



hoofdgroep

# FUNDAMENTALS

code

# F3

## Koudemiddelen

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## **INHOUDSOPGAVE**

### **KOUDEMEDIA EN KOUEDEDRAGERS**

#### **Inhoudsopgave:**

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De opleiding Post HBO Koudetechniek wordt georganiseerd door de Stichting Post HBO Koudetechniek. Hierin werken KNVvK, NVKL, UBF-ACA, SOK en docenten samen om een goede opleiding te kunnen bieden. De cursus staat onder toezicht van een onafhankelijke Werkveld Advies Commissie. De lesstof is uit de best beschikbare kennis en kunde samengesteld. De Stichting Post HBO kan niet aansprakelijk gesteld worden voor schade die voortvloeit uit de tijdens de opleiding verstrekte informatie.

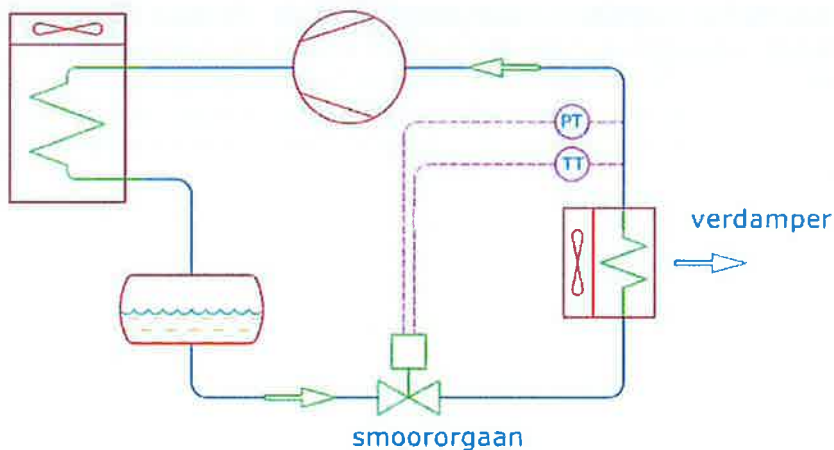


## 1. DIRECTE EN INDIRECTE KOELSYSTEMEN

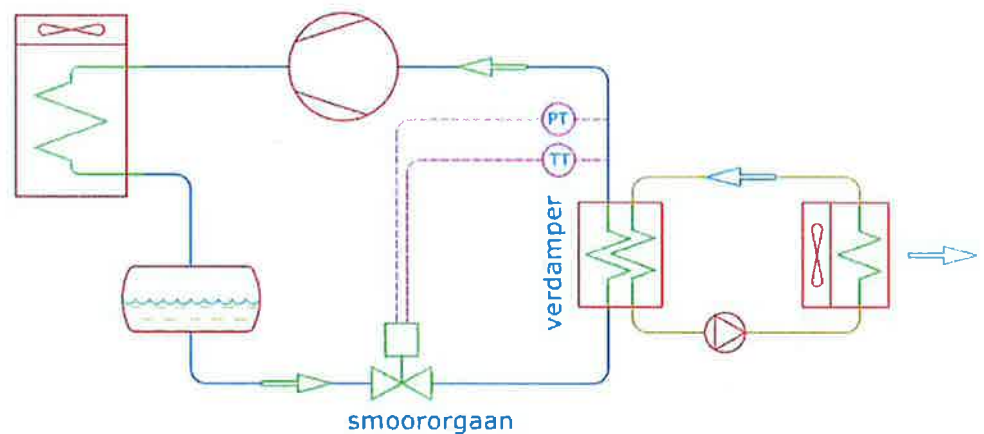
Wanneer men bijvoorbeeld lucht wil afkoelen met behulp van een koelerblok, kan men door de pijpen van dit lamellenblok een koudemiddel of een koudedrager laten circuleren. Laat men een koudemiddel circuleren, dan dient het lamellenblok als verdamper in een koelkringloop. Men spreekt dan van directe koeling.

Circuleert een koudedrager door het lamellenblok, dan spreekt men van indirecte koeling. In een koudedragerkringloop (secundair circuit) is ook de verdamper van een koelmachine opgenomen. In deze verdamper draagt de koudedrager de uit de lucht opgenomen warmte over aan het koudemiddelcircuit (primaire circuit).

Een nadeel van indirecte koeling is, dat door het extra circuit een extra temperatuurtrap wordt geïntroduceerd, omdat voor de warmteoverdracht een temperatuurverschil nodig is. Dit betekent, dat de koelmachine met een lagere verdampingstemperatuur moet werken, waardoor het energieverbruik hoger is dan het bij directe koeling zou zijn.



Figuur 1.1 Directe koeling



Figuur 1.2 Indirecte koeling

*Nadelen van indirecte koeling:*

- Een hoger energieverbruik door de extra temperatuurtrap en circulatiepomp.
- De uitvoering is duurder (hogere investeringskosten).
- Lange aanlooptijd van de installatie.
- Neemt meer ruimte in beslag.

*Voordelen van indirecte koeling:*

- Het primaire circuit is gering van omvang en heeft daardoor een kleine koudemiddel-inhoud, hetgeen minder kans geeft op lekkage en dus qua ontwerp beter is voor het milieu;
- Opent ruimere toepassingsmogelijkheden van koudemiddelen die weliswaar brandgevaarlijk (bijv. propaan) of giftig (bijv. ammoniak) zijn, maar die vanwege hun thermodynamische en milieutechnische eigenschappen toch aantrekkelijk zijn. De veiligheid in de 'productieruimte' blijft hierbij gewaarborgd;
- In airconditioningsystemen wordt water als koudedrager gebruikt. Naast het voordeel van de veiligheid behoeft het hiervoor benodigde leidingsysteem niet door een CFK-monteur of andere koelspecialist, te worden aangelegd. Daarnaast is het soms mogelijk gedurende de periode, dat verwarming nodig is, van hetzelfde watercircuit gebruik te maken voor de toevoer van warm water;
- De regelbaarheid is beter dan bij directe koeling, omdat de indirecte koelmethode een traploze (meng)regeling mogelijk maakt, terwijl bij directe koeling de capaciteit meestal in meer of minder grote stappen wordt geregeld, hetgeen bij luchtkoeling tot plotselinge veranderingen in de luchttoestand leidt;
- Bij een indirect systeem is koudebuffering mogelijk in zowel plaats als in tijd. Op deze manier kan met een kleine installatie toch pieken opvangen en kan men gebruik maken van goedkope nachtstroom. Een speciale toepassing van een koudedrager met een faseovergang van vloeistof/vast zijn de eutectische zoutoplossingen. Deze hebben net als zuiver water een vaste stollingstemperatuur. De stollingswarmte komt vrij en kan ook weer worden opgenomen bij temperaturen, die lager zijn dan 0 °C.

## 2. THERMODYNAMISCHE TABELLEN EN DIAGRAMMEN

*Fasenregel van Gibbs*

$$n = c - f + 2$$

Hierin is:

$n$  = aantal vrijheidsgraden

$c$  = aantal stoffen

$f$  = aantal fasen

Verzadigde toestand:  $c = 1, f = 2 \implies n = 1$ , dus een ingangsgrootheid

Oververhitte toestand:  $c = 1, f = 1 \implies n = 2$ , dus twee ingangsgrootheden

Verzadiging Tabel I:  $T_s$

Oververhitting Tabel II:  $T_s, T$

*Bij deze cursus wordt gebruik gemaakt van de meest recente (commerciële) literatuur op het gebied van koudemiddelen:*

Bitzer International, *Refrigerant Report*

<http://www.bitzer.de>

Het Bitzer rapport vindt u in de bijlage

Coolpack

<http://www.et.web.mek.dtu.dk/Coolpack/UK/>

Dit computerprogramma bestaat uit een verzameling berekeningsprogramma voor koeltechnische systemen en kan gratis "gedownload" worden vanaf het bovenstaande internetadres. Het programma bevat ook informatie over de stoffeigenschappen van koudemiddelen en koudedragers. Het programma is ontwikkeld door de sectie "Energy Engineering" van de Technische Universiteit van Denemarken (DTU).

In de bijlage vindt u de log p,h-diagrammen van enkele gangbare koudemiddelen.

### 3 KOUEMIDDELEN

#### 3.1 Algemene kenmerken en historisch overzicht

Zoals reeds bekend moet een koelsysteem worden gevuld met een koudemiddel, dat voor verdamping op lage druk warmte opneemt en door de condensatie op hoge druk warmte afgeeft. Elke vloeistof heeft bepaalde eigenschappen die haar meer of minder geschikt doen zijn om als koudemiddel te dienen. Beschouwen wij bijv. water: dit heeft als voordelen dat het goedkoop en overal gemakkelijk te krijgen is, het is voorts volkomen veilig, maar heeft als nadelen dat het door de zeer lage drukken (zie tabel 7) een enorm groot slagvolume vereist en de bovendien beneden 0 °C niet kan worden toegepast, doordat het bij die temperatuur de vaste toestand aanneemt. Vanwege deze nadelen wordt water als koudemiddel in normale compressiekoelsystemen nooit toegepast.

Ammoniak heeft bij atmosferische druk een (kook) temperatuur van -33 °C en bij omgevingstemperaturen drukken die technisch tegenwoordig geen enkel probleem opleveren (1000 a 1500 kPa). Het heeft gunstige thermodynamische eigenschappen (behalve de snel stijgende temperatuur bij adiabatische compressie) en geeft hoge warmte-overdrachtscoëfficiënten bij verdamping en condensatie.

Daarentegen is het erg giftig en heeft een sterk prikkelende geur, welke laatste eigenschappen uit economische en veiligheidsoverwegingen ook weer gunstig kan zijn, omdat het gas zich bij het geringste lek onmiddellijk verraad.

Koolwaterstoffen, zoals methaan en ethaan, hebben ook voortreffelijke thermodynamische en warmte-overdrachtseigenschappen, doch zijn door hun grote brandbaarheid niet geschikt voor grote directe systemen. Indien koolwaterstoffen uit anderen hoofde ter plaatse aanwezig zijn (bv. in een oliaffinaderij) kunnen deze zonder problemen worden toegepast als koudemiddel. In Nederland komt eind 1999 een praktijkrichtlijn (NPR7600) uit en ook in Europees verband wordt aan richtlijnen t.a.v. brandbare koudemiddelen gewerkt.

Uitgebreide informatie ten aanzien van risicoanalyses is te verkrijgen bij TNO-MEP in Apeldoorn en advies voor het gebruik bij grotere installaties is in te winnen bij Ecozone te Haarlem.

Voor de tweede wereldoorlog werd in koelkasten methylchloride ( $\text{CH}_3\text{Cl}$ ) toegepast; momenteel gebruikt men in koelkasten vanuit milieuoogpunt in Nederland en Duitsland meestal isobutaan.

In tropische gebieden gebruikte men vroeger in industriële installaties het uiterst giftige en in contact met water zeer agressieve zwaveldioxyde ( $\text{SO}_2$ ), dat lagere drukken heeft dan ammoniak, terwijl men op de schepen het niet giftige kooldioxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ) gebruikte, dat thermodynamisch echter enige ongunstige eigenschappen bezit. Door de uitvinding van gehalogeneerde koolwaterstoffen (met fluor- en chlooratomen), omstreeks 1935, deed zich na de tweede wereldoorlog een complete omwenteling voor op het gebied van de koudemiddelen, die ertoe heeft geleid dat alle bovengenoemde stoffen, uitgezonderd ammoniak, in luttel jaren volledig van de markt werden verdrongen.

Door de ozonproblematiek echter, zijn een aantal van bovengenoemde natuurlijke koudemiddelen opnieuw in de belangstelling komen te staan, met name de koolwaterstoffen,  $\text{NH}_3$ , en  $\text{CO}_2$ . De eerste gehalogeneerde koolwaterstof (CFK) die als koudemiddel bruikbaar bleek, was dichloordifluor-methaan ( $\text{CCl}_2\text{F}_2$ ). Deze stof is bekend geworden als freon 12 (DuPont), Frigen 12 (Hoechst) en een aantal andere handelsnamen.

#### 3.2 Europese regelgeving

In de EU Verordening Nr. 2037/2000 van het Europees Parlement zijn de maatregelen vermeldt over ozonlaag afbrekende stoffen. De belangrijkste verbodsdata en toepassingsverboden zijn:

Per 1 januari 2000 mogen HCFC's niet meer worden toegepast in nieuwe koel- en klimaatregelingsapparatuur voor openbare of voor distributie gebruikte koel- en vrieshuizen en voor apparatuur met een aandrijf(as)vermogen van 150 kW of meer.

Per 1 januari 2001 mogen HCFC's niet meer worden toegepast in nieuwe koel- en klimaatregelingsapparatuur.

Per 1 januari 2010 mogen bestaande HCFC-installaties alleen nog maar worden bijgevuld met geregenereerde HCFC's;

Per 1 januari 2015 mogen HCFC's niet meer worden gebruikt voor service- en onderhoudswerkzaamheden.

CFK's waaronder R11, R12 en R502

- per 1 oktober 2000 mag er niet meer worden gehandeld in CFK's;
- per 1 januari 2001 mogen CFK's niet meer worden gebruikt voor service- en onderhoudswerkzaamheden

### 3.3 Nomenclatuur

Internationaal is men overeengekomen de nieuwe koudemiddelen aan te duiden met de letter R (Refrigerant) gevolgd door een nummer. Zo verschenen na R12 achtereenvolgens ook R11, R22, R13, R502 en nog vele andere stoffen op de markt. De nummering is gebaseerd op een systeem; het nummer bevat drie cijfers, waarvan het eerste wegvalt indien het nul is (R12 is dus feitelijk R012). Het eerste cijfer geeft het aantal C-atomen min 1. R12 bevat dus 1 C-atoom; het tweede cijfer geeft het aantal H-atomen plus 1 (R12 bevat dus geen H-atomen); het derde cijfer geeft het aantal F-atomen (R12 bevat dus 2 F-atomen). De verbinding is verzadigd (bij 1 C-atoom zijn er 4, bij 2 C-atomen 6 en bij 3 C-atomen 8 plaatsen te bezetten), de door de nummering nog niet bezette plaatsen worden ingenomen door Cl-atomen (R12 bevat dus 2 Cl-atomen). Zo is voor R22 de chemische formule  $\text{CHClF}_2$  af te leiden en voor R115  $\text{C}_2\text{ClF}_5$ .

Het beschreven systeem geldt alleen voor nummers met 0, 1 of 2 als eerste cijfer. De groep die met 5 begint en waarvan R507 de bekendste representant was, omvat de azeotropische mengsels. Een azeotropisch mengsel is een stof die zich gedraagt als een enkelvoudige stof, d.w.z. dat de samenstelling van de damp steeds praktisch dezelfde is als die van de vloeistof. R502 bestaat uit 48,8% R22 en 51,2% R115. Behalve R507 en R508, mogen deze mengsels vanuit milieuoogpunt niet meer worden toegepast.

Er bestaan ook stoffen met een broom-atoom; zo geven R13B1 en R12B1 aan dat een fluor-atoom door een broom-atoom is vervangen ( $\text{CBrF}_3$  resp.  $\text{CClBrF}_2$ ).

Moleculen met een Br-atoom zijn nog schadelijker voor de ozonlaag dan Cl en mogen daarom ook niet meer worden toegepast. Ook de zgn. halonen (om specifieke branden te "blussen") vallen onder deze groep.

Een nieuwe groep koudemiddelen vormen de zgn. niet-azeotropische mengsels, ook wel zeotropische mengsels (blends) genoemd. Deze groep, beginnend met een 4 hebben een volgnummer meegekregen, bestaande uit totaal 3 cijfers. Deze mengsels hebben geen vast kookpunt of condensatiepunt en vertonen bij verdampen en condensereren een temperatuurverloop ("temperature glide")!

Er zijn ook blends, die uit dezelfde componenten bestaan, maar waarbij de onderlinge verhouding varieert. Bij deze mengsels (voor verschillende toepassingsgebieden) volgt dan de toevoeging A,B,...enz.

De blends uit de 400-serie mogen alleen via de vloeistoffase worden toegevoegd aan een koelsysteem!

#### *Natuurlijke anorganische koudemiddelen*

Een Amerikaans voorstel om ook de natuurlijke anorganische stoffen in dit systeem op te nemen is door de ISO niet aangenomen. Overeenkomstig dit voorstel kan men in de literatuur soms o.a. ammoniak (R 717), voor water (R 718), voor  $\text{CO}_2$  (R 744) en voor lucht (R 729) aantreffen. De laatste twee cijfers geven hierbij het molecuulgewicht aan.

Alvorens de thermodynamische eigenschappen van de thans meest gangbare koudemiddelen te vergelijken, willen wij eerst nog een opmerking plaatsen m.b.t. de installatie-onderdelen. Deze worden tegenwoordig vrijwel zonder uitzondering in standaard series op de markt gebracht en de projecttechnicus is hierop bijna altijd aangewezen, omdat „maatwerk" onbetaalbaar is, behoudens de uitzonderingsgevallen. Dit brengt met zich mee dat hij bij het installatie-ontwerp rekening moet houden met de voor de in te kopen standaardonderdelen geldende beperkingen. Bij de volgende beschouwingen gaan wij uit van 1900 kPa als hoogst toelaatbare druk (dit is 1800 kPa effectieve druk), 30 kPa als laagst toelaatbare druk (i.v.m. de oliepomp in de compressor),  $n=8$  als hoogste ontwerp-drukverhouding en  $t_c = 30^\circ\text{C}$  als ontwerp-condensatietemperatuur. (Let wel, dit zijn geen algemeen geldende normen).

### 3.4 Indeling koudemiddelen in drukklassen en volumetrische opbrengst

Met betrekking tot hun toepasbaarheid, voor zover het druk en temperatuur betreft, kunnen de koudemiddelen worden ingedeeld in drie groepen: de lagedruk - en de middeldruk- en de hogedruk-koudemiddelen.

#### Lage-druk-koudemiddelen:

Dit zijn stoffen waarvan het kookpunt bij atmosferische druk boven 0°C ligt. Het HCFC koudemiddel R123 is een voorbeeld van een lage-druk-koudemiddel. Dit koudemiddel wordt toegepast in turbo-compressoren. Koudemiddelen uit deze groep zijn ook geschikt voor warmtepompen. Een aantal CFK koudemiddelen zijn lage-druk-koudemiddelen. Er zijn echter geen gangbare HFK alternatieven leverbaar.

#### Middeldruk-koudemiddelen:

Dit zijn stoffen waarvan de druk bij de ontwerp-condensatietemperatuur (hier 30 °C) beneden de hoogst toelaatbare werkdruk (hier 1900 kPa) ligt. Tot deze groep behoren de meest toegepaste koudemiddelen in compressiekoelsystemen, zoals NH<sub>3</sub>, R290, R22, R400-serie blends en R134a .

#### Hogedruk-koudemiddelen:

Dit zijn stoffen waarvan de condensatiedruk bij de ontwerp-condensatietemperatuur (hier 30 °C) boven de hoogst toegelaten werkdruk (hier 1900 kPa) ligt. CFK koudemiddel R13 was de bekendste stof uit deze groep. Hoge druk HFK koudemiddelen zijn R508A (-86 °C) en R508B (-88 °C).

R170 (-89 °C) is de codering voor ethaan en is eveneens geschikt als vervanger voor R13, mits de veiligheidsvoorschriften in acht worden genomen. Ook CO<sub>2</sub> (R744) is een hoge druk koudemiddel. De hoge-druk-koudemiddelen gebruikt men meestal in de lage temperatuurtrap van cascade systemen. De "condensor" wordt dan met een tweede koelmachine (in serie) gekoeld.

| OVERZICHT DRUK-EIGENSCHAPPEN VAN KOUEMIDDELEN |              |          |                |                |                |                                            |                                                     |
|-----------------------------------------------|--------------|----------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------|
| kolom                                         |              | a        | b              | c              | d              | e                                          | f                                                   |
| GROEP                                         | koude middel | kookpunt | t<br>( 30 kPa) | t<br>(240 kPa) | t<br>(1900kPa) | P <sub>c</sub><br>( t <sub>c</sub> =30 °C) | t <sub>0</sub><br>( T <sub>c</sub> = 30 °C;<br>π=8) |
|                                               |              | [°C]     |                |                |                | [kPa]                                      | [°C]                                                |
| LD                                            | R123         | 28       | -2             | 54             | 145            | -                                          | -                                                   |
| MD                                            | R134a        | -26      | -50            | -5             | 65             | 771                                        | -27                                                 |
|                                               | R717         | -33      | -55            | -15            | 47             | 1169                                       | -26                                                 |
|                                               | R22          | -41      | -64            | -21            | 49             | 1191                                       | -32                                                 |
|                                               | R290         | -42      | -66            | -21            | 55             | 1090                                       | -32                                                 |
|                                               | R600a        | -12      | -39            | 12             | 98             | 407                                        | -28                                                 |
| HD                                            | R744         | -        | -              | -73            | -21            | 7200                                       | -14                                                 |
|                                               | R508A        | -86      | -105           | -69            | -14            | 5900                                       | -12                                                 |
|                                               | R170         | -89      | -109           | -71            | -9             | 4720                                       | -16,6                                               |

Tabel 1

In de bovenstaande tabel zijn, op basis van de aangenomen voorwaarden, voor een aantal gangbare koudemiddelen gegevens opgenomen waarmee kan worden vastgesteld welke voor een bepaalde toepassing de mogelijke keuzen van koudemiddel zijn.

- Kolom a geeft de verzadigingstemperatuur bij atmosferische druk (101kPa).
- Kolom b geeft de verzadigingstemperatuur bij de laagst toelaatbare druk (hier p<sub>min</sub> = 30 kPa).
- Kolom c geeft de verzadigingstemperatuur bij een druk gelijk aan t<sub>max</sub> \* p<sub>min</sub> (hier 8 \* 30 = 240 kPa).
- Kolom d geeft de verzadigingstemperatuur bij de hoogst toelaatbare ontwerpdruk (hier 1900 kPa).

- Kolom e geeft de condensatiedruk bij 30 °C; voor de lage-druk-koudemiddelen is deze niet ingevuld omdat deze stoffen niet op deze manier worden toegepast in een compressiesysteem als hier behandeld; in een warmtepomp zal een hogere condensatietemperatuur dan 30 °C worden vereist.
- Kolom f de verdampings-temperatuur  $t_0$  bij  $t_c = 30$  °C en enkeltraps-compressie met  $\pi = 8$  (waarbij dus  $p_0 = p_c/Q$ ).

Bij het strikt aanhouden van de gestelde voorwaarden kunnen we het volgende uit tabel 2 concluderen:

1. is de vereiste  $T_0$  lager dan de in kolom b vermelde waarde, dan kan het desbetreffende koudemiddel niet worden gekozen;
2. is de vereiste  $T_0$  lager dan in de kolom f vermelde waarde, dan moet een tweetraps-systeem worden toegepast;
3. Hoge-druk-koudemiddelen, zoals R508A kunnen niet worden toegepast in systemen waarvan de condenser met een natuurlijk koelmiddel (water, lucht) wordt gekoeld;

#### *Volumetrische koudeopbrengst:*

Tenslotte willen wij de middeldruk-koudemiddelen onderling vergelijken m.b.t. hun volumetrische koudeopbrengst  $q_v (= \rho \cdot \Delta h)$ , dat is de enthalpieverhoging (warmte-opneming) per volume aangezogen verzadigde damp [kJ/m<sup>3</sup>]. Tabel 2 geeft de desbetreffende waarden voor  $t_c = 30$  °C en  $t_0 = -25$  °C.

| <b>VERGELIJKING VAN DE VOLUMETRISCHE KOUDEOPBRENGST VAN MIDDEL-DRUK KOUEMIDDELEN</b> |                            |                              |                                     |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| <b>koudemiddel</b>                                                                   | <b>specifiek gewicht</b>   | <b>enthalpie verschil</b>    | <b>volumetrische koudeopbrengst</b> |
|                                                                                      | <b><math>\rho''</math></b> | <b><math>\Delta h</math></b> | <b><math>q_v</math></b>             |
|                                                                                      | [kg/m <sup>3</sup> ]       | [kJ/kg]                      | [kJ/m <sup>3</sup> ]                |
| <b>R134a</b>                                                                         | 5,50                       | 141,9                        | 781                                 |
| <b>R717 (NH<sub>3</sub>) (ammoniak)</b>                                              | 1,30                       | 1.085,4                      | 1.411                               |
| <b>R22</b>                                                                           | 9,01                       | 157,3                        | 1.417                               |
| <b>R290 (propan)</b>                                                                 | 4,57                       | 265,0                        | 1.211                               |
| <b>R600a (iso-butaan)</b>                                                            | 1,67                       | 249,4                        | 417                                 |
| <b>R744 (CO<sub>2</sub>) (kooldioxide)</b>                                           | 44                         | 131                          | 7.764                               |

Tabel 2

We zien dat R600a t.o.v. de anderen een lage  $q_v$  heeft en dus een groot slagvolume vereist. NH<sub>3</sub>, R22 en propan zijn vrijwel gelijkwaardig en vereisen voor een bepaald koelvermogen praktisch dezelfde compressoren, terwijl CO<sub>2</sub> wat dit aspect betreft het gunstigst ligt.

### **3.5 Classificatie van koudemiddelen**

Koudemiddelen kunnen naar brandbaarheid worden ingedeeld in drie groepen (EN 378). De indeling is gebaseerd op de onderste explosiegrens bij atmosferische druk en kamertemperatuur.

De indeling van enkelvoudige koudemiddelen en koudemiddelmengsels is als volgt:

- Groep 1, koudemiddelen die in dampvorm in geen enkele concentratie in lucht brandbaar zijn;
- Groep 2, koudemiddelen waarvan de onderste explosiegrens > dan 3,5 volumeprocent is bij de vorming van een mengsel met lucht;
- Groep 3, koudemiddelen waarvan de onderste explosiegrens < dan 3,5 volumeprocent is bij de vorming van een mengsel met lucht.

Aan koudemiddelmengsels, waarvan de samenstelling kan veranderen gedurende fractionering, wordt in EN 378 een tweevoudige veiligheidsgroep classificatie toegekend, gescheiden door een /. De eerste veiligheidsgroep geldt voor de oorspronkelijke samenstelling van het mengsel. De tweede veiligheidsgroep geldt voor de samenstelling van het mengsel in het 'ergste geval van fractionering'. De aan het mengsel te stellen veiligheidseisen zijn die behorend bij de hoogste veiligheidsgroep.

Bijlage A van de Nederlandse Praktijk Richtlijn voor de toepassing van natuurlijke koudemiddelen in koelinstallaties en warmtepompen geeft een overzicht van de brandbare koudemiddelen, exclusief ammoniak (zie hiervoor PGS 13), behorend tot de veiligheidsgroepen 2 en 3, en hun relevante eigenschappen.

Een groot aantal fysische grootheden is van belang voor het brand- en explosierisico van een brandbare stof. Hiertoe behoren o.a. de explosiegrenzen, het vlampunt, de zelfontbrandingstemperatuur en de minimum ontstekingsenergie. Bij brandbare gassen (vlampunt lager dan 21 °C) wordt in het algemeen het vlampunt niet apart opgegeven. Voorts is het van belang onderscheid te maken tussen brandbare gassen die zwaarder zijn dan lucht en die lichter zijn dan lucht. In het eerste geval zullen al bij het vrijkomen deze stoffen zich over de vloer verspreiden en daar een explosief mengsel kunnen vormen, ook op enige afstand van de bron. Na verloop van tijd zullen gassen zich altijd volledig met elkaar mengen.

Uit oogpunt van veiligheid wordt een praktische limiet voor de maximale concentratie aangehouden, zijnde 20% van de onderste explosiegrens (LEL-waarde). Voor de meeste koolwaterstoffen betekent dit 8 g/m<sup>3</sup> ruimte. Voor een ruimte van 3m x 3m x 3m bedraagt het ruimtevolumen 27 m<sup>3</sup> en is de maximale vulling: 216 gram.

Voor de bepaling van deze maximale hoeveelheid brandbaar koudemiddel wordt verder rekening gehouden met:

- de aard van het gebruik van de bedrijfsruimte (klasse A,B en C)
- de uitvoering van het koelsysteem (direct of indirect);
- plaats waar de installatie staat opgesteld (type a,b,c en d)
- de toegepaste veiligheidsvoorzieningen

Zie voor toepassing van koolwaterstoffen de praktijkrichtlijn NPR 7600 en voor de toepassing van kooldioxide NPR 7601.

De gehanteerde grenswaarden voor de toegestane totale hoeveelheid brandbaar koudemiddel zijn afkomstig van prEN 378 en bedragen: 1,0, 1,5, 2,5, 5, 10 en 25kg.

Ondergronds gelegen installaties mogen nooit meer dan 1 kg brandbaar koudemiddel bevatten, tenzij sprake is van hermetisch gesloten systemen.

## 4. OLIEHUISHOUDING

De bewegende delen van een compressor moeten worden gesmeerd; dat geldt ook voor de delen die met een koudemiddel in aanraking komen (uitgezonderd bij de speciale, zeer dure, olievrije compressor). Daarbij is het niet te vermijden dat een hoeveelheid olie met persgas de compressor verlaat. Omdat olie in het koelsysteem geen functie heeft en daarin hinderlijk kan werken, wordt in de persleiding een olie-afscheider gemonteerd. Deze vangt de oliedruppels op en de afgescheiden olie loopt via een HD-vlotter naar de compressor terug. Hoe goed de olieafscheider ook functioneert, er zal altijd enige olie passeren (in ieder geval de oliedamp!) en deze komt dus in het koelsysteem terecht. Omdat hierin de oliehoeveelheid steeds zou aangroeien, is het nodig voorzieningen te treffen om de olie weer uit het systeem te verwijderen, hetzij door hem af te tappen, hetzij door hem met het koudemiddel te laten circuleren, zodat hij tenslotte weer in de compressor belandt. De aard van die voorzieningen is afhankelijk van het gedrag van de olie t.o.v. het koudemiddel.

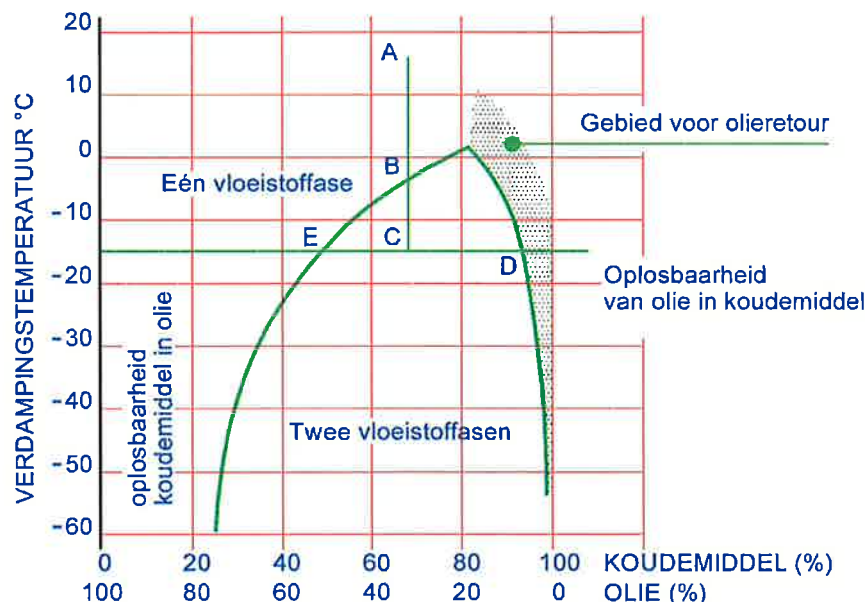
### *olie en ammoniak*

Olie en ammoniak zijn in elkaar onoplosbaar en olie is zwaarder dan  $\text{NH}_3$ . In elk apparaat waarin olie terecht komt, zakt deze dus naar beneden en wanneer op het onderste punt van het apparaat een verzamelput met aftapafsluiter is aangebracht kan men de olie daar periodiek aftappen.

Door de aanwezigheid van olie in warmtewisselaars vormt zich een oliefilm op het warmtewisselend oppervlak. Vanwege de slechte warmtegeleiding van olie heeft de aanwezigheid van olie een negatieve invloed op de warmteoverdracht.

### *olie en HCFK's*

Bij hogere temperaturen, zoals die in het condensaat optreden, is R22 volledig mengbaar met minerale smeerolie. Bij temperaturen die in de verdamper heersen, kan er echter, afhankelijk van de soort minerale olie, ontmenging optreden, waarbij zich twee fasen vormen. Fig. 6 verduidelijkt dit.



Figuur 6: Ontmengkromme bij een mengsel van R22 en minerale olie

In punt A is het mengsel homogeen, in punt B begint een fasenafscheiding en in punt C bestaat de vloeistof uit de fasen D en E, waarbij D rijker aan R22 en E rijker aan olie is. Aangezien de fase D de zwaarste is, vormen zich in een vloeistofbad twee lagen, boven de olierijke (E), onder de R22-rijke (D). Bij verdampers waar het koudemiddel in de pijpen verdampt (zoals luchtkoelers) vormt deze fasenafscheiding geen probleem; de meegesleurde vloeistof wordt in de warmtewisselaar uitgedampt. Bij natte verdamping met fasenafscheiding is de problematiek echter gecompliceerder. Men zal er daarom, door een geschikte olie te kiezen en in een goede olieafscheiding te voorzien, bij het ontwerp van een systeem met natte verdamping van R22 naar moeten streven het werkpunt van het koudemiddel buiten het ontmengingsgebied te houden.

#### *olie en R134a*

Bij R134a en de meeste niet- of "near" azeotropische mengsels kan geen minerale olie worden toegepast, omdat deze olie niet oplost in deze koudemiddelen.

Men moet dan een polyolester (POE) of poly-glycol (PAG) gebruiken. Vooral de laatste soort is zeer hygroscopisch en moet men zeer zorgvuldig te werk gaan bij het gebruik, Uitvoerige informatie hierover kan men vinden in "Bitzer Report Refrigerant".

#### *olie en koolwaterstoffen*

Koolwaterstoffen kunnen zowel in combinatie met minerale olie als esterolie worden gebruikt. De viscositeit van de minerale olie moet bij propaan e.d. hoger worden gekozen omdat deze enigszins wordt verlaagd door het oplossen van het koudemiddel in de olie (in het carter).

In het algemeen dient men zich bij de keuze van een koudemiddel goed op de hoogte te stellen hoe dit zich gedraagt t.o.v. de oliesoort die men wil toepassen. Verschillende oliesoorten kunnen aanmerkelijk verschillen in hun gedrag t.o.v. een koudemiddel.

## 5. KOUEDRAGERS

*Kenmerken van koudedragers:*

- toepassing in indirecte systemen
- geen drukveranderingen
- vriespunt lager dan toepassingstemperaturen ( $3K < \Delta T < 10K$ )
- meestal geen fase-overgang

*Selectie criteria:*

De volgende selectie criteria worden gehanteerd voor koudedragers.

- Toxiciteit
- Corrosiviteit
- Brandbaarheid
- Transporteigenschappen
- Warmteoverdracht

*Toxiciteit:*

Niet alleen de koudedrager mag niet giftig zijn voor mensen en voedsel maar ook de eventueel toegepaste "inhibitors" mogen niet giftig zijn.

|                      |                                            |
|----------------------|--------------------------------------------|
| Calcium chloride     | niet giftig, inhibitors kunnen giftig zijn |
| Kalium acetaat (KAc) | niet giftig                                |
| Ethyleenglycol       | giftig (LD = 5,8 g/kg)                     |
| Propyleenglycol      | beperkt giftig (LD = 15 g/kg)              |
| d-limonene           | niet giftig                                |
| Ethanol/water        | MAC = 1000 ppm                             |

*Corrosiviteit:*

|                       |                                                                                                       |
|-----------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Calcium chloride      | sterk corrosief,                                                                                      |
| Kalium acetaat (KAc)  | gering corrosief in aanwezigheid van inhibitors; let op bij gebruik i.v.m. de relatief hoge pH-waarde |
| Ethyleenglycol        | corrosiever dan water, gering met inhibitors                                                          |
| Propyleenglycol       | gering met inhibitors                                                                                 |
| d-limonene            | corrosief                                                                                             |
| Ethanol/water         | sterk corrosief                                                                                       |
| Kalium formiaat (Kfo) | gering corrosief in aanwezigheid van inhibitors; let op bij gebruik i.v.m. de relatief hoge pH-waarde |

*Brandbaarheid:*

Het vlampunt van de toegepaste koudedragers moet hoog genoeg zijn om gevaarlijke situaties ten gevolge van brand te voorkomen.

Brandbaar zijn ethanol, methanol en in geringere mate ammoniak.

*Transporteigenschappen:*

*Volumetrische warmtecapaciteit:*

Het koelvermogen dat met een koudedrager kan worden "getransporteerd", kunnen we uitdrukken in:

$$Q = (\rho \cdot c_p) \cdot V \cdot \Delta T \quad [\text{kW}]$$

Hierin is de factor  $(\rho \cdot c_p)$  de volumetrische warmtecapaciteit in  $\text{kJ}/(\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{K})$ ; een grotere voimestroom heeft gevolgen voor:

- pompvermogen
- drukval in de leiding in  $\text{kPa}/\text{m}$

*Warmteoverdracht:*

De warmteoverdracht van een koudedrager in  $W/(m^2.K)$  wordt beïnvloed door:

- soortelijke warmte (+)
- warmte geleidingscoëfficiënt (+)
- dichtheid of soortelijke massa (+)
- viscositeit (-)

*Koudedragers zonder faseovergang:*

Zoutoplossingen met water:

- NaCl (keukenzout)
- $CaCl_2$

De dichtheid van de oplossing is een maat voor de concentratie opgeloste stof. Dit gaat het eenvoudigst met een areometer (vgl. accuzuurweger). Belangrijke grootheden voor de warmteoverdragende eigenschappen kenmerken zijn: de soortelijke warmte  $c_p$  en de kinematische viscositeit  $\nu$ .

*Organische verbindingen als oplossing in water:*

- glycerine
- ethylalcohol (ethanol)
- ethyleenglycol
- kaliumacetaat (Tyfoxit, Antifrogeen en Temper)
- kaliumformiaat (Tyfoxit F, Pekasol 50)

*Koudedragers met fase-overgang:*

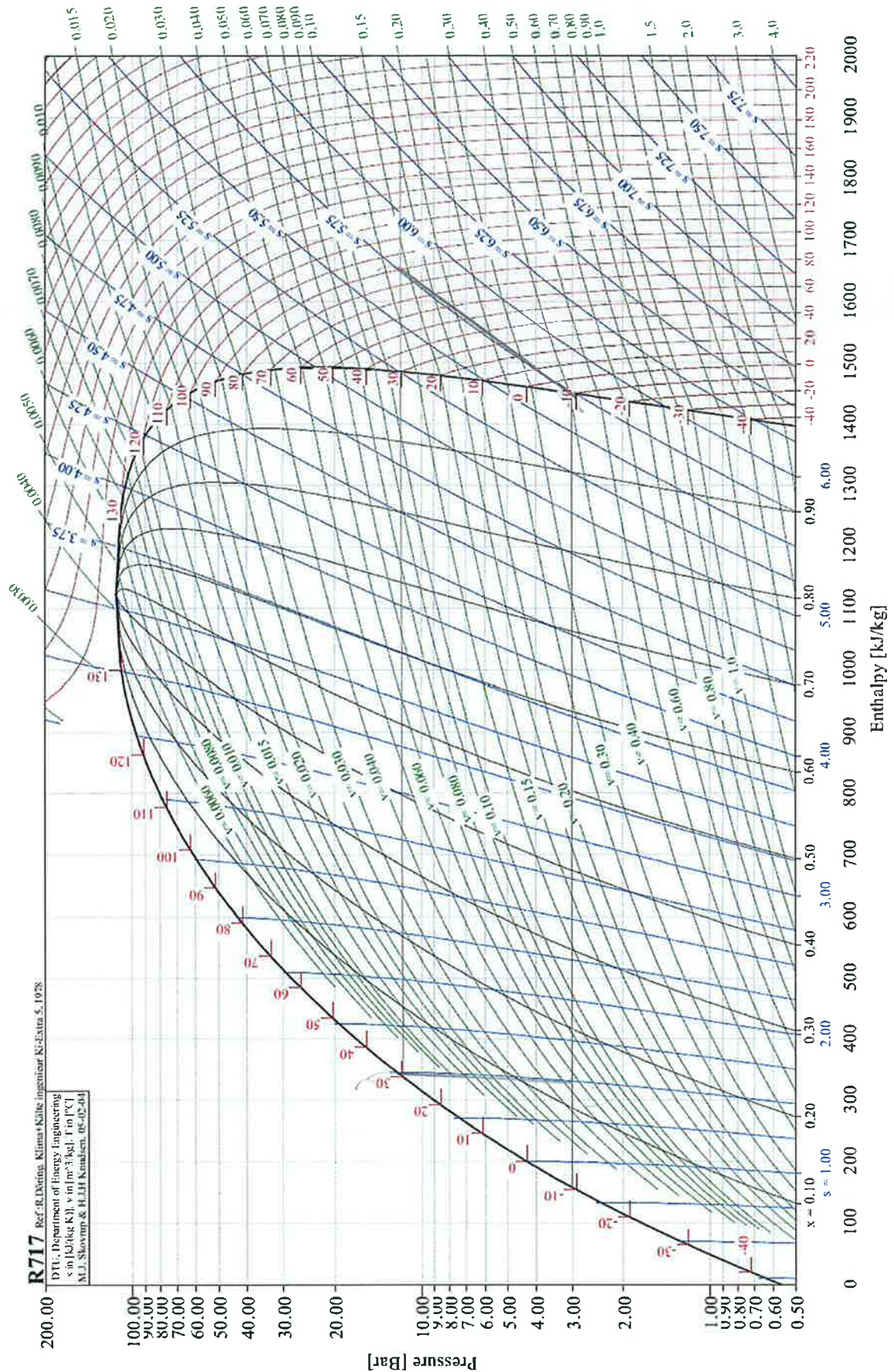
- ijsslurrie
- $CO_2$

*Conclusies*

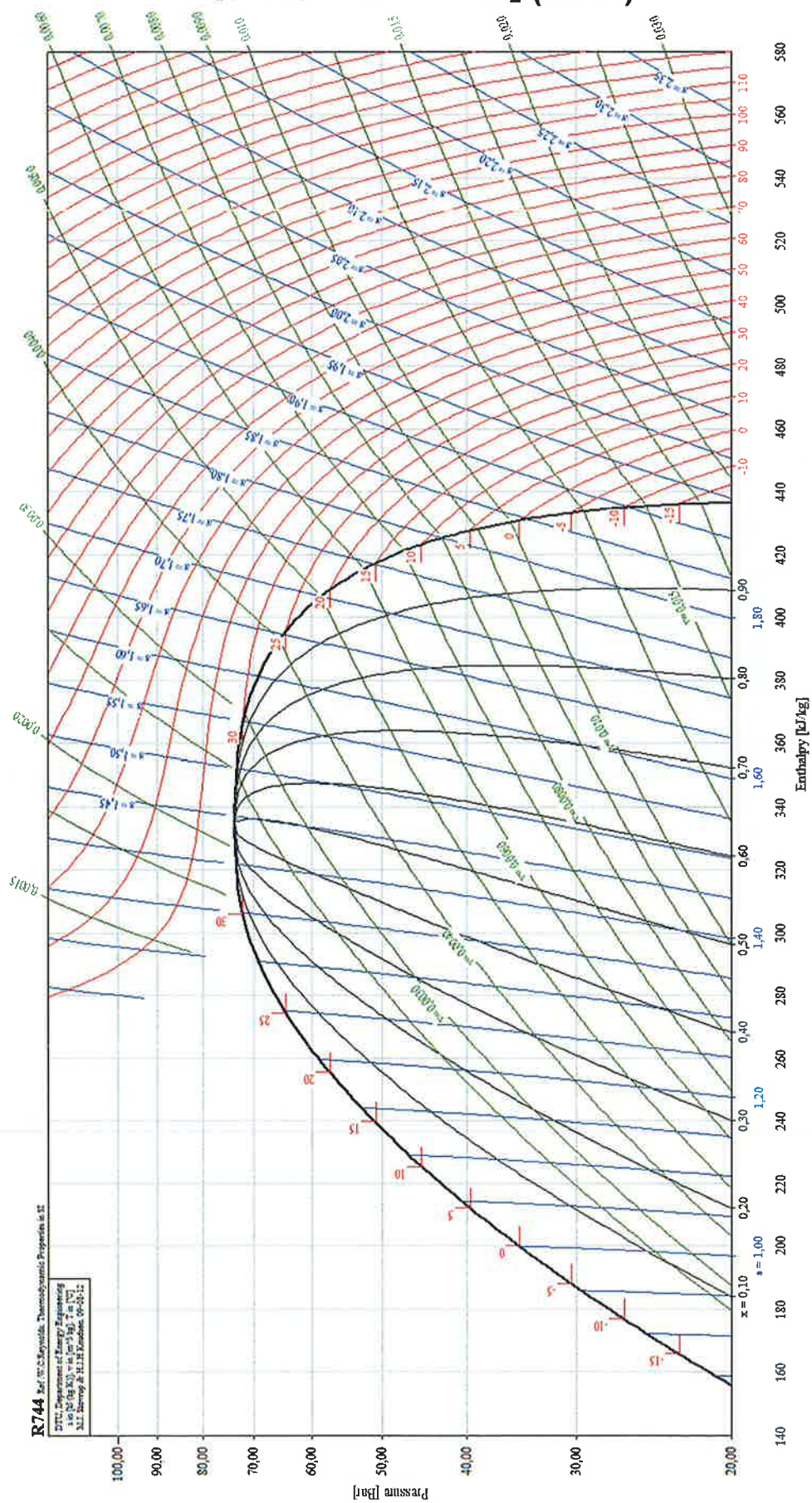
De koudedragers op basis van organische zouten (KAc en KFo) zijn relatief nieuw en worden inmiddels bij voorkeur ingezet. Zij zijn ecologisch en toxicologisch niet bezwaarlijk, betrouwbaar en vertonen een acceptabel corrosiegedrag.

Een nieuwe ontwikkeling is  $CO_2$  als koudedrager

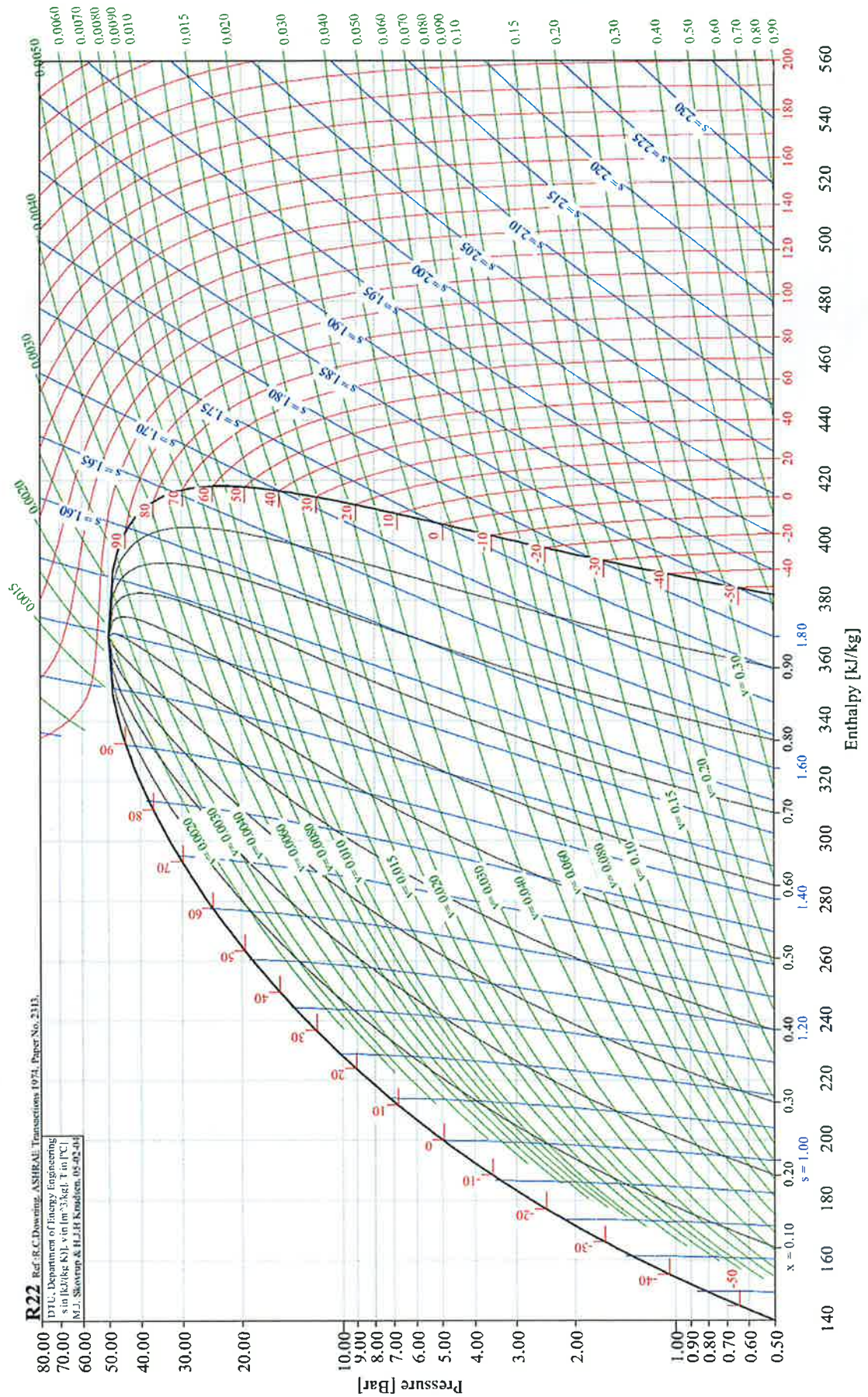
# BIJLAGE A: NH<sub>3</sub> (R717)



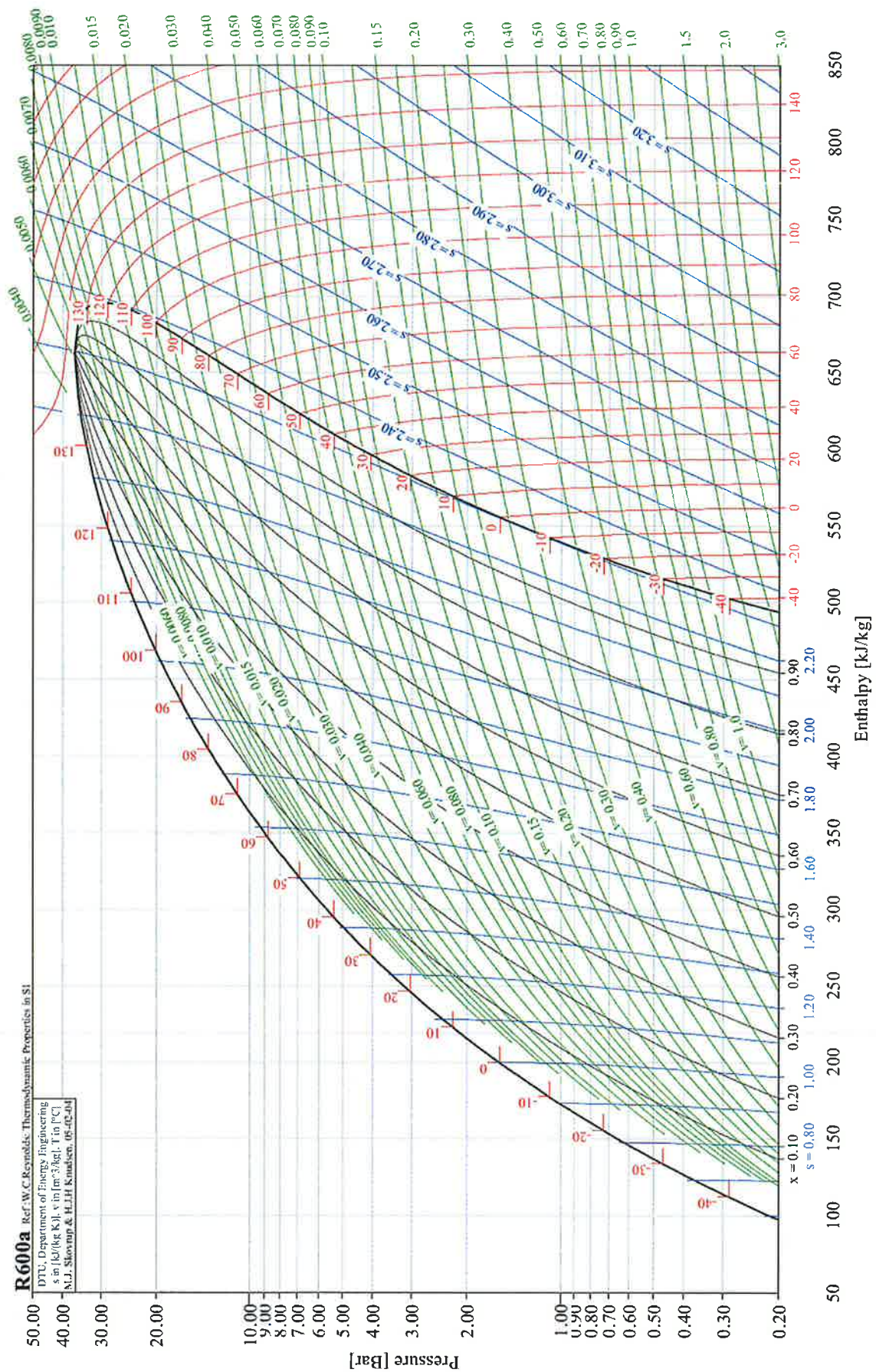
# BIJLAGE B: CO<sub>2</sub> (R744)



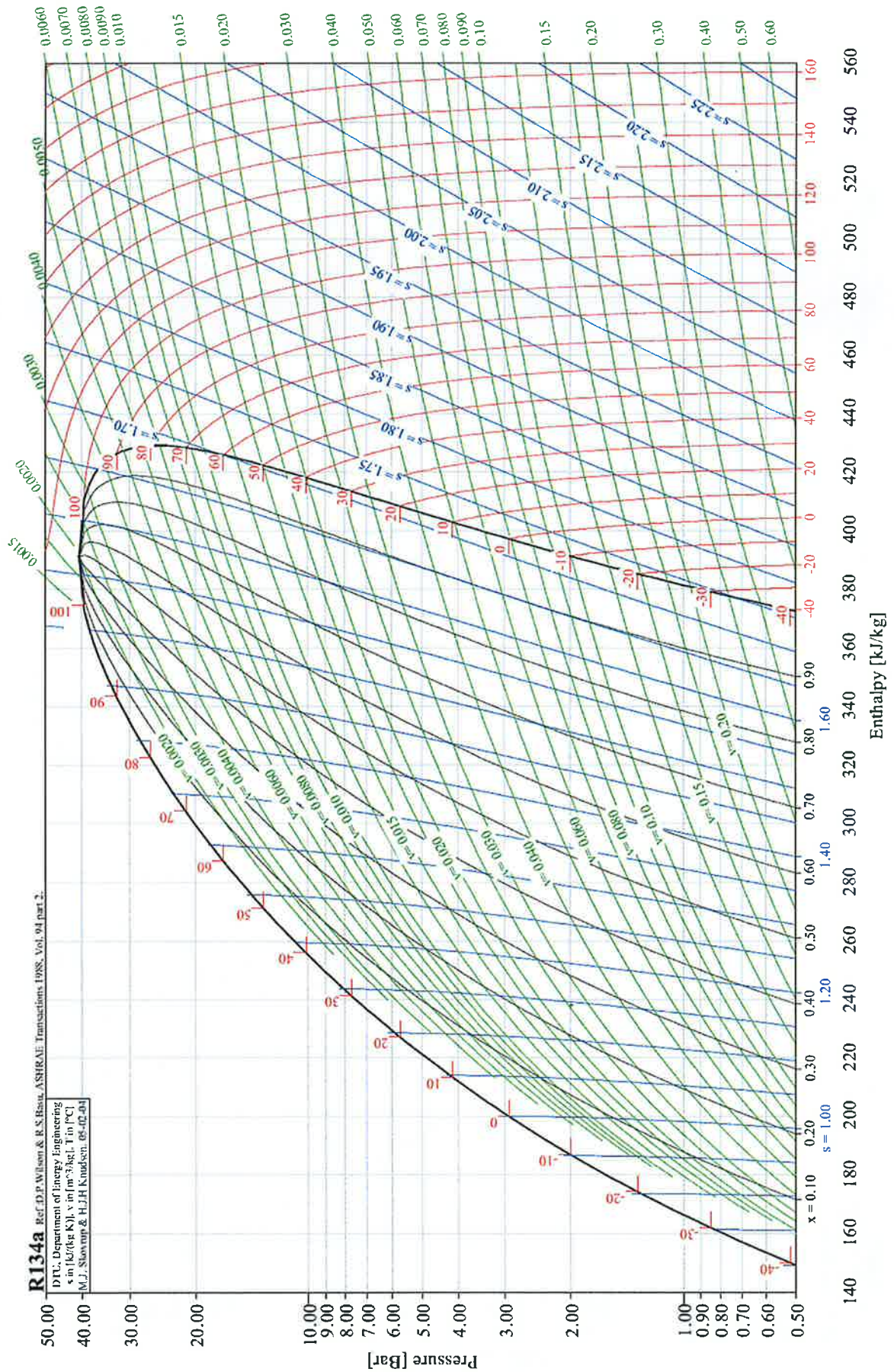
# BIJLAGE C: R22



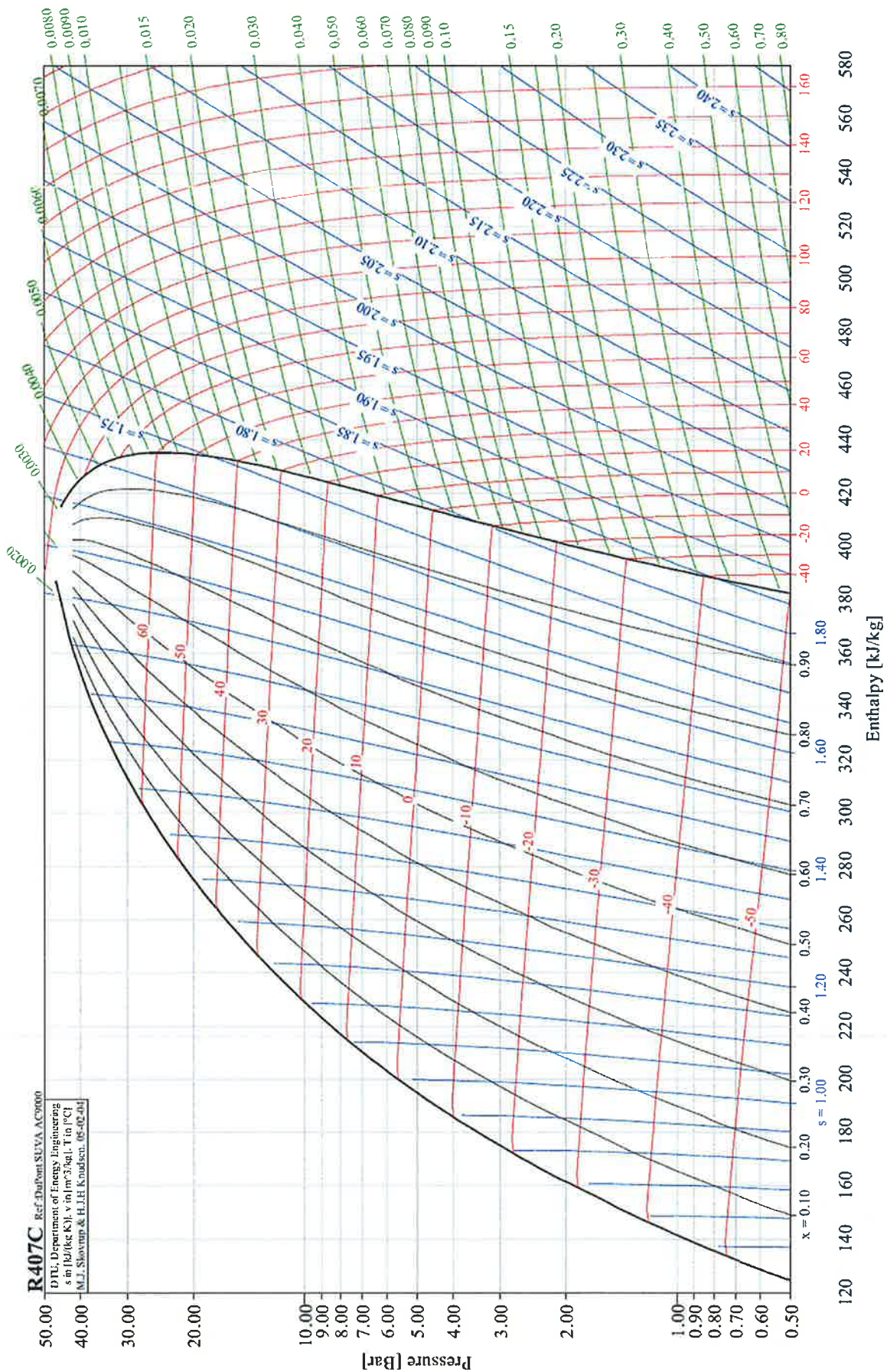
## BIJLAGE D: R600a



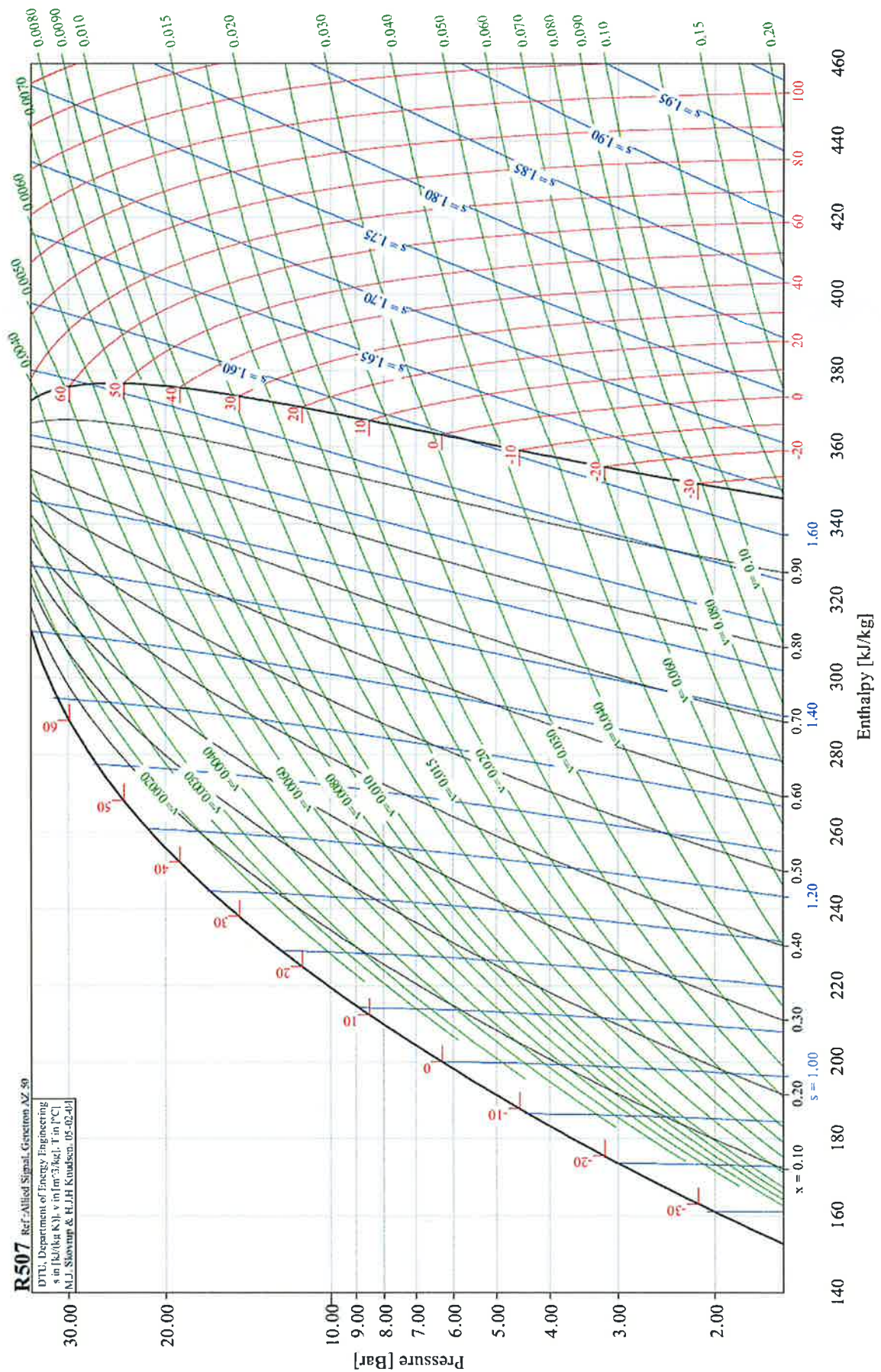
# BIJLAGE E: R134a



# BIJLAGE F: R407C



# BIJLAGE G: R507





## BIJLAGE H:

### IIR Thematic file

#### SELECTION OF REFRIGERANTS ON A PER-APPLICATION BASIS: TRENDS

François Billiard

##### **Summary**

There is no general rule governing the selection of refrigerants. There are, of course, the five classic criteria: thermophysical properties, technological and economic aspects, safety and environmental factors; however, in addition to these criteria, others have to be considered: local regulations and standards and "cultural" criteria associated with professions, applications, customs and user training levels. The best approach when presenting evolution and trends is certainly the per-application approach.

The 8 following applications are analysed: domestic refrigeration, commercial refrigeration, industrial refrigeration (storage, the food industry, other industrial applications), land refrigerated transport, marine refrigerated transport, unitary air conditioning and heat pumps, water chillers, and mobile air conditioning.

For each of these applications, national and global figures are displayed in order to provide an insight into the economic importance of the sector, trends in the selection of refrigerants (HFCs, ammonia, hydrocarbons, CO<sub>2</sub>, etc.) are analysed, and finally some long-term orientations are outlined.

##### **Introduction**

There is no general rule governing the selection of refrigerants. The best approach when presenting trends is certainly the per-application approach. Eight applications are examined: domestic refrigeration, commercial refrigeration, industrial refrigeration, land refrigerated transport, marine refrigerated transport, unitary air conditioning and heat pumps, water chillers, and mobile airconditioning.

Only refrigerants which are not covered by the Montreal Protocol and European Regulation 2037/2000 will be presented.

#### **1. Domestic refrigeration**

Global production of appliances reached 83 million in 1996, including 33 million in developing countries.[1] The number of refrigeration appliances in the world is estimated at 1 billion, which represents 1 for 6 inhabitants. In France, the total is estimated at 37 million,[2] which represents 1.7 appliances (refrigerator and/or freezer) per household, given that there are 21.9 million households in France.[3]

The most widespread technology is that employing a vapour-compression cycle and reciprocating compressors. Over the years, manufacturers have designed extremely reliable systems using technologies developed specifically for refrigerators: capillary expansion devices, wire-and-tube condensers, roll-bond evaporators, etc. A refrigerator's compressor works for 100 000 hours without any problems, whereas a car engine's lifespan is approximately 2500 hours.

Absorption refrigerators (ammonia-water pair) were developed for hotels and camper vans. Kerosene refrigerators are found in areas with no power supply.

Thermoelectricity is used for ice boxes in cars or camper vans. Nowadays, a refrigerating capacity of 300 W can be achieved using such appliances. This is therefore quite close to the capacity required for household refrigerators, which have refrigerating capacities of 400-500 W and electrical power input within the 100-150 W range. However, energy efficiency is far from that achieved using vapour-compression systems.

Since 1992-1994, the refrigerants used are R134a and isobutane. Experts agree that these 2 refrigerants have similar performances in terms of refrigerating capacity and energy efficiency.[4] After being used for a few years, the propane/isobutane mixture was abandoned, in particular because these systems proved to be noisy. Refrigerators using isobutane represent 50% of sales in Europe. In the US, all refrigerators use R134a. As leaks are very small and direct emissions represent only about 1-2% of the TEWI (Total Equivalent Warming Impact), in fact, the refrigerant has very little impact on the greenhouse effect. On the other hand, power consumption represents 98-99% of the TEWI and is therefore the dominant factor in terms of climate change. It is important to bear in mind that refrigerators consume approximately 5% of all electricity consumed in developed countries.[5]

Insulation that reduces power consumption is particularly important. It must be noted that the mass of blowing agent in insulation represents approximately 4 times the mass of the refrigerant. Although the importance of the blowing agent is preponderant in terms of greenhouse effect, strangely, it is the refrigerant that gives rise to the most debate. Foams use mostly 2 types of blowing agents: R141b and pentanes (cyclopentanes and cyclopentane and isopentane or isobutane mixtures). In Europe, the latter dominate, whereas in the US, it is R141b. In the future, it is likely there will be two main families: pentane foams and those using blowing agents such as R245fa, R365mfc and R134a. Logically, the foam with the lowest overall heat transmission coefficient should dominate.

In order to reduce the energy consumption of refrigerators, several approaches are being explored, including the linear motor, which should consume 50% less energy than current motors, and vacuum insulating panels. In reality, these technological leaps could take decades to achieve. Energy labelling which is now compulsory in France [6] and on a European level [7] has proved to be effective. Consumer purchasing criteria have changed: there is now a move towards appliances that consume less.

## **2. Commercial refrigeration**

In France, there are 8000-9000 supermarkets and hypermarkets with a total length of refrigerated display cabinets estimated as being 775 km.[8] When one considers the 160 000 or so French retail outlets, the total length of refrigerated display cabinets is estimated as being 400-500 km. In terms of value, fresh and frozen products purchased by households represents over half of all food products purchased. It must be underlined that in France, the area devoted to refrigerated (chilled and frozen) food represents only 22% of the overall retail surface area of large and medium-sized stores, and that cabinets used for frozen food represent 25% of the total length of display cabinets. [8]

There are two categories of equipment: self-contained display cabinets and central systems.

Self-contained display cabinets are mainly used in local shops and can also be found as back-up equipment in supermarkets and hypermarkets. They have the advantage of presenting a relatively low charge of refrigerant and of having very tight circuits. They usually use R134a for chilled products and R404A for frozen food. In some countries, there are a few cabinets running on R600a, with charges of up to 800 g. [9]

In supermarkets, the concept used for decades has been that of a direct-expansion refrigerating installation supplying the store's cabinets. Nowadays, new concepts abound. However, it is difficult to say what solutions will be adopted in the future.

The guiding principles of these new concepts are: a low refrigerant charge, improved containment of the refrigerant, enhanced flexibility (achieved for instance during periodic refitting of the stores).

The most frequent designs and refrigerants used are:

- Centralized direct-expansion systems using R404A (sometimes R507) both for low and medium temperatures. CO<sub>2</sub> is sometimes used as a low-pressure stage refrigerant in cascade systems.
- Distributed systems comprising several small plants. This concept allows the refrigerant charge to be halved and is more widespread in the US as it requires more space.

- Indirect systems are attracting a lot of interest. The refrigerant is usually R404A (or R507). However, in Europe, there are over 50 plants using ammonia and 10 using hydrocarbons.[1]
- There are many developments in terms of secondary refrigerants with classic alcohol solutions, and brines (calcium chloride, potassium formate) which have made a comeback,[10] two-phase liquid-vapour CO<sub>2</sub> and liquid-solid ice slurries.

This is an area where the TEWI and LCCP (Life Cycle Climate Performance) concepts are not really taken into consideration as indirect systems are very popular despite the fact that overall they have a higher TEWI, especially in low-temperature applications.

Considerable research and development is conducted in this domain because of the relatively high GWP of R404A (3260), the large amount of refrigerants used and the leakage rates which are still too high in direct-expansion plants.

### **3. Industrial refrigeration: refrigerated storage, agri-food and other industries**

Being so diversified, this is a field which is difficult to describe using figures. Trends in the field are as follows:

- Increasing use of ammonia in medium- and high-capacity plants (there are no compressors with capacities of less than 50 kW);
- Development of the capacity of dry-expansion evaporators to replace flooded evaporators (up to 300 kW) in order to reduce the charge;[4]
- Use of R404A (or R507) for dry-expansion evaporators in medium-capacity plants (< 300 kW). R404A is rarely used in recirculating systems, despite its low glide and the fact that it has shown that there is no significant change in the composition of the mixture;
- Distinct interest in R410A for low-temperature applications because of its high specific refrigerating capacity (1 kg of R410A supplies 50% more refrigerating capacity than 1 kg of ammonia). However, high- and medium-capacity components remain to be developed;
- R134a is used in small-capacity plants for temperatures above 0°C;
- Interest in CO<sub>2</sub>, in particular for low temperature applications (frozen food, ice cream). The ammonia (high-pressure stage)/CO<sub>2</sub> (low-pressure stage) pair should have a promising future. It tends to replace ammonia used alone; [4]
- Distinct interest in secondary refrigerants. Indirect systems have always been used in the food industry (fruit stations, offal conservation, dairy plants...) for precise temperature regulation. Nowadays, such systems offer an additional benefit: a reduction in the refrigerant charge. There is a great diversity of secondary refrigerants. Recently, CO<sub>2</sub> has been widely used as a secondary refrigerant in the French food industry;
- There have also been developments in the field of hydrocarbons. In fact, hydrocarbons have always been used in some industrial plants where risk control was guaranteed;
- Energy-saving measures. In a warehouse, energy consumption represents 10-15% of total running expenses.[11] High-rise warehouses enable energy consumption to be reduced substantially (from an average of 30-50 kWh/(m<sup>3</sup>.year) to 16 kWh/( m<sup>3</sup>.year)).

### **4. Land refrigerated transport**

Worldwide, there are approximately 1 000 000 road vehicles and 80 000 railway wagons used for refrigerated transport.[1] In France, the number of refrigerated vehicles is estimated as being 60 000,[2] and the number of insulated refrigerated vehicles as being 10 000.

Vehicles comprise carriers, semitrailers or trailers with self-contained refrigerating units (with their own engine-driven motor). Vans and small trucks often use compressors running on the engine of the vehicle, which means that the vehicle's engine, using a belt, drives the compressor.

Despite its breakthrough in the 1990s, intermodal rail-road transport using swap bodies has not gained much ground because of higher costs and the lack of flexibility of the process compared with road transport. In France, there have not been many developments in "piggy-back" (rail transport of whole vehicles) either.

Nowadays, the most commonly used refrigerant is R404A because it enables good energy efficiency to be achieved when transporting chilled as well as frozen products, and it is a well-known fact that ATP class C multipurpose vehicles represent the majority (63%) of refrigerated vehicles.<sup>12</sup> The problem with R404A is that it has a GWP of 3260 and that the transport application leads to significant leakage. R134a is sometimes used for transporting of chilled products only. R410A is another refrigerant used. The high temperature at the end of the compression process requires the injecting of liquid refrigerant into the suction line, thus lowering the system's COP. Trials on hydrocarbons and CO<sub>2</sub> have also been conducted.

Solid absorption technology using ammonia as the refrigerant has not reached breakthrough status so far, despite considerable research and development. Laboratories are working on defining energy labelling.

Most insulants use blowing agents of the R141b type, which will be banned in Europe as of January 1, 2004 for new refrigerated-transport equipment. Again, the future in this field is uncertain. Will R245fa, R365mfc, pentanes or other blowing agents be used? The choice will depend on the availability of suitable HFCs, their cost, conduction and mechanical resistance properties, surface adhesion properties, inflammability and ageing properties.

## **5. Marine refrigerated transport**

There are currently 715 000 TEUs (Twenty-foot Equivalent Units) worldwide. In 1998, sales of TEUs reached a level of 96 500 (500 insulated containers and 96 000 refrigerated containers).<sup>[13]</sup> The trend is therefore clearly towards self-contained refrigerated containers. They are technological wonders which can transport perishable products for weeks, or even months, under very stable temperature, humidity and controlled-atmosphere conditions.

In this sector, R134a dominates. This is understandable for chilled products, which are the most commonly transported products. For frozen products, either R134a is used, which is surprising considering its very poor energy efficiency at low temperatures, or R404A can be employed.

On refrigerated ships (reefers), besides R22, the main refrigerants used are R410A, R407C and R404A. In 1993, five refrigerated ships using ammonia were built. Since then, ammonia has no longer been used, except on fishing boats. Indirect systems using brines such as calcium chloride, and plate exchangers, are the most commonly used.<sup>[13]</sup> However, refrigerated ships have been on the decline since the breakthrough of self-contained containers (in 1999, only 861 refrigerated ships with a capacity of over 100 000 cubic feet remained). On the other hand, the fleet of container ships is increasing proportionally, and nowadays there are more than 4000 such vessels.<sup>[13]</sup>

## **6. Unitary air conditioning and heat pumps (air cooling systems)**

The refrigerating-capacity range of air conditioners or heat pumps is typically 2-420 kW.<sup>[1]</sup> Sales of these systems have increased considerably, in particular sales of individual air conditioners for a single room or several rooms. Global sales in 2000 reached 29.9 million for non-packaged equipment and 9.8 million for packaged equipment.<sup>[14]</sup> That is a quarter of the estimated number of air conditioners and heat pumps in use in 1996 (168 million).<sup>[1]</sup>

In terms of refrigerants, R22 is still used a lot in the US. Europe has moved towards R407C, probably because European regulations allowed insufficient time to develop drop-in equipment operating on R410A. In Japan, the policy is to use R410A. It is likely that R410A will dominate this sector in the future, especially for small capacities where energy efficiency is good, and because R410A is an almost azeotropic mixture. For medium capacities and capacities over 100 kW, R407C and R134a are undoubtedly used the most.

Propane is used for portable equipment, but sales of portable equipment are decreasing in favour of benefit sales of split systems. CO<sub>2</sub> is used in some heat pumps.

Unitary air conditioning systems is an area in which HFCs are essential.

## **7. Water chillers**

In terms of capacities, the range of equipment is very wide, varying from 7 to 35 000 kW.[1] The refrigerant used depends mainly on the compressor and the capacity.

Various types of compressors used are summarized according to capacity in Table 1.[1]

Table 1. Types of compressors used in water chillers depending on refrigerating capacities

| Type of compressor       | Range of refrigerating capacity |
|--------------------------|---------------------------------|
| Scroll and reciprocating | 7-1600 kW                       |
| Screw                    | 140-1600 kW                     |
| Centrifugal              | 350-35 000 kW                   |

For high capacities, centrifugal compressors are used, preferably with R134a as it is a pure refrigerant. Furthermore, high-capacity chillers (over 700 kW) are equipped with flooded evaporators which only work well with pure or azeotropic fluids. R134a has valuable heat-transfer properties. Besides, it is a known fact that ammonia cannot be used with centrifugal compressors, unless the number of stages is increased.

For medium-capacity chillers working in dry expansion with positive-displacement compressors, R407C is a popular choice. The high glide of R407C means that it cannot be used with flooded evaporators. In this capacity range, there are many plants using ammonia in France's neighboring countries. Refrigerant charges are approximately 0.15 kg/kW with ammonia (with variations from 0.04 to 0.25 kg/kW) and 0.35 kg/kW with R134a.[1]

Research is being carried out on water chilled chillers using CO<sub>2</sub> and there is an air-conditioning plant in Germany which uses water vapor as the working fluid, but this is a technological feat rather than a common application.[1]

There are few absorption water chillers in France because of the favourable price of electricity in summer. Policies promoting the use of gas have been implemented in several countries in the Far East (China, Japan and Korea), leading to widespread use of this technology. Nevertheless, in France, the surface area of gas air-conditioned premises has risen from 1% of total of air-conditioned surface areas in 1998 to 8% (550 000 m<sup>2</sup>) in 2000.[15]

## **8. Mobile air conditioning**

This is the field which is developing the fastest. It is also the field which requires the most attention to be paid to environmental issues. In fact, it is thought that refrigerant emissions by car air-conditioning systems in Europe will represent approximately 50% of all HFC emissions in 2010. At this same date, there will also be approximately the same quantity of HFC's in mobile air-conditioning circuits as in all other refrigeration and air-conditioning plants.[16]

Since the end of 1994, the refrigerant universally used in all new equipment is R134a. Research is being conducted on the use of propane in indirect cooling systems. The volumetric refrigerating capacity of propane is 15% higher than that of R134a, but the indirect system increases

energy consumption by about 20%.<sup>3</sup> Globally, these two designs have similar energy efficiencies. CO<sub>2</sub> requires a longer developmental period due to various factors to be addressed: the reliability of components, the development of tubes capable of resisting high pressures, the increased weight of systems and the poor energy efficiency of compressors. However, a group of German automobile manufacturers has announced that it will be using CO<sub>2</sub> air-conditioning systems as of 2006. But, in the meantime, mass production of appliances using R134a and constant developments mean that the performance of R134a has also been improved.

Hybrid systems using hermetic compressors operating on R134a and electricity also constitute a new innovative trend.

In this field, it is very difficult to predict which will be the most widespread refrigerant in the future. The optimal refrigerant that will emerge will probably be the working fluid enabling the best energy efficiency to be achieved.

### **Conclusion**

- In conclusion, trends in refrigerant selection early in 2002 are as follows: R134a is the main refrigerant used either pure in applications such as domestic refrigeration, mobile air conditioning, high-capacity water chillers, self-contained display cabinets, etc. or as part of a mixture with R404A, R507 or R407C. Isobutane has had a breakthrough in domestic refrigeration where it competes on an equal footing with R134a, except in the US and in Japan where R134a still dominates.
- R404A dominates in refrigerated transport and commercial refrigeration;
- R410A seems very promising for unitary air conditioning;
- R407C used in air conditioning seems more likely to be used on a short-term than on a long term basis;
- Ammonia is increasing its market share in industrial refrigeration but has a small share of the water-chiller market;
- CO<sub>2</sub> is the refrigerant which is attracting the most interest in almost every application field. However, a much longer developmental process is required in order to deal with its specific properties.

Of course, beyond the scope of this short summary, there are many other refrigerants and many other applications.

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**BIJLAGE I:**

## **UPDATE ON SECONDARY REFRIGERANTS FOR INDIRECT SYSTEMS**

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### **Abstract**

Indirect systems with secondary refrigerants or coolants have in Sweden long been used for ice rinks and heat pumps and are today increasingly used by supermarket chains for cold storage, cooling cabinets and freezers. The secondary refrigerant is then used to transport energy from the cooling object to the evaporator. In an indirect system it is possible to design the primary refrigeration unit in a compact way and with an extremely small refrigerant charge. In order to choose a suitable fluid and for technical calculations of the system there is a need to know the thermophysical properties of the liquid secondary refrigerant. The liquid chosen should give enough freezing security, good transport capabilities, good heat transfer ability and low pressure drop giving small pumping power. This paper includes a comparison of liquids for cooling cabinets and freezers with indirect system in a supermarket. The comparison shows that salt solutions can perform quite well from a thermophysical aspect, also for freezer applications. When choosing secondary fluid, attention should also be given to material compatibility, toxicity, handling security and environmental pollution and we find that no secondary refrigerant is ideal for all types of applications. Much research is today also carried out with phase-changing secondary refrigerants, such as CO<sub>2</sub> and ice-slurry.

## **1. INTRODUCTION**

### **1.1. Indirect systems**

Indirect systems with liquid secondary refrigerants have in Sweden extensively been used for residential heat pumps and ice rinks, and are today increasingly used for cold storage, cooling cabinets of grocery stores and supermarket chains. The liquid secondary refrigerant is used to transport energy from cooling object to the evaporator. Indirect systems have lately found new applications in low temperature refrigeration, such as in freezers of supermarket chains due to the phasing out of CFC refrigerants and an increased awareness that the use of any primary refrigerant should be kept to a minimum.

Indirect systems have several advantages in comparison with direct systems. Factory built units can be used, local construction of primary refrigerant piping can be avoided and installation work can be made in a more simple way. In an indirect system it is possible to design the refrigeration unit in a compact way and with an extremely small refrigerant charge. The magazine "Kyla" reports on one example: A supermarket near Stockholm converted from direct to indirect system for its "dairy market", cooling cabinets and freezers. The amount of primary refrigerant could be reduced from 523 kg R22 installed in 1973 to 22 kg R404A in 1996 [Skaldeman, Kyla, No. 4, 1996].

An indirect system with a secondary refrigerant circuit introduces the added cost for pump and heat exchanger as well as an added temperature difference. However, as brought out in a recent article in Scan-Ref, in practice the total energy consumption over the year of a well built indirect system is often lower than of a direct system. [Lindborg (2000)]. With indirect systems there is of course a need to find a suitable secondary fluid. All liquids used have some negative aspects as we will see later. The challenge becomes more difficult to handle with very low temperatures.

Some systems for supermarket chains use separate circuits for cooling cabinets and freezers. In other systems the main secondary refrigerant is used to cool the condenser of the freezer unit and a low-temperature liquid secondary refrigerant is used to keep the freezer cabinets at a right temperature [Arias, J., Lundqvist, P. [1999]].

### **1.2. Secondary refrigerants**

Water solutions of ethylene and propylene glycol, ethyl alcohol and chloride salts have long been used as secondary refrigerants. A number of non-aqueous heat transfer liquids are also used. Some indirect systems today use water solutions of potassium acetate or potassium formate or a mixture of these organic salts. How do these newer products compare with those used for many years? What aspects must be considered when choosing secondary refrigerant?

There are several requirements that have to be fulfilled by an ideal secondary refrigerant. It should possess good thermophysical properties. High values of specific heat and thermal conductivity but low viscosity at the operating temperature are desirable, making it possible: 1<sup>st</sup> to transport a large refrigerating capacity with small volume flow and small temperature change, 2<sup>nd</sup> to get high heat transfer coefficients giving small temperature differences in heat exchangers and cooling object and 3<sup>rd</sup> to get small pressure drop for the system fluid flow so one can use a pump with little power consumption.

When determining which secondary refrigerant to use in a particular application, close attention should also be given to aspects such as corrosion, toxicity, flammability and cost. It is important that the fluid does not give cause to any material problems, is environmentally acceptable, and can be handled without danger. There is a need to examine carefully the product information and safety sheets available for the commercial products. A brief guideline will be given of these aspects for the various types of secondary refrigerants examined.

Much research is today carried out with phase-changing secondary refrigerants such as phase-changing CO<sub>2</sub> and ice-slurry and these technologies will no doubt develop further during the next few years. However, this research is reported on at other IIR-workshops.

### **1.3. IIR-publication**

A publication entitled "Thermophysical properties of liquid secondary refrigerants" [Melinder (1997)] was published simultaneously by IIR/IIF (English/French) and by the Swedish Society of Refrigeration (English/Swedish). It contains over 90 pages with charts and tables giving freezing point temperature and thermophysical property values such as density, specific heat, thermal conductivity and viscosity for ethylene and propylene glycol, ethyl and methyl alcohol, glycerol, ammonia, potassium carbonate, calcium, magnesium and sodium chloride and potassium acetate. A few non-aqueous heat transfer liquids with low viscosity at low temperatures are included as a comparison.

A number of property dependant "factors" are introduced and presented in these charts and tables as a help to determine needed volume flow, Reynolds number as well as heat transfer and pressure drop for both turbulent and laminar flow. Property data from the basic tables have been converted into uniform polynom equations. Sets of coefficients, that can be put into computer programs and used for technical calculations of refrigeration systems, are listed in tables for each of the water solutions. (The English/Swedish version contains an Excel program where computer calculations can be made).

## 2. COMPARISON OF THERMOPHYSICAL ASPECTS

Basic thermophysical properties are introduced and equations are given to help determine refrigerating capacity, volume flow, Reynolds number as well as heat transfer and pressure drop for turbulent and laminar flow.

### 2.1. Basic thermophysical properties

For technical calculations of refrigeration and heat pump systems and for choice of secondary refrigerant we need to know the concentration and freezing point temperature (or cooling limit) as well as basic thermophysical properties of the liquid, such as density, specific heat, thermal conductivity and viscosity.

The freezing point temperature should be somewhat below the lowest operating temperature of the liquid secondary refrigerant. Water solutions do not freeze to solid ice even if the temperature is lower than the "freezing point" (at which ice crystals may begin to form), except near eutectic concentration. The risk for serious damage due to freezing up of a heat exchanger is therefore small with the aqueous solutions.

The liquid used should have enough freezing security, yet not more than needed as a higher concentration of the freezing point depressant additive will mean less water and thereby poorer thermophysical properties (as can be seen by comparing the results from Examples 1 and 2 in 2.6).

The concentration of a certain known solution can be measured by checking the density. High values of specific heat and thermal conductivity are desirable as it contributes to good heat transfer and thereby decreases the temperature difference between liquid and tube wall.

The viscosity is of special importance, since it is inversely proportional to the Reynolds number and hence influences the type of flow that will occur in a heat exchanger, cooling object and also determines the pressure drop. A high viscosity makes it impossible to keep the flow turbulent in a conventional heat exchanger with a reasonable pumping power.

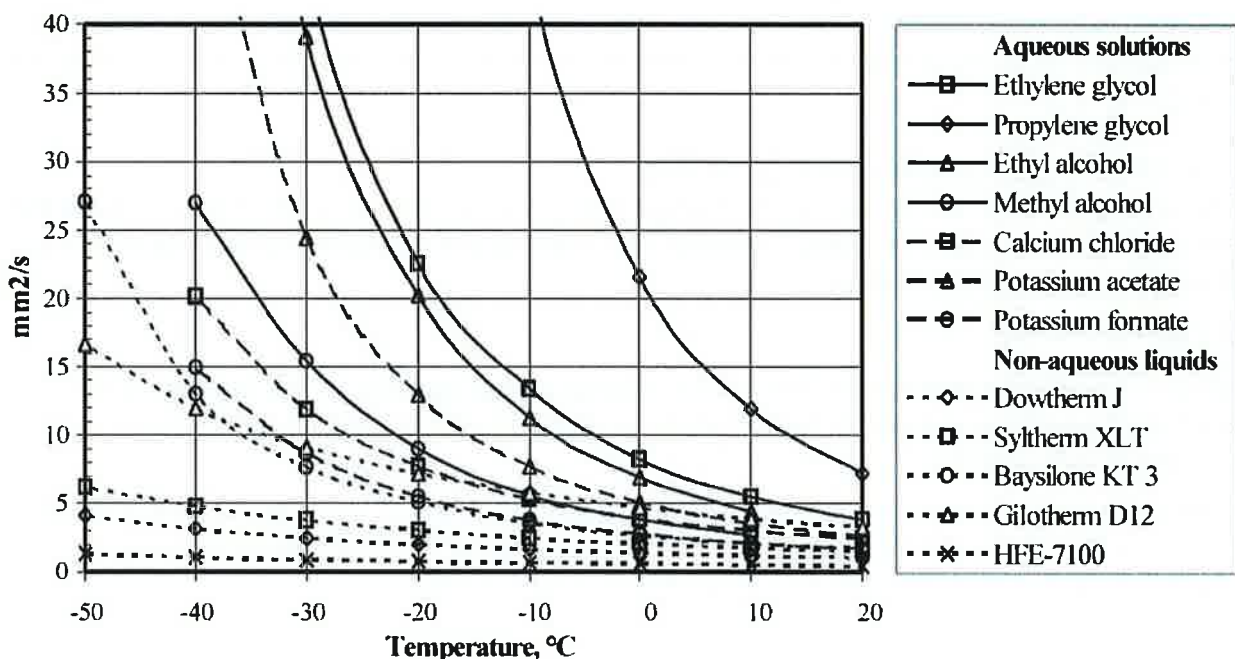


Fig. 1. Kinematic viscosity of a number of liquids (water solutions with  $t_{fr} = -40^{\circ}\text{C}$ )

A comparison is in Fig. 1 made of the kinematic viscosity,  $\nu$ , of the aqueous solutions with concentrations that give  $t_{fr} = -40^{\circ}\text{C}$  and some non-aqueous commercial heat transfer liquids. Potassium formate has the lowest viscosity of the water solutions, followed by calcium chloride. But the best non-aqueous liquids

have much lower viscosity. Water solutions of the glycols and ethyl alcohol (ethanol) have a very high viscosity at low temperatures, making it impossible to keep the flow turbulent in a conventional freezer cabinet and with some water solutions the flow may not even get turbulent in cooling cabinet applications

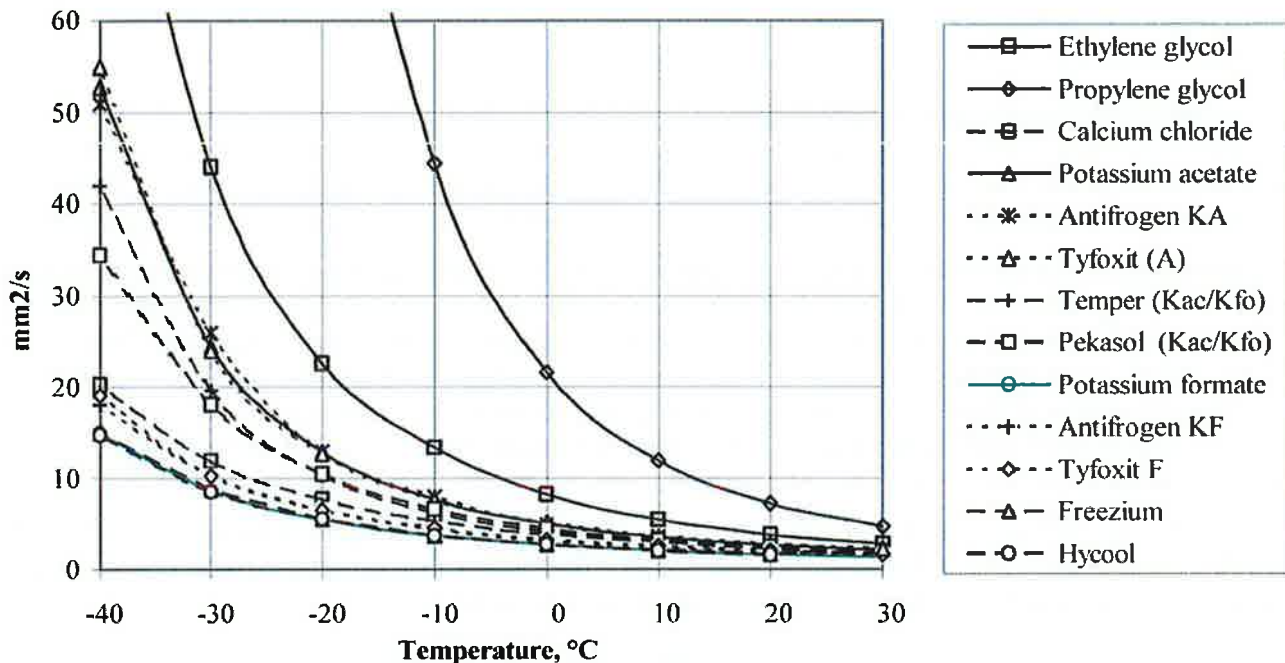


Fig. 2. Kinematic viscosity of some water solutions (with  $t_{fr} = -40^{\circ}\text{C}$ )

Fig. 2 incl. a number of commercial products containing organic potassium salts. Temper and Pekasol are mixtures of the potassium salts while the rest are either based on potassium acetate (Antifrogen KA and Tyfoxit A) or formate (Antifrogen KF, Tyfoxit F, Freezium and Hycool). The variation in viscosity of the last four products is mainly because different concentrations of the salt are given for the cooling limit or freezing point,  $t_{fr} = -40^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

## 2.2 Refrigeration capacity and volume flow

The refrigerating capacity,  $Q$  [W], that can be transported by means of the fluid with a given volume flow,  $V$  [ $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$ ], and a given temperature change between fluid entering and exiting the cooling object,  $\vartheta_t = t_{in} - t_{out}$  [K], is given by the simple relation:

$$Q = (\rho \cdot c_p) \cdot V \cdot \Delta t \text{ [W]} \quad (1)$$

The refrigerating capacity,  $Q$ , is proportional to the volumetric heat capacity,  $(\rho \cdot c_p)$  [ $\text{kJ}/(\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{K})$ ], the property that characterizes a liquid for its "transport capability". Here  $\rho$  is the fluid density [ $\text{kg}/\text{m}^3$ ] and  $c_p$  is the specific heat [ $\text{kJ}/(\text{kg} \cdot \text{K})$ ].

A comparison is in Fig. 3 made of the volumetric heat capacity,  $(\rho \cdot c_p)$ , of the aqueous solutions with concentrations that give  $t_{fr} = -40^{\circ}\text{C}$  and the five non-aqueous liquids that were introduced in Fig 1 (Dowtherm J, Syltherm XLT, Baysilon KT3, Gilotherm D12, HFE-7100).

Note that all aqueous solutions give  $(\rho \cdot c_p)$ -values that are more than double those of these non-aqueous liquids. Compared to all the water solutions, the non-aqueous liquids require a much larger volume flow and fluid velocity for an application with given refrigeration capacity, temperature change and tube diameter (as we will see also from example 2 in 2.6).

The  $(\rho \cdot c_p)$ -values of all aqueous solutions differ less than 15%. (Earlier Pekasol data gave higher values but these data have been revised since that was pointed out).

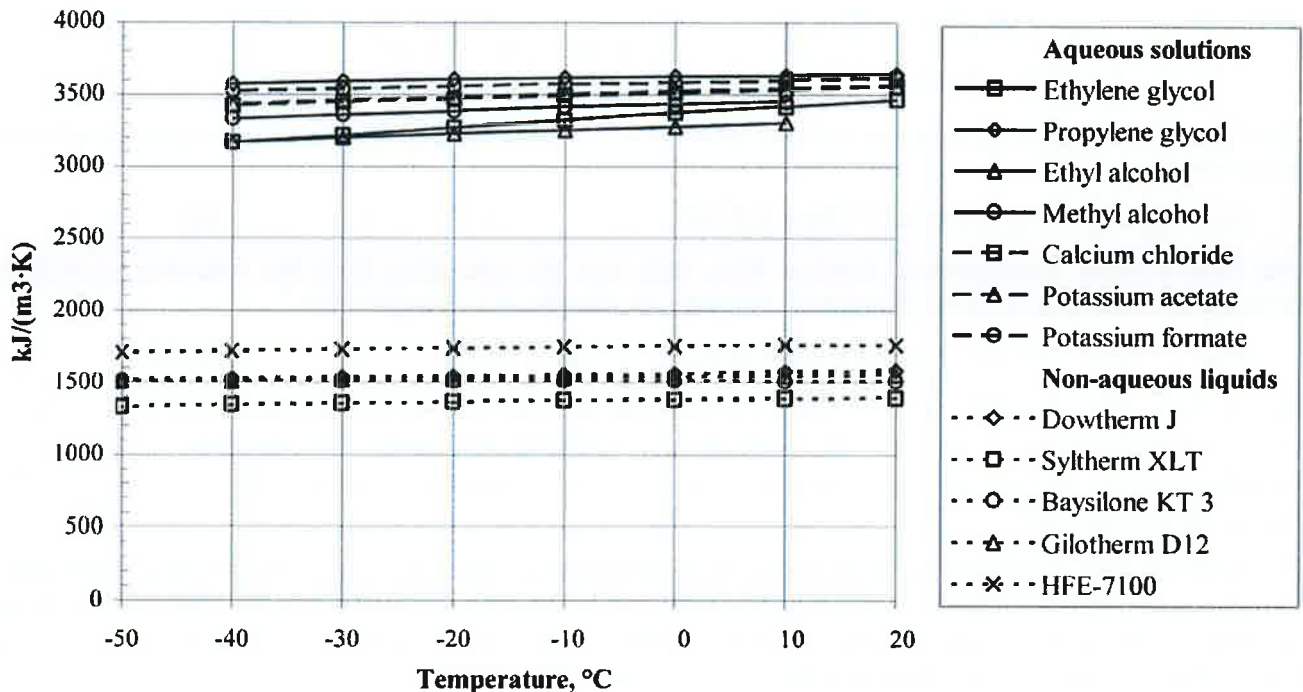


Fig. 3. Volumetric heat capacity of a number of liquids (water solutions with  $t_{fr} = -40^\circ\text{C}$ )

### 2.3 Reynolds number and type of flow

The Reynolds number,  $Re$ , is a good indicator of the type of flow occurring, laminar or turbulent, and can be defined or expressed as  $Re = (w \cdot d) / \nu = 4 \cdot V / (\pi \cdot d \cdot \nu)$  [ - ], where  $w$  is the fluid flow velocity [m/s],  $d$  is a characteristic length (tube diameter or hydraulic diameter) [m],  $\nu$  is the kinematic viscosity [ $\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ ] and  $V$  is the volume flow [ $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$ ]. The flow of water will generally be turbulent for  $Re > 2300 - 3000$ , especially if some form of flow disturbance is used. For lower  $Re$  number values, the heat transfer coefficient and friction factor decreases rapidly due to transition to laminar flow that usually occurs between  $2300 < Re < 3000$ .

Tests made by Kyrk in 1989 with three different water solutions (at temperatures between  $+10^\circ\text{C}$  and  $-20^\circ\text{C}$ ), in a heated tube section of a loop at our laboratory, confirmed this phenomenon also for these three secondary refrigerants. Temperatures and pressure drop were measured over the section, both with a smooth inlet and with a sharp inlet devise, and values of heat transfer heat transfer coefficient and friction factor were calculated and plotted as a function of the Reynolds number. The results showed that transition to laminar flow occurred between  $2300 < Re < 3000$  with a sharp inlet, while it occurred between  $3000 < Re < 4000$  with a smooth inlet [Melinder, Å., (1998)] and [Granryd, E., et al (1999)].

### 2.4 Heat transfer

The heat transfer for turbulent flow in circular tubes can be estimated with the equation:

$$Nu = 0,023 \cdot Re^{0.8} \cdot Pr^{1/3} \text{ (for } 10^4 < Re < 2 \cdot 10^5 \text{)} \quad (2)$$

This equation is based on  $f_1 = 0.092 \cdot Re^{0.2}$  by Colburn (1933) and is valid for flow in relatively long smooth tubes and for  $10^4 < Re < 2 \cdot 10^5$ . Here  $Nu = h \cdot d / k$  is the Nusselt number,  $Re$  is the Reynolds number (as defined) and  $Pr = (\mu \cdot c_p) / k = (\rho \cdot \nu \cdot c_p) / k$  is the Prandtl number. The heat transfer coefficient,  $h_{turb}$ , can then be calculated from the following equation where the influence of liquid properties also can be observed:

$$h_{turb} = 0.023 \times k^{2/3} \times (\rho \times c_p)^{1/3} \times v^{(1/3-0.8)} \times w^{0.8} / d^{0.2} \text{ [W/(m}^2\text{.K)] } (10^4 < Re < 2 \cdot 10^5) \quad (3)$$

The heat transfer coefficient  $h_{turb}$  can be estimated also into the transition region down to  $Re = 2300$  with a more complex equation by Gnielinski (1976) who uses the friction factor  $f = 2 \cdot f_1 = (0.79 \cdot \ln Re - 1.64)^{-2}$  coupled with the simple relation  $h_{turb} = Nu \cdot k/d$ :

$$Nu = \frac{(f/8) \cdot (Re - 1000) \cdot Pr}{1 + 12.7 \cdot (f/8)^{1/2} \cdot (Pr^{2/3} - 1)} \quad (2.3 \cdot 10^3 < Re < 5 \cdot 10^6) \quad (3)$$

Heat transfer with laminar flow can be estimated with the following equation where the geometry has a large influence:

$$Nu = 1.86 \times (Re \times Pr)^{1/3} \times (d/L_{str})^{1/3} \quad (Re \leq 2.3 \cdot 10^3) \quad (5)$$

The heat transfer coefficient for laminar flow,  $h_{lam}$ , can be calculated from the following correlation showing the influence of liquid properties, diameter and length of a straight tube:

$$h_{lam} = 1.86 \times k^{2/3} \times (\rho \times c_p)^{1/3} \times [w/(d \times L_{str})]^{1/3} \text{ [W/(m}^2\text{.K)] } (Re \leq 2.3 \cdot 10^3) \quad (6)$$

Notice that in this equation the viscosity does not influence  $h_{lam}$ . A correction term,  $(\mu/\mu_w)^{0.14}$ , that takes into account the ratio of the fluid viscosity at bulk temperature,  $\mu$ , and at wall temperature,  $\mu_w$ , is sometimes used, but has here been omitted because of rather small temperature difference between the liquid and the tube wall.

The heat transfer coefficient for laminar flow is generally much lower than for turbulent flow. Potassium formate and calcium chloride have in many cases the highest heat transfer values with any of these equations. The best non-aqueous liquids have quite low values but can remain turbulent even at low temperatures when the flow of water solutions is laminar.

The heat transfer coefficient will influence the temperature difference,  $\vartheta_m$ , between liquid and inner tube wall. This temperature difference,  $\vartheta_m$ , can be estimated with the basic equation  $Q = h \cdot A \cdot \vartheta_m$  where  $A = \pi \cdot d_i \cdot L$  for a circular tube. This temperature difference may be too high with laminar flow in circular tubes. How can  $\vartheta_m$  be reduced? One way used in supermarkets in Sweden is to reduce volume flow in each channel by using parallel circuits (as we will see later in example 3). Other possible ways are to use shorter length of each straight tube, smaller tube diameter or for instance by using rectangular shaped flow channels.

## 2.5 Pressure drop

The pressure drop due to friction,  $\Delta p_f$ , for flow in a tube can be estimated with the equation  $\Delta p_f = f_1 \times \rho \times w^2 \times L/d$  [Pa] (in which no consideration is taken for inlet and exit losses or pressure drop in bends and valves etc).

Using the friction factor equations for turbulent flow by Blasius,  $f_1 = 0.158 \cdot Re^{-0.25}$  (valid for  $3 \cdot 10^3 < Re < 10^4$  and used in the examples) and by Colburn (see 2.4) the pressure drop due to friction,  $\Delta p_{f, turb}$ , can be estimated as:

$$\Delta p_{f, turb} = 0.158 \cdot \rho \cdot v^{0.25} \cdot w^{1.75} \cdot L/d^{1.25} \text{ [Pa]} \quad (3 \cdot 10^3 < Re < 10^4) \quad (7)$$

$$\Delta p_{f, turb} = 0.092 \cdot \rho \cdot v^{0.2} \cdot w^{1.8} \cdot L/d^{1.2} \text{ [Pa]} \quad (10^4 < Re < 2 \cdot 10^5) \quad (8)$$

If the friction factor for laminar flow,  $f_1 = 32/Re$ , is used in the pressure drop equation above, the result is:

$$\Delta p_{f, lam} = 32 \cdot \rho \cdot v \cdot w \cdot L/d^2 \text{ [Pa]} \quad (Re < 2.3 \cdot 10^3) \quad (9)$$

The difference in pressure drop between the liquids at turbulent flow is not as great as with the heat transfer, but the best non-aqueous liquids give the lowest pressure drop followed by potassium formate and calcium chloride. The differences in pressure drop for laminar flow are very large at low

temperatures, especially propylene glycol gives a very high pressure drop.

## 2.6. Examples used for comparison of fluids

In the following examples we assume cooling cabinets and freezers with indirect system in a supermarket. In each unit the liquid secondary refrigerant is flowing in copper tubes (that may have fins on the outside with large heat transfer surface). The tubes have a total length  $L = 35$  m (9 U-turns) with each straight length 3,25 m and the inside tube diameter  $d = 15$  mm.

In the examples in [Table 1](#) and [Table 2](#) the total refrigerating capacity for two parallel tubes is  $Q = 2500$  W and the temperature change between fluid entering and exiting the cabinet is  $\Delta t = 3$  K. The example in [Table 3](#) has four parallel circuits, each with given dimensions but with  $Q = 2500/4$  W. How do the various fluids in the three examples compare as to volume flow and fluid velocity, heat transfer and added temperature difference as well as pressure drop? (The pressure drop from the bends is quite small and is not included in the results.)

**Liquid properties** chosen: Cooling cabinet application: A comparison is made of all the water solutions, with concentrations giving the freezing point,  $t_{fr} = -15^\circ\text{C}$ , and at a mean liquid temperature,  $t = -5^\circ\text{C}$ .

Freezer application: Some water solutions, with concentrations giving  $t_{fr} = -40^\circ\text{C}$  and at  $t = -30^\circ\text{C}$ , are compared with two non-aqueous heat transfer liquids.

Table 1. Comparing example for cooling cabinet.

Aqueous solutions ( $t_{fr} = -15^\circ\text{C}$ ;  $t = -5^\circ\text{C}$ )

| Symbols                 | EG    | PG    | EA    | Glyc  | K2CO <sub>3</sub> | CaCl <sub>2</sub> | KAc   | KFo   | Unit                   |
|-------------------------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------------------|-------------------|-------|-------|------------------------|
| $(\rho \cdot c_p)$      | 3823  | 3993  | 4172  | 3704  | 3850              | 3579              | 3791  | 3802  | kW/(m <sup>3</sup> ·K) |
| $V$                     | 0,109 | 0,104 | 0,100 | 0,112 | 0,108             | 0,114             | 0,110 | 0,110 | l/s                    |
| $w$                     | 0,62  | 0,59  | 0,57  | 0,64  | 0,61              | 0,65              | 0,62  | 0,62  | m/s                    |
| $Re$                    | 1800  | 853   | 1061  | 1088  | 2709              | 3353              | 2626  | 3928  | -                      |
| $h_{turb}$ (3)          | 840   |       |       |       | 1320              | 1474              | 1225  | 1549  | W/(m <sup>2</sup> ·K)  |
| $h_{turb}$ (4)          | 635   |       |       |       | 1060              | 1320              | 966   | 1475  | W/(m <sup>2</sup> ·K)  |
| $h_{lam}$ (6)           | 392   | 377   | 380   | 386   |                   |                   |       |       | W/(m <sup>2</sup> ·K)  |
| $\vartheta_m$           | 1,94  | 2,01  | 1,99  | 1,96  | 0,72              | 0,57              | 0,79  | 0,51  | K                      |
| $\Delta p_{f turb}$ (7) |       |       |       |       | 0,245             | 0,236             | 0,226 | 0,207 | bar                    |
| $\Delta p_{f lam}$ (9)  | 0,165 | 0,317 | 0,219 | 0,308 |                   |                   |       |       | bar                    |

**Property symbols:**  $(\rho \cdot c_p)$  = volumetric heat capacity [kW/(m<sup>3</sup>·K)];  $V$  = volume flow [m<sup>3</sup>/s];  $w$  = fluid flow velocity [m/s];  $Re$  = Reynolds number [-];  $h$  = heat transfer coefficient [W/(m<sup>2</sup>·K)];  $\vartheta_m$  = temperature difference between liquid and inner tube wall [K];  $\Delta p_f$  = pressure drop due to friction; Index: *turb* / *lam* indicate turbulent / laminar fluid flow; (3) indicate equation the values are based on.

From [Table 1](#) for the cooling cabinet application we note that the values of volumetric heat capacity, volume flow and also fluid velocity are nearly same for all water solutions. All the salt solutions give in this example turbulent flow, ethylene glycol is in the transition region, while propylene glycol, ethyl alcohol and glycerol give laminar flow. The liquids with laminar flow have much lower heat transfer coefficients. This results in larger temperature difference between liquid and inner tube wall than the liquids with turbulent flow. Potassium formate performs best but the differences between the salts are small. Ethylene glycol is in the laminar region and performs less good in this example than the salts. The difference in pressure drop between the liquids is small, even though some liquids give turbulent flow while other give laminar flow.

Table 2. Comparing example for freezer application (two parallel circuits)

|                         | Aqueous solutions ( $t_{fr} = -40^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; $t = -30^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) |             |              |                   |              | Non-aqueous liquids |              |              |                        |
|-------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|--------------|-------------------|--------------|---------------------|--------------|--------------|------------------------|
| Symbols                 | EG                                                                               | PG          | EA           | CaCl <sub>2</sub> | KAc          | KFo                 | Dow J        | S XLT        | Unit                   |
| $(\rho \cdot c_p)$      | 3216                                                                             | 3590        | 3199         | 3448              | 3460         | 3538                | 1532         | 1351         | kW/(m <sup>3</sup> ·K) |
| $V$                     | 0,130                                                                            | 0,116       | 0,130        | 0,121             | 0,120        | 0,118               | 0,272        | 0,308        | l/s                    |
| $w$                     | 0,73                                                                             | 0,66        | 0,74         | 0,68              | 0,68         | 0,67                | 1,54         | 1,75         | m/s                    |
| $Re$                    | 250                                                                              | 36          | 283          | 861               | 419          | 1153                | <b>9234</b>  | <b>6910</b>  | -                      |
| $h_{turb}$ (3)          |                                                                                  |             |              |                   |              |                     | 946          | 713          | W/(m <sup>2</sup> ·K)  |
| $h_{turb}$ (4)          |                                                                                  |             |              |                   |              |                     | <b>963</b>   | <b>690</b>   | W/(m <sup>2</sup> ·K)  |
| $h_{lam}$ (6)           | <b>338</b>                                                                       | <b>319</b>  | <b>299</b>   | <b>422</b>        | <b>378</b>   | <b>399</b>          |              |              | W/(m <sup>2</sup> ·K)  |
| $\vartheta_m$           | 2,24                                                                             | 2,38        | 2,53         | 1,80              | 2,00         | 1,90                | 0,80         | 1,06         | K                      |
| $\Delta p_{f turb}$ (7) |                                                                                  |             |              |                   |              |                     | <b>0,741</b> | <b>0,992</b> | bar                    |
| $\Delta p_{f lam}$ (9)  | <b>1,757</b>                                                                     | <b>9,49</b> | <b>1,534</b> | <b>0,521</b>      | <b>1,018</b> | <b>0,375</b>        |              |              | bar                    |

From Table 2 for freezer applications we find that the values of volumetric heat capacity for all the water solutions are more than double that of the non-aqueous liquids, giving corresponding lower volume flow and fluid velocity. Higher concentrations and lower temperatures give low Reynolds numbers and laminar flow for all water solutions leading to much lower heat transfer coefficients and bigger temperature differences than for the cooling cabinet application. The non-aqueous liquids give high Reynolds numbers and turbulent flow. A temperature difference between liquid and inner tube wall of 3 - 4 K may be rather big as it leads to a correspondingly lower evaporation temperature. Potassium formate and calcium chloride give lowest pressure drop (0.38 and 0.53 bar) while most of the other liquids give much higher pressure drop. The pressure drop of propylene glycol is 9,5 bar, which of course is far too high. What happens when two parallel circuits are used?

Table 3. Comparing example for freezer application (four parallel circuits)

|                         | Aqueous solutions ( $t_{fr} = -40^{\circ}\text{C}$ ; $t = -30^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) |             |              |              |              | Non-aqueous liquids |              |              |                        |
|-------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|---------------------|--------------|--------------|------------------------|
| Symbols                 | EG                                                                               | PG          | EA           | CaCl         | KAc          | Kfo                 | Dow J        | S XLT        | Unit                   |
| $(\rho \cdot c_p)$      | 3216                                                                             | 3590        | 3199         | 3448         | 3460         | 3538                | 1532         | 1351         | kW/(m <sup>3</sup> ·K) |
| $V$                     | 0,065                                                                            | 0,058       | 0,065        | 0,060        | 0,060        | 0,059               | 0,136        | 0,154        | l/s                    |
| $w$                     | 0,37                                                                             | 0,33        | 0,37         | 0,34         | 0,34         | 0,33                | 0,77         | 0,87         | m/s                    |
| $Re$                    | <b>125</b>                                                                       | <b>18</b>   | <b>142</b>   | <b>431</b>   | <b>210</b>   | <b>577</b>          | <b>4617</b>  | <b>3455</b>  | -                      |
| $h_{turb}$ (3)          |                                                                                  |             |              |              |              |                     | 543          | 409          | W/(m <sup>2</sup> ·K)  |
| $h_{turb}$ (4)          |                                                                                  |             |              |              |              |                     | <b>467</b>   | <b>316</b>   | W/(m <sup>2</sup> ·K)  |
| $h_{lam}$ (6)           | <b>268</b>                                                                       | <b>253</b>  | <b>238</b>   | <b>335</b>   | <b>300</b>   | <b>317</b>          |              |              | W/(m <sup>2</sup> ·K)  |
| $\vartheta_m$           | 1,41                                                                             | 1,50        | 1,60         | 1,13         | 1,26         | 1,20                | 0,70         | 0,93         | K                      |
| $\Delta p_{f turb}$ (7) |                                                                                  |             |              |              |              |                     | <b>0,213</b> | <b>0,285</b> | bar                    |
| $\Delta p_{f lam}$ (9)  | <b>0,87</b>                                                                      | <b>4,74</b> | <b>0,677</b> | <b>0,261</b> | <b>0,509</b> | <b>0,188</b>        |              |              | bar                    |

From Table 3 we find as expected that the values of volume flow and fluid velocity of all the liquids are only half of those in Table 2. Reynolds numbers and heat transfer coefficients are lower but the temperature differences are smaller in Table 2 for the water solutions because of smaller Q-value in each parallel circuit. The salt solutions in our comparison give a temperature difference between liquid and inner tube wall of 2 K, which may be acceptable. The pressure drop values are only half of those in Table 2. The pressure drop of propylene glycol is still over 2 bar, which is far too high, but the values for the salt solutions are quite reasonable. This example shows that the three salt solutions examined can perform quite well from a thermophysical aspect also for freezer applications.

### 3. COMPARISON OF GENERAL LIQUID CHARACTERISTICS

Thermophysical properties of secondary refrigerants are very important as already brought out. However, when determining which secondary refrigerant that is to be used in a particular application we also have to take into consideration other aspects such as material compatibility, environmental pollution and toxicity, flammability and handling security as well as cost. It is important that the fluid does not give cause to any material problems by corrosion, is environmentally acceptable, not toxic and can be handled without danger.

All secondary refrigerants seem to have one or more negative sides, as we can note from the following list where some characteristics are listed for each type of liquid. Some commercial products distributed in Sweden (or other parts of Europe) are listed in [xx]:

**Water (H<sub>2</sub>O):** Freeze at or just below 0°C. Water (and most aqueous solutions listed below) is corrosive when oxygen is present, if suitable and efficient corrosion inhibitors are not used.

#### 3.1 AQUEOUS SOLUTIONS:

**Ethylene glycol (EG):** Health hazard if consumed (highly toxic for humans); risk of environmental pollution; most commercial products for indirect heat pump and refrigeration systems have good corrosion protection, but that may not be true of glycols for the car industry or of products without corrosion inhibitors. [Commercial products: Antifrogen N (Clariant); Dowcal 10 (Dow); Glyothermin NF (BASF), KB-MEG (Kemetyl); Tyfocor (Tyforop)].

**Propylene glycol (PG):** Very high viscosity at low temperatures; less toxic than ethylene glycol; risk of environmental pollution; most commercial products for indirect heat pump and refrigeration systems have good corrosion protection. [Commercial products: Antifrogen L (Clariant); Dowcal 20/N (Dow); Glyothermin P44 (BASF); KB-MPG (Kemetyl); Tyfocor (Tyforop)].

**Ethyl alcohol (EA):** Low boiling point (25-30°C) with flammability risk (consider fire regulations), may cause intoxication if consumed; added as denaturant (in Sweden up to 15% in concentrated product); high viscosity at low temperatures. [Commercial products: KB Etanol (Kemetyl); Svedol KBS (MB Sveda)].

**Methyl alcohol (MA):** Same as ethyl alcohol, severe health hazard (may cause blindness if consumed); high risk of environmental pollution.

**Glycerol (Glyc):** Very high viscosity at low temperatures; environmentally friendly. [Commercial product: Biotherm (Binol)].

**Potassium carbonate (K<sub>2</sub>CO<sub>3</sub>):** Rather high pH-value, eutectic point at -37.5°C. [Commercial product: "Pottaska" (Terrawatt Värme)].

**Calcium chloride (CaCl<sub>2</sub>):** Highly corrosive with ferrous materials when oxygen is present, rather low pH-value; corrosion inhibitors containing chromates may cause health risk (especially during inhibitor mixing process). [(Brunner Mond; various chemical companies)].

**Potassium acetate (KAc):** Long term effects not too well known, rather high pH-value. [Commercial products: Antifrogen KA (Clariant); Tyfoxit (Tyforop)].

**Potassium formate (KFO):** New product. Long term effects not well known yet. Rather high pH-value. Viewed as less toxic than ethylene glycol; [Commercial products: Antifrogen KF (Clariant); Freezium (Kemira); Hycool (Norsk Hydro); Tyfoxit F (Tyforop)].

#### 3.2 MIXTURES OF AQUEOUS SOLUTIONS:

**Potassium acetate / potassium formate:** Long term effects not well known, rather high pH-value. [Commercial products: Pekasol (pro Kühlsole); Temper (Aspen)].

**Glycerol / ethyl alcohol:** New product for heat pump and cooling applications; long term effects not well

known yet; environmentally friendly. [Commercial product: GEM 20 (?)].

### 3.3 NON-AQUEOUS LIQUIDS:

The non-aqueous heat transfer liquids have poor "transport capability" and comparatively poor heat transfer ability. Some of these liquids have low flashpoint, are quite expensive and may have other negative sides. Company information sheets have to be considered closely. [Commercial products considered in [3] and [4]: **Diethylbenzene mixture**: Dowtherm J (DOW Chemicals); **Hydrocarbon mixture**: Gilotherm D12 (Rhône-Poulenc); **Hydrofluoroether**: HFE-7100 (3M Co.); **Polydimethylsiloxan** (silicon oils): Baysilon KT3 (Bayer); Syltherm XLT (DOW Corning); **Terpene from citrus oils**: d-Limonene (Florida Chemicals); **Carbon dioxide** (liquid)].

## 4. CONCLUSION

Indirect systems in supermarkets work well for cooling cabinets and are an interesting challenge for low temperature freezers. From the cooling cabinet example we see that salt solutions give turbulent flow, while propylene glycol and ethyl alcohol give laminar flow, resulting in lower heat transfer coefficients and larger temperature difference. Potassium formate performs best but the differences between the salts are small. The difference in pressure drop is small.

The given examples show that the water solutions generally will give laminar flow but the salt solutions examined can perform quite well from a thermophysical aspect also for freezer applications. Compared to all the water solutions, the non-aqueous fluids require a much larger volume flow and fluid velocity for an application with given refrigeration capacity and temperature change.

After considering both thermophysical properties and these other general characteristics of the liquids it becomes evident that all liquid secondary refrigerants seem to have one or more negative sides, no secondary refrigerant is ideal for all applications. We should find out which of the different parameters that are especially important in the application we are considering and then try to choose the secondary refrigerant that is best for that particular case. We have to consider company information sheets closely especially when it comes to material compatibility.

## NOMENCLATURE

|       |                                                   |               |                                                           |
|-------|---------------------------------------------------|---------------|-----------------------------------------------------------|
| $c_p$ | specific heat [J/(kg·K)]                          | $\Delta p_f$  | pressure drop due to friction [Pa]                        |
| $d$   | tube diameter [m]                                 | $\Delta t$    | temperature change [K]                                    |
| $f_1$ | friction factor [-]                               | $\mu$         | dynamic viscosity; $\tau = \mu \cdot \dot{\gamma}$ [Pa·s] |
| $h$   | heat transfer coefficient [W/(m <sup>2</sup> ·K)] | $\nu$         | kinematic viscosity [m <sup>2</sup> /s]                   |
| $k$   | thermal conductivity [W/(m·K)]                    | $\rho$        | fluid density [kg/m <sup>3</sup> ]                        |
| $t$   | temperature [°C]                                  | $\vartheta_m$ | temperature difference [K]                                |
| $w$   | fluid flow velocity [m/s]                         | $Nu$          | Nusselt number; $Nu = \alpha \cdot d/k$ [-]               |
| $A$   | area [m <sup>2</sup> ]                            | $Pr$          | Prandtl number; $Pr = \mu \cdot c_p/k$ [-]                |
| $L$   | tube length [m]                                   | $Re$          | Reynolds number; $Re = (w \cdot d)/\nu$ [-]               |
| $Q$   | refrigerating capacity [W]                        | $lam$         | laminar                                                   |
| $V$   | volume flow [m <sup>3</sup> /s]                   | $turb$        | turbulent                                                 |

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