

A Practical Guide to 'Free Energy' Devices

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This patent application shows the details of an electrolyser system which it is claimed, produces greater output than the input power needed to operate it.

Patent WO 9528510

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IMPROVEMENTS IN ELECTROLYSIS SYSTEMS & THE AVAILABILITY OF OVER-UNITY ENERGY

ABSTRACT

A looped energy system for the generation of excess energy available to do work is disclosed. The system comprises an electrolysis cell unit **150** receiving a supply of water to liberate separated hydrogen gas **154** and oxygen **156** by electrolysis driven by a DC voltage **152** applied across respective anodes and cathodes of the cell unit **150**. A hydrogen gas receiver **158** receives and stores hydrogen gas liberated by the cell unit **150**, and an oxygen gas receiver **160** receives and stores oxygen gas liberated by the cell unit **150**. A gas expansion device **162** expands the stored gases to recover expansion work, and a gas combustion device **168** mixes and combusts the expanded hydrogen gas and oxygen gas to recover combusted work. A proportion of the sum of the expansion work and the combustion work sustains electrolysis of the cell unit to retain operational gas pressure in the gas receivers **158**, **160** such that the energy system is self-sustaining, and there is excess energy available from the sum of energies.

TECHNICAL FIELD OF THE INVENTION

The present invention relates to the generation of hydrogen gas and oxygen gas from water, either as an admixture or as separated gases, by the process of electrolysis, and relates further to applications for the use of the liberated gas. Embodiments of the invention relate particularly to apparatus for the efficient generation of these gases, and to use of the gases in an internal combustion engine and an implosion pump. The invention also discloses a closed-loop energy generation system where latent molecular energy is liberated as a form of 'free energy' so the system can be self-sustaining.

Reference is made to commonly-owned International patent application No. PCT/AU94/000532, having the International filing date of 6 September 1994.

Background Art

The technique of electrolysis of water in the presence of an electrolyte such as sodium hydroxide (NaOH) or potassium hydroxide (KOH) to liberate hydrogen and oxygen gas (H₂, O₂) is well known. The process involves applying a DC potential difference between two or more anode/cathode electrode pairs and delivering the minimum energy required to break the H-O bonds (i.e. 68.3 kcal per mole @ STP).

The gases are produced in the stoichiometric proportions for O₂:H₂ of 1:2 liberated respectively from the anode (+) and cathode (-).

Reference can be made to the following texts:

"Modern Electrochemistry, Volume 2, John O'M. Bockris and Amulya K.N. Reddy, Plenum Publishing Corporation",

"Electro-Chemical Science, J. O'M. Bockris and D.M. Drazic, Taylor and Francis Limited" and

"Fuel Cells, Their Electrochemistry, J. O'M. Bockris and S. Srinivasan, McGraw-Hill Book Company".

A discussion of experimental work in relation to electrolysis processes can be obtained from "Hydrogen Energy, Part A, Hydrogen Economy Miami Energy Conference, Miami Beach, Florida, 1974, edited by T. Nejat Veziroglu, Plenum Press". The papers presented by J. O'M. Bockris on pages 371 to 379, by F.C.

Jensen and F.H. Schubert on pages 425 to 439 and by John B. Pangborn and John C. Sharer on pages 499 to 508 are of particular relevance.

On a macro-scale, the amount of gas produced depends upon a number of variables, including the type and concentration of the electrolytic solution used, the anode/cathode electrode pair surface area, the electrolytic resistance (equating to ionic conductivity, which is a function of temperature and pressure), achievable current density and anode/cathode potential difference. The total energy delivered must be sufficient to disassociate the water ions to generate hydrogen and oxygen gases, yet avoid plating (oxidation/reduction) of the metallic or conductive non-metallic materials from which the electrodes are constructed.

DISCLOSURE OF THE INVENTION

The invention discloses a looped-energy system for the generation of excess energy available to do work, the said system comprising of:

An electrolysis cell unit receiving a supply of water for liberating separated hydrogen gas and oxygen gas by electrolysis due to a DC voltage applied across respective anodes and cathodes of the cell;

A hydrogen gas receiver to receive and store the hydrogen gas liberated by the electrolysis cell;

An oxygen gas receiver to receive and store the oxygen gas liberated by the electrolysis cell;

A gas-expansion chamber to allow the expansion of the stored gases to recover expansion work; and

A gas-combustion mechanism for mixing and combusting the expanded hydrogen and oxygen gases to recover combustion work; and wherein a proportion of the sum of the expansion work and the combustion work sustains the electrolysis of the electrolysis cell in order to retain the operational gas pressure in the hydrogen and oxygen gas receivers so that the energy system is self-sustaining and there is excess energy available.

The invention further discloses a method for the generation of excess energy available to do work by the process of electrolysis, said method comprising the steps of: electrolysing water by a DC voltage to liberate separated hydrogen gas and oxygen gas; separately receiving and storing the hydrogen and oxygen gases in a manner to be self-pressuring; separately expanding the stored gas to recover expansion energy; burning the expanded gases to recover combustion energy; and applying a portion of the sum of the expansion work and the combustion work as the DC voltage to retain operational gas pressures and sustain the electrolysis, there being excess energy available to do this.

The invention also discloses an internal combustion engine powered by hydrogen and oxygen comprising of:

At least one cylinder and

At least one reciprocating piston within the cylinder;

A hydrogen gas input port in communication with the cylinder for receiving a supply of pressurised hydrogen;

An oxygen gas input port in communication with the cylinder for receiving a supply of pressurised oxygen; and

An exhaust port in communication with the cylinder and wherein the engine can be operated in a two-stroke manner whereby, at the top of the stroke, hydrogen gas is supplied through the respective inlet port to the cylinder driving the piston downwards, oxygen gas then is supplied through the respective inlet port to the cylinder to drive the cylinder further downwards, after which time self-detonation occurs and the piston moves to the bottom of the stroke and upwards again with the exhaust port opened to force out the water vapour resulting from the detonation.

The invention also discloses an implosion pump comprising of;

A combustion chamber interposed, and in communication with,

An upper reservoir and a lower reservoir separated by a vertical distance across which water is to be pumped, this chamber receiving admixed hydrogen and oxygen at a pressure sufficient to lift a volume of water the distance from there to the top reservoir, the gas in the chamber then being ignited to create a vacuum in the chamber to draw water from the lower reservoir to fill the chamber, whereupon a pumping cycle is established and can be repeated.

The invention also discloses a parallel stacked arrangement of cell plates for a water electrolysis unit, the cell plates alternately forming an anode and cathode of the electrolysis unit, and the arrangement including separate hydrogen gas and oxygen gas outlet ports respectively linked to the anode cell plates and the cathode cell plates and extending longitudinally along the plate stack. These outlet ports are arranged so as to be insulated from the anode and cathode plates.

DESCRIPTION OF THE DRAWINGS

Figs.1 1a-16 of noted International application no. PCT/AU94/000532 are reproduced to aid description of the present invention, but herein denoted as Figs.1a-6:

Fig.1A and **Fig.1B** show an embodiment of a cell plate:

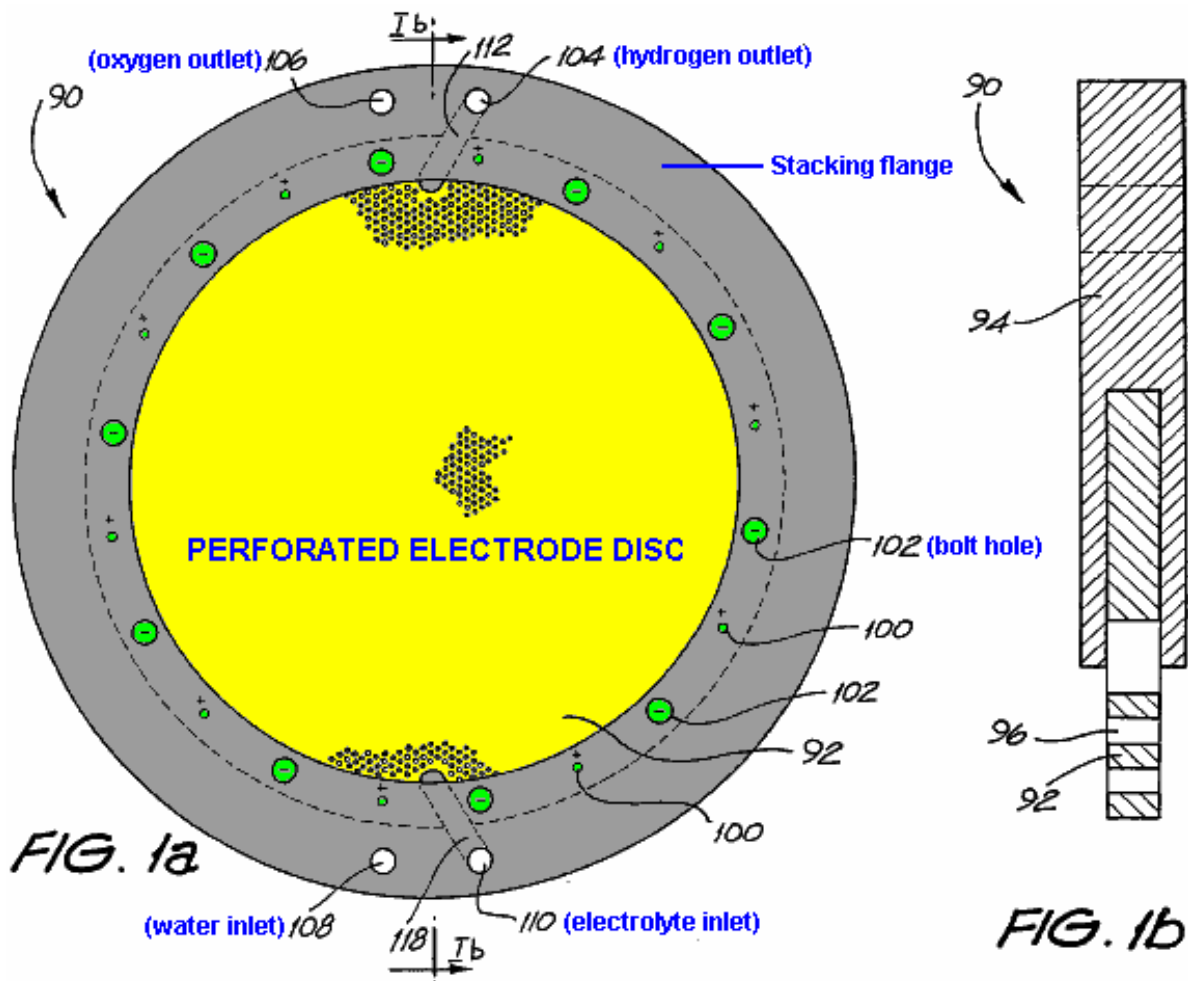


Fig.2A and **Fig.2B** show a complementary cell plate to that of Fig.1A and Fig.1B:

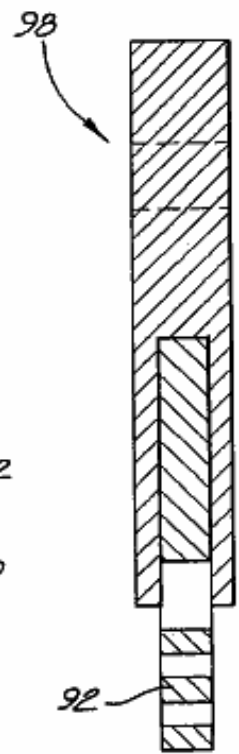
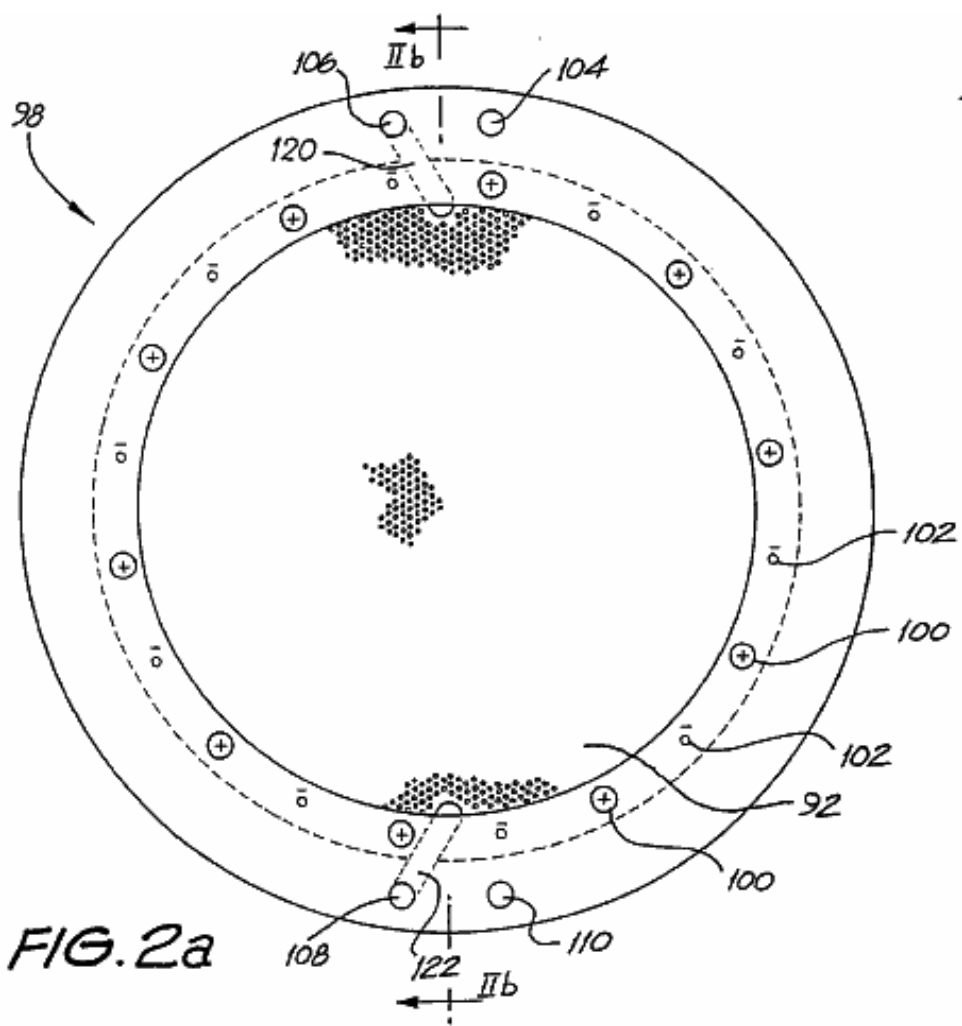


Fig.3 shows detail of the perforations and porting of the cell plates of Figs. 1A,1B, 2A and 2B:

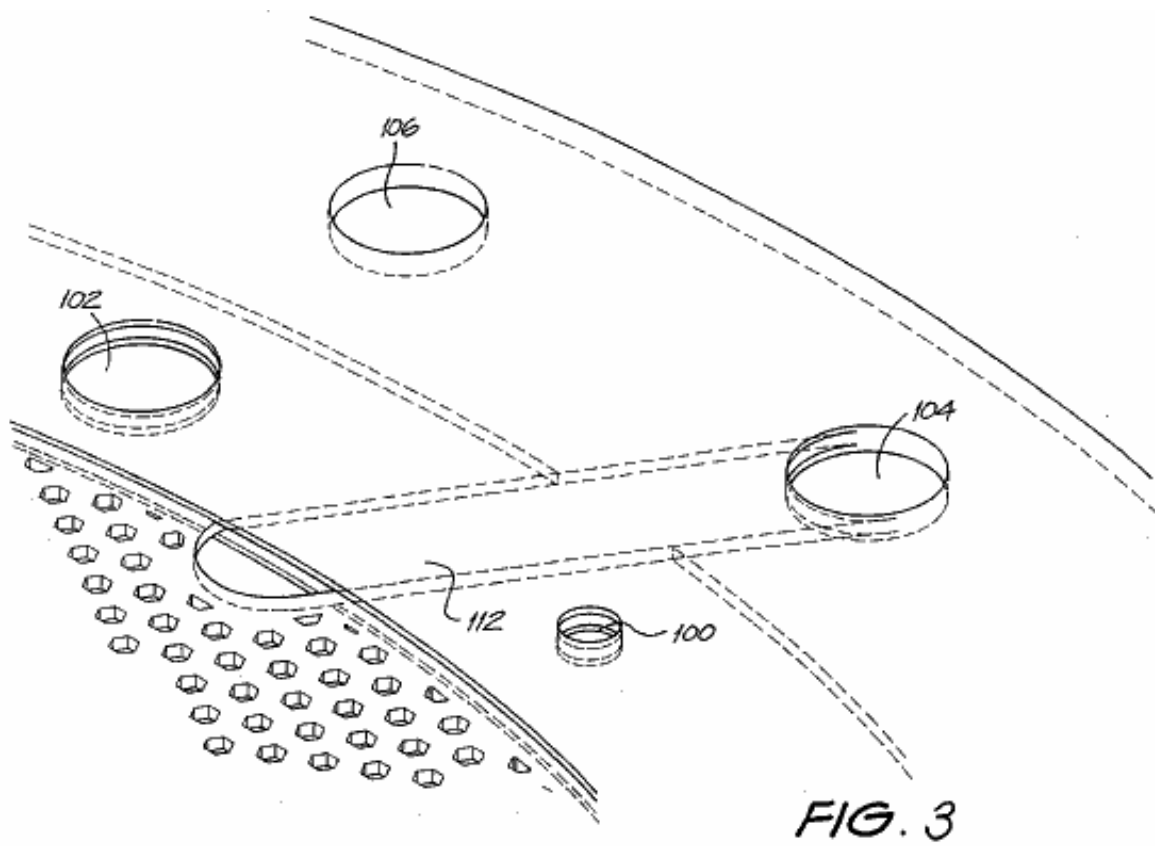


Fig.4 shows an exploded stacked arrangement of the cell plates of Figs. 1A,1B, 2A and 2B:

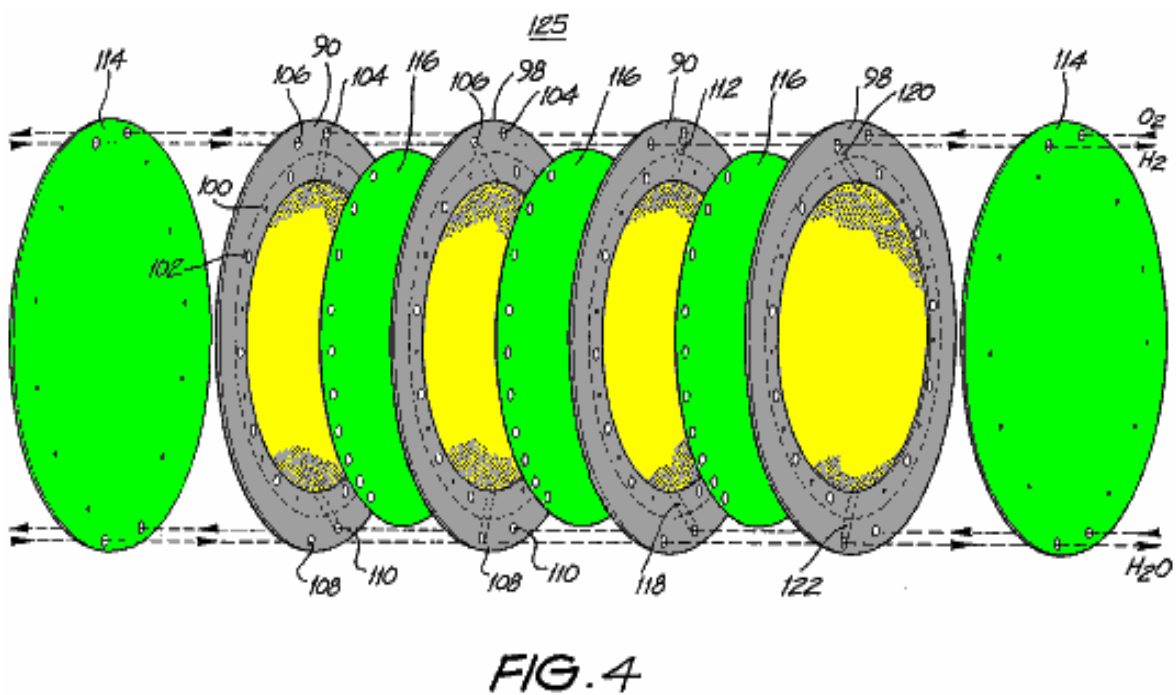


Fig.5A shows a schematic view of the gas separation system of Fig.4:

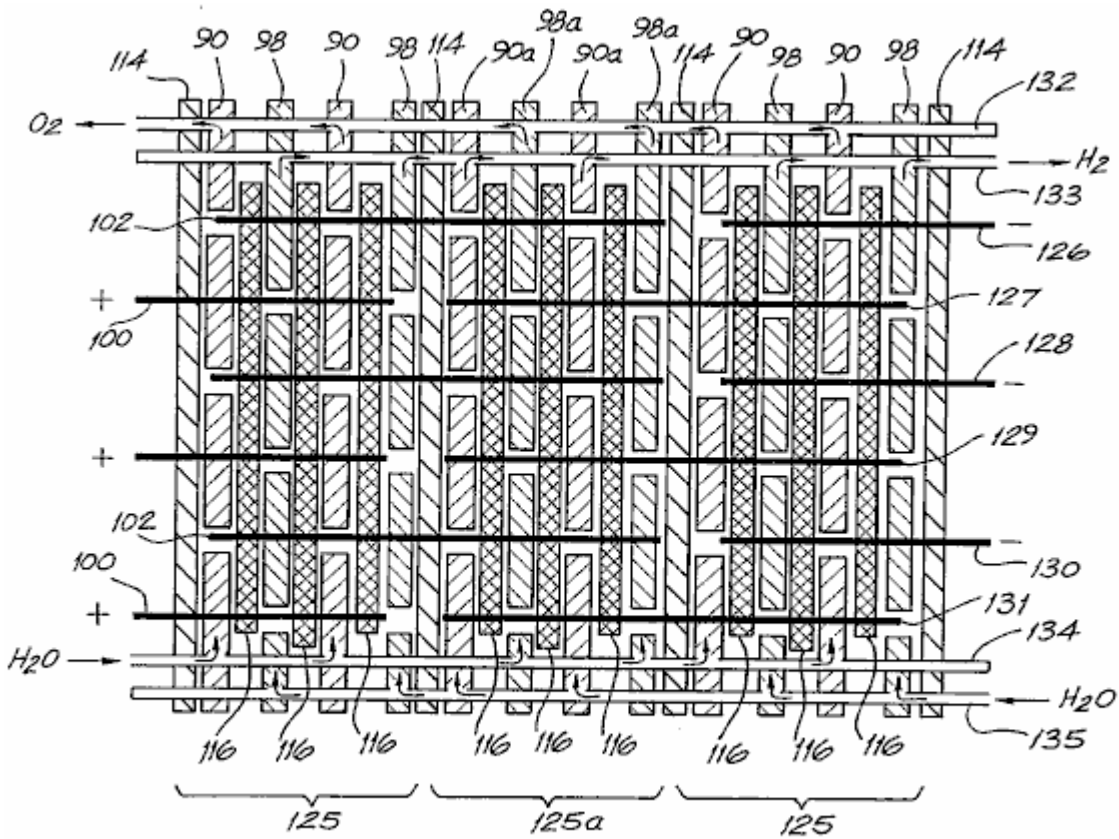


FIG. 5a

Fig.5B shows a stylised representation of Fig.5a:

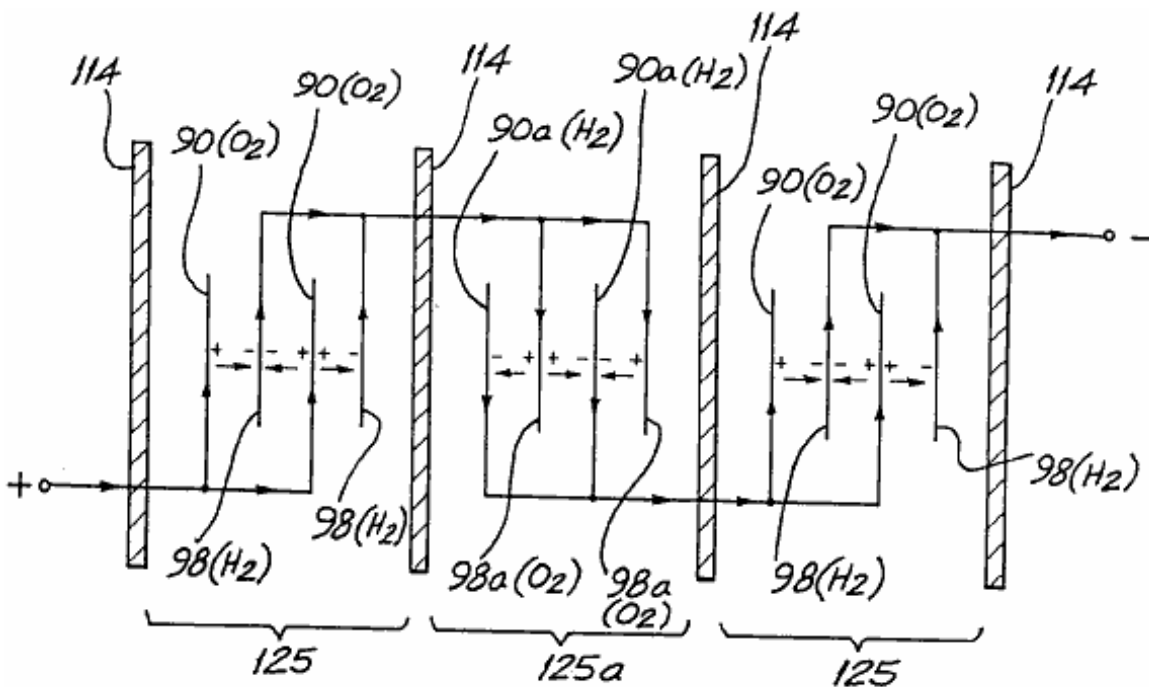


FIG. 5b

Fig.5C shows an electrical equivalent circuit of Fig.5A and

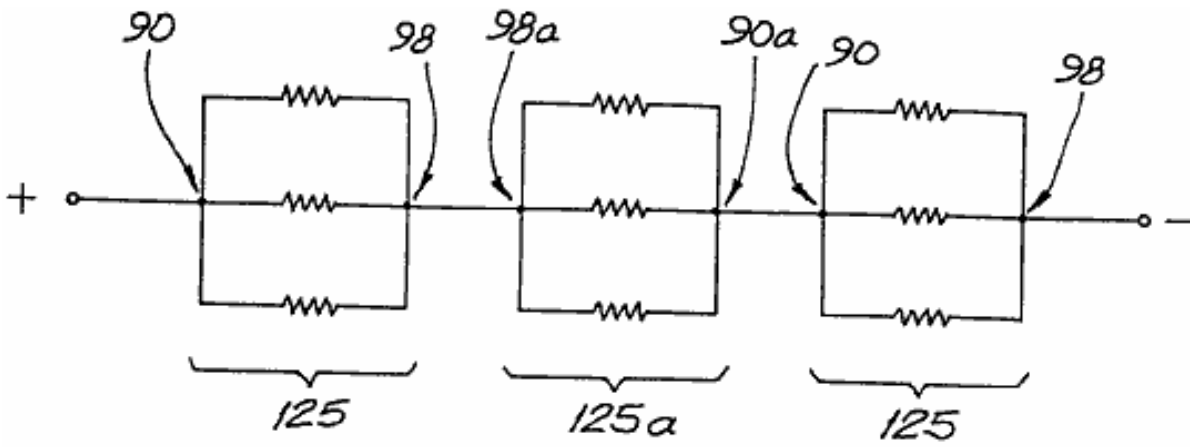


FIG. 5c

Fig.6 shows a gas collection system for use with the cell bank separation system of Figs. 4 and 5a.

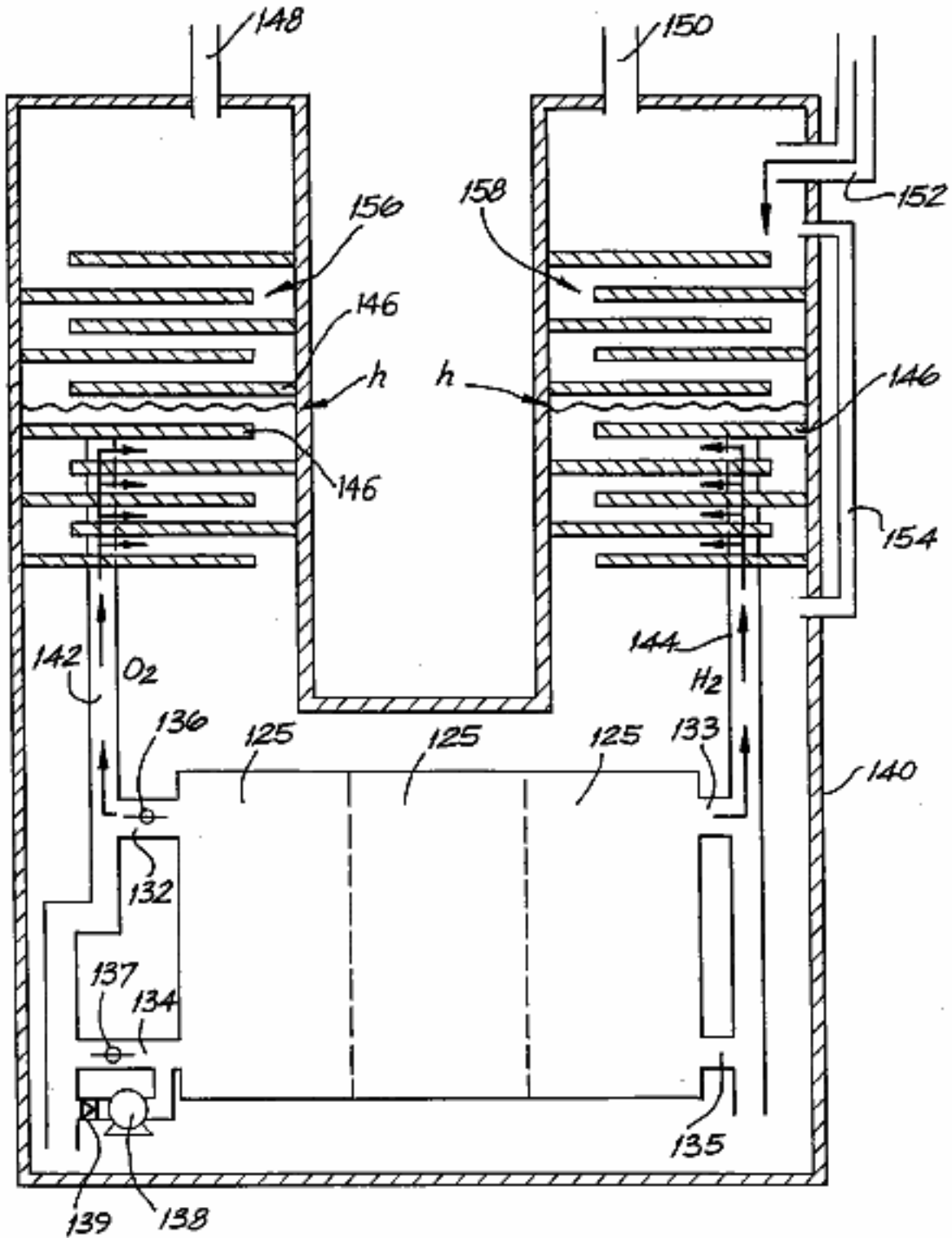


FIG. 6

The remaining drawings are:
Fig.7A and Fig.7B are views of a first cell plate:

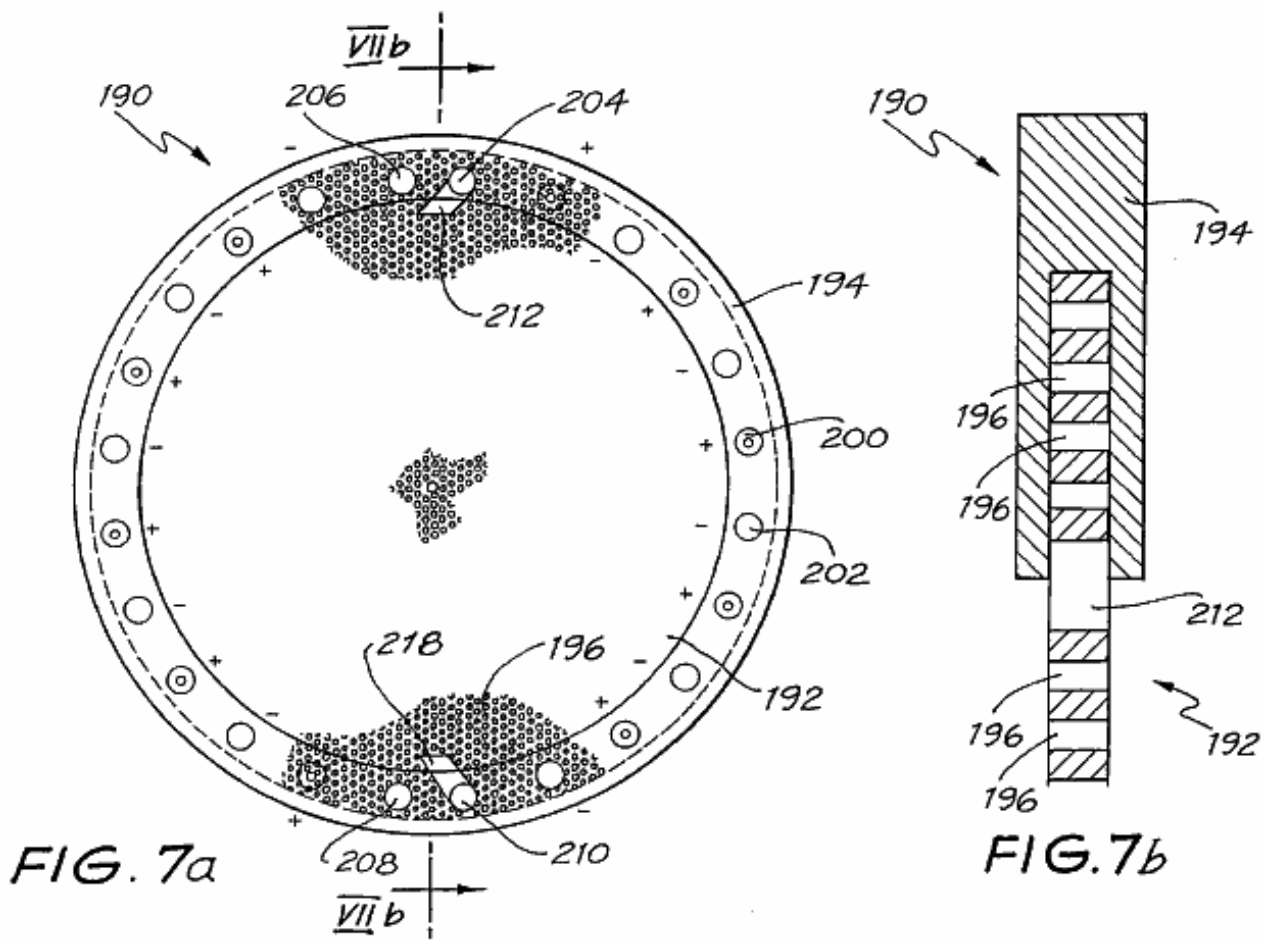


Fig.8A and Fig.8B are views of a second cell plate:

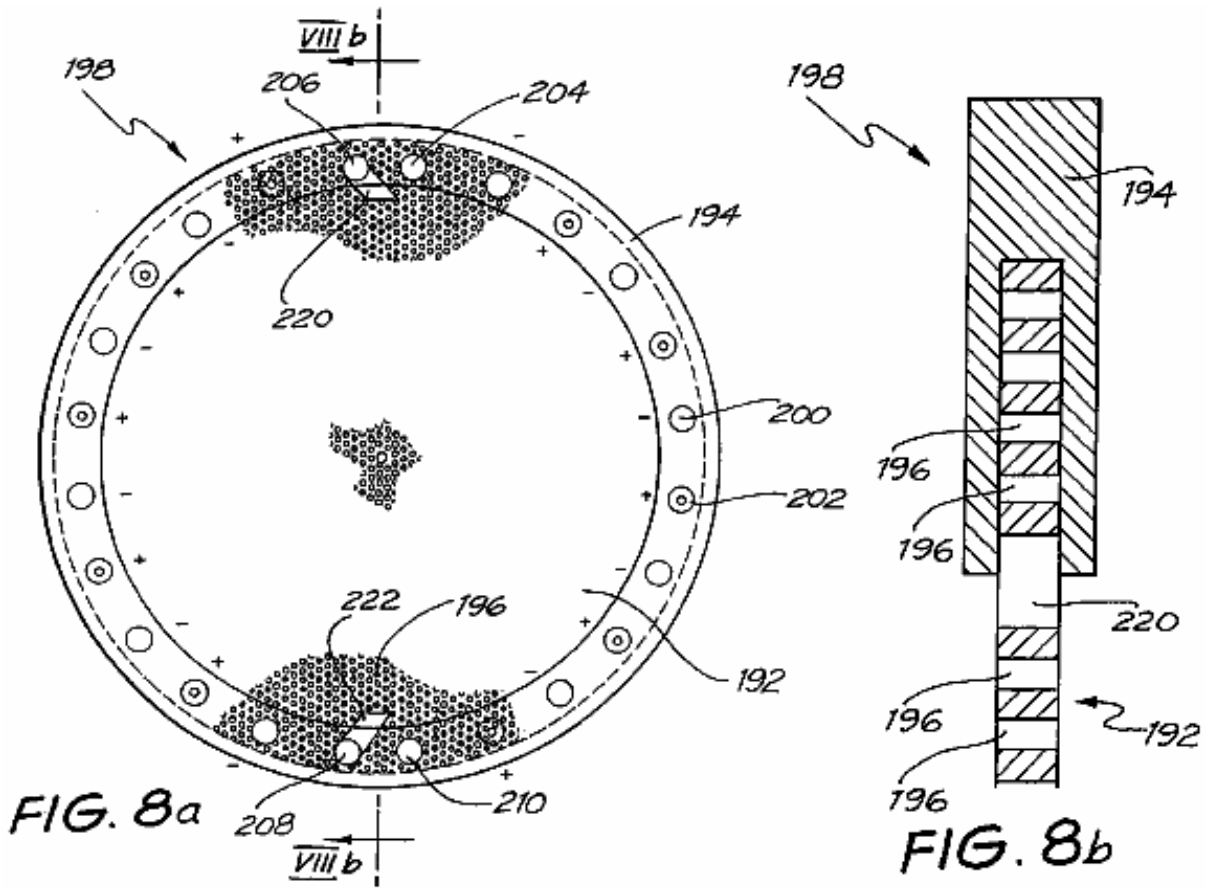


Fig.9 shows detail of the edge margin of the first cell plate:

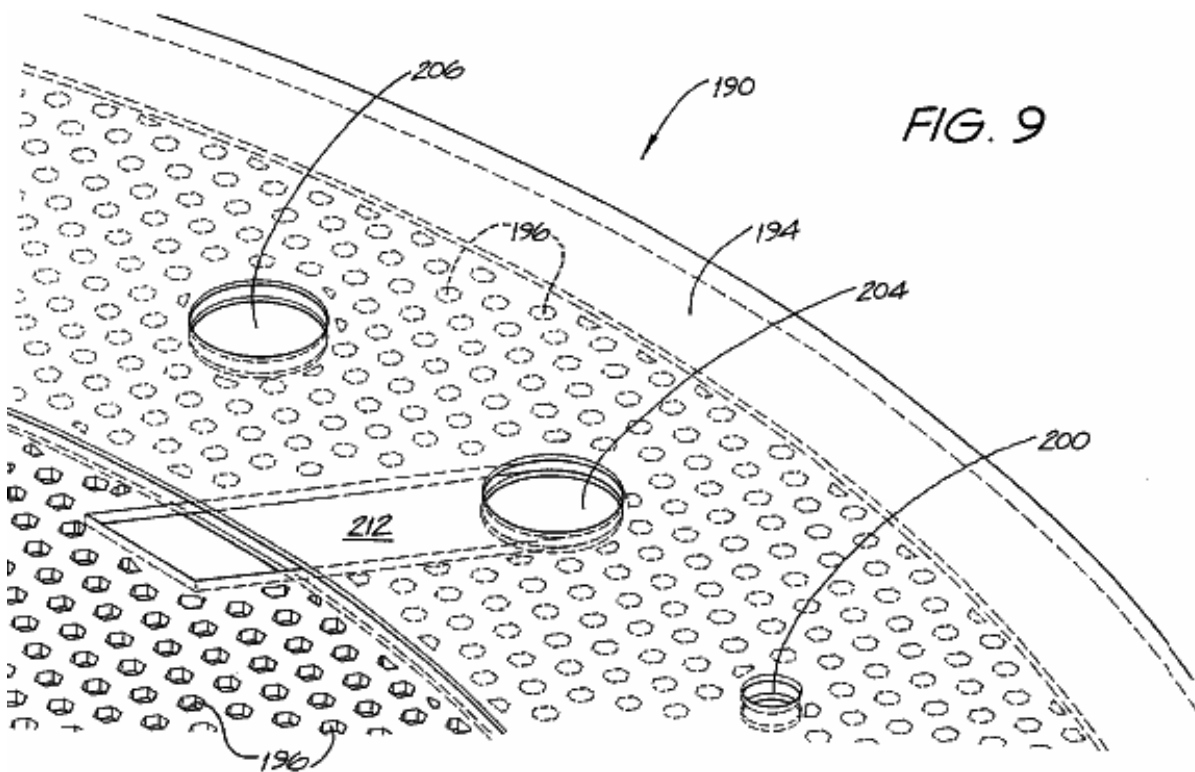


Fig 10 shows an exploded stacked arrangement of the cell plates shown in Fig.7A and Fig.8A:

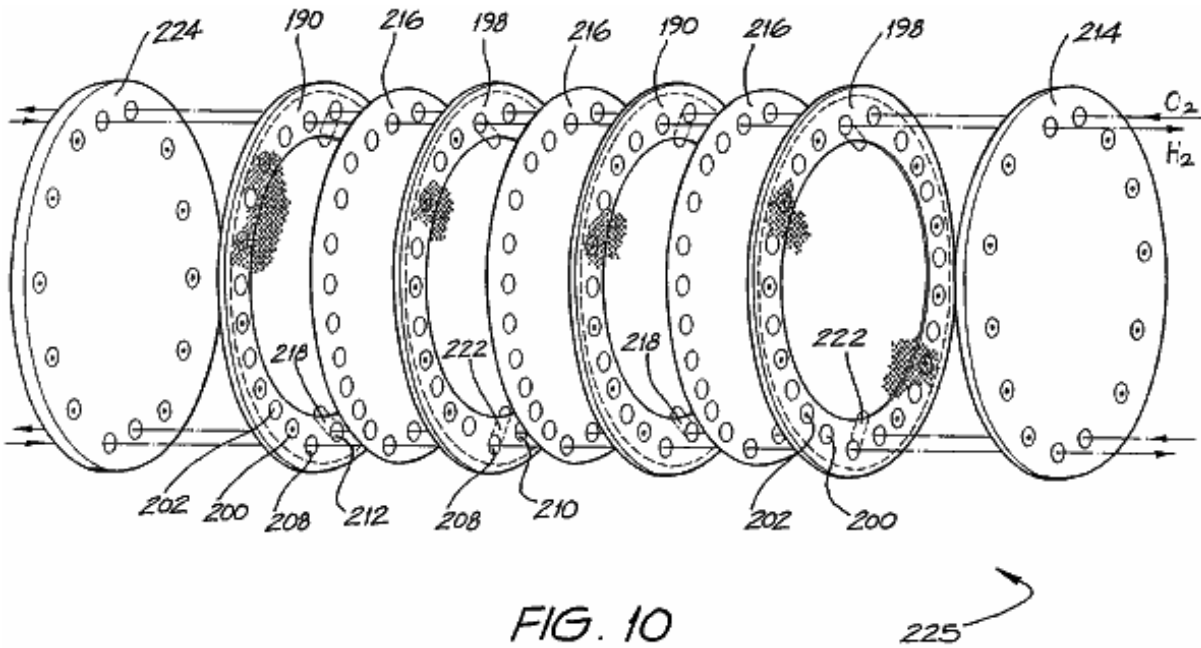


Fig.11 is a cross-sectional view of three of the stacked cell plates shown in Fig.10 in the vicinity of a gas port:

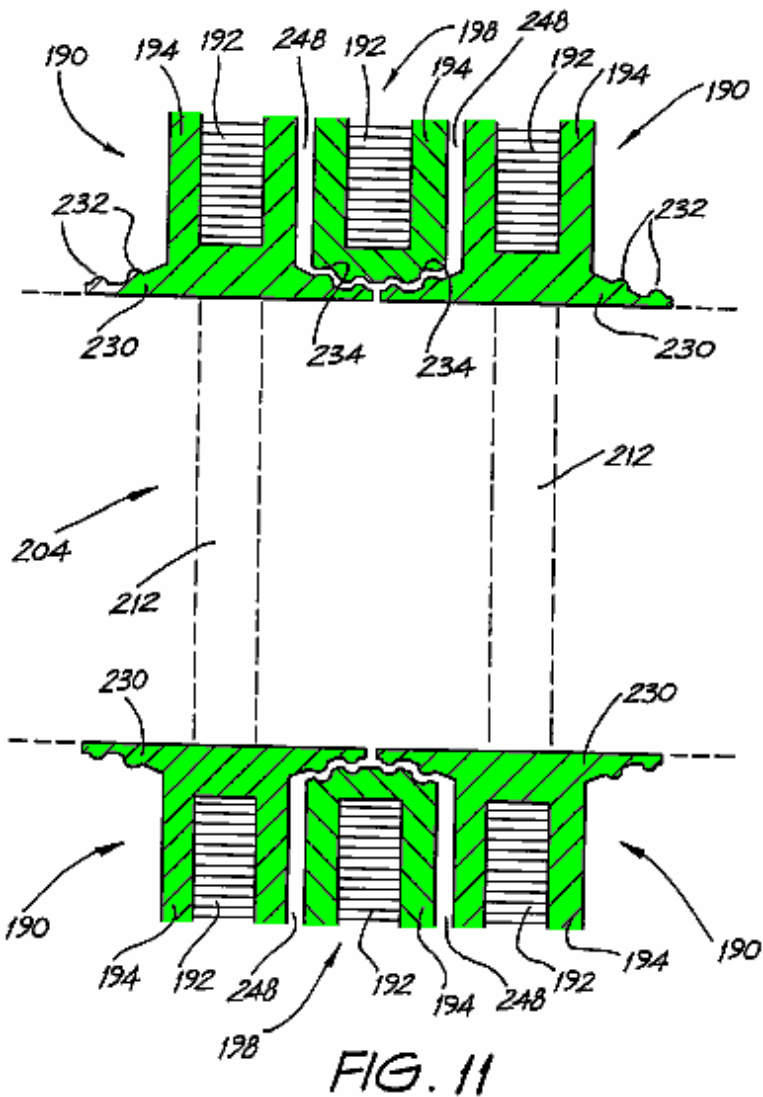


Fig.12A and Fig.12B respectively show detail of the first and second cell plates in the vicinity of a gas port:

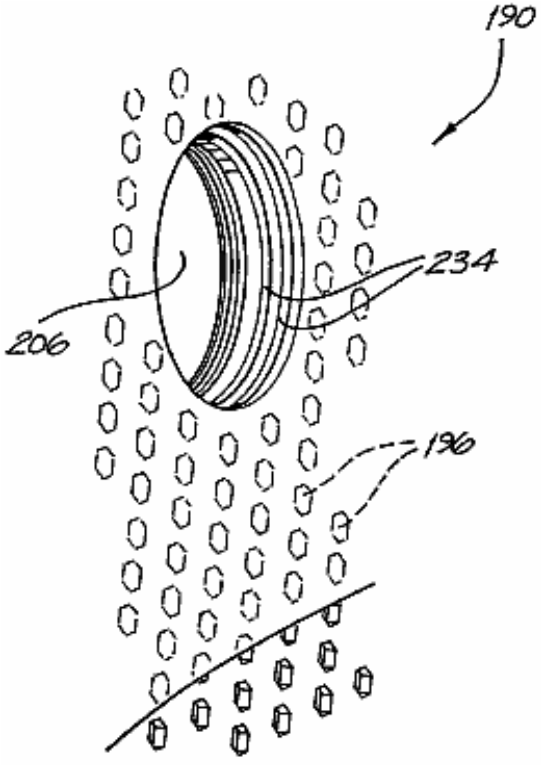


FIG. 12a

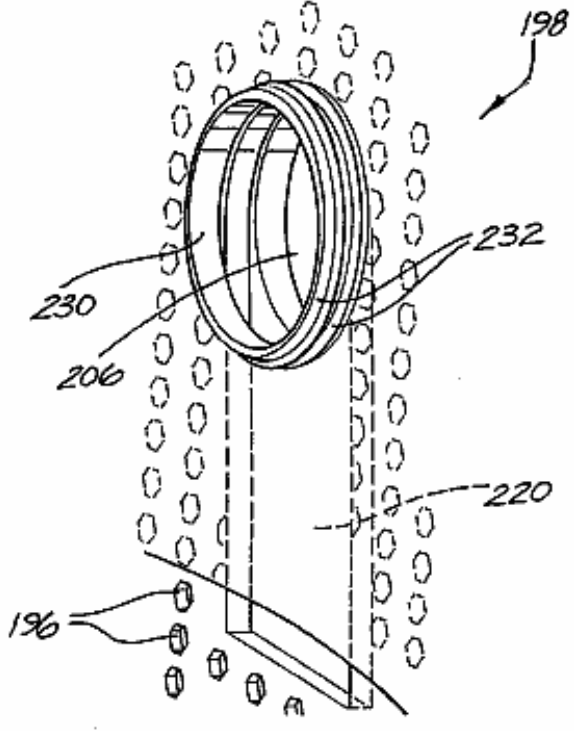


FIG. 12b

Fig.13 is a cross-sectional view of a cell unit of four stacked cell plates in the vicinity of an interconnecting shaft:

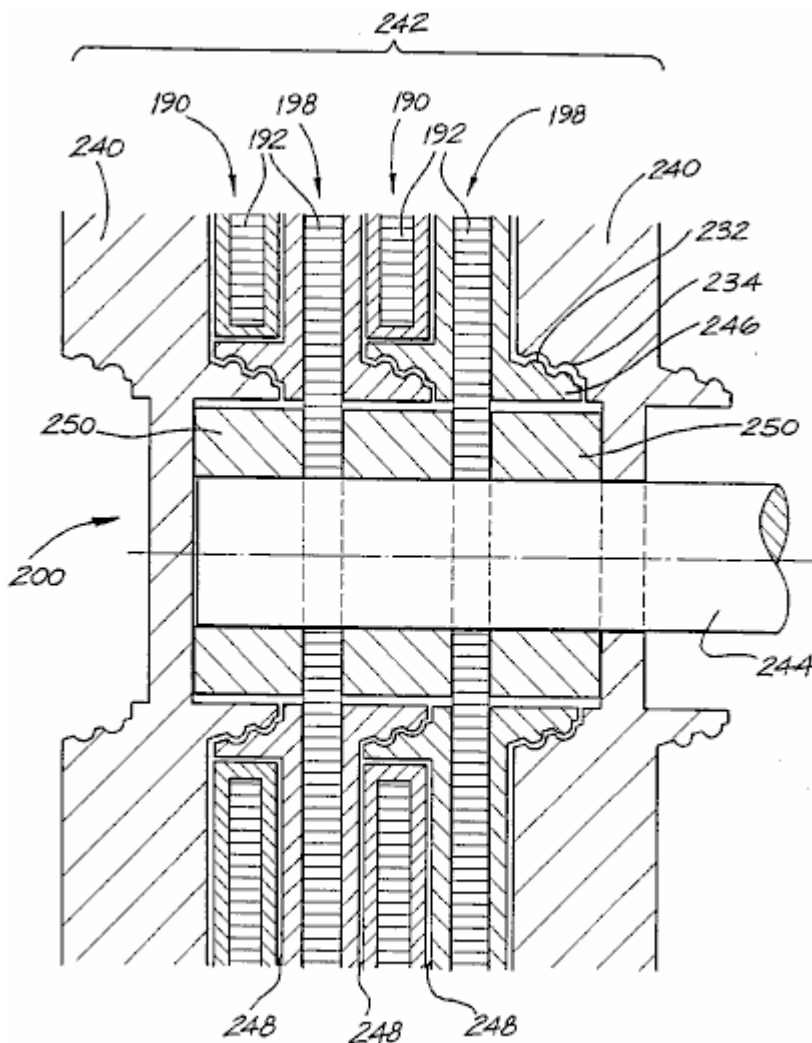


FIG. 13

Fig.14 shows a perspective view of a locking nut used in the arrangement of Fig.13:

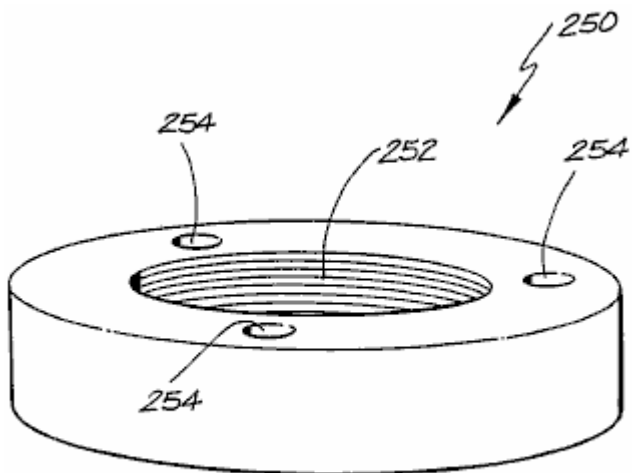


FIG. 14

Fig.15 shows an idealised electrolysis system:

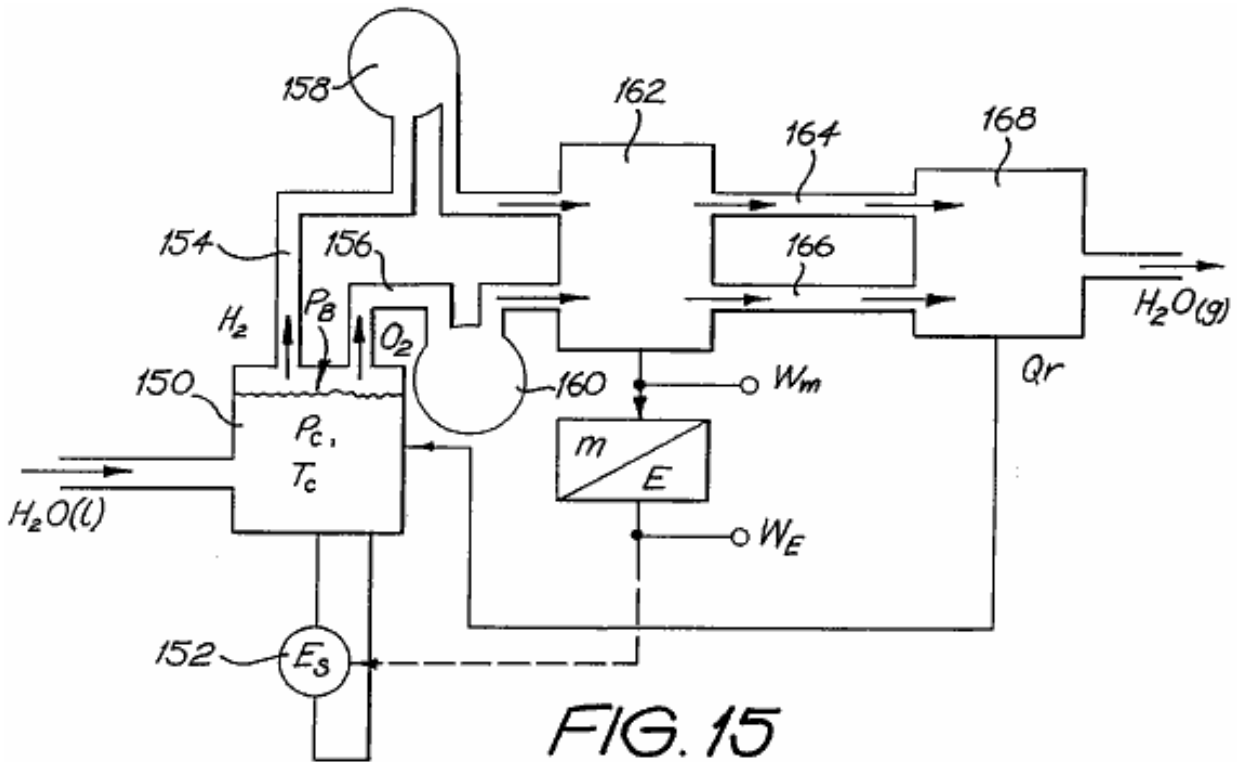


FIG. 15

Figs.16-30 are graphs supporting the system of Fig.15 and the availability of over-unity energy:

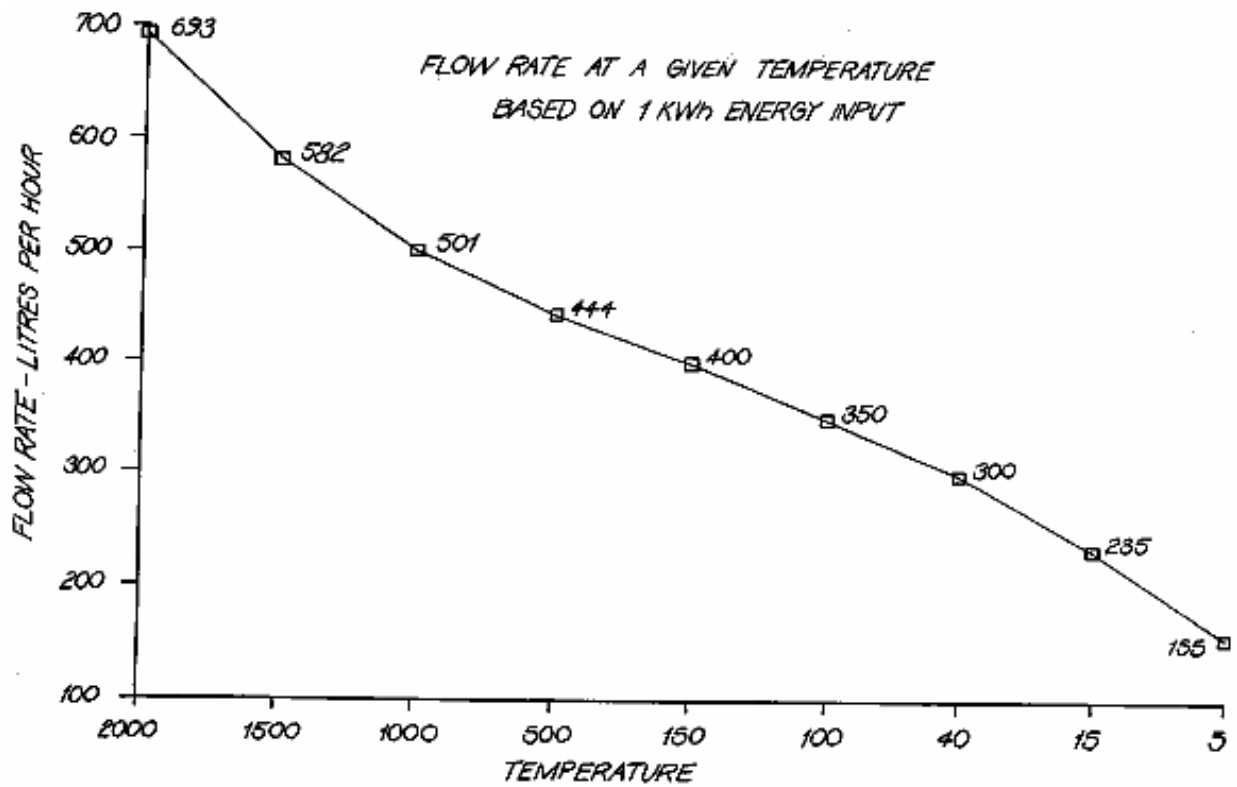


FIG. 16

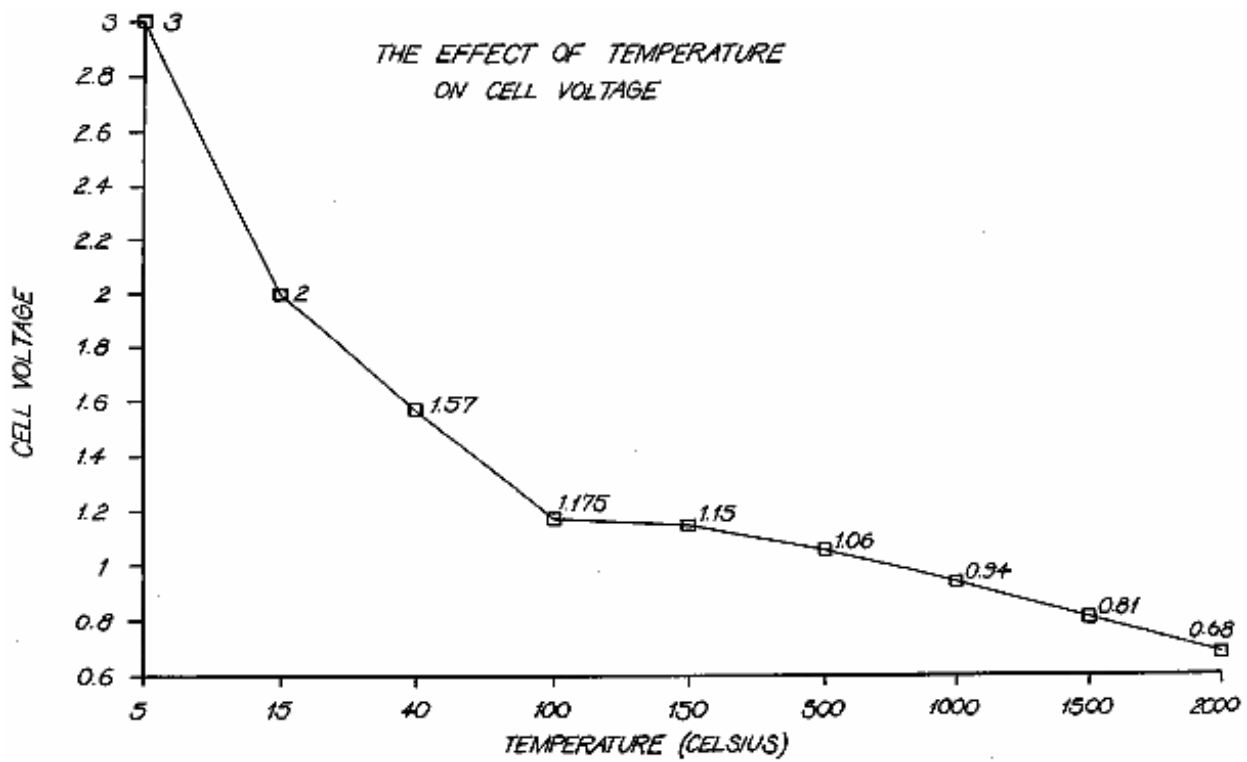


FIG. 17

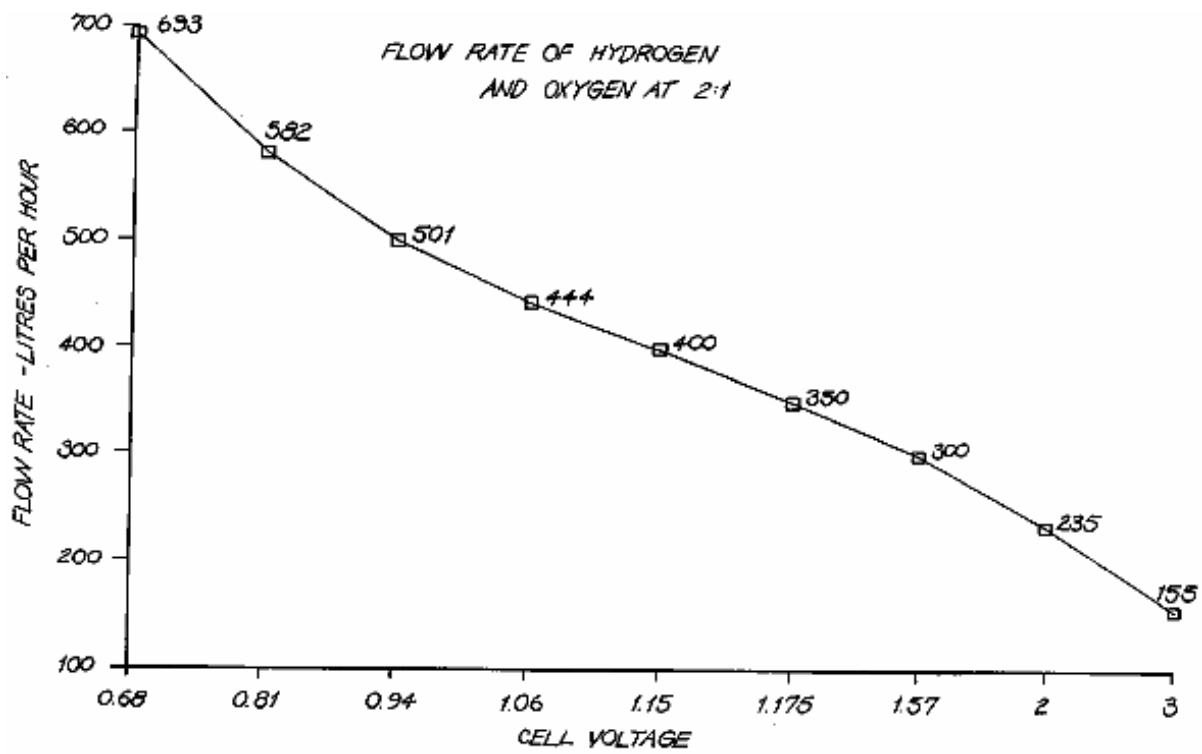


FIG. 18

TEST RUN	AMPS	VOLTS	TEMP C° (INITIAL)	TEMP C° (FINAL)	TIME (SECS.)	WATTS (A·V)	PRESSURE (psi)	FLOW RATE (lph)
1	47.2	38.5	40	-	-	1817.2	1 ATMOSPHER.	-
2	54.3	34.4	-	70	222.13	1867.9	1 ATMOSPHER.	89
3	65.2	34.4	40	70	26.37	2242.9	100-170	95
4	65.6	29.1	40	70	20.47	1909.0	300-410	97
5	62.9	29.4	40	70	22.93	1849.3	500-610	97
6	64.7	29.4	40	70	24.19	1902.2	700-850	98
7	63.9	29.2	40	70	24.13	1865.9	900-1050	98
8	64.0	29.3	40	70	22.37	1875.2	1100-1250	98
9	64.4	29.3	40	70	21.83	1886.9	1300-1450	98
10	63.7	29.1	40	70	23.34	1853.7	1500-1660	99
11	62.7	29.7	40	70	12.76	1862.2	1700-1890	100
12	61.9	29.9	40	70	11.17	1850.8	1900-1990	-
13	61.7	30.0	40	70	11.19	1851.0	2090-2170	-
14	60.7	30.6	40	70	15.71	1857.4	2290-2400	-
15	66.6	29.9	40	70	-	1991.3	2280-2420	-
16	61.7	30.0	45	70	-	1851.0	2270-2390	-
17	62.5	30.0	57	70	-	1875.0	2350-2380	-
18	62.0	30.1	59	70	-	1866.2	2350-2390	-
19	62.9	29.9	-	-	-	1880.7	2400-2420	-
20	63.0	29.4	-	-	-	1852.2	2430-2450	-

FIG. 19

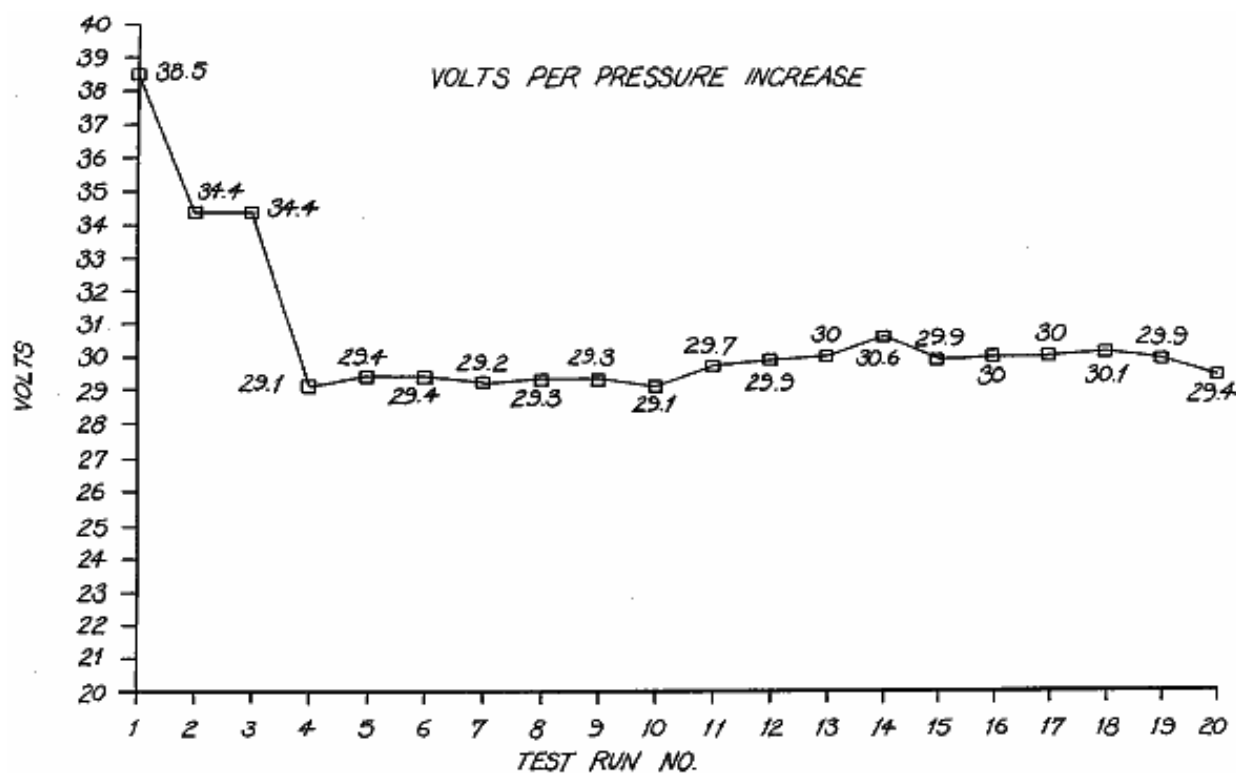


FIG. 20

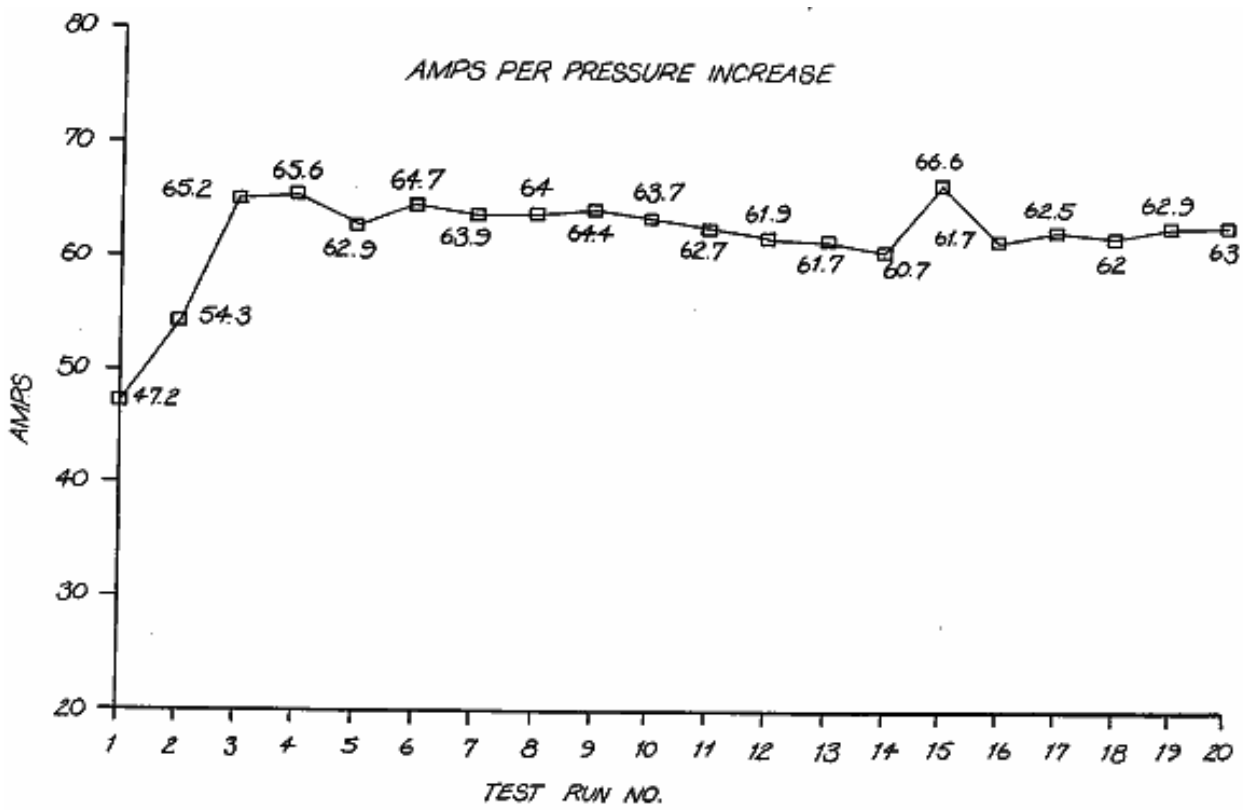


FIG.21

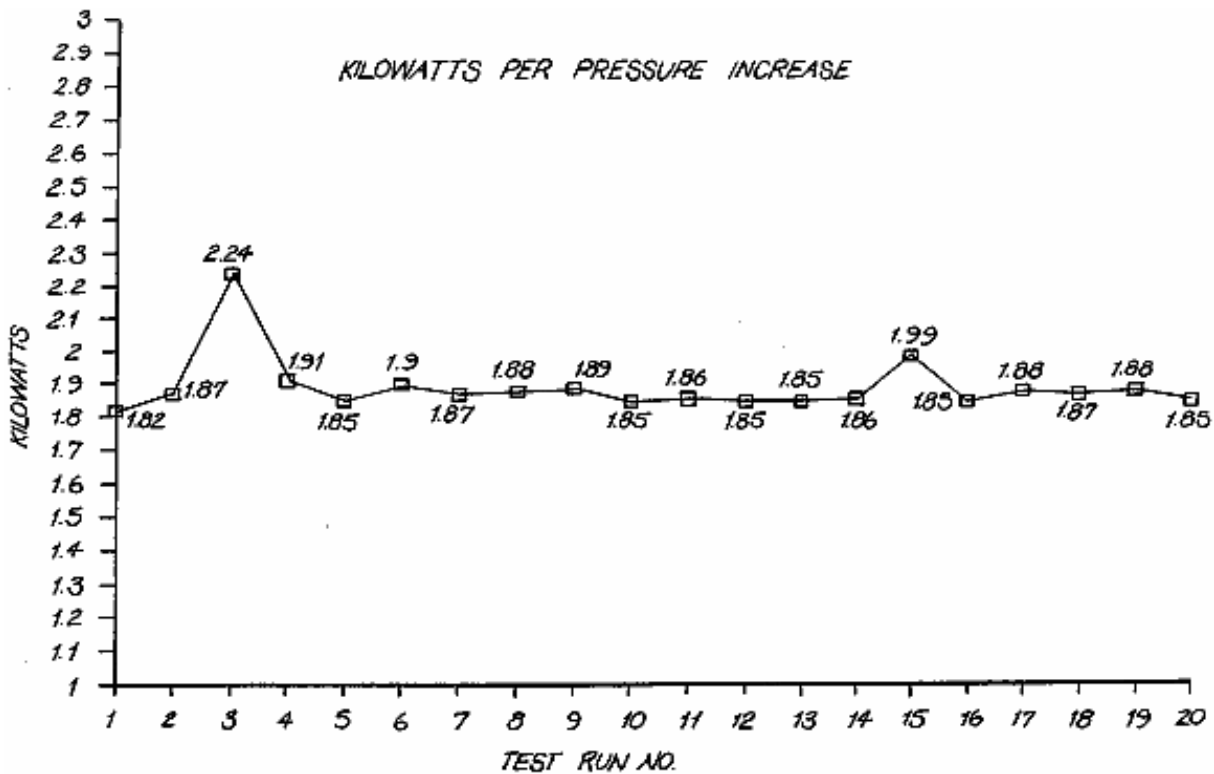


FIG.22

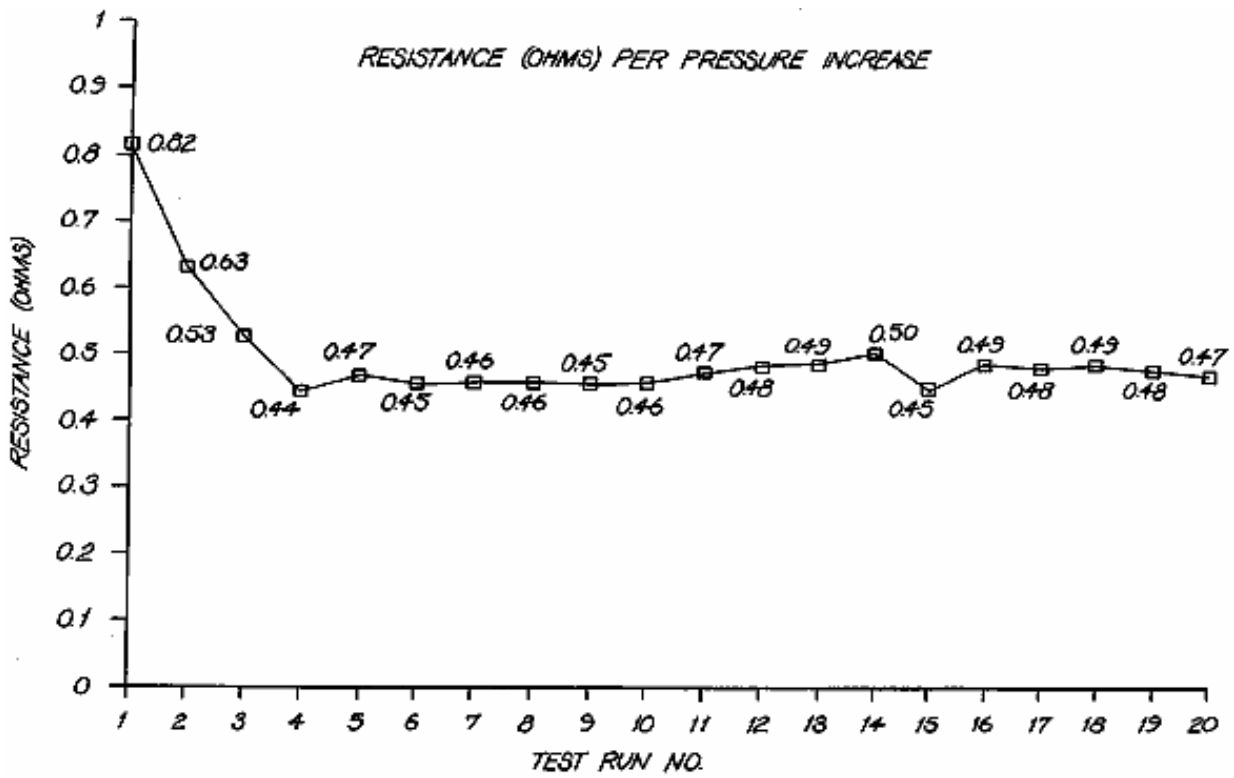


FIG.23

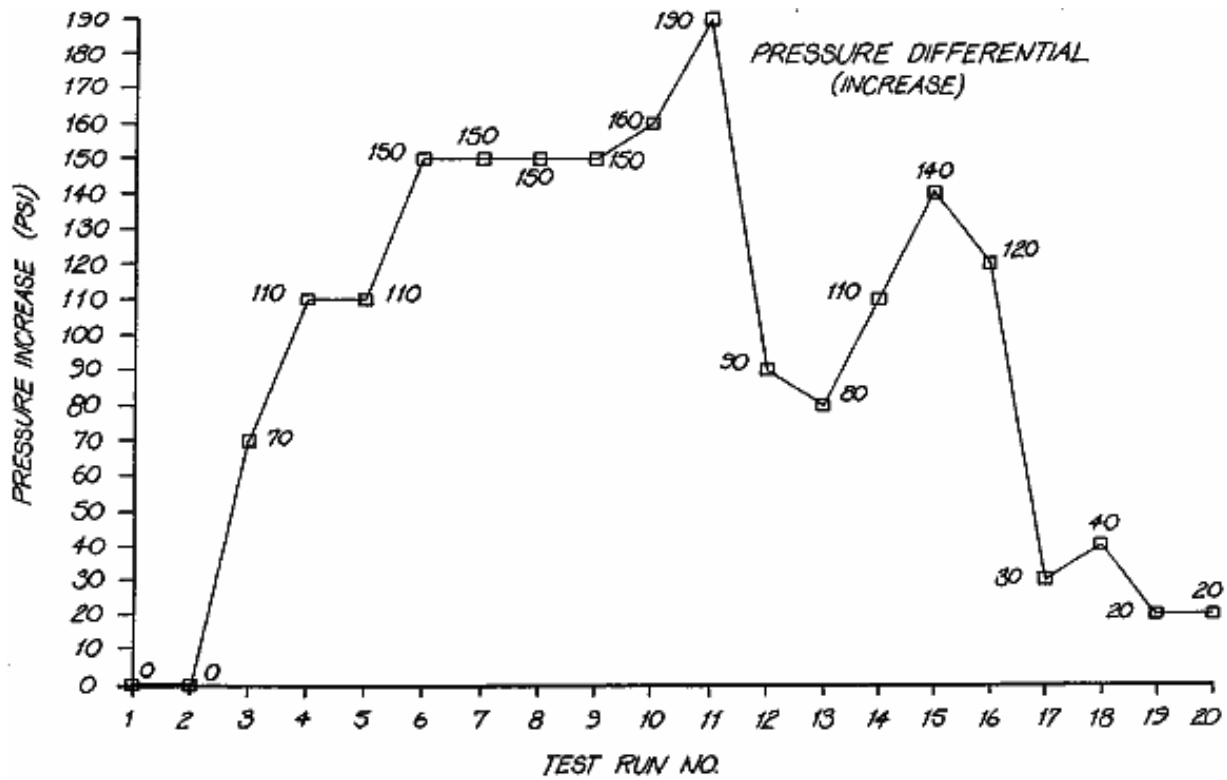


FIG.24

FLOW RATE ANALYSIS PER PRESSURE INCREASE

RUN	VOLTS	AMPS	TEMP C°	TIME-SECS	VOLUME (LITRES)	LPH	PRESSURE PSI
1	27.5	49.7	70	114.0	2.8	88	14.7
2	34.4	54.3	70	222.13	5.49	89	14.7
3	20.5	51.9	87	190.0	4.7	89	50
4	20	55	80	33.0	1.0	109	170
5	34.4	65.2	70	26.37	0.69	95	200
6	29.1	65.6	70	20.47	0.55	97	410
7	29.4	62.9	70	22.93	0.62	97	610
8	29.4	64.7	70	24.19	0.66	98	850
9	29.2	63.9	70	24.13	0.66	98	1050
10	29.3	64.0	70	22.37	0.61	98	1250
11	29.3	64.4	70	21.83	0.59	98	1450
12	29.1	63.7	70	23.34	0.64	99	1660
13	29.7	62.7	70	12.76	0.35	100	1890

FIG. 25

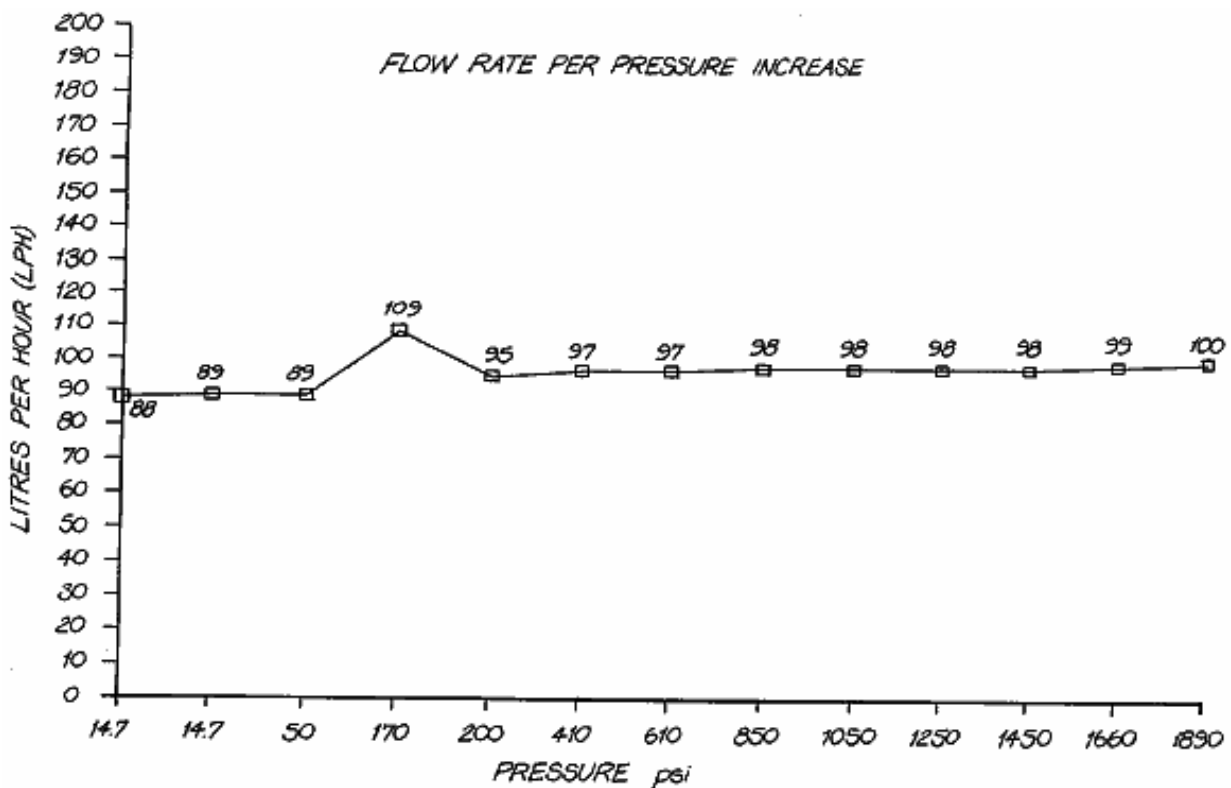


FIG. 26

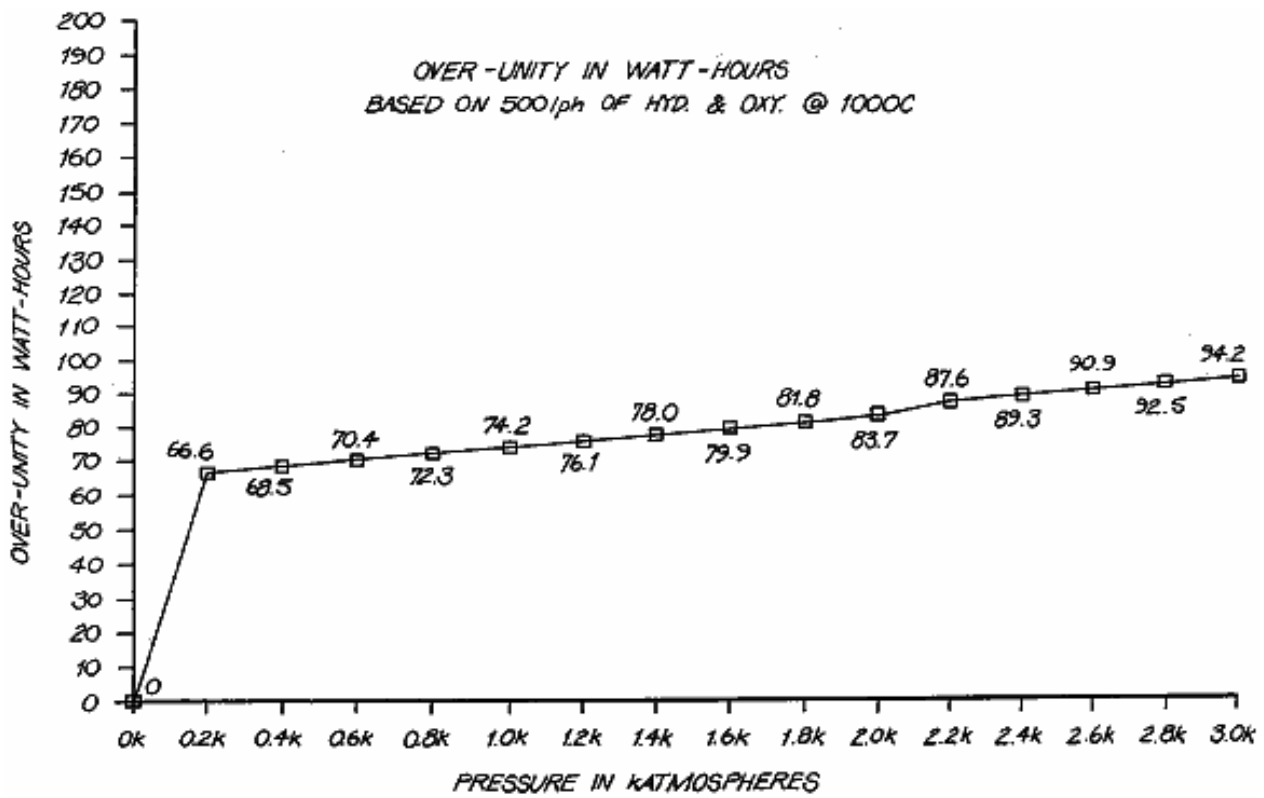


FIG.27

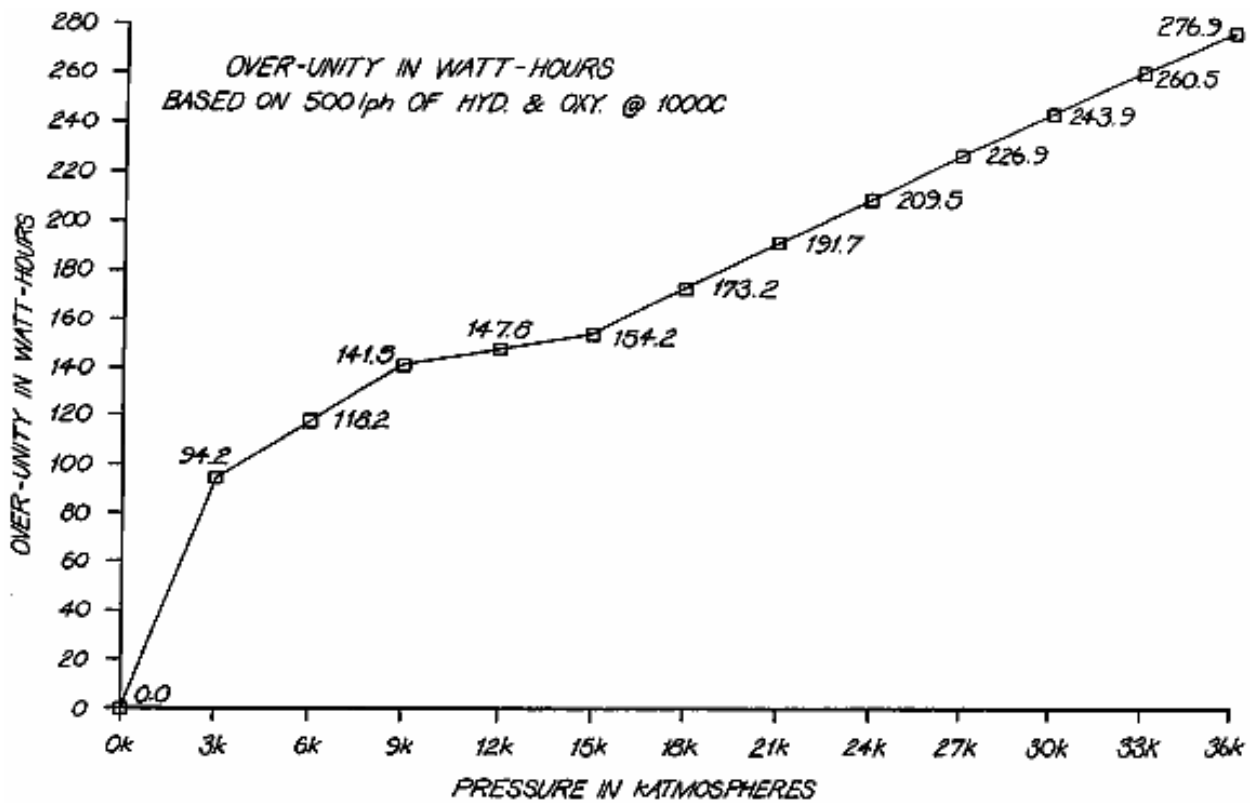


FIG.28

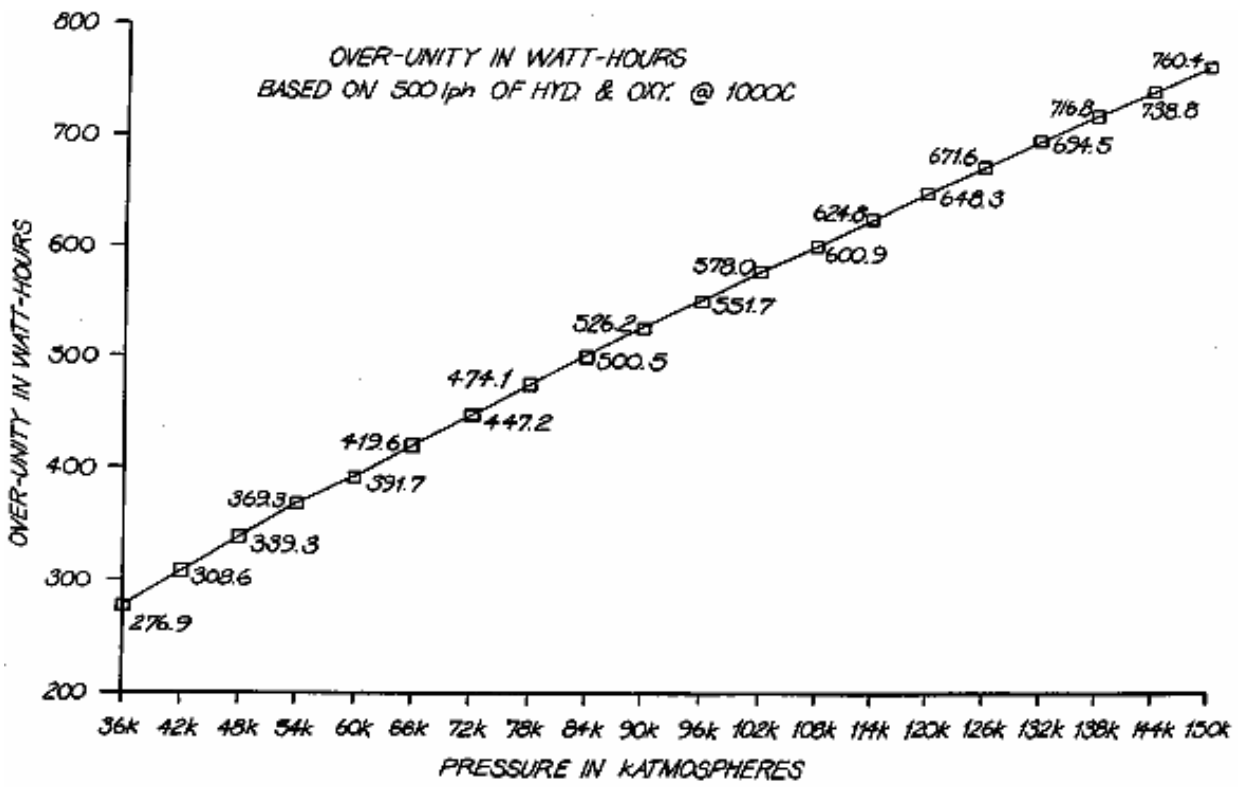


FIG. 29

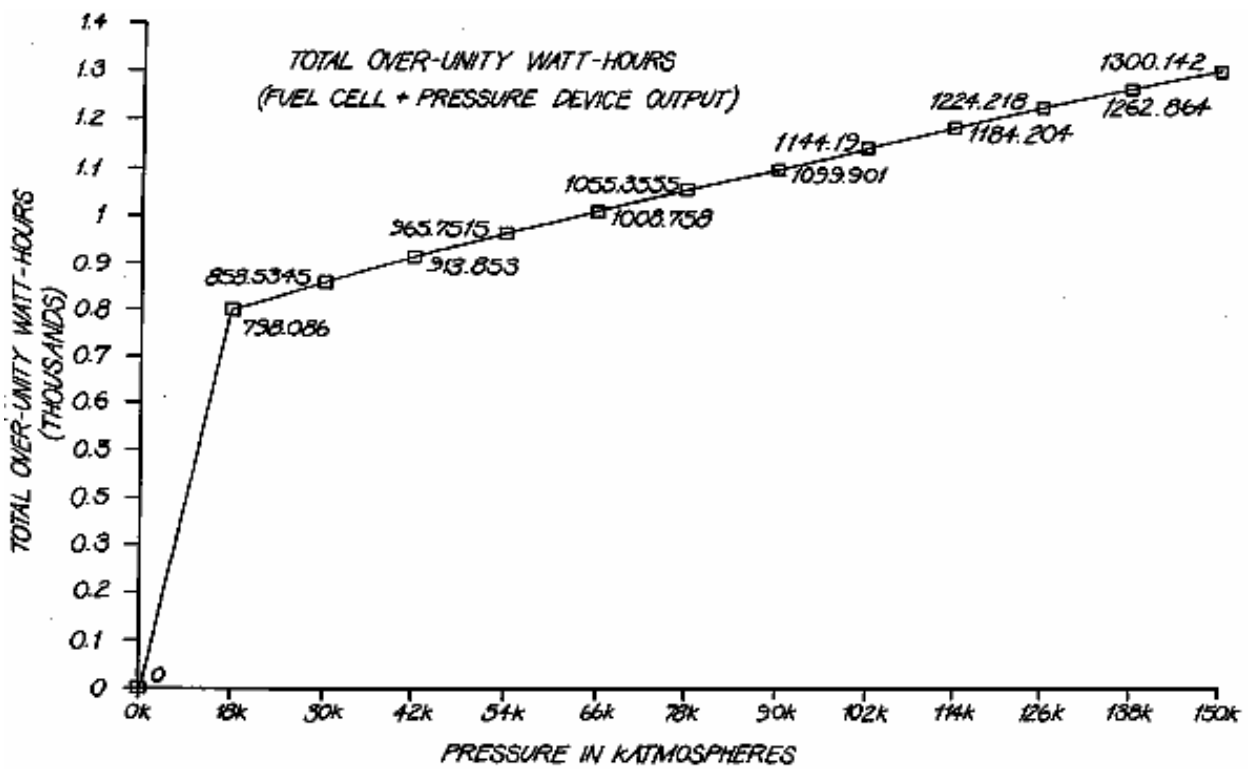
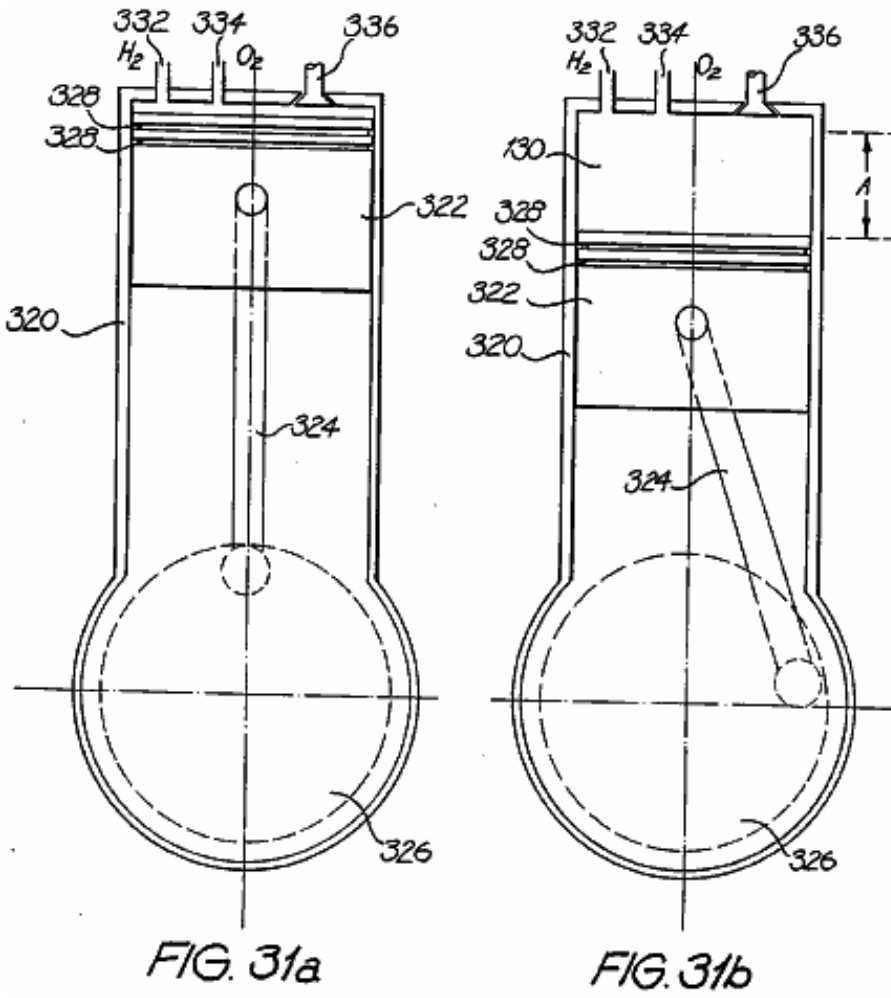


FIG. 30

Figs. 31a to 31e show a hydrogen/oxygen gas-driven internal combustion engine:



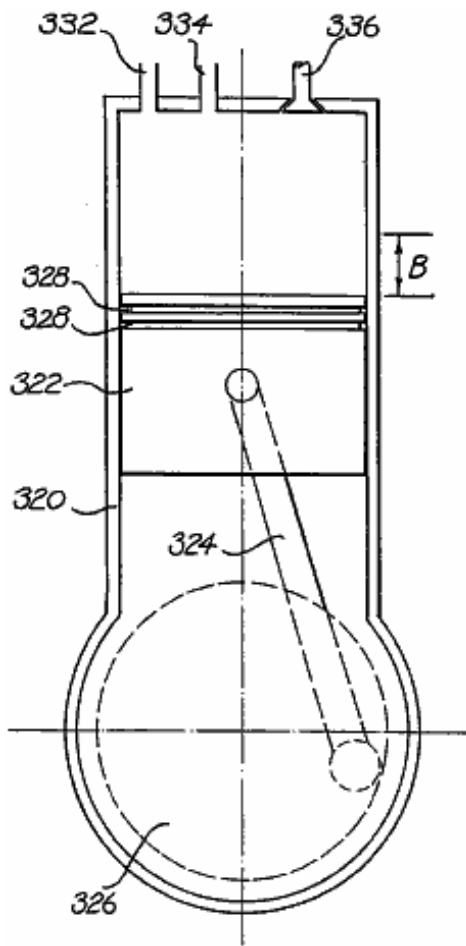


FIG. 31c

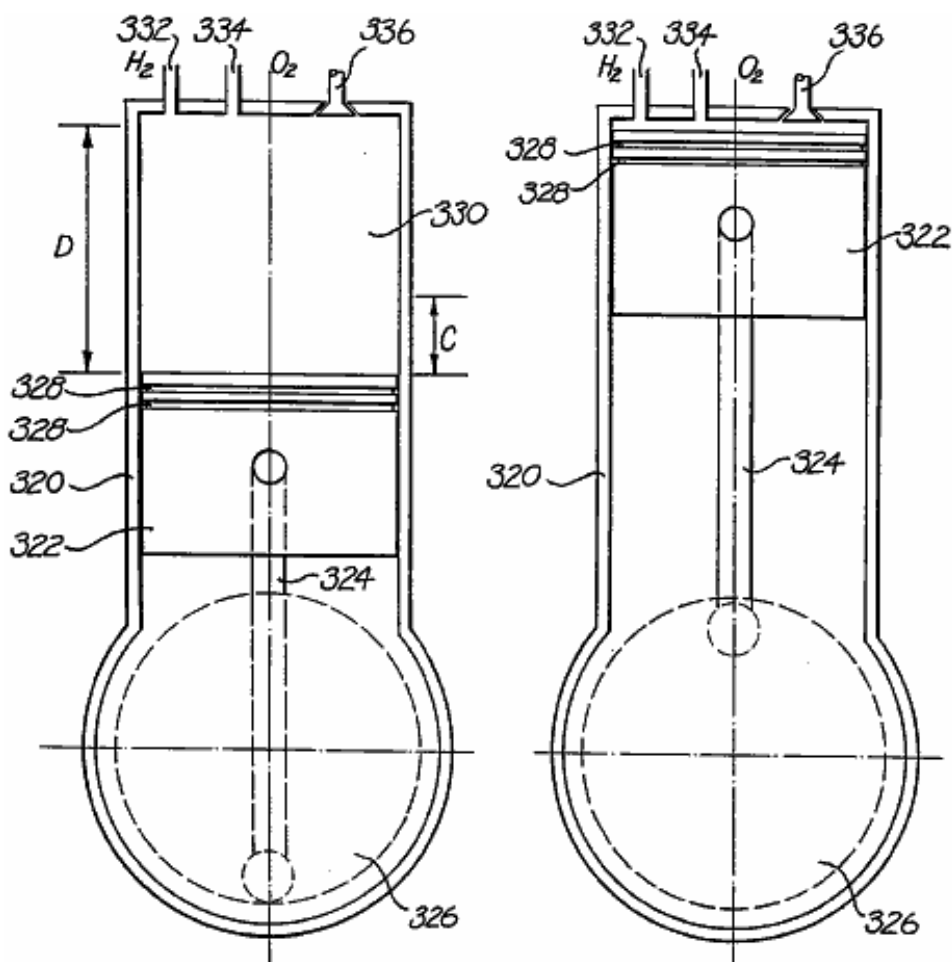
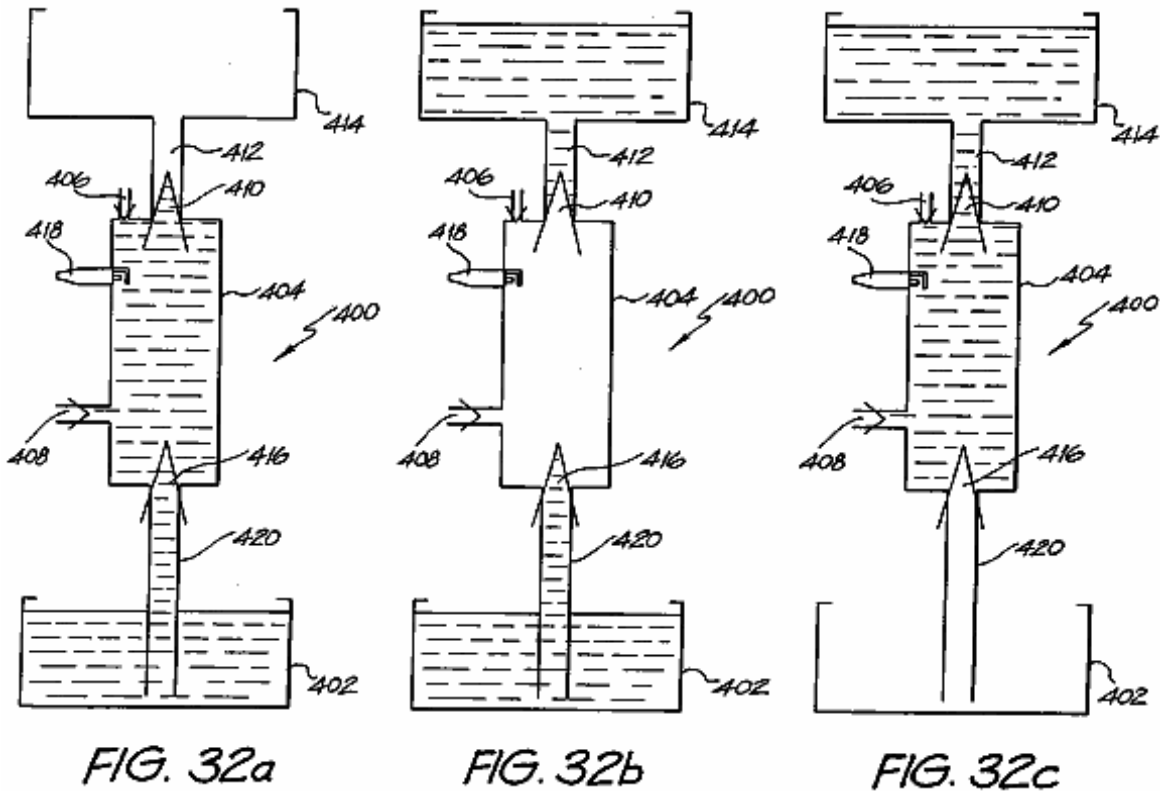


FIG. 31d

FIG. 31e

Figs. 32a-32c show a gas-driven implosion pump:



DETAILED DESCRIPTION AND BEST MODE OF PERFORMANCE

Fig.1A and Fig.2A show embodiments of a first and second type of cell plate 90, 98 as an end view. Fig.1B and Fig.2B are partial cross-sectional views along the respective mid-lines as shown. Common reference numerals have been used where appropriate. The plates 90, 98 can have the function of either an anode (+) or a cathode (-), as will become apparent. Each comprises an electrode disc 92 which is perforated with hexagonally shaped holes 96. The disc 92 is made from steel or resin-bonded carbon or conductive polymer material. The disc 92 is housed in a circular rim or sleeve 94. The function of the perforations 96 is to maximise the surface area of the electrode disc 92 and minimise the weight over solid constructions by 45%.

By way of example, for a disc of diameter 280 mm, the thickness of the disc must be 1 mm in order to allow the current density (which ranges from 90 A / 2,650 cm² - 100 A / 2,940 cm² of the anode or cathode) to be optimal. If the diameter of the plate is increased, which consequently increases the surface area, it is necessary to increase the thickness of the plate in order to maintain uniformity of conductance for the desired current density.

The hexagonal perforations in a 1 mm disc have a distance of 2 mm between the flats, twice the thickness of the plate in order to maintain the same total surface area prior to perforation, and be 1 mm away from the next adjacent perforation to allow the current density to be optimal. A (flat-to-flat) distance of 1 mm between the hexagonal perforations is required, because a smaller distance will result in thermal losses and a larger distance will add to the overall weight of the plate.

The sleeve 94 is constructed of PVC material and incorporates a number of equally spaced shaft holes 100,102. The holes are for the passage of interconnecting shafts provided in a stacked arrangement of the plates 90, 98 forming the common conductor for the respective anode and cathode plates. The further two upper holes 104,106 each support a conduit respectively for the out-flow of oxygen and hydrogen gases. The further holes 108,110 at the bottom of the sleeve 94 are provided for the inlet of water and electrolyte to the respective cell plates 90, 98.

Fig.3 shows an enlarged view of a portion of the cell plate **90** shown in **Fig.1A**. The port hole **104** is connected to the hexagonal perforations **96** within the sleeve **94** by an internal channel **112**. A similar arrangement is in place for the other port hole **106**, and for the water/electrolyte supply holes **108, 110**.

If it is the case that the hydrogen and oxygen gases liberated are to be kept separate (i.e. not to be formed as an admixture), then it is necessary to separate those gases as they are produced. In the prior art this is achieved by use of diaphragms which block the passage of gases and effectively isolate the water/electrolyte on each side of the diaphragm. Ionic transfer thus is facilitated by the conductive nature of the diaphragm material (i.e. a water - diaphragm - water path). This results in an increase in the ionic resistance and hence a reduction in efficiency.

Fig.4 shows an exploded stacked arrangement of four cell plates, being an alternative stacking of two (anode) cell plates **90** and two (cathode) cell plates **98**. The two ends of the stacked arrangement of cell plates delineates a single cell unit **125**.

Interposed between each adjacent cell plate **90, 98** is a PTFE separation **116**. Although not shown in **Fig.4**, the cell unit includes separate hydrogen and oxygen gas conduits that respectively pass through the stacked arrangement of cell plates via the port holes **106, 104** respectively. In a similar way, conduits are provided for the supply of water/electrolyte, respectively passing through the holes **108, 110** at the bottom of the respective plates **90, 98**. Only two pairs of anode/cathode cell plates are shown. The number of such plates can be greatly increased per cell unit **125**.

Also not shown are the interconnecting conductive shafts that electrically interconnect alternative common cell plates. The reason for having a large diameter hole in one cell plate adjacent to a smaller diameter hole in the next cell plate, is so that an interconnecting shaft will pass through the larger diameter hole, and not make an electrical connection (i.e. insulated with PVC tubing) rather only forming an electrical connection between alternate (common) cell plates.

Fig.4 is an exploded view of one cell unit **125** arrangement. When fully constructed, all the elements are stacked in intimate contact. Mechanical fastening is achieved by use of one of two adhesives such as (a) "PUR-FECT LOK" (TM) 34-9002, which is a Urethane Reactive Hot Melt adhesive with a main ingredient of Methylene Bisphenyl/Diisocyanate (MDI), and (b) "MY-T-BOND" (TM) which is a PVC solvent based adhesive. Both adhesives are Sodium Hydroxide resistant, which is necessary because the electrolyte contains 20% Sodium Hydroxide. In that case the water/electrolyte only resides within the area contained within the cell plate sleeve **94**. Thus the only path for the inlet of water/electrolyte is by bottom channels **118, 122** and the only outlet for the gases is by the top channels **112, 120**. In a system constructed and tested by the inventor, the thickness of the cell plates **90, 98** is 1 mm (2 mm on the rim because of the PVC sleeve **94**), with a diameter of 336 mm. The cell unit **125** is segmented from the next cell by an insulating PVC segmentation disc **114**. A segmentation disc **114** is also placed at the beginning and end of the entire cell bank. If there is to be no separation of the liberated gases, then the PTFE membranes **116** are omitted and sleeve **94** is not required.

The PTFE membrane **116** is fibrous and has 0.2 to 1.0 micron interstices. A suitable type is type Catalogue Code J, supplied by Tokyo Roshi International Inc (Advantec). The water/electrolyte fills the interstices and ionic current flows only via the water - there is no contribution of ionic flow through the PTFE material itself. This leads to a reduction in the resistance to ionic flow. The PTFE material also has a 'bubble point' that is a function of pressure, hence by controlling the relative pressures at either side of the PTFE separation sheets, the gases can be 'forced' through the interstices to form an admixture, or otherwise kept separate. Other advantages of this arrangement include a lesser cost of construction, improved operational efficiency and greater resistance to faults.

Fig.5A is a stylised, and exploded, schematic view of a linear array of three series-connected cell units **125**. For clarity, only six interconnecting shafts **126-131** are shown. The shafts **126-131** pass through the respective shaft holes **102,100** in the various cell plates **90,98** in the stacked arrangement. The polarity attached to each of the exposed end shafts, to which the DC supply is connected also is indicated. The shafts **126-131** do not run the full length of the three cell banks **125**. The representation is similar to the arrangement shown in **Fig.7A** and **Fig.8**. One third the full DC source voltage appears across each anode/cathode cell plate pair **90,98**.

Further, the gas conduits **132,133**, respectively for hydrogen and oxygen, that pass through the port holes **104,106** in the cell plates **90,98** also are shown. In a similar way, water/electrolyte conduits **134,135**, passing through the water port holes **108,110** in the cell plates also are shown.

Fig.5B particularly shows how the relative potential difference in the middle cell bank **125** changes. That is, the plate electrode **90a** now functions as a cathode (i.e. relatively more negative) to generate hydrogen, and the plate electrode **98a** now functions as an anode (i.e. relatively more positive) to generate oxygen. This is the case for every alternate cell unit. The arrowheads shown in **Fig.5B** indicate the electron and ionic current circuit. **Fig.5C** is an electrical equivalent circuit representation of **Fig.5B**, where the resistive elements represent the ionic resistance between adjacent anode/cathode plates. Thus it can be seen that the cell units are connected in series.

Because of the change of function of the cell plates **90a** and **98a**, the complementary gases are liberated at each, hence the respective channels **112** are connected to the opposite gas conduit **132,133**. Practically, this can be achieved by the simple reversal of the cell plates **90,98**.

Fig.6 shows the three cell units **125** of **Fig.5A** connected to a gas collection arrangement. The cell units **125** are located within a tank **140** which is filled with water/electrolyte to the indicated level **h**. The water is consumed as the electrolysis process proceeds, and replenishing supply is provided via the inlet **152**. The water/electrolyte level **h** can be viewed via the sight glass **154**. In normal operation, the different streams of hydrogen and oxygen are produced and passed from the cell units **125** to respective rising columns **142,144**. That is, the pressure of electrolyte on opposed sides of the PTFE membranes **116** is equalised, thus the gases cannot admix.

The columns **142,144** also are filled with the water/electrolyte, and as it is consumed at the electrode plates, replenishing supply of electrolyte is provided by way of circulation through the water/electrolyte conduits **134,135**. The circulation is caused by entrainment by the liberated gases, and by the circulatory inducing nature of the conduits and columns.

The upper extent of the tank **140** forms two scrubbing towers **156,158**, respectively for the collection of oxygen and hydrogen gases. The gases pass up a respective column **142,144**, and out from the columns via openings therein at a point within the interleaved baffles **146**. The point where the gases exit the columns **142,144** is beneath the water level **h**, which serves to settle any turbulent flow and entrained electrolyte. The baffles **146** located above the level **h** scrub the gas of any entrained electrolyte, and the scrubbed gas then exits by respective gas outlet columns **148,150** and so to a gas receiver. The level **h** within the tank **140** can be regulated by any convenient means, including a float switch, again with the replenishing water being supplied by the inlet pipe **152**.

The liberated gases will always separate from the water/electrolyte solution by virtue of the difference in densities. Because of the relative height of the respective set of baffles, and due to the density differential between the gases and the water/electrolyte, it is not possible for the liberated hydrogen and oxygen gases to mix. The presence of the full volume of water within the tank **140** maintains the cell plates in an immersed state, and further serves to absorb the shock of any internal detonations should they occur.

In the event that a gas admixture is required, then firstly the two flow valves **136,137** respectively located in the oxygen gas outlet conduit **132** and water/electrolyte inlet port **134** are closed. This blocks the outlet path for the oxygen gas and forces the inlet water/electrolyte to pass to the inlet conduit **134** via a one-way check valve **139** and pump **138**. The water/electrolyte within the tank **140** is under pressure by virtue of its depth (volume), and the pump **138** operates to increase the pressure of water/electrolyte occurring about the anode cell plates **90,98a** to be at an increased pressure with respect to the water/electrolyte on the other side of the membrane **116**.

This pressure differential is sufficient to cause the oxygen gas to migrate through the membrane, thus admixed oxygen and hydrogen are liberated via the gas output conduit **133** and column **144**. Since there is no return path for the water/electrolyte supplied by the pump **138**, the pressure about the cell plates **90,98a** will increase further, and to a point where the difference is sufficient such that the water/electrolyte also can pass through the membrane **116**. Typically, pressure differential in the range of 1.5 - 10 psi is required to allow passage of gas, and a pressure differential in the range of 10 - 40 psi for water/electrolyte.

While only three cell units **125** are shown, clearly any number, connected in series, can be implemented.

Embodiments of the present invention now will be described. Where applicable, like reference numerals have been used.

Fig.7A and **Fig.7B** show a first type of cell plate **190** respectively as an end view and as an enlarged cross-sectional view along line **VIIb-VIIb**. The cell plate **190** differs from the previous cell plate **90** shown in **Fig.1A** and **Fig.1B** in a number of important aspects. The region of the electrode disc **192** received within the sleeve **194** now is perforated. The function of these perforations is to further reduce the weight of the cell plate **190**. The shaft holes **200,202** again pass through the electrode disc **192**, but so too do the upper holes **204,206** through which the conduits for the out-flow of liberated hydrogen and oxygen gases pass. The bottom holes **208,210**, provided for the inlet of water and electrolyte, now also are located in the region of the sleeve **194** coincident with the perforated edge margin of the electrode disc **192**. The channels **212,218** respectively communicating with the port hole **204** and the supply hole **210** also are shown.

Fig.8A and **Fig.8B** show a second type of cell plate **198** as a companion to the first cell plate **190**, and as the same respective views. The second cell plate **198** is somewhat similar to the cell plate **98** previously shown in **Fig.2A** and **Fig.2B**. The differences between them are the same as the respective differences between the cell plate shown in **Fig.1A** and **Fig.1B** and the one shown in **Fig.7A** and **Fig.7B**. The arrangement of the respective channels **220,222** with respect to the port **206** and the water supply hole **208** also are shown.

In the fabrication of the cell plates **190,198**, the sleeve **94** is injection moulded from PVC plastics material formed about the edge margin of the electrode disc **192**.

The injection moulding process results in the advantageous forming of interconnecting sprues forming within the perforations **196** in the region of the disc **192** held within the sleeve **194**, thus firmly anchoring the sleeve **194** to the disc **192**.

Fig.9 is a view similar to **Fig.3**, but for the modified porting arrangement and perforations (shown in phantom where covered by the sleeve) of the region of the disc **192** within and immediately outside of the sleeve **194**.

Fig.10 shows a cell unit **225** in the form of an exploded alternating stacking of first and second cell plates **190,198**, much in the same manner as **Fig.4**. Only two pairs of anode/cathode cell plates are shown, however the number of such plates can be greatly increased per cell unit **225**. The membrane **216** preferably is type QR-HE silica fibre with the alternative being PTFE. Both are available from Tokyo Roshi International Inc. (Advantec) of Japan. Type QR-HE is a hydrophobic material having 0.2 to 1.0 micron interstices, and is capable of operation at temperatures up to 1,000⁰C. The cell unit **225** can be combined with other such cell units **225** to form an interconnected cell bank in the same manner as shown in **Fig.5A**, **Fig.5B** and **Fig.5C**.

Furthermore, the cell units can be put to use in a gas collection arrangement such as that shown in **Fig.6**. Operation of the gas separation system utilising the new cell plates **190,198** is in the same manner as previously described.

Fig.11 is an enlarged cross-sectional view of three cell plates in the vicinity of the oxygen port **204**. The cell plates comprise two of the first type of plate **190** shown in **Fig.7A** constituting a positive plate, and a single one of the second type of plate **198** shown in **Fig.8A** representing a negative plate. The location of the respective channels **212** for each of the positive cell plates **190** is shown as a dashed representation. The respective sleeves **194** of the three cell plates are formed from moulded PVC plastics as previously described, and in the region that forms the perimeter of the port **204** have a configuration particular to whether a cell plate is positive or negative. In the present case, the positive cell plates **190** have a flanged foot **230** that, in the assembled construction, form the contiguous boundary of the gas port **204**. Each foot **230** has two circumferential ribs **232** which engage corresponding circumferential grooves **234** in the sleeve **194** of the negative plate **198**.

The result of this arrangement is that the exposed metal area of the negative cell plates **198** always are insulated from the flow of oxygen gas liberated from the positive cell plates **190**, thus avoiding the possibility of spontaneous explosion by the mixing of the separated hydrogen and oxygen gases. This arrangement also overcomes the unwanted production of either oxygen gas or hydrogen gas in the gas port.

For the case of the gas port **206** carrying the hydrogen gas, the relative arrangement of the cell plates is reversed such that a flanged footing now is formed on the sleeve **194** of the other type of cell plate **198**. This represents the converse arrangement to that shown in **Fig.11**.

Fig.12A and **Fig.12B** show perspective side views of adjacent cell plates, with **Fig.12A** representing a positive cell plate **190** and **Fig.12B** representing a negative cell plate **198**. The gas port **206** thus formed is

to carry hydrogen gas. The mating relationship between the flanged foot **230** and the end margin of the sleeve **194** of the positive cell plate **192** can be seen, particularly the interaction between the ribs **232** and the grooves **234**.

Fig.13 is a cross-sectional view of four cell plates formed into a stacked arrangement delimited by two segmentation plates **240**, together forming a cell unit **242**. Thus there are two positive cell plates **190** and two negative cell plates **198** in alternating arrangement. The cross-section is taken in the vicinity of a shaft hole **202** through which a negative conductive shaft **244** passes. The shaft **244** therefore is in intimate contact with the electrode discs **192** of the negative cell plates **198**. The electrode discs **192** of the positive cell plates **190** do not extend to contact the shaft **244**. The sleeve **194** of the alternating negative cell plates **198** again have a form of flanged foot **246**, although in this case the complementarily shaped ribs and grooves are formed only on the sleeve of the negative cell plates **198**, and not on the sleeve **194** of the positive cell plates **190**. The segmentation plates **240** serve to delimit the stacked plates forming a single cell unit **242**, with ones of the cell units **242** being stacked in a linear array to form a cell bank such as has been shown in **Fig.5A**.

A threaded shaft nut **250** acts as a spacer between adjacent electrodes connecting with the shaft **244**. **Fig.14** is a perspective view of the shaft nut **250** showing the thread **252** and three recesses **254** for fastening nuts, screws or the like.

In all of **Figs.11 to 13**, the separation membrane material **216** is not shown, but is located in the spaces **248** between adjacent cell plates **190,198**, extending to the margins of the electrode disks **192** in the vicinity of the gas ports **204,206** or the shaft holes **200,202**.

An electrolysis hydrogen and oxygen gas system incorporating a gas separation system, such as has been described above, can therefore be operated to establish respective high pressure stores of gas. That is, the separated hydrogen and oxygen gases liberated by the electrolysis process are stored in separate gas receivers or pressure vessels. The pressure in each will increase with the continuing inflow of gas.

Fig.15 shows an idealised electrolysis system, comprising an electrolysis cell **150** that receives a supply of water to be consumed. The electrolysis process is driven by a DC potential (**Es**) **152**. The potential difference applied to the cell **150** therefore must be sufficient to electrolyse the water into hydrogen and oxygen gas dependent upon, inter alia, the water pressure **PC** and the back pressure of gas **PB** acting on the surface of the water, together with the water temperature **Tc**. The separate liberated hydrogen and oxygen gases, by a priming function, are pressurised to a high value by storage in respective pressure vessels **158,160**, being carried by gas lines **154,156**.

The pressurised store of gases then are passed to an energy conversion device that converts the flow of gas under pressure to mechanical energy (e.g. a pressure drop device **162**). This mechanical energy recovered **WM** is available to be utilised to provide useful work. The mechanical energy **WM** also can be converted into electrical form, again to be available for use.

The resultant exhausted gases are passed via lines **164,166** to a combustion chamber **168**. Here, the gases are combusted to generate heat **QR**, with the waste product being water vapour. The recovered heat **QR** can be recycled to the electrolysis cell to assist in maintaining the advantageous operating temperature of the cell.

The previously described combustion chamber **168** can alternatively be a fuel cell. The type of fuel cell can vary from phosphoric acid fuel cells through to molten carbonate fuel cells and solid oxide cells. A fuel cell generates both heat (**QR**) and electrical energy (**WE**), and thus can supply both heat to the cell **150** or to supplement or replace the DC supply (**Es**) **152**.

Typically, these fuel cells can be of the type LaserCell™ as developed by Dr Roger Billings, the PEM Cell as available from Ballard Power Systems Inc. Canada or the Ceramic Fuel Cell (solid oxide) as developed by Ceramic Fuel Cells Ltd., Melbourne, Australia.

It is, of course, necessary to replenish the pressurised store of gases, thus requiring the continuing consumption of electrical energy. The recovered electrical energy **WE** is in excess of the energy required to drive electrolysis at the elevated temperature and is used to replace the external electrical energy source **152**, thereby completing the energy loop after the system is initially primed and started.

The present inventor has determined that there are some combinations of pressure and temperature where the efficiency of the electrolysis process becomes advantageous in terms of the total energy recovered, either as mechanical energy by virtue of a flow of gas at high pressure or as thermal energy by virtue of combustion (or by means of a fuel cell), with respect to the electrical energy consumed, to the extent of the recovered energy exceeding the energy required to sustain electrolysis at the operational pressure and temperature. This has been substantiated by experimentation. This notion has been termed "over-unity".

"Over-unity" systems can be categorised as broadly falling into three types of physical phenomena:

- (i) An electrical device which produces 100 Watts of electrical energy as output after 10 Watts of electrical energy is input thereby providing 90 Watts of overunity (electrical) energy.
- (ii) An electro-chemical device such as an electrolysis device where 10 Watts of electrical energy is input and 8 Watts is output being the thermal value of the hydrogen and oxygen gas output. During this process, 2 Watts of electrical energy converted to thermal energy is lost due to specific inefficiencies of the electrolysis system. Pressure - as the over-unity energy - is irrefutably produced during the process of hydrogen and oxygen gas generation during electrolysis. Pressure is a product of the containment of the two separated gases. The Law of Conservation of Energy (as referenced in "Chemistry Experimental Foundations", edited by Parry, R.W.; Steiner, L.E.; Tellefsen, R.L.; Dietz, P.M. Chap. 9, pp. 199-200, Prentice-Hall, New Jersey" and "An Experimental Science", edited by Pimentel, G.C., Chap. 7, pp. 115-117, W.H. & Freeman Co. San Francisco) is in equilibrium where the 10 watts of input equals the 8 watts thermal energy output plus the 2 watts of losses. However, this Law ends at this point. The present invention utilises the apparent additional energy being the pressure which is a by-product of the electrolysis process to achieve over-unity.
- (iii) An electro-chemical device which produces an excess of thermal energy after an input of electrical energy in such devices utilised in "cold fusion" e.g. 10 watts of electrical energy as input and 50 watts of thermal energy as output.

The present invention represents the discovery of means by which the previously mentioned second phenomenon can be embodied to result in "over-unity" and the realisation of 'free' energy. As previously noted, this is the process of liberating latent molecular energy. The following sequence of events describes the basis of the availability of over-unity energy.

In a simple two plate (anode/cathode) electrolysis cell, an applied voltage differential of 1.57 DC Volts draws 0.034 Amps per cm^2 and results in the liberation of hydrogen and oxygen gas from the relevant electrode plate. The electrolyte is kept at a constant temperature of 40°C , and is open to atmospheric pressure.

The inefficiency of an electrolytic cell is due to its ionic resistance (approximately 20%), and produces a by-product of thermal energy. The resistance reduces, as does the minimum DC voltage required to drive electrolysis, as the temperature increases. The overall energy required to dissociate the bonding electrons from the water molecule also decreases as the temperature increases. In effect, thermal energy acts as a catalyst to reduce the energy requirements in the production of hydrogen and oxygen gases from the water molecule. Improvements in efficiency are obtainable by way of a combination of thermal energy itself and the NaOH electrolyte both acting to reduce the resistance of the ionic flow of current.

Thermal 'cracking' of the water molecule is known to occur at $1,500^{\circ}\text{C}$, whereby the bonding electrons are dissociated and subsequently 'separate' the water molecule into its constituent elements in gaseous form. This thermal cracking then allows the thermal energy to become a consumable. Insulation can be introduced to conserve thermal energy, however there will always be some thermal energy losses.

Accordingly, thermal energy is both a catalyst and a consumable (in the sense that the thermal energy excites bonding electrons to a higher energetic state) in the electrolysis process. A net result from the foregoing process is that hydrogen is being produced from thermal energy because thermal energy reduces the overall energy requirements of the electrolysis system.

Referring to the graph titled "Flow Rate At A Given Temperature" shown in **Fig.16**, it has been calculated that at a temperature of $2,000^{\circ}\text{C}$, 693 litres of hydrogen/oxygen admixed gas (2:1) will be produced. The hydrogen content of this volume is 462 litres. At an energy content of 11 BTUs per litre of hydrogen, this then gives an energy amount of 5,082 BTUs (11×462). Using the BTU:kilowatt conversion factor of 3413:1, 5,082 BTUs of the hydrogen gas equate to 1.49 kW. Compare this with 1 kW to produce the 693 litres of hydrogen/oxygen (including 463 litres of hydrogen). The usage of this apparatus therefore identifies that

thermal energy, through the process of electrolysis, is being converted into hydrogen. These inefficiencies, i.e. increased temperature and NaOH electrolyte, reduce with temperature to a point at approximately 1000⁰C where the ionic resistance reduces to zero, and the volumetric amount of gases produced per kWh increases.

The lowering of DC voltage necessary to drive electrolysis by way of higher temperatures is demonstrated in the graph in **Fig.17** titled "The Effect of temperature on Cell Voltage".

The data in **Fig.16** and **Fig.17** have two sources. Cell voltages obtained from 0⁰C up to and including 100⁰C were those obtained by an electrolysis system as described above. Cell voltages obtained from 150⁰C up to 2,000⁰C are theoretical calculations presented by an acknowledged authority in this field, Prof. J. O'M. Bockris. Specifically, these findings were presented in "Hydrogen Energy, Part A, Hydrogen Economy", Miami Energy Conference, Miami Beach, Florida, 1974, edited by T. Nejat Veziroglu, Plenum Press, pp. 371-379. These calculations appear on page 374.

By inspection of **Fig.17** and **Fig.18** (titled "Flow Rate of Hydrogen and Oxygen at 2:1"), it can be seen that as temperature increases in the cell, the voltage necessary to dissociate the water molecule is reduced, as is the overall energy requirement. This then results in a higher gas flow per kWh.

As constrained by the limitation of the materials within the system, the operationally acceptable temperature of the system is 1000⁰C. This temperature level should not, however, be considered as a restriction. This temperature is based on the limitations of the currently commercially available materials. Specifically, this system can utilise material such as compressed Silica Fibre for the sleeve around the electrolysis plate and hydrophobic Silica Fibre (part no. QR-100HE supplied by Tokyo Roshi International Inc., also known as "Advantec") for the diaphragm (as previously discussed) which separates the electrolysis disc plates. In the process of assembling the cells, the diaphragm material and sleeved electrolysis plates **190,198** are adhered to one another by using high-temperature-resistant silica adhesive (e.g. the "Aremco" product "Cerambond 618" which has an operational tolerance specification of 1,000⁰C).

For the electrolysis cell described above, with the electrolyte at 1,000⁰C and utilising electrical energy at the rate of 1 kWh, 167 litres of oxygen and 334 litres of hydrogen per hour will be produced.

The silica fibre diaphragm **116** previously discussed separates the oxygen and hydrogen gas streams by the mechanism of density separation, and produce a separate store of oxygen and hydrogen at pressure. Pressure from the produced gases can range from 0 to 150,000 Atmospheres. At higher pressures, density separation may not occur. In this instance, the gas molecules can be magnetically separated from the electrolyte if required.

In reference to the experiments conducted by Messrs Hamann and Linton (S.D. Hamann and M. Linton, Trans. Faraday Soc. 62,2234-2241, specifically, page 2,240), this research has proven that higher pressures can produce the same effect as higher temperatures in that the conductivity increases as temperature and/or pressure increases. At very high pressures, the water molecule dissociates at low temperatures. The reason for this is that the bonding electron is more readily removed when under high pressure. The same phenomenon occurs when the bonding electrons are at a high temperature (e.g. 1,500⁰C) but at low pressures.

As shown in **Fig.15**, hydrogen and oxygen gases are separated into independent gas streams flowing into separate pressure vessels **158,160** capable of withstanding pressures up to 150,000 Atmospheres. Separation of the two gases thereby eliminates the possibility of detonation. It should also be noted that high pressures can facilitate the use of high temperatures within the electrolyte because the higher pressure elevates the boiling point of water.

Experimentation shows that 1 litre of water can yield 1,850 litres of hydrogen/oxygen (in a ratio of 2: 1) gas mix after decomposition, this significant differential(1:1,850) is the source of the pressure. Stripping the bonding electrons from the water molecule, which subsequently converts liquid into a gaseous state, releases energy which can be utilised as pressure when this occurs in a confined space.

A discussion of experimental work in relation to the effects of pressure in electrolysis processes can be obtained from "Hydrogen Energy, Part A, Hydrogen Economy Miami Energy Conference, Miami Beach, Florida, 1974, edited by T. Nejat Veziroglu, Plenum Press". The papers presented by F.C. Jensen and F.H.

Schubert on pages 425 to 439 and by John B. Pangborn and John C. Sharer on pages 499 to 508 are of particular relevance.

Attention must be drawn to the above published material; specifically on page 434, third paragraph, where reference is made to "Fig.7 shows the effect of pressure on cell voltage...". Fig. 7 on page 436 ("Effect of Pressure on SFWES Single Cell") indicates that if pressure is increased, then so too does the minimum DC voltage.

These quotes were provided for familiarisation purposes only and not as demonstrable and empirical fact. Experimentation by the inventor factually indicates that increased pressure (up to 2,450 psi) in fact lowers the minimum DC voltage.

This now demonstrable fact, whereby increased pressure actually lowers minimum DC voltage, is further exemplified by the findings of Messrs. Nayar, Ragunathan and Mitra in 1979 which can be referenced in their paper: "Development and operation of a high current density high pressure advanced electrolysis cell".

Nayar, M.G.; Ragunathan, P. and Mitra, S.K. International Journal of Hydrogen Energy (Pergamon Press Ltd.), 1980, Vol. 5, pp. 65-74. Their Table 2 on page 72 expressly highlights this as follows: "At a Current density (ASM) of 7,000 and at a temperature of 80⁰C, the table shows identical Cell voltages at both pressures of 7.6 kg/cm² and 11.0 kg/cm². But at Current densities of 5,000, 6,000, 8,000, 9,000 and 10,000 (at a temperature of 80⁰C), the Cell voltages were lower at a pressure of 11.0 kg/cm² than at a pressure of 7.6 kg/cm². " The present invention thus significantly improves on the apparatus employed by Mr. M.G. Nayar, et al, at least in the areas of cell plate materials, current density and cell configuration.

In the preferred form the electrode discs **192** are perforated mild steel, conductive polymer or perforated resin bonded carbon cell plates. The diameter of the perforated holes **196** is chosen to be twice the thickness of the plate in order to maintain the same total surface area prior to perforation. Nickel was utilised in the noted prior art system. That material has a higher electrical resistance than mild steel or carbon, providing the present invention with a lower voltage capability per cell.

The previously mentioned prior art system quotes a minimum current density (after conversion from ASM to Amps per square cm.) at 0.5 Amps per cm². The present invention operates at the ideal current density, established by experimentation, to minimise cell voltage which is 0.034 Amps per cm².

When compared with the aforementioned system, an embodiment of the present invention operates more efficiently due to a current density improvement by a factor of 14.7, the utilisation of better conducting cell plate material which additionally lowers cell voltage, a lower cell voltage of 1.49 at 80⁰C as opposed to 1.8 volts at 80⁰C, and a compact and efficient cell configuration.

In order to further investigate the findings of Messrs. M.G. Nayar, et al, the inventor conducted experiments utilising much higher pressures. For Nayar, et al, the pressures were 7.6 kg/cm² to 11.0 kg/cm², whereas inventor's pressures were 0 psi to 2,450 psi in an hydrogen/oxygen admixture electrolysis system.

This electrolysis system was run from the secondary coil of a transformer set approximately at maximum 50 Amps and with an open circuit voltage of 60 Volts. In addition, this electrolysis system is designed with reduced surface area in order that it can be housed in an hydraulic container for testing purposes. The reduced surface area subsequently caused the gas production efficiency to drop when compared with previous (i.e. more efficient) prototypes. The gas flow rate was observed to be approximately 90 litres per hour at 70⁰C in this system as opposed to 310 litres per hour at 70⁰C obtained from previous prototypes. All of the following data and graphs have been taken from the table shown in **Fig.19**.

Referring to **Fig.20** (titled "Volts Per Pressure Increase"), it can be seen that at a pressure of 14.7 psi (i.e. 1 Atmosphere), the voltage measured as 38.5V and at a pressure of 2,450 psi, the voltage measured as 29.4V. This confirms the findings of Nayar et al that increased pressure lowers the system's voltage. Furthermore, these experiments contradict the conclusion drawn by F.C. Jensen and F.H. Schubert ("Hydrogen Energy, Part A, Hydrogen Economy Miami Energy Conference, Miami Beach, Florida, 1974, edited by T. Nejat Veziroglu, Plenum Press", pp 425 to 439, specifically Fig. 7 on page 434) being that "... as the pressure of the water being electrolysed increases, then so too does the minimum DC Voltage". As the inventor's experiments are current and demonstrable, the inventor now presents his findings as the current state of the art and not the previously accepted findings of Schubert and Jensen.

Referring to **Fig.21** (titled "Amps Per Pressure Increase"), it can be seen that at a pressure of 14.7 psi (i.e. 1 Atmosphere being Test Run No. 1), the current was measured as 47.2A and at a pressure of 2,450 psi (Test Run No. 20), the current was measured as 63A.

Referring to **Fig.22** (titled "Kilowatts Per Pressure Increase"), examination of the power from Test Run No. 1 (1.82 kW) through to Test Run No. 20 (1.85 kW) indicates that there was no major increase in energy input required at higher pressures in order to maintain adequate gas flow.

Referring to **Fig.23** (titled "Resistance (Ohms) Per Pressure Increase"), the resistance was calculated from Test Run No. 1 (0.82 ohms) to Test Run No. 20 (0.47 ohms). These data indicate that the losses due to resistance in the electrolysis system at high pressures are negligible.

Currently accepted convention has it that dissolved hydrogen, due to high pressures within the electrolyte, would cause an increase in resistance because hydrogen and oxygen are bad conductors of ionic flow. The net result of which would be that this would decrease the production of gases.

These tests indicate that the ions find their way around the H₂ and O₂ molecules within the solution and that at higher pressures, density separation will always cause the gases to separate from the water and facilitate the movement of the gases from the electrolysis plates. A very descriptive analogy of this phenomenon is where the ion is about the size of a football and the gas molecules are each about the size of a football field thereby allowing the ion a large manoeuvring area in which to skirt the molecule.

Referring to **Fig.24** (titled "Pressure Differential (Increase)"), it can be seen that the hydrogen/oxygen admixture caused a significant pressure increase on each successive test run from Test Run No. 1 to Test Run No. 11. Test Runs thereafter indicated that the hydrogen/oxygen admixture within the electrolyte solution imploded at the point of conception (being on the surface of the plate).

Referring again to the table of **Fig.19**, it can be noted the time taken from the initial temperature to the final temperature in Test Run No. 12 was approximately half the time taken in Test Run No. 10. The halved elapsed time (from 40⁰C to 70⁰C) was due to the higher pressure causing the hydrogen/oxygen admixture to detonate which subsequently imploded within the system thereby releasing thermal energy.

Referring to the table shown in **Fig.25** (titled "Flow Rate Analysis Per Pressure Increase"), these findings were brought about from flow rate tests up to 200 psi and data from **Fig.24**. These findings result in the data of **Fig.25** concerning gas flow rate per pressure increase. Referring to **Fig.25**, it can be seen that at a pressure of 14.7 psi (1 Atmosphere) a gas production rate of 88 litres per kWh is being achieved. At 1,890 psi, the system produces 100 litres per kWh. These findings point to the conclusion that higher pressures do not affect the gas production rate of the system, the gas production rate remains constant between pressures of 14.7 psi (1 Atmosphere) and 1,890 psi.

Inferring from all of the foregoing data, increased pressure will not adversely affect cell performance (gas production rate) in separation systems where hydrogen and oxygen gases are produced separately, nor as a combined admixture. Therefore, in an enclosed electrolysis system embodying the invention, the pressure can be allowed to build up to a predetermined level and remain at this level through continuous (on-demand) replenishment. This pressure is the over-unity energy because it has been obtained during the normal course of electrolysis operation without additional energy input. This over-unity energy (i.e. the produced pressure) can be utilised to maintain the requisite electrical energy supply to the electrolysis system as well as provide useful work.

The following formulae and subsequent data do not take into account the apparent efficiencies gained by pressure increase in this electrolysis system such as the gained efficiency factors highlighted by the previously quoted Hamann and Linton research. Accordingly, the over-unity energy should therefore be considered as conservative claims and that such claimed over-unity energy would in fact occur at much lower pressures.

This over-unity energy can be formalised by way of utilising a pressure formula as follows: $E = (P - P_0) V$ which is the energy (E) in Joules per second that can be extracted from a volume (V) which is cubic meters of gas per second at a pressure (P) measured in Pascals and where P₀ is the ambient pressure (i.e. 1 Atmosphere).

In order to formulate total available over-unity energy, we will first use the above formula but will not take into account efficiency losses. The formula is based on a flow rate of 500 litres per kWh at 1,000⁰C. When the

gases are produced in the electrolysis system, they are allowed to self-compress up to 150,000 Atmospheres which will then produce a volume (V) of $5.07 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3/\text{sec}$.

$$\text{Work [Joules/sec]} = ((150-1) \times 10^8) 5.07 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m}^3/\text{sec} = 760.4 \text{ Watts}$$

The graphs in **Figs.27-29** (Over-Unity in watt-hours) indicate over-unity energy available excluding efficiency losses. However, in a normal work environment, inefficiencies are encountered as energy is converted from one form to another.

The results of these calculations will indicate the amount of surplus- over-unity energy after the electrolysis system has been supplied with its required 1 kWh to maintain its operation of producing the 500 lph of hydrogen and oxygen (separately in a ratio of 2:1).

The following calculations utilise the formula stated above, including the efficiency factor. The losses which we will incorporate will be 10% loss due to the energy conversion device (converting pressure to mechanical energy, which is represented by device **162** in **Fig.15**) and 5% loss due to the DC generator W_e providing a total of 650 watt-hours which results from the pressurised gases.

Returning to the 1 kWh, which is required for electrolysis operation, this 1 kWh is converted (during electrolysis) to hydrogen and oxygen. The 1 kWh of hydrogen and oxygen is fed into a fuel cell. After conversion to electrical energy in the fuel cell, we are left with 585 watt-hours due to a 65 % efficiency factor in the fuel cell (35 % thermal losses are fed back into electrolysis unit **150** via Q_r in **Fig.15**).

Fig.30 graphically indicates the total over-unity energy available combining a fuel cell with the pressure in this electrolysis system in a range from 0 kAtmospheres to 150 kAtmospheres. The data in **Fig.30** have been compiled utilising the previously quoted formulae where the watt-hours findings are based on incorporating the 1 kWh required to drive the electrolysis system, taking into account all inefficiencies in the idealised electrolysis system (complete the loop) and then adding the output energy from the pressurised electrolysis system with the output of the fuel cell. This graph thereby indicates the energy break-even point (at approximately 66 kAtmospheres) where the idealised electrolysis system becomes self-sustaining.

In order to scale up this system for practical applications, such as power stations that will produce 50 MW of available electrical energy (as an example), the required input energy to the electrolysis system will be 170 MW (which is continually looped).

The stores of high pressure gases can be used with a hydrogen/oxygen internal combustion engine, as shown in **Figs. 31A to 31E**. The stores of high pressure gases can be used with either forms of combustion engines having an expansion stroke, including turbines, rotary, Wankel and orbital engines. One cylinder of an internal combustion engine is represented, however it is usually, but not necessarily always the case, that there will be other cylinders in the engine offset from each other in the timing of their stroke. The cylinder **320** houses a piston head **322** and crank **324**, with the lower end of the crank **324** being connected with a shaft **326**. The piston head **322** has conventional rings **328** sealing the periphery of the piston head **322** to the bore of the cylinder **320**.

A chamber **330**, located above the top of the piston head **322**, receives a supply of regulated separated hydrogen gas and oxygen gas via respective inlet ports **332,334**. There is also an exhaust port **336** venting gas from the chamber **330**.

The engine's operational cycle commences as shown in **Fig.31A**, with the injection of pressurised hydrogen gas, typically at a pressure of 5,000 psi to 30,000 psi, sourced from a reservoir of that gas (not shown). The oxygen gas port **334** is closed at this stage, as is the exhaust port **336**. Therefore, as shown in **Fig.31B**, the pressure of gas forces the piston head **322** downwards, thus driving the shaft **326**. The stroke is shown as distance "A".

At this point, the oxygen inlet **334** is opened to a flow of pressurised oxygen, again typically at a pressure of 5,000 psi to 30,000 psi, the volumetric flow rate being one half of the hydrogen already injected, so that the hydrogen and oxygen gas within the chamber **330** are the proportion 2:1.

Conventional expectations when injecting a gas into a confined space (e.g. such as a closed cylinder) are that gases will have a cooling effect on itself and subsequently its immediate environment (e.g. cooling systems/refrigeration). This is not the case with hydrogen. The inverse applies where hydrogen, as it is being injected, heats itself up and subsequently heats up its immediate surroundings. This effect, being the

inverse of other gases, adds to the efficiency of the overall energy equation when producing over-unity energy.

As shown in **Fig.31C**, the piston head **322** has moved a further stroke, shown as distance "**B**", at which time there is self-detonation of the hydrogen and oxygen mixture. The hydrogen and oxygen inlets **332,334** are closed at this point, as is the exhaust **336**.

As shown in **Fig.31D**, the piston head is driven further downwards by an additional stroke, shown as distance "**C**", to an overall stroke represented by distance "**D**". The added piston displacement occurs by virtue of the detonation.

As shown in **Fig.31E**, the exhaust port **336** is now opened, and by virtue of the kinetic energy of the shaft **326** (or due to the action of others of the pistons connected with the shaft), the piston head **322** is driven upwards, thus exhausting the waste steam by the exhaust port **336** until such time as the situation of **Fig.31E** is achieved so that the cycle can repeat.

A particular advantage of an internal combustion motor constructed in accordance with the arrangement shown in **Figs.31A to 31E** is that no compression stroke is required, and neither is an ignition system required to ignite the working gases, rather the pressurised gases spontaneously combust when provided in the correction proportion and under conditions of high pressure.

Useful mechanical energy can be extracted from the internal combustion engine, and be utilised to do work. Clearly the supply of pressurised gas must be replenished by the electrolysis process in order to allow the mechanical work to continue to be done. Nevertheless, the inventor believes that it should be possible to power a vehicle with an internal combustion engine of the type described in **Figs.31A to 31E**, with that vehicle having a store of the gases generated by the electrolysis process, and still be possible to undertake regular length journeys with the vehicle carrying a supply of the gases in pressure vessels (somewhat in a similar way to, and the size of, petrol tanks in conventional internal combustion engines).

When applying over-unity energy in the form of pressurised hydrogen and oxygen gases to this internal combustion engine for the purpose of providing acceptable ranging (i.e. distance travelled), pressurised stored gases as mentioned above may be necessary to overcome the problem of mass inertia (e.g. stop-start driving). Inclusion of the stored pressurised gases also facilitates the ranging (i.e. distance travelled) of the vehicle.

Over-unity energy (as claimed in this submission) for an average sized passenger vehicle will be supplied at a continual rate of between 20 kW and 40 kW. In the case of an over-unity energy supplied vehicle, a supply of water (e.g. similar to a petrol tank in function) must be carried in the vehicle.

Clearly electrical energy is consumed in generating the gases. However it is also claimed by the inventor that an over-unity energy system can provide the requisite energy thereby overcoming the problem of the consumption of fossil fuels either in conventional internal combustion engines or in the generation of the electricity to drive the electrolysis process by coal, oil or natural gas generators.

Experimentation by the inventor shows that if 1,850 litres of hydrogen/oxygen gas mix (in a ratio of 2:1) is detonated, the resultant product is 1 litre of water and 1,850 litres of vacuum if the thermal value of the hydrogen and oxygen gas mix is dissipated. At atmospheric pressure, 1 litre of admixed hydrogen/oxygen (2:1) contains 11 BTUs of thermal energy. Upon detonation, this amount of heat is readily dissipated at a rate measured in microseconds which subsequently causes an implosion (inverse differential of 1,850:1). Tests conducted by the inventor at 3 atmospheres (hydrogen/oxygen gas at a pressure of 50 psi) have proven that complete implosion does not occur. However, even if the implosion container is heated (or becomes heated) to 400C, total implosion will still occur.

This now available function of idiosyncratic implosion can be utilised by a pump taking advantage of this action. Such a pump necessarily requires an electrolysis gas system such as that described above, and particularly shown in **Fig.6**.

Figs. 32A-32C show the use of implosion and its cycles in a pumping device **400**. The pump **400** is initially primed from a water inlet **406**. The water inlet **406** then is closed-off and the hydrogen/oxygen gas inlet **408** is opened.

As shown in **Fig.32B**, the admixed hydrogen/oxygen gas forces the water upward through the one-way check valve **410** and outlet tube **412** into the top reservoir **414**. The one-way check valves **410,416** will not allow the water to drop back into the cylinder **404** or the first reservoir **402**. This force equates to lifting the water over a distance. The gas inlet valve **408** then is closed, and the spark plug **418** detonates the gas mixture which causes an implosion (vacuum). Atmospheric pressure forces the water in reservoir **402** up through tube **420**.

Fig.32C shows the water having been transferred into the pump cylinder **404** by the previous action. The implosion therefore is able to 'lift' the water from the bottom reservoir **402** over a distance which is approximately the length of tube **420**.

The lifting capacity of the implosion pump is therefore approximately the total of the two distances mentioned. This completes the pumping cycle, which can then be repeated after the reservoir **402** has been refilled.

Significant advantages of this pump are that it does not have any diaphragms, impellers nor pistons thereby essentially not having any moving parts (other than solenoids and one-way check valves). As such, the pump is significantly maintenance free when compared to current pump technology.

It is envisaged that this pump with the obvious foregoing positive attributes and advantages in pumping fluids, semi-fluids and gases can replace all currently known general pumps and vacuum pumps with significant benefits to the end-user of this pump.

CLAIMS

1. A looped energy system for the generation of excess energy available to do work, said system comprising:
An electrolysis cell unit receiving a supply of water and for liberating separated hydrogen gas and oxygen gas by electrolysis due to a DC voltage applied across respective anodes and cathodes of said cell unit;
Hydrogen gas receiver means for receiving and storing hydrogen gas liberated by said cell unit;
Oxygen gas receiver means for receiving and storing oxygen gas liberated by said cell unit;
Gas expansion means for expanding said stored gases to recover expansion work; and
Gas combustion means for mixing and combusting said expanded hydrogen gas and oxygen gas to recover combustion work; and in which a proportion of the sum of the expansion work and the combustion work sustains electrolysis of said cell unit to retain operational gas pressure in said hydrogen and oxygen gas receiver means such that the energy system is self-sustaining and there is excess energy available from said sum of energies.
2. A looped energy system for the generation of excess energy available to do work, said system comprising:
An electrolysis cell unit receiving a supply of water and for liberating separated hydrogen gas and oxygen gas by electrolysis due to a DC voltage applied across respective anodes and cathodes of said cell unit;
Hydrogen gas receiver means for receiving and storing hydrogen gas liberated by said cell unit;
Oxygen gas receiver means for receiving and storing oxygen gas liberated by said cell unit;
Gas expansion means for expanding said stored gases to recover expansion work; and
Fuel cell means for recovering electrical work from said expanded hydrogen gas and oxygen gas; and wherein a proportion of the sum of the expansion work and the recovered electrical work sustains electrolysis of said cell unit to retain operational gas pressure in said hydrogen and oxygen gas receiver means such that the energy system is self-sustaining and there is excess energy available from said sum of energies.
3. An energy system as claimed in Claim 1 or Claim 2 further comprising mechanical-to-electrical energy conversion means coupled to said gas expansion means to convert the expansion work to electrical expansion work to be supplied as said DC voltage to said cell unit.
4. An energy system as claimed in any one of the preceding claims wherein said water in said cell unit is maintained above a predetermined pressure by the effect of back pressure from said gas receiver means and above a predetermined temperature resulting from input heat arising from said combustion work and/or said expansion work.

- 5.** A method for the generation of excess energy available to do work by the process of electrolysis, said method comprising the steps of:
Electrolysing water by a DC voltage to liberate separated hydrogen gas and oxygen gas;
Separately receiving and storing said hydrogen gas and oxygen gas in a manner to be self-pressuring;
Separately expanding said stores of gas to recover expansion work;
Combusting said expanded gases together to recover combustion work; and
Applying a portion of the sum of the expansion work and the combustion work as said DC voltage to retain operational gas pressures and sustain said electrolysing step, there thus being excess energy of said sum available.
- 6.** A method for the generation of excess energy available to do work by the process of electrolysis, said method comprising the steps of:
Electrolysing water by a DC voltage to liberate separated hydrogen gas and oxygen gas;
Separately receiving and storing said hydrogen gas and oxygen gas in a manner to be self-pressuring;
Separately expanding said stores of gas to recover expansion work;
Passing said expanded gases together through a fuel cell to recover electrical work; and
Applying a portion of the sum of the expansion work and the recovered electrical work as said DC voltage to retain operational gas pressures and sustain said electrolysing step, there thus being excess energy of said sum available.
- 7.** An internal combustion engine powered by hydrogen and oxygen comprising:
At least one cylinder and at least one reciprocating piston within the cylinder;
A hydrogen gas input port in communication with the cylinder for receiving a supply of pressurised hydrogen;
An oxygen gas input port in communication with the cylinder for receiving a supply of pressurised oxygen;
and
An exhaust port in communication with the cylinder and wherein the engine is operable in a two-stroke manner whereby, at the top of the stroke, hydrogen gas is supplied by the respective inlet port to the cylinder driving the piston downwards, oxygen gas then is supplied by the respective inlet port to the cylinder to drive the cylinder further downwards, after which time self-detonation occurs and the piston moves to the bottom of the stroke and upwardly again with said exhaust port opened to exhaust water vapour resulting from the detonation.
- 8.** An engine as claimed in Claim 7, wherein there are a plurality of said cylinder and an equal plurality of said pistons, said pistons being commonly connected to a shaft and relatively offset in stroke timing to co-operate in driving the shaft.
- 9.** An implosion pump comprising a combustion chamber interposed, and in communication with, an upper reservoir and a lower reservoir separated by a vertical distance across which water is to be pumped, said chamber receiving admixed hydrogen and oxygen at a pressure sufficient to lift a volume of water the distance therefrom to the top reservoir, said gas in the chamber then being combusted to create a vacuum in said chamber to draw water from said lower reservoir to fill said chamber, whereupon a pumping cycle is established and can be repeated.
- 10.** An implosion pump as claimed in Claim 9, further comprising conduit means connecting a respective reservoir with said chamber and one-way flow valve means located in each conduit means to disallow reverse flow of water from said upper reservoir to said chamber and from said chamber to said lower reservoir.
- 11.** A parallel stacked arrangement of cell plates for a water electrolysis unit, the cell plates alternately forming an anode and cathode of said electrolysis unit, and said arrangement including separate hydrogen gas and oxygen gas outlet port means respectively in communication with said anode cell plates and said cathode cell plates and extending longitudinally of said stacked plates, said stacked cell plates being configured in the region of said conduits to mate in a complementary manner to form said conduits such that a respective anode cell plate or cathode cell plate is insulated from the hydrogen gas conduit or the oxygen gas conduit.
- 12.** An arrangement of cell plates as claimed in Claim 11, wherein said configuration is in the form of a flanged foot that extends to a flanged foot of the next adjacent like-type of anode or cathode cell plate respectively.