

PLOODING VELOCITIES
IN BUBBLE PLATE COLUMNS

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This is to certify that the

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Charles Carleton Sisler

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Major professor

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FLOODING VELOCITIES IN BUBBLE PLATE COLUMNS

Ву

Charles Carleton Sisler

A THESIS

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies of Michigan State College of Agriculture and Applied Science in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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INTRODUCTION

The capacity of a bubble plate column is usually limited by the quantity of vapor that can rise through the column without causing some undesirable effect. In many cases the maximum allowable vapor velocity is the velocity above which the liquid will no longer flow down from plate to plate in a normal manner, and the column is said to flood. In other cases the specifications for the overhead product from the column may necessitate complete freedom of contaminants that are present in the liquid, and the allowable vapor velocity is one that will result in no appreciable entrainment of liquid in the vapor. Other undesirable effects that sometime arise from excessive vapor velocities are channeling of vapor through only a portion of the bubble caps on a plate and dumping of liquid through inactive caps.

Economic considerations dictate that a column should be designed with as small a diameter as is consistent with satisfactory operation at the design capacity. Also, a column that is grossly oversized in diameter may have unstable plates, and the dumping of liquid through inactive caps may result in a low distillation efficiency. (27) Yet the only methods available for calculating the maximum allowable vapor velocity, and hence the diameter of the column, are empirical, and there is no general agreement as to which of the methods gives the most reliable estimate of allowable velocity.

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All the methods in common use today are related to the "F-factor", which is defined as:

$$F = V \left(d_{v}/d_{1} \right)^{0.5}$$

where V is the superficial vapor velocity, based on column cross-section, in feet per second, and $\mathbf{d_V}$ and $\mathbf{d_l}$ are the vapor and liquid densities, respectively, in pounds per cubic foot.

One design procedure consists of the assumption of a vapor rate, calculation of the pressure drop through the plates, and selection of a plate spacing such that the liquid backup in the downspouts will be high enough to permit liquid downflow against the pressure drop. The F-factor enters this procedure, because the commonly used methods calculate that part of the pressure drop which is due to flow of vapor through the risers and caps as proportional to the square of the vapor velocity. Expressed as head of liquid, this pressure drop is calculated as proportional to $V^2 d_V/d_1$, which is F^2 . (12, 15, 17, 20, 29)

Other procedures in common use today are based upon entrainment considerations. Most of the methods are intended to permit calculation of a vapor velocity such that entrainment is negligible, or else a velocity that is typical of commercial practice. (8, 9, 28, 29, 46, 47, 57) Since increased vapor velocity, up to a certain point, results in increased plate efficiency despite the increased

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entrainment, one equation has been proposed as a means of estimating the vapor velocity at which distillation efficiency will be at a maximum. (19) None of these methods is purported to permit calculation of the vapor velocity at which the column will flood.

The methods based on entrainment agree in that the calculated vapor velocity is proportional to the minus one-half power of the vapor density, hence F would be constant. In some methods other variables, such as liquid density, interfacial tension, plate spacing, and bubble cap slot area are also introduced.

The objective of this study was to determine the flooding velocity of a pilot-plant sized distillation column at different vapor densities to ascertain whether the flooding took place at a fixed value of F.

Using steam and water in the experimental column, the flooding velocity was determined at three different pressure conditions: atmospheric, 40 psia., and at about 3 or 4 psia. The F-factor at which flooding took place decreased with decreasing vapor density. The pressure drops observed were not proportional to F^2 , except at constant vapor density. At constant F the pressure drop increased with decreasing vapor density. These observations suggest a need for improvement of methods for predicting pressure drop through bubble plates.

As the factors that contribute to the flooding

of bubble plate columns are numerous and interacting, a brief survey of pertinent literature follows.

SURVEY OF PREVIOUS STUDIES

Allowable Vapor Velocity

Although the present methods for the calculation of allowable vapor velocity leave much to be desired, they are a substantial improvement over the rules-of-thumb developed in the early days of continuous fractionation in bubble plate columns. In 1922 Peters (38) recommended a maximum superficial velocity of 1 to 1.3 feet per second. In 1929 Chillas and Weir (11) advocated the use of higher velocities, and suggested that baffles be installed to decrease entrainment. Commenting on their paper, Peters said, "We found that really the limit is not the velocity at all . . . It's the pressure drop in almost every case." Badger and McCabe (2) state that the vapor velocity, in feet per second, ordinarily should be equal to the distance between plates, in feet.

Souders and Brown (46, 47) stated that the vapor capacity of a column was usually limited by the quantity of entrainment that could be tolerated. They proposed a theoretical equation containing an empirically derived constant for calculation of the maximum allowable vapor velocity:

 $W = C \left[d_{\mathbf{v}}(d_{\mathbf{1}} - d_{\mathbf{v}}) \right]^{0.5}$

where W is the mass velocity of the vapor, in pounds per hour per square foot, C is a constant, and d_v and d_1 are vapor and liquid densities, respectively, in pounds per

 $\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{2}\right)\cdot \left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{2}\right)$

cubic foot. Theoretically, with proper evaluation of the constant, this is the equation for the mass velocity of vapor that would just suspend a spherical drop of liquid against the force of gravity, less bouyancy. They evaluated the constant from operating data for a number of commercial columns, and published a graph showing the value of C for various plate spacings. Two curves were presented for two different surface tensions. Later Brown (8) modified the graph by adding more curves for various surface tensions.

Carey (9) published a similar equation,

$$V = K \left[(d_1 - d_v)/d_v \right]^{0.5}$$

which is the same as the Souders and Brown equation except that both sides have been divided by the vapor density, to give an expression for allowable linear velocity rather than mass velocity. Tabulated values of the constant K were given for various plate spacings and liquid seals. Carey mentioned some of the complexities other than entrainment that result from high vapor velocities, such as change in the type of vapor-liquid contact, froth buildup, jetting or spouting, and change in weir and downspout performance.

Edmister (18) presented a graph based on the work of Souders and Brown (47) and Peavy and Baker (36) for estimation of allowable vapor velocity as a function of vapor density, liquid density, liquid seal, and the plate spacing less the depth of liquid on the plate. He

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$$\frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(1 - \frac{1}{2})} = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{(1 - \frac{1}$$

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recommended it for preliminary design only. Clay, Hutson, and Kleiss (13) compared a capacity curve calculated by the Edmister method with their curve for 90 percent of experimental flooding load. The average agreement was better for the Edmister method than for the Souders and Brown method, but the Edmister curve was the wrong shape, giving an estimated capacity that was too low at high pressures and too high at low pressures.

Kirkbride (29) recommended that the diameter of a column be calculated so that entrainment is nil, and that plate spacing be calculated afterward so that the liquid head in the downspout is adequate. He based the diameter on a maximum allowable vapor velocity calculated by the equation:

$$V = 3.5 (T/MP)^{0.5}$$

where V is the allowable velocity in feet per second, T is the vapor temperature in degrees Rankine, M is the molecular weight of the vapor, and P is the absolute pressure in pounds per square inch. It is to be noted that the term T/MP is proportional to the reciprocal of the vapor density if the vapor is treated as an ideal gas. Kirkbride says this equation is conservative, and that the calculated velocity can be exceeded by 100 percent without entrainment becoming important, provided the plate spacing is adequate to handle the liquid load.

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the vapor velocity at which distillation efficiency is maximum, in contrast to the velocities calculated by the above methods, at which entrainment is minimum. His equation is:

$$d_{x} v^{2} = 0.375$$

As entrainment is appreciable at the velocity calculated by this method, the method cannot be used in cases where entrainment would affect some quality of the product such as taste, odor, or color.

Some designers estimate the maximum allowable vapor velocity in terms of a modification of the factor F and define the factor as $V(d_v)^{0.5}$, with no mention of the liquid density. (28) Since the range of liquid densities normally encountered in distillation columns is quite narrow compared to the range of vapor densities, a design procedure that consistently neglects the liquid density (tantamount to considering it to be constant) would not differ a great deal from a procedure that takes liquid density into consideration.

Zenz (57) advocates calculation of the vapor capacity per bubble cap rather than the superficial velocity based on column cross-section. He offers the equation:

$$V_c = \frac{S_o \quad W(d_1/d_v)^{0.5}}{2.43}$$

where V_c is vapor capacity in CFM per cap, S_o is the slot opening in inches, W is the total slot width per cap, and

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no di nazione i magneti i magn Tambiga i magneti i d₁ and d_v are the liquid and vapor densities, respectively, in pounds per cubic foot. In order to use this equation a designer must assume a slot opening. Zenz mentions that slots should be blown open no less than 0.3 inches and no greater than 1.25 inches. It seems that a designer would require specific experience upon which to base a choice of slot openings, as the above limits represent an eightfold variation in cap vapor capacity.

Pressure Drop

Pressure drop is important in a study of column flooding since it affects the height of liquid backup in the downspouts, and hence affects the flooding velocity at any given plate spacing.

Cicalese, et al., (12) present equations for calculating the pressure drop for vapor flow through the cap riser, reversal of flow, flow through the dry slots, and flow through the liquid on the plate. Dauphine (15), Edmister (17), and Eld (20) also give methods for calculating the pressure drop. All these methods indicate that the items contributing to pressure drop can be grouped into two categories, one of which is proportional to F², the other of which is a function of the slot submergence and the effective density of the fluid.

Rogers and Thiele (42) discuss the effect of the relative height of the weir and the cap slots and the effect of foam height on pressure drop.

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Souders, Huntington, Corneil and Emert (48) concluded that the pressure drop is influenced greatly by the head of fluid (usually a mixture of liquid and vapor) required to pass the liquid into the downspout.

Entrainment

Entrainment can be classified into several basic types: small droplets entrained from the liquid surface at moderate vapor velocities, large drops splashed by a jetting action at higher velocities, and froth resulting from the foaming characteristics of the material. (1, 30, 33) Strang (50) also reported considerable re-entrainment of drops that had collected on the bottom of the plate and flowed to the edge of the vapor risers.

Small droplets have no effect on flooding, and little effect on column operation except in those cases where some quality of the product, such as taste, odor, or color, is concerned. Large drops have an appreciable effect on plate efficiency, and can contribute slightly to a tendency to flood by increasing the amount of liquid downflow. Large quantities of froth can cause flooding either by interfering with the flow in the downspouts or by filling the space between plates, since the hydraulic gradient to cause flow across the plate is much higher for froth than for liquid. If appreciable froth is entrained in the vapor flow to the next plate, a decrease in plate efficiency and a slight increase in the liquid load result. (13, 42, 48)

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The type and quantity of entrainment depend upon many factors. Much has been written about the effects of superficial velocity, slot velocity, vapor density, and plate spacing. (1, 10, 25, 35, 43, 45, 50, 53, 54)

The effects of foaming tendency and interfacial tension are discussed by Kirschbaum (30, 33), White (56), and Souders and Brown (47). These effects sometimes vary in an unpredictable manner. Pyott, Jackson, and Huntington (39), working with air and kerosene, got different curves of entrainment vs. either mass velocity or linear velocity, for different temperatures. They explained this difference as due to a change in foaming characteristics. Rhodes and Slachman (41), distilling a benzene-toluene mixture, observed that entrainment went through a minimum at 60-70 mole percent benzene, without apparent change in foam or manner of boiling. The variation seemed to be in drop size. Distilling an ethanol-water mixture, they observed that foaming varied with composition. They noted entrainment due to foam rising to the next plate at ethanol concentrations higher than 30 percent. Thompson (52), working with the system ethanol-water-calcium chloride, reported that the critical vapor velocity, beyond which entrainment increased rapidly, was lower for higher ethanol concentrations. Stabnikov (49) blew air through water, solutions of sodium hydroxide, and solutions of sodium hydroxide with soap, and found that for superficial velocities below 0.25 meters per

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second, entrainment was greater for foaming liquids than for non-foaming liquids; at higher velocities the converse was true.

Several equations have been derived for calculating the effect of entrainment on plate efficiency or the required number of plates. (3, 4, 14, 19, 40, 43, 47, 53) Peavy and Baker (36) found the optimum vapor velocity calculated by the method of Colburn (14) to be beyond flooding velocity in many cases. Brown and Lockhart (7) studied data from both laboratory and commercial columns, and concluded that plate efficiency levelled off at a maximum, extending in most cases over a range of vapor velocities of from 0.8 to 1.2 times those calculated by the method of Souders and Brown (47).

Weir and Downspout Design

A bubble plate column floods if the discharge weirs and downspouts fail to carry liquid away from each plate at a rate adequate to maintain steady-state conditions. If steady-state conditions at the required liquid rate can be maintained only with a very high liquid level on the plates, the column will not necessarily flood, but the pressure drop may be objectionably high (12, 48), and entrainment may be increased due to the decreased distance between the liquid surface and the plate above (39).

Methods for estimating the liquid level in the downspouts are presented by Kirkbride (29) and White (56),

both of whom itemize and discuss the various items that constitute this total backup head. As these methods do not take into consideration the possible interference of froth with downspout operation, both Kirkbride and White recommend that the plate spacing be at least twice the calculated height of liquid in the downspouts.

Kallam (27) pointed out the importance of the configuration of the discharge weir and downspout on liquid capacity. He found that a downspout bounded by a weir on one side and by the column wall on the other side had a higher capacity than a downspout with the same cross-sectional area bounded on all sides by a weir. In the latter case, liquid falling from one portion of the weir interfered with that falling from another part. He obtained curves of flooding velocity of an absorber at various oil-to-gas ratios, with several different downspout arrangements.

Souders, Huntington, Corneil, and Emert showed that a downspout can operate under three distinct conditions of fluid head: 1) at low heads, as a weir; 2) at intermediate heads, as a free-running orifice, accepting a mixture of liquid and vapor, but having sufficient vortex to allow separation; and 3) at high heads, as an orifice running full, with its capacity diminished by disengagement within the orifice.

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carey (9) mentioned the need for froth disengagement space between the bubble caps and the discharge weir. Peavy and Baker (36) suggested placing a top baffle in front of the weir so that the liquid must flow under it, as an aid to disengagement.

White (56) recommends that downspouts be deliberately over-designed, as they constitute a relatively unimportant cost item but are an important factor in flooding.

Plate Stability

A bubble plate is said to be stable if vapor issues from all the slots on the plate. A plate that is unstable, due to poor design, is characterized by a high hydraulic gradient, with the liquid at the liquid inlet end of the plate so deep that vapor preferentially flows through the shallower part of the plate. Liquid may dump through the risers of the inactive caps. As the vapor passes through a fewer number of caps than the designer intended, it flows at a higher velocity, resulting in increased entrainment. The higher velocity also causes a greater pressure drop, which further aggravates the unstable condition by increasing the liquid level in the downspouts and on the deep side of the plate. (28)

Plate instability can cause a column to flood, especially if it is a large column with a high liquid rate, when the excessive hydraulic gradient causes liquid to back up to the top of the downspout. Harrington, Bragg,

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and Rhys (24) describe the difficulties encountered with several extremely large columns installed by the Standard Oil Company of New Jersey around the beginning of World War II. In addition to an excessively high liquid gradient caused by the large quantity of liquid flowing over a conventional arrangement of caps and hold-down bars, some of these columns exhibited a unique problem due to vapor cross flow. As vapor passed through caps at the liquid discharge side of the plates only, it had to cross to the opposite side of the column after it passed each plate. One column had large I-beams to support the plates, and the clearance beneath the beams was such that the velocity of the vapor cross flow was more than ten times the calculated superficial velocity. The cross flow entrained liquid from the shallow side of the plate and deposited it on the deep side. The buildup would continue for about two minutes, after which the differential pressure would become great enough to blow vapor up through the deep side of the plate, after which the cycle would repeat. Another column had a similar difficulty with vapor cross flow, but flooded due to full downspouts instead of surging.

Several methods for the calculation of hydraulic gradient and the design of stable plates have been published. (16, 21, 22, 23, 28, 51)

Eld (20) and Kallam (27) caution against designing columns larger than necessary. At relatively low vapor

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rates not all the caps will be active, and liquid will dump through the risers of the inactive caps.

Flooding Velocity

Very little has been published about the experimental determination of flooding velocity.

Since this study was completed, Clay, Hutson, and Kleiss (13) have reported an investigation of the effect of load and pressure on performance of a commercial bubble plate column separating isobutane from normal butane. Flooding in their column was due to the rising of the froth level to the next plate. The downspouts worked satisfactorily, and the downflow rate had no appreciable effect on the flooding velocity. They recommend the use of the Souders and Brown method in lieu of better capacity data, and suggest multiplication of the constant by 1.33 for light hydrocarbons. This will give a curve equivalent to about 90 percent of the experimentally-determined flooding velocity.

Peavy and Baker (36) were unable to determine accurately at what velocity flooding began in laboratory investigations, as the flooding velocity varied with the rate of increase in vapor velocity. Accordingly, they recommend that columns be operated well below the flooding velocity range.

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EXPERIMENTAL EQUIPMENT

A modified Model A-2 Experimental Laboratory
Distillation Unit, manufactured by the Vulcan Copper and
Supply Company, of Cincinnati, Ohio, was used for this
study. The column of this unit is made from 8-inch seamless copper pipe, and contains 24 bubble plates spaced on
6-inch centers. Each plate has two 3-inch Vulcan pressed
bubble cap assemblies.

Total slot area is 5.54 square inches. The cross-sectional area of the downpipes is 3.3 square inches, and the effective length of both the distributing weir and the overflow weir is about 6.5 inches. The effective cross-sectional area of the column, allowing for the downpipe, is about 0.323 square feet.

Certain modifications of auxiliary equipment were required for this study. The experimental objective was the determination at three different pressures of the vapor velocity that would cause the column to flood, as evidenced by the differential pressure across the column. A steam and water system was used to avoid the complications of composition changes.

Accordingly, the calandria was blanked off and steam was introduced directly into the bottom of the column. The perforated sparger was removed. Water from the bottom of the column was pumped through a rotameter to the top

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plate of the column to provide a metered liquid downflow. Figure 1 is a schematic diagram of the equipment and piping.

The valving arrangement was necessarily different for operation under the three pressure conditions: atmospheric, pressure, and vacuum. For the atmospheric runs the atmospheric vent valve V-6 (referring to Figure 1) and needle valve V-5 were open to keep the condenser at atmospheric pressure. Valve V-2 was open so that condensate from the condenser would flow to a barrel on a scale, to be weighed. Valve V-4 was open, so that any water accumulating in the bottom of the column, due to heat losses, would be bled off to another barrel on a scale. The liquid level controller in the bottom of the column and control valve V-9 controlled this flow. All other valves were closed, except V-10, by which the downflow rate was controlled manually.

For the runs under pressure, valve V-7, connecting with a compressed air supply, was open. Condensate from the condenser was routed through valve V-3 and relief valve RV-1. A pressure of 25 psig., as indicated by pressure gauge PG-1 at the bottom of the column, was maintained by careful adjustment of needle valve V-5 and relief valve RV-1. The relief valve handled a mixture of air and water. Bottom accumulation was again discharged through valves V-4 and V-9. All other valves were closed except V-10, by which the

downflow rate was controlled manually.

For the vacuum runs, valve V-8, connecting with a vacuum pump, and atmospheric vent valve V-6 were open. Needle valve V-5 was just cracked, to permit a small amount of air to be drawn into the piping to result in a stable pressure at the vacuum pump. Condensate from the condenser was brought through valve V-1 to combine with water from the bottom of the column on the suction side of the pump. All the condensate was discharged through valves V-4 and V-9. All other valves were closed except V-10, by which the downflow rate was controlled manually.

A larger condenser was installed in place of the one that came with the equipment. As the unit installed was a two-pass baffled heat exchanger, not designed as a condenser, it was connected so as to condense inside the tubes, and cooling water was piped to the shell. It was installed in a horizontal position, with the vapor line from the top of the column connected to the upper half of the tube bundle. A portion of the vapor line was raised to prevent condensate from running back into the column.

The separator, where non-condensibles disengaged from the condensate, consisted of a vertical section of 3-inch pipe, fed at a 3-inch tee in the middle.

A length of Saran tubing was installed vertically, as shown in Figure 1, connecting the top of the separator with the water piping below the bottom of the column. This

tubing and the gauge glass in the bottom of the column served as the two legs of a manometer to indicate the pressure drop through the column in inches of water. This arrangement gave greater sensitivity than did the mercury manometer originally provided with the distillation equipment. Also, trouble with the mercury manometer was experienced in early exploratory runs, as vapor condensed in the connecting tubing unless the air purge rates were increased to a point that they resulted in an appreciable pressure drop in the tubing.

Steam was supplied by the College power plant at a nominal pressure of 100 psig. Unfortunately, the piping between the power plant and the Chemical Engineering Building, where the experimental equipment was located, was so small that the pressure dropped considerably at the flow rates used in this study.

A Foxboro Model 40 recording flow controller was installed to control the steam input to the column. The flow was measured by the differential pressure across a 1.481-inch diameter orifice installed in a 3-inch schedule 40 pipe. The pressure in the orifice run was regulated by a Fisher Model 92-A pilot-operated reducing valve.

The condensate streams from the condenser and the bottom of the column were collected in open steel barrels on platform scales.

Figure 2 is a photograph of the equipment.

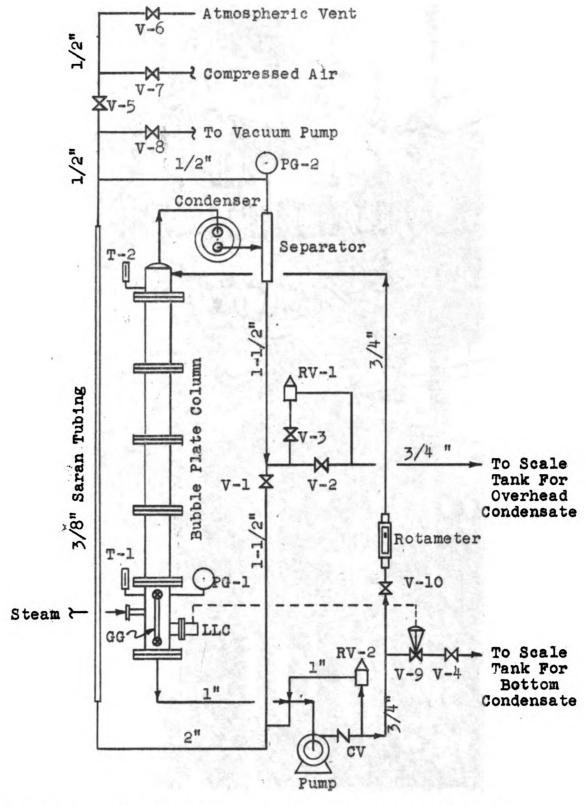


Figure 1. Schematic Diagram of Equipment and Piping.



Figure 2. Photograph of Equipment

PROCEDURE AND CALCULATIONS

Preliminary runs indicated the need for increasing the steam rate in small increments, as the column would
flood after a large increase, even at relatively low steam
rates.

Preliminary runs also indicated that the column could not be flooded at a pressure much higher than 25 psig. due to the pressure drop in the steam line from the power plant. The series of pressure runs, originally planned for 60 or 70 psig., was accordingly run at only 25 psig.

Data were entered in the operating log at frequent intervals. The timing varied, but generally entries were made at 1, 3, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25 and 30 minutes after the steam control point was changed. Some runs were observed for longer periods if erratic behavior justified doing so. Some of the runs, in which the column flooded, lasted only a minute or two.

The following data were recorded at these frequent intervals: time since controller setting, weight of overhead condensate collection drum, weight of bottoms condensate collection drum, height of water in both sides of the manometer (the Saran tubing and the gauge glass on the column), temperatures at bottom and top of column, downflow rotameter reading, pressure reading at the base of the column and at the separator. Once during each run the

following data were also noted: time run started, steam controller setting, pressure of main steam line and of steam at orifice. Thermometers were read to the nearest half degree C., pressure gauges to the nearest pound, and manometer legs to the nearest tenth of an inch.

The data that were obtainable at the main floor level were usually all obtained within a period of one minute. The temperature at the top of the column and the pressure at the separator were read less frequently, and usually about a minute before the other items.

The bottoms condensate collection drum was on a dial-type scale, which was read at exact time intervals, usually of 5 or 10 minutes, timed by a stop watch. The collection drum for overhead condensate (in the atmospheric and pressure runs only) was on a beam-type scale. The flow rate to this drum was determined by timing the interval between the rising of the beam at two settings, usually 10 pounds apart. Several time and weight readings were always taken and the increments were checked for uniformity. This precluded gross errors in scale or watch readings, and also ascertained that steady state conditions had been reached before the weight data were taken.

As the original log contained over a hundred pages, it is not reproduced here in detail. Tables IV, V, and VI, in the Appendix, are a consolidation of the log, with the data used in the calculations on one line for each

steam setting. In transferring the data from the log to the consolidated tables, the condensate collection rate for each drum was converted to pounds per hour by straightforward arithmetic that requires no explanation. A pressure drop figure that was typical for the period during which the rates were determined was selected for each run. In the few cases where the pressure drop surged more than one or two inches of water, two figures were entered in the table, representing the extremes.

Tables I, II, and III in the Appendix develop
the F-factor for each run, for conditions at the bottom of
the column. The bottom of the column was chosen because
both the vapor rate and the liquid downflow rate are highest
at the bottom, due to heat losses. Hence, in this study,
flooding conditions were probably first reached at the
bottom plates.

The runs have been designated by two letters and a number. The first letters (A, P, or V) signify atmospheric, pressure, or vacuum. The second letters (L or H) signify a low or high liquid downflow rate. The numbers indicate sequence.

In all the runs at the "low" downflow rate, the downflow reading of the rotameter was 12 (arbitrary units). At the high downflow rate, the rotameter read 24. These rates were determined to be 304 and 671 pounds per hour, respectively. For the atmospheric and pressure runs, wherein

any condensate that accumulated at the bottom was withdrawn and weighed separately, this accumulation was added
to the metered downflow rate. For the vacuum runs no such
correction was possible.

The steam input, in pounds per hour, is the total condensate rate, since at steady state conditions, the steam input and the condensate discharge must be equal. A graph comparing condensate rates with the steam controller setting, included in the Appendix, shows some scatter. The controller setting and this graph were used to estimate the steam input rate in those cases where the column flooded rapidly and no condensate rates were obtained.

The quality of the steam supply was not determined experimentally. A drain leg and trap were located just ahead of the regulating valve for the orifice run.

As steam normally leaves the power plant with not more than 5 degrees of superheat (according to power plant personnel) and passes through several hundred feet of pipe between buildings, it seems safe to assume that the stream was saturated just before it was throttled by the regulator, at whatever pressure existed at that point during any given run. The steam was also assumed to be dry, although it is quite possible that some water was entrained at high rates.

If the steam was saturated at line pressure before throttling by the regulator and the automatic control valve, it was superheated when it entered the column. It any condensate that accumulated at the bottom was withdrawn and weighed separately, this accumulation was added
to the metered downflow rate. For the vacuum runs no such
correction was possible.

The steam input, in pounds per hour, is the total condensate rate, since at steady state conditions, the steam input and the condensate discharge must be equal. A graph comparing condensate rates with the steam controller setting, included in the Appendix, shows some scatter. The controller setting and this graph were used to estimate the steam input rate in those cases where the column flooded rapidly and no condensate rates were obtained.

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If the steam was saturated at line pressure before throttling by the regulator and the automatic control
valve, it was superheated when it entered the column. It

would accordingly vaporize a slight amount of water from either the bottom of the column or the bottom plate, and become saturated at the conditions prevailing there. Thus for every pound of steam input, slightly over a pound would rise through the lower part of the column.

Run A-L-l is cited as an example of a typical calculation:

Steam line pressure gauge reading: 101 psig.

Corrected pressure, from gauge calibration

in Appendix: 92 psig.

Absolute pressure: 92 + 15 = 107 psia.

Bottom temperature, to nearest half degree C: 102.0

Bottom temperature, to nearest degree F: 216

As throttling is isenthalpic, it was possible to calculate the quantity of saturated steam rising in the bottom part of the column from enthalpy data, taken from steam tables (Keenan, J. H., and Keyes, F. G., Thermodynamic Properties of Steam, John Wiley and Sons, New York, 1936).

 h_g at 107 psia. = 1,188.4 Btu./lb.

In its final condition, the steam was saturated at the bottom temperature of 216 degrees F.

 h_g at $216^{\circ}F. = 1,151.9$ Btu/lb.

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The decrease in enthalpy of the steam, 36.5 Btu/lb., was used to vaporize water at $216^{\circ}F$. to saturated steam at $216^{\circ}F$. This heat of vaporization is

$$h_{fg}$$
 at 216°F. = 967.8 Btu/lb.

For every pound of steam input, the amount of water vaporized in the bottom of the column is

$$36.5/967.8 = 0.038 \text{ lb.}$$

and the steam rising in the column is

$$1 + 0.038 = 1.038$$
 1b.

The steam rate rising in the column is then

$$(1.038)(251) = 261 lbs./hr.$$

The specific volume of the saturated steam is also taken from the steam tables:

$$v_g$$
 at $216^{\circ}F. = 24.90$ cu. ft./lb.

The superficial velocity, based on a cross-sectional area of 0.323 sq. ft., is calculated

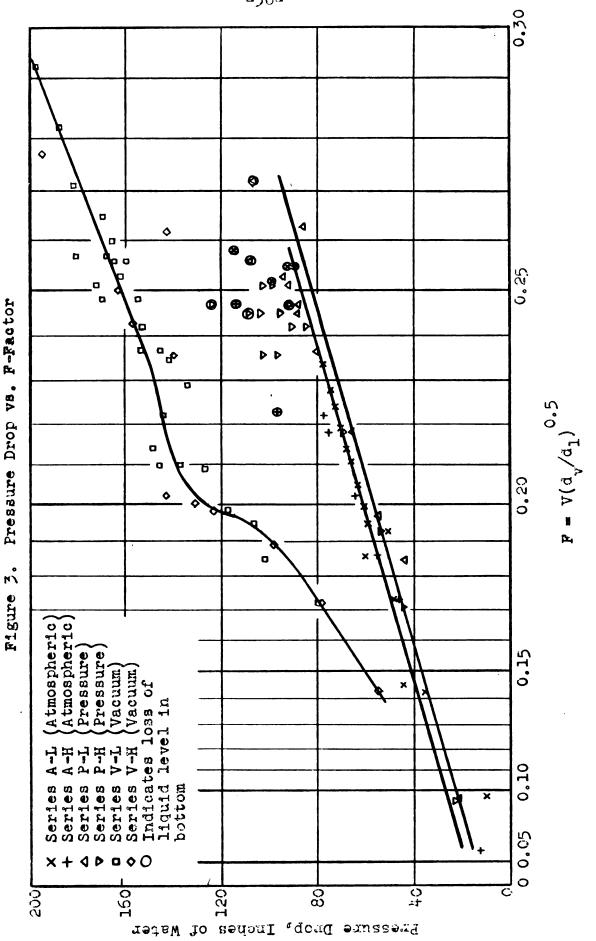
$$V = (261)(24.90)/(0.323)(3600) = 5.59 \text{ ft./sec.}$$

The factor F is calculated

$$F = V(d_v/d_1) = V(v_1/v_v)$$
= (5.59)(0.01674/24.90) = 0.142

The above calculations were repeated for each run.

Immediately following is Figure 3, which shows column pressure drop \underline{vs} . the factor F for the atmospheric, pressure, and vacuum runs.



DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

In Figure 3 the abscissas were plotted on a scale proportional to F^2 rather than F, as the literature indicates that pressure drop should be linear with respect to F^2 . (12, 17, 20) The data for runs at any one of the three pressures exhibit this linearity below the flooding point, but the data for the three series do not coincide. At any given value of F the pressure drop for the atmospheric series is slightly higher than for the pressure series, and the pressure drop for the vacuum series is considerably higher.

During several of the atmospheric and pressure runs, flooding was evidenced by the loss of the liquid level in the bottom of the column. Data points for those runs have been encircled on Figure 3, to denote definite flooding. Some other runs, especially in the pressure series, showed erratic pressure drops but gave no visible indication of flooding.

Apparently the column was flooded during most of the vacuum runs, although the author was unaware of the flooded condition at the time. There was no visible indication of improper operation. The pressure drop was high, but steady and reproducible. The condenser discharge piping was connected with the bottom of the column during the vacuum runs, so that overhead condensate and any bottom

accumulation could be pumped out of the system, hence a normal level was maintained in the gauge glass at the bottom of the column.

A closer inspection of the pressure drop data indicates that the column must have been flooded during many of the vacuum runs. Differential pressures as high as 198 inches of water were recorded. Since the total distance between the top plate and the bottom plate was only 138 inches, water pumped onto the top plate could not have come down the column, and must have gone up the vapor line and through the condenser. The manometer was connected so as to give the total pressure drop through the column, the vapor line, and the condenser, but the pressure drop through the vapor line and the condenser would be negligible unless they were partially flooded.

In Figure 3 the pressure drop data for the vacuum runs show a hump in the F-factor range of 0.19 to 0.21, with pressure drops ranging from 100 to 150 inches of water. During the runs in this range the water level probably rose in the top section of the column above the top plate, and into the vapor line. At higher F-factors the data lie along a straight line, but with considerable scatter.

Under vacuum, the column apparently started to flood at an F-factor of about 0.19 or 0.20, compared to 0.22 for operation at atmospheric pressure or 0.24 for operation at 25 psig.

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The maximum pressure drop at which the column could be operated without flooding appears to be 80 or 90 inches of liquid, or perhaps 100 inches under vacuum conditions.

In the atmospheric and pressure runs, slightly higher F-factors were permissible at low liquid rates than at high liquid rates. In the vacuum runs, the flooding point was not determined with sufficient accuracy to detect the effect of liquid rate. This relationship should prevail under any conditions, however, as a higher liquid rate causes a higher head over the discharge weirs, a higher friction head in the downspouts, and a higher head over the distributing weirs.

SUMMARY

The effect of vapor density on flooding velocity in a pilot-plant sized bubble plate column was investigated by flooding the column at three different pressures, using a steam and water system.

Design methods in common use today predict that the column should flood at a constant value of the F-factor, and also predict that the pressure drop through the column (not flooded) should be a linear function of F^2 .

Experimentally, the linear relationship between pressure drop and F² was observed only at constant vapor density. At constant values of F, a decrease in vapor density resulted in an appreciable increase in pressure drop. A decrease in vapor density accordingly lowered the value of F at which flooding took place, since comparable pressure drops were obtained at lower values of F.

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RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE WORK

The results of this study indicate a need for an improved method of predicting the pressure drop through bubble plates. Since the equipment and procedure in this study were not devised for the purpose of obtaining exact information on the relationship between pressure drop and vapor density, future work should begin with a preliminary investigation designed to confirm or refute the observations of this study.

This preliminary investigation could utilize the same bubble plate column, with the addition of certain accessories. The use of air and water at room temperature is recommended, rather than steam and water. This change will reduce the amount of mass transfer in the column, hence should make the data more reliable.

The pressure drop data should be taken across one plate, or across a section of the column short enough that the change in absolute pressure is of negligible magnitude. The test plate (or section) should be located midway in the column, so that the air will be saturated and in approximate thermal equilibrium with the water. It should be equipped with:

 A sloping manometer, filled with a light liquid such as water or Meriam red oil, connected with short sections of air-purged tubing, to read differential pressure;

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- 2) An accurate pressure gauge or a large mercury manometer, to indicate gauge pressure;
- 3) A thermometer; and
- 4) A gauge glass to show liquid level on the plate.

Water could be pumped onto the top plate through the reflux rotameter. A suitable rotameter, a thermometer, and a pressure gauge should be installed in the air piping. Barometer readings should be taken, to permit accurate calculation of the air density in the test section.

If the preliminary pressure drop study confirms the observations made in this study, further investigation will be needed to develop an accurate correlation between pressure drop, vapor rate, vapor density, and liquid density. This would probably involve an extensive study of pressure drop through dry bubble caps and through wet caps with various liquids, submergences, and cap layouts.

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APPENDIX

SUMMARY OF DATA AND CALCULATIONS, ATMOSPHERIC RUNS TABLE I.

Differential Pressure In. of Water	244 00000000000000000000000000000000000
0.5 (d _v /d ₁)	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
Superficial Velocity Ft./Sec.	
Specific Volume at Bottom Cu. Ft./Lb.	444448888888888848844888 884408888844444888408448844
Calculated Steam Rate at Bottom Lbs./Hr.	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
Steam Input Lbs./Hr.	サイト ちょうしょうしょうしょうしょう ちょうしょう ちょう とう とく こう とく こう らく といっと よい こう とく こう とく こう とう という という という という という という という という という
Downflow Lbs./Hr.	00100000000000000000000000000000000000
Run No.	44444444444444444444444444444444444444

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SUMMARY OF DATA AND CALCULATIONS, PRESSURE RUNS TABLE II.

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SUMMARY OF DATA AND CALCULATIONS, VACUUM RUNS TABLE III.

Differential Pressure In. of Water	-45- 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0000 0.0
0.5 F=V(d _v /d ₁)	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
Superficial Velocity Ft./Sec.	uuuuuuuuuuuuuuuuuuuuuu uuuuuuuuuuuuuuu
Specific Volume at Bottom Cu. Ft./Lb.	14887769769666666666666666666666666666666
Calculated Steam Rate at Bottom Lbs./Hr.	11100000000000000000000000000000000000
Steam Input Lbs./Hr.	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
Downflow* Lbs./Hr.	######################################
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(Continued on Next Page)

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VACUUM RUNS (Continued) OF DATA AND CALCULATIONS, SUMMARY TABLE III.

Differential Pressure In. of Water	-46-
0.5 F=V(d _v /d ₁)	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
Superficial Velocity Ft./Sec.	111111111111 4100471000000
Specific Volume at Bottom Cu. Ft./Lb.	400 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000 000
Calculated Steam Rate at Bottom Lbs./Hr.	11000000000000000000000000000000000000
Steam Input Lbs./Hr.	70 40 80 80 40 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80 80
Downflow* Lbs./Hr.	671 671 671 671 671 671 671
Run No.	V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V

Downflow rates for vacuum runs are not corrected for increases due to heat losses, as water accumulating at the bottom of the column was not withdrawn separately.

TABLE IV. CONSOLIDATED DATA FOR ATMOSPHERIC RUNS

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Psig. Orif	$ \begin{matrix} & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & $
Psig., Line	11 00000000000000000000000000000000000
Bottom Temp., C.	
Diff. Pr., In. of Water	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Lbs./Hr. Total	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$
Rate, Ll Bottom	987770000000000000000000000000000000000
Condensate Overhead	10000000000000000000000000000000000000
Steam Setting	
tarting Time	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
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Run No.	44444444444444444444444444444444444444

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TABLE V. CONSOLIDATED DATA FOR PRESSURE RUNS

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	Psig. a Orific	MUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUUU
	Psig., Line	
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· A Duda	Condensate Overhead	4000 000000000000000000000000000000000
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	Starting Date Time	6 4 4 6 4 6 4 6 6 6 4 6 6 6 4 6 6 6 4 6 6 6 4 6 6 6 4 6 6 6 4 6 6 6 4 6 6 6 6 4 6
	Run No.	17777777777777777777777777777777777777

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	in in the second						1 1	: 1						

TABLE VI. CONSOLIDATED DATA FOR VACUUM RUNS

Psig. at Orifice	_49-
Psig., Line	141444401414141414141414141414141414141
Bottom Temp., OC.	\$\$\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\
Diff. Pr., In. Water	11111111111111111111111111111111111111
s./Hr. Total	08001000000000000000000000000000000000
Rate, Lbs. Bottom T	
Condensa te Overhead	
Steam Setting	
Starting Time	00000000000000000000000000000000000000
Date	
Run Vo.	

(Continued on Next Page)

CONSOLIDATED DATA FOR VACUUM RUNS (Continued) TABLE VI.

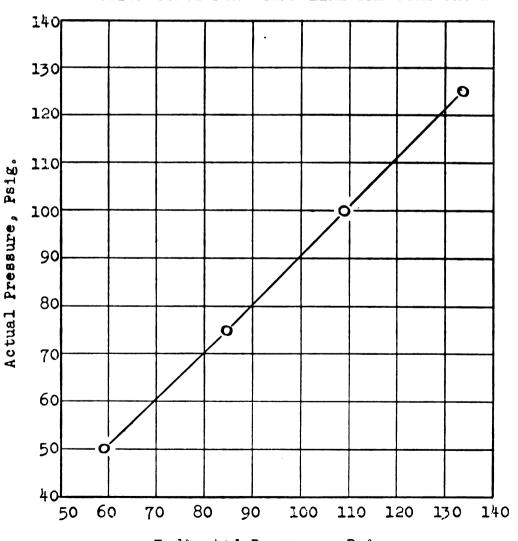
Psig. at Orifice	MUMUMUMUMUMUMUMUMUMUMUMUMUMUMUMUMUMUMU
Psig., Line	44448881006 00000000000000000000000000000000
Bottom Temp., C.	%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%%
Diff. Pr., In. Water	4000 KO C + F O O O C O C O C O C O C O C O C O C O
S./Hr. Total	70 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50
sate Rate, Lbs.	
Condensate Overhead	
Steam Setting	2000 8 8 8 8 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0
Starting Time	00011100000000000000000000000000000000
Date	
Run No.	V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V V

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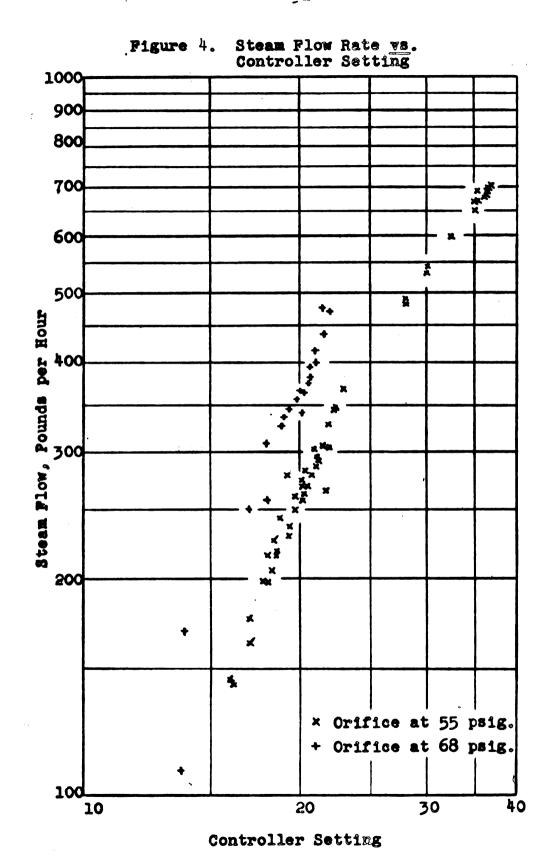
TABLE VII. PRESSURE GAUGE CALIBRATION
July 7, 1950

Actual Psig.,	Indicated Psig.						
Dead Weight Tester	Gauge on Main Steam Line	Gauge at Orifice Run					
0	5.0	0.0					
25	33.0	25.0					
50	59.0 84.5	50 .0					
75	84.5	75.0					
100	1 0 9.0	99.0					
125	133.5	124.5					

CORRECTION CURVE FOR STEAM LINE PRESSURE GAUGE



Indicated Pressure, Psig.



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