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# VALVE THROTTLING, ITS INFLUENCE ON COMPRESSOR EFFICIENCY AND GAS TEMPERATURES

## Part I. Full load operation

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### Abstract

The paper derives simple formulas for temperature rises in the compressed gas due to leakage and work losses in valves, to estimate volumetric and isentropic efficiencies of reciprocating compressors at full load, by proposing simple analytical approaches to every single one of the factors of influence considered.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Due to a number of physical effects unavoidable in real reciprocating compressors, the volume of gas transported per compression cycle from the suction line to the discharge line is smaller than the volume displaced by the piston, and the gas inside this already reduced volume is at a higher temperature and hence thinner than the gas at nominal suction conditions  $p_1$  and  $T_1$ . Both effects reduce compressor capacity. Furthermore, the work  $W_{real}$  required by a real compressor will be higher than the work  $W_{is}$  necessary for isentropic compression of the same mass of gas from  $p_1, T_1$  to  $p_2$  and  $T_{2,is}$ , and it is the task of the engineer to minimize these adverse effects. Many approaches have been proposed so far to forecast volumetric and energetic efficiencies of reciprocating compressors, we shall mention here only those that have recently been presented here at Purdue, in particular

- *H.J. Kleinert and H. Najork* (1986 [1]) use a number of different efficiencies (indicated, isentropic, of utilization, volumetric, of denseness etc.), some of them being defined by analytical formulas, others are determined empirically, to forecast compressor performance.
- *T. Morel and R. Keribar* (1988 [2] and [3]) use elaborate Finite Element Methods to completely model the compressor and forecast gas flows and heat transfer as well as gas and component temperatures.
- *J.A. McGovern* (1990 [4]) presents a simple and clear physical approach to account for some of the effects to be considered hereafter.
- *E.H. Machu* (1990 [5]) uses a system of differential equations to account not only for valve throttling, but also for heat transfer and valve leakage to find indicated power, gas temperatures and efficiencies of delivery.

If the papers presented in [1] or [4] cover only part of the problem, the methods presented in [2] and [3], or [5] require highly specialized software and time consuming computations, they are therefore not available to everybody and, above all, they are unable to allow a rapid quantification of the different factors of influence. In the present paper, pulsations are neglected, i.e. pressures in suction and discharge plenums are assumed constant, all formulas assume ideal gas behaviour with constant specific heats  $C_p$  and  $C_v$ .

## 2 EFFICIENCIES OF A RECIPROCATING COMPRESSOR

To compare different designs, the following efficiencies are useful:

1. The volumetric efficiency  $\eta_v$  is defined geometrically as the ratio of effective intake volume to stroke volume. The resulting  $\eta_v$  is the base length of the isentropic part of the indicator diagram.

$$\eta_v = \frac{\text{length of the effective suction stroke}}{\text{length of piston stroke}} = 1 - \Delta z_{ex} - \Delta z_s \quad (2.1)$$

where  $\Delta z_{ex}$  is the well known expansion loss

$$\Delta z_{ex} = s \left[ \frac{Z_1}{Z_2} \left( \frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)^{\frac{1}{\kappa}} - 1 \right] \quad (2.2)$$

The other volume loss  $\Delta z_s$  is due to heavy suction valve throttling, it occurs only for  $q > 0.16$  approximately, when cylinder pressure in the outer dead center is still below suction plenum pressure.

$$\Delta z_s \approx \max \left( 0, \frac{q - 0.16}{5} \right) \quad \text{where} \quad q = \left( \frac{V_{st}}{\Phi} \right)^2 \cdot \frac{\omega^2}{8} \cdot \frac{\rho_1}{p_1} \approx \frac{\Delta p_{max}}{p_1} \quad (2.3)$$

This definition of  $\Delta z_s$  seems more correct than using the ratio of cylinder pressure in the outer piston dead center to nominal suction pressure  $p_1$ , since, as long as cylinder pressure is smaller than  $p_1$ , the suction valve will be open, gas will still flow into the cylinder even after the piston has passed its outer dead center position, and  $\frac{p_{cyl}}{p_1} \neq \frac{1 + s - \Delta z_s}{1 + s}$ .

2. With  $M$  as the mass of gas delivered per compression cycle, nominal suction gas density  $\rho_1$  at  $p_1$ ,  $T_1$ , and  $T_{1,s}$  as the temperature inside the working chamber at  $p_1$ , after the intake stroke and before compression, the efficiency of delivery  $\lambda$  is defined as

$$\lambda = \frac{M}{V_{st} \rho_1} = (\eta_v - \Delta \lambda_i) \frac{T_1}{T_{1,s}} = \lambda^* \frac{T_1}{T_{1,s}} \quad (2.4)$$

such that  $M$  is given by

$$M = \rho_1 \lambda V_{st} = \frac{p_1}{RT_{1,s} Z_1} \lambda V_{st} = \frac{p_1}{RT_{1,s} Z_1} \lambda^* V_{st} \quad (2.5)$$

3. Leaking valves cause a volume loss  $\Delta \lambda_i^*$  as well as a mass loss  $\Delta \lambda$ . Since valve leakage distorts the indicator diagram, compression and expansion lines are no more isentropes, and it is preferable not to account for it in  $\eta_v$ . Indeed, if a valve is not broken but only worn normally, leakage is not excessive and its influence cannot be taken with sufficient precision from a measured indicator diagram, except perhaps when using sophisticated diagnostics software ([7], [8]) or other rather complex computer programs ([2], [5]). An approximate formula for estimating  $\Delta \lambda_i$  analytically, together with the associated temperature rise, is given below, equations 4.4 and 4.7.
4. The isentropic efficiency  $\eta_{is}$  is defined as the ratio between  $W_{is}$ , the work required for lossfree isentropic compression, to  $W_{real}$ , which is the work required by the real cycle to compress a mass of gas  $M$ , i.e.

$$\eta_{is} = \frac{W_{is}}{W_{real}} \approx \frac{h_{2,is} - h_1}{h_{dpt} - h_1} = \frac{T_{2,is} - T_1}{T_{dpt} - T_1} \quad (2.6)$$

The right hand sides of equation 2.6 after the approximate sign assume  $\Delta Q = 0$ , see equation 6.1.  $W_{is}$  is given by

$$W_{is} = p_1 V_{st} \eta_v \frac{T_1}{T_{1,s}} \cdot \frac{Z_1 + Z_2}{2Z_1} \cdot \frac{\kappa}{\kappa - 1} \left[ \left( \frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)^{\frac{\kappa-1}{\kappa}} - 1 \right] \quad (2.7)$$

Note that  $W_{is}$  (equation 2.7) is the work necessary for compressing a mass of gas  $M$  under temperature  $T_1$ , and not  $T_{1,s}$ , the gas temperature inside the working chamber at  $p_{cyl} = p_1$ , after the suction event, before compression.  $W_{is}$  corresponds therefore to the part of the indicator diagram between  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ , with base length  $\eta_v \frac{T_1}{T_{1,s}}$  which is smaller than  $\eta_v$ .

### 3 SURVEY OF THE TEMPERATURE CHANGES OF THE GAS

During its path through the cylinder (in the wider sense of the word, i.e. including suction and discharge plenums) of a reciprocating compressor operating at full load, the gas will take the following temperatures, starting from nominal suction temperature  $T_1$  in the suction pipe:

$T_{spt}$  is the suction plenum temperature at pressure  $p_1$ .  $T_{spt}$  can differ from  $T_1$  due to late closure of the suction valve allowing hotter gas to flow back, due to heat exchange and due to valve leakage, the only effect to be considered here, for full load operation.

$T_{1,s}$  is the temperature in the working chamber at the end of the suction stroke, at  $p_{cyl} = p_1$ .  $\Delta T_{1,s} = T_{1,s} - T_{spt}$  can be found from equation 6.8 when  $\Delta Q_s$  and  $\Delta W_s$  are known. It should be noted that temperature  $T_{1,s}$  is the one having the biggest impact on compressor capacity and isentropic efficiency: In fact, the higher  $T_{1,s}$ , the smaller will be the mass of gas contained in the working chamber at the beginning of the compression stroke, while the work required for isentropic compression remains unchanged. For this reason, ample suction valve flow areas are more important for good efficiencies than ample discharge flow areas.

$T_{2,is} = T_1 \left( \frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)^{\frac{\gamma-1}{\gamma}}$  is the temperature at  $p_2$  on the isentrope starting at  $p_1$ ,  $T_1$ .

$T_{2,c}$  is the temperature in the working chamber at the end of the compression stroke at  $p_{cyl} = p_2$ , on the isentrope (i.e. neglecting any heat exchange during compression, and considering discharge valves to be tight) starting from  $p_1$ ,  $T_{1,s}$ , i.e.  $T_{2,c} = T_{1,s} \frac{T_{2,is}}{T_1}$ .

$T_{2,d}$  is the final discharge temperature of the real compression cycle, in the discharge plenum, at  $p_{cyl} = p_2$ , to be found from 6.15.

$T_{dpt}$  is the temperature in the discharge pipe, as the result of mixing of two gas streams, one from the head end and one from crank end working chamber, both leaving their discharge valves with different temperatures  $T_{2,d}$ , and having possibly undergone heat exchange in the discharge plenum:

$$T_{dpt} = \frac{(M T_{2,d})_{HE} + (M T_{2,d})_{CE}}{M_{HE} + M_{CE}} \quad (3.1)$$

To be exact, each of these states has to be associated with its own compressibility factor  $Z$ , however, for simplicity, we shall assume that, on the suction side

$$Z_1 \approx Z_{spt} \approx Z_{1,s} \quad \text{and on the discharge side} \quad Z_2 \approx Z_{2,is} \approx Z_{2,c} \approx Z_{2,d} \approx Z_{dpt} \quad (3.2)$$

### 4 INFLUENCE OF VALVE LEAKAGE

Even when closed, a leaking valve offers a small flow area  $A_l$  considered to be proportional to total length of seat lands, also called valve opening periphery, of that valve, where leakage lift  $h_l$  is the factor or proportionality. Typically, we can assume  $h_l = 0.25 \times 10^{-3} [mm] = 10^{-5} [in]$ . With nominal lift  $h$  corresponding to a nominal valve port area  $A_{gap}$ , we have

$$A_l = A_{gap} \frac{h_l}{h} \quad (4.1)$$

#### 4.1 Volume loss due to valve leakage

Figure 1 shows in the upper part a typical  $p-\theta$ -chart of a reciprocating compressor operating at full load, and in its lower part the resulting leakage gas flow rates  $\frac{dM}{d\theta}$ . The areas under these curves represent  $\int \frac{dM}{d\theta} d\theta = \Delta M_l$ , the total mass of gas leaking back. With small leakages, neither the indicator diagram nor the gas temperatures will differ significantly from those when operating with tight valves. With this simplification we can make the following statements as to the masses of gas leaking back and their impact on compressor capacity:

1. Leakage through the suction valve:

- (a) During the expansion event, the gas leaking from the working chamber to the suction plenum does not influence compressor capacity, since all the gas leaking back will be taken in immediately afterwards, in addition to the gas normally taken in from the suction plenum.
- (b) During the intake stroke, the suction valve is open and can by definition not be leaking.
- (c) During compression and discharge, any gas leaking back towards the suction plenum reduces the mass of gas in the cylinder, and hence compressor capacity.

2. Leakage through the discharge valve:

- (a) Any particle of gas leaking back through the closed discharge valve during expansion and intake is missing in the discharge plenum, and is in surplus inside the working chamber, since it takes the place of another particle of gas that otherwise would have come in from the suction plenum. Consequently, leakage through the discharge valve during the expansion and intake reduces compressor capacity.
- (b) During compression, any particle of gas leaking back through the discharge valve will immediately be recompressed and discharged shortly afterwards, consequently it does not reduce compressor capacity.

The above statements can be summarized as follows:

- During the first half of a crank shaft revolution, it is the leakage through the discharge valve that reduces compressor capacity, it is given by the area hatched vertically in Figure 1.
- During the second half of a crank shaft revolution, it is the leakage through the suction valve that reduces compressor capacity, this reduction is given by the area hatched horizontally in Figure 1.

From Figure 1, it can be seen that the sum of the areas hatched horizontally and vertically (representing the total leakage volume loss per compression cycle through suction and discharge valves with identical leakage areas  $A_l$ ) is only slightly smaller than the area of the rectangle a-b-c-d which equals the mass of gas leaking back per crankshaft revolution through the discharge valve during zero load operation, with the suction side being unloaded, discharge plenum pressure and temperature being those of full load operation. This mass of gas can therefore easily be calculated. With reference to Figure 1, we define a correction factor  $\varphi$  (in most cases  $0.6 \leq \varphi \leq 1.0$ )

$$\varphi = \frac{\text{sum of the hatched areas}}{\text{area of the rectangle a-b-c-d}} \quad (4.2)$$

Let  $p_2$ ,  $T_{dpl}$  be the gas state function in the discharge plenum during full load operation,  $\rho_{dpl}$  and  $Z_{dpl}$  the corresponding gas density and real gas compressibility factor, further let  $u_m$  be the mean gas velocity in the suction valve gap area  $A_{gap}$ . With  $\epsilon = \max(0.5, \frac{p_{downstream}}{p_{upstream}})$  as the expansion ratio, and  $\Psi \approx \sqrt{(1-\epsilon)\epsilon^{\frac{1.024\epsilon}{\lambda}}}$  as the expansion function (see [5]), the rate of gas flow  $\dot{M}_l$  through the closed but leaking discharge valve, as well as the mass of gas  $\dot{M}_{100\%}$  delivered during full load operation per compression cycle with tight valves, are given by

$$\dot{M}_l = A_l \rho_{dpl} \varphi \Psi \sqrt{2RT_{dpl}Z_{dpl}} \quad \text{and} \quad \dot{M}_{100\%} = 0.5 \rho_1 A_{gap} u_m \lambda^* \left[ \frac{kg}{s} \right] \quad (4.3)$$

With the ratio of gas densities  $\frac{\rho_{dpl}}{\rho_1} \approx \left(\frac{p_2}{p_1}\right)^{\frac{1}{\lambda}}$ , the reduction in efficiency of delivery  $\Delta\lambda_1^*$  (the suffix \* signifying *not yet accounting for temperature increase in the suction plenum*) is given by the ratio of  $\dot{M}_l$  over  $\dot{M}_{100\%}$

$$\Delta\lambda_1^* = \frac{\dot{M}_l}{\dot{M}_{100\%}} \approx \varphi \frac{0.5 \times 10^{-3}}{\lambda u_m \lambda^*} \Psi \sqrt{2RT_{dpl}} \frac{\rho_{dpl}}{\rho_1} \quad (4.4)$$

## 4.2 Rise in suction plenum temperature due to valve leakage

Any gas leaking back from the discharge plenum to the working chamber, or from the working chamber to the suction plenum will increase the enthalpy and hence the temperature downstream. This effect will take place for *all gas particles leaking back*, independently of whether they reduce efficiency of delivery (and correspond to the hatched areas in Figure 1) or whether they do not, i.e. enthalpy is carried backwards from the discharge side to the suction plenum by a mass of gas  $> M_l$ .

On the other hand, only the gas leaking back from the discharge plenum (the place with the highest cycle temperature  $T_{dpl}$ ) will carry highest specific enthalpy  $h_{dpl}$ , those leaking through the suction valve are generally cooler. To simplify matters, we shall not consider a bigger leakage mass (the one that reduces efficiency of delivery, and the one that does not) carrying a smaller specific enthalpy, but calculate total enthalpy input into the suction plenum due to gas leakage to be equal to  $M \Delta\lambda_l^* h_{dpl}$ . Mixing in the suction plenum of a mass of gas  $M(\lambda^* - \Delta\lambda_l^*)$  from the suction line with  $T_1$ , with another mass  $M \Delta\lambda_l^*$  leaking back through closed suction valves and having a temperature  $T_{dpl}^*$  will result in a mean temperature  $T_{spl}$  in the suction plenum

$$M T_{spl} \lambda^* = M T_1 (\lambda^* - \Delta\lambda_l^*) + M T_{dpl}^* \Delta\lambda_l^* \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{T_{spl}}{T_1} = 1 + \frac{\Delta\lambda_l^*}{\lambda^*} \left( \frac{T_{dpl}^*}{T_1} - 1 \right) \quad (4.5)$$

Assuming that the increase in final temperature in the discharge plenum  $T_{dpl}$  is approximately proportional to the increase in suction plenum temperature  $T_{spl}$ , we have

$$\frac{T_{dpl}}{T_1} = \frac{T_{dpl}^*}{T_1} \cdot \frac{T_{spl}}{T_1} \quad (4.6)$$

This increased  $T_{dpl}$  in the discharge plenum will in turn send hotter leakage gases to the suction plenum and increase there  $T_{spl}$ . Substituting for  $\frac{T_{dpl}}{T_1}$  from equation 4.6 in 4.5 we get the new relationship

$$\frac{T_{spl}}{T_1} \approx \frac{\lambda^* - \Delta\lambda_l^*}{\lambda^* - \Delta\lambda_l^* \frac{T_{dpl}^*}{T_1}} \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta\lambda = \Delta\lambda_l^* \frac{T_{spl}}{T_1} \quad (4.7)$$

$\Delta\lambda_l$  is an estimate for the real loss in efficiency of delivery due to valve leakage, for small  $\Delta\lambda_l^* < 5\%$ .

## 4.3 Conclusion

From equation 4.4 it can be seen that the leakage loss  $\Delta\lambda_l$  is the higher,

1. the smaller the product of valve lift  $h$  multiplied by mean gas velocity  $u_m$  in the valve gap,
2. the smaller the efficiency of delivery  $\lambda$ ,
3. the smaller the molecular weight  $\bar{M}$  of the compressed gas, since the gas constant  $R = \frac{8314.5}{\bar{M}}$  is inversely proportional to  $\bar{M}$ .

Other leakages may occur along piston rings, they are not considered here. Leakages along piston rod packings leave the system and have no influence on temperatures.

## 5 HEAT TRANSFER BETWEEN THE DUCTS OF THE SUCTION VALVE AND THE GAS FLOWING THEREIN

The following is a very simplified approach, just enough to estimate the order of magnitude of this influence. If it appeared to be of any significance, some research work would have to be done, in particular on heat transfer constants  $\alpha$ . Neglecting the heat which eventually is transferred by conduction between the suction valve and the surrounding valve pocket, the amount of heat given to the flowing gas during intake must equal the amount of heat exchanged with the valve during the remainder of the cycle. Since

heat transfer coefficients increase with flow velocity, it is sufficient to look at the heat transferred when there is no flow in the valve to get an estimate for  $\Delta Q$ . Considering the generated surface of the guard (or of the seat in the case of a discharge valve) perpendicular to the valve's sealing surface as a rectangle, whose base length equals the valve opening perimeter  $\frac{A_{\text{opr}}}{h}$  and whose height to the guard's or seat's thickness  $t$ , the surface of the suction valve  $A_{SV}$  ( $3 \times$  the basis surface: valve plate, upper and lower face of the guard) or of the discharge valve  $A_{DV}$  (only one basis surface) exposed to the working chamber can roughly be estimated as

$$A_{SV} \approx 3D_{SV}^2 \frac{\pi}{4} + A_{\text{gop}} \frac{t_{\text{guard}}}{h} \quad \text{and} \quad A_{DV} \approx D_{DV}^2 \frac{\pi}{4} + A_{\text{gop}} \frac{t_{\text{seat}}}{h} \quad (5.1)$$

where  $D_{SV}$  or  $D_{DV}$  are the valve's outer diameters. Simplifying further that gas temperature in the working chamber equals  $T_1$  during one half a revolution of the crankshaft, and equals  $T_{2, \text{is}}$  during the other half, the suction valve's surface temperature  $T_{SV}$  will be the arithmetic average between  $T_{2, \text{is}}$  and  $T_1$ . With these simplifications, we get for the heat  $\Delta Q_s$  given to the suction valve's surface during half a crankshaft revolution, and the corresponding temperature rise  $\Delta T_{Q_s}$ ,

$$\Delta Q_s = A_{SV} \alpha \frac{T_{2, \text{is}} - T_1}{2} \cdot \frac{30}{n} = MC_p \Delta T_{Q_s} \quad (5.2)$$

The heat transfer constant  $\alpha$  is, in a first approximation, proportional to Reynolds number to the power 0.8, see equation 7.4. Reynolds number in turn depends on gas velocity (whose variations inside the working chamber are neglected, since we consider heat transfer between gas in the working chamber and the suction valve during compression and discharge events) and gas density. With molar mass  $\bar{M} = 22.711 \rho_n$  we get

$$\alpha \approx \alpha_n \left( \frac{\rho_1}{\rho_n} \right)^{0.8} \quad C_p = R \frac{\kappa}{\kappa - 1} \quad R = \frac{8314.5}{22.7 \rho_n} = \frac{366}{\rho_n} \quad (5.3)$$

$\alpha_n = 35 [W/m^2 K]$  at standard atmospheric conditions is a good assumption. From equations 5.2, 5.3 and 2.5 and rearranging, we get in SI-units (366 is not dimensionless!)

$$\Delta T_{Q_s} = T_1 \frac{0.04}{n} \cdot \frac{\kappa - 1}{\kappa} \cdot \frac{A_{SV} \alpha_n}{V_{\text{et}} \lambda} \left( \frac{p_n}{p_1} \cdot \frac{T_1 Z_1}{T_n Z_n} \right)^{0.8} \left( \frac{T_{2, \text{is}}}{T_1} - 1 \right) \quad (5.4)$$

The same algorithm can of course be used for the heat exchange during flow through the discharge valve. The heat given up there reduces the temperature of the gas arriving in the discharge plenum, and increases the gas temperature in the working chamber during the expansion event, which in turn may reduce  $\eta_v$ .

## 6 RISE IN GAS TEMPERATURE DUE TO WORK LOSSES IN VALVES

Let us draw a control surface around the working chamber of a compressor which is pumping gas from  $p_1, T_1$  to  $p_2, T_2$ . When conditions are stationary, the sum of all streams of energy entering or leaving the control surface (mechanical work  $\Delta W$  supplied by the piston, heat transfer  $\Delta Q$  from the walls to the gas, change in internal energy  $M(u_2 - u_1)$  and change in flow work  $M(p_2 v_2 - p_1 v_1)$ ) must equate to zero. Remembering that specific enthalpy  $h$  is defined as  $h = u + pv$ , putting  $\Delta T = T_2 - T_1$  and  $\Delta h = h_2 - h_1 = C_p \Delta T$ , we get the required relationship

$$\Delta W + \Delta Q = \Delta H = M \Delta h = M C_p \Delta T = M R \frac{\kappa}{\kappa - 1} \Delta T \quad (6.1)$$

According to equation 6.1 and with constant  $C_p$  or  $\kappa$ , the two temperature rises,  $\Delta T_Q$  due to  $\Delta Q$  and  $\Delta T_W$  due to  $\Delta W$  can be found separately and then added.

## 6.1 Temperature rise due to the suction work loss

Let  $\Delta p_{i,sv}$  be the mean effective pressure of the suction work loss in the indicator diagram referring to the full length of the indicator diagram (i.e.  $\Delta p_{i,sv} = \eta_v \Delta p_{m,sv}$ ), with gas density  $\rho_1$  in the suction plenum and constant volume flow rate  $\dot{V}_1 = \frac{\pi}{60} \cdot \frac{\lambda M}{A_1}$

$$\Delta p_{i,sv} = 3.76 \frac{\eta_v}{\lambda^2} \rho_1 \left( \frac{\dot{V}_1}{\Phi_{sv}} \right)^2 \quad (6.2)$$

(see [11] or [12], chapter 2) then the suction work loss, with suction plenum temperature  $T_{sp1}$  instead of  $T_1$ , is given by

$$\Delta W_s = V_{s1} \Delta p_{i,sv} \frac{T_1}{T_{sp1}} \quad (6.3)$$

Applying equation 6.1 to the suction stroke, the temperature rise from  $T_{sp1}$  to  $T_{W,s}$  is obtained by substituting from equations 2.5 and 6.3 in 6.1. We obtain

$$V_{s1} \Delta p_{i,sv} \frac{T_1}{T_{sp1}} = \frac{V_{s1} p_1}{R T_{W,s} Z_1} \lambda^* R \frac{\kappa}{\kappa - 1} (T_{W,s} - T_{sp1}) \quad (6.4)$$

or

$$\frac{\Delta p_{i,sv}}{p_1} \cdot \frac{T_1}{T_{sp1}} = \frac{\lambda^*}{Z_1} \cdot \frac{\kappa}{\kappa - 1} \left( 1 - \frac{T_{sp1}}{T_{W,s}} \right) \quad (6.5)$$

For abbreviation, we introduce a constant  $C_s$

$$C_s = \frac{\Delta p_{i,sv}}{p_1} \cdot \frac{T_1}{T_{sp1}} \cdot \frac{Z_1}{\lambda^*} \cdot \frac{\kappa - 1}{\kappa} \quad (6.6)$$

such that equation 6.5 can be written in the form  $C_s = 1 - \frac{T_{sp1}}{T_{W,s}}$ , and we finally get

$$\frac{T_{W,s}}{T_{sp1}} = \frac{1}{1 - C_s} \quad \text{or} \quad \Delta T_{W,s} = T_{sp1} \frac{C_s}{1 - C_s} \quad (6.7)$$

The total temperature increase during intake is obtained by adding those from equations 5.4 and 6.7:

$$\Delta T_{1,s} = \Delta T_{W,s} + \Delta T_{Q,s} \quad (6.8)$$

## 6.2 Temperature rise due to the discharge work loss

Neglecting heat exchange inside the working chamber and assuming tight suction and discharge valves, compression will be isentropic, and the mass of gas  $M$  given by equation 2.5 and entering through the suction valve will be the same as the one leaving through the discharge valve. With these assumptions, the discharge stroke will start from inside the working chamber from  $p_2$  and  $T_{2,c}$  according to equation 6.9.

$$T_{2,c} = T_{1,s} \left( \frac{p_2}{p_1} \right)^{\frac{\kappa-1}{\kappa}} \quad (6.9)$$

The discharged gas will arrive in the discharge plenum with temperature  $T_{2,d}$ , the final discharge temperature of the real compression cycle. Let  $\nu$  be the length of the discharge stroke, then we have from continuity

$$\nu = \eta_v \frac{\rho_{1,s}}{\rho_{2,c}} = \eta_v \left( \frac{p_1}{p_2} \right)^{\frac{1}{\kappa}} \frac{Z_2}{Z_1} \quad (6.10)$$



It follows from 6.10 that equation 6.2 can be used to find the discharge loss  $\Delta p_{i,DV}$  as well, using  $\Phi_{DV}$  instead of  $\Phi_{SV}$ . The work required to overcome the pressure drops in the discharge valves is then given by

$$\Delta W_d = V_{at} \Delta p_{i,DV} \frac{T_{2,ds}}{T_{2,c}} = V_{at} \Delta p_{i,DV} \frac{T_1}{T_{1,s}} \quad (6.11)$$

Substituting in equation 6.1, considering that the work input  $\Delta W_d$  causes the gas temperature to increase by  $\Delta T_{W,d}$

$$\frac{T_1}{T_{1,s}} V_{at} \Delta p_{i,DV} = \frac{V_{at} p_1}{R T_{1,s} Z_1} \lambda^* R \frac{\kappa}{\kappa - 1} \Delta T_{W,d} \quad (6.12)$$

Simplifying, using equations 6.9 and 6.10 and rearranging, we get

$$\frac{T_1}{T_{1,s}} \frac{\Delta p_{i,DV}}{p_2} = \frac{\nu}{Z_2} \frac{\kappa}{\kappa - 1} \frac{1}{T_{2,c}} \Delta T_{W,d} \quad (6.13)$$

Again, if for abbreviation we introduce a constant  $C_d$

$$C_d = \frac{\Delta p_{i,DV}}{p_2} \cdot \frac{Z_2}{\nu} \cdot \frac{\kappa - 1}{\kappa} \cdot \frac{T_1}{T_{1,s}} \quad (6.14)$$

we obtain, with  $\Delta T_{Q,d}$  found in analogy to equation 5.4

$$\Delta T_{W,d} = T_{2,c} C_d \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta T_{2,d} = \Delta T_{W,d} + \Delta T_{Q,d} \quad (6.15)$$

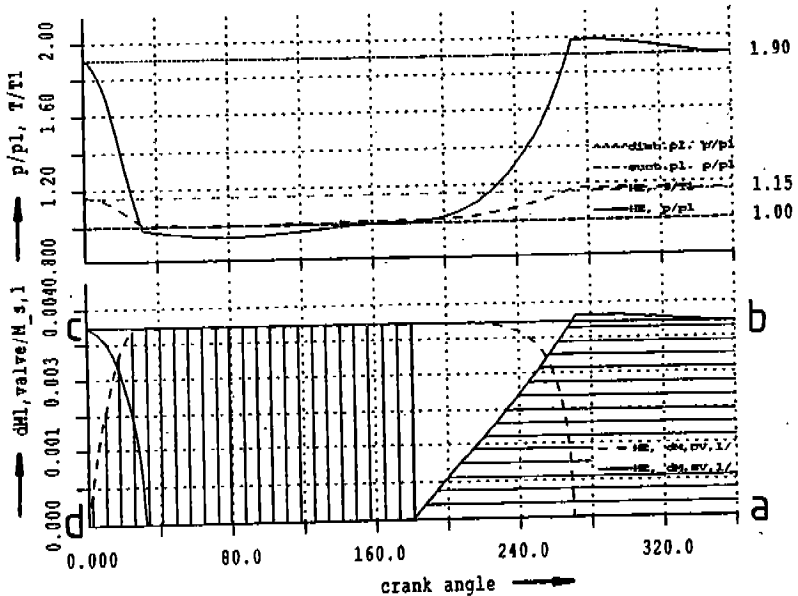


Figure 1: Pressure and temperature in the working chamber, leakage gas flows in suction and discharge valves, drawn over crank angle