## Design Information and <br> Data

Information on manufacturing processes, equipment parameters, materials of construction, costs, and the physical properties of process materials are needed at all stages of design, from the initial screening of possible processes to the plant startup and production.

Sources of Information on Manufacturing Processes The chemical process industries are competitive, and the information that is published on commercial processes is restricted.
The articles on particular processes published in the technical literature and in textbooks invariably give only a superficial account of the chemistry and unit operations used.
They lack the detailed information on reaction kinetics, process conditions, equipment parameters, and physical properties that is needed for process design.

The information that can be found in the general literature is, however, useful in the early stages of a project.
The most comprehensive collection of information on manufacturing processes is probably the Encyclopedia of Chemical Technology edited by Kirk (2003) and Kirk and Othmer (2001), which covers the whole range of chemical and associated products.
The extensive German reference work on industrial processes, Ullman's Encyclopedia of Industrial Technology.

## Patents

Patents can be useful sources of information, but some care is needed in extracting information from them.
To obtain a patent, an inventor is legally obliged to disclose the best mode of practice of the invention; failure to do so could render the patent invalid if it were contested.

Most patents therefore include one or more examples illustrating how the invention is practiced and differentiating it from the prior art.
When data from patents is used, it is important to carefully read the section that describes the experimental procedure to be sure that the experiments were run under appropriate conditions.
Patent attorneys generally try to write patents to claim broad ranges of process conditions.
So as to maximize the range of validity and make it hard for competitors to avoid the patent by making a slight change in temperature, pressure, or other process parameters.

## The Internet

It is worthwhile searching online for information on processes, equipment, products, and physical properties.
Many manufacturers and government departments maintain websites and provide up-to-date information for the health and environmental effects of products.
Many university libraries or engineering departments provide information guides for students, and these are available on the Internet.
Some examples are

1. The University of Manchester, UK, Heriot-Watt University, Edinburgh, UK and the Joint Information Systems Committee: www.intute.ac.uk/sciences/
2. University of Florida Web Virtual Library: www.che.ufl.edu/www-che/
3. Karlsburg University, Germany: International Directory of Chemical Engineering URLs: www.ciw.uni-karlsruhe.de/links.php
The American Chemical Society's Chemical Abstracts Service is the best source for chemical properties and reaction kinetics data.

## General Sources of Physical Properties

International Critical Tables (1933) is still probably the most comprehensive compilation of physical properties and is available in most reference libraries.
physical properties do not change, except in as much as experimental techniques improve, and ICT is still a useful source of engineering data.
Tables and graphs of physical properties are given in many handbooks and textbooks on chemical engineering.
An extensive compilation of thermophysical data has been published by Plenum Press (Touloukian, 1970-1977). This multiple-volume work covers conductivity, specific heat, thermal expansion, viscosity, and radiative properties (emittance, reflectance, absorptance, and transmittance).
Elsevier have published a series of volumes on physical property and thermodynamic data.

The Engineering Sciences Data Unit (ESDU, www.ihsesdu.com) was set up to provide validated data for engineering design, developed under the guidance and approval of engineers from industry, the universities, and research laboratories.
ESDU data include equipment design data and software and extensive high-quality physical property data-mostly for pure fluids that are in use in the oil and process industries.
PPDS (Physical Property Data Service) was originally developed in the United Kingdom by the Institution of Chemical Engineers and the National Physical Laboratory.
The DIPPR ${ }^{T M}$ databases were developed in the United States by the Design Institute for Physical Properties of the American Institute of Chemical Engineers.
The DIPPRTM projects are aimed at providing evaluated process design data for the design of chemical processes and equipment.

## Prediction of Physical Properties

Density

- Liquids

The density of most organic liquids, other than those containing a halogen or other "heavy atom," usually lies between 800 and $1000 \mathrm{~kg} / \mathrm{m}^{3}$.
An approximate estimate of the density at the normal boiling point can be obtained from the molar volume

$$
\rho_{b}=\frac{M}{V_{m}}
$$

where

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\rho_{\mathrm{b}}=\text { density }, \mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{m}^{3} ; & M=\text { molecular mass; } \\
\mathrm{V}_{\mathrm{m}}=\text { molar volume }, \mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{kmol} .
\end{array}
$$

If data on the variation of density with temperature cannot be found, they can be approximated for nonpolar liquids from Smith's equation for thermal expansion
(Smith et al., 1954):

$$
\beta=\frac{0.04314}{\left(T_{c}-T\right)^{0.641}}
$$

Where
$\beta=$ coefficient of thermal expansion, $\mathrm{K}^{-1}$;
$T_{c}=$ critical temperature, K ;
$\mathrm{T}=$ temperature, K .

- Gas and Vapor Density (Specific Volume)

For general engineering purposes it is often sufficient to consider that real gases and vapors behave ideally and to use the gas law:

$$
\begin{gathered}
P V=n R T \\
\text { Specific volume }=R T / P
\end{gathered}
$$

These equations will be sufficiently accurate up to moderate pressures.
If greater accuracy is needed, the simplest method is to modify equation by including the compressibility factor $z$ :

$$
P V=z n R T
$$

The compressibility factor can be estimated from a generalized compressibility plot, which gives $z$ as a function of reduced pressure and temperature

The pseudocritical properties of mixtures should be used to obtain the compressibility factor:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& P_{c, m}=P_{c, a} y_{a}+P_{c, b} y_{b}+\ldots \\
& T_{c, m}=T_{c, a} y_{a}+T_{c, b} y_{b}+\ldots
\end{aligned}
$$

## Viscosity

- Liquids

A rough estimate of the viscosity of a pure liquid at its boiling point can be obtained from the modified Arrhenius equation:

$$
\mu_{b}=0.01 \rho_{b}{ }^{0.5}
$$

where
$\mu_{\mathrm{b}}=$ viscosity, $\mathrm{mNs} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$;
$\rho_{\mathrm{b}}=$ density at boiling point, $\mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{m}^{3}$.

A more accurate value can be obtained if reliable values of density are available or can be estimated with sufficient accuracy, from Souders' equation:

$$
\log (\log 10 \mu)=\frac{I}{M} \rho \times 10^{-3}-2.9
$$

where
$\mu=$ viscosity, $\mathrm{mNs} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$;
$M=$ molecular mass;
I = Souders' index, estimated from the group contributions
$\rho=$ density at the required temperature, $\mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{m}^{3}$.

- Mixtures

It is difficult to predict the viscosity of mixtures of liquids. Viscosities are rarely additive, and the shape of the viscosityconcentration curve can be complex.
The viscosity of the mixture may be lower or, occasionally, higher than that of the pure components.

As an approximation, a weighted average viscosity is calculated, if the range of viscosity is not very wide.
For a binary mixture,

$$
\log (\log 10 \mu)=\rho_{m}\left[\frac{x_{1} I_{1}+x_{2} I_{2}}{x_{1} M_{1}+x_{2} M_{2}}\right] \times 10^{-3}-2.9
$$

For heat transfer calculations, Kern (1950) gives a rough rule of thumb for organic liquid mixtures:

$$
\frac{1}{\mu_{m}}=\frac{w_{1}}{\mu_{1}}+\frac{w_{2}}{\mu_{2}}
$$

where
$w_{1}, w_{2}=$ mass fractions of the components 1 and 2 ;

- Gases

Reliable methods for the prediction of gas viscosities and the effect of temperature and pressure are given by Bretsznajder (1971) and Reid et al. (1987).

Where an estimate of the viscosity is needed to calculate Prandtl numbers, the methods developed for the direct estimation of Prandtl numbers should be used.
For gases at low pressure, Bromley (1952) has suggested the following values:

Prandtl Number

| Monatomic gases (e.g., Ar, He) | $0.67 \pm 5 \%$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| Nonpolar, linear molecules (e.g., $\mathrm{O}_{2}, \mathrm{Cl}_{2}$ ) | $0.73 \pm 15 \%$ |
| Nonpolar, nonlinear molecules (e.g., $\mathrm{CH}_{4}, \mathrm{C}_{6} \mathrm{H}_{6}$ ) | $0.79 \pm 15 \%$ |
| Strongly polar molecules (e.g., $\left.\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{OH}, \mathrm{SO}_{2}, \mathrm{HCl}\right)$ | $0.86 \pm 8 \%$ |

## Thermal Conductivity

The experimental methods used for the determination of thermal conductivity are described by Tsederberg (1965). The four volume handbook by Yaws (1995-1997) is a useful source of thermal conductivity data for hydrocarbons and inorganic compounds.

- Solids

The thermal conductivity of a solid is determined by its form and structure, as well as composition. Values for the commonly used engineering materials are given in various handbooks.

## - Liquids

The Weber equation (Weber, 1880) can be used to make a rough estimate of the thermal conductivity of organic liquids for use in heat transfer calculations:

## - Gases

The thermal conductivity of pure gases, up to moderate pressures, can be estimated from values of the gas viscosity, using Eucken's equation (Eucken, 1912):

$$
k=\mu\left(c_{p}+\frac{10.4}{M}\right)
$$

Mixtures
In general, the thermal conductivities of liquid mixtures and gas mixtures are not simple functions of composition and the thermal conductivity of the components.
Bretsznajder (1971) discusses the methods that are available for estimating the thermal conductivities of mixtures from a knowledge of the thermal conductivity of the components.
If the components are all nonpolar, a simple weighted average is usually sufficiently accurate for design purposes:

$$
k_{m}=k_{1} w_{1}+k_{2} w_{2}+\ldots \quad w_{1}, w_{2}=\text { component mass fractions }
$$

## Specific Heat Capacity

The specific heats of the most common organic and inorganic materials can usually be found in the handbooks.

- Solids and Liquids

Approximate values can be calculated for solids and liquids by using a modified form of Kopp's law, which is given by Werner (1941).

The heat capacity of a compound is taken as the sum of the heat capacities of the individual elements of which it is composed.

| Element | Solids | Liquids |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |

Kopp's rule does not take into account the arrangement of the atoms in the molecule and, at best, gives only very approximate, "ballpark" values.
For organic liquids, the group contribution method proposed by Chueh and Swanson (1973a, b) gives reasonably accurate predictions.
Liquid specific heats do not vary much with temperature, at temperatures well below the critical temperature (reduced temperature <0.7).
The specific heats of liquid mixtures can be estimated, with sufficient accuracy by taking heat capacities as the mass (or mole) weighted sum of the pure component heat capacities.
For dilute aqueous solutions, it is usually sufficient to take the specific heat of the solution as that of water.

- Gases

For a gas in the ideal state the specific heat capacity at constant pressure is given by

$$
C p=a+b T+c T^{2}+d T^{3}
$$

Values for the constants in this equation for the more common gases can be found in the handbooks and in Appendix.
Several group contribution methods have been developed for the estimation of the constants, such as that by Rihani and Doraiswamy (1965) for organic compounds.

## Enthalpy of Vaporization (Latent Heat)

A very rough estimate can be obtained from Trouton's rule (Trouton, 1884), one of the oldest prediction methods:

$$
\frac{L_{v}}{T_{b}}=\text { constant } \begin{aligned}
& \text { where } \\
& \begin{array}{l}
L_{v}=\text { latent heat of vaporization, } \mathrm{kJ} / \mathrm{kmol}: \\
\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{b}}=\text { normal boiling point }, \mathrm{K} .
\end{array}
\end{aligned}
$$

For organic liquids the constant can be taken as 100.

[^0]More accurate estimates, suitable for most engineering purposes, can be made from knowledge of the vapor pressuretemperature relationship for the substance.
The equation presented here, due to Haggenmacher (1946), is derived from the Antoine vapor pressure equation:

$$
L_{v}=\frac{8.32 B T^{2} \Delta z}{(T+C)^{2}}
$$

where
$\mathrm{Lv}=$ latent heat at the required temperature, $\mathrm{kJ} / \mathrm{kmol}$;
$T=$ temperature, K ;
$B, C=$ coefficients in the Antoine equation
$\Delta z=z_{\text {gas }}-z_{\text {liquid }}$ (where $z$ is the compressibility constant), calculated from the equation:

$$
\Delta z=\left[1-\frac{P_{r}}{T_{r}^{3}}\right]^{0.5}
$$

If an experimental value of the latent heat at the boiling point is known, the Watson equation (Watson, 1943) can be used to estimate the latent heat at other temperatures:

$$
L_{v}=L_{v, b}\left[\frac{T_{c}-T}{T_{c}-T_{b}}\right]^{0.38}
$$

where
$L_{v, b}=$ latent heat at the normal boiling point, $\mathrm{kJ} / \mathrm{kmol}$.
Over a limited range of temperature, up to $100^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$, the variation of latent heat with temperature can usually be taken as linear.

- Mixtures

For design purposes it is usually sufficiently accurate to take the latent heats of the components of a mixture as additive:

$$
L_{v} \text { mixture }=L_{v 1} x_{1}+L_{v 2} x_{2}+\ldots
$$

## Vapor Pressure

If the normal boiling point (vapor pressure $=1 \mathrm{~atm}$ ) and the critical temperature and pressure are known, then a straight line drawn through these two points on a plot of log-pressure versus reciprocal absolute temperature can be used to make a rough estimation of the vapor pressure at intermediate temperatures.
Several equations have been developed to express vapor pressure as a function of temperature. One of the most commonly used is the three-term Antoine equation (Antoine, 1888):

$$
\ln P=A-\frac{B}{T+C}
$$

## Diffusion Coefficients (Diffusivities)

Diffusion coefficients are needed in the design of mass transfer processes, such as gas absorption, distillation, and liquid-liquid extraction, as well as in catalytic reactions where mass transfer can limit the rate of reaction.
Experimental values for the more common systems can be often found in the literature, but for most design work the values must be estimated.

## - Gases

The equation developed by Fuller et al. (1966) is easy to apply and gives reliable estimates:

$$
D_{v}=\frac{1.013 \times 10^{-7} T^{1.75}\left(\frac{1}{M_{a}}+\frac{1}{M_{b}}\right)^{1 / 2}}{P\left[\left(\sum_{d} v_{i}\right)^{1 / 3}+\left(\sum_{b} v_{i}\right)^{1 / 3}\right]^{2}}
$$

where
$D_{v}=$ diffusivity, $\mathrm{m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}$,
$T$ = temperature, K ;
$\mathrm{Ma}, \mathrm{Mb}=$ molecular masses of components $a$ and $b$;
$P=$ total pressure, bar;
$\Sigma_{a} v_{i}, \Sigma_{b} v_{i}=$ the summation of the special diffusion volume coefficients for components $a$ and $b$.

## - Liquids

The equation developed by Wilke and Chang (1955) can be used to predict liquid diffusivity:

$$
D_{L}=\frac{1.173 \times 10^{-13}(\phi M)^{0.5} T}{\mu V_{m}^{0.6}}
$$

where
$D_{L}=$ liquid diffusivity, $\mathrm{m}^{2} / \mathrm{s}$;
$\phi=$ an association factor for the solvent;
$=2.6$ for water (some workers recommend 2.26);
$=1.9$ for methanol:
$=1.5$ for ethanol;
$=1.0$ for unassociated solvents;
$M=$ molecular mass of solvent;
$m=$ viscosity of solvent, $\mathrm{mN} \mathrm{s} / \mathrm{m} 2$;
$T$ = temperature, K ;
$V_{m}=$ molar volume of the solute at its boiling point, $\mathrm{m} 3 / \mathrm{kmol}$. This can be estimated from the group contributions given in Table.

The Wilke-Chang equation gives satisfactory predictions for the diffusivity of organic compounds in water but not for water in organic solvents.

## Surface Tension

It is usually difficult to find experimental values for surface tension for any but the more commonly used liquids.
A useful compilation of experimental values is that by Jasper (1972), which covers over 2000 pure liquids. Othmer et al. (1968) give a nomograph covering about 100 compounds.

If reliable values of the liquid and vapor density are available, the surface tension can be estimated from the Sugden parachor, which can be estimated by a group contribution method (Sugden, 1924):

$$
\sigma=\left[\frac{P_{c h}\left(\rho_{L}-\rho_{v}\right)}{M}\right]^{4} \times 10^{-12}
$$

where
$\sigma=$ surface tension, $\mathrm{mJ} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$ (dyne $/ \mathrm{cm}$ );
$P_{c h}=$ Sugden's parachor:
$\rho_{L}=$ liquid density, $\mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{m}^{3}$;
$\rho_{v}=$ density of the saturated vapor, $\mathrm{kg} / \mathrm{m}^{3}$;
$M=$ molecular mass;
$\sigma, \rho_{L}, \rho_{v}$ evaluated at the system temperature.
The vapor density can be neglected when it is small compared with the liquid density.

## - Mixtures

The surface tension of a mixture is rarely a simple function of composition. However, for hydrocarbons a rough value can be calculated by assuming a linear relationship:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\sigma_{m}=\sigma_{1} x_{1}+\sigma_{2} x_{2} \cdots . & \text { where } \\
& \sigma_{m}=\text { surface tension of mixture; } \\
& \sigma_{1}, \sigma_{2}=\text { surface tension of components; } \\
& x_{1}, x_{2}=\text { component mol fractions. }
\end{array}
$$

Critical Constants
Values of the critical temperature and pressure are needed for prediction methods that correlate physical properties with the reduced conditions.
It is also important to know the critical conditions when applying equation of state methods, as some of the equation of state models are unreliable close to the critical point.

Experimental values for many substances can be found in various handbooks and in Appendix. If reliable experimental values cannot be found, techniques are available for estimating the critical constants with sufficient accuracy for most design purposes.
For organic compounds, Lydersen's method is normally used (Lydersen, 1955):
$T_{c}=\frac{T_{b}}{\left[0.567+\sum \Delta T-\left(\sum \Delta T\right)^{2}\right]}$ where
$\mathrm{T}_{\mathrm{c}}=$ critical temperature, K ;
$P_{c}=$ critical pressure, atm (1.0133 bar);
$\mathrm{V}_{c}=$ molar volume at the critical conditions, $\mathrm{m} 3 / \mathrm{kmol}$;
$T_{b}=$ normal boiling point, $K$;
$M=$ relative molecular mass;
$\Delta T=$ critical temperature increments,
$\Delta P=$ critical pressure increments,
$\Delta V=$ molar volume increments ,

## Phase Equilibrium Data

Phase equilibrium data are needed for the design of all separation processes that depend on differences in concentration between phases.
Experimental data have been published for several thousand binary and many multicomponent systems. All published data are comprised in volumes to DECHEMA, vapor-liquid and liquidliquid data collection (DECHEMA, 1977).

- Phase Equilibrium

The thermodynamic equilibrium between two phases of a multicomponent mixture is that for every component, i

$$
\boldsymbol{f}_{i}^{v}=\boldsymbol{f}_{\boldsymbol{i}}^{L}
$$

where $f_{i}^{v}$ is the vapor-phase fugacity and $f_{i}^{L}$ is the liquid-phase fugacity of component i:

$$
\boldsymbol{f}_{i}^{v}=\boldsymbol{P} \phi_{i} \boldsymbol{y}_{i}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \boldsymbol{f}_{\boldsymbol{i}}^{\boldsymbol{L}}=\boldsymbol{f}_{\boldsymbol{i}}^{\boldsymbol{O}} \boldsymbol{\gamma}_{\boldsymbol{i}} \boldsymbol{x}_{\boldsymbol{i}} \quad \begin{array}{l}
\text { where } \\
\mathrm{P}=\text { total system pressure; }
\end{array} \\
& \phi_{i}=\text { vapor fugacity coefficient; } \\
& y_{i}=\text { concentration of component } i \text { in the vapor phase: } \\
& \boldsymbol{f}_{i}^{\text {OL }}=\text { standard state fugacity of the pure liquid; } \\
& y_{i}=\text { liquid-phase activity coefficient; } \\
& x_{i}=\text { concentration of component } i \text { in the liquid phase: }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Substitution and rearrangement gives following relation

$$
K_{i}=\frac{y_{i}}{x_{i}}=\frac{\gamma_{i} f_{i}^{o L}}{P \phi_{i}}
$$

where
$\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{i}}$ is the distribution coefficient (the K value);
$\phi_{i}$ can be calculated from an appropriate equation of state:
$\boldsymbol{f}_{i}^{\boldsymbol{O L}}$ can be computed from the following expression:

$$
f_{i}^{o L}=P_{i}^{o} \phi_{i}^{s}\left\{\exp \left\{\frac{\left(P-P_{i}^{o}\right)}{R T} v_{i}^{L}\right\}\right\}
$$

where
$P_{i=}^{o}=$ the pure component vapor pressure (which can be calculated from the Antoine equation; $\mathrm{N} / \mathrm{m}^{2}$;
$\phi_{i}^{s}=$ the fugacity coefficient of the pure component $i$ at saturation;
$v_{i}^{L}=$ the liquid molar volume, $\mathrm{m}^{3} / \mathrm{mol}$.

The exponential term in equation is known as the Poynting correction and corrects the effects of pressure on the liquidphase fugacity.
$\phi_{i}^{s}$ is calculated using the same equation of state used to calculate $\phi_{i}$.
For systems in which the vapor phase imperfections are not significant, equation reduces to the familiar Raoult's law equation:

$$
K_{i}=\frac{\gamma_{i} P_{i}^{o}}{P}
$$

- Relative Volatility

The relative volatility of two components can be expressed as the ratio of their $K$ values:

$$
\alpha_{i j}=\frac{K_{i}}{K_{j}}
$$

For ideal mixtures (obeying Raoult's law):

$$
\begin{gathered}
\boldsymbol{K}_{i}=\frac{\boldsymbol{P}_{i}^{o}}{P} \\
\alpha_{i j}=\frac{\boldsymbol{K}_{i}{ }^{o}}{\boldsymbol{K}_{j}{ }^{o}}=\frac{\boldsymbol{P}_{i}{ }^{o}}{\boldsymbol{P}_{j}{ }^{o}}
\end{gathered}
$$

where $K_{i}{ }^{o}$ and $K_{j}{ }^{o}$ are the ideal K values for components i and j .

- K-values for Hydrocarbons

A useful source of K -values for light hydrocarbons is the wellknown "De Priester charts" (Dabyburjor, 1978).
These charts give the $K$-values over a wide range of temperature and pressure.
Coulson \& Richardson's Chemical Engineering. Vol. 6, Chemical Engineering Design.pdf

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