the fire.

Soda-acid Portable Fire Extinguisher

Construction (Fig. 8.16)

Riveted mild steel, lead covered body is used for the body of the extinguisher. The body is riveted to the top dome of



SODA-ACID PORTABLE FIRE EXTINGUISHER
Fig. 8.16

head assembly, which incorporates plunger and **acid bottle carrying cage**, is screwed into it. The head assembly joint is either acid resisting rubber or greased leather. The nozzle is made of brass and the delivery tube with loose **gauze filter**, generally copper.

To ensure that the solution does not leak out of the nozzle due to increase of air pressure in the enclosed space above the solution (due to increase of temperature), a non-return vent valve is usually incorporated in the head assembly.

Contents

A 9 litre sodium bicarbonate solution fills the body to the limit of the level indicator and the glass bottle in the carrying cage contains sulphuric acid.

Operation

When the plunger is depressed the acid is released. The sulphuric acid reacts with the surface of the sodium bicarbonate to produce carbon dioxide. The carbon dioxide solution is then driven out of the tube and nozzle.

Performance

Length of jet 9 m approximating to 3 bar, duration of discharge hydraulically to a pressure of approximately 3 bar.

Soda-acid fire extinguishers are used for spaces for fighting oil fires as the solution is water.

CO₂ FLOODING

This system (Fig. 8.17) of smoke flooding is frequently used for hull rooms. It may be found as additional fire rooms.

For the detection of smoke, smoke detectors are led from the various hold compartments to a cabinet on the bridge. Air is drawn through pipes to the cabinet by suction through a diverting valve into the system.

When a fire breaks out in a compartment, the diverting valve into the system is closed by personnel of the outbreak. Simultaneously the smoke detector in the cabinet sets off an alarm. The bridge is unoccupied (e.g. in port) and the system still obtains.

With the cabinet is a dark chamber which terminates in labelled chimneys. These strongly indicate any smoke issuing from a compartment which is affected. Below the dark chamber is a small compartment fitted with a glass door. Inside this compartment, 13 metal rods which are the ends of the smoke detector wires protrude into the metal chimney.

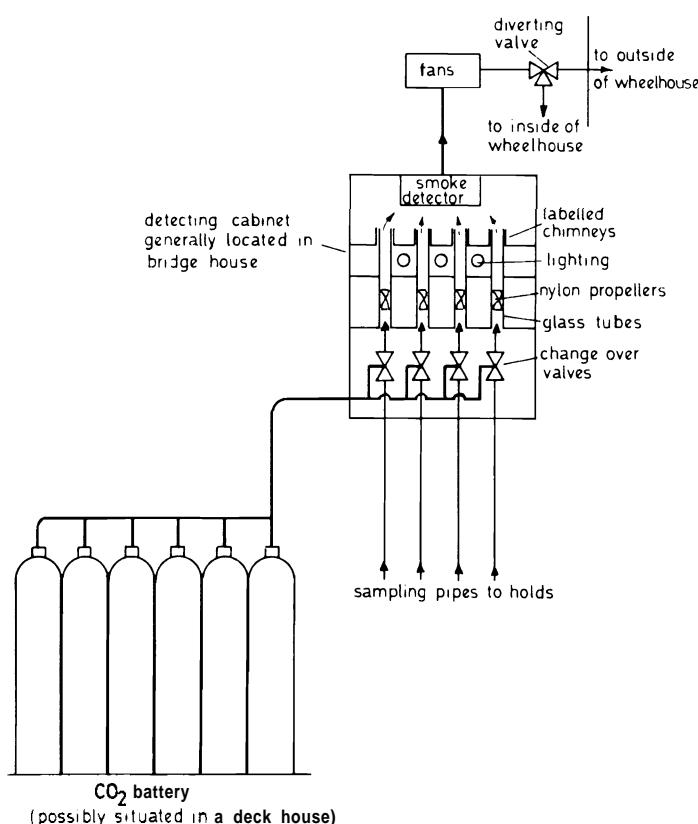
CO₂ FLOODING SYSTEM FOR HOLDS

Fig. 8.17

Small nylon propellers are visible inside the glass tubes in the lighted portion of the cabinet and when the fans are in operation these propellers will be seen to be continuously whirling if the sampling tube is not blocked.

Change over valves are generally situated inside the lower portion of the cabinet, one for each of the sampling pipes. To flood an affected compartment with CO₂ gas, the operator would first operate the appropriate change over valve and secondly release the requisite number of CO₂ cylinders for the compartment. CO₂ gas would then pass through the sampling pipe to the space in which the fire exists.

When a smoke detection system is to be used for the hold

compartments of a refrigerated hold will be blanked off (this can be done on days after loading cargo) and re-entered when the hold is open and defrosted.

Note:

When an outbreak of fire in a hold or refrigerated hold may be of small proportion and can be extinguished by means other than the fixed fire-fighting equipment provided. In this event it is necessary for personnel to enter the compartment to extinguish the fire. However, after inspection, flooding of the compartment is necessary. Before the compartment is entered, the flooding should first be operated warning the personnel that the compartment is about to be flooded.

After the fire has been extinguished, the compartment should be well ventilated before entry for cleaning purposes. CO₂ is heavier than air and does not support combustion.

CO₂ Total Flooding System for Machinery Spaces

For machinery spaces containing machinery or auxiliary machinery whose total capacity is less than 1000 kW, the fixed fire-fighting installation system is the CO₂ total flooding system. This system saturates the compartment, flooding the compartment with CO₂ until the compartment is discharged into the atmosphere.

CO₂ flooding is often used for machinery spaces even if the machinery uses compressed air.

Operation (Fig. 8.18)

First ensure that the compartment is sealed off. This necessitates closing all doors, stopping ventilation fans. Pumping down the collapsible bridge valves closed. Sealing off can be done by remote control or generally using a compressed air system.

The door of the steel control station would then be opened, the door having a dual purpose. One is to provide access to the engine room spaces, the other is to stop the ventilation fans. The CO₂ direct control lever would be pulled and this would be followed by the lever being released.

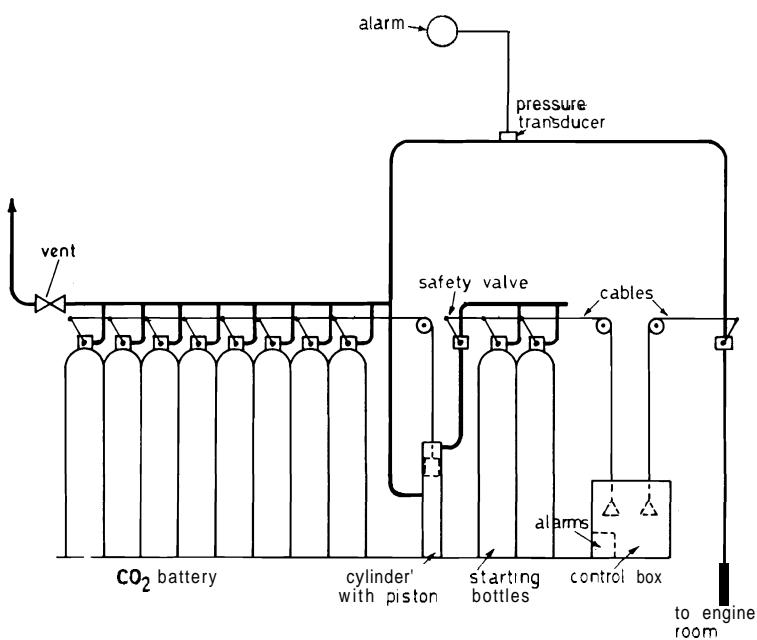
CO₂ TOTAL FLOODING SYSTEM

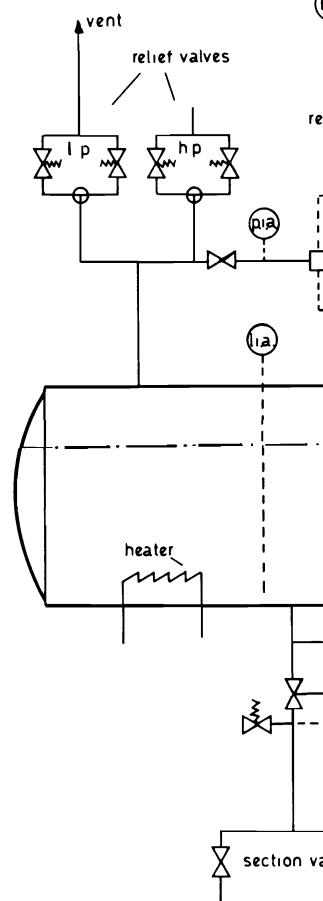
Fig. 8.18

Maintenance and Testing

Ensure that all moving parts are kept clean, free and well lubricated. Wires must be checked for tightness, toggles and pulleys must be greased. With the use of compressed air the CO₂ distribution pipes could be blown through periodically. CO₂ bottles must be weighed regularly to check contents (an ultrasonic or radioactive isotope unit detector could be used to check liquid level).

Note:

The CO₂ storage bottles have seals which also act as bursting discs, should there be a CO₂ leakage from one or more of the starting bottles this cannot result in CO₂ discharge into the engine room from the battery because of the cable-operated safety valve. When leakage occurs either in the starting section or main battery a pressure switch in the lines will cause alarms to be sounded, vents to atmosphere can then be opened.



BULK CARBON I

Fig.

Bulk Carbon Dioxide System

This system was designed to protect machinery and hold spaces which may contain carbon dioxide bottles.

It consists of a large, well insulated tank (which may have two containers) working at a pressure of about 21 bar.

order to maintain this low temperature, duplicated refrigeration units automatically controlled by the pressure of the carbon dioxide are used. One refrigeration unit would be in operation and in the event of failure, the other would cut in automatically and warning would be given (see Fig. 8.19).

Since it is essential that pressure in the container be maintained for fire extinguishing within a set range a heater cuts in if required to increase the pressure of the carbon dioxide.

Two sets of relief valves are fitted, lp valves are set at around 24.5 bar, hp valves at around 27 bar. It is a requirement that the hp valves vent into the compartment in which the container is situated — this venting would occur in the event of fire in the compartment where the container is situated.

Alarms

These are provided for:

1. Loss of 5% of contents (low level).
2. Increase up to 98% of free volume (high level).
3. Leakage past main discharge valve.
4. Opening of section valve.

Balloons fitted over open ends of waste pipes give indication of relief valve leakage.

High pressure. Two level indicators are provided, one remote the other local.

Advantages

Lower initial cost, reduced filling cost and filling is simplified. About a 50% saving in weight compared to a multi-cylinder system.

Disadvantages

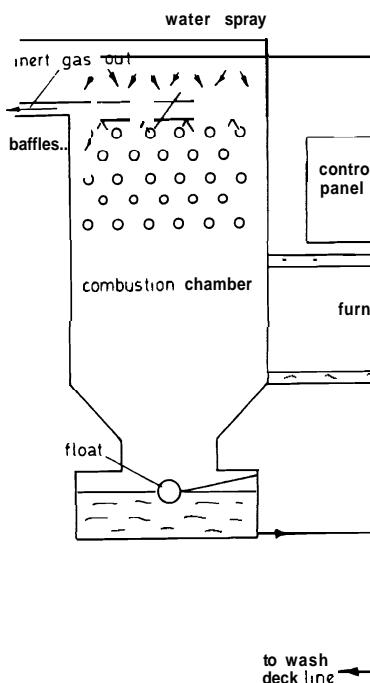
Relatively complex system, this reduces reliability. A power supply is required.

Operation

The appropriate section valve is opened (alarm sounds) and the main discharge valve is opened. The main discharge valve is usually fitted with an actuator for remote control, carbon dioxide is then delivered for a specified period (which depends upon the size of the compartment) and the main valve is closed.

Inert Gas Generator (Fig. 8.20)

This was originally developed systems. Since, if a fire occurred fire was extinguished through us further outbreak of fire occu dangerous.



INERT GAS C
Fig.

In a compartment wherein the minimum percentage of oxygen will allow a fire to burn, an inert gas compartment which will allow a fire to burn with different materials be

approximately. Hence if the oxygen content of the compartment can be reduced below 12 per cent, insufficient would be present to allow combustion to continue. This reduction in oxygen content can be achieved by employing a generator which will supply inert gas which is heavier than air, so displacing the atmosphere in the compartment.

The generator consists of a horizontally arranged brick lined furnace cylindrically shaped and surrounded by a water jacket. This is connected to a vertical combustion chamber in which water spray units and Lessing rings (cylinders of galvanised metal arranged to baffle the gas flow) are fitted. A water cooled diesel engine, usually fitted alongside the generator, drives a fuel pump, a constant volume air blower and an electric generator. The electric generator supplies current to an electric motor which in turn drives the cooling water pump, motor and pump are usually situated at the forward end of the shaft tunnel. By fitting the cooling water pump in the shaft tunnel and having it connected to the wash deck line, this pump can also be used as an emergency fire pump. Cooling water for the gas generator can also be supplied by ballast and general service pumps in the engine room, the amount of water required is approximately 545 litres per hour for every 27.7 m³ of inert gas produced.

The oil fuel burner is initially lighted by means of high tension electrodes, the electrical supply being through a small transformer. A constant pressure regulator is fitted to the oil supply line to the burner along with a control valve.

A control panel for the gas generator incorporates a CO₂ recorder, water and oil fuel alarms and pressure gauges. In the gas piping system leading from the combustion chamber, condensate traps and drains are fitted.

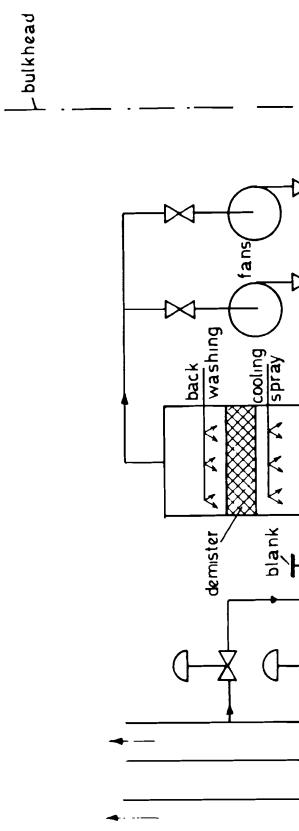
The following is an approximate analysis of the gas generated.

Oxygen	0—4 per cent
Carbon monoxide	Nil
Carbon dioxide	14—15 per cent
Nitrogen	85 per cent

Remainder, unburnt hydrocarbons and oxides of nitrogen.

Inert Gas Installation for Tankers

Fig. 8.21 shows diagrammatically a system of inert gas supply for the cargo tanks of an oil tanker. Gas from boiler uptakes passes through two pneumatically operated, remote controlled, high temperature valves. It then passes through a scrubber into



INERT GAS
Fig

which sea water is sprayed for cooling the gases to about 3°C above water temperature and scrubbing out soot particles and most of the sulphur oxides.

The gas then passes through a plastic demister which can be cleaned by back flushing.

After the scrubbing the gas analysis would be about **13%** carbon dioxide, **4%** oxygen, **0.3%** sulphur dioxide, remainder nitrogen and water vapour.

Two centrifugal blowers are provided, only one would normally be operated the other being a stand-by unit.

The supply of cleaned dry inert gas at a pressure of **1.2 to 6 kN/m²** gauge pressure is regulated by the automatically controlled bypass valve which is linked to the main supply valve. When the main valve starts to close the bypass begins to open and vice-versa.

Safety features control and alarms:

1. High temperature gas valves: **open/shut** indication on control room panel, close automatically when soot blowing of the boiler is put into operation.
2. If inert gas temperature gets too high, automatically delivery valves are closed and fans stopped.
3. Low water flow to seals and scrubbers.
4. High gas temperature.
5. Scrubbing tower overflow.
6. High oxygen content in the gas.

The system is suited to boiler installations, gas from diesel engines contains large quantities of excess air. An inert gas generator may be installed for gas delivery to the system in the event of no gas being available from the boilers.

Advantages of the system are:

1. No explosive mixtures can form in the tanks.
2. Reduces corrosion.
3. Voyage cleaning of tanks is unnecessary.
4. Reduces pumping time because of the positive pressure in the tanks at all times.

WATER SPRAY SYSTEMS

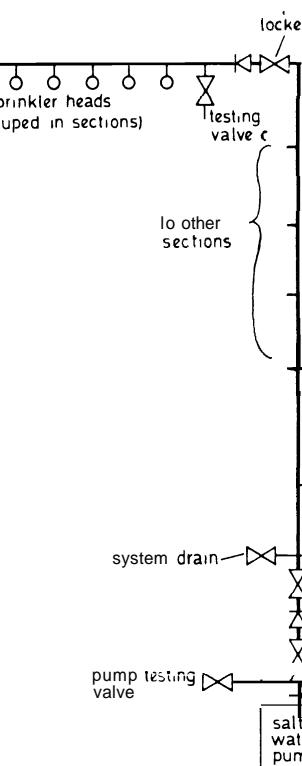
Automatic Sprinkler System

The sprinkler system is an automatic fire detecting, alarm and extinguishing system that is constantly 'on guard' to deal quickly

and effectively with any outbreak in accommodation or other spaces.

Briefly the system is composed of a network of pipes leading to various compartments the water pipes being closed until the system comes into operation when thermostatic valves open.

Fig. 8.22 is a diagrammatic sketch of a system. A pressure tank is half filled with water and connected to a water supply line. Compressed air from a driven air compressor raises the water level to a predetermined level, this should be sufficient to reach the highest sprinkler head in the system (about 10 MN/m²).



AUTOMATIC SPRINKLER SYSTEM
Fig. 8.22

Sprinkler heads are grouped into sections with not more than 150 heads per section and each section has an alarm system. Each sprinkler head is made up of a steel cage fitted with a water deflector. A quartzoid bulb, which contains a highly expandable liquid, is retained by the cage. The upper end of the bulb presses against a valve assembly which incorporates a soft metal seal.

When the quartzoid bulbs are manufactured, a small gas space is left inside the bulb so that if the bulb is subjected to heat, the liquid expands and the gas space diminishes. This will generate pressure inside the bulb and the bulb will shatter once a predetermined temperature (and hence pressure) is reached. Generally the operating temperature range permitted for these bulbs is 68°C to 93°C but the upper limit of temperature can be increased, this would depend upon the position where the sprinkler head or heads is to be sited. Quartzoid bulbs are manufactured in different colours, the colour indicates the temperature rating for the bulb.

e.g.	Rating	Colour
	68°C	Red
	80°C	Yellow
	93°C	Green

Once the bulb is shattered the valve assembly falls permitting water to be discharged from the head, which strikes the deflector plate and sprays over a considerable area.

When a head comes into operation the non-return alarm valve for the section opens and water flows to the sprinkler head. This non-return valve also uncovers the small bore alarm pipe lead and water passes through this small bore alarm pipe to a rubber diaphragm. The water pressure acts upon the diaphragm and this operates a switch which causes a break in the continuously live circuit. Alarms, both visible and audible, fitted in engine room, bridge and crew space are then automatically operated.

Stop valves, A and B (Fig. 8.22), are locked open and if either of these valves are inadvertently closed a switch will be operated that brings the alarms into operation. The alarm system can be tested by opening valve C which allows a delivery of water similar to that of one sprinkler head to flow to drain.

An electrically operated pump with a direct suction to the sea comes into operation when the fresh water charge in the pressure tank has been used up. This is arranged to operate automatically through the pressure relay.

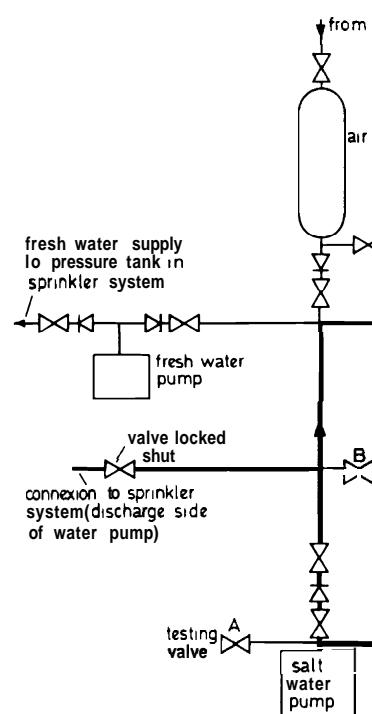
A hose connection is also provided so that water can be supplied to the system from shore when the vessel is in dry dock.

High Pressure Water Spray System

This can be a completely self-contained system interconnected with the sprinkler system for extinguishing in accommodation spaces.

The system incorporates an air compressor, a salt water pump all connected to a common header. Each section having its own shut-off valve which unlike the sprinkler system is not controlled by valves but are open (Fig. 8.23).

With all section valves closed the system remains under pressure from the compressed air. When a section valve is opened water will be delivered from the open sprayer heads in that section. The system automatically starts the salt water pump and continues to deliver water to the section until the section valve is closed.



HIGH PRESSURE WATER SPRAY SYSTEM
Fig.

After use the system should be flushed out and recharged with clean fresh water.

The air vessel is incorporated into the system to prevent the pump cutting in if there is a slight leakage of water from the system.

To **test**: this should be carried out at weekly intervals, open A, close B, open C; the pump should automatically start and discharge from A. This avoids having to refill the system with fresh water.

MERCHANT SHIPPING (FIRE APPLIANCES) RULES

It is strongly recommended that students should obtain a copy of these rules and study them before attempting the DTp examinations. The following is an abbreviated extract.

Machinery Spaces Containing Oil-Fired Boilers or Oil-Burning Equipment

In every ship of Class I (*i.e.* a passenger ship engaged on voyages any of which are long international voyages) there shall be provided:

1. A fixed foam fire extinguishing installation operated from outside of the space and capable of giving a depth of foam of at least 150 mm in not more than five minutes over the largest single area over which oil fuel is liable to spread.

Such installations shall include mobile sprayers ready for immediate use in the firing area of the boiler and in the vicinity of the oil fuel unit. A pressure water spray system or fire smothering gas installation may be used as an alternative.

2. A 136-litre foam fire extinguisher (or 45 kg CO₂) capable of delivering foam to any part of the compartment.
3. Two portable fire extinguishers suitable for extinguishing oil fires.
4. A receptacle containing at least 0.3 m³ of sand and a scoop.
5. Two fire hydrants, one port, one starboard, with hoses and nozzles (spray nozzles must also be provided).

Machinery Spaces Containing Internal Combustion Machinery

In every ship of Class I there should be provided:

1. A fixed foam fire extinguishing, water spray or smothering gas installation operated from outside of the machinery space if the main propulsion machinery is internal combustion or if the auxiliary diesel power is 746 kW or above.

2. One foam fire extinguisher or CO₂ fire extinguisher of at least 45 kg.
3. One portable fire extinguisher for each 746 kW (or part thereof) of machinery, with two or more extinguishers or more than six.
4. Two fire hydrants, one port and one starboard, with hoses and nozzles (spray nozzles must also be provided).

Machinery Spaces Containing Pressure Lubricated Gearing

1. Foam fire extinguishers each of a capacity of 45 kg and CO₂ fire extinguishers each of a capacity of 45 kg, in number to enable foam or CO₂ to be applied to the pressure lubrication system enclosing pressure lubricated gears and associated gearing. These would be provided for fighting installation similar to that for which machinery was provided.
2. One portable fire extinguisher for each 746 kW (or part thereof) of machinery, with two or more extinguishers or more than six.
3. Two fire hydrants, one port and one starboard, with hoses and nozzles (spray nozzles must also be provided).

Portable Fire Extinguishers

1. Those discharging fluid shall have a capacity of not less than 13.5 litres and not less than 4.6 kg.
2. CO₂ extinguishers shall have a capacity of not less than 4.6 kg.
3. Dry powder extinguishers shall have a capacity of not less than 4.6 kg.

International Shore Connection

An international shore connection shall be provided for water to be supplied from another ship to the ship's fire main, and fixed provision shall be made for a connection to be used on the port side of the ship.

Cargo Spaces and Store Rooms

1. Every ship of Class I shall have a fixed fire extinguishing system whereby at least two powerful extinguishers shall be simultaneously directed into any compartment containing cargo or stores.
2. Every ship of Class I of 1000 gross tons and upwards with appliances whereby fire extinguishers shall be provided.

conveyed by a permanent piping system into any compartment appropriated for the carriage of cargo. The volume of free gas shall be at least equal to 30 per cent of the gross volume of the largest hold in the ship which is capable of being effectively closed. Provided that steam may be substituted for fire smothering gas in any ship in which there are available boilers capable of evaporating 1.3 kg of steam per hour for each 1 m³ of the gross volume of the largest hold in the ship.

Fire Pumps

1. Every ship of Class I of 4,000 tonnes or over shall be provided with at least three fire pumps operated by power, and every such ship of under 4,000 tonnes with at least two such fire pumps.
2. In every ship of Class I fitted with main or auxiliary oil-fired boilers or internal combustion propelling machinery the arrangements of sea connections, pumps and the sources of power for operating them shall be such as will ensure that a fire in any one compartment will not put all the fire pumps out of action.

Water Pipes, Hydrants and Fire hoses

Every ship of Class I shall be provided with water pipes and hydrants. The diameter of the water pipes shall be sufficient to enable an adequate supply of water to be provided for the simultaneous operation of at least two fire hoses and for the projection thereby of two powerful jets of water. The number and position of the hydrants shall be such that at least two such jets may be directed into any part of the ship by means of two fire hoses each not exceeding 18 m in length, each jet being supplied from a separate hydrant. At least one fire hose shall be provided for each hydrant.

Firemen's Outfits

Every ship of Class I shall be provided with at least two firemen's outfits each consisting of

- (a) a safety lamp
- (b) a fireman's axe
- (c) (i) a breathing apparatus; or (ii) a smoke helmet; or (iii) a smoke mask.

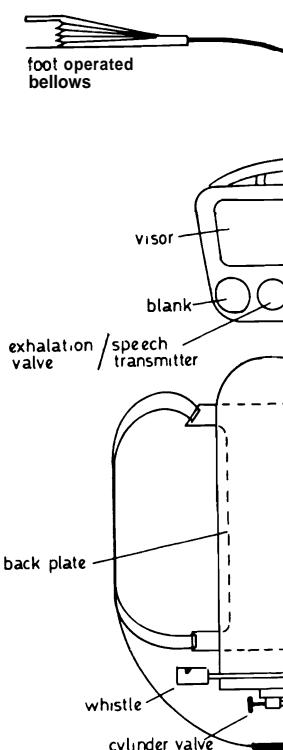
The outfits shall be kept in widely separated places.

BREATHING

Smoke Mask

This simple reliable unit consists of a face mask connected by hose to a cylinder which is attached to it and its use must be fully understood before it is used.

The main advantage with the smoke mask is that it familiarises itself with its own use. It is simple, the apparatus, no bottles have to be carried and the excessive hose length makes this



BREATHING

Fig.

contained type would be preferred. A major disadvantage is that the combination of hose and life-line could make things dangerous if sharp complex obstructions have to be negotiated, cutting or fouling of the hose and line could occur.

Self Contained

The minimum statutory capacity requirement is 1,200 litres of free air, most sets contain from 1200 to 1800 litres at a pressure of about 140 to 210 bar.

The set shown in Fig. 8.24 consists of an air cylinder mounted on a plastic back plate fitted with harness. A moulded rubber face mask incorporating a demand valve, exhalation valve/speech transmitter, head harness and visor is connected by high pressure reinforced hose from the demand valve to the air manifold. A pressure gauge and low pressure warning whistle, which gives audible warning to the wearer when 80% of the air has been used, completes the assembly.

To put it into operation the cylinder valve is opened and the wearer breathes, the demand valve supplies air according to his requirements at a reduced pressure irrespective of his work load.

Familiarity with the apparatus is essential and to facilitate this it would be useful to have on board a compressor which delivers oil free air to re-charge the bottles.

Emergency fire pump

This independent pump with its own prime mover, generally a diesel engine with own low flash point fuel supply, must be situated outside of the engine room and connected into the fire main.

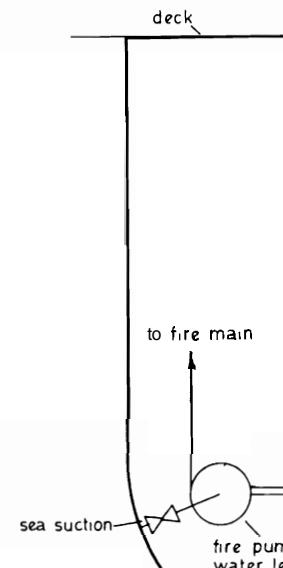
In the event of fire in the engine room and subsequent evacuation and sealing, the emergency fire pump must be started and the engine room isolating valve in the fire main closed.

Fig. 8.25 shows a completely independent emergency fire pump system. The centrifugal fire pump and hydraulic motor would be completely submersible and irrespective of the height and draught of the vessel the pump would not require a priming device as it would be below the water level. Such an arrangement may also be used as a booster/priming device for a main fire pump situated on deck.

Safety is an important and far reaching topic and sea-going engineers will be conversant with the common sense aspects of safety, questions do arise, however, that are more searching than others and require more technical information.

e.g. How does oil vapour pressure affect flammability?

FIRE AN



Fig

Oils with high vapour pressure and volatile *e.g.* crude oil and petroleum have a higher vapour pressure of the oil than the vapour given off and the greater the volatility *e.g.* How does explosive limit

Explosive limits are 1. Lower explosive limit (HEL) and they increase by volume with air, usually 1% hydrocarbons. If the mixture exceeds the HEL it cannot ignite or explode.

Explosive limits are related to the vapour pressure of the oil. If the vapour pressure is 0.05 bar, the explosive limit of the air is $0.005 \times 100\% = 0.5\%$ (below the lower explosive limit). *e.g. How does oil vapour density affect explosive limit?*

Most petroleum vapours are lighter than air and therefore if a tanker is loading cargo so that the vapours rise into the lower recesses of the machinery spaces. P.V. valves can be used to minimise the risk of explosion.

e.g. How does heating of high viscosity oil affect safety?

For good atomisation fuel viscosity should be about 150 seconds Redwood No 1 or less. With high viscosity oil it is necessary to heat the oil in order to reduce its viscosity.

Pressurised oil may be heated to a temperature above its flash point to achieve the necessary viscosity and obviously if a leakage of this hot pressurised oil occurred it could be extremely dangerous.

Fuel lines carrying this oil should not pass near to high temperature surfaces (**e.g.** exhaust manifolds) or electrical equipment. Ideally they should be jacketed, with jacket drains led to a safe place—a drain tank with level alarm.

e.g. How does the auto-ignition temperature of fuel and lubricating oil affect safety?

The auto-ignition temperature of the **vapours** of fuel and lubricating oil are much lower than those of vapours from the volatile petroleum liquids. Hence they are more likely to ignite if sprayed on to a hot surface. Remember it is the vapour which **burns**.

TEST EXA

Class 3

1. Sketch a cross section through a fire baffle suitable for use on oil fired boilers.
2. State the component parts of a bellows type breathing apparatus.
3. Sketch and describe a smoke detector used in an engine room, how is it connected?

TEST EXAMPLES 8

Class 2

1. Compare with reasons the merits and demerits of the following permanent fire extinguishing systems installed in machinery spaces:
 - (a) high pressure water spray,
 - (b) carbon dioxide smothering,
 - (c) chemical foam smothering.
2. Describe with sketches how the following portable fire extinguishers are operated:
 - (a) chemical foam,
 - (b) carbon dioxide.

Explain how they extinguish fire.
State with reasons for what type of fire each is most suited.
3. Sketch and describe a self-contained breathing apparatus. Give two advantages and two disadvantages of this equipment compared to the smoke helmet.
State the signal system used when wearing breathing apparatus.
4. Describe with line diagrams a fixed carbon dioxide fire smothering system for an engine room.
Explain the need for an action alarm stating when and how it operates.
Give a reason for gang release and explain how this is achieved.
5. If a fire broke out in the engine room, explain how:
 - (a) the fuel supply could be shut off,
 - (b) the supply of air could be shut off,
 - (c) the fire could be dealt with from outside the engine room, giving a summary of all the facilities available for this purpose.

Class 1

1. Describe, with sketches, a fire detection system. Explain:
 (a) the scrubbing process
 (b) safety devices.
2. Compare the advantages and disadvantages of the following fixed fire extinguishing systems:
 - (a) high pressure water spray
 - (b) carbon dioxide systems
 - (c) chemical foam systems
3. Differentiate between fixed and mobile fire detection systems.
Sketch and describe a fixed fire detector and explain how a gradual increase in temperature is accommodated.
4. With reference to fire or explosion, describe four of the following properties:
 - (a) combustion pressure
 - (b) explosive limits,
 - (c) flashpoint,
 - (d) density.
5. Sketch the construction and operation of the following types of fire detector:
 - (a) vapour products detector
 - (b) flame sensor (infra-red)
 - (c) heat sensor (rate of rise).

Explain why such detectors may be preferred to the others.

CHAPTER 9

PUMPS AND PUMPING SYSTEMS

A ship's engine and pump room obviously contains a number of complex pipe arrangements. Bilge, ballast, oil fuel, sanitary water, etc., involving numerous pipe leads, cross connections, valves and so on. The pumps and equipment provided on a modern ship for these various duties are of all types and sizes.

Obviously then a description under the above heading must be drastically cut down and simplified. This chapter then attempts to simply pick out what are regarded as essential units or pipe groups and present them in a form suitable for examination needs. The work may seem somewhat disjointed but it is assumed that the student can utilise his background practical experience to join the various sections together towards a comprehensive picture.

Firstly the main types of pump in regular use are considered together with any relevant points. Associated equipment is then considered, *e.g.* oily-water separators, feed water injectors, etc. Lastly some pipe arrangements and fittings are presented, concluding with an attempted concise grouping of the rather lengthy rules and regulations appertaining to pumping systems. It should be stressed that these rules do not have to be memorised and are given only to allow the student to have some idea of the minimum requirements.

TYPES OF PUMPS

Classification

1. Positive displacement pumps, in which one or more chambers are alternately filled then emptied. These include reciprocating, screw, gear and water-ring types etc. They do not require a priming device, in fact they may be used as priming devices.

In general they would be used for small to medium discharge rates, they can pump fluids of a wide range of viscosity and can

develop—especially in the case pressure differentials if required

2. Dynamic pressure pumps which a tangential acceleration include centrifugal, axial and mixed (centrifugal, axial, part centrifugal). Depend on require a positive displacement

In general they would be used at low rates, they usually are confined to generate only low to moderate

Reciprocating Pumps

There are numerous forms of reciprocating pumps, vertical, used for all duties. Motion can be through connecting rods or other forms, but still can be the direct steam drive.

The Weir Steam Pump

The steam end consists of a Ramsbottom type plain spring restriction rings, rings of cast iron clearance for the plain rings of cylinder of about 140 pm when the cylinder has steam top and bottom which is provided with the required steam and drain cocks. A lubricator is fitted with cylinder oil and graphite mechanical lubricators are usually counter is also sometimes fitted with a diameter than the bucket to allow higher steam pressures than the discharge (differential areas) and as numerous given sizes and clearances quoted bore pump, bigger pumps have clearances. A nickel steel piston bucket rod connect by screwing and are locked by a steel taper pin. The fulcrum on a front stay and during vertical movement of the rod works off a ball crosshead crosshead, the lever movement is adjustable nuts to transmit motion. The full stroke of the pump is

produces ridges in the working bores. To adjust the strokes the valve spindle is screwed up until the piston is striking the top cover and then screwed down and locked to allow the piston to approach to within say 12 mm of the end cover. The process is repeated using the bottom nut and lock nut on the threaded spindle for the cylinder bottom.

The water end is of cast iron with a gunmetal bucket working in a brass or brone liner (cast iron throughout is used for oil pumps). The bucket usually has two grooves into which are fitted special ebonite (or tufnol) rings, the lateral clearance being about $220\mu\text{m}$ and the butt gap clearance about $800\mu\text{m}$. The rings are cut and then heated in boiling water to make them flexible, the butt gap being adjusted by trying in the liner bore. When the correct butt gap is made the rings are cooled whilst sprung open to 9 mm butt gap so that the ring when fitted has the necessary compression. The double acting chamber has a twin unit valve chest at the front, each unit, one top and one bottom, having a suction and discharge valve set. The valves are spring loaded from valve guard plates, smaller old pumps usually employ flat brass plate Kinghorn type valves but modern larger pumps almost always employ group valves. Such valves are small circular valves, about five or seven in number, in a circular pattern, the valves being spring loaded from the guard plate. For heavy duty, say for example hot feed water, etc., the valves and seats are of stainless steel and are of the flat faced type. Each valve chest is usually provided with a small sentinel type relief valve on the top covers.

It is of course a requirement that a relief valve is fitted in the discharge pipe irrespective of the cover valves. The pump is also fitted with air pet cocks, drain plugs, air vessels, float control devices, suction and discharge valve chests, etc., as may be required for its duty, horizontal and vertical types are available for feed, oil fuel, ballast, bilge and service duties.

The Weir Type Valve Gear

The valve spindle driving rod is connected to a flat plain outside steam slide valve which works on, and is carefully bedded to, the flat back face of a round shuttle valve which distributes cylinder steam and exhaust. The slide valve, or auxiliary valve, has a vertical motion and the shuttle valve has an axial motion. The auxiliary valve is adjusted by liners so that with the auxiliary valve bolted up in place the shuttle valve can be *lightly* tapped across by hand. The shuttle valve works at its ends inside hollow bells, the bells being a smooth sliding fit over

the shuttle. The bells have a slot in the side through which slots a tongue piece from which can be rotated by a nut in the centre, which serves to turn the bells. A pointer outside the end cover, the two stops by moving the adjuster to vary the opening to the bypass *extra* steam supply. The inner circular web, provided with steam to pass into the cylinder for bell at the end. With the end should have an axial clearance of the bell by the adjuster nut.

The left hand pointer points upstroke while the right hand

The bells should only be used when they are turned to the open position (on the end cover) steam can be admitted at any point in the stroke. When the pointers closed by turning them to the stop positions ('S', cast on the end cover). In this position the steam will then be utilised during approximately $\frac{1}{4}$ stroke, this position must not be left open during no load.

It is essential for all reciprocating parts and rings, etc., in good order, the shuttle valve gear. Regular servicing can give efficient and reliable performance.

Centrifugal Pumps Impeller and Volute Casing

In single stage pumps a single impeller is fitted on the same shaft axially through the eye then radially and discharges around the impeller fluid in passing through the impeller vanes giving an increase of pressure (velocity) energy of the discharge. In some pumps *e.g.* turbine driven, shrouds are used. These consist of a surrounding the impeller, the pump is designed to change some of the

pressure energy. In double inlet pumps fluid enters from two sides to the impeller eye as if there were two impellers back to back giving twice the discharge at a given head. In multi-stage pumps the fluid from one impeller is discharged via suitable passages to the eye of the next impeller so that the total head developed (or discharge pressure) is the product of the head per stage and the number of stages, such a pump is often used for high pressure discharge at moderate speed (e.g. turbo-feed).

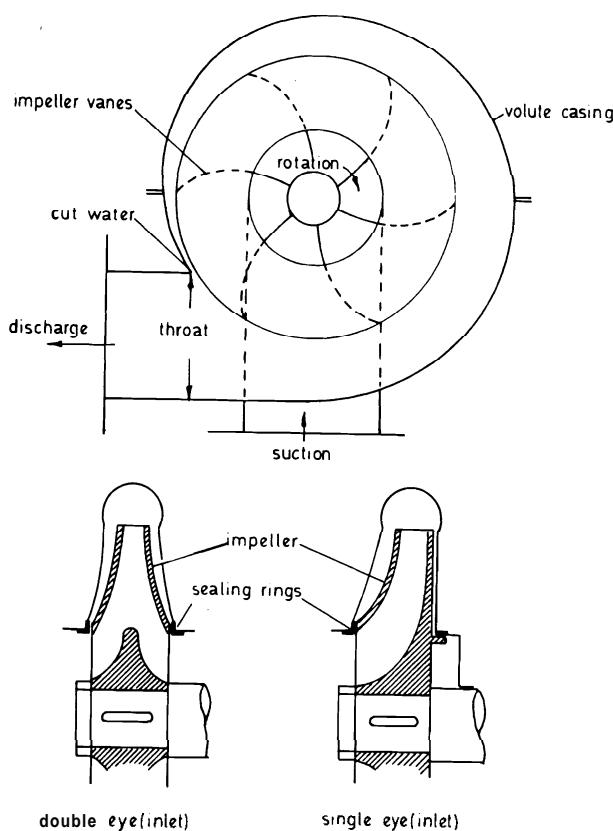


Fig. 9.1

A double inlet impeller and single inlet impeller for comparison, together with a volute casing are shown in Fig. 9.1. The impeller and volute casing design will depend on the

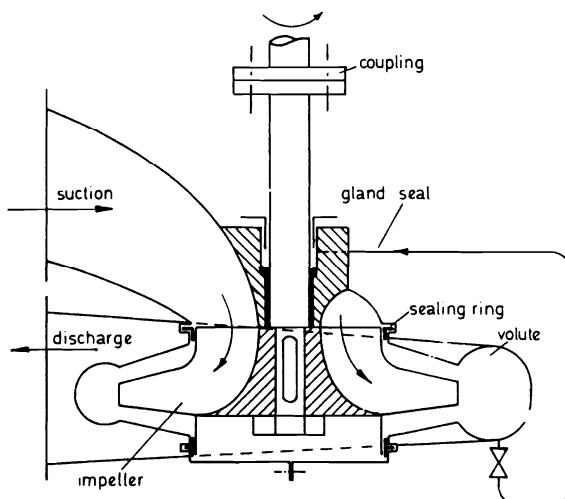
required duty, e.g. head to lift quantity, etc. A typical centrifugal output of about 30 kg of water discharge up to 5 bar running usually has the suction and discharge so impeller and spindle without breaking pipe joints. The pump centre line so that the number of impeller vanes is not ten. The volute casing is like a diaphragm around the impeller and serves to convert velocity energy to be converted into of conversion is governed mainly accommodates the gradual increase builds at discharge from the circular the velocity to be constant the sectional pipe area increases uniformly. With an impeller having six vanes volute at No. 1 vane will be 1/6th pumping 1/6th of the water quantity and so on, taking vanes in turn discharge were choked or blocked churn water so that the fitting of common fault for repair with clearance due to wear at the bearing. This allows connection between shafts drastically reducing efficiency. O-rings are often brass strips on liners; clearance adjustment is effected in smaller pumps the faces are made renewable. After any overhaul care must be taken on re-assembly to not pulling on each other at the

In the smaller designs the shaft is in a stuffing box, water cooled, using packing. Great care must be taken as the shaft is very prone to nip and score the adjusted.

For larger types, a rotary pack fixed clamp ring on the shaft, packing rings on to the shaft, and rings are free to slide along axial springs from the clamp ring to a fixed ball ring which in turn sits

plate which bolts to the pump casting. Grease lubrication is provided to the face between ring cup and fixed ball ring, worked by spring or water pressure.

Fig. 9.2 shows diagrammatically a vertically arranged single inlet centrifugal pump. This is arranged with the casing split vertically one half has suction and discharge branches so that the impeller and shaft can be removed without breaking pipe joints. The impeller has a single eye (inlet), upward facing so that air locking is eliminated under operating conditions. Pressure in the space under the impeller ensures hydraulic balance.



VERTICAL, SINGLE INLET, CENTRIFUGAL PUMP
(DRYSDALE)

Fig. 9.2

Centrifugal Pump Characteristics

Selection

This depends mainly upon duty and space available. Duty points: (1) Flow and total head requirements. This will govern the speed of rotation, impeller dimensions, number of impellers and type *e.g.* single or, double inlet (2) Range of temperature of fluid to be pumped. If suction capability is insufficient to accommodate supply conditions due for example to high inlet temperature cavitation can occur (3) Viscosity of the medium to be pumped (4) Type of medium, *e.g.* corrosive or non-corrosive,

this would affect the choice of material. For salt water (as for fresh water the difference is often negligible).

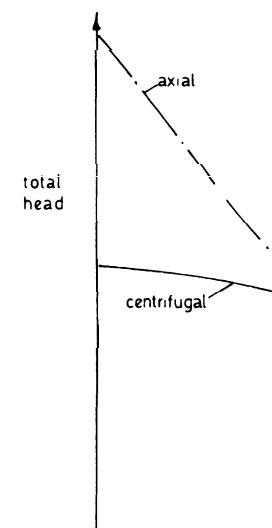
Materials for salt water could be the same as those used for fresh water), impeller—aluminium, brass, bronze, cast steel, casing bearing ring seals—brass, bronze, etc. With vertically arranged pumps, the arrangement of piping usually means that no hydraulic balance is required and access is simple and no pipe joints are required.

A typical engine room pump is a vertical pump with an overhung impeller (*i.e.* suction and discharge on the same side) and the impeller is supported, directly or indirectly, by a frame mounted. From which it follows that, without splitting the casing, bearings can be replaced by an electric motor.

Losses

Power supplied to the pump is converted into various losses, these are made up of:

- Friction loss in bearings and shaft, and in the casing. Some impellers are designed to reduce friction loss.



2. Head loss in pump due to shock at entry and exit to impeller vanes and eddies formed by vane edges.

3. Leakage loss in thrust balance devices, gland sealing, clearances between cut water and casing and bearing seals.

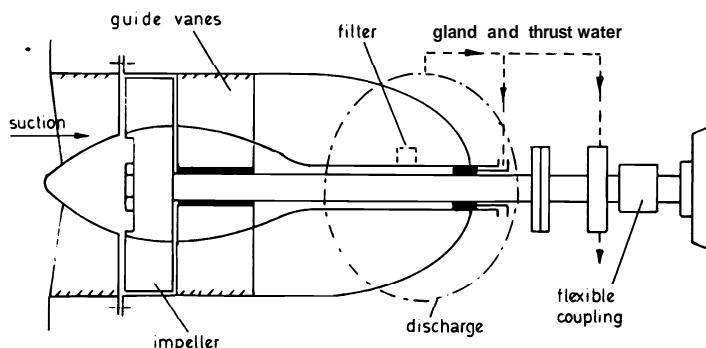
A characteristic curve for a centrifugal pump is obtained by operating the pump at rated speed with the suction open and the discharge valve shut. The discharge valve is then opened in stages to obtain different discharge rates and total heads (can be measured by discharge pressure gauge, suction head constant) corresponding to them. A typical curve is shown in Fig. 9.3. reciprocating and axial pump curves given for comparison.

Failure to deliver caused by loss of suction may be due to, insufficient supply head, air leakage suction pipe (*e.g.* valve open on empty bilge, etc), loss of priming facility or leaking shaft gland. Capacity reduction could be the result of a damaged sealing ring, leaking gland, obstruction (valve partly closed), incorrect rotational speed. Excessive vibration may be caused by either (1) loose coupling (2) loose impeller (3) bearing damaged (4) impeller imbalance.

Axial Flow Pump

When large capacity, wide variation of low lift head at constant speed, conditions have to be met the horizontal or vertically arranged axial pump is the most suitable.

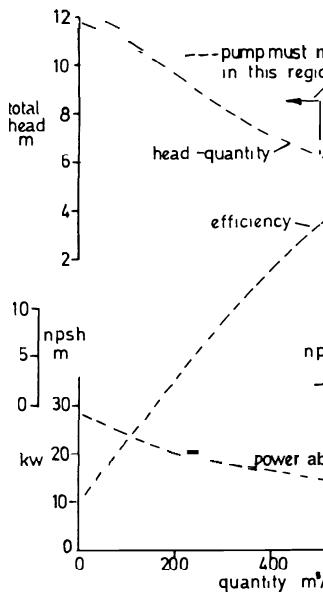
The pump is efficient, simple in design and is available in a wide range of capacities. It can if required, be reversible in operation (*a friction clutch* between motor and pump would be required) and is ideally suited to scoop intake for condensers as it offers very little resistance when idling.



AXIAL FLOW PUMP
Fig. 9.4

Fig. 9.4 shows such a pump gun metal. Impeller, aluminium these guide water without tur shaft, stainless steel with solid low head, by a relatively small than a comparable centrifugal the tilting pad type is required to generated (consider a propulsio

The mechanical seal is water for the shaft. The latter is via t condenser circulating, because



Characteristic curves for an 9.5. Careful study of these curv a similar speed centrifugal pu assist the reader to answer so throttling the discharge valve, and power.

A mixed flow, i.e. part cent duty with cryogenic carriers is

It is fitted, in this case, with to reduce n.p.s.h. (net positive

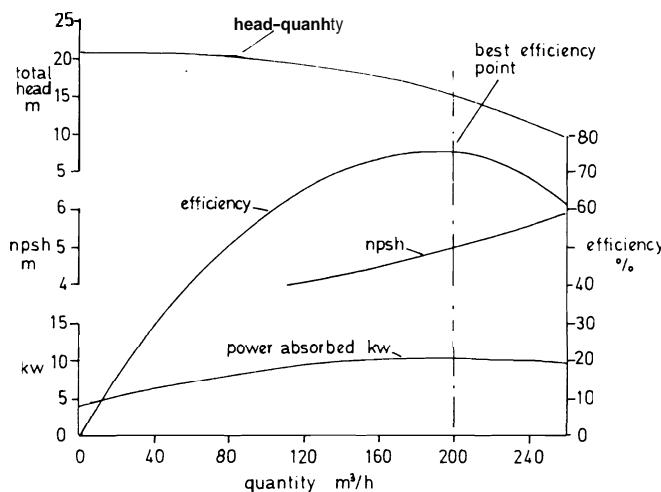


Fig. 9.6

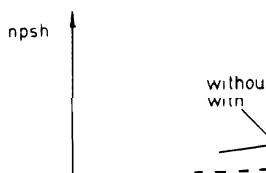
eliminate the need for a stripping pump. Only one stage is shown in the diagram, in practice two or more vertically arranged stages would be used operated by the prime mover on the deck whilst the bell mouth suction at the bottom of the tank and the pump casing act as a long discharge pipe.

Cargo pumps

Centrifugal cargo pumps used, differ according to type of cargo, e.g. product tankers (crude oil, etc) would have a separate pump room with conventional centrifugal pumps, probably vertical overhung impeller, sometimes called barrel-type cargo pump installed. This double eye inlet pump with either a straight through or 90° suction—discharge angle with pipe connections in bottom half of casing has two external bearings above the impeller, the upper one takes all the hydraulic thrust and the lower acts as a radial load bearing. This pump has certain advantages over its counterparts, namely: (1) impeller can be sited lower in the pump room thus improving suction conditions and reducing stripping time. (2) Removal of impeller without disturbing pipe joints. (3) Easier access to bearings and shaft seal without removal of rotating elements.

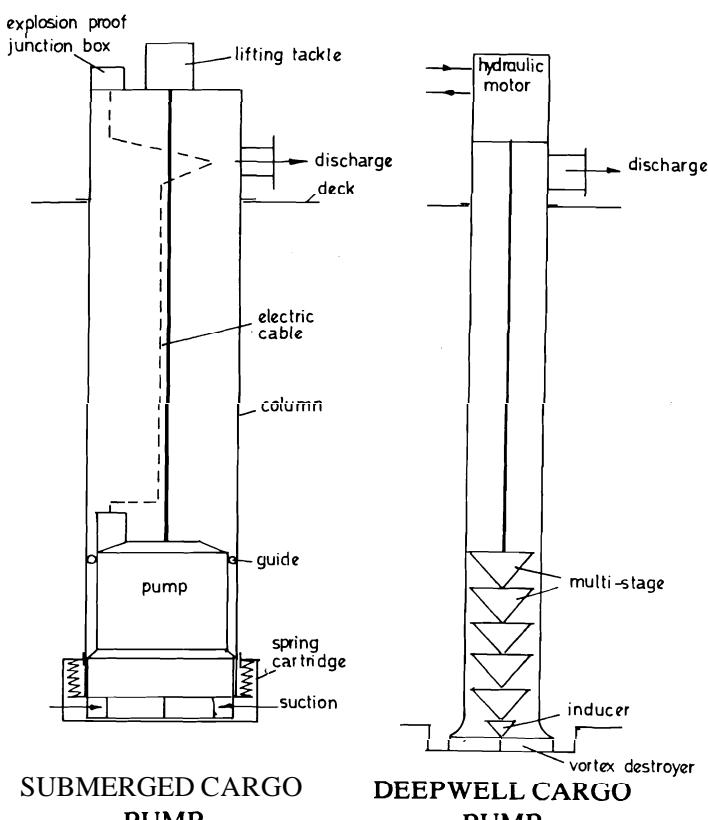
Chemical, LPG, or multi-product tanker: here a separate pump is sited in each tank. Pumps driven through line shafting coupled to hydraulic motors on deck would be deep well, single

diffuser vanes
mixed flow impeller
guide vanes
scroll type induc

CARGO
Fig.

or multi-stage with radial or mixed flow impellers. Or, submerged pumps electrical or mechanical, usually, single elements. The bearing problems, is proving the most difficult for LPG carriers.

Submersible pumps eliminate the bearing problems but expensive problems such as fluid leakage into the cargo and



SUBMERGED CARGO PUMP

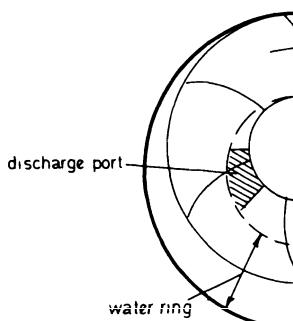
DEEPWELL CARGO PUMP

Fig. 9.8

Fig. 9.8 shows diagrammatically two of the cargo pump arrangements referred to above, the submerged electric motor driven pump rests on a spring cartridge which closes when the pump is raised and seals off the tank from the column.

Air extraction on most pumps is required, especially on all bilge pumps. Early designs of circulating pumps employed a steam ejector on the volute casing together with a steam jet into the casing to condense and prime, or a direct water priming valve. Later designs of centrifugal pump incorporated a separate air pump. In the first types the air is separated from the water in the suction chamber, it rises and is withdrawn by the air pump via a float operated valve. Twin single-acting air pumps are fitted, driven by worm and wheel from the pump spindle, and are crank driven. The pumps are capable of operating flooded

should the float gear break down. When the pump is flooded water suction closes the valve. This design can be sketched to meet the requirements and is shown in the sketch in Fig. 9.12 (later). In the more recent designs the air pumps are usually replaced by a pump which has the usual suction separating chamber but the air connection from the pump is taken to the rotary air pump. The extension of the motor spindle is a hollow shaft which revolves in a special variable shaft bearing with fresh water from a reservoir.



WATER RING AIR PUMP

Due to the casing shape the water is drawn towards the rotor centre during rotation. The water motion is utilised to act as a pump through appropriate sets of impellers which are continuously cooled by a close fitting water ring. The discharge round the air pump is controlled by a valve. The air pump can be controlled by a control cock on the front of the pump. The method of operation is referred to as the 'water ring' pump. Fig. 9.13 shows this in simplified form. The pump is supplied with water from a suction port and air enters through the pump shaft. This 'slug' of air is delivered to the discharge port. The pump is of the displacement type. In some designs the pump is connected to a pump for all pumps, etc.

system, this system under the operation of auto compressors functions to give priming from a central control station to all units in the engine room as required.

Central Priming System

Fig. 9.10 shows diagrammatically a central priming system arranged to give automatic priming to four pumps. The system can be used for as many pumps of the centrifugal type that would be used in an engine room.

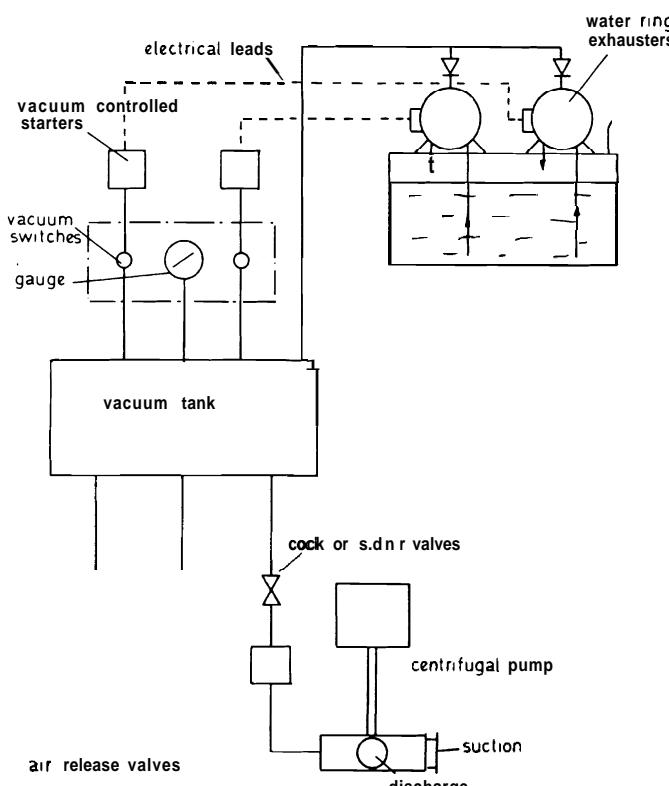


Fig. 9.10

Water ring exhausters maintain a vacuum condition between pre-set limits in the vacuum tank. Opening the priming cock, or s.d.n.r. valve, for a pump causes priming to take place. To

prevent water entering the vacuum tank, the exhausters have operated 'air release' valves which open automatically.

For essential services a s.d.n.r. valve is provided instead of a priming cock so that if the pump fails to prime and due to mal-operation or a fault in the system, air is lost, air is not drawn into the system, thus avoiding possible serious consequences.

The advantages of the system are:

1. Saving in total power since the pump can draw its own exhauster or priming unit when it is operating.
 2. Reduced capital cost.
 3. Simplified maintenance.
 4. Automatic—takes care of priming.
- Two water ring type of exhausters and one water supply tank are shown, one will operate when the other both could operate together in case of failure.

Gear pumps

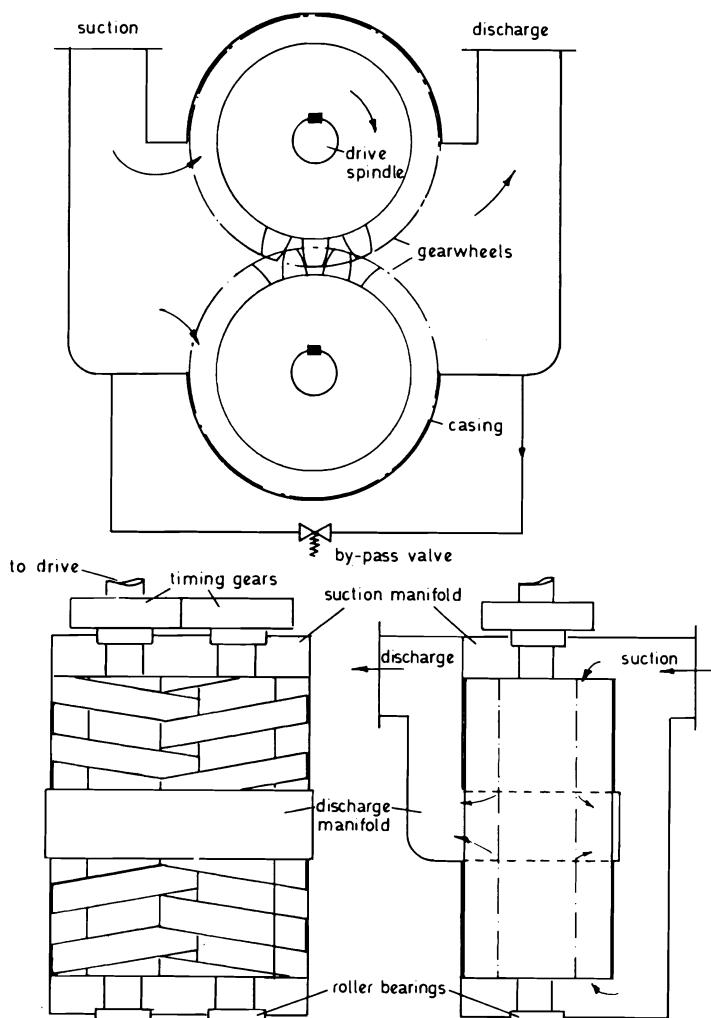
These positive displacement pumps are driven by a motor through a chain or wheel drive. They have a shunt regulating valve for ac supply or shunt regulation. There are no suction or discharge valves since the pump is similar to centrifugal pumps. The pump has two sets of wheels to operate in series. These are toothed wheels shown in Fig. 9.11. The pump is fitted in the casing. The fluid is carried from the pump to the casing. Such pumps are fairly large and are best suited to pump oil under pressure feed.

Screw Displacement Pumps

Considering Fig. 9.11 it is seen that the pump has two suction manifolds and passes the fluid to two discharge manifolds which are gear driven from a central shaft. Such pumps are quiet and are best suited to pumping all fluids, in particular those with large volumes of air bubbles. They are used for maintaining discharge pressure, and for intermittent fluid supply such as for fuel supply systems to engines, with a constant pressure feed.

Timing gears are fitted to some types of screw pumps so that correct clearance is maintained.

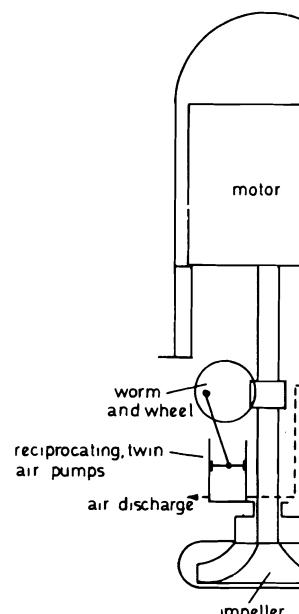
thereby preventing overheating and possible seizure. Modern designs of screws preclude the use of timing gears, ensure smooth efficient simple operation, eliminate turbulence and vibration.



SCREW DISPLACEMENT PUMP
Fig. 9.11

Emergency Bilge Pump

The function of this pump is to remove water from compartments adjacent to a damaged compartment. The pump is capable of working when the pump is a standard centrifugal pump or a standard rotary air pump. The motor is usually dc operated by a separate circuit which is part of the vessel's electrical system. The pump is designed to operate without attention and is also suitable for use as a fire pump. This design is particularly suitable for passenger vessels giving outputs of up to 1000 m³/h.



EMERGENCY BILGE PUMP
Fig. 9.12

COMPARISON OF PUMPS, SUCTION LIFT, CAVITATION, ETC.

Consider first the performance of a reciprocating pump. If the pump could create a perfect vacuum in the barrel it should theoretically be able to lift cold fresh water from a height of 10.3 m above the suction valve.

1.013 bar = 760 mm Mercury = 10.3 m water

Thus the pump lift depends on the barometer reading (for vacuum attainable) and also the fluid pumped *i.e.*, oil below a density of 1.0 will be capable of being lifted a greater amount. Also the fluid pumped should be cold as warm fluids tends to vaporise and destroy the vacuum. In practice a good reciprocating pump will lift cold water from about 8 m with a high barometer. As the temperature of the fluid rises the suction lift decreases so that at 94°C the pump will not draw water. Above this critical temperature water must be supplied from a head to increase the pressure on the suction valve and prevent vapour lock. The following figures give an indication of the above points:

Barometer 750 mm above figures for cold water.	Practical Lift 7.5 m
---	----------------------

Temperature	64°C	Practical Lift	3 m
"	77°C	"	2.1 m
"	94°C	"	0 m
"	110°C	Head required	3 m
"	123°C	"	6.7 m

above figures for a 760 mm barometer reading.

Air vessels are usually fitted to reciprocating pump discharge lines to ensure uniform water flow velocity in discharge lines so reducing the inertia head required. The vessel is merely a cylinder forming an air space damping cushion with fluid entry at one side and discharge over a weir at the other side, or via an internal pipe.

In pumps carrying liquids a phenomenon known as cavitation occurs. Low pressure regions occur in the flow at points where high local velocities exist. If vaporisation occurs due to these low pressure areas then bubbles occur, these expand as they move with the flow and collapse when they reach a high pressure region. Such formation and collapse of bubbles is very rapid and collapse near a surface can generate very high pressure hammer

blows which results in pitting, the pump efficiency. This phenomenon is pronounced in reciprocating pumps. Cavitation which is just beginning, reduces until the two coincide. During operation the pump runs noisy and rough running of the pump and

Super cavitation occurs when within the liquid after the impeller.

Inducers

These are sometimes fitted to pumps at suction. Their purpose is to direct the fluid to the impeller is at sufficient angle at impeller suction, or it enables lower net positive supply head. scroll, screw or propeller.

The propeller (like a stub blade) cavitating pumps, *i.e.* pumps between the inducer and the impeller at about one third of the net required for conventional centrifugal scroll suitable for LPG and LNG carriers.

Considering the previous remarks on pumps the following points are apply for pump suction head but centrifugal pump are difficult to good pump with facing clearance probably lift about 7.3 m of cold water. (2) air vessels are rarely fitted as usual. (3) such pumps are very sensitive to inlet to impellers and it may be necessary to provide suction lift to prevent the formation of pressure regions, incorrect attenutation of severe cavitation and very poor performance.

Considering next the gear and lobe pumps these pumps are also affected by fluid viscosity and fluid temperature. A reasonable clearance should be provided and any clearance will reduce efficiency and hence suction head. These two types on the above three good pumps will probably lift cold water.

a high barometer, rarely need air vessels and are not specially prone to cavitation when correctly designed.

In a modern vessel most pumps would probably be motor driven centrifugal, with reciprocating, gear, screw displacement or turbo pumps only fitted for specialist individual duties. The discharge head attainable (or pressure of discharge) is virtually unlimited for a reciprocating pump. Provided a good steam pressure is available the principle of area differentials gives very high discharge pressures. For the other forms of pump, rotational speeds are increased to obtain higher discharge pressures up to a reasonable maximum, for really high pressures then impellers or wheels running in series are required. For example the maximum peripheral impeller speed is best fixed about 105 m/s from the stress viewpoint (although cavitation may be appreciable). A 200 mm impeller at 167 rev/s, a 120 mm impeller at 275 rev/s, or three compound 330 mm impellers running at 60 rev/s, would all produce 50 bar at peripheral speeds within 105 m/s, although the latter is preferable. The maximum head for series impellers is often fixed at about 170 m (16 bar) per stage, with a maximum of say nine stages, but these figures are by no means rigid.

ASSOCIATED EQUIPMENT AND SYSTEMS

It is proposed to consider a short selection of units and systems on which examination questions have been set.

Heat Exchanger

Thermodynamic Characteristics

$Q = U\theta A$ is the rate of heat transfer from one fluid to another in a heat exchanger, where Q is in watts.

U is the overall coefficient of heat transfer in $\text{W/m}^2\text{K}$, this depends upon the properties of the fluids, their speeds and the form of the heat exchanger surface.

θ is the logarithmic mean temperature difference in $^\circ\text{C}$ between the two fluids. θ is a maximum with counterflow.

A is the area of heat exchanger surface in m^2 .

Fig. 9.10 shows some of the different flow patterns used in heat exchangers, counter flow is the best thermodynamically of the basic patterns. In practice most heat exchangers use mixed flow to obtain the best possible characteristics.

In the selection of a heat exchanger, certain points have to be considered, some are:

1. Quantity of fluid, maximum
2. Range of inlet and outlet tem
3. As above for the cooling me
4. Specific heat of the medium
5. Type of medium, corrosive o
6. Operating pressures.
7. Maintenance, fouling, cleani
8. Position in system and assoc
9. Cost, materials, streamline c

θ - hot fluid
 t - cold fluid

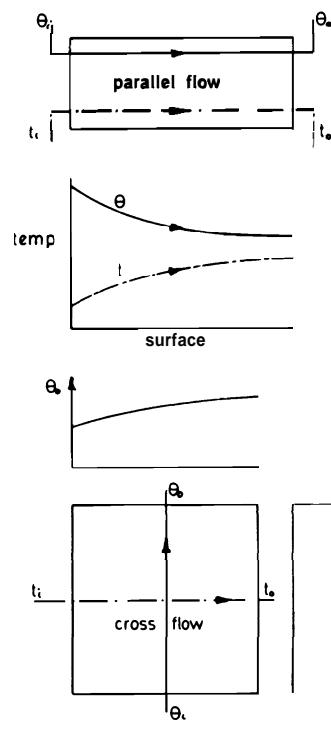


Fig. 9.13

Streamline and Turbulent Flow

In Fig. 9.13 simple diagrams show (1) the laminar, streamline flow of a fluid whose velocity variation is approximately parabolic. Being a maximum at the centre and zero where the fluid is in contact with the pipe or plate surface (2) turbulent flow of a fluid.

Whether flow is streamline or turbulent depends upon certain factors which are summed up by Reynold's number.

$$\text{Reynold's number} = \frac{\text{velocity of fluid flow} \times \text{pipe diameter}}{\text{kinematic viscosity}}$$

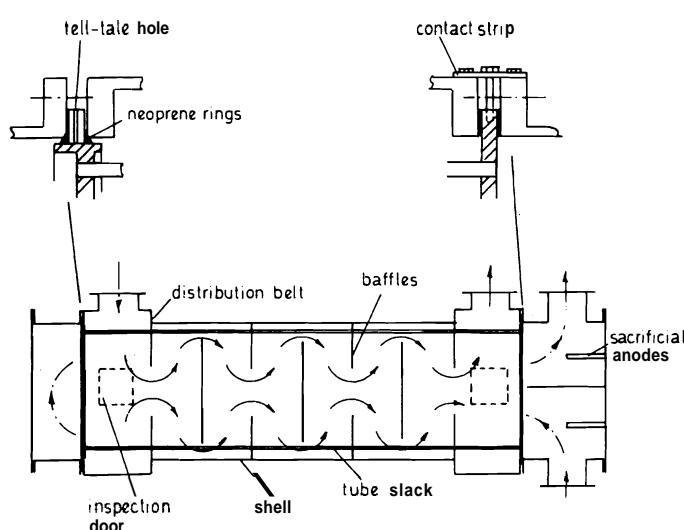
If the number is less than 2000 the flow is streamline.

If the number is more than 2500 the flow is turbulent.

(Kinematic viscosity is the ratio of absolute viscosity to relative density.)

Obviously pressure difference is a hidden factor in the calculation, the greater its value the greater the velocity.

For efficient heat transfer turbulent flow is best, but erosion of metal surface will be greatest. For little erosion of metal surface streamline flow is required, but heat transfer will be relatively poor.



SHELL AND TUBE HEAT EXCHANGERS (Serck)
Fig. 9.14

Shell and Tube Type Heat Exchangers

The shell (or cylinder) is usually made of cast iron, with surfaces machined. Sheet fabricated steel may be used according to requirements. Inspection doors are provided on the shell.

End boxes with end access covers are fitted to the shell. Sacrificial anodes in the form of an electrical contact strip are fitted.

The tube stack is made up of tubes expanded into Naval brass fittings shown and the other is free to allow axial movement. Brass circular baffles give radial support to the tube stack.

In more recent designs of tube-in-shell heat exchangers the guided flow concept has been adopted. This consists of a heating, or cooling, surface in the form of a coil wound around the tubes between which fluid flows. The coil is supported out and in from section to section. The coil has a larger outer transfer surface (2) better heat transfer, (3) lower temperature (4) in the case of oil, and hence fouling.

Plate Heat Exchangers

Fig. 9.15 shows diagrammatically a plate heat exchanger. It consists of a series of thin plates joined together, between a closing pressure plate. The two faces of the plates are corrugated to provide additional heat transfer surface. The plates are joined together to use a herringbone pattern which allows fluid to pass from top to bottom, touching in a cross-flow manner. The additional support, allows pressure to be reduced without increasing the thickness of the plates.

Gaskets are usually Nitrile rubber and are arranged so that in the event of a leak they do not mix.

Principal advantages of the plate heat exchanger are:

1. Compact and space saving.
2. Easily inspected and cleaned.
3. Low cost.
4. The plates can be easily replaced if damaged.

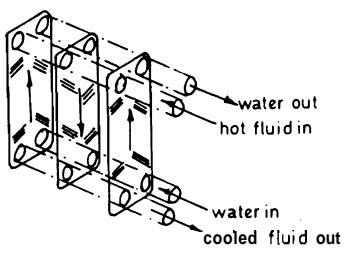
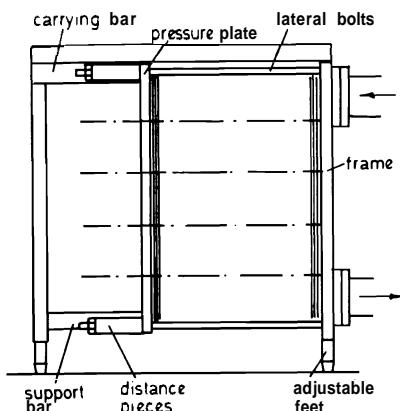


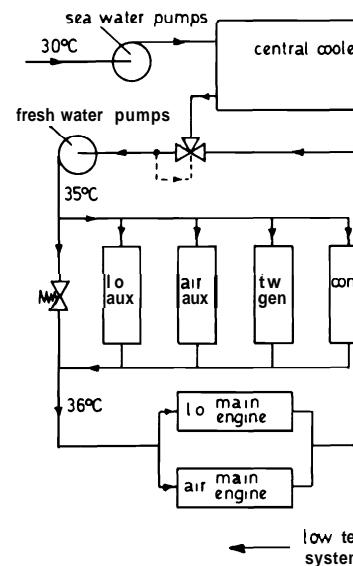
PLATE TYPE HEAT EXCHANGER (Alfa-Laval)
Fig. 9.15

3. Variable capacity, plate numbers can be altered to meet capacity requirements.
4. With titanium plates there is virtually no corrosion or erosion risk and turbulent flow (which is erosive) which takes place between the plates will increase heat transfer and enable fewer plates to be used.

Central Cooling Systems

These have been designed for diesel and steam plant. Fig. 9.16 shows diagrammatically the arrangement for a diesel engined installation.

Large, sea water cooled heat exchangers, one in operation the other stand-by, are the 'central coolers', they will have excess cooling capacity to allow for fouling. A controlled bypass of the fresh water to be cooled maintains it at a steady temperature of 35°C up to a maximum sea water temperature of 33°C. Sea



CENTRAL COO
Fig. 9.16

water temperature above 33°C
water temperature.

The system is divided into low and high temperature zones. The low temperature zone consists of a central cooler and various auxiliary coolers arranged in different ways to suit the plant. Bypass valves are arranged across the low temperature zone to pass water around the upstream water pressure keeping the number of coolers in use to a minimum. Advantages of the central cooling system are:

1. Reduced maintenance. Due to the simplicity of the system, clean, treated water circulating through the system, component replacement are reduced.
2. Fewer salt water pipes with associated problems.
3. With titanium plate heat exchangers cleaning of the coolers is greatly reduced.
4. The higher water speeds possible result in reduced pipe dimensions.
5. The number of valves made is reduced.

reduced, also cheaper materials can be used throughout the fresh water system without fear of **corrosion/erosion** problems.

6. With a constant level of temperature being maintained, irrespective of sea water temperature, this gives stability and economy of operation of the machinery, *e.g.* no cold starting since part of the cooling system will be in operation. Reduced cylinder liner wear etc.

Modular Systems for Auxiliary Plant

Modular systems are used for items such as lubrication, fuel, boiler feed water, cooling, etc.

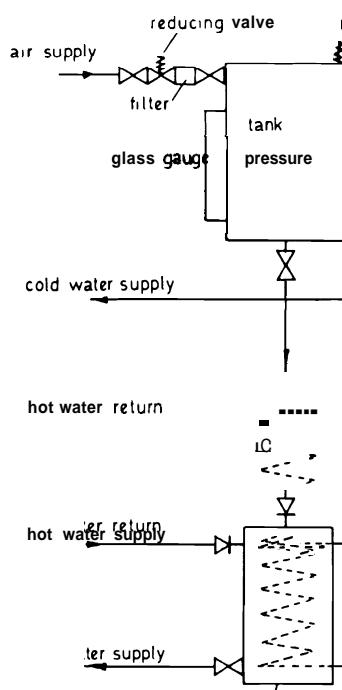
To decide what items have to be included in the module we need to know what performance is required of it. *e.g.* Fuel to a diesel engine: the fuel should be clean, free of water, at the correct pressure and viscosity. Hence in the module we require filters, centrifuges or coalescing filters, pumps, heaters and sensors.

The advantages to be gained by using modular techniques are:

1. The engine room layout will be simplified.
2. Pipe runs will be simple, external to the module, consisting only of supply and return.
3. Module is assembled in the workshop—this in itself has considerable advantage (a) The environment is easier to control, it should be clean dry and oil free. There should be reduced risk of damage to plant when the module is installed because no rust, scale, oil, waste, weld spatter, etc., would be present inside the module, which would have all open ended pipes blanked after satisfactory testing and examination, and they would remain blanked until they have to be connected to piping on board ship. This has the added advantage of reducing pre-commission cleaning time on board (b) The best possible arrangement of integral components for ease of maintenance coupled with shortest pipe runs can be achieved. This would be accomplished by designers and assemblers working in close collusion (c) The module can be easily tested and inspected.
4. Installation time at the shipbuilding yard would be reduced.
5. Standardisation with the least amount of material used, together with the best possible design for access, maintenance, reliability etc., results in economy.

Obviously standardisation does have its limitations. Units would be made in capacities of standard incremental quantities, the standard unit may not provide exactly for requirements. Also, the unit must not become so large that transport becomes a problem.

PUMPS AND PUMPS



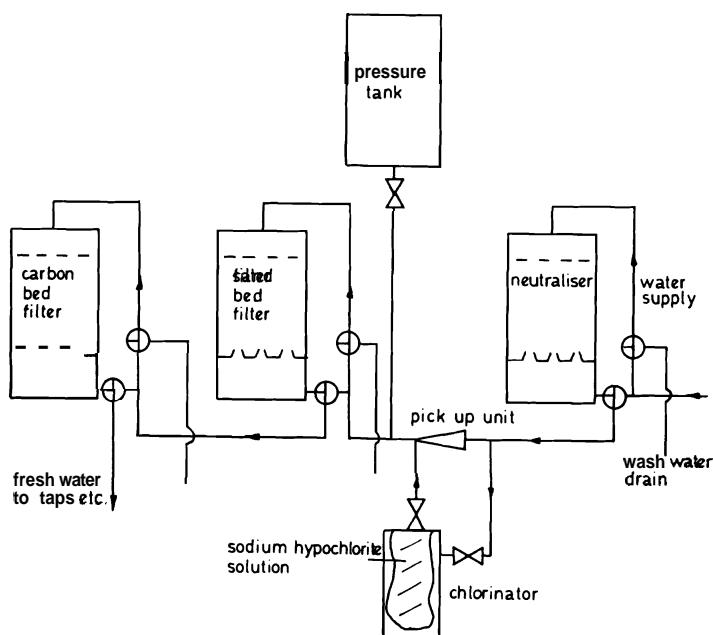
PRESSURISED FRE

(Pressure 1.3 to 2 bar a

Fig

Automatic Domestic Water Su

For sanitary and fresh water systems, ships usually employ automatic systems. This consists of a tank or reservoir which is connected to the discharge line. The discharge is led in and out of the tank to the piping system. The tank is provided with a float switch which, when the water level reaches a certain height, opens a valve to allow the water to flow from the tank. When the water level falls, the valve closes and the pump starts again. The tank is also provided with a safety valve which opens if the pressure in the tank exceeds a certain limit. The tank is also provided with a pressure gauge which indicates the pressure in the tank. The tank is also provided with a temperature gauge which indicates the temperature of the water in the tank. The tank is also provided with a level gauge which indicates the level of the water in the tank. The tank is also provided with a pressure relief valve which opens if the pressure in the tank exceeds a certain limit. The tank is also provided with a safety valve which opens if the pressure in the tank exceeds a certain limit. The tank is also provided with a pressure gauge which indicates the pressure in the tank. The tank is also provided with a temperature gauge which indicates the temperature of the water in the tank. The tank is also provided with a level gauge which indicates the level of the water in the tank. The tank is also provided with a pressure relief valve which opens if the pressure in the tank exceeds a certain limit. The tank is also provided with a safety valve which opens if the pressure in the tank exceeds a certain limit. The tank is also provided with a pressure gauge which indicates the pressure in the tank. The tank is also provided with a temperature gauge which indicates the temperature of the water in the tank. The tank is also provided with a level gauge which indicates the level of the water in the tank. The tank is also provided with a pressure relief valve which opens if the pressure in the tank exceeds a certain limit. The tank is also provided with a safety valve which opens if the pressure in the tank exceeds a certain limit. The tank is also provided with a pressure gauge which indicates



FRESH WATER TREATMENT PLANT

Fig. 9.18

tank until the air pressure is say **4** bar when the pressure switch serves to shut off the pump. The differential for cut in and out can be adjusted for reasonable running periods whilst maintaining a satisfactory pressure on sanitary and/or fresh water fittings.

Water Purification

For domestic purposes the water used must be slightly alkaline, sterilised, clear and pleasant tasting.

1. To give alkalinity and to improve the taste of insipid distilled water, carbonates of calcium and magnesium are used as a filter bed in a neutraliser.
2. To sterilise the water chlorine is used, this would normally be solutions of hypochlorite or possibly the powder calcium chloride. About **0.25** to 1 kg of chlorine would be required for every 1,000,000 kg of water.
3. To produce clear water it can be passed through a sand bed filter.

4. To improve taste a de-chlorinating agent is used. Chlorinated water is passed through a sand bed which will absorb excess chlorine.

Neutraliser, sand bed filter and de-chlorinator have their flows reversed for cleaning.

Hydraulic system

A centralised hydraulic system uses a pump, usually rotary reciprocating, to move oil from an oil reservoir, fitted with pressure switches, through a network of pipes and valves under pressure in different lines for different applications. It provides reliable and safe power distribution.

Items that can be operated by a centralised hydraulic system include **(1)** submersible or line-shaft drives, **(2)** machinery, **(3)** winches, windlasses, **(4)** covers, ramps, water tight doors, etc.

The main advantages of a centralised hydraulic system are **(1)** smooth operation **(2)** infinitely variable speed, **(3)** lubricating **(4)** intrinsically safe components, **(5)** centralised for ease of maintenance.

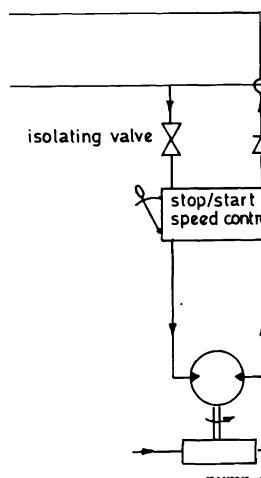


Fig. 9.19

Fig. 9.19 shows a simple controlled unit consisting of an isolating valve, a stop/start speed control unit, a pump, a fan, etc., connected in series with a return and pressure lines which are connected to a reservoir.

hydraulic system. The stop/start speed control may be fitted with a pilot line for remote operation and appropriate sensors would telemeter measurements to the control station.

PREVENTION OF POLLUTION OF THE SEA BY OIL

It is prohibited by law, based on the 1954 international convention to dump oil or oil-water polluted mixtures in port, harbour or within coastal limits of about 80 km. The zones have been increased to include 160 km coastal zones, and more, and to include whole seas as prohibited areas. Within time it can be said that it will be prohibited to dump such pollution from **any** vessel in **any** part of the world. The legal maximum oil particle discharge quantity is 100 parts per million of water, but this may also be reduced in the future. Improved tank cleaning plants have been made at all shore stations. However it may be said that from the operating engineers viewpoint at sea that he is not allowed to discharge any oil or contaminated water overboard. This means that unless a dump tank is utilised, which is quite feasible in oil tankers which can then be cleaned in port, then a separator suitable for extracting oil from bilge or ballast water must be provided, this is most common in cargo and passenger vessels. The rules require such a separator to be of sufficient design, size and construction. Provision **must also** be made to prevent over-pressure and discharge into confined spaces.

Avoidance of Pollution of the Sea with Oil

The manual on the avoidance of pollution of the sea by oil (DTp published by H.M.S.O.) together with current relevant M notices, are essential reading for Marine Engineers before attempting the examination. Some precautions to be observed when bunkering are:

1. All scuppers to be plugged so that in the event of a small spillage onto the deck it is contained and can be dealt with.
2. Drip trays must be placed under the ship-shore connection.
3. Good communication between ship and shore must be established and checked to regulate flow as desired.
4. Personnel operating the system must be fully conversant with the layout of pipes, tanks, valves etc.
5. Moorings and hose length should at all times be such that there is no possibility of stretching or crushing the hose.
6. Ensure blank at opposite end of cross-over pipe is securely in place.

7. Air pipes should be clear, indicators tested.

When transferring oil within done during the hours of day connections should be closed should be tested and soundings

Using empty oil fuel tanks as far as possible, since the ba discharged.

Oil in Navigable Waters Act

It is an offence to discharge more than 100 p.p.m. of fuel oil zone. The international oil pollution zones but generally it includes all shore including territorial waters discharged in a prohibited zone record book consisting of: (1) the source of the bilge water (3) The position (5) The date. It must be signed by the Chief Engineer.

The Act requires that every Bulk carrier registered in the United Kingdom for ballast water must be fitted with

Oily Water Separator

Various types of oily water separators have been developed over the years but most of the gravity separators now meet modern requirements. IMO has recommended gravity separators and they are:

1. Oil-water separators for bilge water. These must be capable of giving an effluent containing not more than 15 p.p.m. of oil irrespective of the oil content of the water supplied to the device.
2. Filtering systems are further required to give an effluent of no more than 15 p.p.m. of oil.

Most gravity types that have been developed give effluents ranging from 50 to 150 p.p.m. of oil. This is probably an overestimate, 150 p.p.m. being a realistic figure.

The type of pump used for pumping the oily water governs considerably the degree of separation of the effluent. A large number of bilge pumps are often used as the supply pu

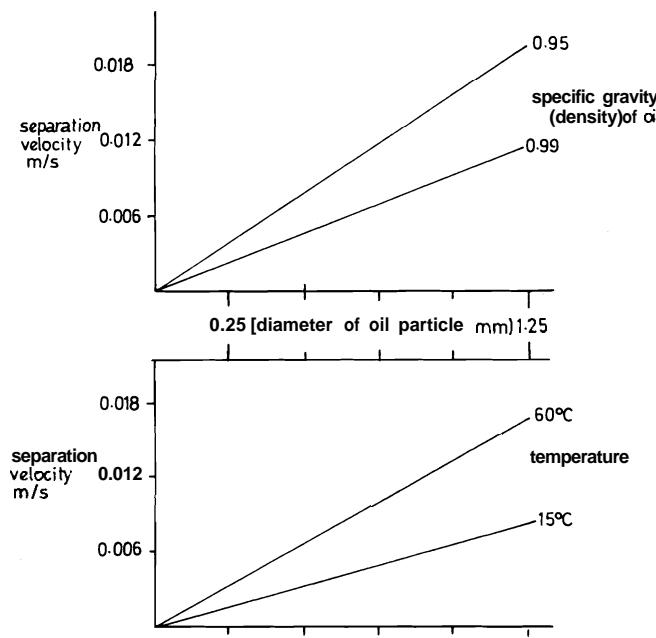


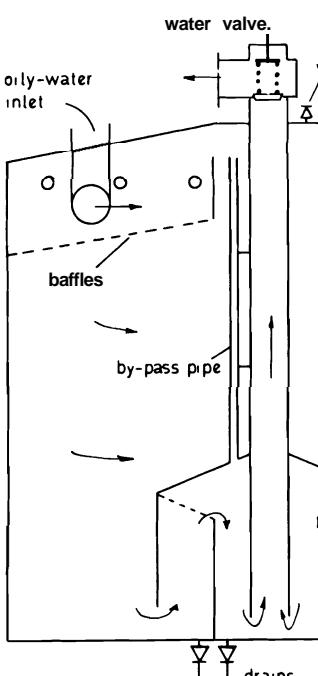
Fig. 9.20

the supply and produce small oil droplets (less than 200 μm) dispersed throughout the water so that the 100 ppm requirement cannot be met.

A positive displacement pump e.g. slow running double vane, screw, reciprocating or gear enables a much better performance to be achieved from the separator as they do not produce large quantities of small oil droplets.

The pumping mode is becoming important since it is claimed that with any kind of pump operating in the suction mode (*i.e.* pump after the separator) the IMO requirement of 15 p.p.m. or less can be met without the use of 2nd and 3rd stage filters or coalescers.

The graphs in Fig. 9.20 show clearly the effect of oil particle size and separation velocity thus further emphasising the importance of pump selection and mode, presence of oil coalescers (gather oil into larger droplets) and controlled flow within the separator. Oil density and mixture temperature also govern speed of separation and hence separator throughput.

AUTOMATIC OILY-WATER SEPARATOR
Fig. 9.21

Automatic Oily-Water Separator

Fig. 9.21 shows the essential parts of an automatic oily-water separator. The operation is as follows:

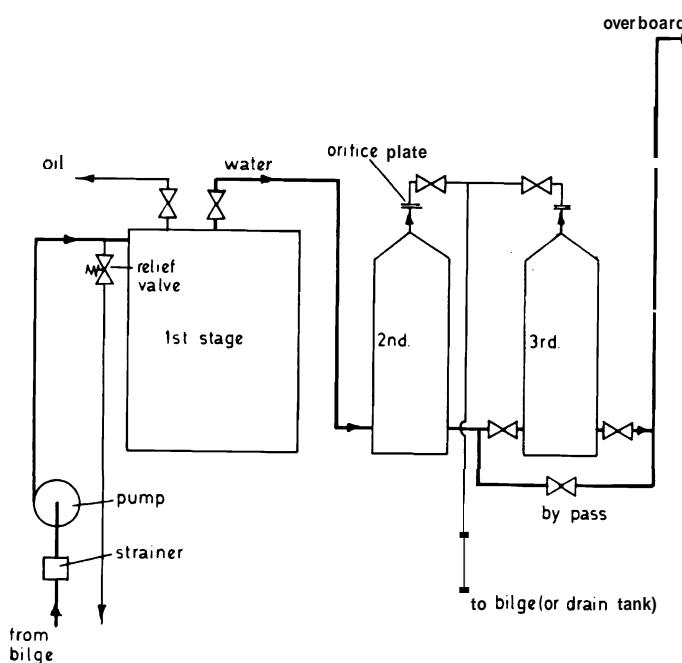
Clean water is delivered to the separator via an inlet until discharge takes place. The water valve is then closed. Oily-water is now introduced into the separator. When the pressure inside reaches approximately the water discharge pressure, the water valve opens. The mixture circulates and flows over the baffles which assist in separating the oil. The oil accumulates at the top of the separator. As the oil level rises, the float valve automatically opens up. (See Fig. 9.21).

A bypass pipe takes remaining oil to the separator stage up to the top of the float valve.

Steam heating coils are provided to increase viscosity and assist separation.

ascertain the levels of oil and water approximately as a check for the automatic detection. A spring loaded valve is usually fitted on both discharges but it is essential that a relief valve is provided on the shell or incoming mixture line to prevent overpressure and accidental discharge to a confined space or overboard under all working conditions. Such a relief valve should preferably be led back to the suction side of the supply pump or to an overflow tank. The usual working pressure for the separator is in the region of 2 bar, *i.e.* the pressure at which the spring loaded water discharge valve is set. The relief valve is set about $2\frac{1}{2}$ bar approximately.

Fig. 9.22 shows a three stage separator which complies with IMO requirements. The first stage is as previously described for the automatic separator, the second and third stages are coalescers. The effluent from the first stage enters the bottom of the second stage and passes up the middle of the coalescer, the coalesced oil collects at the top and the water discharges at the bottom and then goes to the next stage.



3-STAGE OILY-WATER SEPARATOR (Victor)
Fig. 9.22

Electric Separator Probe

This is rather a complex ac circuit. The operating principle is considerably more complex than the dc Wheatstone bridge. Three probes are provided at the highest and lowest points of the interface and a third probe is fixed in the oil space, the latter acts as an earth. If the interface level falls below the lower probe, an alarm will occur. The probes are connected in series with a variable capacitor in the circuit. The probe in the oil space is a variable condenser. The dielectric constant of the material depends on the material between the electrodes (when balanced in air would be 1.0), the capacitance in oil or water and air is magnified and relayed, similarly the water, etc.

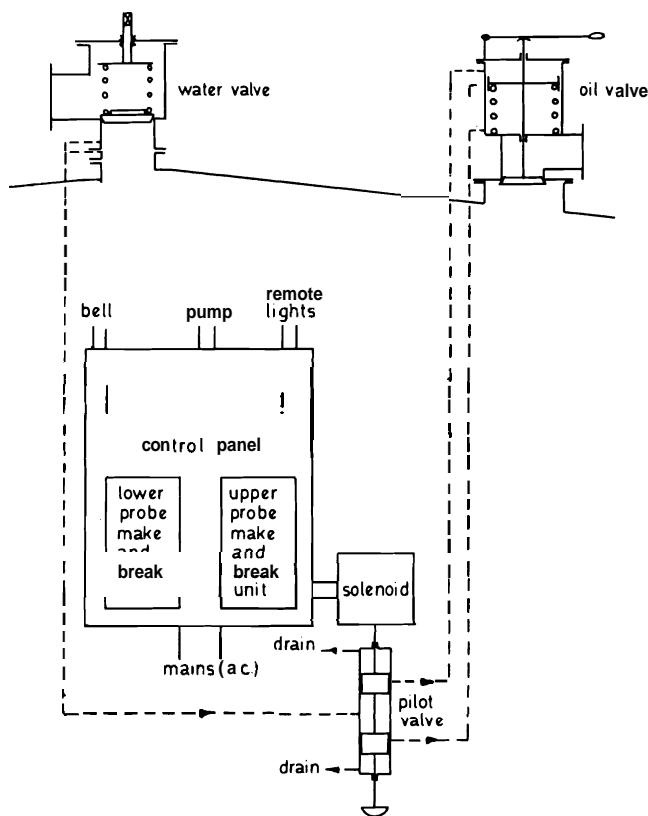
Automatic Valve Operation

The relay can be arranged to operate the valves, preferably solenoid operation will be used for the operation of the appropriate valves. With the lower probe closed the capacitance change will function to close the water valve, similarly the upper probe will shut the oil valve and open the water valve.

The actual operation of automatic valves will be shown with alarm and protection circuits, refer to Fig. 9.23.

Oil has the same effect as air on the probes (air has the same effect as probes in air) the two probe circuit will operate the discharge lamp on, main solenoid energised, pilot valve up, alarm bell ringing. When water enters the separator the discharge lamp goes out, the bell stops ringing and the lower probe circuit will operate the water valve. When water reaches the upper probe the upper probe circuit will operate the water valve, the discharge lamp goes out. The solenoid is energised, the pilot valve moves down. These conditions will operate the alarm and protection interface down.

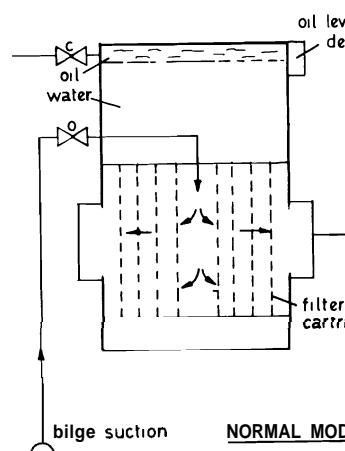
When oil build up occurs and the oil level reaches the upper probe the upper probe circuit will operate the oil valve, the oil valve moves down to the lower probe the lower probe circuit will operate the water valve.



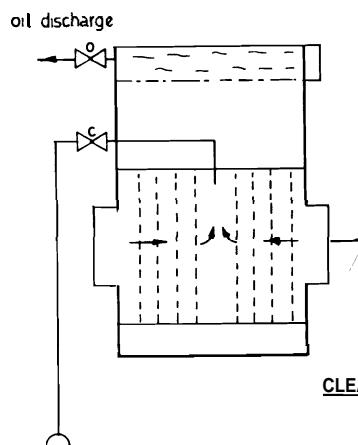
AUTOMATIC OILY-WATER SEPARATOR SYSTEM
Fig. 9.23

valve moves up. Clean water at 2 bar acts on top of the oil valve piston causing the valve to open. Pressure reduces, the water valve closes, and pressure reaches about $1\frac{1}{3}$ bar with the interface rising to the upper probe. The solenoid is now de-energised, the pilot valve moves down, clean water at $1\frac{1}{3}$ bar acts under the oil valve piston causing the valve to close, pressure starts to increase again.

With the main isolator shut the lower probe unit can be made to isolate and cut out the pump if oil reaches the danger level. With the main isolator open this action is shorted out so that the pump can be used for other duties. A float controlled air release arrangement can be fitted to give automatic air release from the shell.



NORMAL MODE



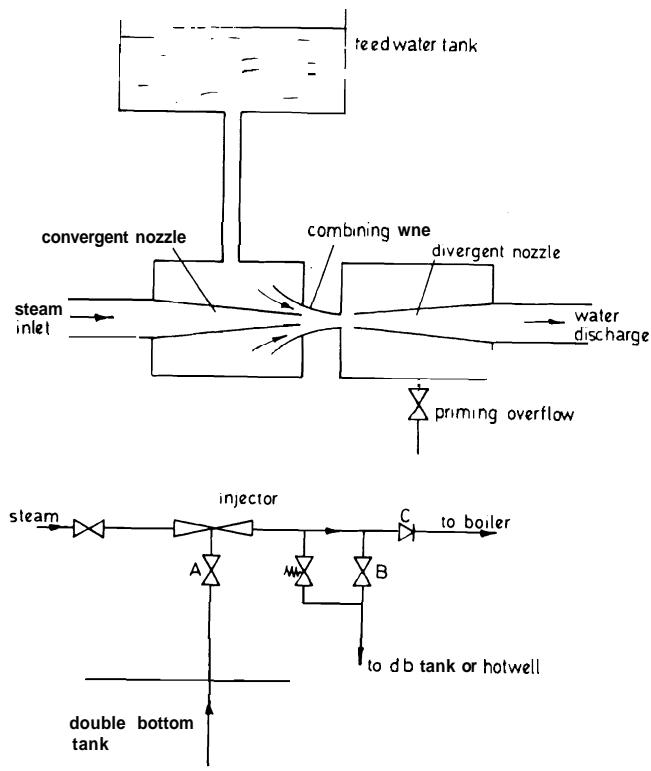
AUTOMATIC OILY-
WATER SEPARATOR

The suction mode automatically isolates the pump if oil reaches the danger level. Fig. 9.24 can, it is claimed, remove oil from the mixture or less. In order to do this the separator incorporates concealed filter cartridges through which the oil passes.

positive displacement pump. The coalesced oil rises to the top of the separator where its accumulation is detected by an oil-water interface probe. When in the normal mode a controller is constantly monitoring the oil-water interface level and the overboard discharge. In the event of the effluent exceeding set limit the process is stopped and alarm given.

When the oil-water interface reaches its lower level the controller changes the operation to one of cleaning by back flushing and oil discharge. The oil-water interface will then rise to the higher level when reversion to normal mode takes place.

By using an oily-water separator in the suction mode rather than the delivery mode (*i.e.* the pump after the separator not before) disintegration of the oily-water mixture prior to separation is achieved, thus improving separation efficiency.



FEED WATER INJECTOR

Fig. 9.25

INJECTORS

The feed water injector could It is rarely seen in marine practice a stand by feed supply device. has the advantage of no disadvantage of being res Considering Fig. 9.25 and the

The working steam expands losing pressure and gaining velocity from the nozzle. It con feed tank and condenses and t is guided through the combin velocity at entrance to the (velocity) energy of the jet is again as it passes along the di increases in pressure so that at higher than the boiler pressure. Thus it can be seen that the p of energy. Ignoring temperatu considering no rise of discharge velocity energy of the entering due to the head of entering velocity energy of the combin

The feed tank need not be injector will lift water but for discharge pressure from the variable so that velocity and the discharge pressure can be

Fig. 9.25 also shows typical injector. To put the injector would be opened, valve C closed to the injector until it is primed the double bottom tank or the changed over to the boiler by arrangement simplifies priming water and ensures that all the

Ejectors are used for bilge freeing systems on tankers etc. injector but water is used as medium. Ejectors consist of arrangement, similar to a Venturi, of the fluid to be discharged a reliable, inexpensive, effective

SEWAGE AND SLUDGE

Present regulations relating to sewage in the U.K. are simply that no sewage must be discharged whilst the vessel is in port. Standards adopted by the U.S.A. and Canada are likely to become IMO recommendations, their main restriction is that the coliform count in the effluent discharged in restricted waters should not exceed **1000/100 ml.**

Coliforms: this is the name given to a bacteria group found in the intestines. They are not normally harmful, except when they contain pathogenic colonies which can cause dysentery, typhoid, para-typhoid, etc.

Retention Systems

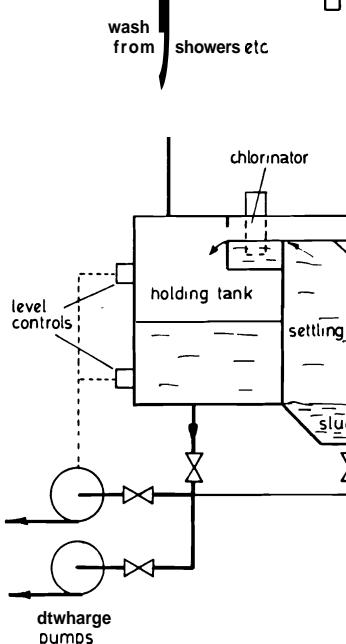
Their main advantage is simplicity in operation and virtually no maintenance, they comply with present regulations within the limit of their storage capacity. Since no sewage can be discharged in port, prolonged stays create a problem, this problem could be reduced by the use of a vacuum transportation system for toilets where only about **1 litre of water/flush** is used compared to about **12 litres/flush** for conventional types. Vacuum systems use smooth, small bore plastic pipes (except in fire hazard areas) which are relatively inexpensive, and because of the small amount of water used they are usually supplied with fresh water which keeps salt water out of accommodation spaces with obvious advantages.

With some retention systems the sewage is passed first through a comminutor, which macerates the solids giving greater surface area. The mix is then passed into a chlorine contact tank where it must remain for at least 20 minutes before discharge overboard.

Biological Treatment Plants

Plant description: raw sewage passes through a comminutor into the collection compartment. When the level in this compartment rises sufficiently, overflow of the liquid takes place into the treatment—Aeration compartment where the sewage is broken down by aerobic activation. Fluid in this compartment is continuously agitated by air which keeps the bacteriologically active sludge in suspension and supplies the necessary oxygen for purification.

The effluent is then pumped to a settlement compartment where the sludge settles out leaving treated effluent, which



EXTENDED AERA

passes over a weir into the final compartment before discharge overboard.

The settled sludge is continually removed from the final compartment by an airlift pump.

Excess sludge builds up in the final compartment and must be discharged at regular intervals. This is not possible hence it should be pumped to a sludge tank later. By using an incinerator to dispose of sludge the sludge tank may not be required.

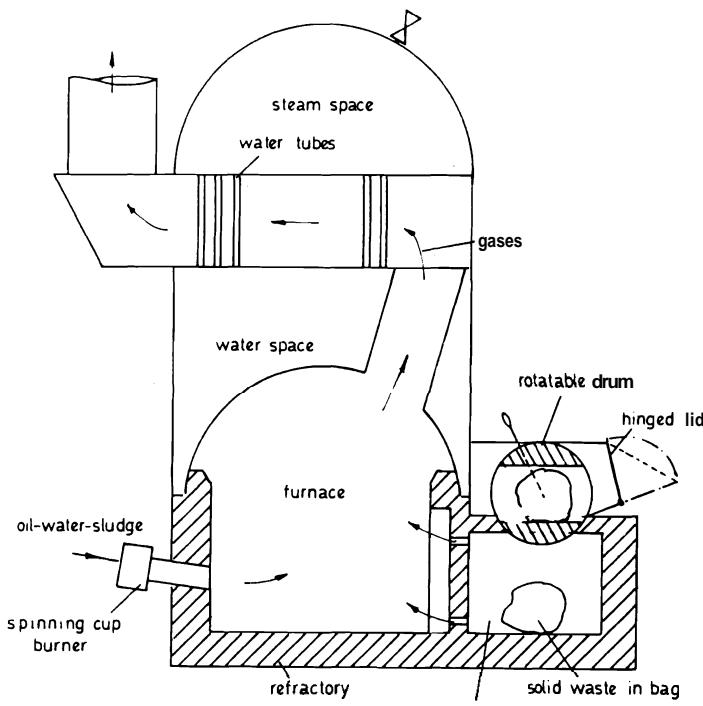
With the extended aeration system the plant is not fully operational at all times. It should be kept running after entering the system kills useful bacteria.

Chemical Treatment Plants

These are recirculation systems in which the sewage is macerated, chemically treated, then allowed to settle. The clear, sterilised, filtered liquid is returned to the sanitary system for further use and the solids are periodically discharged to a sullage tank or incinerator. The main advantages are (1) no necessity to discharge effluent or sludge in port or restricted waters (2) relatively small compact plant. However, chemical toilets are not always what they should be and with this relatively complex system increased maintenance is something which does not endear itself to engineers.

Sludge Incinerators

These are capable of dealing with waste oil, oil and water mixtures of up to 25% water content, rags, galley waste etc., and solid matter from sewage plants if required.



INCINERATOR
Fig. 9.27

Fig. 9.27 shows a small water

with incinerator plant in order

Homogenous oil/water mixt

passing them through a com

macerator, mixer which pro

emulsion—are supplied to the

from the galley and accommod

bags and placed in the chamber

chamber, the loading system

diagram. The loading arrangem

which prevents the doors (load

with the burner on. The solid w

may be described as pyrolysis,

Hydrocarbon gases are formed,

compartment, which pass into

a series of small holes and burn i

in the chamber has to be remo

pit door.

Solid matter from sewage sys

unit, a connection would have t

to the pyrolysis chamber of the

PIPE ARRANGEMENT

Most of the details given are

virtually a whole pumping syst

A Typical Bilge Pipe Arrangement

The arrangement as sketched

The diagram should be consid

given later. For examination

student should, if asked, sketch

and fittings with which he has b

In so doing he should be able

memory and there should be

further, it is presented merely f

Deep Tank Piping Arrangement

Referring to Fig. 9.29 it will

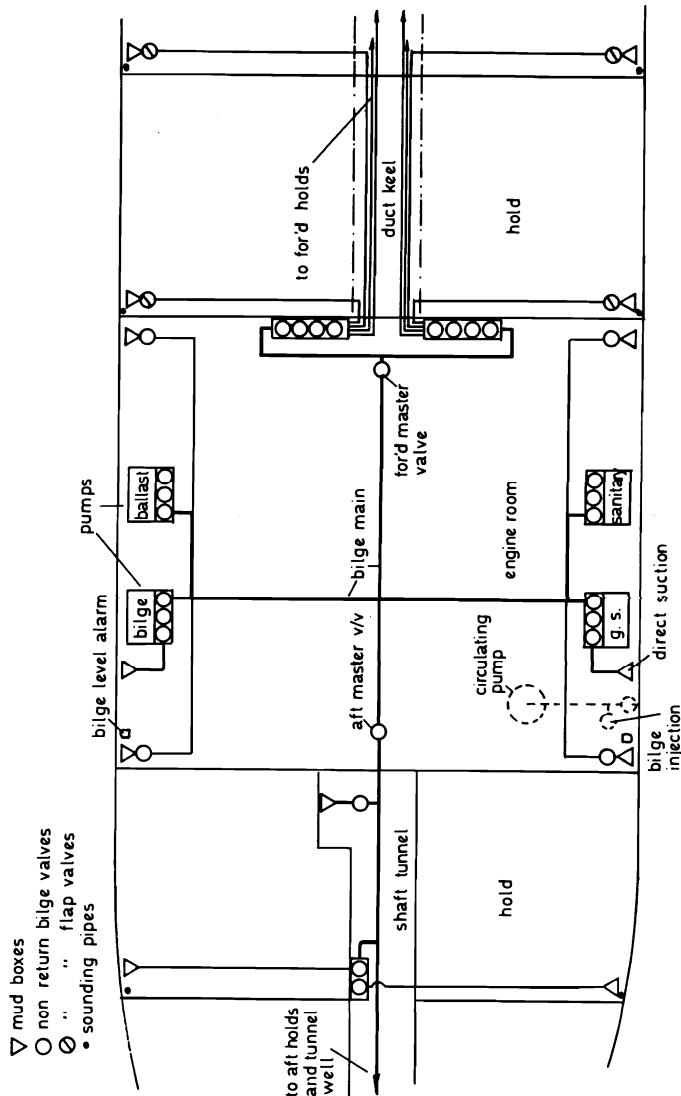
for filling with water ballast. In

means of the ballast pump o

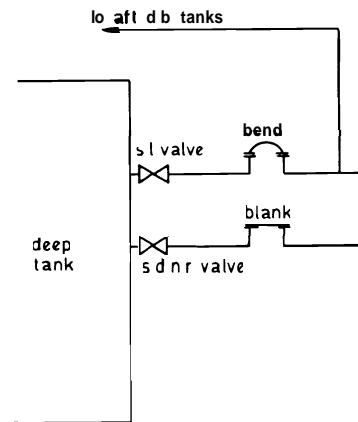
through the ballast pump suc

available gravity throughout

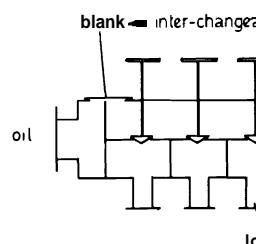
before closing the tank lid is b



BILGE PIPE ARRANGEMENT
Fig. 9.28



DEEP TANK PIPE



OIL-WATER B
Fig.

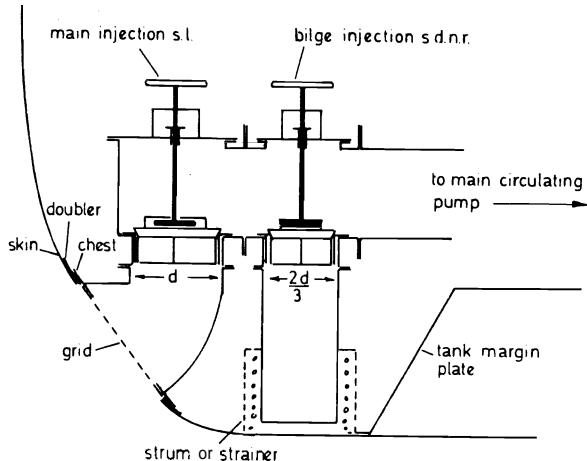
deck service line. When the tank is shut and the line is blanked pumped out. When the tank is ballast line is blanked and the necessary to avoid any mistakes is advised. Clear explanatory notes and fittings should be in

Bilge Injection Valve

The bilge injection valve as shown is one of the most important fittings in the system for use in the event of serious flooding. By closing in the main injection valve the largest pump is drawing directly from the

action can remove large quantities of water. A doubler plate is welded to the skin, and machined usually after welding operations, the chest flange being bedded to the doubler and then studded in place. The joint is either spigot and jointing compound, or flat with a joint of canvas and red lead putty.

The diameter of the bilge injection valve is at least $2/3$ rds of the diameter of the main sea inlet. Valve spindles should be clear of the engine platform and valves and operating gear require regular examination and greasing, with cleaning of strum or strainer.



MAIN AND BILGE INJECTION VALVES
Fig. 9.30

Oil-Water Ballast Chest

This chest is a standard fitting on most cargo vessels, on the double bottom piping system. Normally all chests are open to oil fuel (bend) and blanked to water ballast. For ballast, or ballast prior to cleaning purposes, the bend and blank are as shown in the sketch (Fig. 9.30). This means that an error in opening the wrong valve would not in itself allow crossing of circuits.

As an alternative to this fitting, hollow one way discharge plug cocks or a system of interlock valves would be acceptable. Any system employed must prevent easy joining of oil and water circuits by accident.

SOME RULES RELATING BILGE (vessels)

- (1) A piping system and pump should be provided to pump out and drain any compartments (including tank) which may reasonably be expected to be flooded by reasonable damage conditions.
- (2) Vessels shall have at least one pump connected to the main bilge system which is acceptable, also engine driven pump(s) of sufficient capacity and arrangement.
- (3) One such pump should be of the submersible type *or* the pump should be so placed so that one pump will be available in reasonable damage conditions. The pump should be located in a serviceable position.
- (4) Pumps should be of the self priming type. If no self priming devices are provided, the pumps should give a water speed in excess of 1 m/s, and the capacity may be determined by empirical formula.
- (5) Each pump should have a suitable discharge which it is situated, such as a bore as the bilge main. No more than two pumps are required and in the event of failure, there should be arranged one emergency pump.
- (6) Main engine circulating pumps (with non return valves), should be arranged in machinery space, such that the diameter of the main sea inlet pipe does not apply but direct suction from the sea is acceptable. The equivalent capacity is acceptable.
- (7) Bilge pipes should not be taken directly to tanks. Joints should be fully protected against damage and independent to the bilge system.
- (8) Collision bulkheads should be strengthened by more than 10% with a screw down valve chest.

- side of the collision bulkhead (divided peaks may have two pipes).
- (9) Valves and cocks not forming part of a pipe system are not to be secured to watertight bulkhead. Pipes, cables, etc., passing through such a bulkhead are to be provided with watertight fittings to retain the integrity of the bulkhead. Connections attached to such bulkheads are to be made by screwed or welded studs, not by tap bolts passing through clearance holes.
 - (10) The bilge piping system is to be separate from cargo and oil fuel systems. Spindles to all master valves, bilge injection, etc., should be led above the engine room platform. All valves, extended spindles, etc., to be clearly marked and accessible at all times.
 - (11) Diameter of bilge suction lines in mm to be determined from given empirical formula. No bilge main under 65 mm bore and no branch under 50 mm or need be over 100 mm bore.
 - (12) Bilge valves should be one of the non return type. Valves, blanks, lock ups, etc., must be provided to prevent connection between sea and bilges or bilges and water ballast, etc., at the same time.
 - (13) Emergency bilge pumping systems if provided should be separate from the main system.
 - (14) Bilge pipes to be provided with mud boxes. Suction pipe ends should be enclosed in easily removable strum boxes, the holes through which should be approximately 10 mm diameter and their combined area not less than twice the area of the suction pipe.
 - (15) Sounding pipes where provided are to be as straight as possible, easily accessible, normally provided with closing plugs, machinery space pipes to have self closing cocks.

Note

One explicit rule, covered by the generalisation summary in Rule 1 given above, is considered worth repeating, in full, in view of a recent casualty:

Provision is to be made in every vessel to prevent the flooding of any watertight compartment served by a bilge suction pipe in the event of the pipe being severed or damaged, by collision or grounding, in any other watertight compartment. Where any part of such a pipe is situated nearer to the side of the ship than **1/5th** of the **midship** breadth of the ship measured at the level of the deepest subdivision load water line, or in any duct keel, a

non return valve shall be fitted in the pipe leading to the compartment containing the opening (see Rule 9.28).

Ballast

The only real requirement is that the ballast piping should be so arranged that the possibility of sea or ballast water entering any adjacent compartments. Bilge connections to ballast or sea must be non returnable. Lock up valves or blanks must be provided for pumping out of deep tanks, etc. The piping must be effectively isolated.

Oil Fuel Installations

These rules are somewhat lengthy and will be dealt with in other sections, e.g., boilers, fuel oil systems, etc. However, it is considered worth summarising the main rules regarding instructions to ships. The following present a shortened extract of some of the more important rules previously mentioned.

Instructions

- (1) A plan and description of the arrangement should be clearly displayed.
- (2) Escape of oil heated to or maintained at temperatures dangerous, and may result in explosion.
- (3) After lighting burners, they should be extinguished by means of the appropriate device.
- (4) Cleanliness is essential to safety. Oil and oily substances should be allowed to collect in gutters or on tank tops or deck.
- (5) Before any oil tank which has been cleaned for any purpose the oil should be removed. Oil vapour must also be carefully removed by efficient ventilation. Tests on the removal of oil from bunkers should be made to ensure that no oil or work in them is begun.

Extract

Boiler, settling tank and oil filter tanks should be clean, have no combustible materials, etc., stored in them. Oil tanks, oil pumps, etc., should be located in a practicable and should be provided with

cocks, etc., should be self closing and efficient sounding or indicating devices provided. Relief valves should be fitted to discharge to an overflow tank fitted with level alarms, filling stations should be isolated, well drained and ventilated. Every oil tank should have at least one air pipe, such air pipe or any overflow pipe system provided (preferably returning to an overflow tank with visual and sight returns) should have an aggregate area at least $1\frac{1}{4}$ times the aggregate area of the filling pipes. All means should be considered to prevent discharge of oil overboard.

Oil pipes and fittings should be of steel, suitably hydraulically tested. Oil units should be in duplicate and any oil pump should be isolated to the oil system only, provided with relief preferably back to the suction side, capable of being shut down from a remote control position, and provided with shut off isolating valves. Heating coil drains should be returned via an observation tank. Valves or cocks fitted to tanks in the machinery and boiler spaces should be capable of being operated from a remote position above the bulkhead deck. Ample ventilation and clearance spaces for circulation should be provided and no artificial type lights capable of igniting oil vapour are allowed. Ventilator dampers, etc., must have reliable operating gear clearly marked for shut and open positions.

Note

Essential features are care and cleanliness together with reliable overflow and isolating equipment. Particular care is advised during bunkering to avoid overflows (gravitating is always a safer process where practicable) and during tank cleaning, venting or inspection periods.

TEST EXA

Class 3

1. Make a diagrammatic sketch itemising the main components.
2. Describe the passage of waste water.
3. Describe an oily-water separator and check that it was working correctly.

TEST EXAMPLES 9

Class 2

1. Sketch and describe a plate type heat exchanger.
State one advantage and one disadvantage of this design compared to the tubular type;
2. Sketch and describe a pump other than the reciprocating or centrifugal type. Explain how it works. State with reasons, the duty for which it is most suited.
3. Sketch and describe a centrifugal bilge pump.
Explain the need for a priming pump.
Give one advantage and one disadvantage of the centrifugal pump compared to the direct acting pump for bilge duties.
4. Sketch the construction of an oily water separator.
Explain how it functions in service.
State the purpose and operation of all alarms or safety devices fitted to the separator.
5. Make a line diagram of a bilge pumping system for a dry cargo ship.
Indicate the type and position of each valve fitted.
In view of the possibility of collision, explain how the integrity of the bilge pumping system is ensured as far as possible.

Class 1

1. Describe with a line diagram a fresh water system incorporating a drop in pressure pump.
Describe how a drop in pressure pump.
State two advantages of a drop in pressure head system.
2. Sketch a tubular oil cooler.
 - (a) differential expansion is accommodated,
 - (b) corrosion is controlled,
 - (c) automatic control is effected.
State how by constructing the tube bundle the tube failure can be minimised.
3. Give a simple explanation of cavitation in rotodynamic pumps.
Describe with sketches a rotodynamic pump.
State the purpose of such pumps in current shipboard applications.
4. Describe with sketches an incorporating plate type heat exchanger.
Explain the purpose of such heat exchangers achieved.
5. Describe with sketches an air gap pump.
Explain its principle of operation.
State what important disadvantage it possesses compared with a normal discharge valve.
Explain the effects of an air gap on the performance of a discharge valve.

CHAPTER 10

LUBRICATION AND OIL PURIFICATION

Purification of fuel and lubricating oils on board ship is a widely practised and well known operation. Generally three methods are employed: Gravitation, filtration and centrifugal purification.

For the gravitation method, which is principally used for oil fuels, settling tanks are employed. When the oil is allowed to stand undisturbed in the tank, mediums of higher relative density than the oil gravitate to the bottom of the tank where they are discharged periodically through a manually operated sludge cock. The process of separation in a settling tank can be speeded up to a certain extent by heating the tank contents. If heating of the contents is possible, steam heating coils are generally used, but care must be taken not to heat the oil to too high a temperature. Fig. 10.1 shows a settling tank with the usual fittings provided.

In an examination these fittings should be itemised and a brief description of the function of each should be given thus:

Sludge valve or cock. Used for draining water and sludge from bottom of tank. It must be self-closing since if it were not, and it was left unattended, a dangerous situation could arise whereby the tank content could be drained into the oily bilge or sludge tank.

Dumping valve. This fitting can be used in the event of fire to dump the oil from an elevated settling tank to a double bottom tank which could possibly be below the level of the fire.

Exhaust steam from heating coils would be led to a steam trap, which ensures maximum utilisation of the heat content in the steam, then to an observation tank for oil detection.

Overflow pipe, etc. (The remainder should be completed in a similar way as an exercise by the student.)

Filtration of lubrication and particles of material such as small pieces of metal, etc., which and engines, from the oils. Filter from the oils, however, by pumping vacuum chamber, vaporisation water repellent and water coalescer which will cause separation of v

Many different types of filters being the wire mesh type which of oil piping, which enables the use without shutting down the complex nature can be cleaned fitted singly in the oil piping sys

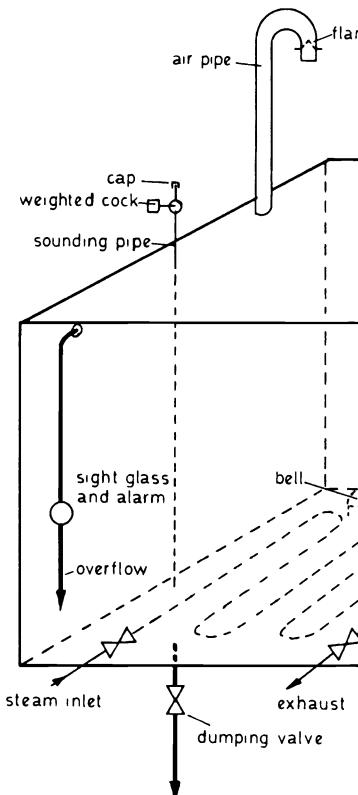


Fig.

FILTERS

Wire gauze type filters are made with coarse or fine mesh depending upon the positioning of the filter unit in the oil system. An example of this are the hot and cold oil filters fitted in oil burning and pumping installations, the coarse mesh suction filters are used for cold oil and the fine mesh discharge filters are used for the heated oil. The wire mesh type filter however is rarely made to filter out particles below 125 microns in size. If finer filtration is required, other types of filter unit are used, one such filter unit is the well known Auto-Klean strainer.

Auto-Klean Strainer (Fig. 10.2)

This is an improvement on the wire gauze strainer. It can be cleaned whilst in operation and it can filter out particles down to 25 microns in size. The dirty oil passes between a series of thin metal discs mounted upon a square central spindle. Between the discs are thin metal star shaped spacing washers of slightly smaller overall diameter than the discs. Cleaning blades, fitted to a square stationary spindle and the same thickness as the washers are between each pair of discs. As the oil passes between the discs, solid matter of sizes larger than the space between the discs remains upon the periphery of the disc stack.

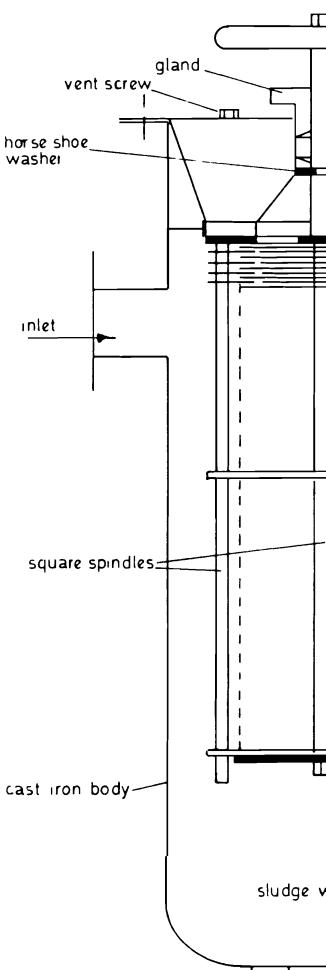
The filter is cleaned by rotating the central spindle, this rotates the disc stack and the stationary cleaning blades scrape off the filtered solids which then settle to the bottom of the filter unit. Periodically the flow of oil through the filter unit is interrupted and the sludge well is cleaned out. To facilitate this the filters are generally fitted in pairs.

Pressure gauges are fitted before and after the filter unit, these give indication of the condition of the filter.

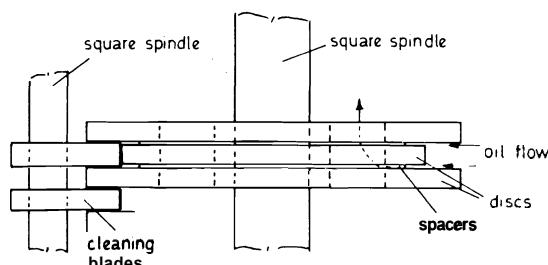
Fig. 10.2 illustrates an Auto-Klean filter unit of the type capable of filtering out particles down to 200 microns in size, this type can also be made to filter particles of under 75 microns, but the mechanical strength of the cleaning blades will be low. A more recent type of Auto-Klean strainer has the modified disc stack and cleaning blade arrangement shown in Fig. 10.3. With this modified disc stack particles of under 25 microns in size can be filtered out without impairing the mechanical strength of the cleaning blades.

Streamline Lubricating Oil Filter

The streamline filter consists of a two compartment pressure vessel containing a number of cylindrical filter cartridges. Each



AUTO-KLEAN
Fig.



MODIFIED DISC STACK (Auto-Klean)
Fig. 10.3

cartridge is made up of a large number of thin annular discs threaded on to an X or Y shaped section rod and held in longitudinal compression. The discs can be made of a wide variety of materials, for lubricating oil special paper discs are generally used. The oil can flow from the dirty to the clean side of the filter via the small spaces between the compressed discs then up the spaces formed by the hole in the disc and the rod. In this way the dirt is left behind on the periphery of the disc stack and it is claimed that particles of the order of 1 micron can be filtered out.

For cleaning, compressed air is generally used, by closing A and B, and opening D and C reversal of flow results (see Fig. 10.4).

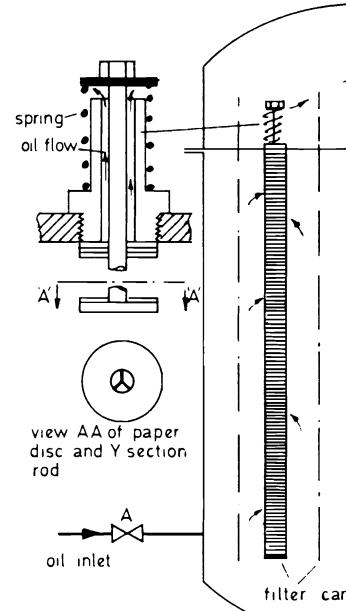
Filter Coalescers

These have been designed to replace the centrifugal method of particulate and water removal from fuel and lubricating oils.

The unit consists of some form of pre-filter for particulate removal followed by a compressed inorganic fibre coalescing unit in which water is collected into larger globules.

Coalescing action is relatively complex but briefly, the molecular attraction between the water droplets and the inorganic fibres is greater than that between the oil and the fibres. When the water globules are large enough they will move with the stream out of the coalescing unit.

Downstream of the coalescing cartridges are P.T.F.E. coated, stainless steel, water repelling screens that act as a final water stripping stage. Water gravitates from them and from the outlet of the coalescer cartridges into the well of the strainer body from where it is periodically removed.



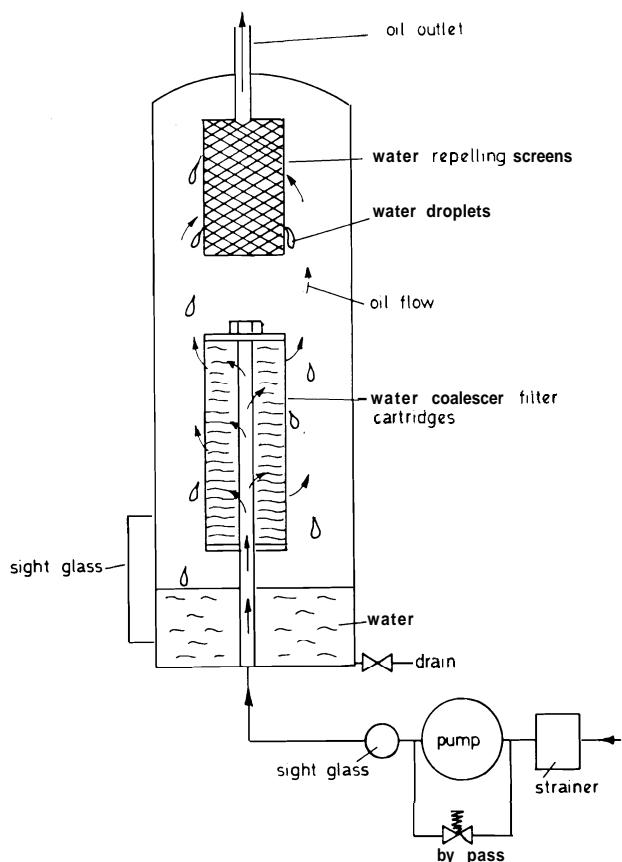
STREAMLINE LUBE
Fig.

In modular form these units incorporate alarms, indicators, water probe heaters to lower the viscosity of the filtration system described above.

Lubricating Oil Filter-Coalescer

Lubricating oil in circulation through turbines, generators, sterntubes etc. carries particles of three microns and larger sizes present in the oil. Fig. 10.5, shows a filter cartridge which remove solid

Lubricating oil is pumped through the filter cartridges which remove solid

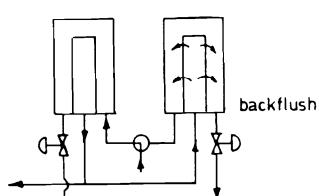
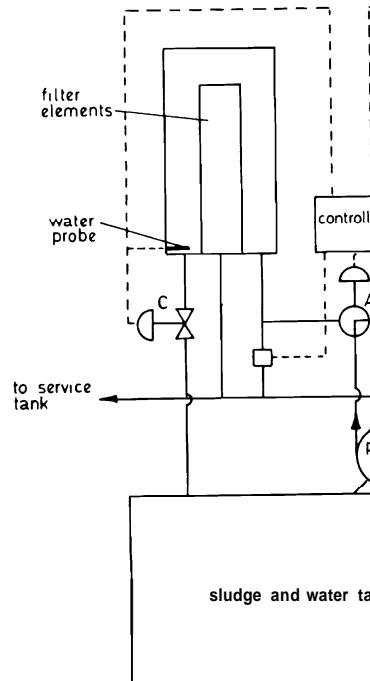


LUBRICATING OIL FILTER-COALESKER
Fig. 10.5

larger droplets) the free water droplets held in suspension in the oil. Most of the water then gravitates to the bottom of the body and the oil with the remaining water droplets passes to the water repelling screens, which permit passage of oil only. Water droplets which collect on the screens eventually settle to the bottom of the body.

To clean the unit, it must first be drained. Then the filter cartridges are renewed, the water repelling screens need not be touched.

A heater would be incorporated in the supply line which would heat the lubricating oil thus assisting separation.



AUTOMATIC OIL
Fig. 10.6

Oil Module (fuel or lubricating oil)

An automatic oil cleaning module comprising duplicated filter assembly, pumps and controls mounted on a **water/sludge** tank which serves as a base, is shown diagrammatically in Fig. 10.6.

In normal operation, dirty oil from the oil settling tank would be pumped through the filter to the service tank. Impurities collect on the outer surfaces of the filter and this results in an increase in pressure differences across the filter. When this pressure difference reaches the preset limit of about **0.4** bar a signal from the differential pressure switch to the controller starts the cleaning procedure. The controller sends signals to valves A and B which change over and open respectively so that the back-flush cleaning of the dirty filter as shown in Fig. 10.6 takes place for about **60** seconds. At the end of the cleaning period valve B closes and the system is back to normal operation.

If water enters the filter body its presence is detected by a water detection probe. A signal from the probe causes the valve B or C to open, depending upon which filter is in use, and the water is discharged into the sludge tank. When the water is completely discharged the valve automatically closes.

Sludge and water in the base tank are automatically located and discharged to a sludge storage tank. The relatively clean oil from the top of the base tank overflows into the settling tank for recycling.

A type of differential pressure device that could be used in the module is shown in Fig. 10.7. Increasing the spring force increases the pressure differential setting at which the plunger will operate a switch for the timed cleaning sequence. The synthetic rubber diaphragms at each end would resist attack from the oil.

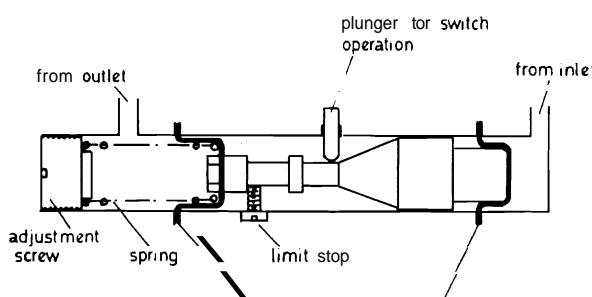


Fig. 10.7

CLARIFICATION

Clarification

The term clarification is used to describe the process of removing solids from a liquid. A centrifuge arrangement for clarifying liquids is shown in Fig. 10.8.

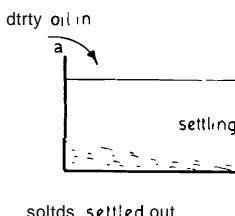


Fig. 10.8

CLARIFICATION

Fig. 10.8 shows clarification of oil. Oil, containing solids, is fed into the centrifuge. The oil flows to (b) the solids precipitate at the bottom of the tank. The heavier solids settle to the bottom, while the lighter solids which are carried along by the oil deposit nearer to (b).

A similar process takes place in a settling tank. Oil is fed into the tank and rotated by a pump. The heavier solids settle to the bottom of the tank, while the lighter solids deposit nearer to the top.

90° to give the lower figure in the diagram. Here, oil is fed in at (a) and is thrown by centrifugal force to the side of the rotating bowl. Solids present in the oil pass through the oil to the bowl side and accumulate there, the heavier solids depositing near the bottom of the bowl and the lighter solids towards the top. The similarity of the two methods of clarification, gravity and centrifugal, is self evident from the diagram.

Separation

The term separation is used to describe the separation of two liquids. In marine work these are usually oil and water. A centrifuge arranged for the separation and continuous discharge of two liquids is called a centrifugal separator.

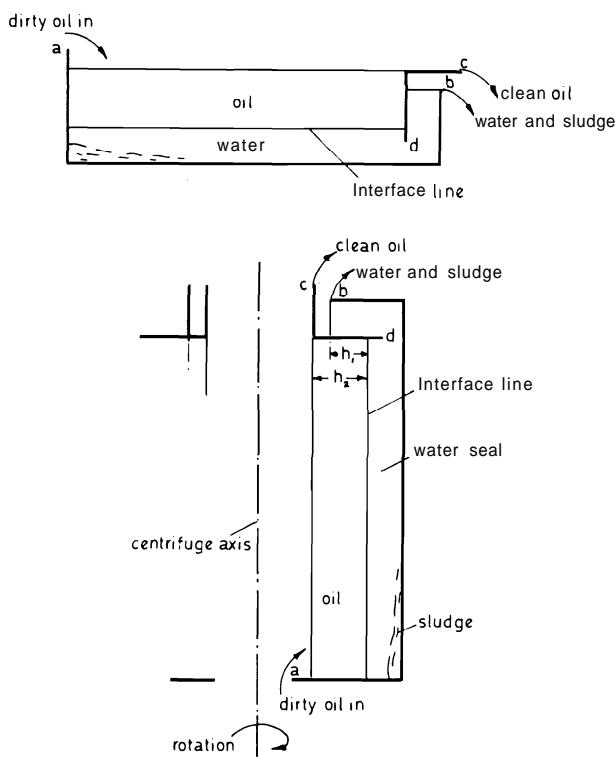


Fig. 10.9

In a purifier arranged to operate as a centrifugal separator any solids which are present will deposit upon the side of the bowl, hence clarification takes place at the same time as separation. In

order for a purifier to operate as a seal is necessary and this operates

Using the gravitation analogy the tank at (a) until the level (b) is reached. This will then take place at (b) and when the tank is stopped, as any additional water is added, the water level of the water above (b). Next, when the tank is rotated at (a) and the oil will displace some amount displaced depending upon the density of the oil. If overflow of oil takes place at (b), the water present in the oil will settle to form an equal amount of water at (b), forming the seal remains constant. The water is supplied to the tank of sufficient pressure to keep the oil-water interface level (b). The oil is then discharged at (b) and no oil will be lost, this is called loss of seal.

Rotating the settling tank and taking the lower figure in the diagram, it is seen that taking place in a centrifugal separator is analogous to that of gravitation. Water is first delivered to the centrifuge. When the water takes place at (b) the water seal is formed. Oil is delivered at (a), some of the oil will be separated and water are being separately separated. The centrifugal separator is operating.

The water dam ring (or screws) at (b) and the choice of dam ring size so that the interface is as near as possible to the water seal at (b). This ensures as much oil as possible is separated. The oil will be in the separator as long as practicable, enabling the centrifugal separator to operate.

The equilibrium equation for the water seal is:

Where h_1 is the head of water,
Where h_2 is the head of oil.

When oil of high relative density is used in a centrifugal separator the dam ring must be made smaller to bring (b) closer to the axis of rotation without altering h_2 .

If oil of low relative density is to be passed through, the dam ring would have to be such that (b) is moved away from the axis of rotation reducing h_1 without altering h_2 .

Control of the oil-water interface line, or equilibrium line, can be achieved in some purifiers by variation of back pressure, hence no dam ring would be required.

CENTRIFUGES

Two basic types of oil centrifuges are in marine use, the large diameter bowl type fitted with discs and the tubular bowl type without discs. Both types of centrifuge give good separation and clarification.

Action of Particles in a Disc Type Centrifuge

If oil flows in a streamline condition between two parallel plates its velocity varies between zero where it is in contact with the plate, to a maximum at the mid-point between the plates. Fig. 10.10 shows such a velocity variation.

Oil flows between two discs in a centrifuge is radially inward and up towards the clean oil outlet. Any particles in the oil will follow this general flow, but will also be acted upon by a radially outward centrifugal force. The magnitude of the force depends upon the mass of the particle, the speed squared and the radius at which the particle finds itself.

By referring to Fig. 10.10 it will be seen that any particles finding their way to the underside of a disc enter a region of zero velocity and they can then move, due to centrifugal force, down the underside of the disc and eventually into the sludge space of the bowl.

The important path taken by particles is that of the limit size particle, which is the smallest to be removed in the centrifuge. Particles smaller than this pass out with the clean oil. Some of the factors affecting the limit size particle would be:

1. Viscosity of the oil in the centrifuge, the higher its value the greater will be the viscous drag on the particles. Hence the oil should be pre-heated to as high a temperature as practicable.
2. Disc spacing, diameter and inclination to the vertical.
3. Speed of rotation of the purifier.
4. Throughput. If this is low the limit size particle will be small and the oil discharged cleaner. If throughput is great the limit size particle will be large. However, if the oil contains

appreciable quantities of water it is necessary to remove and this form of contactor is operating at a high throughput rate.

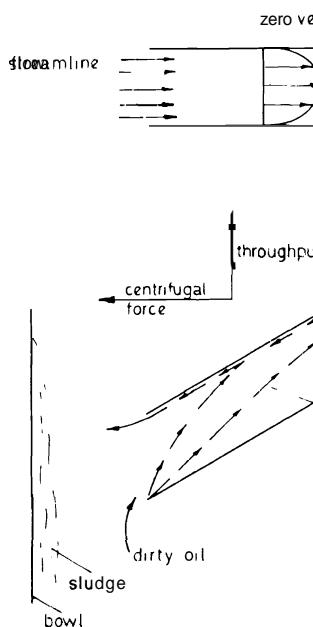


Fig. 10.10

De Laval Bowl Type Centrifuge

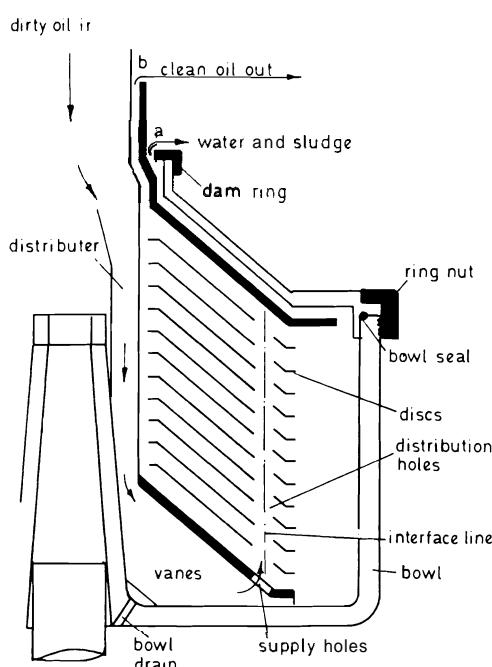
The stainless steel bowl of up to 10 ft diameter is supported on a tapered spindle, the lower part of which passes over a sleeve which passes over a bearing. The upper part of the spindle carries two ball races which support the lower bearing. These bearings, the lower being a deep groove bearing, give a high degree of reliability.

A constant speed electric motor drives the spindle through the oil suction and discharge pump, the latter being a worm drive for the centrifuge. The unit is designed for operating conditions at 5,000 rpm. The bowl has a conical shape. This gives a lower centrifugal force than found in the tubular bowl type, but the lower centrifugal settling factor is compensated for by the fact that the bowl is carried by splines on the spindle, so that the settling distance is reduced.

To operate the centrifuge as a purifier, it is first brought up to operating speed, supplied with fresh water to form the water seal and then the oil to be purified is delivered to the distributor by the inlet pump.

As the oil passes down the distributor it is rapidly brought up to the rotational speed of the purifier by the radial vanes provided for this purpose. The oil passes from the distributor through the space between the bottom plate and bowl to the supply holes.

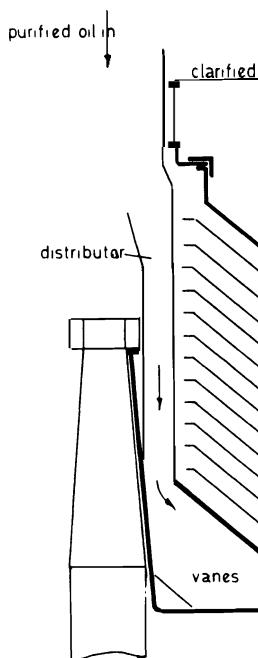
From the supply holes the oil is fed to the spaces between discs through the distribution holes in the discs. Separation and clarification takes place between the discs, water and sludge moving radially outwards pass along the under surface of the discs and the purified oil moving radially inwards passes over the upper surface of the discs. Water and sludge are eventually discharged at (a) and the purified oil at (b). (See Fig. 10.11)



PURIFIER
Fig. 10.11

If the centrifuge is to be operated provided and the bottom plate distribution holes. Discharge of (b), sludge and solids collect upon no water seal in a clarifier more oil, hence there will be available force due to the increased radii.

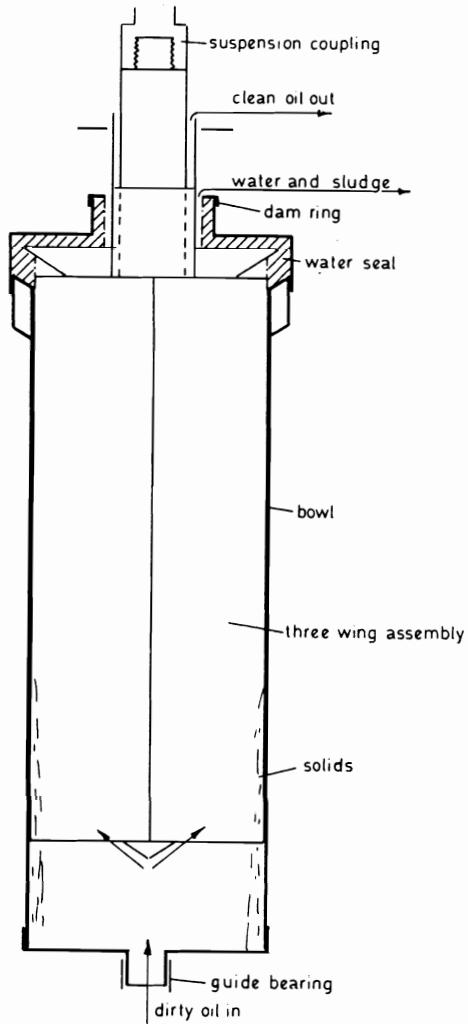
Fig. 10.12 shows a centrifuge degree of diagrammatic simplicity purifier should be noted by the examination sketching it is re should be drawn in a similar dia



CLAR.
Fig. 10.12

Sharples Super-centrifuge

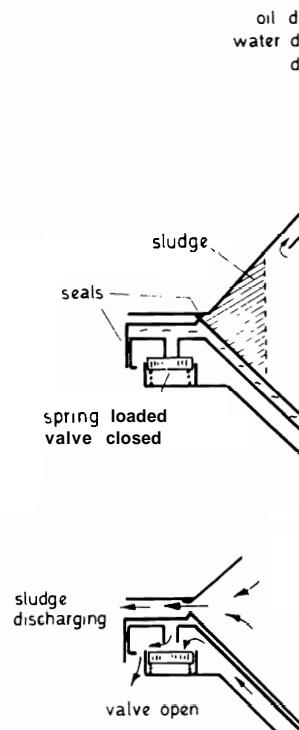
Fig. 10.13 illustrates diagrammatically a super-centrifuge with 'one-pass' bowl, clarifier series combination used for separating water from oils. This purifier can also be used for separating lubricating and diesel oils.



SUPER CENTRIFUGE
Fig. 10.13

It consists of a stainless steel bowl of 1200 mm diameter and 760 mm long supported by a plain bearing. This allows the unit to take up its own alignment.

An electric motor mounted on a separate framework drives the bowl through a belt. The bowl rotates at high speed under operating conditions. Suction and discharge pumps can be fitted, if required. The unit is a self-purifier and independent unit.



SELF-CLEANING
Fig. 10.14

A three wing assembly made of tinned or stainless steel, is fitted inside the bowl and is retained in position by spring clips. This assembly brings the oil rapidly up to bowl speed, thus ensuring that the oil is subjected to the maximum possible centrifugal settling force that the purifier is capable of producing.

At the top of the bowl a small annular space is provided and this space contains the water seal. By having a small water seal, all of the bowl space is available for the oil. This means that purification will be improved in this type of purifier compared with the type that has a water seal throughout the length of the bowl.

Self-Cleaning Purifier

Fig. 10.14, shows diagrammatically the method of sealing and sludge ejection for a self-cleaning purifier.

Bowl sections A, B and C, are all keyed to the central drive spindle, B and C, are secured so that they cannot move vertically whereas A is free.

The purifier is first brought up to operating speed and water is then supplied to space D through supply port G. Due to centrifugal force the water pressure in space D moves A vertically to form a seal at the bowl periphery. Water and then oil would next be supplied to the purifier in the usual way.

When the purifier requires to be cleared of sludge the oil supply is shut off and water supply is changed over from G to F supply port. The hydraulic pressure created in space E is sufficient to open the spring-loaded valves and the water from space D will—together with water from space E—be discharged and A will fall, the bowl seal will now be broken and the sludge ejection will take place.

CENTRIFUGAL PURIFICATION

Centrifugal Purification of Fuel Oils

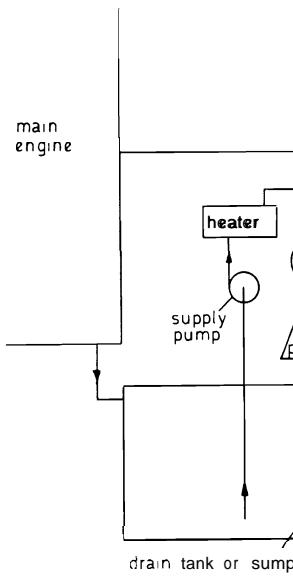
For the purification of diesel fuel oil the single stage process is normally used. The diesel oil is delivered to a centrifugal purifier through a heater unit. If the oil is of low viscosity it may be purified efficiently without preheating. Oils of medium or high viscosity should be heated before purification in order to reduce their viscosity, this gives better clarification by reducing the viscous drag upon solid particles moving through the oil.

Purifier capacity depends upon purification temperature, type of purification required. For diesel 10,000 kW a purifier having a capacity of 8 litres per hour would be used, with a days supply of fuel in 8

For the purification of residual oil is commonly used. The residual oil is heated to about 50°C to 60°C and is drawn by an inlet pump. The inlet pump delivers the oil to a controlled heater which raises the temperature and thence to the centrifugal purifier. The purified oil is then transferred to a centrifugal clarifier and pump. After clarification the oil is then transferred to a daily service tank.

Centrifugal Purification of Lubricating Oil Systems

Lubricating oil purifiers for large plants are normally arranged in a continuous bypass system. In this system oil is taken from the main engine or drain tank by the purifier



CONTINUOUS BYPASS SYSTEM
Fig. 10.14

heater to the purifier, then discharged after purification by the purifier discharge pump to the engine sump or main lubricating pump suction.

The system layout may vary slightly depending upon the engine arrangement, etc., but undoubtedly the best possible arrangement for the continuous bypass purification of lubricating oil is to take oil for the purifier from a point in the lubrication plant where the oil has passed through the engine, had time to settle, and therefore should be at its dirtiest. Then deliver the purified oil adjacent to the suction for the main lubricating oil pump. Fig. 10.15 illustrates a diagrammatic arrangement of the system.

Generally the layout of piping, tanks, etc., for the purifier permits operation on the batch system of purification if desired. In the batch system, the contents of the engine drain tank or sump would be discharged to a dirty oil tank and the drain tank or sump would be replenished with clean or new oil. The lubricating oil in the dirty oil tank can then be purified at leisure.

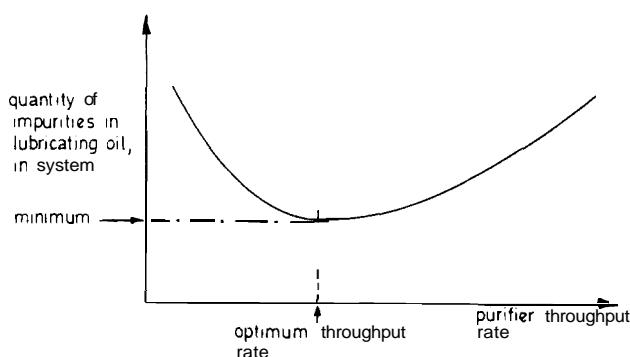


Fig. 10.16

Fig. 10.16, shows the variation of throughput rate of lubricating oil continuously bypassed to the purifier against the quantity of impurities in the system. The optimum purifier throughput rate is approximately one third of the maximum purifier throughput rate and it should be capable of dealing with the system oil content about twice every 24 hours. Maximum throughput rate would be used in the event of massive water contamination of the lubricating oil.

Under normal operation it is down the main engine the pur about 12 hours in order to vapours condensing as the eng

Water Wash

A feed pipe capable of sup stream, intermittently or con fitted to the purifier oil inlet approximately the same tempe out some of the lighter dirt fro any acids.

In I.C. engines, the lubricati with sulphur combustion prod water which is present in th Sulphuric acid can corrode cyl turbine installations, the lubri may contain harmful acids wh formed in both cases are mo lubricating oil, hence if a hot purifier it has the effect of flu oil and reducing risk of corro corroded by these acids and t since the water seal is continuou

Detergent Oils

If it is considered neces lubricating oil the wash water s total oil flow otherwise excessiv will occur, in addition, emuls

Steam Jet

By blowing steam into I.C. e purification, coagulation of the enables the purifier to cen effectively. This steam jet arra the preheating system for the l the oil heater provided for tha

Manufacture of Lubricating O

Lubricating oil base stock distillation of crude oil in vacu

should refer to chapter two for details.

Crude oils are roughly classified into Paraffin base, which has a high lubricating oil content with a high pour point and high viscosity index and Asphalt base, which has a low lubricating oil content with a low pour point and low viscosity index. Lubricating oils refined from these bases would be subjected to various treatments to improve their properties, and they would be blended to produce a wide range of lubricating oils.

Compound Oil

From 5% to 25% of a non-mineral animal or vegetable oil may be added to a mineral (or mineral blend) oil to produce a compounded oil.

Oils which have to lubricate in the presence of water or steam are usually compounds of fatty animal oil and mineral oil, they tend to form a stable emulsion which adheres strongly to the metal surfaces. Fatty oils have a high load carrying capacity and if sulphurised they have extreme pressure (EP) property; used for cutting oils and running in of gearing.

It must be remembered that British Standards recommend that mineral oil only should be used for the lubrication of steam machinery as fatty oils contain acids which can cause corrosion in feed systems and boilers.

Lubricating Oil Additives

These are chemical compounds which are added for various reasons, mainly they would be added to give improved protection to the machinery and increased life to the oil by (a) giving the oil properties it does not have (b) replacing desirable properties that may have been removed during refining and improving those naturally found in the oil.

Among the additives used could be:

1. Anti-oxidant

Reduces oxidation rate of the oil. Oxidation rate doubles for approximately every 7°C rise in temperature and at temperatures above 80°C approximately oxidation rapidly reduces the life of the oil. Viscosity usually increases due to oxidation products and some of the products can help to stabilise foam, thereby preventing the formation of a good hydrodynamic layer of lubricant between the surfaces in a bearing and reducing the load carrying capacity. Oxidation products cause lacquering on hot metal surfaces, they form sludge and possibly organic acids which can corrode bearings.

2. Corrosion Inhibitor

An alkaline additive is used to oil and in the case of cylinder neutralise sulphuric acids formed.

The additive will increase the prevent rusting of steel and corrosion.

3. Detergents

These keep metal surface degradation products and coating polar nature, hindering the formation of neutralise acids.

4. Dispersants

These are high molecular weight polymers which stick to possible deposit making them form a suspension by preventing small particles from settling. At low temperatures they are more effective.

5. Pour Point Depressant

Added to keep oil fluid at lower temperatures it coats wax crystals as they form, preventing the formation of large ice crystals.

6. Anti-foaming Additive

When air is entrained into the oil it forms a supply head or return lines not resulting in a result which can lead to break down of bearings.

An anti-foam or defoamant, a surfactant, is soluble in water, is insoluble in the oil and it may in time become soluble in the oil.

7. Viscosity Index Improver

This is added to help maintain constant viscosity with temperature variation.

8. Oilyness and Extreme Pressure

These reduce friction and wear with the metal reaching welding temperatures. The lower shear strength than the normal shear strength of the metal is important during the running in period.

Other additives could include agents, tackiness agents and metal deactivators.

Lubrication Fundamentals

A lubricant will reduce friction by keeping surfaces clean by carrying away dirt. A lubricant will also act as a seal to keep out dirt. A lubricant will also act as a seal to keep out dirt.

generated in bearings and gears, etc., preventing overheating seizure and possible breakdown.

Bearing Lubrication

The addition of the slightest trace of lubricant to a bearing modifies the friction force appreciably. The two most important properties of a lubricant would be oiliness and viscosity. Oiliness is a form of bond between molecules of lubricant and material surface in which the lubricant is adsorbed by the material. The adsorbed film is very thin and once formed is very difficult to remove, which is most advantageous, in this respect colloidal suspension graphite is a very successful additive. If a layer of finite thickness lubricant exists without material contact, then friction is determined by viscosity, if the layer is only a few molecules thick then oiliness is the main factor. Viscosity is for liquids virtually as coefficient of friction is for solids.

$$F = \eta A \frac{dv}{dy}$$

where F is the viscous force required to move one plate over another with a velocity dv when the area of the plate is A , thickness of lubricant between surfaces dy , η is viscosity coefficient.

Boundary friction is the condition between contact high spots (of a microscopic nature) while the low areas between are separated by a finite lubricant layer. In this state the thickness of the oil film is so small that oiliness becomes the predominant factor. This lubrication condition could be said to exist in some top end bearings, guides, etc.

Film lubrication, or hydrodynamic lubrication, is the condition whereby the bearing surfaces are completely separated by an oil layer. The load is taken completely by the oil film, the film thickness is greater at inlet (initial point in direction of rotation) than at outlet, the pressure at inlet increases quickly, remains fairly steady having a maximum value a little to the outlet side of bearing centre line, and then decreases quickly to zero at outlet. This form of lubrication is ideal but can only be satisfied in certain types of bearing, simple examples such as high speed journal bearings, as turbine bearings, or plane surfaces that can pivot to allow wedge oil film to allow for load, speed, viscosity, etc., effects, as in Michell bearings.

Using the variables of oil viscosity, relative speed of the bearing surfaces and pressure, Fig. 10.17 shows how the friction and form of lubrication alters in a journal bearing.

LUBRICATION AND

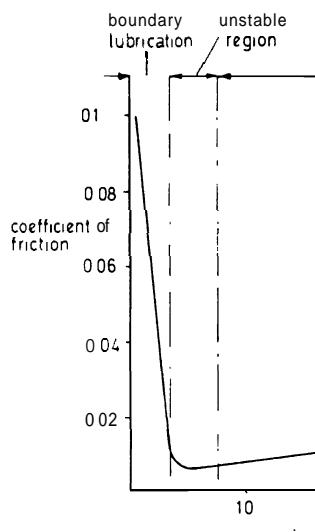


DIAGRAM FOR A JOURNAL BEARING
Fig. 10.17

Factors Affecting Hydrodynamic Lubrication

1. Viscosity of the Lubricant

The higher the viscosity the better the hydrodynamic lubrication. Obviously water or grease—and the like—do not have viscosity. Temperature can be increased to facilitate circulation to remove the heat generated by friction. This can be caused by clearances being too small or by insufficient supply of oil.

2. Relative Speed of the Surfaces

The higher the relative speed the better the hydrodynamic lubrication.

Increasing a journal or crankshaft speed will increase the same rotational speed as before.

In reciprocating engines the crosshead and guide-shoe means to move the piston units towards boundary lubrication. The crosshead lubrication may be a

3. Bearing Clearance

If this is too large the bearing 'knocks'. This impulsive loading increases pressure between the surfaces and can cause boundary lubrication. If the clearance is too small, overheating of the oil, boundary lubrication and possible seizure could result.

4. Pressure, i.e. Bearing Load per Unit Area

If this is high it can lead to boundary lubrication. If peak loads are high in the cylinder of a diesel, due to incorrect fuel injection timing or other reason, bearing pressure will increase.

Journal Bearings

Consider Fig. 10.18 in which the amount of clearance and pin shift movement have been much exaggerated for clarity. When

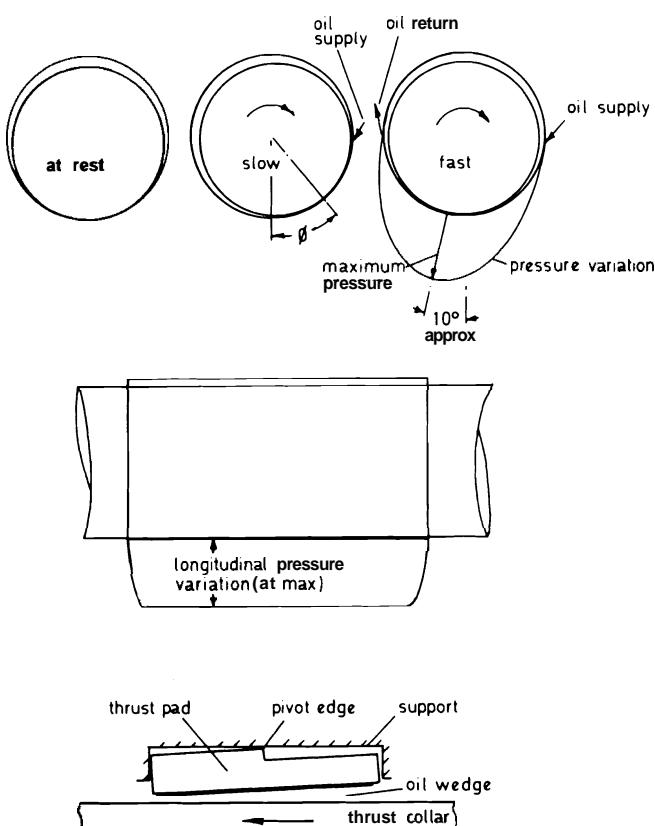


Fig. 10.18

movement first begins the pin **against** the direction of rotation. A layer of lubricant tends to separate the surfaces, film lubrication exists. As speed increases the pin by viscous action until the pin separates the surfaces, the line of **direction** of rotation, film lubrication pressure circumferentially and load.

Michell Bearings

The bearing surface is divided into two semi-circular shaped pads extending part or all the way around the bearing principle being utilised in tunnel bores.

The pads are prevented from moving laterally and are free to tilt and incline to the direction of rotation. This is a self adjusting oil film wedge guide system. When the film fully carries the load and a coefficient of friction value is obtained.

Certain definitions and general principles of lubrication

Scuffing

Breakdown of the oil film resulting in instantaneous microscopic tack marks on the bearing surfaces. Further movement causes the surfaces to stick together. The resultant condition is known as scuffing. It is often found when the lubrication film fails, for example on turbine gear teeth and shafts.

Extreme Pressure Lubricant

Special additives to the oil to withstand extreme pressure and severe load conditions and when used in conjunction with Molybdenum disulphide (moly) sulphurized oil based lubricants are used to prevent scuffing.

Pitting

More a fatigue or a corrosion process than a wear process. The result of too high contact pressure on the bearing contact surfaces.

Emulsion

Oil which is contaminated or emulsified with water does not separate easily from water and may remain in a whole or in part. Emulsification of oil with water results in sludge at an increasing rate, which may eventually clog the bearing.

accretion of resins and asphaltenes. The oil should have a good demulsibility when new and should retain this in service.

Oxidation

A bearing oil subject to oxidation due to a high 'heat load' on the oil in circulation forms products in the oil which include polar compounds, for example the fatty acids such as oleic in which the acidic group is polar. Severe shaft and bearing corrosion can result. Polar substances have a molecular structure such that one part of the molecule is electrically negative with respect to the other part. This polar form tends to disperse one fluid in the other and stabilise the emulsion and tends to favour orientation at interfaces. Oxidation and corrosion products such as oxides of iron etc., stabilise emulsions. Anti-oxidation additives or inhibitors restrict polar molecule formation. Pure mineral oils normally have a high resistance to oxidation.

Typical Bearing Pressures

Crankpin bearings	91 bar (max)
Top end bearings	138 bar (max)
Guide shoes	5 bar (max)
Michell thrust bearing	30 bar (max)

Note that fluid film lubrication applies for most bearings of high speed engines but a guide shoe is a case of boundary lubrication.

Lacquering

Oxidation and corrosion products plus contamination products lead to deposit. On high temperature regions hard deposits form thin lacquer layers on pistons or heavier deposits for example on upper piston ring grooves of I.C. engines. Lacquer varnishes also form on piston skirts. On cooler surfaces sludge of a softer nature is more liable to be deposited.

Shipboard Lubricating Oil Tests

Qualitative oil tests carried out on board ship do not give a complete and accurate picture of the condition of the oil, this could only be obtained in a laboratory. However, they do give good enough indication of the condition of the oil to enable the user to decide when the oil should be replaced, or if some alteration in the cleaning procedure is considered necessary. Tests for alkalinity (or acidity), dispersiveness, contamination, water and viscosity are usual.

Samples of oil for analysis should be taken from the supply line just before entry to the engine. The condition of the oil being supplied is of greatest importance.

Alkalinity Test

A drop of indicator solution is placed on the oil sample; this is followed by a drop of saturated sodium hydroxide. If the drop of absorbed indicator remains colourless, the area surrounding the oil spot is alkaline; if yellow/green-neutral.

Dispersiveness, Contamination

A drop of oil is placed on the surface of water. The colour and distribution of colour indicates the oil condition. An irregular shape indicates dispersiveness.

A uniform distribution of colour indicates dispersiveness. If they are concave, dispersiveness is poor. If they are convex, heavy contamination is the cause.

Viscosity Test

Four equal sized drops of oil, one unused, one with viscosity higher than the unused oil, one lower than the unused oil are placed on an aluminium plate.

When sufficient time has elapsed at a constant temperature the plate is inclined at 45°. If one of the oils has run down above the horizontal, it is contaminated.

By comparing the distances travelled by each oil with the three reference oils an estimate of viscosity is made. Obviously, if the distances travelled by all four oils of the same grade are equal there is no contamination.

If the viscosity is reduced the oil will penetrate distillate fuel. Heavy contamination would cause the viscosity to drop by 30% from initial viscosity after 10 minutes of renewed.

A simple viscosity test of a ship's oil is known as the 'Mobil Floss' test. Used and unused oils of the same viscosity capacity reservoirs are filled with

reach room temperature, then the device is tilted from the horizontal and the oils flow down parallel channels. When the reference oil reaches a reference mark, the device is quickly returned to the horizontal and the distance travelled by the used oil in comparison to the unused oil gives a measure of viscosity.

Crackle Test for Water in Oil

If a sample of oil in a test tube is heated, any water droplets in the sample will cause a crackling noise due to the formation of steam bubbles—this test gives indication of small amounts of water being present. A simple settling test would be sufficient to detect large quantities of water in the oil.

Corrosion of White Metal Bearings

White metals are tin based, *i.e.* they have a larger proportion of tin in the alloy than any other metal. A typical composition could be **86%** tin, **8.5%** antimony, **5.5%** copper.

In the presence of an electrolyte corrosion of the tin can occur forming extremely hard, brittle, stannous and stannic oxides (mainly stannic oxide SnO_2). These oxides are usually in the form of a grey to grey-black coloured surface layer on the white metal, either in local patches or completely covering the bearing. The hardness of this brittle oxide layer could be as high as twice that of steel and if it became detached, possibly due to fatigue failure, serious damage to bearing and journal surfaces could occur.

The formation of the oxide layer is accompanied by an upward growth from the white metal, which can considerably reduce clearance and could lead to overheating and seizure etc.

Factors which appear to contribute towards the formation of the tin oxides are:

1. Boundary lubrication, *e.g.* starting conditions.
2. Surface discontinuities.
3. Concentration of electrolyte, *e.g.* fresh or salt water or other contamination.
4. Oil temperature.
5. Stresses in the bearing metal.

Additives to the lubricating oil seem to offer some degree of protection, as does centrifuging and water washing of the oil.

Microbial degradation of lubricating oil

Bacterial attack of diesel engine lubricating oils, crankcase and cylinder, generally resulting in a smelly (not always)

emulsion has occurred with crankshafts, cylinders and pistons.

This problem is still under many discussions in technical circles.

Certain similar points emerge:

1. Infections have usually taken place in the oil — could even occur after sterilisation.
2. Evidence suggests that the bacteria produce organic acids.
3. Aerobic and/or anaerobic bacteria.
4. Iron oxides in suspension, probably produced by the bacteria, to produce a tight emulsion in the oil which cannot be removed by centrifuging.
5. Corrosion of the system can produce a fine golden brown film on steel parts.
6. Corrosion of the system can produce a fine golden brown film on steel parts.
7. Corrosion of the system can produce a fine golden brown film on steel parts.
8. Corrosion of the system can produce a fine golden brown film on steel parts.

Remedy and prevention

1. Burn oil (extreme case), clean the system.
2. If oil is just beginning to show signs of infection, heat it in a tank for about two hours to sterilise.
3. Prevent water entry into the system.
4. Keep system and engine room tanks dry, tank tops and bilges, etc.
5. Treat P&J water with biocides.
6. Use P&J water additives with (Nitrogen and Phosphorous are added).
7. Use biocide in the oil.
8. Test lubricating oil and P&J water for the presence of bacteria.

GREASES

What it is

Semi-solid lubricant consisting of a thickening agent and metallic soap with a filler.

Soaps are compounds of a fatty acid with a base such as aluminium—with fatty acids obtained from animal or vegetable fats.

Fillers are lead, zinc, graphite, mica, talc, etc., which enable grease to withstand shock and vibration.

TEST EXAMPLES**What it does**

- (1) Will stay put
- (2) Will lubricate
- (3) Will act as a seal
- (4) Useful for inaccessible parts.

What to use

Calcium soap greases are water resistant and have a melting point of about 95°C and are suitable for low speeds. Sodium soap greases have a high melting point, about 200°C and are suitable for high speeds but emulsify in water. **Aluminium** soap grease has a high load carrying capacity.

Class 3

1. Explain why it is usually better to use lubricating oil and how the oil is used.
2. Apart from providing lubrication, what are the other important functions of oil?
3. If on passage you had reason to suspect that the oil in the main engine was contaminated, what simple checks which would you make to find out about the contamination?

TEST EXAMPLES 10**Class 2**

1. Sketch a self-cleaning filter and describe its operation. Explain the function of magnetic filters. State why magnetic filters frequently complement self-cleaning filters in lubricating oil systems and why centrifuges do not render static filters redundant.
2. With reference to centrifugal separators:
 - (a) differentiate between the purpose and operation of purifiers and clarifiers,
 - (b) explain how these different roles are achieved,
 - (c) describe with sketches a self-cleaning arrangement.
3. Sketch and describe an oil centrifuge. Give a general explanation of the principles involved in the function of a centrifuge. State the adjustments made to the machine between handling oils of different densities.
4. Describe the operation of a differential pressure alarm fitted across an oil filter. Explain how such a device would be tested whilst the filter is in service.
5. Give two reasons why regular laboratory analysis of both main engine and auxiliary engine lubricating oil is desirable. State where and how representative samples of lubricating oil would be obtained from the systems. Describe the simple shipboard tests you could apply to determine:
 - (a) insoluble content,
 - (b) water content,
 - (c) acidity.

Class 1

1. Describe a centrifugal oil purifier. Explain how separation occurs. Should the capacity be increased if the maximum output is desired?
2. Sketch and describe a separator. Explain how separation of dirt and water occurs. What factors increase the efficiency of separation? Comment on the disadvantages of water separators.
3. Discuss the effects of water on lubricating oil. Explain how the presence of water affects oil properties. Explain how water can be separated from oil by centrifugation. Explain how water can be removed from oil by distillation. Explain how water can be removed from oil by adsorption.
4. Sketch and describe three types of oil purifiers used aboard ship. Give reasons for their use and relative positions in the system.
5. Explain the necessity for taking representative samples of lubricating oils and the importance of taking a representative sample for testing. Explain how to take a representative sample for testing. Explain how to take a representative sample for testing. Explain how to take a representative sample for testing.
 - (a) sludge,
 - (b) water,
 - (c) acidity.

State what effect each of these components has on the oil and how it is countered.

CHAPTER 11

INSTRUMENTATION AND CONTROL

For the purposes of this chapter the material will be divided into four sections, namely:

Instruments—detecting elements (sensors) and measuring elements.

Telemetering—remote signal transmission and conversion (transduce).

Control Theory—basic concepts, pneumatic and electronic, of control actions.

Control Systems—application of control loops to marine circuits.

INSTRUMENTS

The range of such equipment is very wide because numerous variables require to be detected and measured. Classification is best made into temperature, pressure, level, flow and 'other' categories.

Temperature Measurement

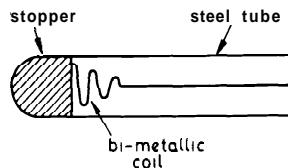
Mechanical thermometry includes liquid in glass, filled system and bi-metallic types.

Mercury can be used within **liquid in glass** thermometers from -38°C to 366°C ; if pressurised and contained in specially resistant glass the temperature range can be increased up to 600°C . Alcohol can be used for low temperature measurement (-80°C to 70°C) and pentane can be used down to -190°C .

Filled system thermometers utilise a bulb sensor, connecting capillary and bourdon tube measure element. The system is filled with a liquid (such as mercury), or a vapour (such as freon), or a gas (such as helium), under pressure.

Bi-metallic Thermometer

The principle of operation depends on the differential expansion of two different materials with respect to each other. Fig. 11.1 illustrates a bi-metallic strip which has a temperature variation and as it rotates shaft and pointer. Involved are the coefficient of expansion and width of a good bi-metallic strip.



BI-METALLIC
Fig.

Electrical thermometry includes thermocouples.

Resistance Thermometer

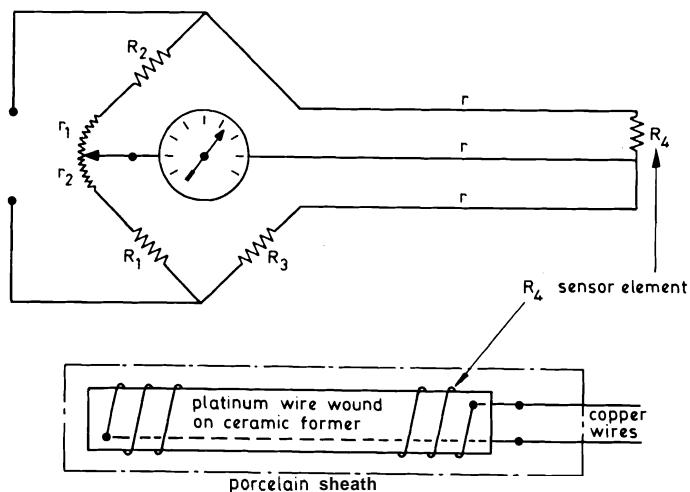
The electrical resistance of a conductor varies with

$$\rho_0 = \rho_0(1 + \alpha\theta)$$

ρ_0 is the specific resistance at 0°C
 ρ_θ is the specific resistance at $\theta^{\circ}\text{C}$
 α is the temperature coefficient of resistance

Fig. 11.2 illustrates a resistor bridge circuit based on the Wheatstone bridge principle. It is used for balance purposes; R_1 , R_2 and r

$$\frac{R_1 + r}{R_2 + r}$$



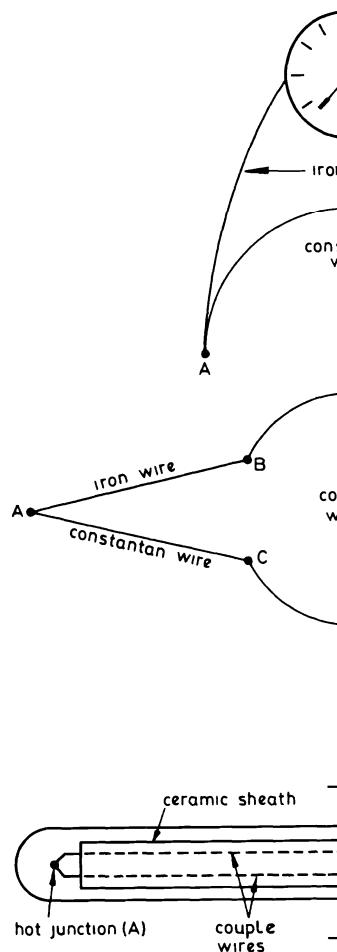
RESISTANCE THERMOMETER

Fig. 11.2

r is the equal resistance of each of the wires. Temperature alteration causes change in resistance and electrical unbalance. By use of the variable resistor $r_1 r_2$ balance can be restored (*i.e.* galvanometer reading returned to zero) and whilst this is being done another pointer can be moved simultaneously and automatically to give the temperature—this is a null balance method. Alternatively, the galvanometer can be calibrated directly in temperature units, so giving the temperature reading directly, in this case $r_1 r_2$ is not required. Platinum is the most suitable sensing wire element but copper and nickel wire are used in the range -100°C to 200°C . Tungsten, molybdenum and tantalum are used for high temperature pyrometry to 1200°C , in protective atmospheres. Constantan can be used for the other resistances, if required, as its resistance varies negligibly with temperature variation. When the resistances utilise semiconducting material, whose resistance decreases with temperature increase, the device is called a thermistor and there are many advantages in its use.

Thermocouple

Whenever the junctions formed of two dissimilar homogeneous materials are exposed to a temperature difference, an emf will be generated which is dependent on that temperature



THERMO-

Fig.

difference, the temperature 1. This causes a current to flow in the two materials, usually measured. Fig. 11.3 (top sketch) shows a thermocouple with one iron and one constantan, the iron wire. If the junction A is hotter than junction B current will flow.

will be greater than the opposing emf at the other junction. The **millivoltmeter** will have calibrations directly in temperature values. A third wire can be introduced (middle sketch), where AB and AC form the couple wires. A will be the hot junction and B with C will form the cold junction. Providing the junctions B and C are maintained at the same temperature, the introduction of the third wire BC will not affect the emf generated. A copper (+) constantan (-) couple is used up to 350°C (constantan 40% Ni 60% Cu). An iron-constantan couple is used up to 850°C and a **chromel** (90% Ni 10% Cr)—**alumel** (94% Ni 2% Al) couple up to 1,200°C. Platinum—platinum plus 10% rhodium couples have been used to 1,400°C.

Pressure Measurement

The manometer is used for low pressures, the pressure gauge for high pressures and the dp cell for differential pressures.

Manometer

Essentially this instrument is a U tube, one limb of which is connected to the system whose pressure is to be measured, the other limb is open to the atmosphere. For low pressures, such as fan discharge pressure, etc. fresh water is used in the tube.

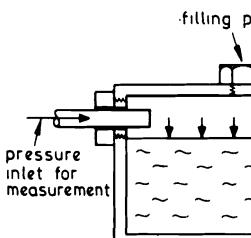
1 m³ of fresh water has a mass of 1 Mg and weighs 9.81 x 10³N.
1 m head of fresh water exerts a pressure of 9.81 x 10³N/m².
1 mm head of fresh water exerts a pressure of 9.81 N/m².

Hence a difference in level of say 20 mm between water levels in the two limbs indicates a pressure of 0.1862 kN/m². For higher pressures, such as scavenging belt air pressure for an I.C. engine, the fluid used would be mercury which has a relative density of 13.6. Hence a level difference of say 20 mm between mercury levels in the two limbs indicates a pressure of 3.532 kN/m².

A well type of mercury manometer is shown in Fig. 11.4. This instrument has a uniform bore glass tube which is small in internal diameter and when mercury is displaced from the well into the tube, the fall in level of the mercury in the well is so small it can be neglected. Pressure reading can be taken directly from the level of mercury in the tube. As volume displaced in the well equals volume displaced in the tube:

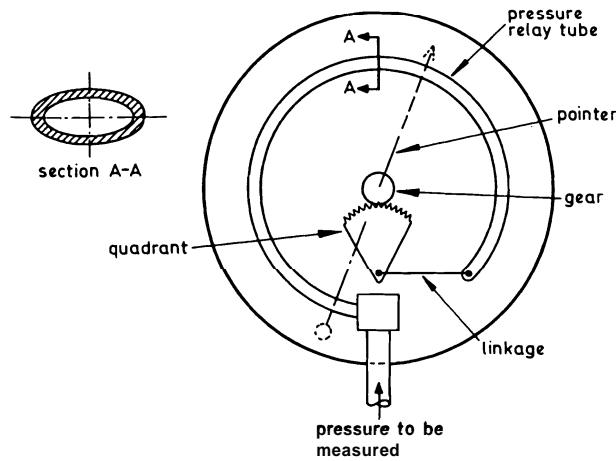
$$A \times x = a \times h$$

and by altering the ratio of the value of h (level variation in tube) (level variation in well), so the factor. The simple mercury barometric manometer of Fig. 11.1 is sealed, with a vacuum space down to Normal atmosphere pressure is 101.3 kN/m², 1.02 bar).



Pressure Gauge (Bourdon)

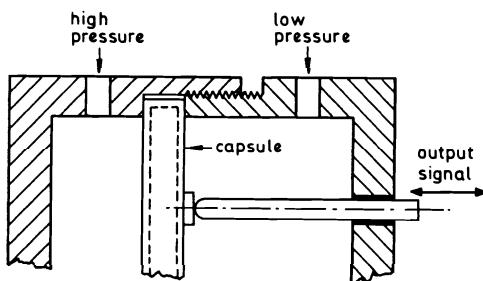
The sensor element is the relatively narrow tube shown in cross section. When this tube is bent, it tends to unwind (straighten out) due to the law of the straight line. As the pressure is reduced the tube tends to straighten out and is therefore suitable for measuring atmospheric pressure. A diaphragmatic sensor element tube is generally made of phosphor bronze. There are other components except the tube which are made of plastic material. The Bourdon tube is a transducer device in pneumatic systems.



PRESSURE AND VACUUM GAUGE
Fig. 11.5

Differential Pressure Cell (dp cell)

The sketch of Fig. 11.6 illustrates a twin membrane sealed capsule secured in the cell body with different pressures applied at each side. The capsule is filled with a constant viscosity fluid (silicone) which also damps oscillation. Mechanical movement of the capsule is proportional to differential pressure. The dp cell is also used for flow and level measurements.



DIFFERENTIAL PRESSURE CELL
Fig. 11.6

Level Measurement

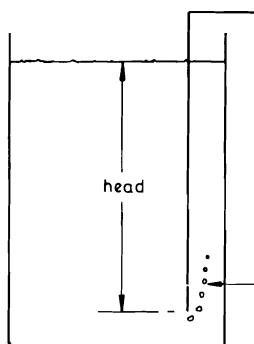
Direct methods include sight glasses, float devices and electrical probe elements (or photo-cells). Inferential methods involve any of the sensing devices used for pressure

INSTRUMENTATION

measurement such as manometers, diaphragms, capsules, etc. Chap. 11 describes level indicators and it is only one measurement technique at this stage.

Purge System

For small air flow rate, about 10% of the air supply pressure equal to that in a dry gas indicator, as shown in Fig. 11.7. This is known as the *pneumercator* as used for liquid level measurement. Air supply to the open end of the tube, which is at steady state, have a pressure which is proportional to the depth level of liquid in the tank.



LEVEL
Fig. 11.7

Flow Measurement

Quantity meters do not include flow measurement; the latter are inferential. Velocity. One type of flowmeter is the venturi meter.

Inferential-Differential Pressure

Consider Fig. 11.8:
The Bernoulli equation, including density ρ , is:

$$KE \text{ at } 1 + PE \text{ at } 1 = KE \text{ at } 2 + PE \text{ at } 2 + \frac{1}{2} \rho v_2^2 - \frac{1}{2} \rho v_1^2$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \rho v_1^2 + p_1/\rho = \frac{1}{2} \rho v_2^2 + p_2/\rho$$

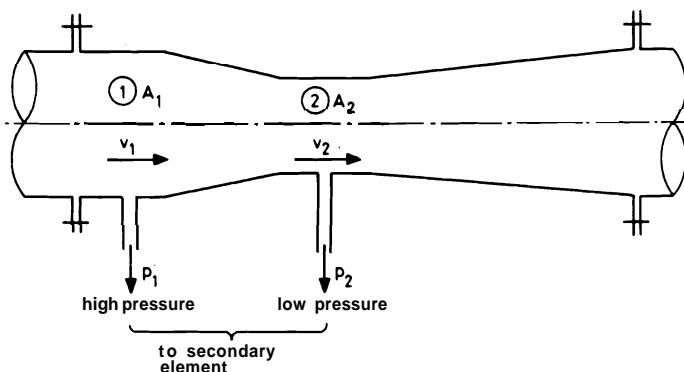
where KE is kinetic and PE potential energy. This also assumes unit mass, negligible friction and shock losses. The continuity equation is:

$$v_1 A_1 = v_2 A_2 \quad (b)$$

By substituting for v_2 from (b) in (a) and using mass flow rate \dot{m} as equal to $\rho v_1 A_1$ then:

$$\dot{m} = k\sqrt{p}$$

where p is the pressure difference ($p_1 - p_2$) and k is a meter constant. The venturi sensor, as sketched in Fig. 11.8, is the primary element and the pressure measuring device (such as a dp cell) is the secondary element. The measure scale will be non-linear for direct recorders, due to the square root relation, and telemetering-control will not be satisfactory unless a square root eliminator correcting device is fitted.



FLOW SENSOR (VENTURI)
Fig. 11.8

Other Measurement

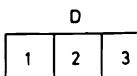
Certain instruments are described elsewhere in the text e.g. viscometer, CO₂ recorder (Chapter 2), torsion meter (Chapter 6), etc.

Tachometer

The dc tachogenerator is a small precision generator driven by the shaft whose rotational speed is to be measured. Output voltage is directly proportional to speed and read-out is usually

arranged to be a conventional voltmeter reading proportional to rotational speed. A digital counter

As the (ferrous) toothed wheel rotates, it cuts the magnetic field gap and flux in a pick up coil which is then amplified (A). Pulses pass through the counter during each second opening period, and are counted in the counter which scales (related to teeth per revolution) are displayed as revolutions per second. Readings can be arranged with digital displays.



DIGITAL TACHOMETER
Fig. 11.9

Photo-Cell

Photo-conductive cells are made of a thin layer of semi-conductor material and they convert incident light energy into electrical energy. They are used in flame detection and flame failure devices.

Photo-emissive cells relay on the principle that electrons are released from a metal surface when it is exposed to light.

If visible light, which is radiated by certain alkali metals—such as calcium—is directed onto the surface of the metal, it causes the emission of electrons. This is characteristic but for most materials the threshold wavelength in the ultraviolet region is so great that visible light does not cause electron emission.

Light energy comes in packages called photons. The energy of the photons is used in doing work. When light energy falls on a metal cathode, it gives the electrons kinetic energy.

Fig. 11.10 shows a simple photo-tube. It consists of a glass bulb containing a metal cathode from which electrons are emitted when

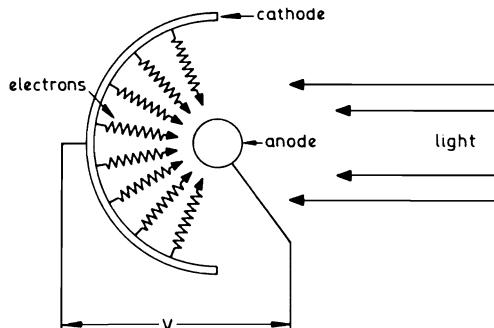


PHOTO-CELL
Fig. 11.10

the anode and in this way create a potential V which can then be amplified and used for alarm and control, etc.

In the vacuum cell all current is carried by photo electrons to the positive anode. In the gas filled cell emitted electrons ionise the gas, producing further electrons, so giving amplification. Secondary-emission (photo-multiplier) cells utilise a series of increasingly positive anodes and give high amplification.

Photo-transistors exhibit similar characteristics and small size and high amplification make their use particularly attractive especially when applied to counting systems *i.e.* digital tachometry.

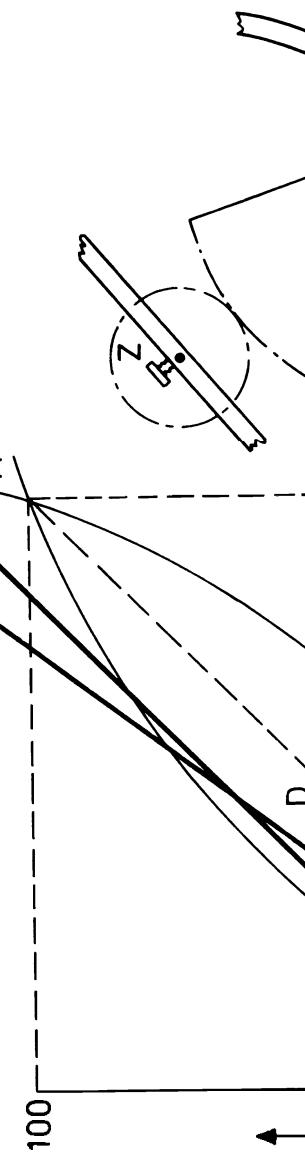
Calibration

Instrument calibration and testing is specialised. Pneumatic instruments would be tested by master gauge, standard manometer or hydraulic deadweight tester and electrical instruments by standard resistors and potentiometers. Using a Bourdon calibration as example:

1. Zero (error) adjustment changes base point without changing the slope or shape of calibration curve. It is usually achieved by rotating the indicator pointer relative to the movement, linkage and element.

2. Multiplication (magnification) adjustment alters the slope without changing base point or shape. This is effected by altering the drive linkage length ratios between primary element and indicator pointer.

3. Angularity adjustment changes the curve shape without altering base point and alters scale calibration at the ends. This



INSTRUMENT
Fig. 11.11

error is minimised by ensuring that link arms are perpendicular with the pointer at mid scale.

Over the design range pointer movement bears a linear arrangement to pressure, and the scale is calibrated accordingly. Hysteresis—a vibration phenomena—is best eliminated by correctly meshed gearing and fitted pivots to reduce backlash, etc. Hysteresis of an instrument is the maximum difference between readings at given points moving up **scale**, to those taken when moving down scale *i.e.* hysteresis curves are plotted from up scale and down scale readings.

Fig. 11.11 shows calibration curves and adjustment for the Bourdon link type of instrument mechanism. Instrument readings (I), true values (T), desired result (D). Zero error and adjustment (Z), multiplication error and adjustment (M), angularity error and adjustment (A)—error curves or lines for actual values.

TELEMETERING

Telemetering may be defined as signal transmission over a considerable distance. The device at the measure point is called a transmitter with the receiver located at the recording or control centre. Telemetering may be involved with centralised instrumentation *i.e.* display, alarm scanning, data logging, etc. or with remote control devices, or both.

Centralised Instrumentation

Display

Essentially this aspect consists of centralised instrumentation in an air conditioned instrument and control room. Improved visual, audible and observation techniques are required. The data logger was the first step. Components are virtually all electronic (solid state devices working under air conditioned states are preferred) to fit in with standard equipment. Faults will be located by mimic board type diagnosis and replacement of printed card components rather than on the job repair.

In selecting alarm circuits great care must be taken in the preference choice utilised. Important circuits should be fitted with distinctive alarm indications and a quick and easy position location. Less important circuits can be fitted with a secondary importance alarm and isolating-locating system. The provision of too many alarms, not easily discriminated from each other, can cause confusion. Similar remarks apply to remote control

room gauge boards where only
should be **frequently** scanned.

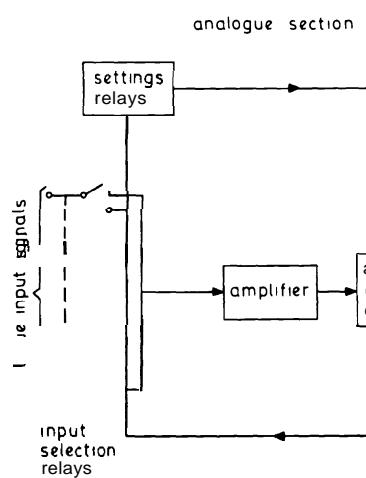
The control room itself requires
to comfort, lack of lighting,
instruments for rapid viewing,
position and variable quantity
indication techniques, rapid
replacement, etc.

Various types of indicators
example: lights, dial gauges
movements, magnetic tapes,
counters, charts, etc.

References are usually set on
stabilisation is usually necessary
reliability rate.

Alarm Scanning; Data Logging

The scanner normally covers up
of about two points per second,
possible but are not normally used.
selected in turn by automatically
for presentation to the measuring



ALARM SCANNING
Fig.

Measurement

All analogue inputs are amplified from the low voltages produced by the instruments. This signal as a voltage representation of the measured value is translated in the analogue-to-digital converter to a numerical code form.

Display

The code signal is transferred to a strip printer or electronic type-writer, printing is selected for the various points at preset intervals, varying from virtually continuous for certain points, to reasonably long time intervals for others.

A second function is to compare digitally the analogue inputs with preset limit switches or pins in a patchboard and have lights on mimic diagrams to indicate alarms, in addition the excess deviation readings are presented on a separate alarm printer.

Programme

This is a pre-determined scanning routine which gives storage and actioning by the main programming unit. Print-out is timed by the special digital clock.

Equipment

Consists of solid-state silicon components on logic boards as printed circuits. Relays are hermetically sealed relay type on plug-in cards. Test board and replacement cards are provided for fault detection and replacement. Data loggers are sectional framework construction i.e. modules.

Analogue Representation

Where the measured quantity is converted in to another physical quantity *in a continuous way*. For example temperature converted into dc voltage by a thermocouple. Voltage is analogue of temperature. Useful for short term presentation e.g. manoeuvring, raising steam, etc.

Digital Representation

Where the measured quantity is represented by repeated individual increments *at given intervals*. For example a revolution counter which trips to alter the reading after each engine revolution. Useful for long term presentation e.g. 'full away' watchkeeping readings.

Scaling Unit

Most mechanical registers can record about two pulses per

second (maximum) without slip a reach 50 pulses per second. Elec 5,000 pulses per second so that t output pulses to the register in th

Advantages of Data Logging

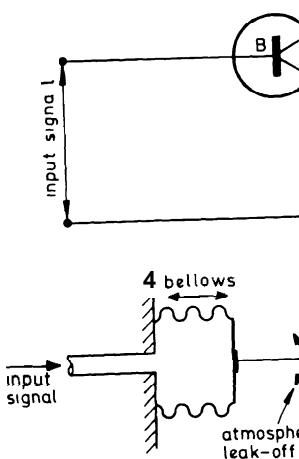
1. Reduces staff and number of
2. Provides continuous observati
3. provides accurate and regular
4. Increases plant efficiency due

Telemetering Components

Amplifier

Used to step up the sensor low power actuator element. Two electronic and pneumatic (relay).

The upper sketch of Fig. 11.13 shows the common emitter type. A small produces a larger amplified chan refer to base, collector and emit



AMPI
Fig.

The lower sketch of Fig. 11.13 illustrates a reverse acting pneumatic relay amplifier. Increase in the magnitude of the input signal air pressure reduces air flow from the pressure energy source and output pressure to load falls to a corresponding equilibrium value.

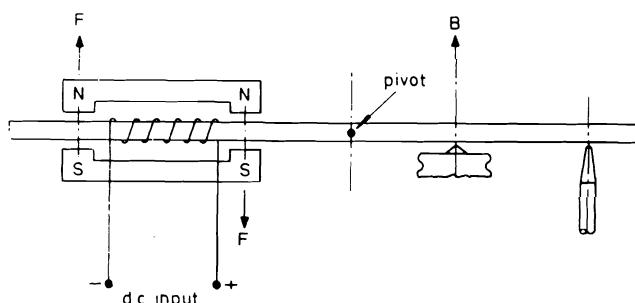
Transducer

A transducer converts the small sensing signal into a readily amplified output, usually in a different form. Designs can generally be simplified into three basic reversible types namely:

- mechanical displacement \leftrightarrow pneumatic
- mechanical displacement \leftrightarrow electrical
- pneumatic \leftrightarrow electrical

A mechanical displacement \rightarrow pneumatic type of transducer is the flapper nozzle device as shown in the later sketch, Fig. 11.16.

An electrical \rightarrow pneumatic transducer is illustrated in Fig. 11.14. For an increase in current the created S pole to the left will be attracted up to the N pole of the magnet so giving a clockwise rotation because the moment arm is greater than that caused by the created N pole being attracted down on the S pole of the magnet. This action closes in on the nozzle so giving a higher output air pressure and increasing the feedback bellows force until equilibrium is achieved.



ELECTRO-PNEUMATIC TRANSDUCER
Fig. 11.14

Signal Media

Pneumatics or electrics are preferred although hydraulics are used in many steering gears.

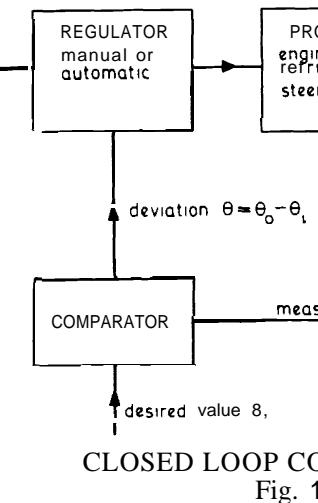
Pneumatic systems generally have the advantages of lowest

first cost, inherent safety and provide appreciable time lags and require

Electrical-electronic systems have large component size, low power consumption, generate some heat and are susceptible to supply.

CONTROL

This section is the basic requirement for simple. A more detailed treatment is given in the book *Instrumentation and Control Systems*.



Terminology

Correct terminology is given in the book. There is a recommended code of practice for instrumentation and control equipment.

A few simplified terms, related to control systems, are:

Closed Loop Control System

Is one in which the control signal is fed back to the system output. The system may be controlled. Fig. 11.15 shows the basic principle of a closed loop control system.

The measured value of the output is being fed back to the controller which compares this value with the desired value for the controlled condition and produces an output to alter the controlled condition if there is any deviation between the values. Measured Value; actual value of the controlled condition (symbol θ_o).

Desired Value; the value of the controlled condition that the operator desires to obtain. Examples, 2 rev/s, 25 degrees of helm, 55 bar, -5° , etc (symbol θ_i).

Set Value; is the value of the controlled condition to which the controller is set—this should normally be the desired value and for simplicity no distinction will be made between them.

Deviation (or error); is the difference between measured and desired values (symbol θ). Hence $\theta = \theta_i - \theta_o$. This signal, probably converted into some suitable form such as voltage to hydraulic output or voltage to pneumatic output, etc., would be used to instigate corrective action—object to reduce the error to zero.

Offset; is sustained deviation.

Feedback; is the property of a closed loop control system which permits the output to be compared with the input to the system. Feedback will increase accuracy and reduce sensitivity.

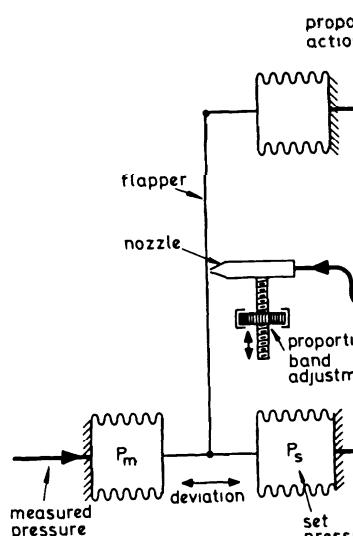
Control Actions

Three basic actions will be described: (i) Proportional; (ii) Integral; (iii) Derivative.

Proportional Control (P)

A pneumatic type of proportional controller is shown diagrammatically in Fig. 11.16. A set value of pressure P_s is established in one bellows and the measured value of pressure P_m is fed into the opposing bellows (the measured value of pressure could be proportional to some measured variable such as temperature, flow, etc.) Any difference in these two pressures causes movement of the lower end of the flapper, alteration in air flow out of the nozzle and hence variation in output pressure P_o to the control system.

If the upper end of the flapper was fixed, i.e. no proportional action bellows, then a slight deviation would cause output



PNEUMATIC PROPORTIONAL
Fig. 11.16

pressure P_o to go from one extreme to the other. This is simple proportional control with a narrow band width and high gain (gain = constant). Moving the nozzle down relative to the flapper increases sensitivity and gain, and further narrows the band width.

With output pressure P_o acting on the nozzle, it bellows the top end of the flapper in the opposite direction to the lower end, and widens the proportional band. Adjusting the controller to the plant the object is to obtain offset with stability, i.e. no overshoot. The maximum proportional band setting is when the control is moved away from and towards the set point (input) and the effect on the output is to give incremental reductions of proportionality. For a reduction a step input, a point of inflection of the controlled variable does not occur until the proportional band setting is reduced to optimum setting.

Proportional *Plus* Integral Control (P+I)

Proportional control will arrest a change and hold it steady but at a different point from the desired value. The difference between these values is called offset, which is different at each load; this is the shortcoming of proportional control. Offset can be reduced by increasing sensitivity (*i.e.* narrowing proportional band) but this can lead to hunting and instability. Integral (reset) action addition (P+I) gives arrest of the change and a reset to the desired value irrespective of load. Integral action will always be occurring whilst deviation exists. Controllers of this type have an adjustment to vary reset time, the shorter the time setting the greater the integral effect. Too great an integral effect will cause overshoot past the desired value.

Proportional Plus Integral *Plus* Derivative Control (P+I+D)

Derivative action may be added as a damping action to reduce overshoot.

Derivative action is anticipatory where the sensed rate of change of deviation corrects to reduce likely deviation—it opposes the motion of the variable. Derivative action time, usually adjustable at the controller, has the effect that the longer the time setting the greater the derivative action.

Summary

(P) Proportional control: action of a controller whose output signal is proportional to the deviation.

i.e. Correction signal \propto deviation.

(I) Integral control: action of a controller whose output signal changes at a rate which is proportional to the deviation.

i.e. Velocity of correction signal \propto deviation.

Object: To reduce offset to zero.

(D) Derivative control: action of a controller whose output signal is proportional to the rate at which the deviation is changing.

i.e. Correction signal \propto velocity of deviation.

Object: Gives quicker response and better damping.

(P) Single term controller.

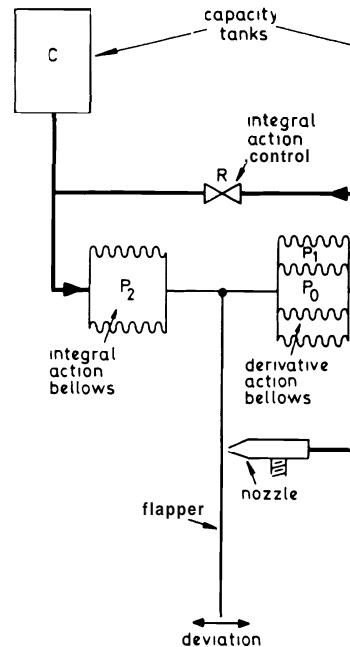
(P+I) or (P+D) Two term controller.

(P+I+D) Three term controller.

Pneumatic Controller (P+I+D)

Fig. 11.17 shows in diagrammatic form a three term controller. Set value control and proportional band adjustment have been omitted for simplicity (see Fig. 11.16). Often,

INSTRUMENTATION



PNEUMATIC P+I+D

Fig. 11.17

controller manufacturers produce controllers which the controller and the installer can adjust to suit individual needs, *i.e.* either single, two or three term.

Approximate sizes are, restricted to a maximum bore of about 0.75 mm bore and flapper travel of about 0.5 mm. To ensure exact proportionality the ratio of the outer to inner bellows must be unity. If the outer bellows has a wider proportional band, the flapper travel will be increased due to the inner bellows being stiffer. Note: Whichever way the bottom of the bellows is connected, if the top is moved it will give negative feedback, if in the same direction.

Integral Added (P+I)

This is applied by adding positive feedback to the controller, acting on the integral action bellows. This is done by the product of the capacity C and the output of the integral action control R, *i.e.* RC (note that the sign of the feedback is dependent on the sign of the output of the integral action control R).

circuits). Increasing R by closing in the integral action control increases integral action time.

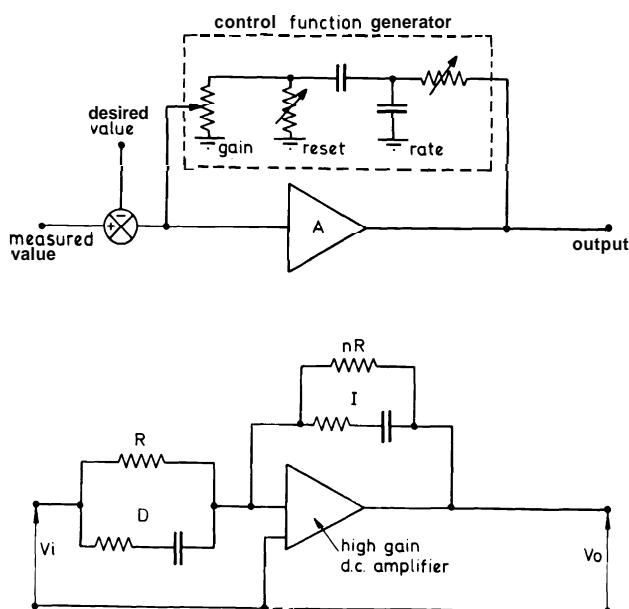
Derivative Added (P+D)

This is applied with further negative feedback with pressure P_1 acting on the derivative action bellows. Derivative action time is the product of the capacity C and the derivative action control resistance R. Increasing R by closing in the derivative action control increases derivative action time,

Note: Integral action is very rarely applied on its own. Derivative action is never applied on its own.

Electrical-Electronic Controller (P+I+D)

Fig. 11.18 shows the compound controller which should be compared with its pneumatic counterpart (Fig. 11.17). The upper part of the sketch illustrates grouping to controller (note the summer and the potentiometer gain adjustment) whilst the lower sketch is basic operational amplifier configuration. On the lower sketch, after summing of measured and desired value, the

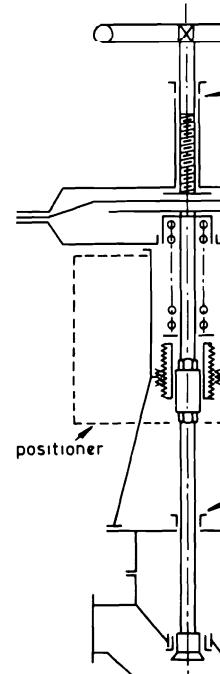


ELECTRICAL-ELECTRONIC CONTROLLER (P+I+D)
Fig. 11.18

input voltage is Vi . The gain adjust resistances R. The rate (derivative reset (Integral I) on the feedback

CONTROL SYSTEMS

One final controlling element in a telemetering system, the electric circuits, fluid temperature control, bridge control of IC engine—are involved.



DIAPHRAGM
Fig. 11.19

Diaphragm Valve

The sketch (Fig. 11.19) illustrates the controlling fuel quantity to burn-

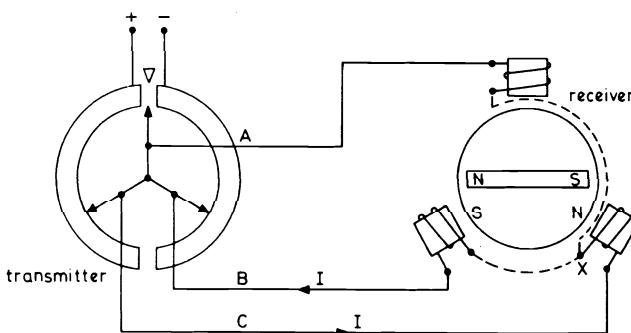
Control air acts on top of the synthetic rubber diaphragm, increasing air pressure causes the valve to move down permitting increased fuel supply to the burners.

If air supply to the diaphragm should cease then the valve will 'fail safe', i.e. it will close against the flow of the oil (Right to left in Fig. 11.19) and the burners will be extinguished. Hand regulation could be used by operating the hand jack.

A positioner would be used if:

- the valve is remote from the controller,
- there is a high pressure difference across the valve,
- the medium under control is viscous,
- the pressure on the gland is high.

In this case a flapper is fastened to the valve stem at one end and the other end operates against the nozzle whose air supply pressure acts on top of the diaphragm. The control air signal acts, via bellows and spring, between the two extremities of the flapper and fixes its position relative to the nozzle, dependent on magnitude of control pressure signal.



POSITION INDICATOR (ELECTRIC TELEGRAPH)
Fig. 11.20

Position Indicator (Electric Telegraph)

This device is inherently telemetering rather than a control system as such. Fig. 11.20 shows the system in equilibrium with equal dc currents (I) in line B and C and zero current in line A. The receiver rotor is locked by equal and opposite torques from the attractions on unlike pole faces. Assume the transmitter to be moved 30° clockwise. Current flows to the receiver from line C, subdivides at point X and equal currents return through lines A and B of magnitude $I/2$. This creates a strong N pole at fixed magnet X and two weak S poles at the other two fixed magnets.

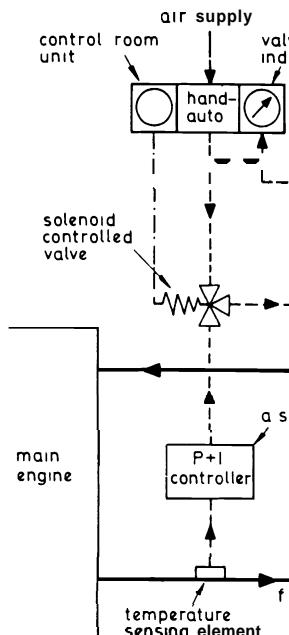
The receiver indicator will then move to the new position i.e. 30° clockwise. If the transmitter is moved to correct the position.

As a telegraph, a bell can be connected so that when the receiver is moved to correct the position.

For clockwise (say ahead) rotation of the receiver, the current in line A will be carrying return current and the current in line B. The tachogenerator is rotating in the same direction. The current in line A will be arranged to be in the same direction as the current in line B. The current in line B (additive) will maintain a 'weak' pole at the fixed magnet X. The receiver will remain in this condition. Incorrect rotation of the receiver will cause a torque in opposition which causes the receiver to rotate back to the correct position. This applies for anticlockwise (say astern) rotation of the receiver. In this case when line A will be carrying return current and the current in line B will be carrying forward current. The tachogenerator is rotating in the opposite direction. The current in line A will be arranged to be in the same direction as the current in line B. The current in line B (additive) will maintain a 'strong' pole at the fixed magnet X. The receiver will remain in this condition. Incorrect rotation of the receiver will cause a torque in opposition which causes the receiver to rotate back to the correct position.

Fluid Temperature Control

The arrangement sketched shows how the fluid temperature of the fresh water coolant temperature of the main engine can be controlled by the I.C. engine. It would be eq-



FLUID TEMPERATURE CONTROL
Fig. 11.21

lubricant (engine or gearbox) temperature control. Full flow of sea water is arranged through the cooler. A three way valve (two inlets, one outlet) operates to mix quantities of coolant, bypassing or going through the cooler, dependent on coolant return temperature.

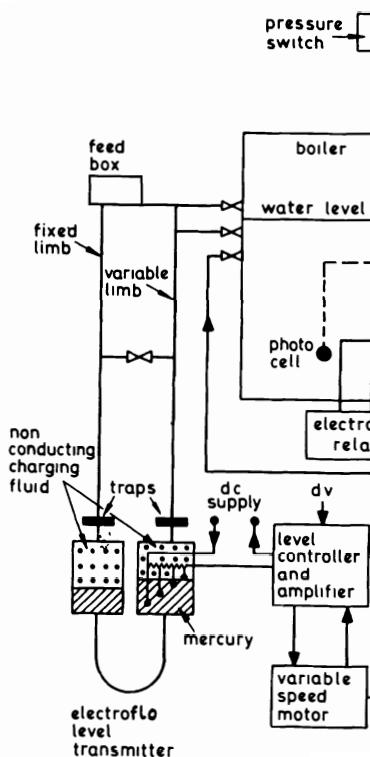
With correct analysis of parameters, and careful valve selection, a simple single element control system can be utilised for most duties. A wax element activated valve gives a simple but fixed control (over say 10°C), by adjusting one outlet for the return coolant to the cooler with the other bypass to the engine. For large thermal variations, such as manoeuvring conditions, single element control may not meet requirements. 'Cascade control', involving one controller (the master) amending the set value of another controller (the slave) could then be used. The slave controller, sensing temperature of coolant leaving the cooler, would detect variations of sea temperature and adjust sea water flow accordingly. The master controller, sensing return temperature of coolant from engine or gearbox would if necessary amend the set value of the slave controller and so alter sea water flow.

For warming through, or operation with low sea temperatures the refinement of 'split level (range) control' could be added. Over a range of low temperatures of coolant, sensed by the slave controller, a lower magnitude signal would operate heat input to a coolant heater. At a given point, when coolant temperature had increased, the signal would close the heat control and for the rest of the range would operate to control sea water flow to the cooler in the usual way.

Automatic Boiler Control System

Refer to Fig. 11.22 for the lighting sequence:

1. The pressure switch initiates the start of the cycle. The switch is often arranged to cut in at about 1 bar below the working pressure and cut out at about $1/5$ bar above the working pressure (this differential is adjustable).
2. The master initiating relay now allows 'air-on'. The air feedback confirms 'air-on' and allows a 30 second time delay to proceed.
3. The master now allows the arc to be struck by the electrode relay. The 'arc made' feedback signal allows a 3 second time delay to proceed.
4. The master now allows the fuel initiating signal to proceed. The solenoid valve allows fuel on to the burner. The 'fuel-on'



AUTOMATIC BOILER

Fig. 11.22

feedback signal allows a 5 second time delay. This may be preceded by a fuel heating period.

5. The master now examines the water level. If the cycle is complete, if not the cycle is repeated.

Refer to Fig. 11.22 for emergency stop and alarm operation. In a

(a) High or low water levels cause the master to interrupt and shut down.

(b) Water level is controlled by a regulator and controller. Sequential control is achieved in conducting mercury or non-conducting fluid over a weir in the feed box.

Unattended Machinery Spaces

Essential requirements for unattended machinery spaces, *i.e.* particularly unmanned engine rooms during the night could be summarised thus:

1. Bridge control of propulsion machinery.
The bridge watchkeeper must be able to take emergency engine control action. Control and instrumentation must be as simple as possible.
2. Centralised control and instruments are required in machinery space.
Engineers may be called to the machinery space in emergency and controls must be easily reached and fully comprehensive.
3. Automatic fire detection system.
Alarm and detection system must operate very rapidly. Numerous well sited and quick response detectors (sensors) must be fitted.
4. Fire extinguishing system.
In addition to conventional hand extinguishers a control fire station remote from the machinery space is essential. The station must give control of emergency pumps, generators, valves, ventilators, extinguishing media, etc.
5. Alarm system.
A comprehensive machinery alarm system must be provided for control and accommodation areas.
6. Automatic bilge high level fluid alarms and pumping units.
Sensing devices in bilges with alarms and hand or automatic pump cut in devices must be provided.
7. Automatic start emergency generator.
Such a generator is best connected to separate emergency bus bars. The primary function is to give protection from electrical blackout conditions.
8. Local hand control of essential machinery.
9. Adequate settling tank storage capacity.
10. Regular testing and maintenance of instrumentation.

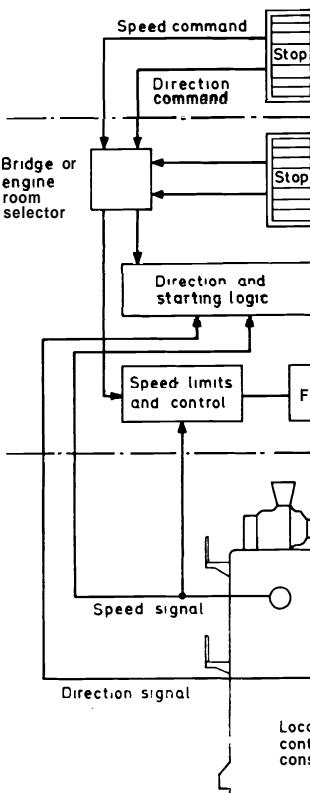
Bridge Control of IC Engine

To enable a direct reversing engine to be controlled from the bridge, basic procedure and safeguards must be built in to the control system.

The following shows some of the checks which may be incorporated in a system to protect the engine during starting and running.

1. Confirmation that the turning gear is disconnected.

2. Confirmation that the engine direction on air, before the fuel is admitted.
3. Confirmation that the engine speed limit is set before the starting air is cut off.
4. Alarm if a start is not confirmed within a specified time.
5. Speed limitation, *i.e.* avoidance of damage by speed limits imposed by excessive jolts.
6. Acceleration limiting to limit the torque applied to give a safe torque in relation to the air available from the turbines.
7. Automatic rundown to halting the engine when cylinder jacket temperature is exceeded.



BRIDGE CONTROL
Fig.

8. Automatic stop if the lubricating oil pressure fails.

Other checks or alarms may be fitted if required.

A typical system is shown in block diagram form in Fig. 11.23.

The various signals may be electrical or pneumatic. Final connections to the engine are usually pneumatic cylinders which operate the engine controls. Selection of bridge or engine room control is made in the engine room, thus enabling the engineer to take control at any time, if required. When an electronic governor is fitted, the speed signal is generated by a tacho generator and the fuel quantity is measured by a position transducer fitted to the fuel control rack. When a hydraulic governor is fitted, speed is measured by a Watt type governor and hydraulically amplified. In this case, the blower and torque limits are usually incorporated into the governor. To protect the engine, the fuel limits are applied after the speed limits.

TEST EXA

Class 3

1. Describe the start up sequence of a steam boiler.
2. Describe a device which gives an alarm when the lubricating oil pressure falls.
3. Explain the principle of a diaphragm activator.
4. List three automatically controlled devices found in machinery space which may affect safety.

State the consequences of each failure.

TEST EXAMPLES 11

Class 2

1. (a) Sketch a diaphragm operated control valve of any design.
 (b) State how flow changes are sensed.
 (c) State how command signals are transmitted to actuators.
2. (a) Explain why a pneumatic control system requires clean dry air.
 Explain how the following pollutants are dealt with:
 (b) water,
 (c) oil,
 (d) dust and dirt,
3. (a) Describe, with sketches, a bridge/engine room telegraph interconnecting gear.
 (b) Explain how the system may operate a 'wrong way' alarm.
4. Describe, with sketches, instruments used for measuring the ambient temperature in the following spaces:
 - (a) refrigerated compartment,
 - (b) main machinery exhaust gas uptakes.

TEXT EX**Class 1**

1. Sketch diagrammatically a combustion control system. Explain how it operates. Specify how 'fail safe' can be achieved.
2. With reference to auxiliary or main boilers
 - (a) master control variations,
 (b) and why pressure measured,
 (c) air fuel ratio is controlled
3. (a) Sketch diagrammatically a control lubrication system by either of the methods shown.
 (b) Sketch a diaphragm actuated closed loop system.
 (c) Sketch a self operated valve.
 Describe how the valve works.
 Define, with reasons, why the wax element type is effective.
4. With respect to shipboard power generation, where an electrical system is used, state the advantages over other systems, and the disadvantages.

CHAPTER 12

MANAGEMENT

Collaboration between individuals for a common objective, with division of labour under a recognised leader, has been practised for centuries. Leadership requires some form of supportive group discipline. Social and organisational facets within the work environment were recognised at the beginning of the industrial revolution and have evolved this century. However, application of the scientific method—observation, data collection, analysis, classification, hypothesis, experimental verification, formulation of laws and use for prediction—to the work situation, is more, recent. Such applications has resulted in a systematic approach leading to a recognised discipline—management.

Management is the knowledge of the (five) processes of planning, organising, directing, co-ordinating and controlling. This relates to machines, manpower, materials, method and money. Management by objectives, with targets and accountability, through line management and staff functions, is established practice.

GENERAL INDUSTRIAL MANAGEMENT

Overall organisation of an industrial concern is a complex structure involving personal interaction between individuals and their work situations. This usually requires work study of both time and method. Organisational study includes job analyses, flow diagrams and organisational charts with activities defined in terms of supervision, levels of authority, interrelation and coordination. A common result, for a large industrial enterprise, is the arrangement of divisions, each with a specific role involving the five processes of management. A typical set of divisions could be as follows:

Organisational Divisions
 Purchasing:
 Supply, ordering, inspection, s
 Production:
 Drawings, materials, methods
 quality control.
 Personnel:
 Selection, employment, health,
 Development:
 Research, design, standards, e
 Marketing:
 Storage, transport, packaging,
 Finance:
 Costing, budgets, capital, legal
 function.

Most of the terms considered including three such as stock, ergonomics (human energy ou other terms used in many stages that are worthy of consideration.

Further Terminology Queuing Theory:

Is applied to the case of vehicles, ships) delayed by a line involves theories of probability (optimum paths).

Integrated Data Processing (IDP)

Utilises storage and speed handle complicated and length finance divisions.

Linear Programming (LP)

Again utilises the computer relationships of many problems for use in forecasts, etc. Extent Organisation and Methods (O&M)

An objective and analytic procedures aiming to improve performance, reduce paper work. To include Operational Research (OR).

Essentially a planning-resource mathematical techniques (combinatorial theory and linear programming, critical path analysis, plant

policy, as considered later. OR aims to collate the best available data so as to provide management with statistics on relative advantages and disadvantages of all potential courses of action to allow efficient decision making. This can relate to a simple task such as economic selection of a single machine or, when linked to IDP, to the major financial strategies of large industrial or commercial companies.

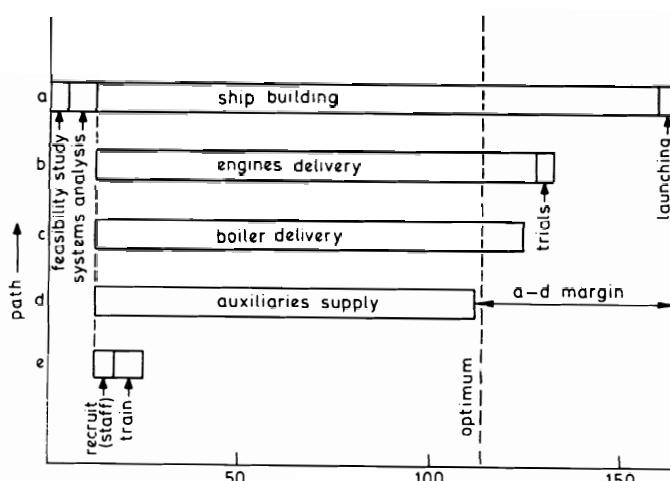
OR is the ideal example of scientific method in operation as a management tool. Some specific examples can now be considered.

Some Practical Applications

Critical Path Analysis

A statistical planning path, utilising coded flow process charts, which arranges work in sequence to establish various project times and completion time overall (critical path). The aim is to establish the most economical overall project time by the most efficient use of resources.

Refer to Fig. 12.1:



HYPOTHETICAL CRITICAL PATH CHART
Fig. 12.1

This flow Process chart is purely illustrative of the technique and hypothetical in the sense that times may not be truly realistic—for example the 'fitting out' process has not been included, this will be necessary by extension or separate analysis.

Note the parallel paths for analysis, the critical path preventing the bottleneck preventing the

operations. Assume an a shipbuilder will reduce ship 50 weeks, but at a higher cost that this time saving may become critical and will ha

example, reduced delivery time well be possible to arrive at new times for paths a, b, c, start can be delayed to 'close'—chart schedule could well shorten overall completion at very little

Planned Maintenance

Such maintenance will delay the risk of expensive breakdowns for motor vehicles, based on intervals, is well known. Consider the planned maintenance service pump supplying lubricating oil. Manufacturers data on pump etc. will be available in records running times will be recorded.

Table 12.1 is illustrative on dependent on company policies words like examine are used more precise wording to record individual maintenance periods planned maintenance in normal continuous checking of Terotechnology is total (life) its facets.

Replacement Policy

Will be dependent on plan considerations of increasing sale value, inflation, etc. And components, particularly efficiency during their working particular time and are th

during say shut-down periods, may prove less expensive than casual failure with expensive (and possibly dangerous) breakdown of plant operation. The timed replacement policy is established mathematically on probability calculations.

As an example consider the following analysis:

SCHEDULE	DATE	REPLACEMENT	CLEARANCES	COMMENTS	SIGNATURE
1 month Clean and repack lubricant inserts, General tightness check on nuts					
3 month <i>As for one month plus: examine and clean filters, renew joints when assembling</i>					
6 month <i>As for one and three months plus: examine and renew gland seals, clean motor, check starter box contacts and relays</i>					
12 month <i>As for one, three and six months plus: examine valve spindles and seats, re-pack valve glands. Examine bearings and shaft components, check and record radial and axial clearances. Insulation test and record. Examine for corrosion, including seatings</i>					

TABLE 12.1

As an example consider the following analysis:

Failure in each succeeding year is 5%, 10%, 14%, 18% . . .

Average life of components = $0.05 \times \frac{1}{2} + 0.10 \times 1\frac{1}{2} + \dots =$ say 4 years

Cost to replace random failure = £150

Cost on annual shut-down replacement = £20

Cost per component year on random failure = $150/4 = £37.50$

Cost per component year on
Table 12.2:

REPLACEMENT AFTER	YEARLY FAILURE PROBABILITY
One Year	0.05
Two Years	$0.05^2 + 0.10 = 0.1025$
Three Years	$= 0.15$

TAB

Minimum cost is achieved
Clearly component life and ran
factors. At sea the random re
high if a significant part of the
the risk factor is high, es
especially attractive.

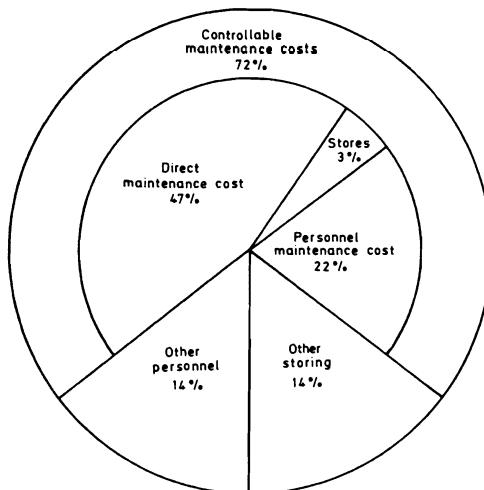
Ship Maintenance Costs

These are the largest item
indicates that they contribute
costs for a given ship and woul
and indirect, including such
costs.

Optimal Maintenance Policy

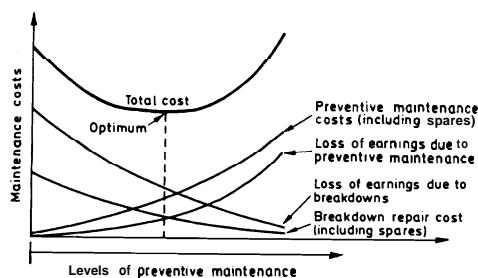
This is the best system for a
from a repair only policy with
the one hand to a compre
preventative maintenance syst
accurate records and use of m

Fig. 12.3 gives some idea of
which gives, with a spec
maintenance, the minimum
'downtime'.



SHIP MAINTENANCE COSTS

Fig. 12.2



OPTIMAL MAINTENANCE

Fig. 12.3

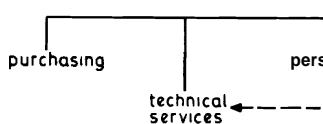
Co-ordination

Processes relating to planning have been considered in some aspect with all activities. Co-ordination attention here but is an important requirement. It requires the essential factor of communications which must relate link between them. Instructions must convey accurate, simple and clear (later).

ON-SHIP MANAGEMENT

The overall organisational structure of a shipping company will vary but the basic format may apply as shown in Fig. 12.4.

It will be noted from Fig. 12.4 that Industrial Management (described as Services and Fleets (including design and Marketing. The good management of subordinates reporting to any one manager is readily attained by each supervisor having responsibility for say six ships.

MANAGEMENT STRUCTURE
Fig. 12.4

Each individual ship is an independent unit with special management conditions, in which personnel are in continuous close contact and whilst at sea have no external interaction, which can create human relationship problems. The increased automation, decreased crew-sizes and the trend to cost consciousness adds new dimensions. Planning is usually the responsibility of a small team of senior ship's officers, in liaison with company management, and requires the application of planned maintenance, replacement policies and some financial considerations. Organisation is departmentally based with a clearly defined structure, based to some extent on rank, which decides the directive process. Co-ordination and control are vital processes with the needs of good delegation, communication and personnel relations paramount.

Administration

For the Engineering Department the responsibility for this task lies primarily with the Chief Engineer Officer although a significant part is delegated to the Second Engineer Officer and certain other sub-departmental heads. The Chief Engineer Officer must ensure links with head office, between departments on ship and within his department. The Second Engineer Officer has an important role in delegation of engine room duties and responsibilities, control and recording of spares, maintenance schedules, etc. and, not least, effective personnel relations. The responsibility for efficient operation, firm leadership and good communications is an inherent requirement for senior ship managers. There is a developing trend to utilise committee structures, involving key officers and ratings, so as to improve decision making operations. This also allows more effective communications as the central 'hub' can relate closely to the peripheral 'wheel' with signal transmission via 'spokes' as well as around the 'rim'. 'On the job' training, to clearly defined objectives, is assuming increased importance on board ship.

REPORT WRITING

There is an important and increasing need for line managers to provide reports for consideration by top management and to write technical letters to external organisations. This becomes more vital at sea where senior ship management is remote from the central organisation of the company.

The importance of this aspect of the work of the marine engineer officer is recognised within the DTP Examinations. A common question in the Class One Engineering Knowledge

examination paper requires a the Chief Engineer Officer technical topic. Class Two a directly concerned with 'o questions in these examinations report writing, do require how management principles—the practices.

Most students seem to have reports or in presenting basic 'model' answer to such examination notes covering general use of H and specimen question-answers examples at the end of this chapter and preferably marked critical

English Usage

1. The writer may well coll am I trying to say', 'what clearly and briefly?'
2. A simple skeleton plan, o
3. Communication 'expert wording and information
4. The 'shape' of a letter sentence, or short paragraph immediate interest of the follow. The 'body' of thought sequence—there c, etc., to define specific content more clear. The some positive summary o
5. Sentences should be sh compact paragraphs relat
6. Simple words should be w words or phrases—join about for respecting—wa
7. 'Robot like' references s information', 'I am furthe be used.
8. Verbosity, especially w unfilled vacancy), adverb markedly) and preposition time—until), is to be avo

9. The use of 'buzz words', *e.g.* maximise, optional, orientated, etc., is inclined to be showy.
10. Cliches (my grateful thanks, in this day and age), similes (as good as gold, works like a horse) and metaphors (hit for six, backed a winner) are best avoided.
11. A positive is preferable to double negative (not unnaturally, not unblack!).
12. Letter endings are best made 'yours faithfully' if the method of address is 'Dear Sir' and yours sincerely to a 'Dear Mr Smith' address. Subservient (your obedient servant) and somewhat ridiculous (at your convenience) remarks are not used.

Examination Requirements

- a. The examiners look for clarity of expression, good punctuation, paragraphs, etc., *i.e.* English presentation is being assessed.
- b. Technical accuracy is not so important, within reasonable limits.
- c. Major details, without minor technical points, are required.
- d. The experience of the candidate in matters of management, personnel relations, work study, etc., is part of the assessment.
- e. The examiners attach particular importance to the following:
Machinery surveys: arranging, preparing, recording.
Safety equipment: certificates.
Planned maintenance: schedules, surveys.
Testing: machinery space lifting gear.
Oil in navigable waters act: instructions to staff.
Clean air act: instructions to staff.
Fire fighting: instructions and training for E.R. staff.
Fire fighting: co-operation between Deck and E.R. staff.
Training: engineer cadet training schedules.
Training: instructions to new junior officers.
Inspection: essential tests, etc., 24 hours before sailing on a strange vessel.
Performance: assessment of voyage records and test data.
New Ships: improved ventilation and equipment, suggestions.
Safety Schedules: day to day safety training.
Bunkering: information on bunker chits, stability during bunkering.
Crews: duties of staff, general purpose duties.

Ship maintenance: overall vessel.

Emergency conditions: machine

Specimen Question

Write a letter to your commanding officer concerning the circumstances of an emergency in the machinery spaces. The letter should state what action taken and suggest preventions.

The candidate should first answer this question and then answer accordingly (the following is a specimen answer).

1. What happened . . . where?
2. What was the cause . . . how?
3. How was the condition detected?
4. How can a re-occurrence be prevented?
5. Any other relevant comments.

Specimen answer

MV Eastern Glory,
c/o Foster Johns (Managers) Ltd
'Ocean View',
Brisbane,
Queensland,
AUSTRALIA.

Chief Engineer Superintendent
The Moss Line Ltd.,
Star House,
Leadenhall St.,
LONDON, W2 5MK.

Engine Room Fire, 5th

Dear Sir,

Further to my cable of the 5th instant, I would advise you that the above vessel was stopped at port on that date, because of an engine room fire. The evacuation of this space for about

Due to an overflow when filling up to the hot engine exhaust man-

general fire alarm was sounded and the bridge informed but within two minutes the Engine Room was untenable and I ordered immediate evacuation.

At 1507 hours all Engine Room staff were accounted for, the Engine Room was sealed off and inert smothering gas injected. At 1800 hours an attempt was made to re-enter the Engine Room via the tunnel but without success. At 2000 hours the Engine Room was entered and small fires still burning were put out with portable extinguishers. No serious permanent damage was noted but the space was severely blackened. The machinery was prepared for sea and, before getting under way, all lagging was stripped from the manifolds.

The cause was established as a faulty tank indicating float and overflow gooseneck whose outflow was directed near the manifold. It is suggested that a mercury type level and alarm switch be fitted as a replacement and that the gooseneck be replaced by an overflow pipe (with sight glass) to an overflow tank. I ask for approval to put this work in hand immediately. In the meantime special care is being exercised in tank filling. A detailed damage report will be sent in the near future.

I would like to record the excellent behaviour of the Engine Room staff during the whole incident and the efficient communication between Deck and Engine departments. No injury occurred to personnel.

Yours faithfully,

William J. Hall (Chief Engineer)

Test Examples—Technique

An outline framework, as suggested method of answer, to three of the test examples at the end of this chapter is now presented for consideration before the reader proceeds to attempt the remaining test examples:

Class 3 Test Example No. 1

- Fire location — accommodation, deck, engine (need to vary).
- Advance warning (notice) and practice alarm (method).
- Fire Stations — assembly, numbers, roll call.
- Communications — central and remote.
- Checking responsibilities (individual and collective).
- Testing alarms and equipment.
- Simulated attack on fire.
- Emergency sealing arrangements — check.
- Short seminar on effectiveness — feed back.

Class 2 Test Example No. 1

- a. increased ignition potential—smoking.
- b. increased combustible potential—people/less.
- c. increased air potential—draught.
- d. increased space potential—open.

Easier air and combustible arrangements, more people/less ability of immediate ship fire fighting. Reduced a, b, c, d. Improved liaison ship-shore personnel, rescue facilities, fire patrol (24 hours),

Class 1 Test Example No. 1

1. What major repairs?
Precise nature, voyage effects.
2. Why necessary after major repair?
Possible cause, blame, deterioration.
3. Justification of shore labour?
Scale of repair, time available, facilities.
4. Justification of cost?
Typical cost figures, estimate.
5. Balance costing?
Survey in lieu of port time, costs.
6. Inspection?
Classification Society, ship survey outcomes.

Note

In cases where a report is ordered for subsequent legal actions (say, insurance claims), it is vitally important to present information in respect to time, date, names etc.

TEST EXAMPLES 12**Class 3**

1. Describe briefly how a practice fire drill should be carried out.
2. If a large item of machinery is to be lifted out of the engine room state what precautions should be taken to:
 - (i) prevent injury to any personnel,
 - (ii) prevent damage to either ship or the item being lifted.
3. Briefly describe a system aboard ship by which the spare gear can be monitored and an adequate supply be ensured for machinery repairs.
4. Explain what is meant by planned maintenance with respect to ship's machinery.

TEST EXAM**Class 2**

1. Give four common sources in a yard.
Explain why fire may spread faster in a repair yard than when on board a ship.
Describe the precautions taken to control and effect of fire in a repair yard.
2. Explain what is meant by 'planned maintenance'.
Give details of its application to ship's machinery and pumps.
3. List the safe practices to be observed:
 - (a) using lifting tackle,
 - (b) working beneath the overhead equipment,
 - (c) overhauling valves and lines,
 - (d) dismantling machinery.
4. (a) Explain the role of the Safety Committee.
(b) Outline the specific responsibilities of the Safety Committee on board a ship.

TEST EXAMPLES 12**Class 1**

1. The ship's crew have conducted a series of combined lifeboat and fire drills over the period of the voyage.
As Chief Engineer, make a brief report to the ship's management to explain the lessons learnt from these drills, proposing ways of improving the effectiveness of these emergency procedures.
2. Draft out a Chief Engineer's report to Head Office outlining a three month practical training programme on board ship for engineer cadets who have not been to sea before.
3. Your ship sustained a sudden and irrevocable loss of main propulsion power whilst entering port.
As Chief Engineer, make a report to Head Office, explaining the cause of the failure.
4. Most foreign going cargo ships are required to possess a valid Safety Equipment Certificate renewed at intervals after survey of the safety equipment.
 - (a) Identify those items covered by the Safety Equipment Certificate which are usually the responsibility of the Chief Engineer.
 - (b) Suggest how the survey should be organised in order that it be completed with the least trouble and delay.
 - (c) Suggest how it can be ensured that this safety equipment is in a full state of readiness at all times.

SPECIMEN EXAMINAT

CL

Miscellaneous

1. A new valve spindle is to be manufactured. Sketch giving all the information required for its manufacture.
2. What is the advantage of a... and give an example of a common treatment.
3. Explain why the water level... What might happen if the water level falls significantly. What are the dangers of a... significantly.
4. Water for boilers is usually... possible. Give reasons why this is so.
5. State the precautions to be taken in an enclosed space. What are the two main dangers?
6. When taking over a watch what should be checked.
7. Sketch and describe a small engine room, how is it tested?
8. Write brief comment on...
centrifugal pump performance
Wear rings
Impeller erosion
Gland sealing
Shaft wear
Speed

9. Explain how you would test an emergency fire pump. Where is this pump usually situated and why.
10. Describe some of the usual problems found in bilge pumping systems and explain what can be done to overcome them.
11. List the signs of damage or over straining which might be visible in a wire sling.
12. Itemise the safety precautions you would take before starting work on a steering gear motor.
13. A straight piece of fire main pipe on deck has corroded and needs to be renewed. After removing the corroded length of pipe the distance measured between the two adjoining flanges is 4m 37cm. The bore of the pipe is 10cm, flanges 20cm diameter and with 4 bolt holes 18mm diameter on 14.8cm PCD bolts off centre one end and on centre the other end.
Make a drawing suitable for giving to a shore firm to enable them to make the new piece of pipe.
14. Before lighting up an auxiliary oil fired boiler state the precautions to be taken.
15. Briefly describe a test for determining the tensile strength of a piece of steel.
16. Make a simple sketch of a boiler you are familiar with showing in section the main constructional parts.
17. Explain the function of the telemotor receiver in an electro-hydraulic steering gear system.
18. What are the dangers of letting a centrifugal pump run dry?
19. Briefly describe the smoke helmet type of breathing apparatus. Give one advantage and one disadvantage of this type.
20. State how you would test the main fire pump on a ship.
21. State the precautions you would take before dismantling an electric motor.

22. What dangers are increased when a ship's hull becomes dirty?
23. Why is it important that a ship's hull is painted?
24. State the two major chemicals used in fuel oil, and also give two other examples of fuel oil.
25. Sketch a screw down non-rust anchor and state the material of each part.
Give an example where this type of anchor is used.
26. Describe how a tubular heating coil is made.
27. Briefly describe why boilers are cleaned periodically, and state two of the methods used.
28. Describe with the aid of a sketch how a thermocouple is used, where would you expect to find it?
29. Sketch in section a 2 gallon oil drum and itemise each part. On what occasions would an extinguisher be used?
30. State what precautions should be taken when working in a cofferdam between a ballast tank and a cargo tank.
31. Explain briefly the following terms with regard to engineering materials:
 - (1) Annealed.
 - (2) Case hardened.
 - (3) Tempered.
 - (4) Nitrided.
Give an example of two of the above processes.
32. Make a diagrammatic sketch of a propeller and itemise the main components.
33. Explain the test procedure for an electro-hydraulic steering gear system.

34. Explain why it is necessary for a flexible coupling to be fitted between a medium speed main propulsion engine and a gearbox.

35. Make a drawing of a coupling bolt which would be suitable to give to an engineering firm so that some coupling bolts could be manufactured. The nominal diameter of the bolt is 70 mm and each flange is 75 mm thick.

The drawing should give all dimensions, material, etc.

36. For the following uses give a suitable material:

Diesel engine crankshaft.

Eye bolt used for lifting.

Oil heater tube nest.

Impeller for centrifugal sea water pump.

Diaphragm for pneumatically controlled valve.

37. Describe the basic refrigeration circuit for a compression type domestic refrigeration plant, what effect would a higher ambient temperature have on the unit?

38. With the aid of a simple sketch, explain how a watergauge fitted directly to a boiler is tested for accuracy when the boiler is steaming.

39. Why are positive displacement pumps usually fitted with relief valves, and why is this not usually the case with centrifugal pumps?

40. If a centrifugal bilge pump does not seem to be able to lower the level of water in the bilge state what should be checked.

Specimen Paper

DEPARTMENT OF EXAMINATION FOR CERTIFICATION CLASS 3 ENGINEERS ENGINEERING KNOWLEDGE

Answer ALL questions
Time allowed, 2 hours

1. A new shaft has to be made. Give the principal reference dimensions and overall length of shaft to be 500 mm. The internal bore of the coupling is 75 mm. The internal bore of the impeller is 100 mm. Both impeller and coupling flanges are 25 mm wide. Make a sketch giving all relevant dimensions. You will have to make reasonable assumptions.

2. Describe an oily water separator. Check that it was working satisfactorily.

3. State the material you would choose to make a propeller. State one of its main properties:
(a) Joint for flanged steam pipe.
(b) Spindle for sea water valve.
(c) Electrical contact in a starting motor.

4. Describe an electrically powered bilge pump. State how it is protected from overload.

5. Before injecting CO₂ gas into a fire, what is it necessary to do or consider?

6. If it is necessary to enter a tank filled with oil, explain how the following precautions should be taken:

7. Why is oil in boiler water considered dangerous, where does it usually come from and how can it be removed.
8. What pre-sea checks should be made on a steering gear and telemotor system.
9. Air compressors are prone to valve trouble, why is this and what can be done to limit this.
10. What items of hull and machinery should be checked in dry dock.
11. Your vessel develops a main engine defect that will necessitate assistance from a foreign repair yard (and possibly spares might have to be obtained by the repair yard from the UK). What information should you send ahead to the repair yard to help them.
12. With reference to a bank of batteries for emergency use, how would you:
 - (a) check that they are fully charged,
 - (b) keep them fully charged,
 - (c) what maintenance would you expect to do.

SPECIMEN EXAMINATION CLAS

Miscellaneous

1. Sketch a compressed air system showing all components and controls. Write notes on each component.
2. State the precautionary measures to be taken in the following instances: (a) employment of permanent gas bottles, (b) particular reference to duct keel gas bottles when charging a refrigeration plant, (c) use of safety lamps when testing for refrigerant gas.
3. Make a detailed sketch of a propeller shaft. Explain why sometimes fitted to propeller shafts are a bearing and a collar. Explain the purpose of each.
4. State the risks to personnel in (a) in the engine room, (b) in refrigeration plant, (c) in the emergency battery room. For each risk state the safety measures to be taken.
5. Describe with sketches, an explanation of how power is measured by measuring the power transmitted through the shaft to the propeller. Explain how the power is measured.
6. Sketch and describe a Pilgrim propeller. Explain how it is used when fitting the propeller. State two advantages this type of propeller has over other types.
7. Describe how the following faults in a refrigeration system become apparent and are corrected: (a) low oil level, (b) overcharge, (c) oil in the condenser.
8. Give three causes for a fire extinguisher failing to operate when required. Name the constituents used in this extinguisher. Explain how it is recharged. Explain how it is used.

- 9.** A bilge pump of the centrifugal type is found to be noticeably falling off in performance until it will barely empty the bilges although running continuously at its normal service speed. Give four common causes which individually or collectively will give rise to such a condition. Describe how each fault is traced, isolated or remedied by following a logical series of tests.
- 10.** Describe the operation of the following portable extinguishers and, for each type, state the type of fire for which it is most suitable: (a) soda-acid, (b) chemical foam, (c) carbon dioxide.
- 11.** Describe with sketches, two methods for remotely determining the quantity of liquid in a tank. Compare the accuracy of these methods and explain how the degree of accuracy can be maintained. State one possible source of error for each of the methods described.
- 12.** Give two desirable properties and one undesirable property of each of the following metals: (a) brass, (b) cast iron, (c) mild steel. State for each of these metals one application in marine engineering where it is most suited.
- 13.** If a fire broke out in the engine room, explain how: (a) the fuel supply could be shut off, (b) the supply of air could be shut off, (c) the fire could be dealt with from outside the engine room, giving a summary of all the facilities available for this purpose.
- 14.** With reference to propeller shafts: (a) suggest, with reasons, the frequency at which shafts should be withdrawn for inspection, (b) state the defects that should be looked for during the inspection, (c) explain why some shafts require less frequent inspection than others, (d) explain why the introduction of the 'split' stern bearing has considerably reduced the normal frequency of dry docking the ship.
- 15.** Give two indications that the main shaft bearings are unequally loaded at sea. Describe how the effect of unequal load distribution may be relieved whilst still at sea. Describe what remedial action will be taken in port.
- 16.** State why a pneumatic compressor is used to move air. Explain how the following are cleaned: (a) air, (b) oil, (c) dust and dirt.
- 17.** Give two indications other than temperature that a freon refrigeration plant is not operating correctly. State what the trouble may be and describe how it is remedied.
- 18.** Describe the operation of a filter which is fitted across an oil filter. Explain how the filter is tested whilst the filter is in service.
- 19.** Sketch a propeller shaft assembly showing the stern tubes: (a) water lubricated stern tube, (b) white metal lined stern tube. Describe main defects in (a) and (b). State how these defects are remedied.
- 20.** With reference to multi-stage centrifugal pumps: (a) draw a diagram of a two pass cooler showing the direction of flow, (b) identify the materials of the parts of the cooler, (c) state the serious faults to which (a) is prone, (d) state how these faults are inhibited.
- 21.** With reference to centrifugal air compressors: (a) draw a diagram of a rotary air pump, (b) state why it is used, (c) state why it works, (d) state why bilge pumps are more attention than other centrifugal pumps.
- 22.** With reference to oily waste handling: (a) draw a diagram of an automatic separator handling liquid containing oil, (b) explain how it operates, (c) state why attention is needed to maintain the separator, (d) state how the maximum throughput is important.
- 23.** State why oxygen deficiency is a danger in ships. Describe the precautions to be taken in recently opened space. Describe the use of breathing apparatus. State how the apparatus is cleaned before use and warning is given to the user.
- 24.** With reference to centrifugal pumps: (a) draw a diagram of a pump which is used to handle large quantities of sea water, (b) state the types of pump used, (c) state the types of impellers used, (d) state the types of bearings used.

pump need only be dismantled for inspection and overhaul at infrequent intervals, (b) state three common defects looked for during inspection, (c) describe why and how the impeller is sealed at the casing, (d) explain why the fineness of the clearance between casing and impeller is of less consequence with this pump than pumps for some other duties.

25. State the physical properties of materials used for the following components and give an explanation for the choice in each case: (a) safety valve or relief valve spring, (b) main engine bearing, (c) diesel engine crankshaft or high pressure turbine rotor.

26. State the physical properties of materials generally used for the following components and give an explanation for the choice in each case; (a) an oil cooler tube, (b) a ship-side valve chest, (c) an impeller of a centrifugal pump handling brine.

27. Define the meaning of the term 'coefficient of performance' in relation to refrigeration plant. Describe with sketches a refrigeration plant operating on the ammonia absorption cycle. State how its coefficient of performance compares with that of vapour compression systems.

28. With reference to hydraulic steering gears state: (a) what type of packing is used in the ram glands, (b) what emergency arrangements are provided to keep the main gear working, (c) how vertical movement of the rudder is accommodated.

29. Sketch a compressed air system for pneumatic controls labelling all the principal items. Describe with sketches an automatic drain on the air compressor. State what routine maintenance and tests are needed to keep the system fully operational.

30. Describe the tests to evaluate the following properties of oil: (a) viscosity, (b) closed flash point. Give representative results for a specified liquid fuel. Account for any inaccuracies in the tests.

31. With reference to a fixed carbon dioxide fire smothering system explain: (a) how rupture of the bursting disc on a gas cylinder does not result in loss of gas, (b) how the system is protected against accidental use, (c) why gang release is

necessary, how it functions and how it operates.

32. Describe a test to determine the water content of lubricating oil. Give two ways of removing water from the oil. Give three reasons why water in lubricating oil is undesirable.

33. Give a typical analysis of: (a) fresh water, (b) sea water. State why dissolved solids form scale when the water is heated.

34. Select the most suitable material for the following applications giving three good reasons: (a) cylinders of hydraulic steering gear, (b) shells of cooled oil coolers, (c) shells of

35. State what precautions are taken to prevent the occurrence of any outbreak of fire on board a ship. (a) fire main dismantled, (b) protection by welding in confined spaces, (c) protection by cotton waste deposited in tanks.

36. Sketch and describe a steam driven pump. State how the fluids are separated. Give two reasons why the pump is used and manufacture from titanium.

37. With reference to a fixed carbon dioxide fire smothering system describe with sketches how a bursting disc operates, (b) describe with sketches how the system operates, (c) state with reasons why the system requires special attention during use.

38. Draw a line diagram of a fire detection system labelling the principal items. Explain how the system works. Give two reasons why the system described has overcome certain difficulties.

39. Select the most suitable material for the following applications, giving three good reasons:

shafts and impellers of centrifugal bilge pumps, (b) intermediate main shafts, (c) safety or relief valve springs.

40. Describe how you would instruct new personnel in the care and use of: (a) breathing apparatus, (b) CO₂ flooding system, (c) hoses and nozzles, (d) portable fire extinguishers.

41. Sketch and describe a centrifugal oil separator. How, and why, is a water wash used? Discuss 'batch purification' and 'continuous bypass' systems for lubricating oil.

42. Sketch and describe the following for a refrigerator unit: (a) compressor crankshaft gland seal, (b) pressure switch, (c) regulator.

43. Sketch and describe a thermo-electric pyrometer. State the various materials that can be used in its construction and give the approximate temperature ranges for which these materials are suitable. What are the advantages and disadvantages of this instrument.

44. Sketch in diagrammatic form, and explain a refrigerating plant which utilises intermediate liquid cooling. State the refrigerating media used in this plant and the advantages of this type of system.

45. In what system of refrigeration is brine used? From what substances is it made? What is its freezing point? Why are the substances used? What density is used for the brine in circulation and how is testing carried out?

46. Describe a method of determining the calorific value of a fuel. What is meant by higher and lower calorific value. State the approximate calorific value of coal and fuel oil and explain any reason for the difference in values given.

Note:

Other specialist text books will need to be used to answer Section II (Electro technology) and Section III (Naval Architecture) questions given in the Class 2 specimen paper following.

Specimen Paper

DEPARTMENT
EXAMINATION FOR CERT.
CLASS 2 H

ENGINEERING KNOWL

Time allowed: 3 hours

IMPORTANT

This paper consists of FOUR
THREE sections.

Candidates are required to
questions as follows:

SECTION I (Questions 1-8)
Not more than SIX questions

SECTION II (Questions 9-11)
Not more than TWO questions

SECTION III (Questions 12-14)
Not more than TWO questions

**SECTION I
QUESTIONS 1-8**

This section carries 60% of the
Not more than SIX questions

1. (i) Draw a line diagram of a sewage system where raw sewage is collected from the discharge sewage pipes and processed for disposal. State the principal components and the direction of flow.
- (ii) Describe how the system works.
- (iii) Give reasons why the system must be considered safe when the sterile waste is disposed overboard at sea.

2. Give reasons why the following actions might help correct the fault if an electric salinometer registers an unacceptably high value for the distillate from a vacuum evaporator:
- (i) lower water level in evaporator, (2 marks)
 - (ii) increase flow rate through brine pump, (2 marks)
 - (iii) shut in coil inlet valve, (2 marks)
 - (iv) shut in vapour valve, (2 marks)
 - (v) Give reasons why salinity should be maintained at a consistently low value. (2 marks)
3. (i) Sketch in cross section, a pump other than of the reciprocating, centrifugal, or gear type. (4 marks)
- (ii) Explain how it operates. (4 marks)
- (iii) Suggest with reasons a shipboard application for which it is well suited. (2 marks)
4. With reference to rotary vane steering gear state:
- (i) how the fixed vanes are attached to the cylinder, (2 marks)
 - (ii) how the moving vanes are attached to the rotor, (2 marks)
 - (iii) how strength is imparted to the moving vanes to enable them to act as rudder stops, (2 marks)
 - (iv) how the vanes are sealed at the tips, (2 marks)
 - (v) how rudder uplift is accommodated. (2 marks)
5. (i) Sketch a hydraulic coupling between a medium speed diesel engine and reverse/reduction gear. (4 marks)
- (ii) Describe how it operates. (4 marks)
- (iii) State what advantages such couplings have over their friction, powder and magnetic counterparts. (2 marks)
6. Describe with sketches circuit transducers for producing electrical or pneumatic signals to indicate:
- (i) main lubricating oil pressure, (4 marks)
 - (ii) cylinder jacket cooling temperature, (4 marks)
 - (iii) State how each transducer is tested. (2 marks)

EXAMINATION FOR CERTIFICATE

7. (i) Suggest with reasons why the following data is relevant and significant to the qualities of a fuel oil: viscosity, Cetane number, pour point, closed flash point, open flash point, (ii) Define the significance of higher calorific value in relation to the standard of liquid fuels.
8. (i) Describe with sketches the following portable fire extinguishers: chemical foam, carbon dioxide, dry powder. (ii) Suggest why in certain circumstances carbon dioxide and dry powder may be more of a hazard than a benefit to untutored hands. (iii) Suggest why dry powder is more effective than carbon dioxide for switchboard fires. (iv) State why chemical foam extinguishers occasionally require recharging even though they have been used.

SECTION II**QUESTIONS 9-11**

This section carries 20% of the total marks.

Not more than TWO questions to be attempted in this section.

9. (i) Distinguish between 'Primary cell' and 'Secondary cell' and between 'acid cell' and 'alkaline cell'. (5 marks)
- (ii) Describe how a battery of alkaline cells may be tested for its usefulness after a long storage and if found deficient how it can be remedied. (5 marks)
10. (i) Explain the meaning of single phasing in a.c. machinery. (5 marks)
- (ii) State the dangers associated with single phasing and the protective devices normally fitted to counteract such dangers. (5 marks)
11. (i) State why incandescent lamps can be dimmed by simply regulating the applied voltage whereas this method cannot be used with gas discharge lamps. (3 marks)
- (ii) State under what circumstances the assumption that, a lamp maintains its value as long as it still functions, is wrong. (3 marks)
- (iii) State FOUR factors which influence the life of gas discharge lamps. (4 marks)
12. With reference to solid (i) how badly damaged a ship can be restored, (ii) why propellers run at different speeds from time to time, (iii) why intense concentrations of carbon dioxide cannot be applied to the skin.
13. (i) Sketch in diagram the arrangement of a stabiliser unit in a ship's athwartships interval. (5 marks)
- (ii) Describe how the sequence of operations is carried out. (5 marks)
- (iii) Define how the stabilisers effect the roll of a ship. (5 marks)
14. (i) State how fresh water is prepared for insulation purposes. (5 marks)
- (ii) State how the superstructure steelwork is treated. (5 marks)
- (iii) Give reasons for the use of heat treatment employed in ships. (5 marks)
- (iv) Give reasons why the use of such tanks is questionable. (5 marks)
15. Consumption of oil produced by evaporation is not necessarily for marine purposes.

SPECIMEN EXAMINATION QUESTIONS (DTp) CLASS 1

Miscellaneous

1. A rating has been badly burnt by a 'blow-back' from the oil fired auxiliary boiler. As Chief Engineer, make a full report to head office explaining the circumstances of the incident and the precautionary measures now taken to reduce the possibility of a similar occurrence in the future.
2. Describe how the supervisory equipment for the control of machinery in a periodically unattended engine room is itself monitored for defects on individual channels and as a complete unit.
3. You were instructed to discontinue water treatment in the auxiliary boiler for a specified period of time. As Chief Engineer, make a full report to head office stating how the trial has been productive of information and data applicable to the improvement of boiler management.
4. With reference to a dock bottom inspection of a propeller shaft that is carried in a wood lined, water cooled, stern tube, state: (a) where corrosive action may be discovered, (b) the fault responsible for the wastage, (c) to what extent the wastage may be considered serious, (d) the defects associated with the keyways on the taper and how they arise, (e) why cavities between the liner and shaft may be considered serious.
5. In taking over a ship in a foreign port you are dissatisfied with your predecessor's report on the condition of the machinery. As Chief Engineer, write to head office expressing dissatisfaction with the report, making such amendments to it as you consider necessary.
6. Identify the chief causes of overheating in tunnel bearings and of vibration in main shafting. Explain why the siting of the engineer room amidships enhances these tendencies. State how overheating and vibration may be reduced or eliminated.
7. Explain why it is advisable to examine propeller shafts at regular intervals of time. Describe an examination of a solid shaft that is carried in a wood lined, water cooled bearing.

8. Sketch and describe a system of propeller shaft speed. Explain why inaccuracies occur and are kept to a minimum.
9. Compare the relative merits of combustion gas (ionisation) and machinery spaces. Explain why one is more desirable than any one type.
10. Explain how the Prevention of Pollution Act affects the normal operation of shipboard machinery spaces. (a) comply with the Act, (b) document.
11. Sketch and describe a system. Describe the precautions taken for drinking purposes.
12. Explain why radiographic techniques are suitable for use during shipboard surveys. Give two examples where such techniques are used in either process in detail.
13. Explain in what manner the Chief Engineer is responsible for safety at sea and in port. Describe the measures he can take to ensure that oil or oily water is not discharged.
14. Sketch and describe a system. Leakage is prevented. State one reason why it possesses over the tubular type.
15. Explain why the performance of a circulating pump 'falls off' in certain conditions. How is this 'fall off' indicated. Describe how the pump is restored to its original performance.
16. Explain why a carbon dioxide fire extinguishing system requires periodical inspection and servicing. State the nature of this servicing. State the disadvantages this system has.
17. Explain how the ingress of water into a lubricated stern bearing system is prevented.

the corrective action possible whilst the vessel is afloat. State why two stern bearing oil header tanks are fitted in some instances.

18. Sketch and describe a method of measuring the pressure differential for fluid flow systems. State what are the effects of altering the orifice plate size of the position of the tapping points.

19. You have been advised that the amount of spare gear carried in the ship is to be reduced to just meet Classification Society's requirements. As Chief Engineer, make a report to head office requesting, with reasons, additional items for retention in the ship.

20. State what is the purpose of each of the following items in a machinery control system: (a) portable mercury manometer, (b) portable inclined-tube manometer, (c) portable temperature potentiometer, (d) compressor and vacuum pump. Describe in detail any two of these items.

21. Any proposal to operate a machinery space in the periodically unattended condition must take into account the dangers from fire, flooding and failure of supervisory equipment. Describe how the possibility of the latter two hazards may be minimised, detected and brought to the attention of the designated watchkeeper.

22. You have been asked for an explanation why your vessel's fuel consumption is significantly higher and its average sea speed correspondingly lower than that of a sister vessel. As Chief Engineer, make a report to head office giving in your opinion a full explanation for the discrepancy.

23. Make a simplified diagram of the operating gear for a controllable pitch propeller. Explain how the pitch is controlled and what happens if the control mechanism fails.

24. Give three reasons why axial flow pumps are particularly suitable for salt water circulation of steam condensers and similar large heat exchangers. Give one reason why this type of pump has a rather restricted shipboard application. Describe one further application for which the axial flow pump is well suited.

25. Explain how wear on bearings is influenced by each of the following factors: (a) dimensions of the bearing and contact surfaces, (b) relative speeds of the bearing surfaces, (c) roughness of the bearing surfaces, (d) lubricant and bearing material. State how each factor is identified during inspection. Suggest how wear can be minimised in operational or maintenance situations.

26. In bunkering fuel in both port and starboard tanks, you are required to: (a) describe: (a) the dangers present, (b) the safety precautions to be taken, (c) the methods used to detect the presence of oil vapour.

27. Make a three point comparison between centrifugal and reciprocating pumps with those types of pump. Suggest, with reasons, the applications for each of the following installations: (a) ship's service circulation, (b) domestic fresh water supply, (c) stabiliser actuation.

28. Explain the problems involved in the detection of oil heads in machinery spaces. Describe how the oil detection system is functioning.

29. With particular reference to ship's service circulation, explain on any two of the following topics: (a) the auto ignition temperatures of various hydrocarbons and how these are lower than those of the lighter fractions, (b) the fact that the presence of oil residue in boilers is dangerous, (c) the fact that oil is intrinsically safe or flame proof, (d) the use of oil as a fuel during any normal shipboard emergency.

30. Sketch and describe the main features of reciprocating, centrifugal, or axial flow pumps. Explain how each type possesses over other types. Suggest for which it might be best suited.

31. Explain why a simple centrifugal pump is not suitable for bilge pumping duties. Sketch how the pump can be rendered suitable.

32. Explain why the fuel pump is required to be periodically unattended auxiliary power. State the alarm condition for low oil pressure.

pressure, air failure and flame failure. Describe how and when you could safely test these devices.

33. Make a detailed sketch of the sealing arrangements for an oil-filled stern tube. Describe the common forms of seal failure. Explain how oil loss due to seal failure is restricted whilst on passage. Describe how the seals are restored to their original effectiveness. Give a reason other than the expense of oil loss why effective sealing is necessary.

34. With reference to ram type electro-hydraulic steering gears explain: (a) why four rams are provided in many instances, (b) with sketches the arrangement of the crosshead rapson slide and its principle of operation, (c) why the telemotor receiver is spring loaded and the effect on steering of spring failure.

35. Sketch and describe a fuel meter used with high viscosity fuel. Explain how it operates. Explain the value of the readings obtained and how they are used.

36. The necessity has arisen for the complete replenishment of the main lubricating oil system. As Chief Engineer report to head office justifying this heavy expenditure, explaining the temporary steps taken to avoid further trouble on voyage and suggesting permanent measures to avoid repetition.

37. With reference to main shaft bearings that are excessively loaded or very lightly loaded state for each condition what are the: (a) indications of the fault, (b) effects on adjacent bearings, (c) remedial steps. Explain why load distribution on main shaft bearings changes in service.

38. Compare the current methods of mounting propellers on their shafts. Sketch and describe a method of mounting a propeller on its shaft by 'hydraulic floating'. Give four good reasons why this method is considered superior to all others.

39. Give a reasoned opinion as to the accuracy of each of the following statements: (a) the smaller the particle size of dry powder the greater the fire extinguishing effect, (b) little advantage is gained in using carbon dioxide in preference to water unless the intensity of the fire is such as to render water ineffective, (c) low expansion foam is more effective than high expansion foam in many instances.

40. Compare the characteristics of supercavitating pumps. State which pump is most suited for each of the following: (a) water circulating, (b) crude chemical cargo discharge.

41. Give a reasoned opinion as to the validity of the following statements: (a) the carbon dioxide fire extinguisher is mainly responsible for its extinction of fires in machinery spaces, (b) dry powder is mainly effective by physical means, (d) high expansion foam is a suitable smothering agent in machinery spaces.

42. With reference to safety at sea, state the precautions to be observed when cleaning the crankcase or boiler furnace while the engine is running, cleaning engine components or painting in the shaft tunnel at anchor or when working at a crane at sea.

43. With reference to heat exchangers, state the meaning of the terms 'parallel flow' and 'counter-current flow' and two disadvantages of each. State for which each is most suitable and the reason for the efficiency of heat exchangers.

44. Describe with sketches, the principle of operation of the following fire detection systems: (a) unattended machinery spaces: (b) thermal, (c) ionisation chamber.

45. Explain why in many cases the use of static filter modules has replaced centrifuges for oil filtering. Sketch and describe a static filter module for separating water from fuel. State what standard of purity is maintained in service.

46. Explain the mechanics of fatigue failure. State what is likely to occur in marine engineering structures under the following conditions: (a) alternating stress, (b) cyclic loading, (c) magnitude of stress. Identify the common signs of fatigue failure and the measures taken to avoid failure.

47. With reference to tubular heat exchangers explain: (a) how differential movement tubes and body is accommodated when the tube plates are rigidly located in the body, (b) how and why turbulence is imparted to fluid flow through the tubes, (c) why it has become possible to discard sacrificial anodes in sea water coolers, (d) what is meant by the term 'guided flow', with particular reference to oil heaters.

48. Give two reasons for sludge formation in main lubricating oil systems. Explain how bearing metal is attacked with particular reference to incompatibility between the oil and metal. Explain the role of additives and state what normal practices must be suspended in order to maintain treated oils in their optimum condition. Discuss the problems associated with the use of a multi-purpose lubricating oil.

49. Sketch and describe how cool and flow may be measured on a linear scale. Explain the principle of operation of the instrument concerned. Explain why the values recorded may vary from those expected from calculations.

50. In a particular case of collision and outbreak of fire the Court of Formal Investigation was not satisfied that proper co-ordination existed between engineering and deck departments. Discuss how a good measure of co-operation can be achieved paying particular attention to equipment with which both departments should be familiar.

Note:

Other specialist text books will need to be used to answer Section II (**Electro** technology) and Section III (Naval Architecture) questions given in the Class 1 specimen paper following.

Specimen Paper

DEPARTMENT OF EXAMINATION FOR CERTIFICATION CLASS 1 ENGINES

ENGINEERING KNOWLEDGE

Time allowed: 3 hours

IMPORTANT

This paper consists of FOUR
THREE sections.

Candidates are required to answer
questions as follows:

SECTION I (Questions 1-8)
Not more than SIX questions to be answered

SECTION II (Questions 9-11)
Not more than TWO questions to be answered

SECTION III (Questions 12-14)
Not more than TWO questions to be answered

SECTION I QUESTIONS 1-8

This section carries 60% of the marks
Not more than SIX questions to be answered

1. (i) Give reasons why synthetic lubricants normally be passed through centrifuges.
- (ii) State why centrifuges should receive immediate attention for reasons other than mechanical.
- (iii) Explain why oil pressure assists centrifuge separation.

2. With reference to multi plate heat exchangers state why:
- fluid pressure and temperature does not normally exceed 10 bar and 150°C respectively, (3 marks)
 - preference for titanium and stainless steel plates is increasing, (2 marks)
 - carrying bars and clamping bolts are often much longer than pack thickness, (2 marks)
 - plates usually carry an impressed relief pattern. (3 marks)
3. (i) Sketch a self contained totally submerged pump for emptying tanks of hazardous liquid chemical cargo. (4 marks)
- (ii) Explain why this pump is used for such services. (3 marks)
- (iii) Identify the safety features incorporated in the pump design. (3 marks)
4. With reference to hydraulic power systems explain how the power units are able to meet the following requirements:
- follow an infinitely variable pumping characteristic, (3 marks)
 - response to demand signal to be only marginally slower than electrical power systems, (3 marks)
 - full range of torque to be instantly available upon demand, (3 marks)
 - state why such a pump is to be preferred to a positive displacement pump with a controlled discharge. (1 mark)
5. (i) Identify those factors restricting the reliability of propeller shaft bearings. (3 marks)
- (ii) Define the limitations of white metal stern tube bearings. (4 marks)
- (iii) State why the advantage of roller over plain bearings is lost in propeller shaft applications. (3 marks)
6. With reference to the pressure sealing of control valve spindles state why:
- tetrafluoroethylene packing is commonly used, (4 marks)
- (ii) a considerable depth of oil is often employed, (iii) bellow glands are sometimes used.
7. (i) Give two reasons for bearing failure in main lube systems. (ii) Explain how bearing failures can be minimised with particular reference to incompatibility between oil and bearing materials. (iii) Define the role of additives in what normal practice is to have bearings suspended in order to protect treated oils in their operating condition.
8. With reference to fire fighting systems give two reasons why:
- dry powder is preferred to water, (ii) mechanical foam is preferred to dry powder, (iii) halon 1301 is preferred to carbon dioxide, (iv) light water foam is preferred to dry powder.

SECTION II**QUESTIONS 9-11**

This section carries 20% of the total marks.

Not more than TWO questions to be attempted in this section.

9. With reference to electrical equipment in potentially flammable atmospheres aboard ships:
 - (i) Explain why conventional equipment is considered to be hazardous. (3 marks)
 - (ii) Explain the concept of intrinsic safety. (3 marks)
 - (iii) Describe an intrinsically safe installation. (4 marks)

10. (i) Explain why automatic voltage regulation is required for an a.c. generator. (3 marks)

 (ii) Describe the main requirements for an automatic voltage regulator suitable for marine service. (3 marks)

 (iii) Briefly describe the operation of an automatic voltage regulator. (4 marks)

11. With reference to a.c. deck machinery:
 - (i) State two forms of drive suitable for cargo working winches. (2 marks)
 - (ii) Describe a drive suitable for a windlass. (5 marks)
 - (iii) Describe the routine maintenance required for motor control equipment subjected to frequent starting. (3 marks)

EXAMINATION FOR CERTIFICATE OF C**SECTION III****QUESTIONS 12-14**

This section carries 20% of the

Not more than TWO questions

12. (i) Describe with sketch how a propeller is mounted from the propeller shaft. (hydraulic floating)

 (ii) Evaluate the advantages of 'hydraulic floating' possessed by a propeller. (up).

 (iii) State what precautions are observed when manoeuvring a propeller in 'hydraulic floating'.

13. Bulbous protruberances are fitted to ships to provide permanent buoyancy. (i) Define with reasons the advantage gained from this at the fore foot. (ii) Suggest with reasons why the ship is equally important to the ship from these appendages. Bow flare provides temporary stability. (iii) Define with reasons the advantage gained from this in bow flare. (iv) Suggest with reasons why the ship gains stability from bow flare.

14. Define with reasons the risks involved in each of the following processes:
 - (i) electrical charge
 - (ii) emission of toxic fumes from an underwater surface
 - (iii) shot blasting of metal plates together by impact of 'self polishing' particles.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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