EIGHBOR'S STEEL PIE

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Identifying Expansive Clay in Foundation Damage

When considering the material lifespan of carbon steel piers, understanding the corrosion rates and their environmental impact is crucial. Foundation issues have this infuriating way of starting small and then blooming into financial nightmares like some sort of monetary horror film **foundation settlement signs Elmhurst** radon. Carbon steel, valued for its strength and cost-effectiveness, is susceptible to corrosion when exposed to various environmental conditions. The corrosion rate of carbon steel in marine environments, where piers are typically located, can be significantly influenced by factors such as salinity, pH levels, temperature, and the presence of pollutants.

Corrosion in carbon steel occurs primarily through electrochemical reactions where the metal reacts with oxygen and moisture to form rust. In marine settings, this process is accelerated due to the high chloride content in seawater which acts as an electrolyte, enhancing the rate of corrosion. Over time, this leads to material degradation, weakening the structural integrity of piers.

The environmental impact of corroding carbon steel extends beyond just the physical damage to the structure. As carbon steel corrodes, it releases iron oxides into the surrounding water. These oxides can alter local water chemistry, potentially affecting aquatic life by changing oxygen levels or introducing harmful substances into ecosystems. Additionally, if protective coatings or paints are used on these piers to mitigate corrosion, theres a risk that these substances might leach into the environment over time, posing further ecological concerns.

To manage these issues effectively while extending the lifespan of carbon steel piers, several strategies can be employed. Cathodic protection systems can be installed to counteract electrochemical corrosion by making the steel structure cathodic relative to a sacrificial anode or an impressed current system. Regular maintenance checks and timely application of anti-corrosive coatings also help in reducing exposure to harsh elements.

Moreover, considering alternative materials or treatments like galvanized or stainless steels for critical components could provide longer-term solutions with less environmental impact during their lifecycle. However, each option must be weighed against cost implications and overall sustainability goals.

In conclusion, addressing corrosion rates through proactive measures not only prolongs the service life of carbon steel piers but also minimizes adverse environmental impacts. By integrating advanced protective technologies and sustainable practices into pier construction and maintenance plans, we ensure that infrastructure remains robust while preserving marine ecosystems for future generations.

Maintenance strategies are crucial for extending the lifespan of carbon steel piers, which are commonly used in marine environments where exposure to harsh conditions can accelerate deterioration. Carbon steel, while strong and cost-effective, is susceptible to corrosion when in contact with saltwater, leading to structural weakening over time. Therefore, implementing effective maintenance strategies is not only beneficial but necessary for ensuring the durability and safety of these structures.

One primary strategy involves regular inspections. These should be scheduled at least annually, or more frequently depending on environmental factors like salinity, currents, and temperature fluctuations. During these inspections, engineers look for signs of rust, structural fatigue, or any form of physical damage that could compromise the integrity of the pier. Early detection through such routine checks allows for timely interventions which can prevent minor issues from escalating into major repairs.

Protective coatings play a pivotal role as well. Applying high-quality marine-grade paint or epoxy coatings acts as a barrier against corrosive elements. These coatings should be chosen based on their durability in marine environments and their ability to bond well with carbon steel. Reapplication might be necessary every few years or when signs of wear appear. Additionally, cathodic protection systems can be installed; these systems use sacrificial anodes or impressed current to prevent electrochemical corrosion by making the steel structure the cathode in an electrochemical cell.

Another aspect of maintenance includes structural reinforcement when necessary. Over time, even with protective measures in place, carbon steel piers might require additional support due to unforeseen stresses or natural degradation processes. This could involve adding bracing or replacing sections that have weakened beyond repairable limits.

Environmental management around the pier also contributes significantly to prolonging its lifespan. Managing water flow to reduce sediment buildup that can trap moisture against the steel surfaces helps minimize corrosion points. Moreover, controlling biological growth like barnacles or mussels through antifouling methods ensures that these organisms do not exacerbate corrosion by retaining moisture and creating microenvironments conducive to rust.

In conclusion, a comprehensive approach combining regular inspections, application of protective coatings, potential structural reinforcements, and environmental management forms an effective maintenance strategy for carbon steel piers. By adopting these practices diligently, stakeholders can significantly extend the functional life of these vital infrastructures while maintaining safety and operational efficiency in challenging marine settings.

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Preventive Measures for Foundations on Expansive Soil

Alright, lets talk about how we keep an eye on carbon steel piers, specifically looking for wear and tear, so we can understand how long theyre likely to last. You see, carbon steel, while a workhorse material, isnt invincible. Time, the elements, and operational stresses all take their toll. So, we need ways to peek under the hood, so to speak, and assess the damage.

Visual inspection is often the first line of defense. Its surprisingly effective. A trained eye can spot rust, corrosion, cracks, or even bending and deformation. Were looking for anything that deviates from the original, pristine condition. Think of it like checking your car – a new dent, a patch of rust? You notice it. Same principle here, but on a larger, more critical scale.

But visual checks only go so far. Sometimes the real trouble is hidden. Thats where non-destructive testing (NDT) comes in. Ultrasonic testing, for example, uses sound waves to penetrate the steel and detect internal flaws that youd never see from the outside. Radiography, essentially taking X-rays of the steel, can reveal similar hidden issues. Magnetic particle testing is great for finding surface cracks, using magnetic fields and iron particles to highlight any breaks. Dye penetrant testing is another option for surface cracks, using a dye that seeps into cracks and then is revealed with a developer.

Choosing the right technique depends on the situation. What kind of wear and tear are we most concerned about? Whats the environment like? Is the pier easily accessible? These questions guide our choice. For instance, in a marine environment, corrosion is a major worry, so we might prioritize techniques that are good at detecting it. If the pier is submerged, we need divers or remotely operated vehicles (ROVs) equipped with the appropriate inspection tools.

Ultimately, the goal isnt just to find wear and tear, but to quantify it. How deep is that crack? How much material has been lost to corrosion? This data feeds into models that predict the remaining lifespan of the pier. It helps us make informed decisions about maintenance, repairs, or even replacement, ensuring the structure remains safe and reliable for as long as possible. Its about being proactive, not reactive, and keeping these critical pieces of infrastructure standing strong.

Repair Techniques for Foundations Affected by Clay Swelling

Lets talk about carbon steel piers in foundation repair. Youve got a sinking foundation, and these piers are often the heroes holding your house up. But like anything, they dont last forever. So, at some point, you might be staring down the barrel of a difficult decision: repair or replace? When were talking about the lifespan of carbon steel piers, its not a simple number we can just pull out of thin air. A lot of things play a role.

Think about the soil. Is it highly acidic? Thatll eat away at the steel faster. Is it constantly wet? Corrosion is going to be a bigger issue. The quality of the original installation matters too. Were the piers properly coated or protected? Were they installed correctly in the first place? A shoddy job from the get-go means a shorter lifespan down the road.

Now, when do you choose repair over replacement? Small issues, like minor corrosion or a slight shift, might be fixable. Maybe a protective coating can be reapplied, or some adjustments can be made. But if the corrosion is widespread, if the pier is buckling or significantly damaged, or if the ground itself is shifting so much that constant repairs are needed, then replacement is usually the smarter, albeit more expensive, choice.

Think of it like an old car. A new set of tires and an oil change can keep it running for a while. But if the engines shot and the frames rusting out, youre better off getting a new one. With foundation piers, youre weighing the cost of ongoing repairs against the peace of mind (and long-term stability) that comes with a fresh start. Its a tough call, but getting a professional assessment is key to making the right decision for your homes future.

About waterproofing

Waterproofing is the process of making a things, person or framework water resistant or waterproof to make sure that it continues to be relatively unaffected by water or resists the access of water under defined conditions. Such items might be utilized in wet settings or undersea to specified midsts. Water-resistant and water-proof frequently refer to resistance to penetration of water in its liquid state and potentially under stress, whereas damp evidence refers to resistance to humidity or moisture. Permeation of water vapour with a material or framework is reported as a wetness vapor transmission price (MVTR). The hulls of watercrafts and ships were when waterproofed by using tar or pitch. Modern things may be waterproofed by using water-repellent coatings or by sealing joints with gaskets or o-rings. Waterproofing is utilized in reference to developing frameworks (such as cellars, decks, or damp areas), watercraft, canvas, garments (raincoats or waders), digital tools and paper product

packaging (such as containers for liquids).
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About Pump

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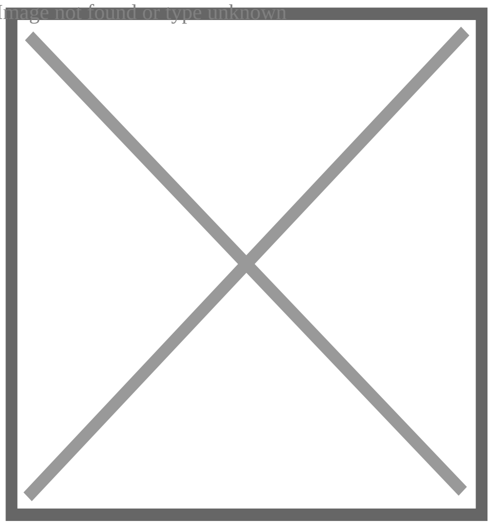
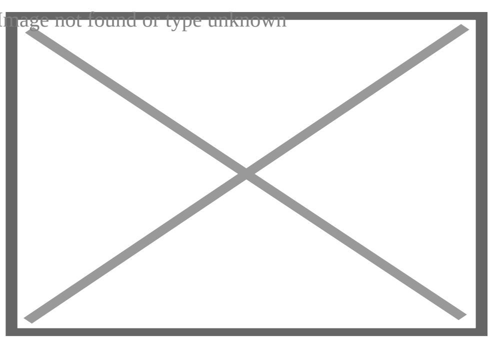
"Water Pump" redirects here. For the community in Pakistan, see Water Pump, Karachi.
For other uses of "pump" or "pumps", see Pump (disambiguation).



A small, electrically powered pump



A large, electrically driven pump for waterworks near the Hengsteysee, Germany

A **pump** is a device that moves fluids (liquids or gases), or sometimes slurries,[1] by mechanical action, typically converted from electrical energy into hydraulic or pneumatic energy.

Mechanical pumps serve in a wide range of applications such as pumping water from wells, aquarium filtering, pond filtering and aeration, in the car industry for water-cooling and fuel injection, in the energy industry for pumping oil and natural gas or for operating cooling towers and other components of heating, ventilation and air conditioning systems. In the medical industry, pumps are used for biochemical processes in developing and manufacturing medicine, and as artificial replacements for body parts, in particular the artificial heart and penile prosthesis.

When a pump contains two or more pump mechanisms with fluid being directed to flow through them in series, it is called a *multi-stage pump*. Terms such as *two-stage* or *double-stage* may be used to specifically describe the number of stages. A pump that does not fit this description is simply a *single-stage pump* in contrast.

In biology, many different types of chemical and biomechanical pumps have evolved; biomimicry is sometimes used in developing new types of mechanical pumps.

Types

[edit]

Mechanical pumps may be **submerged** in the fluid they are pumping or be placed **external** to the fluid.

Pumps can be classified by their method of displacement into electromagnetic pumps, positive-displacement pumps, impulse pumps, velocity pumps, gravity pumps, steam pumps and valveless pumps. There are three basic types of pumps: positive-displacement, centrifugal and axial-flow pumps. In centrifugal pumps the direction of flow of the fluid changes by ninety degrees as it flows over an impeller, while in axial flow pumps the direction of flow is unchanged.[2][3]

See also: Vacuum pump

Electromagnetic pump

[edit]
This section is an excerpt from Electromagnetic pump.[edit]

An electromagnetic pump is a pump that moves liquid metal, molten salt, brine, or other electrically conductive liquid using electromagnetism.

A magnetic field is set at right angles to the direction the liquid moves in, and a current is passed through it. This causes an electromagnetic force that moves the liquid.

Applications include pumping molten solder in many wave soldering machines, pumping liquid-metal coolant, and magnetohydrodynamic drive.

Positive-displacement pumps

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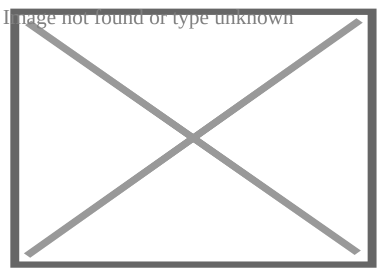
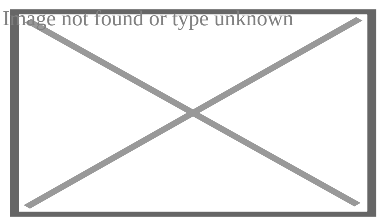


Lobe pump internals



Lobe pump internals

A positive-displacement pump makes a fluid move by trapping a fixed amount and forcing (displacing) that trapped volume into the discharge pipe.

Some positive-displacement pumps use an expanding cavity on the suction side and a decreasing cavity on the discharge side. Liquid flows into the pump as the cavity on the suction side expands and the liquid flows out of the discharge as the cavity collapses. The volume is constant through each cycle of operation.

Positive-displacement pump behavior and safety

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Positive-displacement pumps, unlike centrifugal, can theoretically produce the same flow at a given rotational speed no matter what the discharge pressure. Thus, positive-displacement pumps are *constant flow machines*. However, a slight increase in internal leakage as the pressure increases prevents a truly constant flow rate.

A positive-displacement pump must not operate against a closed valve on the discharge side of the pump, because it has no shutoff head like centrifugal pumps. A positive-displacement pump operating against a closed discharge valve continues to produce flow and the pressure in the discharge line increases until the line bursts, the pump is severely damaged, or both.

A relief or safety valve on the discharge side of the positive-displacement pump is therefore necessary. The relief valve can be internal or external. The pump manufacturer normally has the option to supply internal relief or safety valves. The internal valve is usually used only as a safety precaution. An external relief valve in the discharge line, with a return line back to the suction line or supply tank, provides increased safety.

Positive-displacement types

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A positive-displacement pump can be further classified according to the mechanism used to move the fluid:

- *Rotary-type* positive displacement: internal and external gear pump, screw pump, lobe pump, shuttle block, flexible vane and sliding vane, circumferential piston, flexible impeller, helical twisted roots (e.g. the Wendelkolben pump) and liquid-ring pumps
- *Reciprocating-type* positive displacement: piston pumps, plunger pumps and diaphragm pumps
- *Linear-type* positive displacement: rope pumps and chain pumps

Rotary positive-displacement pumps

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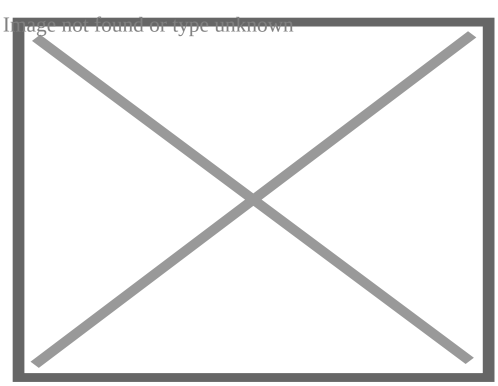

Rotary vane pump

These pumps move fluid using a rotating mechanism that creates a vacuum that captures and draws in the liquid.[4]

Advantages: Rotary pumps are very efficient[5] because they can handle highly viscous fluids with higher flow rates as viscosity increases.[6]

Drawbacks: The nature of the pump requires very close clearances between the rotating pump and the outer edge, making it rotate at a slow, steady speed. If rotary pumps are operated at high speeds, the fluids cause erosion, which eventually causes enlarged clearances that liquid can pass through, which reduces efficiency.

Rotary positive-displacement pumps fall into five main types:

- Gear pumps – a simple type of rotary pump where the liquid is pushed around a pair of gears.
- Screw pumps – the shape of the internals of this pump is usually two screws turning against each other to pump the liquid
- Rotary vane pumps
- Hollow disc pumps (also known as eccentric disc pumps or hollow rotary disc pumps), similar to scroll compressors, these have an eccentric cylindrical rotor encased in a circular housing. As the rotor orbits, it traps fluid between the rotor and the casing, drawing the fluid through the pump. It is used for highly viscous fluids like petroleum-derived products, and it can also support high pressures of up to 290 psi.[7][8][9][10][11][12][13]
- Peristaltic pumps have rollers which pinch a section of flexible tubing, forcing the liquid ahead as the rollers advance. Because they are very easy to keep clean, these are popular for dispensing food, medicine, and concrete.

Reciprocating positive-displacement pumps

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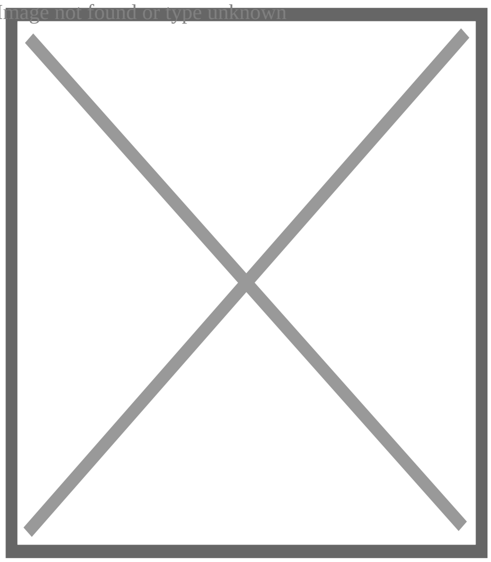

Simple hand pump

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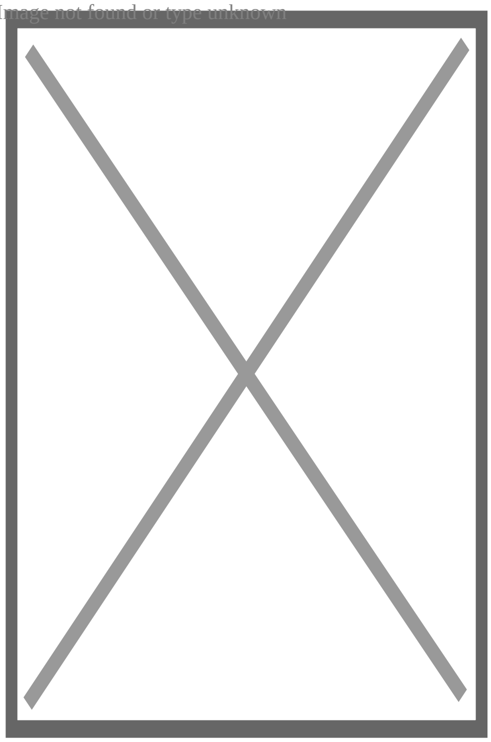

Antique "pitcher" pump (c. 1924) at the Colored School in Alapaha, Georgia, US

See also: Reciprocating pump

Reciprocating pumps move the fluid using one or more oscillating pistons, plungers, or membranes (diaphragms), while valves restrict fluid motion to the desired direction. In order for suction to take place, the pump must first pull the plunger in an outward motion to decrease pressure in the chamber. Once the plunger pushes back, it will increase the chamber pressure and the inward pressure of the plunger will then open the discharge valve and release the fluid into the delivery pipe at constant flow rate and increased pressure.

Pumps in this category range from *simplex*, with one cylinder, to in some cases *quad* (four) cylinders, or more. Many reciprocating-type pumps are *duplex* (two) or *triplex* (three) cylinder. They can be either *single-acting* with suction during one direction of piston motion and discharge on the other, or *double-acting* with suction and discharge in both directions. The pumps can be powered manually, by air or steam, or by a belt driven by an engine. This type of pump was used extensively in the 19th century—in the early days of steam propulsion—as boiler feed water pumps. Now reciprocating pumps typically pump highly viscous fluids like concrete and heavy oils, and serve in special applications that demand low flow rates against high resistance. Reciprocating hand pumps were widely used to pump water from wells. Common bicycle pumps and foot pumps for inflation use reciprocating action.

These positive-displacement pumps have an expanding cavity on the suction side and a decreasing cavity on the discharge side. Liquid flows into the pumps as the cavity on the suction side expands and the liquid flows out of the discharge as the cavity collapses. The volume is constant given each cycle of operation and the pump's volumetric efficiency can be achieved through routine maintenance and inspection of its valves.[14]

Typical reciprocating pumps are:

- *Plunger pump* – a reciprocating plunger pushes the fluid through one or two open valves, closed by suction on the way back.
- *Diaphragm pump* – similar to plunger pumps, where the plunger pressurizes hydraulic oil which is used to flex a diaphragm in the pumping cylinder. Diaphragm valves are used to pump hazardous and toxic fluids.
- *Piston pump* displacement pumps – *usually simple devices for pumping small amounts of liquid or gel manually. The common hand soap dispenser is such a pump.*
- *Radial piston pump* – a form of hydraulic pump where pistons extend in a radial direction.
- Vibratory pump or vibration pump – a particularly low-cost form of plunger pump, popular in low-cost espresso machines.[15][16] The only moving part is a spring-loaded piston, the armature of a solenoid. Driven by half-wave rectified alternating current, the piston is forced forward while energized, and is retracted by the spring during the other half cycle. Due to their inefficiency, vibratory pumps typically cannot be operated for more than one minute without overheating, so are limited to intermittent duty.

Various positive-displacement pumps

[edit]

The positive-displacement principle applies in these pumps:

- Rotary lobe pump
- Progressing cavity pump
- Rotary gear pump
- Piston pump
- Diaphragm pump
- Screw pump
- Gear pump
- Hydraulic pump
- Rotary vane pump
- Peristaltic pump
- Rope pump
- Flexible impeller pump

Gear pump

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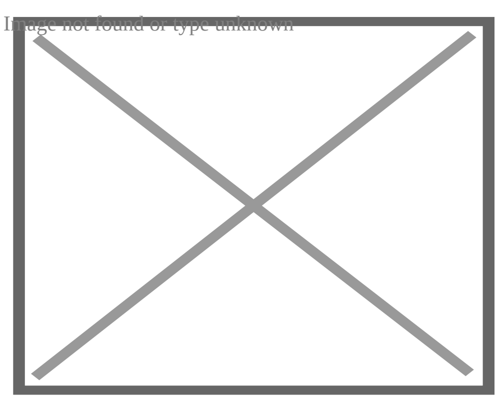

Gear pump

Main article: Gear pump

This is the simplest form of rotary positive-displacement pumps. It consists of two meshed gears that rotate in a closely fitted casing. The tooth spaces trap fluid and force it around the outer periphery. The fluid does not travel back on the meshed part, because the teeth mesh closely in the center. Gear pumps see wide use in car engine oil pumps and in various hydraulic power packs.

Screw pump

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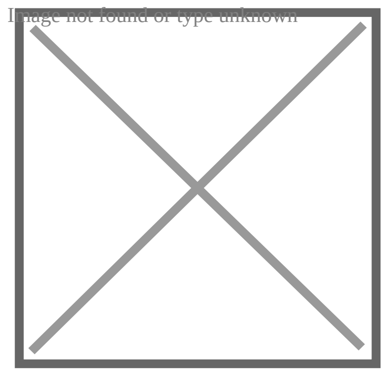

Screw pump

Main article: Screw pump

A screw pump is a more complicated type of rotary pump that uses two or three screws with opposing thread — e.g., one screw turns clockwise and the other counterclockwise. The screws are mounted on parallel shafts that often have gears that mesh so the shafts turn together and everything stays in place. In some cases the driven screw drives the secondary screw, without gears, often using the fluid to limit abrasion. The screws turn on the shafts and drive fluid through the pump. As with other forms of rotary pumps, the clearance between moving parts and the pump's casing is minimal.

Progressing cavity pump

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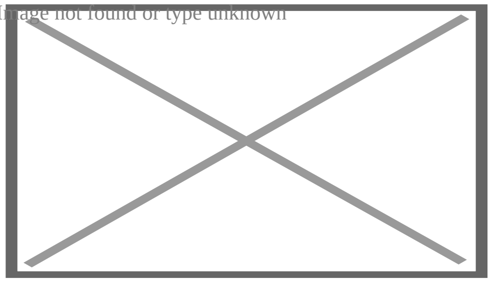
Main article: Progressing cavity pump



Progressing cavity pump

Widely used for pumping difficult materials, such as sewage sludge contaminated with large particles, a progressing cavity pump consists of a helical rotor, about ten times as long as its width, and a stator, mainly made out of rubber. This can be visualized as a central core of diameter *x* with, typically, a curved spiral wound around of thickness half *x*, though in reality it is manufactured in a single lobe. This shaft fits inside a heavy-duty rubber sleeve or stator, of wall thickness also typically *x*. As the shaft rotates inside the stator, the rotor gradually forces fluid up the rubber cavity. Such pumps can develop very high pressure at low volumes at a rate of 90 PSI per stage on water for standard configurations.

Roots-type pump

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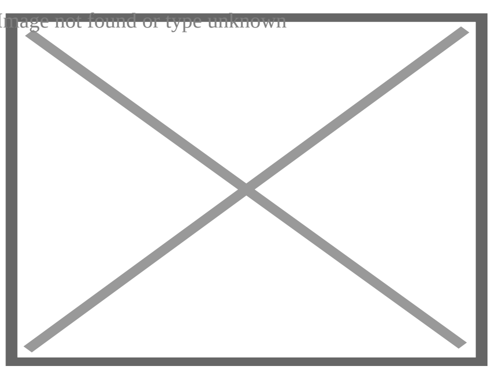

A Roots lobe pump

Main article: Roots-type supercharger

Named after the Roots brothers who invented it, this lobe pump displaces the fluid trapped between two long helical rotors, each fitted into the other when perpendicular at 90°, rotating inside a triangular shaped sealing line configuration, both at the point of suction and at the point of discharge. This design produces a continuous flow with equal volume and no vortex. It can work at low pulsation rates, and offers gentle performance that some applications require.

Applications include:

- High capacity industrial air compressors.
- Roots superchargers on internal combustion engines.
- A brand of civil defense siren, the Federal Signal Corporation's Thunderbolt.

Peristaltic pump

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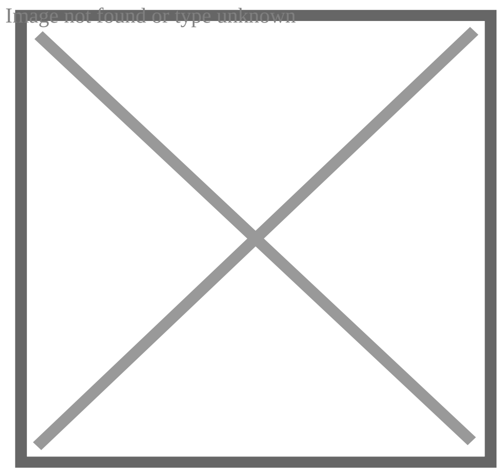


360° peristaltic pump

Main article: Peristaltic pump

A *peristaltic pump* is a type of positive-displacement pump. It contains fluid within a flexible tube fitted inside a circular pump casing (though linear peristaltic pumps have been made). A number of *rollers*, *shoes*, or *wipers* attached to a rotor compress the flexible tube. As the rotor turns, the part of the tube under compression closes (or *occludes*), forcing the fluid through the tube. Additionally, when the tube opens to its natural state after the passing of the cam it draws (*restitution*) fluid into the pump. This process is called *peristalsis* and is used in many biological systems such as the gastrointestinal tract.

Plunger pumps

[edit]
Main article: Plunger pump

Plunger pumps are reciprocating positive-displacement pumps.

These consist of a cylinder with a reciprocating plunger. The suction and discharge valves are mounted in the head of the cylinder. In the suction stroke, the plunger retracts and the suction valves open causing suction of fluid into the cylinder. In the forward stroke, the plunger pushes the liquid out of the discharge valve. Efficiency and common problems: With only one cylinder in plunger pumps, the fluid flow varies between maximum flow when the plunger moves through the middle positions, and zero flow when the plunger is at the end positions. A lot of energy is wasted when the fluid is accelerated in the piping system. Vibration and *water hammer* may be a serious problem. In general, the problems are compensated for by using two or more cylinders not working in phase with each other. Centrifugal pumps are also susceptible to water hammer. Surge analysis, a specialized study, helps evaluate this risk in such systems.

Triplex-style plunger pump

[edit]

Triplex plunger pumps use three plungers, which reduces the pulsation relative to single reciprocating plunger pumps. Adding a pulsation dampener on the pump outlet can further smooth the *pump ripple*, or ripple graph of a pump transducer. The dynamic relationship of the high-pressure fluid and plunger generally requires high-quality plunger seals. Plunger pumps with a larger number of plungers have the benefit of increased flow, or smoother flow without a pulsation damper. The increase in moving parts and crankshaft load is one drawback.

Car washes often use these triplex-style plunger pumps (perhaps without pulsation dampers). In 1968, William Bruggeman reduced the size of the triplex pump and increased the lifespan so that car washes could use equipment with smaller footprints. Durable high-pressure seals, low-pressure seals and oil seals, hardened crankshafts, hardened connecting rods, thick ceramic plungers and heavier duty ball and roller bearings improve reliability in triplex pumps. Triplex pumps now are in a myriad of markets across the world.

Triplex pumps with shorter lifetimes are commonplace to the home user. A person who uses a home pressure washer for 10 hours a year may be satisfied with a pump that lasts 100 hours between rebuilds. Industrial-grade or continuous duty triplex pumps on the other end of the quality spectrum may run for as much as 2,080 hours a year. [17]

The oil and gas drilling industry uses massive semi-trailer-transported triplex pumps called mud pumps to pump drilling mud, which cools the drill bit and carries the cuttings back to the surface.[18] Drillers use triplex or even quintuplex pumps to inject water and solvents deep into shale in the extraction process called *fracking*.[19]

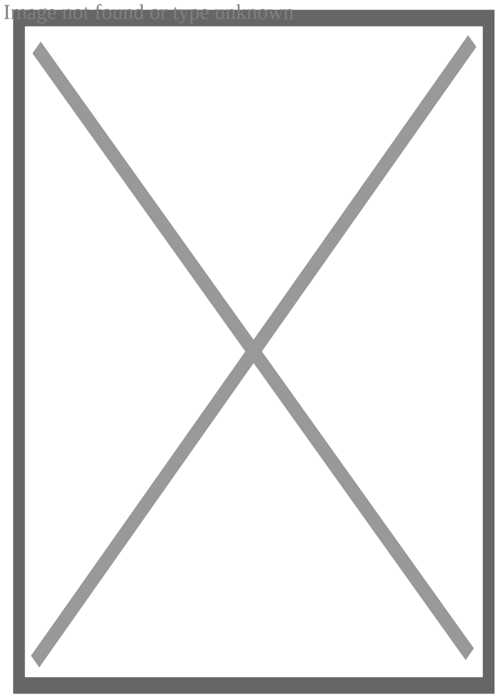
Diaphragm pump

[edit]

Typically run on electricity compressed air, diaphragm pumps are relatively inexpensive and can perform a wide variety of duties, from pumping air into an aquarium, to liquids through a filter press. Double-diaphragm pumps can handle viscous fluids and abrasive materials with a gentle pumping process ideal for transporting shear-sensitive media.[20]

Rope pump

[edit]



Rope pump schematic

Main article: Rope pump

Devised in China as chain pumps over 1000 years ago, these pumps can be made from very simple materials: A rope, a wheel and a pipe are sufficient to make a simple rope pump. Rope pump efficiency has been studied by grassroots organizations and the techniques for making and running them have been continuously improved. [21]

Impulse pump

[edit]

Impulse pumps use pressure created by gas (usually air). In some impulse pumps the gas trapped in the liquid (usually water), is released and accumulated somewhere in the pump, creating a pressure that can push part of the liquid upwards.

Conventional impulse pumps include:

- *Hydraulic ram pumps* – kinetic energy of a low-head water supply is stored temporarily in an air-bubble hydraulic accumulator, then used to drive water to a higher head.
- *Pulser pumps* – run with natural resources, by kinetic energy only.

- *Airlift pumps* – run on air inserted into pipe, which pushes the water up when bubbles move upward

Instead of a gas accumulation and releasing cycle, the pressure can be created by burning of hydrocarbons. Such combustion driven pumps directly transmit the impulse from a combustion event through the actuation membrane to the pump fluid. In order to allow this direct transmission, the pump needs to be almost entirely made of an elastomer (e.g. silicone rubber). Hence, the combustion causes the membrane to expand and thereby pumps the fluid out of the adjacent pumping chamber. The first combustion-driven soft pump was developed by ETH Zurich.[22]

Hydraulic ram pump

[edit]

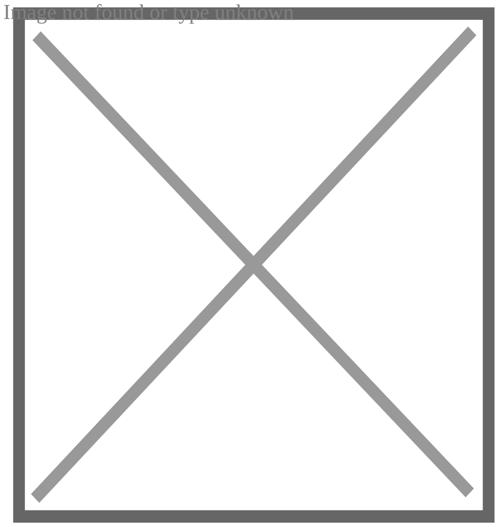
A hydraulic ram is a water pump powered by hydropower.[23]

It takes in water at relatively low pressure and high flow-rate and outputs water at a higher hydraulic-head and lower flow-rate. The device uses the water hammer effect to develop pressure that lifts a portion of the input water that powers the pump to a point higher than where the water started.

The hydraulic ram is sometimes used in remote areas, where there is both a source of low-head hydropower, and a need for pumping water to a destination higher in elevation than the source. In this situation, the ram is often useful, since it requires no outside source of power other than the kinetic energy of flowing water.

Velocity pumps

[edit]



A centrifugal pump uses an impeller with backward-swept arms

Rotodynamic pumps (or dynamic pumps) are a type of velocity pump in which kinetic energy is added to the fluid by increasing the flow velocity. This increase in energy is converted to a gain in potential energy (pressure) when the velocity is reduced prior to or as the flow exits the pump into the discharge pipe. This conversion of kinetic energy to pressure is explained by the *First law of thermodynamics*, or more specifically by *Bernoulli's principle*.

Dynamic pumps can be further subdivided according to the means in which the velocity gain is achieved.[24]

These types of pumps have a number of characteristics:

1. Continuous energy
2. Conversion of added energy to increase in kinetic energy (increase in velocity)
3. Conversion of increased velocity (kinetic energy) to an increase in pressure head

A practical difference between dynamic and positive-displacement pumps is how they operate under closed valve conditions. Positive-displacement pumps physically displace fluid, so closing a valve downstream of a positive-displacement pump produces a continual pressure build up that can cause mechanical failure of pipeline or pump. Dynamic pumps differ in that they can be safely operated under closed valve conditions (for short periods of time).

Radial-flow pump

[edit]

Such a pump is also referred to as a *centrifugal pump*. The fluid enters along the axis or center, is accelerated by the impeller and exits at right angles to the shaft (radially); an example is the centrifugal fan, which is commonly used to implement a vacuum cleaner. Another type of radial-flow pump is a vortex pump. The liquid in them moves in tangential direction around the working wheel. The conversion from the mechanical energy of motor into the potential energy of flow comes by means of multiple whirls, which are excited by the impeller in the working channel of the pump. Generally, a radial-flow pump operates at higher pressures and lower flow rates than an axial- or a mixed-flow pump.

Axial-flow pump

[edit]
Main article: Axial-flow pump

These are also referred to as *all-fluid pumps*. The fluid is pushed outward or inward to move fluid axially. They operate at much lower pressures and higher flow rates than radial-flow (centrifugal) pumps. Axial-flow pumps cannot be run up to speed without special precaution. If at a low flow rate, the total head rise and high torque associated with this pipe would mean that the starting torque would have to become a function of acceleration for the whole mass of liquid in the pipe system.[25]

Mixed-flow pumps function as a compromise between radial and axial-flow pumps. The fluid experiences both radial acceleration and lift and exits the impeller somewhere between 0 and 90 degrees from the axial direction. As a consequence mixed-flow pumps operate at higher pressures than axial-flow pumps while delivering higher discharges than radial-flow pumps. The exit angle of the flow dictates the pressure head-discharge characteristic in relation to radial and mixed-flow.

Regenerative turbine pump

[edit]

Regenerative turbine pump animation

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Regenerative turbine pump animation

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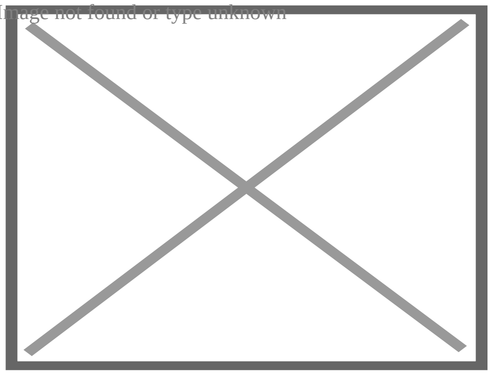


Close-up of a Regenerative Turbine Pump Impeller

Also known as **drag**, **friction**, **liquid-ring pump**, **peripheral**, **traction**, **turbulence**, or **vortex** pumps, regenerative turbine pumps are a class of rotodynamic pump that operates at high head pressures, typically 4–20 bars (400–2,000 kPa; 58–290 psi). [26]

The pump has an impeller with a number of vanes or paddles which spins in a cavity. The suction port and pressure ports are located at the perimeter of the cavity and are isolated by a barrier called a **stripper**, which allows only the **tip channel** (fluid between the blades) to recirculate, and forces any fluid in the **side channel** (fluid in the cavity outside of the blades) through the pressure port. In a regenerative turbine pump, as fluid spirals repeatedly from a vane into the side channel and back to the next vane, kinetic energy is imparted to the periphery,[26] thus pressure builds with each spiral, in a manner similar to a regenerative blower.[27][28][29]

As regenerative turbine pumps cannot become vapor locked, they are commonly applied to volatile, hot, or cryogenic fluid transport. However, as tolerances are typically tight, they are vulnerable to solids or particles causing jamming or rapid wear. Efficiency is typically low, and pressure and power consumption typically decrease with flow. Additionally, pumping direction can be reversed by reversing direction of spin. [29][27][30]

Side-channel pump

[edit]

A **side-channel** pump has a suction disk, an impeller, and a discharge disk.[31]

Eductor-jet pump

[edit]
Main article: Eductor-jet pump

This uses a jet, often of steam, to create a low pressure. This low pressure sucks in fluid and propels it into a higher-pressure region.

Gravity pumps

[edit]

Gravity pumps include the *syphon* and *Heron's fountain*. The *hydraulic ram* is also sometimes called a gravity pump. In a gravity pump the fluid is lifted by gravitational force.

Steam pump

[edit]

Steam pumps have been for a long time mainly of historical interest. They include any type of pump powered by a steam engine and also pistonless pumps such as Thomas Savery's or the Pulsometer steam pump.

Recently there has been a resurgence of interest in low-power solar steam pumps for use in smallholder irrigation in developing countries. Previously small steam engines have not been viable because of escalating inefficiencies as vapour engines decrease in size. However the use of modern engineering materials coupled with alternative engine configurations has meant that these types of system are now a cost-effective opportunity.

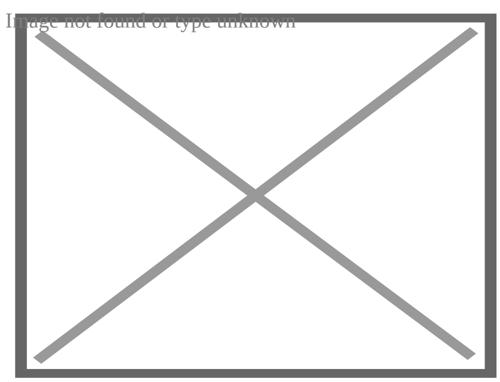
Valveless pumps

[edit]

Valveless pumping assists in fluid transport in various biomedical and engineering systems. In a valveless pumping system, no valves (or physical occlusions) are present to regulate the flow direction. The fluid pumping efficiency of a valveless system, however, is not necessarily lower than that having valves. In fact, many fluid-dynamical systems in nature and engineering more or less rely upon valveless pumping to transport the working fluids therein. For instance, blood circulation in the cardiovascular system is maintained to some extent even when the heart's valves fail. Meanwhile, the embryonic vertebrate heart begins pumping blood long before the development of discernible chambers and valves. Similar to blood circulation in one direction, bird respiratory systems pump air in one direction in rigid lungs, but without any physiological valve. In microfluidics, valveless impedance pumps have been fabricated, and are expected to be particularly suitable for handling sensitive biofluids. Ink jet printers operating on the piezoelectric transducer principle also use valveless pumping. The pump chamber is emptied through the printing jet due to reduced flow impedance in that direction and refilled by capillary action.

Pump repairs

[edit]



Derelict windmill connected to water pump with water storage tank in the foreground

Examining pump repair records and mean time between failures (MTBF) is of great importance to responsible and conscientious pump users. In view of that fact, the preface to the 2006 Pump User's Handbook alludes to "pump failure" statistics. For the sake of convenience, these failure statistics often are translated into MTBF (in this case, installed life before failure).[32]

In early 2005, Gordon Buck, John Crane Inc.'s chief engineer for field operations in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, examined the repair records for a number of refinery and chemical plants to obtain meaningful reliability data for centrifugal pumps. A total of 15 operating plants having nearly 15,000 pumps were included in the survey. The smallest of these plants had about 100 pumps; several plants had over 2000. All facilities were located in the United States. In addition, considered as "new", others as "renewed" and still others as "established". Many of these plants—but not all—had an alliance arrangement with John Crane. In some cases, the alliance contract included having a John Crane Inc. technician or engineer on-site to coordinate various aspects of the program.

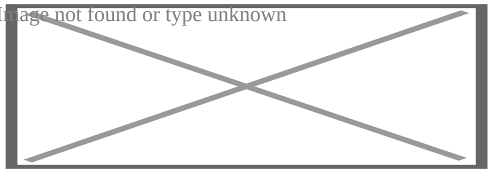
Not all plants are refineries, however, and different results occur elsewhere. In chemical plants, pumps have historically been "throw-away" items as chemical attack limits life. Things have improved in recent years, but the somewhat restricted space available in "old" DIN and ASME-standardized stuffing boxes places limits on the type of seal that fits. Unless the pump user upgrades the seal chamber, the pump only accommodates more compact and simple versions. Without this upgrading, lifetimes in chemical installations are generally around 50 to 60 percent of the refinery values.

Unscheduled maintenance is often one of the most significant costs of ownership, and failures of mechanical seals and bearings are among the major causes. Keep in mind the potential value of selecting pumps that cost more initially, but last much longer between repairs. The MTBF of a better pump may be one to four years longer than that of its non-upgraded counterpart. Consider that published average values of avoided pump failures range from US$2600 to US$12,000. This does not include lost opportunity costs. One pump fire occurs per 1000 failures. Having fewer pump failures means having fewer destructive pump fires.

As has been noted, a typical pump failure, based on actual year 2002 reports, costs US$5,000 on average. This includes costs for material, parts, labor and overhead. Extending a pump's MTBF from 12 to 18 months would save US$1,667 per year — which might be greater than the cost to upgrade the centrifugal pump's reliability.[32][1][33]

Applications

[edit]



Metering pump for gasoline and additives

Pumps are used throughout society for a variety of purposes. Early applications includes the use of the windmill or watermill to pump water. Today, the pump is used for irrigation, water supply, gasoline supply, air conditioning systems, refrigeration (usually called a compressor), chemical movement, sewage movement, flood control, marine services, etc.

Because of the wide variety of applications, pumps have a plethora of shapes and sizes: from very large to very small, from handling gas to handling liquid, from high pressure to low pressure, and from high volume to low volume.

Priming a pump

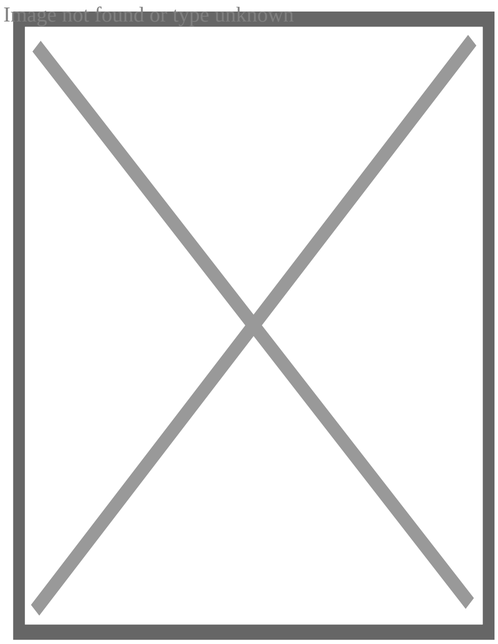
[edit]

Typically, a liquid pump cannot simply draw air. The feed line of the pump and the internal body surrounding the pumping mechanism must first be filled with the liquid that requires pumping: An operator must introduce liquid into the system to initiate the pumping, known as *priming* the pump. Loss of prime is usually due to ingestion of air into the pump, or evaporation of the working fluid if the pump is used infrequently. Clearances and displacement ratios in pumps for liquids are insufficient for pumping compressible gas, so air or other gasses in the pump can not be evacuated by the pump's action alone. This is the case with most velocity (rotodynamic) pumps — for example, centrifugal pumps. For such pumps, the position of the pump and intake tubing should be lower than the suction point so it is primed by gravity; otherwise the pump should be manually filled with liquid or a secondary pump should be used until all air is removed from the suction line and the pump casing. Liquid ring pumps have a dedicated intake for the priming liquid separate from the intake of the fluid being pumped, as the fluid being pumped may be a gas or mix of gas, liquid, and solids. For these pumps the priming liquid intake must be supplied continuously (either by gravity or pressure), however the intake for the fluid being pumped is capable of drawing a vacuum equivalent to the boiling point of the priming liquid.[34]

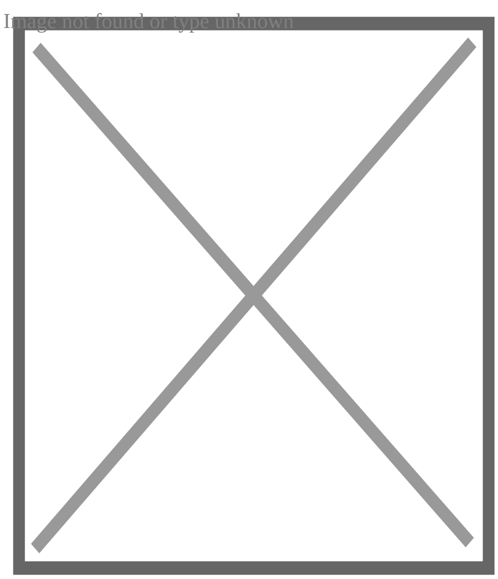
Positive–displacement pumps, however, tend to have sufficiently tight sealing between the moving parts and the casing or housing of the pump that they can be described as *self-priming*. Such pumps can also serve as *priming pumps*, so-called when they are used to fulfill that need for other pumps in lieu of action taken by a human operator.

Pumps as public water supplies

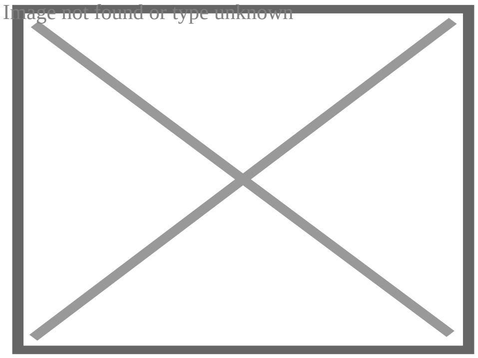
[edit]
Main article: Hand pump



Arabic depiction of a piston pump, by Al-Jazari, c. 1206[35][36]



First European depiction of a piston pump, by Taccola, c. 1450[37]



Irrigation is underway by pump-enabled extraction directly from the Gumti, seen in the background, in Comilla, Bangladesh.

One sort of pump once common worldwide was a hand-powered water pump, or 'pitcher pump'. It was commonly installed over community water wells in the days before piped water supplies.

In parts of the British Isles, it was often called *the parish pump*. Though such community pumps are no longer common, people still used the expression *parish pump* to describe a place or forum where matters of local interest are discussed.[38]

Because water from pitcher pumps is drawn directly from the soil, it is more prone to contamination. If such water is not filtered and purified, consumption of it might lead to gastrointestinal or other water-borne diseases. A notorious case is the 1854 Broad Street cholera outbreak. At the time it was not known how cholera was transmitted, but physician John Snow suspected contaminated water and had the handle of the public pump he suspected removed; the outbreak then subsided.

Modern hand-operated community pumps are considered the most sustainable low-cost option for safe water supply in resource-poor settings, often in rural areas in developing countries. A hand pump opens access to deeper groundwater that is often not polluted and also improves the safety of a well by protecting the water source from contaminated buckets. Pumps such as the Afridev pump are designed to be cheap to build and install, and easy to maintain with simple parts. However, scarcity of spare parts for these type of pumps in some regions of Africa has diminished their utility for these areas.

Sealing multiphase pumping applications

[edit]

Multiphase pumping applications, also referred to as tri-phase, have grown due to increased oil drilling activity. In addition, the economics of multiphase production is attractive to upstream operations as it leads to simpler, smaller in-field installations, reduced equipment costs and improved production rates. In essence, the multiphase pump can accommodate all fluid stream properties with one piece of equipment, which has a smaller footprint. Often, two smaller multiphase pumps are installed in series rather than having just one massive pump.

Types and features of multiphase pumps

[edit]

Helico-axial (centrifugal)

[edit]

A rotodynamic pump with one single shaft that requires two mechanical seals, this pump uses an open-type axial impeller. It is often called a *Poseidon pump*, and can be described as a cross between an axial compressor and a centrifugal pump.

Twin-screw (positive-displacement)

[edit]

The twin-screw pump is constructed of two inter-meshing screws that move the pumped fluid. Twin screw pumps are often used when pumping conditions contain high gas volume fractions and fluctuating inlet conditions. Four mechanical seals are required to seal the two shafts.

Progressive cavity (positive-displacement)

[edit]

Progressive Cavity Pumps are well suited to pump sludge, slurries, viscous, and shear sensitive fluids. [39] Progressive cavity pumps are single-screw types use in surface and downhole oil production.[40] They serve a vast arrange of industries and applications ranging from Wastewater Treatment,[41] Pulp and Paper, oil and gas, mining, and oil and gas.

Electric submersible (centrifugal)

[edit]

These pumps are basically multistage centrifugal pumps and are widely used in oil well applications as a method for artificial lift. These pumps are usually specified when the pumped fluid is mainly liquid.

Buffer tank A buffer tank is often installed upstream of the pump suction nozzle in case of a slug flow. The buffer tank breaks the energy of the liquid slug, smooths any fluctuations in the incoming flow and acts as a sand trap.

As the name indicates, multiphase pumps and their mechanical seals can encounter a large variation in service conditions such as changing process fluid composition, temperature variations, high and low operating pressures and exposure to abrasive/erosive media. The challenge is selecting the appropriate mechanical seal arrangement and support system to ensure maximized seal life and its overall effectiveness.[42][43][44]

Specifications

[edit]

Pumps are commonly rated by horsepower, volumetric flow rate, outlet pressure in metres (or feet) of head, inlet suction in suction feet (or metres) of head. The head can be simplified as the number of feet or metres the pump can raise or lower a column of water at atmospheric pressure.

From an initial design point of view, engineers often use a quantity termed the specific speed to identify the most suitable pump type for a particular combination of flow rate and head. Net Positive Suction Head (NPSH) is crucial for pump performance. It has two key aspects: 1) NPSHr (Required): The Head required for the pump to operate without cavitation issues. 2) NPSHa (Available): The actual pressure provided by the system (e.g., from an overhead tank). For optimal pump operation, NPSHa must always exceed NPSHr. This ensures the pump has enough pressure to prevent cavitation, a damaging condition.

Pumping power

[edit]
Main article: Bernoulli's equation

The power imparted into a fluid increases the energy of the fluid per unit volume. Thus the power relationship is between the conversion of the mechanical energy of the pump mechanism and the fluid elements within the pump. In general, this is governed by a series of simultaneous differential equations, known as the Navier–Stokes equations. However a more simple equation relating only the different energies in the fluid, known as Bernoulli's equation can be used. Hence the power, P, required by the pump:

\displaystyle P=\frac \Delta pQ\eta

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where ?p is the change in total pressure between the inlet and outlet (in Pa), and Q, the volume flow-rate of the fluid is given in m^3/s. The total pressure may have gravitational, static pressure and kinetic energy components; i.e. energy is distributed between change in the fluid's gravitational potential energy (going up or down hill), change in velocity, or change in static pressure. ? is the pump efficiency, and may be given by the manufacturer's information, such as in the form of a pump curve, and is typically derived from either fluid dynamics simulation (i.e. solutions to the Navier–Stokes for the particular pump geometry), or by testing. The efficiency of the pump depends upon the pump's configuration and operating conditions (such as rotational speed, fluid density and viscosity etc.)

\displaystyle \Delta p=\rho (v_2^2-v_1^2) \over 2+\rho \Delta zg+\Delta p_\mathrm static

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For a typical "pumping" configuration, the work is imparted on the fluid, and is thus positive. For the fluid imparting the work on the pump (i.e. a turbine), the work is negative. Power required to drive the pump is determined by dividing the output power by the pump efficiency. Furthermore, this definition encompasses pumps with no moving parts, such as a siphon.

Efficiency

[edit]

Pump efficiency is defined as the ratio of the power imparted on the fluid by the pump in relation to the power supplied to drive the pump. Its value is not fixed for a given pump, efficiency is a function of the discharge and therefore also operating head. For centrifugal pumps, the efficiency tends to increase with flow rate up to a point midway through the operating range (peak efficiency or Best Efficiency Point (BEP)) and then declines as flow rates rise further. Pump performance data such as this is usually supplied by the manufacturer before pump selection. Pump efficiencies tend to decline over time due to wear (e.g. increasing clearances as impellers reduce in size).

When a system includes a centrifugal pump, an important design issue is matching the *head loss-flow characteristic* with the pump so that it operates at or close to the point of its maximum efficiency.

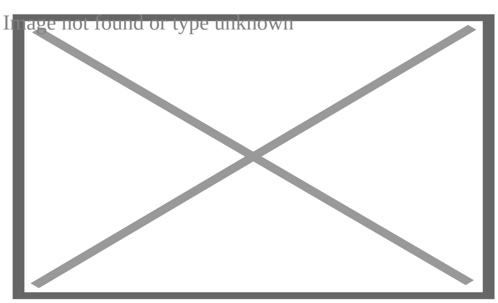
Pump efficiency is an important aspect and pumps should be regularly tested. Thermodynamic pump testing is one method.

Minimum flow protection

[edit]

Most large pumps have a minimum flow requirement below which the pump may be damaged by overheating, impeller wear, vibration, seal failure, drive shaft damage or poor performance.[45] A minimum flow protection system ensures that the pump is not operated below the minimum flow rate. The system protects the pump even if it is shut-in or dead-headed, that is, if the discharge line is completely closed.[46]

The simplest minimum flow system is a pipe running from the pump discharge line back to the suction line. This line is fitted with an orifice plate sized to allow the pump minimum flow to pass.[47] The arrangement ensures that the minimum flow is maintained, although it is wasteful as it recycles fluid even when the flow through the pump exceeds the minimum flow.



Part of a process flow diagram of pump minimum flow protection arrangement

A more sophisticated, but more costly, system (see diagram) comprises a flow measuring device (FE) in the pump discharge which provides a signal into a flow controller (FIC) which actuates a flow control valve (FCV) in the recycle line. If the measured flow exceeds the minimum flow then the FCV is closed. If the measured flow falls below the minimum flow the FCV opens to maintain the minimum flowrate.[45]

As the fluids are recycled the kinetic energy of the pump increases the temperature of the fluid. For many pumps this added heat energy is dissipated through the pipework.

However, for large industrial pumps, such as oil pipeline pumps, a recycle cooler is provided in the recycle line to cool the fluids to the normal suction temperature.[48] Alternatively the recycled fluids may be returned to upstream of the export cooler in an oil refinery, oil terminal, or offshore installation.

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Machines

Classical simple machines	○ Inclined plane ○ Lever ○ Pulley ○ Screw ○ Wedge ○ Wheel and axle
Clocks	○ Atomic clock ○ Chronometer ○ Pendulum clock ○ Quartz clock
Compressors and pumps	○ Archimedes' screw ○ Eductor-jet pump ○ Hydraulic ram ○ Pump ○ Trompe ○ Vacuum pump
External combustion engines	○ Steam engine ○ Stirling engine
Internal combustion engines	○ Gas turbine ○ Reciprocating engine ○ Rotary engine ○ Nutating disc engine
Linkages	○ Pantograph ○ Peaucellier-Lipkin
Turbine	○ Gas turbine ○ Jet engine ○ Steam turbine ○ Water turbine ○ Wind generator ○ Windmill
Aerofoil	○ Sail ○ Wing ○ Rudder ○ Flap ○ Propeller
Electronics	○ Vacuum tube ○ Transistor ○ Diode ○ Resistor ○ Capacitor ○ Inductor
Vehicles	○ Automobile

Miscellaneous

- Mecha
- Robot
- Agricultural
- Seed-counting machine
- Vending machine
- Wind tunnel
- Check weighing machines
- Riveting machines

Springs

- Spring (device)

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About Pier

For other uses, see Pier (disambiguation).

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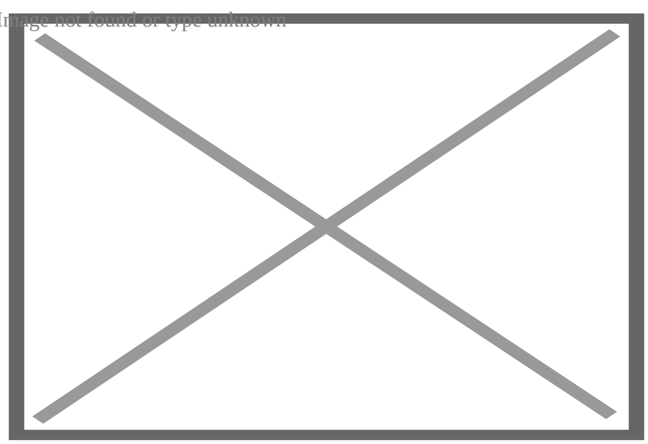


A wooden pier in Corfu, Greece

A **pier** is a raised structure that rises above a body of water and usually juts out from its shore, typically supported by piles or pillars, and provides above-water access to offshore areas. Frequent pier uses include fishing, boat docking and access for both passengers and cargo, and oceanside recreation. Bridges, buildings, and walkways may all be supported by architectural piers. Their open structure allows tides and currents to flow relatively unhindered, whereas the more solid foundations of a quay or the closely spaced piles of a wharf can act as a breakwater, and are consequently more liable to silting. Piers can range in size and complexity from a simple lightweight wooden structure to major structures extended over 1,600 m (5,200 ft). In American English, a pier may be synonymous with a dock.

Piers have been built for several purposes, and because these different purposes have distinct regional variances, the term *pier* tends to have different nuances of meaning in different parts of the world. Thus in North America and Australia, where many ports were, until recently, built on the multiple pier model, the term tends to imply a current or former cargo-handling facility. In contrast, in Europe, where ports more often use basins and river-side quays than piers, the term is principally associated with the image of a Victorian cast iron pleasure pier which emerged in Great Britain during the early 19th century. However, the earliest piers pre-date the Victorian age.

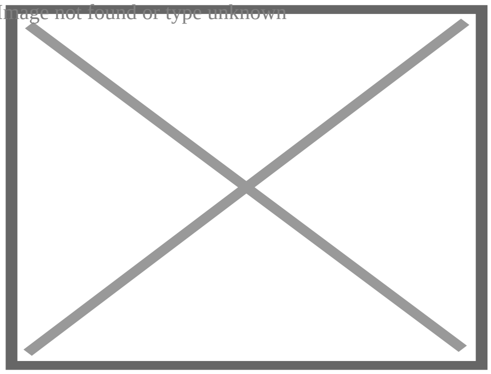
Types

[edit]

Piers can be categorized into different groupings according to the principal purpose.[1] However, there is considerable overlap between these categories. For example, pleasure piers often also allow for the docking of pleasure steamers and other similar craft, while working piers have often been converted to leisure use after being rendered obsolete by advanced developments in cargo-handling technology. Many piers are floating piers, to ensure that the piers raise and lower with the tide along with the boats tied to them. This prevents a situation where lines become overly taut or loose by rising or lowering tides. An overly taut or loose tie-line can damage boats by pulling them out of the water or allowing them so much leeway that they bang forcefully against the sides of the pier.

Working piers

[edit]



Out-of-use industrial bulk cargo Pier, Cook Inlet, Alaska.

Working piers were built for the handling of passengers and cargo onto and off ships or (as at Wigan Pier) canal boats. Working piers themselves fall into two different groups. Longer individual piers are often found at ports with large tidal ranges, with the pier stretching far enough off shore to reach deep water at low tide. Such piers provided an economical alternative to impounded docks where cargo volumes were low, or where specialist bulk cargo was handled, such as at coal piers. The other form of working pier, often called the finger pier, was built at ports with smaller tidal ranges. Here the principal advantage was to give a greater available quay length for ships to berth against compared to a linear littoral quayside, and such piers are usually much shorter. Typically each pier would carry a single transit shed the length of the pier, with ships berthing bow or stern in to the shore. Some major ports consisted of large numbers of such piers lining the foreshore, classic examples being the Hudson River frontage of New York, or the Embarcadero in San Francisco.

The advent of container shipping, with its need for large container handling spaces adjacent to the shipping berths, has made working piers obsolete for the handling of general cargo, although some still survive for the handling of passenger ships or bulk cargos. One example, is in use in Progreso, Yucatán, where a pier extends more than 4 miles into the Gulf of Mexico, making it the longest pier in the world. The Progreso Pier supplies much of the peninsula with transportation for the fishing and cargo industries and serves as a port for large cruise ships in the area. Many other working piers have been demolished, or remain derelict, but some have been recycled as pleasure piers. The best known example of this is Pier 39 in San Francisco.

At Southport and the Tweed River on the Gold Coast in Australia, there are piers that support equipment for a sand bypassing system that maintains the health of sandy beaches and navigation channels.

Pleasure piers

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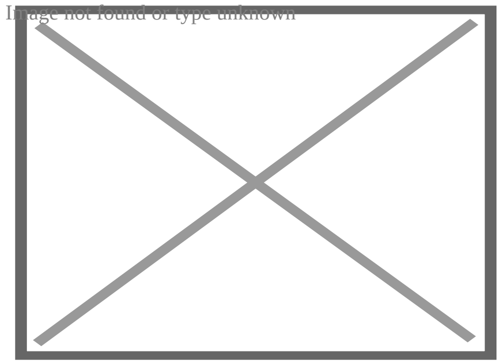

Print of a Victorian pier in Margate in the English county of Kent, 1897

Pleasure piers were first built in Britain during the early 19th century.[2] The earliest structures were Ryde Pier, built in 1813/4, Trinity Chain Pier near Leith, built in 1821, Brighton Chain Pier, built in 1823.[2] and Margate Jetty 1823/24 originally a timber built pier.

Only the oldest of these piers still remains. At that time, the introduction of steamships and railways for the first time permitted mass tourism to dedicated seaside resorts. The large tidal ranges at many such resorts meant that passengers arriving by pleasure steamer could use a pier to disembark safely.[3] Also, for much of the day, the sea was not visible from the shore and the pleasure pier permitted holidaymakers to promenade over and alongside the sea at all times.[4] The world's longest pleasure pier is at Southend-on-Sea, Essex, and extends 1.3 miles (2.1 km) into the Thames Estuary.[2] The longest pier on the West Coast of the US is the Santa Cruz Wharf, with a length of 2,745 feet (837 m).[5]

Providing a walkway out to sea, pleasure piers often include amusements and theatres as part of their attractions.[4] Such a pier may be unroofed, closed, or partly open and partly closed. Sometimes a pier has two decks. Galveston Island Historic Pleasure Pier in Galveston, Texas has a roller coaster, 15 rides, carnival games and souvenir shops.[6]

Early pleasure piers were of complete timber construction, as was with Margate which opened in 1824. The first iron and timber built pleasure pier Margate Jetty, opened in 1855.[7] Margate pier was wrecked by a storm in January 1978 and not repaired.[8][7] The longest iron pleasure pier still remaining is the one at Southend. First opened as a wooden pier in 1829, it was reconstructed in iron and completed in 1889. In a 2006 UK poll, the public voted the seaside pier onto the list of icons of England.[9]

Fishing piers

[edit]

Many piers are built for the purpose of providing boatless anglers access to fishing grounds that are otherwise inaccessible.[10] Many "Free Piers" are available in larger harbors which differ from private piers. Free Piers are often primarily used for fishing. Fishing from a pier presents a set of different circumstances to fishing from the shore or beach, as you do not need to cast out into the deeper water. This being the case there are specific fishing rigs that have been created specifically for pier fishing[11] which allow for the direct access to deeper water.

Piers of the world

[edit]
Main article: List of piers

Belgium

[edit]

In Blankenberge a first pleasure pier was built in 1894. After its destruction in the World War I, a new pier was built in 1933. It remained till the present day, but was partially transformed and modernized in 1999–2004.

In Nieuwpoort, Belgium there is a pleasure pier on both sides of the river IJzer.

Netherlands

[edit]

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The Scheveningen Pier

Scheveningen, the coastal resort town of The Hague, boasts the largest pier in the Netherlands, completed in 1961. A crane, built on top of the pier's panorama tower, provides the opportunity to make a 60-metre (200 ft) high bungee jump over the North Sea waves. The present pier is a successor of an earlier pier, which was completed in 1901 but in 1943 destroyed by the German occupation forces.

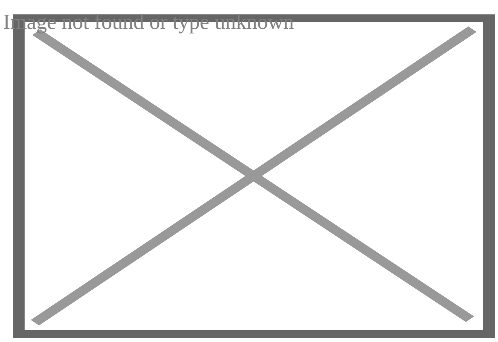
United Kingdom

[edit]

England and Wales

[edit]

The first recorded pier in England was Ryde Pier, opened in 1814 on the Isle of Wight, as a landing stage to allow ferries to and from the mainland to berth. It is still used for this purpose today.[12] It also had a leisure function in the past, with the pier head once containing a pavilion, and there are still refreshment facilities today. The oldest cast iron pier in the world is Town Pier, Gravesend, in Kent, which opened in 1834. However, it is not recognised by the National Piers Society as being a seaside pier.[13]



Brighton Palace Pier (pictured in 2011), opened in 1899

Following the building of the world's first seaside pier at Ryde, the pier became fashionable at seaside resorts in England and Wales during the Victorian era, peaking in the 1860s with 22 being built in that decade.[14] A symbol of the typical British seaside holiday, by 1914, more than 100 pleasure piers were located around the UK coast.[2] Regarded as being among the finest Victorian architecture, there are still a significant number of seaside piers of architectural merit still standing, although some have been lost, including Margate, two at Brighton in East Sussex, one at New Brighton in the Wirral and three at Blackpool in Lancashire.[4] Two piers, Brighton's now derelict West Pier and Clevedon Pier, were Grade 1 listed. The Birnbeck Pier in Weston-super-Mare is the only pier in the world linked to an island. The National Piers Society gives a figure of 55 surviving seaside piers in England and Wales.[1] In 2017, Brighton Palace Pier was said to be the most visited tourist attraction outside London, with over 4.5 million visitors the previous year.[15]

See also

[edit]

- Boardwalk
- Breakwater
- Dock
- Jetty
- List of piers
- Seaside resort
- Wharf

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