DETERMINATION OF NPSHR FOR RECIPROCATING
POSITIVE DISPLACEMENT--PUMPS: A NEW APPROACH

by
Pawan J. Singh
President
Quantum Industries International
Bethlehem, Pennsylvania

and
Stephen D. Able
Senior Engineering Consultant
ARO Fluid Products Division, Ingersoll-Rand Co.
Bryan, Ohio

Pawan Singh is the President of Quantum Industries, an international consulting software development firm dedicated to developing innovative engineering, and manufacturing solutions for the machinery industry. Prior to joining Quantum, he held several senior management and engineering positions at Ingersoll-Rand Co. during his 15 years of employment. During a diverse career spanning more than two decades, he has made leading contributions to pump, waterjet cutting, turbomachinery, ship hydrodynamics, and hydroacoustic technologies. He pioneered the use of digital computer simulation techniques for predicting performance, and dynamic behavior of a wide range of compressors and pumps. Lately, he has been using advanced software development techniques to develop a wide range of easy-to-use expert systems for engineering, marketing, and financial systems.

Dr. Singh holds Ph.D. (1973), and M.S. (1970) degrees in Mechanical Engineering from the University of Rochester, and an M.B.A. from the Wharton Business School of the University of Pennsylvania. He has received many honors, and awards including distinction award from Wharton, four gold medals for academic excellence, and several scholarships, and fellowships. He has published scores of articles, taught management and technical courses, chaired symposia, and delivered lectures internationally.

Stephen D. Able is a Senior Engineering Consultant with Ingersoll-Rand Fluid Products, Bryan, Ohio. For the past 20 years, Mr. Able has held various positions in Service, Product and Design Engineering, as well as in Engineering and Marketing Management at Sundstrand Fluid Handling, and later at Ingersoll-Rand. His current position is a part of Ingersoll-Rand’s Technical Career Ladder program.

His experience includes design, test, and troubleshooting high speed and directly driven centrifugal pumps and compressors, reciprocating piston and diaphragm pumps. Mr. Able has a B.S.M.E. (1968) from the University of Colorado, an M.B.A. from the University of Denver (1984), and is a registered Professional Engineer in Colorado and Ohio. He is a graduate student in the Continuing Engineering Education Program at Purdue University.

ABSTRACT

NPSHR is a significant pump characteristic; it is often taken as a measure of minimum suction head needed to operate a pump satisfactorily. Hydraulic Institute, among others, specifies a measurement of procedure for NPSHR, which is at the point that a reciprocating pump loses 3.0 percent in volumetric efficiency relative to a stable efficiency at a high suction head. Although noise, vibration, or any sign of mechanical damage would be an indication of reaching the NPSHR limit on test, they may not be easily observed during a short term factory performance test. Also, the differences in the test system and the field installation can result in an improper correlation with the current methods for predicting suction performance.

In order to better predict successful field operation, a number of additional factors need to be considered, such as:

- The influence of the piping system attached to the pump.
- The need to avoid cavitation damage inside the pump.
- The need to operate reliably, with attention to proper valve dynamics.
- Changes in fluid properties between test and the installation.
- An additional term is defined (NPSHP), which is intended to better predict suction performance in the field.

A description is provided of the valve and pump chamber operation as the suction head is reduced to near the NPSHR and the factors effecting NPSHR are discussed. Data are provided for the suction pressure and the pressure observed in the fluid chamber of a diaphragm pump. The inlet pressure vs. time history of the diaphragm pump inlet with varying lengths of suction piping is also presented. This example demonstrates the deficiency in the standard modelling of the “Acceleration Head” effect.

A new method is proposed to better predict suction performance in the field based on traditional NPSHR testing and a “Power Density Index” (PDI). Computer modelling is discussed that would be needed for pumps with a high PDI.
Factors Influencing NPSHR

NPSHR can be reasonably estimated without any measurements once the following factors influencing NPSHR can be properly understood.

Fluid Vapor Pressure: Fluid vapor pressure, the pressure at which the fluid begins to vaporize into cavities, is the baseline for NPSHR. The vapor pressure for most fluids is generally quite low (1.0 psia for 70°F water). It is influenced by temperature and gas content. For some volatile fluids, the vapor pressure can be quite high.

Suction Valve Pressure Drop: Beyond the fluid vapor pressure, the suction valve design is the single most important factor influencing NPSHR. The pressure drop is influenced by net valve flow area, and the rate at which the valve can open and close. While large valve opening is desirable, the valve must also be able to close rapidly following the end of the suction stroke. Otherwise, the fluid will backflow out of the suction valve during the beginning of the discharge stroke, resulting in VE loss. The valve loss typically increases as a square of the pump speed.

Pump Type and Design: Positive displacement pumps come in many types, and each type may have slightly different NPSHR characteristics. A primary source of this variation is the difference in pump chamber volume expansion rate. For example, power pumps have nearly sinusoidal piston motion while in pneumatically-driven diaphragm pumps, the piston motion is nearly linear. NPSHR is also mildly influenced by the number of pump chambers, suction manifold design, discharge valve characteristics, and fluid viscosity.

For most cases, NPSHR can be estimated within +/- 1.0 psi by adding suction valve pressure drop to the fluid vapor pressure. The valve pressure drop can be estimated by computing pressure loss through the valve for the mean suction flow. For highly viscous flows, frictional pressure drop in the suction piping based on the mean suction flow should also be added. In case this estimate is not precise enough, NPSHR can be computed with good accuracy through mathematical modeling, as described later.

Piping System and Acceleration Head

In the field, the pumps rarely have a piping system representative of the test loop in which NPSHR measurements are made. Piping can have a significant influence on the pump’s suction characteristics as some of the head must be used by the fluid to accelerate itself in the suction piping to meet the pump’s flow demand. The influence of piping on pump behavior can be quite complex. For the sake of simplification, the Hydraulic Institute recommends the use of acceleration head to account for the piping influence.

The acceleration head is calculated as follows:

\[ h_{acc} = \frac{LvnC}{K} \]

where

- \( L \) = Suction piping length
- \( v \) = Average velocity
- \( n \) = Strokes per minute
- \( C \) = A constant whose value depends on pump type and dimensional units
- \( K \) = Relative compressibility factor; 1.0 for cold water

The use of acceleration head has the following limitations:

- Equation (1), despite the compressibility factor, strictly applies only to incompressible fluids. Although liquids have a very high bulk modulus, they can not be assumed to be incompressible for computing dynamic pressure changes.
- Equation (1) is still applicable for compressible fluids, but only in a narrow range. It is best to identify these limitations by starting with a complete solution for a straight piping section. In Appendix I, it is shown that Equation (1) for calculating acceleration head is valid only if

\[ L < 3 \frac{c}{Nn} \]

where

- \( c \) = speed of sound
- \( n \) = strokes per minute
- \( N \) = number of fluid chambers or cylinders

Using typical values of \( c = 4000 \) fps, \( n = 300 \) rpm, and \( N = 3 \) for a triple power pump in Equation (1), the acceleration head can be used validly if the suction piping length is less than 13 ft. However, Equation (1) is routinely applied to piping sections of much longer length.

Miller [2], without providing a theoretical foundation, recommends use of Equation (1) for pipe lengths less than 10 ft. He cites a good example of misapplication of acceleration head computation. In a triple power pump with a 90 ft suction piping, the acceleration head calculations showed NPSH requirements of over 150 psia; yet, the pump ran with good efficiency with only 4.9 psia.

NPSHR and Acceleration Head

NPSHR is defined as the head available at the pump inlet after allowing for the acceleration head and the friction losses. Although the acceleration head calculation may indicate the need for significant additional suction head, the measured NPSHR is not affected by the acceleration head. The inlet pressure vs time histories with three different lengths of inlet piping length for the diaphragm pump, and test loop (Figures 2 and 3) are shown in Figure 6. The data show that there is little impact of pipe length on the NPSHR, as measured indirectly from the fluid chamber pressure at the beginning stroke.

Why? First, there exists a deceleration head (pressure recovery) as much as the acceleration head. When the flow in response to the pump demand slows down, the pressure is recovered, and the flow through the suction valve increases, filling the pump chamber faster. In most cases, the acceleration and deceleration balance to a great extent, and the impact on NPSHR (3.0 percent VE loss) is minimal.

Does it imply that the piping length has no influence on pump behavior? Far from it. If the authors move away from the 3.0 percent VE loss definition, the piping has considerable influence. Such influence can be seen in Figure 6 where pressure measurements in the suction piping are shown for three suction piping lengths, varying from 1.5 ft to 25 ft.

For the 1.5 ft suction piping length, the pressure signal has an upward spike of a short duration followed quickly by a down spike of equally short duration. The upward spike is caused by the deceleration of the fluid when the suction valve in the second pump chamber closes. The downward spike is the acceleration head loss in the piping resulting from rapid opening of the suction valve. When the piping length is increased almost 10 times to 13 ft, the suction piping pressure profile remains similar, except the down spike has a longer duration, and has a flat bottom due to cavitation. When the piping length is doubled again, the magnitude of the
spikes does not change, but the duration of the low pressure spikes increases. In all cases, however, the pressure recovers to a steady level towards the end of the stroke.

![Graphs showing inlet pressure, suction line length, and time](image)

Figure 6. Two Inch Diaphragm Pump Test Data with (25, 13 and 1.5 feet of Suction Piping).

The pressure within the pump chamber reflects the pressure in the suction piping. Although the pressure approaches vapor pressure at the beginning of the suction stroke, the pressure recovers to nominal suction pressure minus valve pressure drop at the end of the stroke. There is no cavitation at the end of the stroke and no VE loss. NPSHR remains unchanged despite a sixteen fold increase in suction piping length.

**Cavitation and Cavitation Damage**

While large pressure fluctuations and cavitation may have no influence on NPSHR, they often do cause other forms of unacceptable pump behavior such as piping and pump vibrations, pitting on pump components, and in extreme forms, pump failure. Usually, the cavitation damage manifests itself first in pitting on the suction valve since the valve experiences the lowest pressure in the pumping system and the cavitation collapse occurs very close to the valve elements.

Although cavitation is often associated with cavitation damage, some positive displacement pumps experience cavitation during a part of the suction stroke, and yet operate without any ill effects. There are several reasons for this, as follows:

- Cavitation damage depends on cavitation intensity, and the pump materials' propensity to resist impact erosion. Cavitation intensity is a strong function of cavitation volume, and the rate of change of ambient pressure during cavitation collapse. In flow-induced cavitation as seen in centrifugal pumps, cavitation damage has been found to be proportional to the fifth or sixth power of the fluid velocity (indicative of pressure variation) in the cavitation collapse region. Similar correlation can be expected for positive displacement pumps where the rate of pressure change is governed by the rate of change of the chamber volume, and fluid bulk modulus.
- The rate of change of chamber volume is proportional to pump rpm, and stroke (or piston velocity in most pump types). Thus, the propensity for cavitation damage depends strongly on the fluid bulk modulus and piston velocity, and weakly on the pump pressure rating. In general, pumps rated at high horsepower, and running at high rpm and low suction pressure are much more prone to cavitation damage than low horsepower pumps. In high power pumps, cavitation induced pressure spikes are also likely to cause vibrations, and in extreme cases, violent shaking of the pump.
- Pump speed is a key factor in smooth pump operation at low suction head. Although NPSH<sub>R</sub> goes up only as a square of the pump speed, the vibration, and damage intensity can go up by a power factor of five to six. In high horsepower rated pumps, there is virtually no correlation between NPSH<sub>R</sub> measurements, and the suction head required in the field to run the pump without damage.

**NPSH<sub>R</sub>: WHAT IT MEANS**

NPSH<sub>R</sub> is often included as a part of pump characteristics, its significance in real life use is very limited. NPSH<sub>R</sub>, as defined by Hydraulic Institute Standards, has a strict definition as the lowest suction head at which pump experiences a 3.0 percent VE loss. Practically, it defines the maximum suction capability of the pump. However, the field installments rarely match the test loop set up, and it is neither wise nor practical to run the pump fully cavitating during most of the suction stroke. Many pump application engineers attempt to adjust NPSH<sub>R</sub> to field conditions by including acceleration head. As shown earlier, the common method of computing acceleration head is so limited in scope that it is often misapplied, making the discrepancy even worse.

The problem lies with misunderstanding what NPSH<sub>R</sub> really means. To a manufacturer, it is a pump characteristic whose value should be included in the pump manual. To a pump user, however, it provides a measure of minimum suction head at which he can expect smooth pump operation for his particular application.

As a pump characteristic, NPSH<sub>R</sub> is a valid measure of the flow capacity of the pump (actually, suction value). However, depending on the pump type, it may or may not have much relevance to pump suction head requirement in the field.

As if NPSH<sub>R</sub> and NPSH<sub>A</sub> were not confusing already, the authors add to the complexity by introducing a new concept, and defining a new term: NPSH<sub>F</sub>.

NPSH<sub>F</sub> is the minimum suction head required in the field to run the pump satisfactorily and reliably. NPSH<sub>F</sub> has the following characteristics:

- NPSH<sub>F</sub>, unlike NPSH<sub>R</sub>, is neither pump specific nor a characteristic of the pump. NPSH<sub>F</sub> is application specific.
- NPSH<sub>F</sub> is also not the same as or similar to NPSH<sub>A</sub>, a point that will discussed in greater length in the next section.
- NPSH<sub>F</sub> is a field parameter, and thus its value varies with field operating conditions. (Values for NPSH<sub>R</sub> and NPSH<sub>A</sub> also vary with operating conditions such as rpm.)
- The value of NPSH<sub>F</sub> depends to a great extent on the piping system attached to the pump. Thus, NPSH<sub>F</sub> can be substantially reduced by proper piping design, the use of properly selected and appropriately placed dampeners, and other pressure pulsation damping devices.
- NPSH<sub>F</sub> can be defined and measured (for a given set of operating conditions) as the minimum average pressure at which the cavitation disappears in the liquid chamber. NPSH<sub>F</sub> can also be calculated with reasonable accuracy using computer models, as discussed later.
Since NPSH<sub>F</sub> is not a pump parameter, it is not the pump manufacturer's responsibility to determine NPSH<sub>F</sub>. Then, it becomes the responsibility of the pump system designer, and ultimately the customer, to make sure that adequate suction pressure is available to run the pump satisfactorily.

Obviously, it is not economical to measure or calculate (through computer modelling) NPSH<sub>F</sub> for low power or inexpensive pumps. Therefore, the authors have established an index, called Power Density Index (PDI), to determine when proper determination of NPSH<sub>F</sub> is critical and when it is not.

NPSH<sub>A</sub> AND NPSH<sub>F</sub>

Some experienced pump users may wonder what is the difference between NPSH<sub>A</sub> (NPSH available) and NPSH<sub>F</sub>. NPSH<sub>A</sub> is presumed to take into account for the field conditions through the use of acceleration head, and friction losses.

The primary difference between NPSH<sub>A</sub> and NPSH<sub>F</sub> is that NPSH<sub>F</sub> is a dynamic pressure concept, while NPSH<sub>A</sub> is a static pressure concept. Reciprocating positive displacement pumps, unlike rotary pumps, create significant flow fluctuations that normally result in substantial pressure pulsations that depend on the piping attached to the pump. The concept of NPSH<sub>A</sub> does recognize the influence of piping through the use of a static acceleration head whose shortcomings have already been delineated earlier.

As an example, one way to increase NPSH<sub>A</sub> is to use a pulsation damper close to the pump inlet. Many damper suppliers will suggest that the use of a properly sized damper will reduce the fluid acceleration length to a short section between the damper and the pump inlet. This static view of the damper use may be a good approximation in some cases, but it falls short of the true damper behavior. In an extensive investigation of pulsation damper performance, Singh and Chaplis [5] tested five pulsation dampers from different manufacturers in the same triplex pump test loop configuration. The dampers were specified by the damper manufacturers, and were installed at an identical location in the test loop. Although all dampers reduced pressure pulsations, the level of reduction and the frequency of pulsations varied substantially among the dampers. While a static approach like NPSH<sub>A</sub> would have predicted nearly identical results, the actual results varied markedly.

In the dynamic sense, the damper acts like an electrical filter, reducing pulsations below the cut-off frequency. However, the damper itself becomes a part of the compliant piping system, creating its own response frequency. If this frequency is a close multiple of the fundamental rotational frequency, the pressure pulsations may actually intensify rather than subside.

To reduce NPSH<sub>F</sub>, one needs to find a way to minimize pressure pulsations. The use of a pulsation damper is one obvious way to achieve a reduction in pulsation. However, what is even more important is the need to optimize the choice of the damper through the selection of right type, size, and placement of the damper.

Another key aspect of the pressure minimization strategy is to increase the acoustic damping in the piping circuit. Such damping can be increased, for example, by incorporating a properly located orifice in the piping circuit. The use of an orifice to help suction performance is totally counter-intuitive to the NPSH<sub>A</sub> concept, since the pressure drop induced by the orifice would reduce NPSH<sub>A</sub>. However, in the dynamic realm, the reduction in pressure pulsations with the orifice may be an order of magnitude larger than the static pressure drop.

The difference between NPSH<sub>A</sub> and NPSH<sub>F</sub> can be illustrated through a field case study reported by Walchel, et al. [4], and in which the senior author was involved. Four triplex pumps rated at 275 rpm, 368 gpm, and 1800 psig discharge pressure were operated in parallel in a pumping station to pump crude oil. Pump NPSH<sub>F</sub> was less than 1.0 psig, and each pump was equipped with a centrifugal charge pump, capable of a charge pressure up to 90 psig, and a bladder type damper. Standard NPSH<sub>A</sub> calculations would indicate that the pump would require a charge pressure of less than 20 psig.

However, the pumps could not operate satisfactorily even at a charge pressure of 60 to 70 psig. Measurements showed that peak-to-peak magnitude of pressure pulsations exceeded 200 psi in some cases. Even at 70 psig charge pressure, the pumps cavitated producing pressure spike of over 800 psi. Analyses of test data indicated that the high pressures pulsations resulted from acoustic resonance. Under these field conditions, the charge pressure would need to exceed 100 psig (NPSH<sub>F</sub> = 100 psig).

The solution, however, was not to use a larger booster pump, but to design and install acoustical dampeners. The dampeners were designed with the help of computer modelling of the piping system. The results were dramatic, and the pumps operated smoothly with the existing booster pumps, while reducing estimated NPSH<sub>F</sub> to less than 50 psig. Similar case studies have been reported by Parry [5], and Singh and Madavan [6].

Desirable as it may be, it is neither necessary nor economical to use computer modelling for all pump installations to determine NPSH<sub>F</sub>. High pressure pulsations and cavitation do a lot more damage in high energy pumps than in low power pumps. The authors introduce an index, called Power Density Index, that can be used as an indicator of when detailed calculations or computer modelling of NPSH<sub>F</sub> would be desirable.

Power Density Index

Power density index is a dimensional number defined as follows:

\[
PDI = \frac{FHP}{(N D^2)}
\]

where FHP is the liquid horse power, N is the number of pump chambers, and D is the representative piston diameter in inches. PDI is a measure of fluid power conveyed per unit area of the fluid chamber volume.

\[
FHP = Q H/3960
\]

\[
Q = \pi D^2 S N n \eta_i /231
\]

\[
PDI = 2. 10^6 S N H
\]

where

- \(S\) = Stroke in inches
- \(H\) = Head rise in ft
- \(n\) = Strokes per minute per fluid chamber

PDI is, thus, proportional to pump speed, piston stroke and head rise. PDI values can vary from 0.01 (diaphragm pumps) to 5.0 (large reciprocating pumps) and even higher.

Following guidelines relating PDI to NPSH<sub>F</sub>, although preliminary at the moment, can become the basis for further refinement with the help of the pump industry:

- For PDI less than 0.02, cavitation damage or piping vibrations is not much of concern. Although the pump is cavitating, damage is rare. NPSH<sub>F</sub> is only slightly higher than NPSH<sub>A</sub>. Allowance should be made for friction losses in the case of high viscosity fluids. With a PDI between 0.02 and 0.2, a suction damper would be desirable.
- For PDI between 0.2 and 1.0, a minimum margin of 5.0 to 10 psi above NPSH<sub>F</sub> is recommended. Higher margins may be needed to
completely suppress cavitation. The influence of short suction piping may be estimated by the proper use of the acceleration head calculations. A suction pulsation damper is recommended.

• For PDI between 1.0 and 2.5, NPSHR would depend on the piping system. It is recommended that a computer prediction model (described in the next section) be used for computing NPSHR. If such a model is not available, past experience with similar applications can serve as a guide. Typical margins above NPSHR may lie between 15 to 40 psi. Suction pressure damper may be required to keep NPSHR within reasonable limits.

• For PDI above 2.5, the use of computer prediction models is highly recommended. Without such modelling, it is nearly impossible to estimate NPSHR, unless the user has experience with a very similar installation. In many cases, the model can suggest very inexpensive ways such as the use of a properly located orifice to reduce NPSHR. Margins above NPSHR may reach as high as 80 psi. A suction damper is then a must.

When a pump installation has multiple pumps that are located close enough (within approximately 50 suction pipe diameters) to lie within the range of pump interaction, PDI for each such pump should be added, and the new PDI value used in following the above guidelines.

The above guidelines are only estimates based on the authors' experience; they should be examined by the pump community, and revised as needed based on a much broader experience base.

COMPUTER PREDICTION MODELS

With the notable exception of a few companies, the pump industry has been lagging in the use of computer models to predict pump performance, and the influence of piping system on pump behavior including suction pressure requirements. The reciprocating compressor industry recognized the need for modelling piping over 40 years ago, and has been using analog computers, and lately digital computers including PCs, to predict piping pressure pulsations and design piping systems to reduce such pulsations. [7, 8, 9]. Since the magnitude of pulsations is directly proportional to fluid bulk modulus, and since liquids have a much higher bulk modulus than gases, pumps normally face much more severe pulsation problems than compressors.

Singh, and Madavan [6] developed and presented the first of such comprehensive models for power pumps in 1984. Since then, the model has been upgraded, and used in tens of field installations with great success. Experience shows that computer models can predict the following with reasonable accuracy:

• Pump performance
• Suction and discharge valve dynamics
• NPSHR
• Piping pressure pulsations
• NPSHR

In regards to NPSHR, such models can provide a wealth of information. First, NPSHR can be calculated with good accuracy, obviating the need for expensive tests except those required for occasional verification. The model can also provide a detailed time history of pressure within and flow into and out of the pump chamber, and dynamics of the suction valve as the suction head is lowered. The model can reasonably predict at what suction pressure the cavitation is likely to begin, and how long the cavitation persists during the suction stroke. Comparisons are shown in Figures 7 and 8 between test data, along with computer predictions for NPSHR, and pressure pulsations at one point in the piping [3] for a power pump.

It is highly recommended that pump manufacturers use computer modelling techniques in addition to test, and historical data for pumps with a PDI higher than two. The Hydraulic Institute can take a lead in this area, and provide guidelines on the use and the range of applicability for such models. The Institute can also test commercially available models, and recommend a list of independent providers of such models.

CONCLUSIONS

NPSHR as currently defined has a limited validity as an indicator of suction performance of a pump for most types of positive displacement pumps. For most pump applications, reliable pump operation in the field at or near NPSHR is nearly impossible. The use of acceleration head to correct NPSHR for piping influence is fundamentally flawed, except for very small sections of pipe.

The authors argue the need for another indicator, NPSHR, that defines the minimum suction head required to assure proper performance, and long-term reliability of the pump in a particular field application. Since NPSHR can vary from one application to the other for the same pump, the determination of NPSHR can pose undue burden on the pump manufacturer. The authors offer guidelines on various techniques to estimate or compute NPSHR, depending on a pump’s likely behavior at low suction head. The latter is characterized by a dimensional index, called power density index or PDI.

One of the best and cost-effective techniques to determine NPSHR and a pump’s suction performance is to use computer modelling. Such models have been shown to be very effective in
predicting pump $\text{NPSH}_R$ and the suction pressure level needed to run a pump free of cavitation and vibration.

**NOMENCLATURE**

- $c$: speed of sound
- $C$: A constant whose value depends on pump type and dimensional units
- $D$: The representative piston diameter in inches
- FEP: The liquid horsepower
- $H$: Head rise in feet
- $\text{hacc}$: Acceleration head
- $L$: Suction piping length
- $K$: Relative compressibility factor; 1.0 for cold water
- $n$: Strokes per minute
- $N$: The number of pump chambers
- $\text{NPSH}$: The total suction head in feet (or psia) of the liquid being pumped less the absolute vapor pressure of the liquid.
- $\text{NPSH}_A$: The NPSH available from the system at the pump inlet.
- $\text{NPSH}_R$: The NPSH required by the pump to operate a given flow rate with no more than a 3.0 percent loss in volumetric efficiency, noise, vibration, unstable operation or mechanical damage while being tested.
- $\text{NPSH}_F$: The NPSH required to operate the pump properly in the field without loss in volumetric efficiency, noise, vibration, unstable operation or mechanical damage.
- $\text{PDI}$: Power density index, a dimensional number defined as $\text{PDI} = \text{FHP} / \left( N \ D^3 \right)$.
- $Q$: Flowrate, gal/min
- $S$: Stroke in inches
- $v$: Average velocity
- $VE$: Volumetric Efficiency: Volume being displaced per stroke/volume of fluid chamber. To account for compressibility effects, see Millers book [2].
- $\omega$: Angular frequency
- $j$: Imaginary constant
- $k$: Wave number
- $\lambda$: Wave length
- $A$: Pipe area

**APPENDICES**

**Appendix 1**

Pressure pulsations at any point in a piping network linked to one or more positive displacement pumps are caused by flow variations induced by opening and closing of valves. The pulsations can be calculated by multiplying each flow fluctuation harmonic with the corresponding piping impedance at that point and summing the resulting values for all harmonics. The details of the underlying transfer matrix theory are presented in [3].

For a simple case of a suction pipe of length $L$, with one end attached to a large tank and the other end to a pump valve, the pressure pulsations at the valve from the transfer matrix theory are given by:

$$ P_1(\omega) = Z_{11}(\omega) Q_1(\omega) $$  (A-1)

where $Z_{11}$ is the transfer impedance at the valve, and $P_1$ and $Q_1$ are the pressure and flow fluctuation harmonics at angular frequency $\omega$. The value of $Z_{11}$ for undamped acoustic pulsations in an open end pipe [3] is given by:

$$ Z_{11} = j \rho \ c \ tan \ kL / A $$  (A-2)

where

$$ k = \omega / c = 2 \pi / \lambda \quad (A-3) $$

is the wave number and $\lambda$ is the wave length. If $L << \lambda$, $kL << 1$, then Equation (A-2) simplifies to,

$$ Z_{11} = j \rho \ c \ kL / A = j \rho \ omega \ L / A \quad (A-4) $$

$$ P_1(\omega) = j \rho \ omega \ L \ Q_1(\omega) / A \quad (A-5) $$

$$ P_1(\omega) = (\rho \ L / A) \ dQ_1 / dt \quad (A-6) $$

Equation (A-6) is the transformation of Equation (A-5) from frequency domain to time domain. Equation (A-6) is the genesis of the definition of acceleration head used in Hydraulic Institute standards. This derivation shows that the Hydraulic Institute definition is valid only when $L << \lambda / 2\pi$. In practice, $L$ should not exceed $\lambda / 10$, and preferably, should be less than $\lambda / 20$.

As an example, for a triplex power pump running at 300 rpm, the basic frequency of pulsations, $f_b$, is given by:

$$ f_b = 300 \ast 3 / 60 = 15 \text{ Hz} $$

The wavelength for the pulsation at 15 Hz in water (speed of sound = 3900 ft/sec) is given by,

$$ \lambda = 3900 / 15 = 260 \text{ ft} $$

The acceleration head calculation is then valid when suction pipe length is less than 13 ft ($\lambda / 20$), and somewhat valid when the length is less than 26 ft ($\lambda / 10$). These calculations apply only to basic frequency. For power pumps, the highest flow fluctuations occur at twice the basic frequency, limiting the applicability of acceleration head to suction pipe length less than 7.0 ft. Other flow frequencies can be as high as twenty times the basic frequency.

**Appendix 2**

**Diaphragm pump suction tests with varying inlet piping lengths**

The inlet pressure vs time histories with three different lengths of inlet piping length for the diaphragm pump and test loop (Figures 2 and 3) is shown in Figure 6. The suction line contains 6.5 ft of 3.0 in ID tubing connected to a 1.5 ft long 2.0 in NPT line to the pump suction to make the “short suction” system. A 13.5 ft section replaces the 1.5 ft section of 2.0 in NPT pipe to make the “mid suction” system. A 25 ft section is used to make the “long suction” system.

The acceleration pressure calculations for these installations are found Hydraulic Institute Standards, Section 7.3.8 [1]:

$$ P_{acc} = L \Phi / (2.31 \ast K \ast g) $$

Where:

- $L$: Length of pipe in feet
- $C$: coefficient = 0.628

PROCEEDINGS OF THE THIRTEENTH INTERNATIONAL PUMP USERS SYMPOSIUM
K = compressibility factor of the liquid  
(K = 1 for cold water)  
v = average velocity, ft/sec  
n = strokes per minute  
g = gravitational constant = 32.2 ft/sec  
s = specific gravity (s = 1 for cold water)  

In this example:  
v_2 = 37 gal/min in 2.0 in pipe  
= 3.5 ft/sec  
v_3 = 37 gal/min in 3.0 in pipe  
= 1.6 ft/sec  
L_3 = 6.5 ft (3.0 in ID)  
L_short = 1.5 ft (2.0 in NPT)  
L_mid = 13.5 ft (2.0 in NPT)  
L_long = 25 ft (2.0 in NPT)  
n = 26 cycles per minute  

Short Suction:  
P_acc = P_acc (3.0 in section) + P_acc (2.0 in section)  
= (6.5)(1.6)(26)(0.628)/((2.31)(1.0)(32.2))  
+ (1.5)(3.5)(26)(0.628)/((2.31)(1.0)(32.2))  
= 2.3 + 1.2 = 2.5 psi  

Mid Suction:  
P_acc = P_acc (3 in section) + P_acc (2 in section)  
= (6.5)(1.6)(26)(0.628)/((2.31)(1.0)(32.2))  
+ (13.5)(3.5)(26)(0.628)/((2.31)(1.0)(32.2))  
= 23 + 10.4 = 12.7 psi  

Long Suction:  
P_acc = P_acc (3 in section) + P_acc (2 in section)  
= (6.5)(1.6)(26)(0.628)/((2.31)(1.0)(32.2))  
+ (25)(3.5)(26)(0.628)/((2.31)(1.0)(32.2))  
= 2.3 + 19.3 = 21.6 psi  

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ACKNOWLEDGMENT  
The authors are grateful to the management of Ingersoll-Rand  
Fluid Products Division and Quantum Industries for permission to  
publish this paper.