

Appendix A

One Dimensional Recirculation Model

Details of the one dimensional recirculation model of Kumar et al (1994) are given in this appendix. The method of evaluation of the input model parameters, using experimental data from CARPT (present investigation) and CT (Kumar 1994), is illustrated. The analysis of Kumar et al. (1994) is based on the approach of Rice and Geary (1990). The main difference between the two approaches lies in the functional form and method of evaluation of the mixing length profile for closure of the Reynolds shear stress.

For a steady, one dimensional, axisymmetric two-phase flow in a bubble column the Reynolds equation of motion, neglecting end effects, is written as:

$$-\frac{1}{r} \frac{d}{dr} (r\tau_{rz}) = \frac{dP}{dz} + \rho_l(1 - \epsilon_g(r))g \quad (\text{A.1})$$

where

$$-\frac{dP}{dz} = \frac{2\tau_{rz}}{R} + \rho_l(1 - \bar{\epsilon}_g)g \quad (\text{A.2})$$

ϵ_g is the gas holdup, τ_{rz} is the Reynolds shear stress and τ_w is the wall shear stress. The following power law expression for the gas holdup profile is assumed:

$$\epsilon_g(\xi) = \tilde{\epsilon}_g \frac{m+2}{m} (1 - c\xi^m) \quad (\text{A.3})$$

in which 'm' is the power law exponent (a constant) and represents the steepness of the holdup profile. Parameter c allows for non zero gas holdup at the wall, which is observed from CT measurements (Kumar 1994; Adkins et al. 1996). $\tilde{\epsilon}_g$ is a parameter related to the cross-sectional mean holdup $\bar{\epsilon}_g$ by the relation:

$$\bar{\epsilon}_g = \tilde{\epsilon}_g \frac{m+2-2c}{m} \quad (\text{A.4})$$

Following the procedure of Rice and Geary (1990) and using the dimensionless radial position of maximum downward flow, λ , to eliminate the axial pressure gradient, Equation A.1 can be integrated along with Equation A.3 to obtain:

$$\tau_{rz}(\xi) = \frac{\rho_l g R}{2} \left(\frac{2\tilde{\epsilon}_g}{m\lambda^2} \right) \xi c \left[1 - \left(\frac{\xi}{\lambda} \right)^m \right]; \quad \xi \leq \lambda \quad (\text{A.5})$$

$$\tau_{rz}^*(\xi) = \frac{\rho_l g R}{2} \left(\frac{\bar{\epsilon}_g}{\lambda^2} \right) \left[\frac{\lambda^2 - \xi^2}{\xi} \right]; \quad \xi > \lambda \quad (\text{A.6})$$

The following expression was derived by Rice and Geary (1990) for the maximum downward liquid velocity

$$u_z(\xi = \lambda) = u_\lambda = \frac{gr^2\bar{\epsilon}_g}{4\nu_l\lambda^2}(\lambda^2 - 1 - 2\lambda^2 \ln \lambda) \quad (\text{A.7})$$

Prandtl's mixing length model is used for describing the Reynolds shear stress, τ_{rz} , giving

$$\tau_{rz}(\xi) = \frac{\rho_l \nu_l}{R} \left(-\frac{du_z}{d\xi} \right) + \rho_l \frac{l^2(\xi)}{R^2} \left(-\frac{du_z}{d\xi} \right)^2; \quad \xi \leq \lambda \quad (\text{A.8})$$

$$\tau_{rz}^*(\xi) = \frac{\rho_l \nu_l}{R} \left(-\frac{du_z^*}{d\xi} \right); \quad \xi > \lambda \quad (\text{A.9})$$

Combining these equations with Equations A.5 and A.6 and using the boundary conditions

$$\text{at } \xi = \lambda, \quad u_z = u_z^*$$

and

$$\text{at } \xi = 1, \quad u_z^* = 0$$

the equation for the liquid velocity profile is given by:

$$u_z(\xi) = u_\lambda - \frac{\nu_l R}{2} \int_\xi^\lambda \frac{1 - \sqrt{1 + \frac{2gR}{\nu_l^2} l^2(\xi') \beta(\xi')}}{l^2(\xi')} d\xi'; \quad \xi \leq \lambda \quad (\text{A.10})$$

$$u_z^*(\xi) = \frac{gR^2\tilde{\epsilon}_g}{4\nu_l\lambda^2}(\xi^2 - 1 - 2\lambda^2 \ln \lambda); \quad \xi > \lambda \quad (\text{A.11})$$

β in Equation A.10 is defined as:

$$\beta(\xi) = \frac{2\tilde{\epsilon}_g}{m\lambda^2}\xi^c \left[1 - \left(\frac{\xi}{\lambda} \right)^m \right] \quad (\text{A.12})$$

The mixing length profile is fitted to an expression of the form:

$$l(\xi) = \frac{a(1 - \xi)}{(\xi + b)^c} + d(1 - \xi)^e \quad (\text{A.13})$$

The functional form for $l(\xi)$ in Equation A.13 was developed by Kumar et al. (1994) based on experimental data for the liquid velocity profile from CARPT and the Reynolds shear stress. a , b , c , d and e are constants obtained by nonlinear regression. The input parameters, ϵ_g and $l(\xi)$ can therefore be obtained from experimental data, using which the above equations can be solved by numerical integration. There is still an unknown, λ , which is calculated by iteration while checking for liquid continuity in the system.

The one dimensional model is illustrated with an example which considers a 14 cm diameter column (distributor: **6A**) at a superficial gas velocity of 9.6 cm/s. Experimental data from CARPT for the axial liquid velocity profile (Figure A.1) and the Reynolds shear stress (Figure A.2) are used to obtain a profile for the mixing length, shown in Figure A.3. The fitted parameters for $l(\xi)$ in Equation A.13 are $a = 4.572$, $b = 0.6002$, $c = 0.2299$, $d = -4.713$ and $e = 1.169$. The gas holdup profile (defined by the parameters $\tilde{\epsilon}_g = 0.148$, $m = 3.05$ and $c = 0.85$) for the present operating conditions is obtained from Kumar (1994). Using these input parameters, the axial liquid velocity profile calculated from the one dimensional model is shown in Figure A.1. It is noted that there is reasonable agreement between the CARPT measured Reynolds shear stress and that obtained from Equation A.5 using the parameters obtained from holdup measurements, for the present set of data.

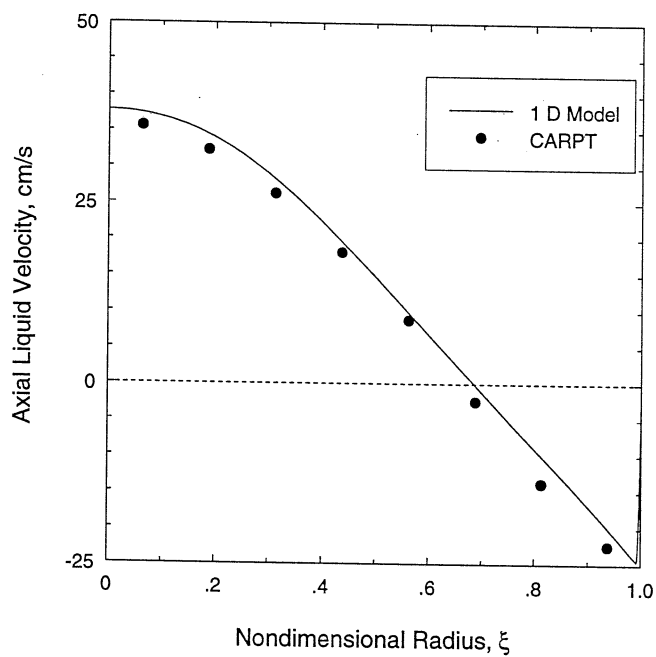


Figure A.1: One Dimensional Axial Liquid Velocity Profile, $D_c = 14$ cm, $U_g = 9.6$ cm/s

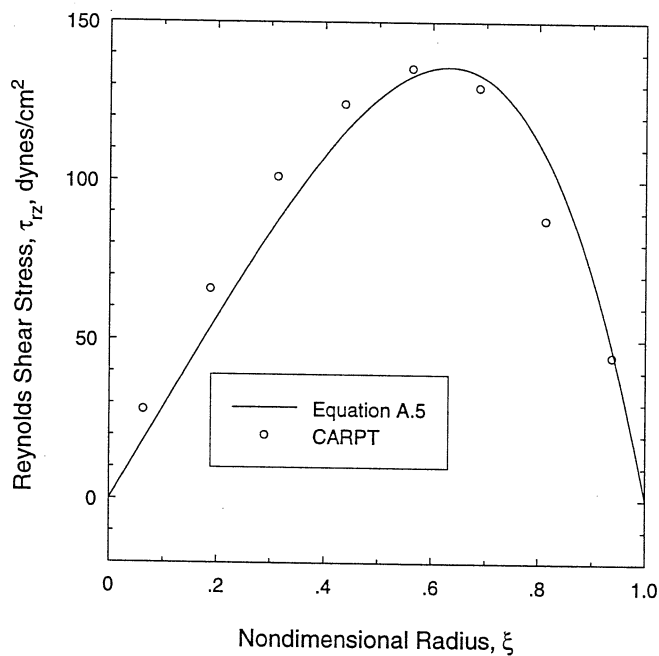


Figure A.2: Reynolds Shear Stress Profile, $D_c = 14$ cm, $U_g = 9.6$ cm/s

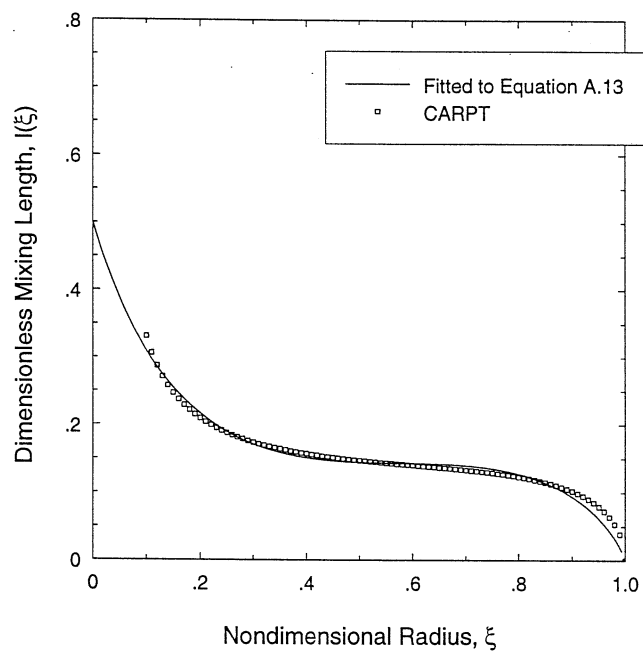
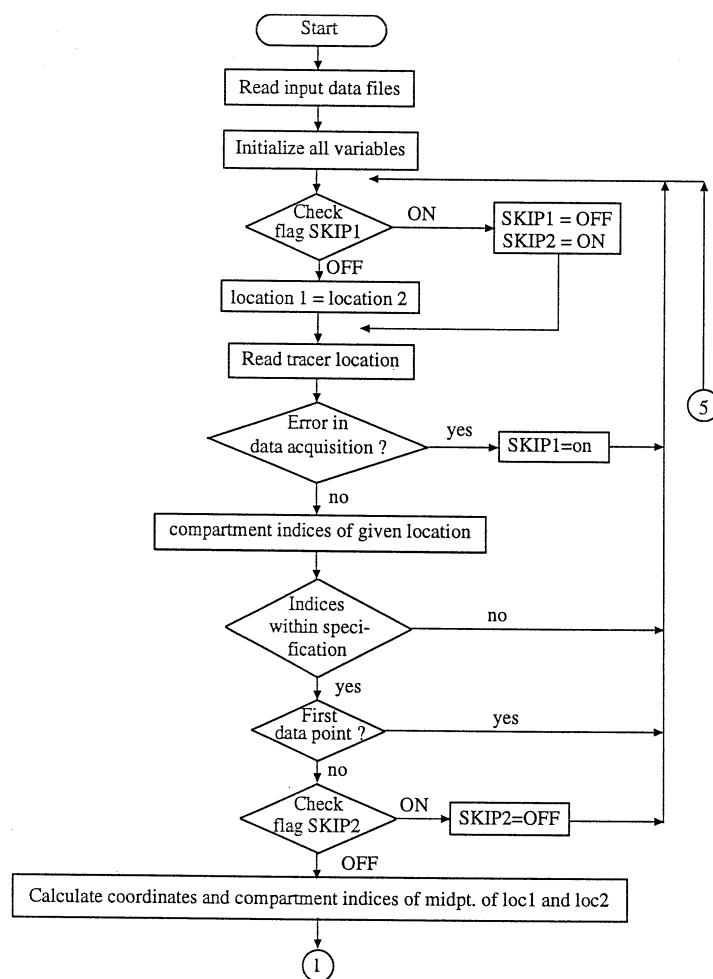
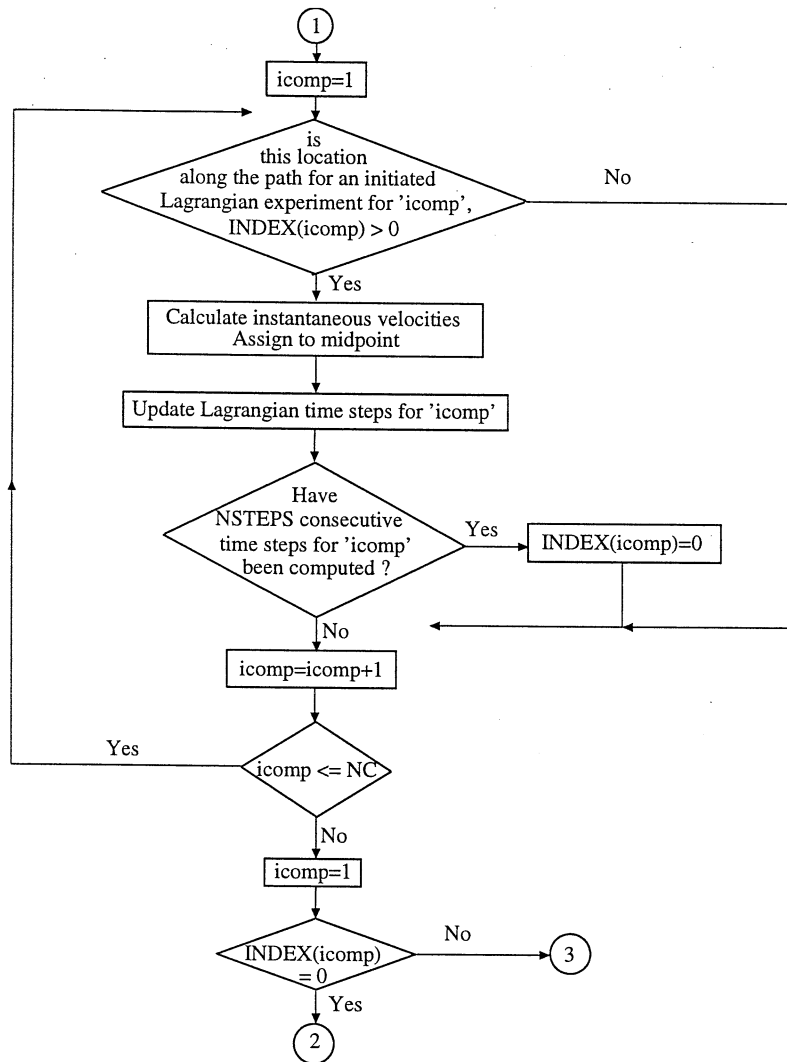


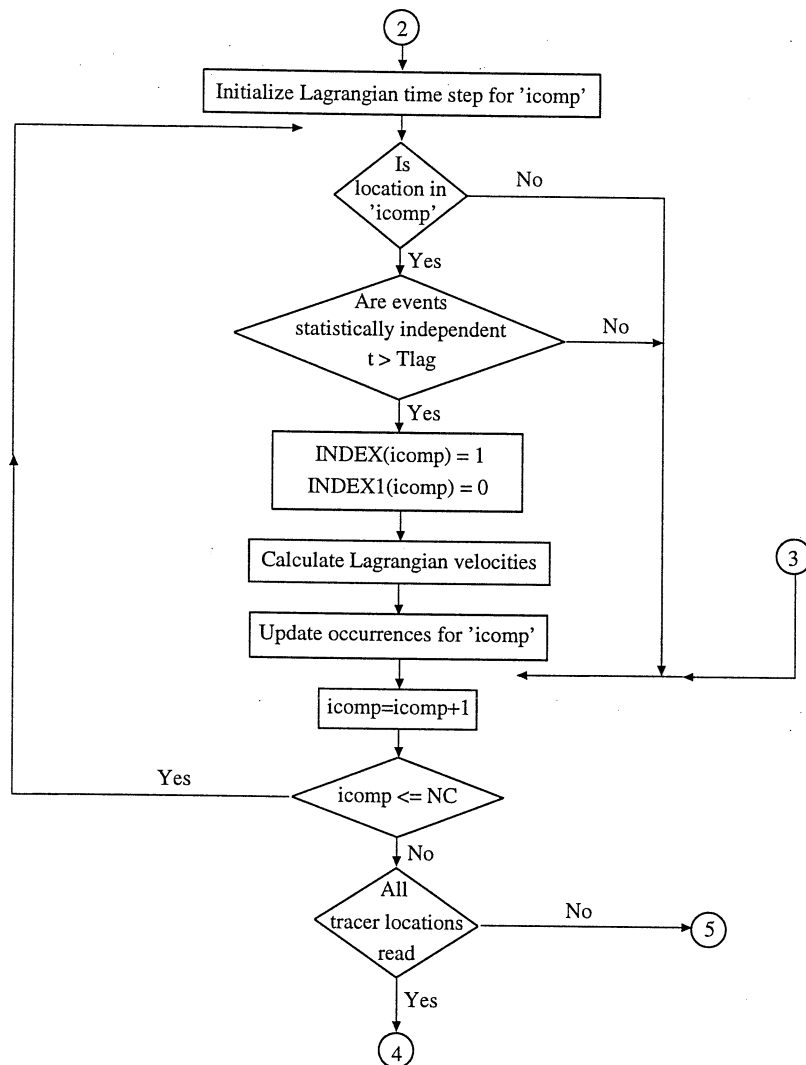
Figure A.3: Mixing Length Profile, $D_c = 14$ cm, $U_g = 9.6$ cm/s

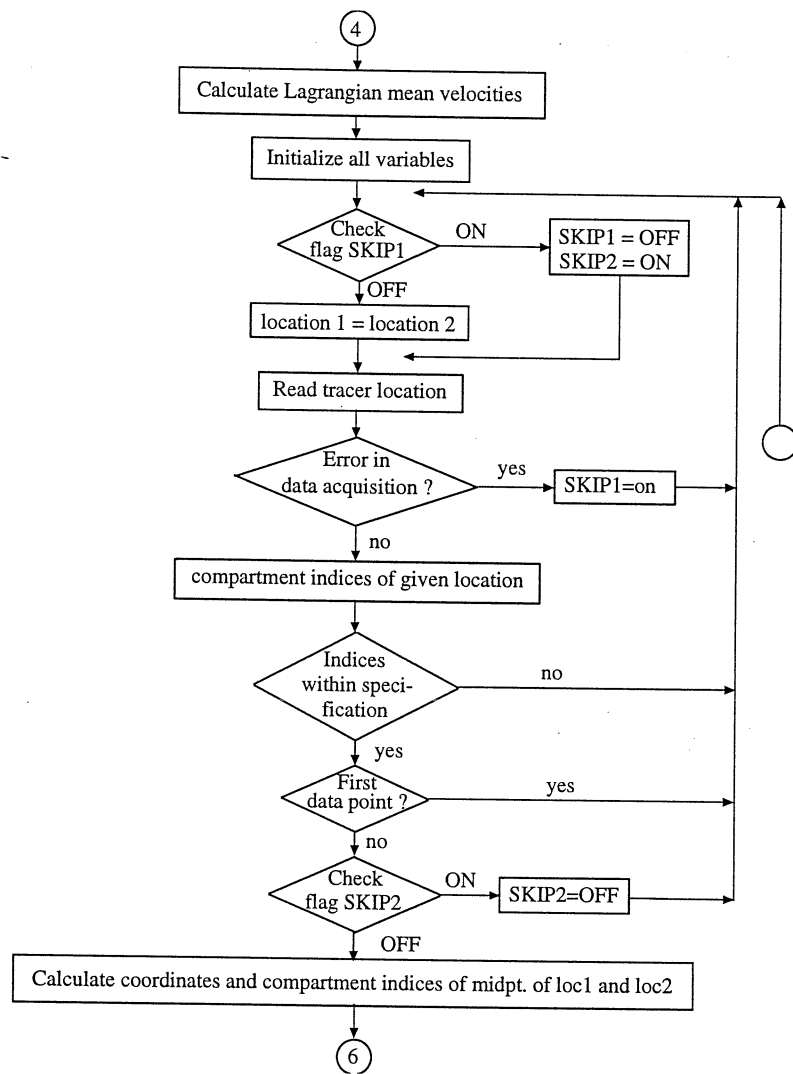
Appendix B

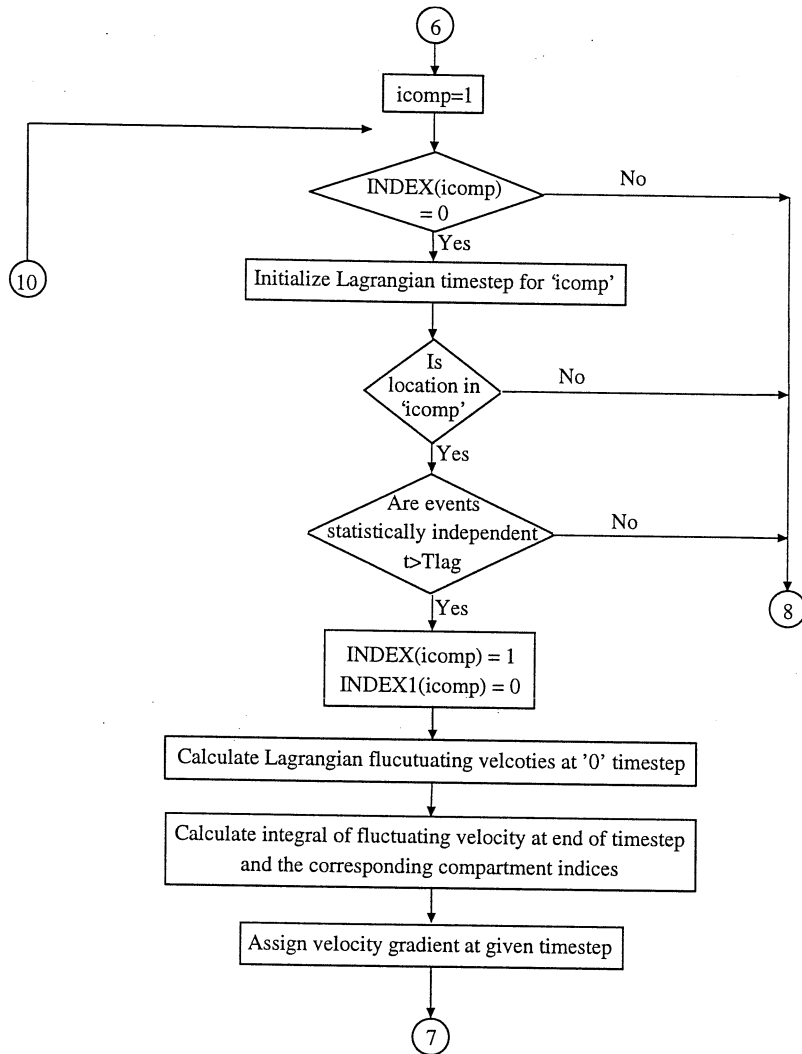
Flowchart for Computation of Lagrangian Correlation Coefficients from CARPT data

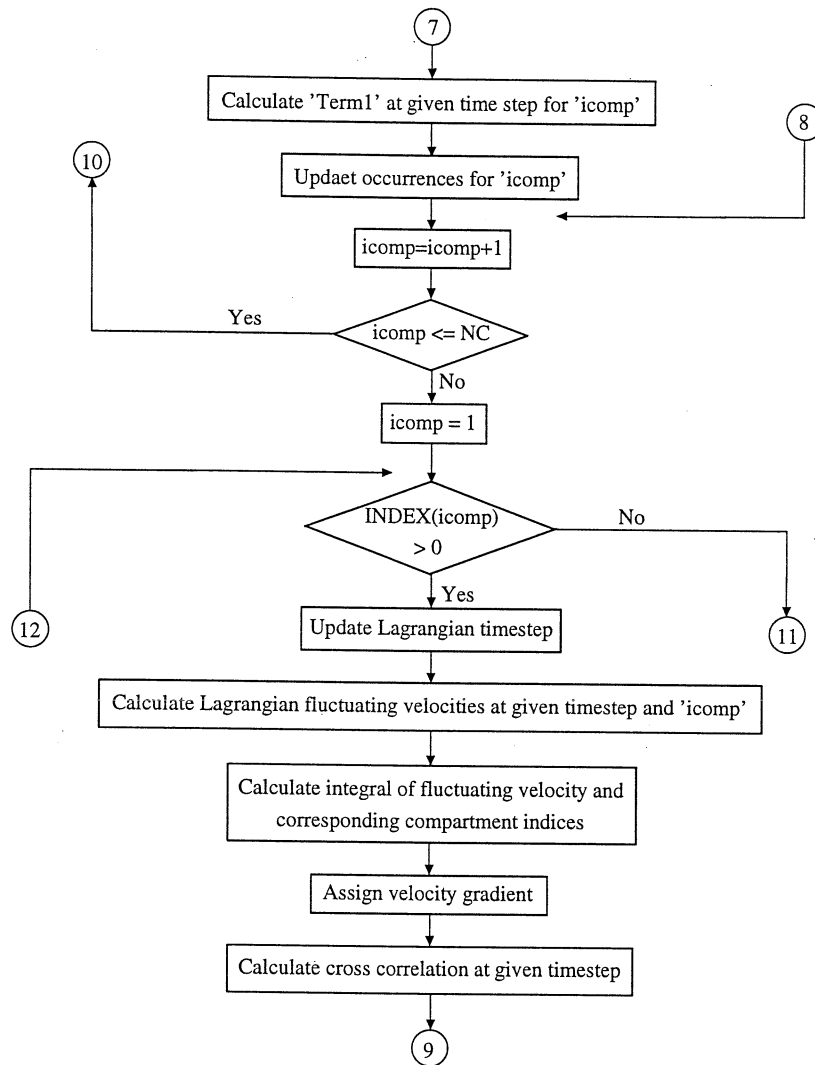


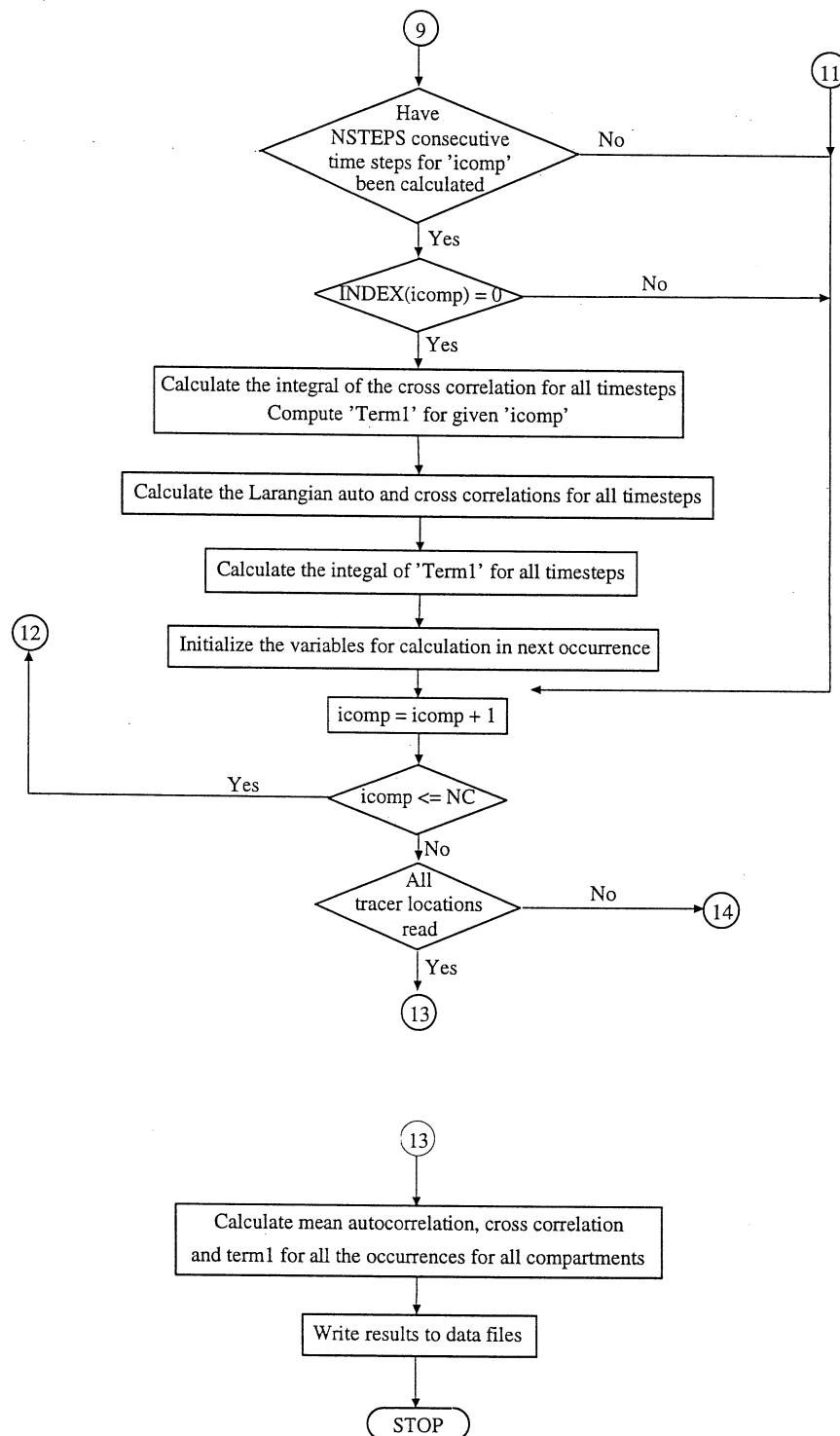












Appendix C

Heat Pulse Anemometry (HPA): Experimental Details

The details of HPA are given in this appendix. The HPA technique uses time-of-flow measurements to measure the mean liquid velocity between two points in the flow field. Heat is used as tracer to tag the fluid particles. A small heating element, the emitter, is used to label the passing fluid elements. Downstream of this emitter a fast and sensitive detector (hot film anemometer probe) registers the passage of the heated elements of liquid. An impulse of heat tracer introduced at the emitter is therefore detected by the sensor probe similar to the case of a residence time distribution measurement.

In order to obtain sufficiently large signal-to-noise ratios, tracer inputs in the form of pseudo-random sequences of single pulses are used. The measured responses at the sensor which by themselves are meaningless, when cross-correlated with the pseudo-random input pulse, yield an impulse response at the point of detection, called a time-of-flow distribution (see Figure C.1). This response is interpreted by the following model (Lubbert and Larson 1990) which describes the mean flow of fluid particles between the emitter and the sensor by a Gaussian distribution function:

$$p(t) = \frac{c}{\sigma_0 t^\beta} \exp\left(-\frac{(t - \tau)^2}{2(\sigma_0 t^\beta)^2}\right) \quad (\text{C.1})$$

where τ is the mean time-of-flow, σ_0 is the intensity of mixing and β denotes the type of mixing. Calculating τ from experimental measurements and knowing the distance of separation of the emitter from the detector, the mean velocity of the liquid between the emitter and sensor can be calculated.

The variables during a measurement are the time of sweep, t_s , which is the time during which several data points (pseudo random pulse) are sampled. The time of measurement, t_m , is the total time for a given experimental measurement over which t_m/t_s number of sweeps are taken. For highly turbulent and unsteady flows such as in bubble columns, t_m must be significantly larger than t_s (Table C.1), in order to obtain good measurements,

Experiments using HPA have been conducted in the 19 cm column at three gas velocities, 2 cm/s, 5 cm/s and 12 cm/s. For a given radial position, r_h , the probes were placed at different axial distances by fixing the position of the emitter and varying the position of the sensor downstream. The minimum distance of 3.0 cm, between the emitter and sensor, and a maximum of 19.0 cm were used. Care was taken to position the probes in the middle section of the column, where the flow is well developed. Several experiments were conducted for a given set of positions of the emitter and sensor probe. However due to the sensitivity of the equipment to external disturbances (noise), a significant portion of the experiments had to be rejected, based on the nature of the measured experimental response. For a given radial location, the resulting mean residence times were used to calculate the mean velocity of the liquid between the emitter and sensor, the average of which has been considered for comparison with CARPT data. The experiments were conducted for four such radial locations of the probes for a given gas velocity.

Typical results for selected positions of the probes, at different gas velocities are tabulated in Table C.1. Figure C.2 shows a comparison of the one dimensional axial liquid velocities from CARPT with that obtained from the HPA time-of-flow measurements. The trends for the time average axial liquid velocity are the same for all the gas velocities considered. Velocities from HPA are consistently lower than those measured by CARPT in the center of the column, i.e., $r \leq 4$ cm. In the outer annular region of the column, $r \geq 4$ cm, the comparison between the two techniques is better. In general, the results from HPA show flatter profiles for the axial liquid velocity than that of CARPT. Considering the nature of the HPA measurements, in terms of deducing the velocity from the time-of-flow data, rather than obtaining direct velocity measurements, the present agreement between the two techniques is considered as satisfactory.

The other two parameters in Equation C.1, σ_0 and β denote the intensity and type of mixing, respectively (Lubbert and Larson 1990). There appears to be no specific dependence of β on gas velocity. On an average $\beta = 0.55$, indicating that

mixing is diffusive in nature (Lubbert and Larson 1990). Turbulent mixing is typically characterized by $\beta = 1.5$ (Lubbert and Larson 199). σ_0 is referred to as the intensity of mixing (Lubbert and Larson 1990). Results show that on an average σ_0 decreases with increase in gas velocity, which implies that the intensity of turbulence decreases with increase in gas velocity. This is unexpected and contradicts with experimental results from CARPT and other measurements (Menzel 1990; Mudde et al 1997). As explained earlier, the experimental setup is extremely sensitive to electrical noise, due to which the rate of rejection of a set of experimental data is quite high (more than 50 %). The recommended addition of salt to improve the electrical conductivity and thereby reduce the noise, helps to a certain extent. However, the scatter in the data, especially for σ_0 and β , is still very high. This may be a possible reason for the lack of meaningful results for these parameters (σ_0 and β). Another reason is that a better model may be necessary for using the time-of-flow results from HPA for the analysis of turbulence in bubble column flows (Seinfeld 1986).

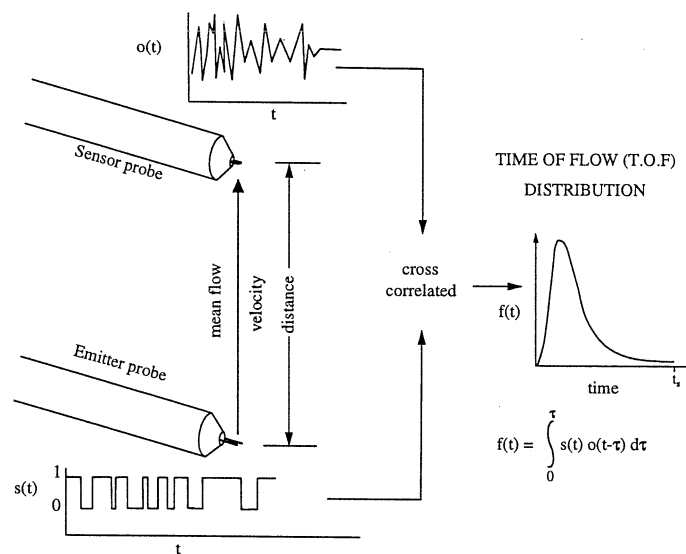


Figure C.1: Schematic of HPA

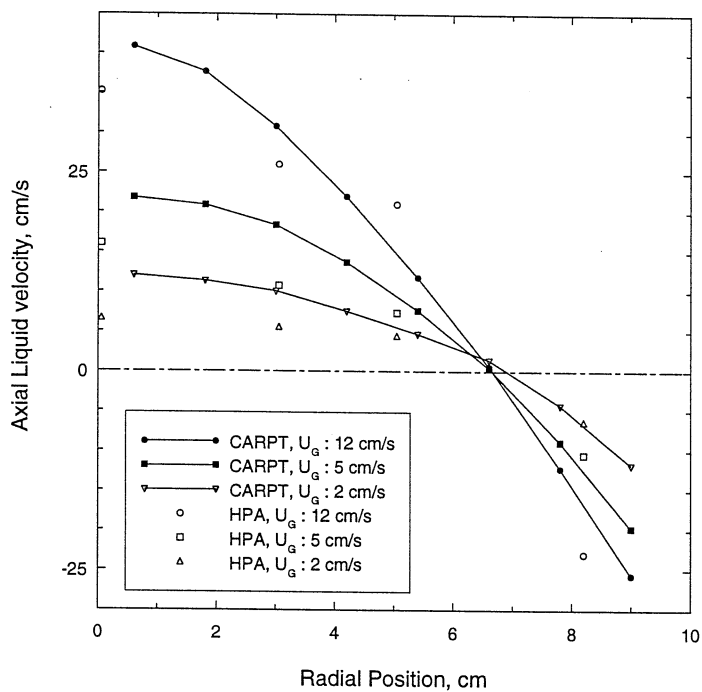


Figure C.2: Comparison of CARPT and HPA results for the Time Averaged Axial Liquid Velocity, Col. Dia. : 19 cm, Distributor: 8A

Table C.1: Model Parameters from Time-of-Flow Measurements Using HPA

U_g cm/s	r_h cm	Δz cm	t_s s	t_m s	τ s	σ_0	β
2	0.05	3.0	4.0	1500	0.482	0.445	0.538
	3.05	3.0	4.0	1600	0.591	0.63	0.509
	0.05	8.5	7	3000	1.272	0.688	0.463
	3.05	8.5	8.0	3000	1.611	0.908	0.673
5	0.05	8.5	5.0	3000	0.617	0.503	0.543
	3.05	8.5	6.0	3000	0.898	0.815	0.771
	0.05	14.0	9	4000	0.902	0.572	0.545
	3.05	14.0	9	4400	1.121	0.756	0.454
12.0	0.05	14.0	5.0	3600	0.417	0.342	0.622
	3.05	14.0	7.0	4000	0.516	0.406	0.578
	0.05	19.0	4.0	5500	0.555	0.353	0.587
	3.05	19.0	6.0	7200	0.719	0.512	0.584

Appendix D

Simulation of the Radiation Intensity from Radioactive Tracer Measured by a Shielded Detector

The intensity of radiation from a point source, recorded at a detector, is given by the following expression:

$$n_p = AF.BF.\Omega.\eta.S \quad (D.1)$$

n_p is the count rate (counts/time) at the detector due to a point source. Each factor is defined below.

The attenuation factor AF is defined as

$$AF = \exp[-(\mu_g l_g + \mu_{sl} l_{sl} + \mu_w l_w)] \quad (D.2)$$

in which μ_g , μ_{sl} and μ_w are the linear attenuation coefficients in the gas, the slurry and the wall of the reactor, and l_g , l_{sl} and l_w are the effective distances or depths of penetration in the respective media. The attenuation coefficient in the gas phase is negligible when compared with the other phases and so the term for the gas phase is neglected. l_{sl} takes into account the liquid (slurry) holdup. The calculation of l_{sl} depends on the nature of the holdup distribution. This assumes that the slurry is pseudohomogeneous. If that is not the case and if the attenuation coefficients for the solid and liquid are considerably different, then the term $\mu_{sl} l_{sl}$ must be replaced by $\mu_l l_l + \mu_s l_s$, where subscripts s and l refer to solid and liquid, respectively.

The buildup factor BF represents the ratio of the intensity due to all photons to the intensity due to unscattered photons alone. It is defined empirically using the Berger equation (Tsoulfanidis 1983):

$$BF = 1 + (a_{sl}\mu_{sl}l_{sl} + a_w\mu_w l_w)[\exp(b_{sl}\mu_{sl}l_{sl} + b_w\mu_w l_w)] \quad (\text{D.3})$$

where a and b are the empirical constants depending on the medium and energy of radiation.

The solid angle Ω is the fraction of photons emitted by the source that is seen by the detector. For a shielded detector, only the front circular surface of the detector is exposed to the γ rays. For such a case, the solid angle is given by:

$$\Omega = \frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos(\tan^{-1}(R_c/d))) \quad (\text{D.4})$$

where R_c is the radius of the circular face of the detector, and d is the distance between the source and the detector.

η , the efficiency of the detector is taken to be a constant. S is the source strength. This is proportional to the concentration of tracer at a given location.

The detectors used are 2" x 2" NaI crystals, shielded on their sides. The various material constants at the energy levels of the source used, are tabulated in Table D.1 (Tsoulfanidis 1983). The objective here is to estimate the spatial range at a given axial position in the column over which the detector receives its signal. The simulation is done for an assumed uniform distribution of tracer, and uniform distribution of phases.

The medium is considered to be homogeneous, with uniform phase and tracer distribution. Therefore the effective distance in the liquid (slurry) medium used in Equation D.2 and D.3 is given as

$$l_{sl} = l_{sd}(1 - \epsilon_g) \quad (\text{D.5})$$

where l_{sd} is the distance between the source and center of the detector. The source strength or local activity is the same at all locations, since the concentration of tracer (which is proportional to the local source strength) is uniform. Substituting for all the factors into Equation D.1, the count rate recorded at the detector due to the individual uniformly distributed point sources is calculated. The resulting spatial distribution

of intensity (counts/time) at a given axial position is shown in Figure D.1. The position of the detector relative to the intensity distribution is shown in Figure D.2. The shaded region in Figure D.2 represents the volume (area) considered for the contribution of the radiation to the overall radiation received at the detector. The total radiation from this shaded region, which forms less than 1 % of the entire reactor volume, is 90 % of the total radiation from the entire domain. Since the detector is shielded on its sides, the contribution of radiation from different axial positions other than the cross sectional slice (10 cm in thickness) at the axial position of the detector is negligible. Therefore it can be assumed that the radiation measured at the detector at a given axial position is a proportional to the concentration of tracer at that axial location.

Table D.1: Constants for Radiation Simulation

μ_{sl}	0.065 cm^{-1}	μ_w	0.40 cm^{-1}
a_{sl}	1.4	a_w	1.27
b_{sl}	0.027	b_w	0.032

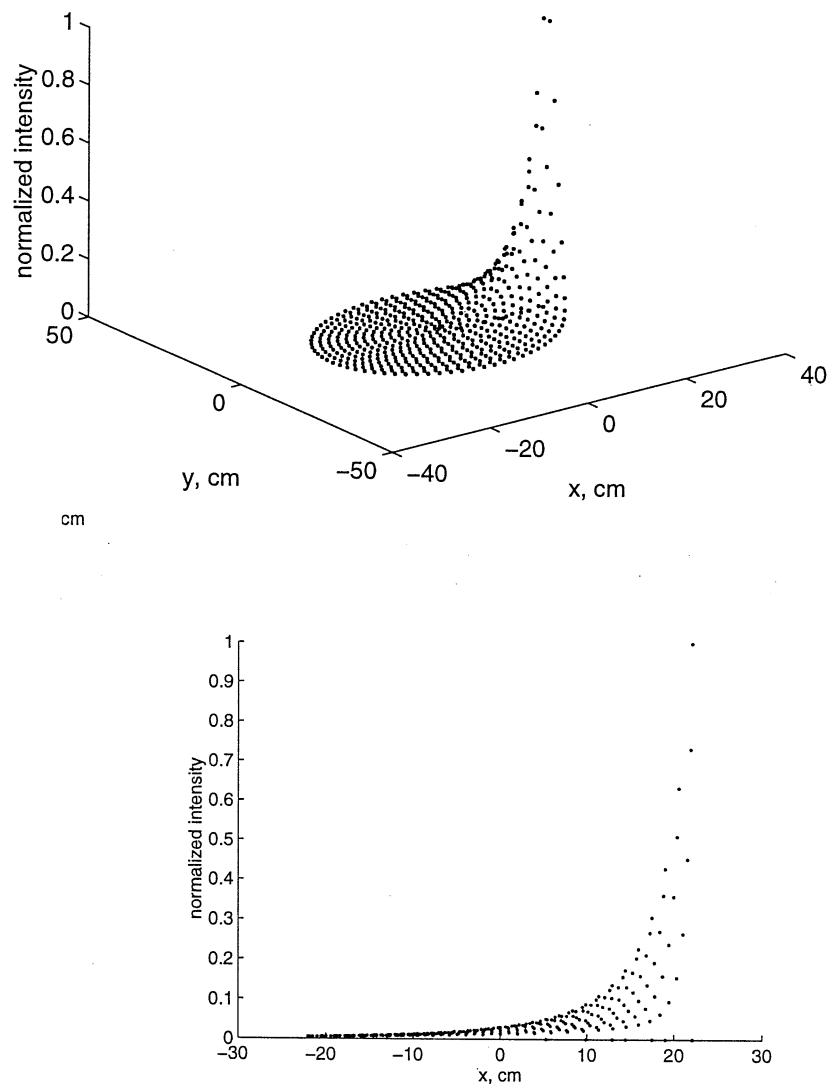


Figure D.1: (a) Three dimensional view of the (x,y) spatial distribution of intensity in a cross sectional slice of the reactor. Each '.' denotes a discrete source point at an (x,y) location. Position of detector is shown in Figure D.2 . Contribution of the shaded region in Figure D.2 is 90 %. (b) Front view (along x-axis)

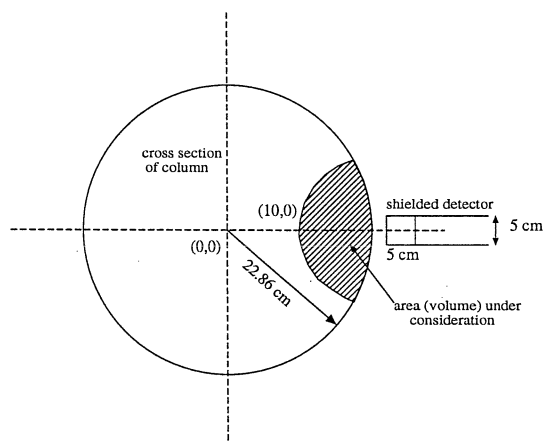


Figure D.2: Cross sectional view of the column with detector positioned along the 'x' axis. Shaded region represents the region considered for the contribution of radiation to the overall radiation received by detector

Appendix E

Calibration of Detectors for Radioactive Tracer Experiments in AFDU

This appendix discusses some of the issues regarding calibration of the scintillation detectors for radioactive tracer measurements in the AFDU reactor, and provides suggestions for improvement in the quality of tracer data.

E.1 Background Radiation

The background radiation is usually subtracted from the tracer response data of each detector. This is done by subtracting each detector reading recorded before the tracer experiment, with the syringe containing the tracer positioned along the reactor at the injection point. This is not the true background, since before the tracer experiment, some of the detectors close to the injection syringe see radiation from the syringe. Once the tracer is injected into the column, the syringe is empty. Therefore subtracting the reading from a detector close to the syringe results in a biased output. This is seen from Figure E.1 (a) - (c). Fig E.1 (a) shows an arbitrary tracer response as measured by a detector close to the injection point. The radiation seen by the detector from the tracer in the syringe prior to injection is 50 counts/time. If 50 was considered to be the background noise and subtracted from the detector response, this would result in a response as shown in Fig E.1 (b). However, supposing the true background is 10 counts/time, subtracting this would result in a tracer response as shown in Figure E.1 (c).

Normalizing each of these responses, in Figure E.1 (b) and (c), by its individual maximum, as is done for comparison with model predictions, results in responses as shown in Figure E.1 (d). The dotted line indicates the correct response, while the solid line indicates the biased response due to improper background subtraction.

Therefore the background readings for the detectors should be taken before loading the syringe with the tracer onto the column, i.e. the background reading should truly be what the detector measures in the absence of any significant radiation source. This then will be the lowest reading that the detector records.

E.2 Normalization of Detectors

The procedure used for normalization apparently consists of stacking all your detectors (6" tall, 2' wide pile) and placing in front of them a point source of 1 *mCi* Co-60 approximately 1 m away, to create a field strength of 1mrem. Noting the readings in each of the detectors, the detector with the maximum counts is considered to have an efficiency of 100 %. The efficiency of the other detectors is calculated by dividing the individual reading by that of the detector with 100 % efficiency. These efficiencies are then used to normalize each detector for a given experiment, after subtracting the background radiation.

In the above procedure

1. The detectors when they are stacked up are not shielded.
2. In addition, the source is aligned along the axis of one detector in the center, while for others it is totally off the axis.

The combination of 1. and 2. results in effects of solid angle, which is larger for the detectors at the edge of the stack than for those in the center. Figure E.2 shows the view of the detectors seeing a point source. For the sake of clarity only two detectors are shown. Detector A, for which the source is aligned along the axis of the detector, "sees" the radiation with only its front circular face. In contrast detector B is exposed to radiation on both its front and side. Thereby the intensity measured by B (at the edge of the stack) is larger than A (in the center).

Calculation of the solid angle subtended by detectors A and B using dimensions given above, show that for detector B the solid angle is 1.17 times larger than that of A. 25 % of the solid angle for detector B comes from the contribution of the cylindrical (side) surface.

In practice, there is a whole stack of detectors. Therefore the path for the γ radiation between the source and the side (cylindrical) surface of detector B is affected by the presence of other detectors. Nevertheless, detector B will still be exposed to more radiation than A. This becomes important since, during the actual tracer experiment all the detectors are shielded. Therefore the above procedure of recording the radiation will lead to a bias, which may become significant during normalization.

To rectify this, it is necessary to place all the detectors in a perfectly uniform field. Ideally one must place all the detectors in a circle as shown in Figure E.3, in the same horizontal plane. By placing an isotropic point source in the center of the circle (Figure E.3), a uniform solid angle is subtended by each detector at the source location. This rules out any sort of bias due to non-uniform “viewing” by each detector and may result in better normalization of the detector responses. However, this is not practical since the source is usually shielded, with a small angled window for passage of the γ radiation. Therefore, an alternative to the above ideal situation is to place all the detectors on a ring similar to what is shown in Figure E.3, but vertically, with the active surface of the detectors pointing downwards. This ring should be held at a certain distance above the ground. Below the ring of detectors, in the center of the ring, the source can be placed with its window directed upwards, such that the cone beam of radiation from the source points upwards. Provided the source emits isotropically, all the detectors which are now symmetric with respect to the source will be in a uniform radiation field and will have the same solid angle. If however, the beam of radiation from the shielded source is only a fan beam, then the detectors should be arranged in groups (of certain number) in a fan beam array (similar to CT mode of scanning), for measurement of radiation.

As a precaution, it is necessary in the above procedure to rotate the source, or the ring of detectors about its center of radius, to ensure that the source is isotropic.

To summarize, the normalization must be done by recording the detector responses in a completely uniform field strength with uniform “viewing factor” for each detector. This should be done after background subtract.

E.3 Remnant Tracer in Injection Line

Any remnant tracer in the injection lines must be removed, in order to get a true estimate of the tracer distribution in the reactor and the exit line at large times.

All the above described effects contribute to unequal intensity measurements by the detectors at large times. With the suggested changes, better measurements should be obtained, with uniform readings at large times indicating uniform tracer distribution. In fact, if indeed there is settling of solids (and therefore the tracer), this should also be seen from the tracer data.

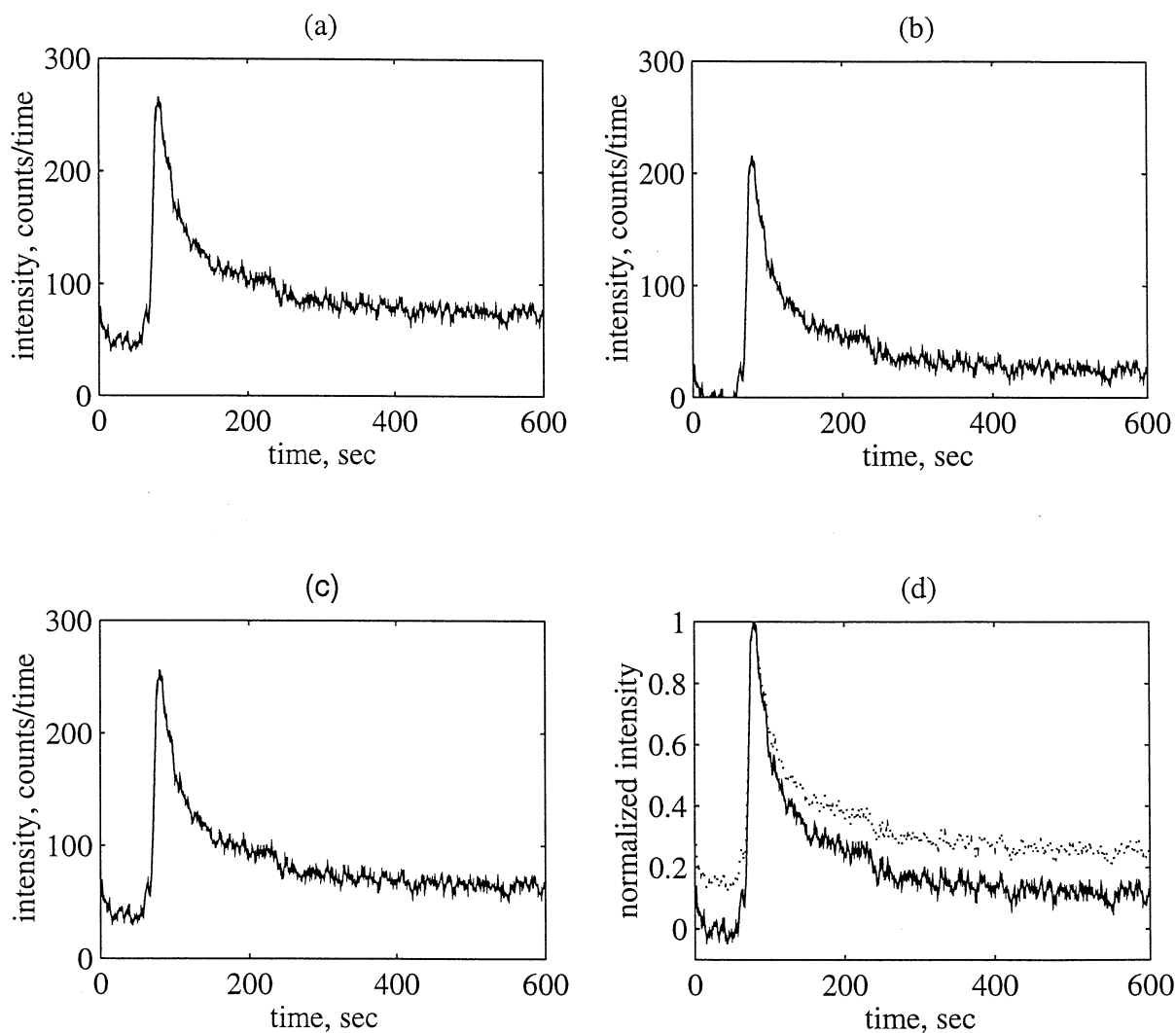


Figure E.1: Effects of the type of Background Subtract on Radiation Measurements

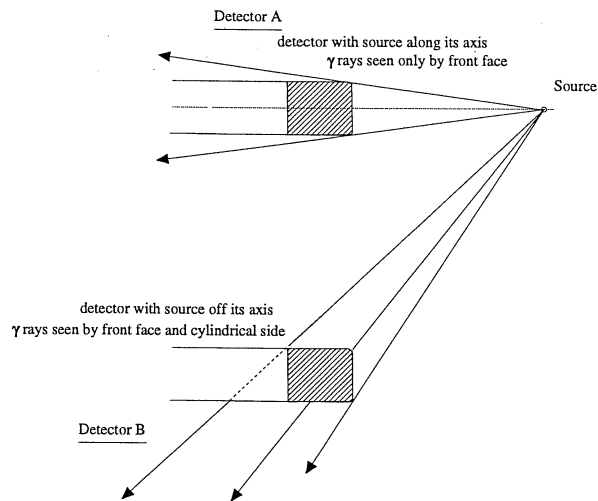


Figure E.2: Top View of Detectors Positioned for Measurement to Calculate Detector Efficiencies

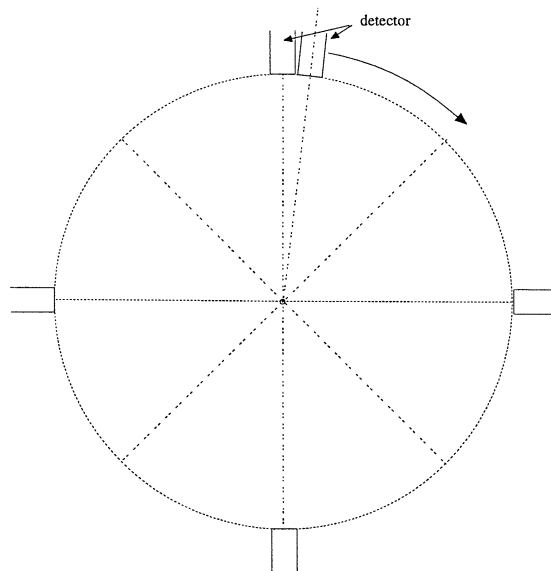


Figure E.3: Top View of Proposed Arrangement of Detectors for Measurement to Calculate Detector Efficiencies

Appendix F

Radioactive Liquid Tracer Response Measurements in the AFDU During Methanol Synthesis

F.1 Individual Detector Responses at Two Axial Measurement Levels for Run 14.6, Wall Injec- tion at Level N1

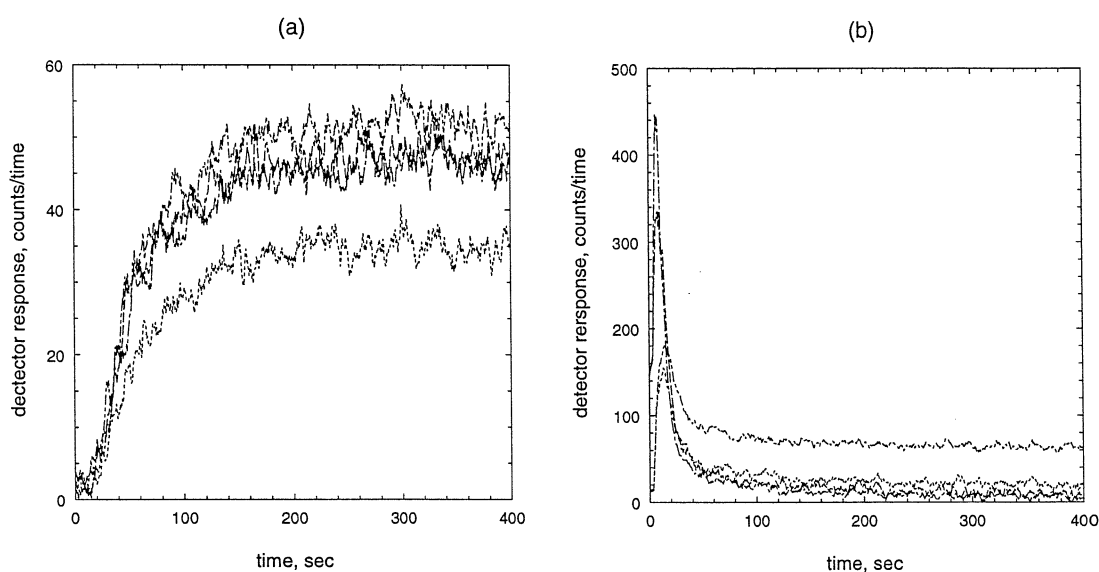


Figure F.1: Individual Detector Responses at (a) Level 1 (b) Level 5

F.2 Comparison of 2 D Model Predictions with Experimental Data

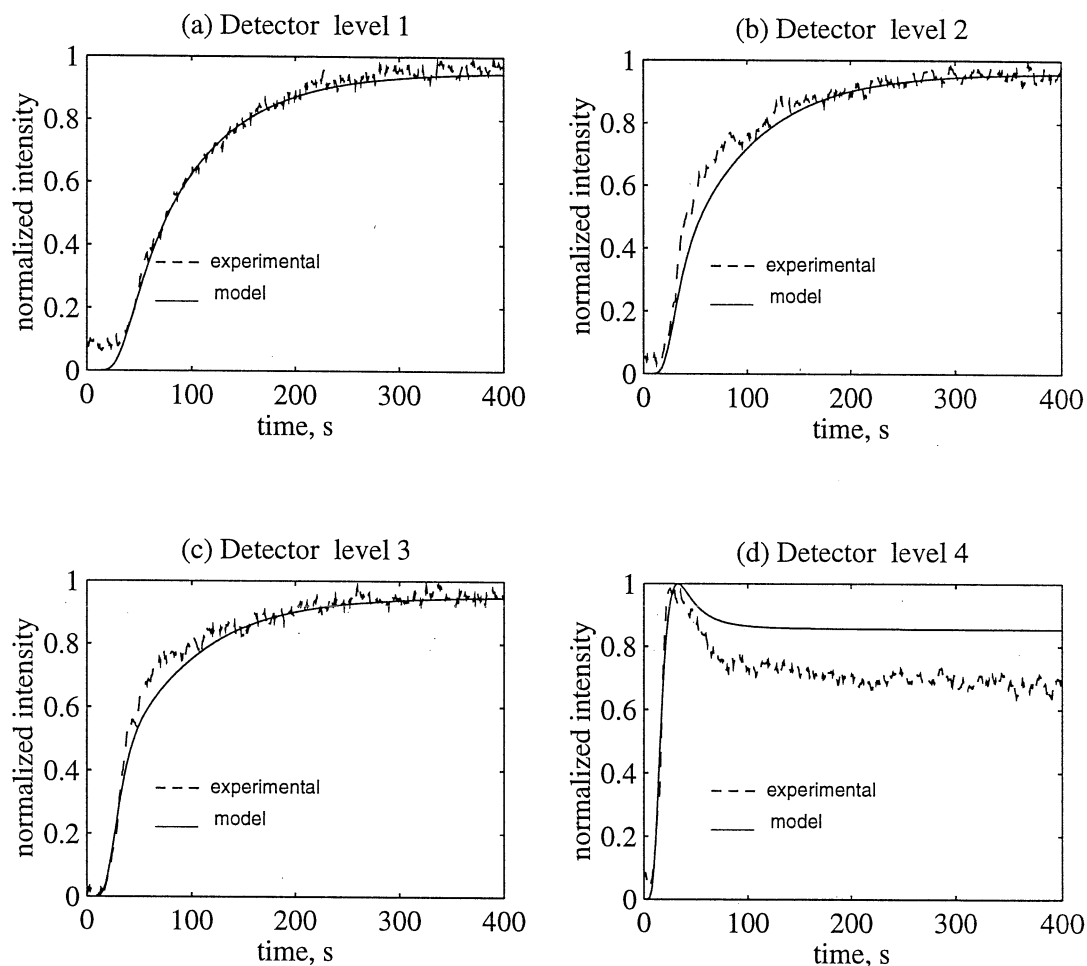


Figure F.2: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Wall Injection at Level N1, Run 14.7

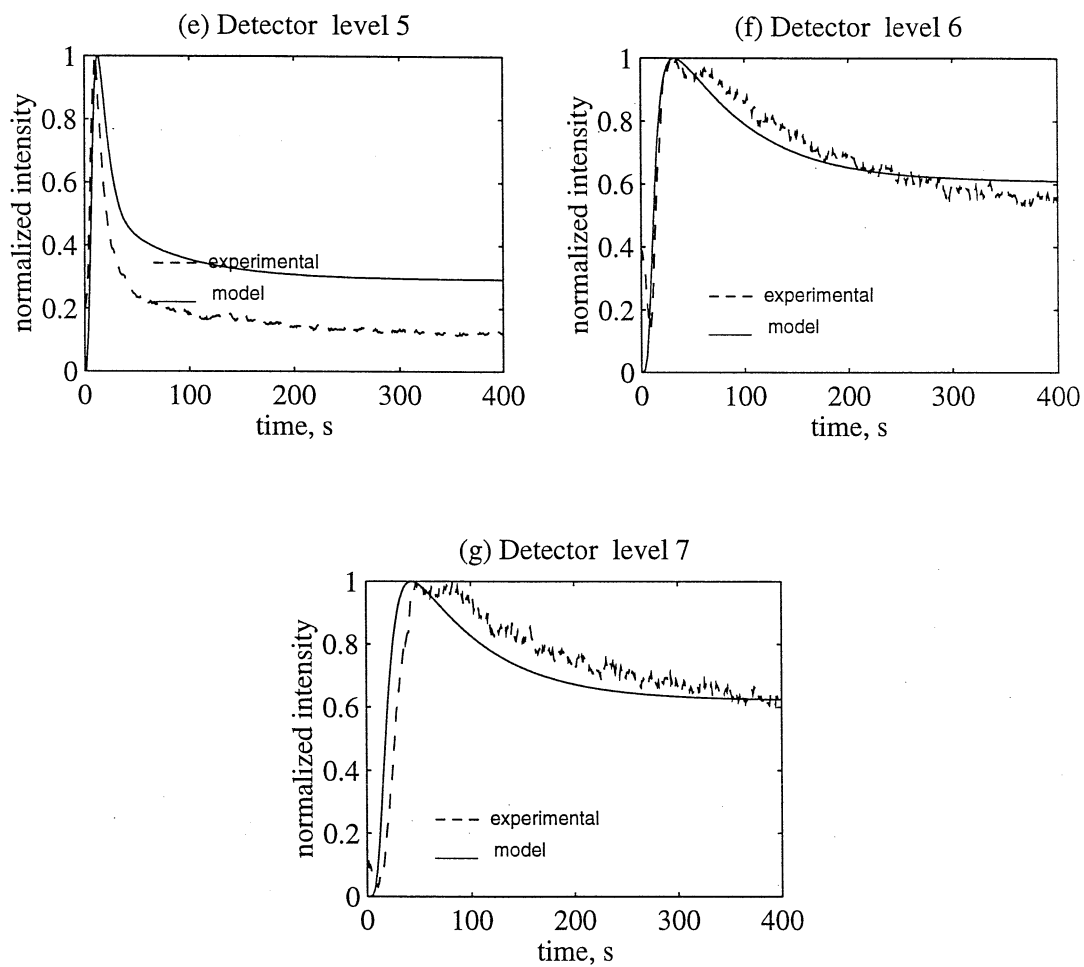


Figure F.3: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Wall Injection at Level N1, Run 14.7

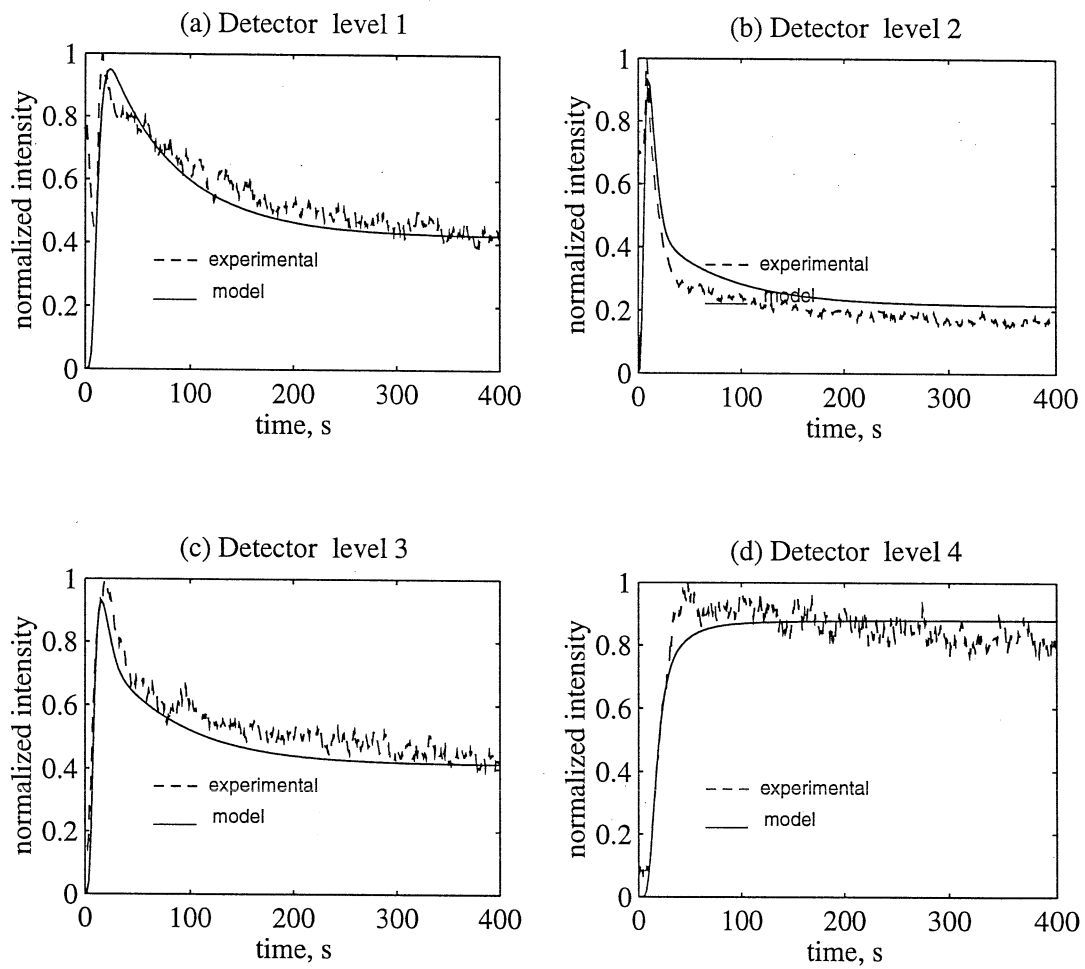


Figure F.4: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Wall Injection at Level N2, Run 14.7

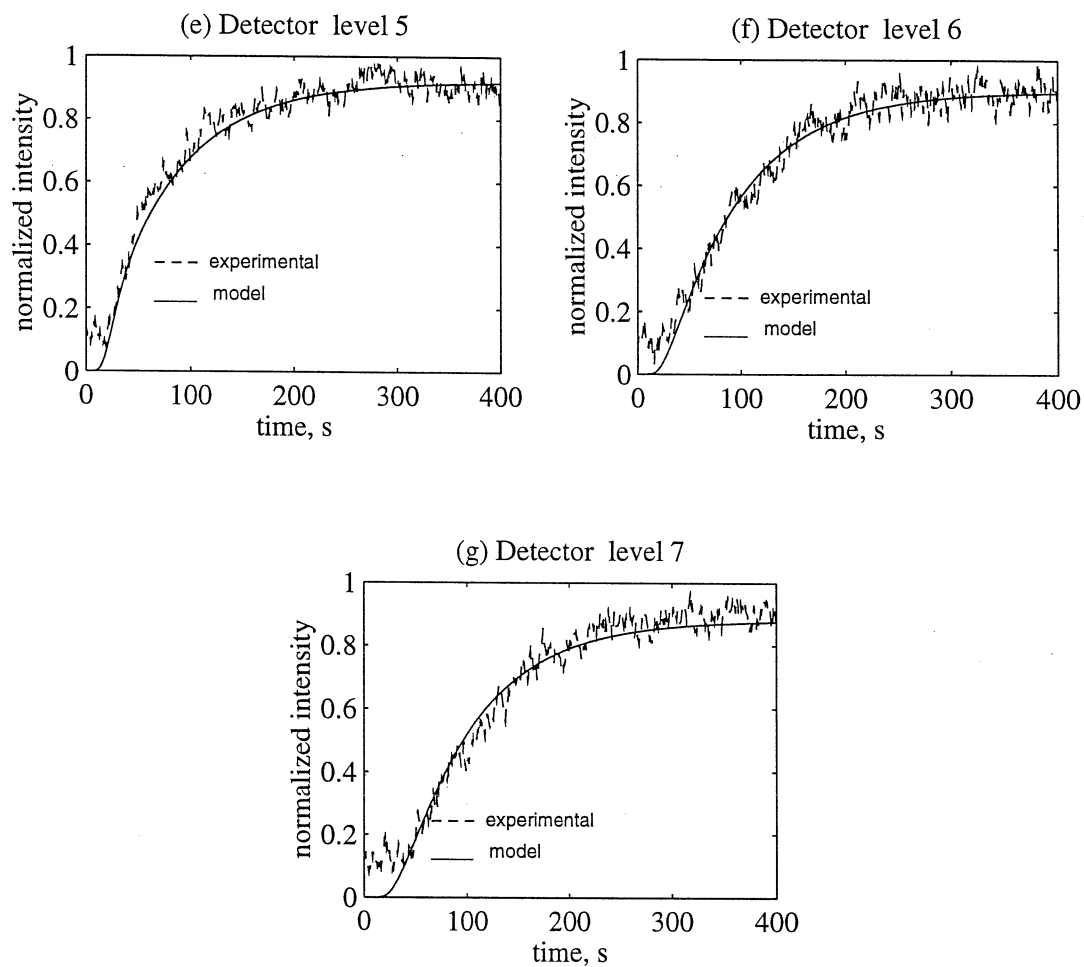


Figure F.5: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Wall Injection at Level N2, Run 14.7

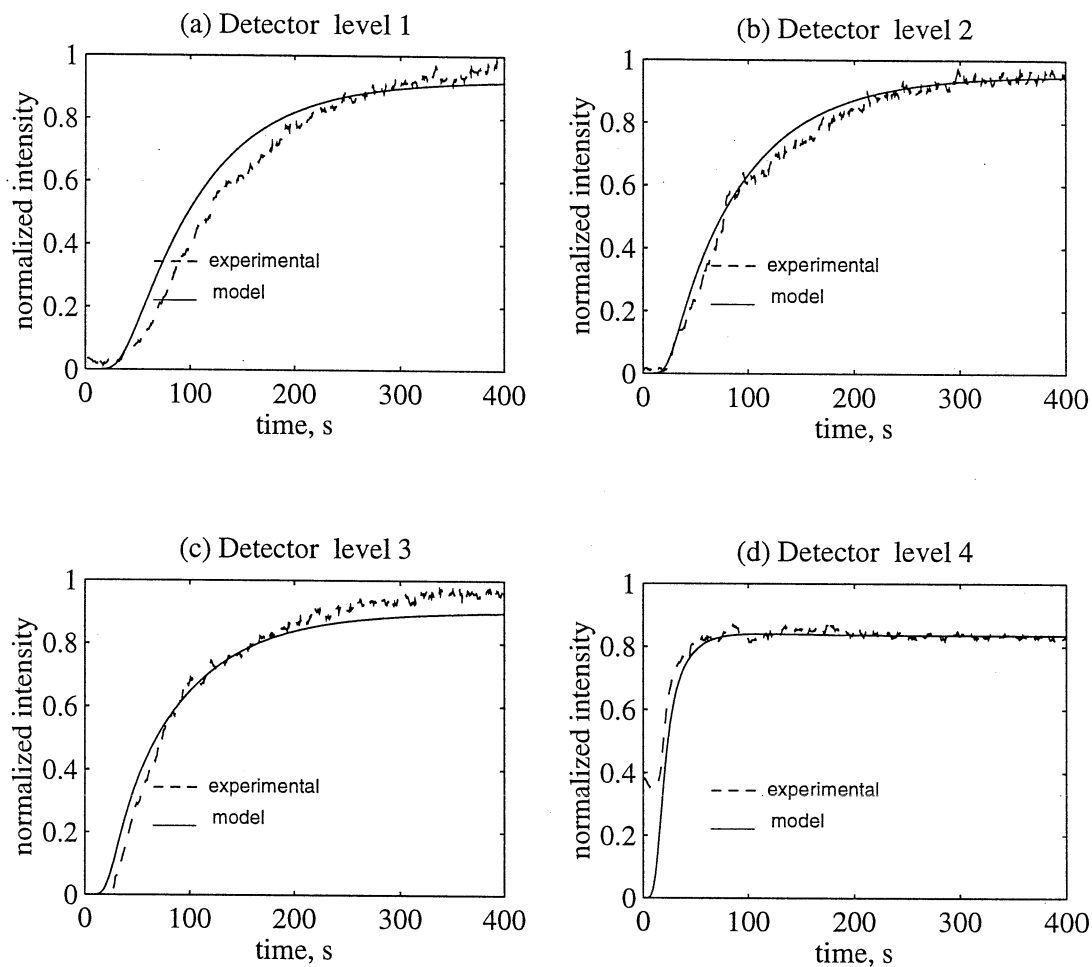


Figure F.6: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Center Injection at Level N1, Run 14.7

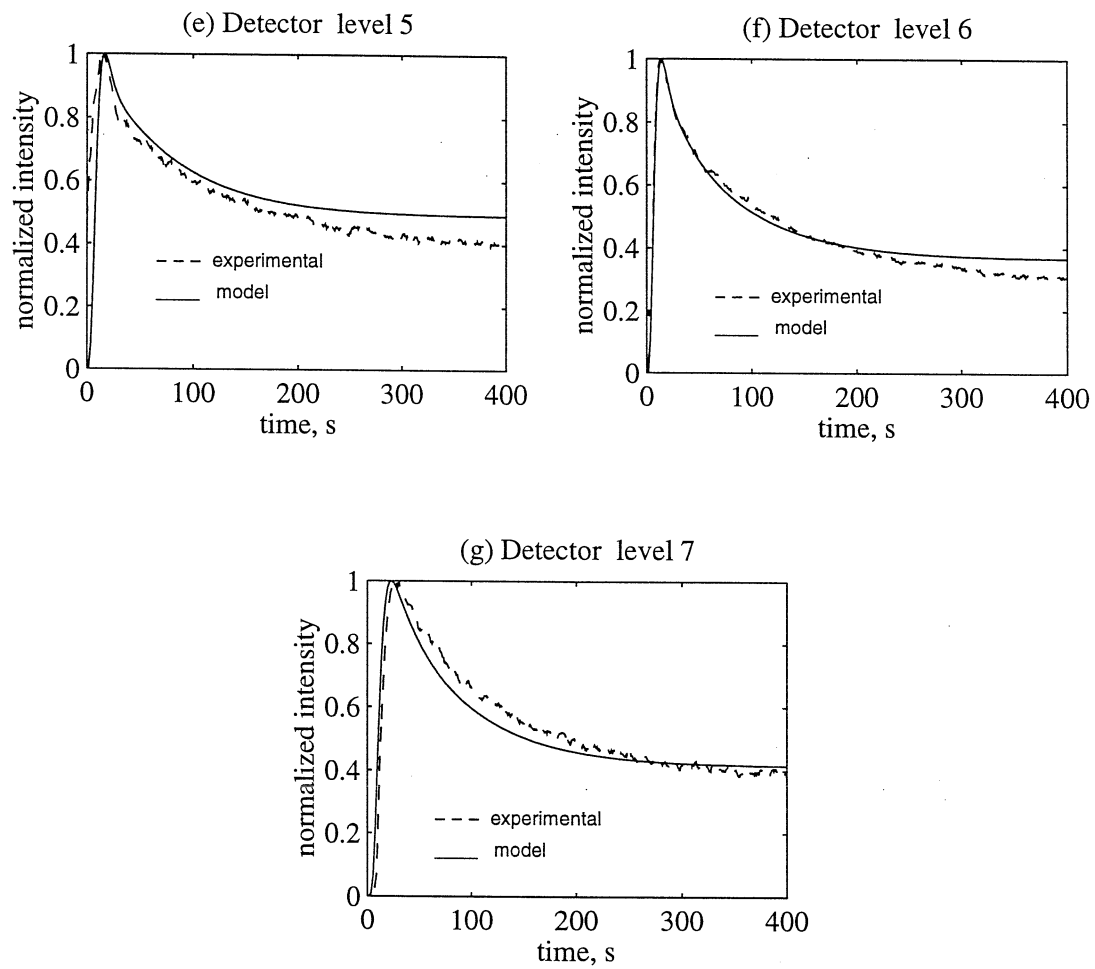


Figure F.7: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Center Injection at Level N1, Run 14.7

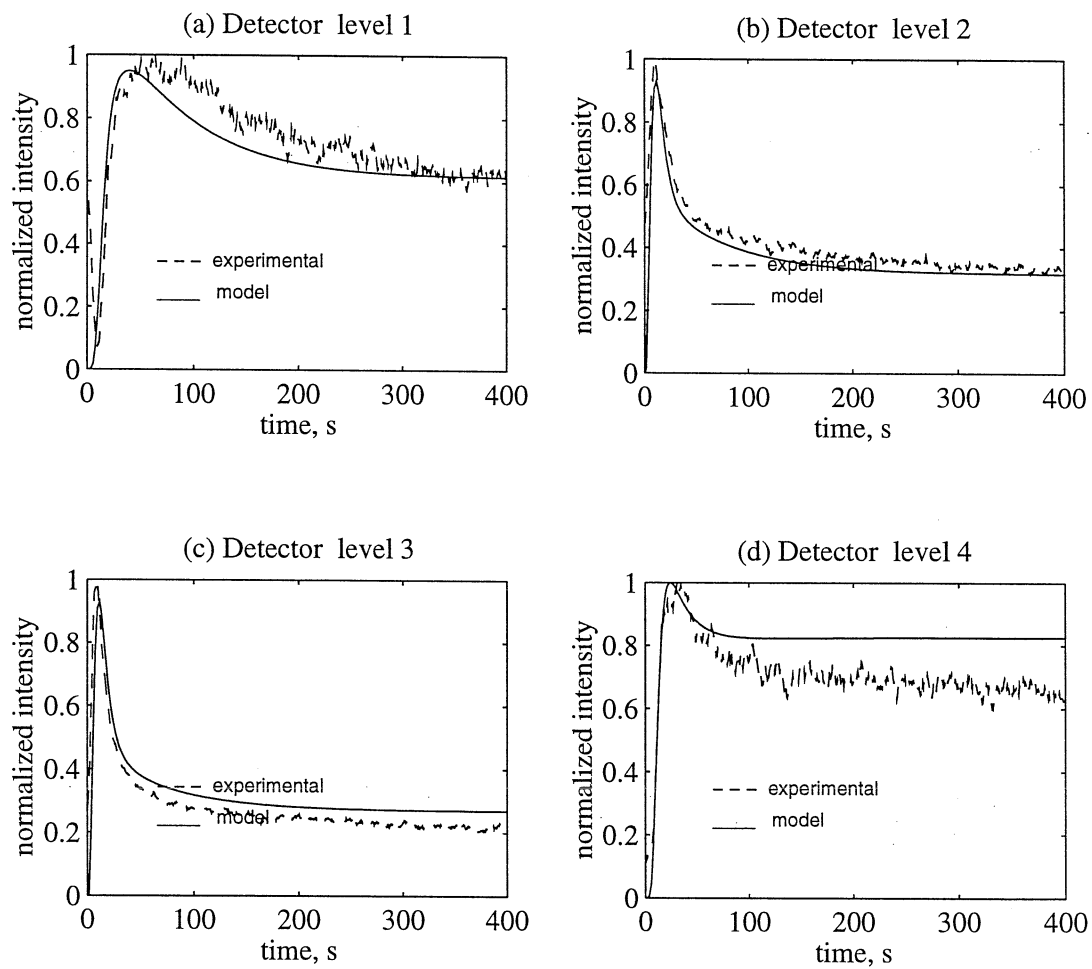


Figure F.8: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Center Injection at Level N2, Run 14.7

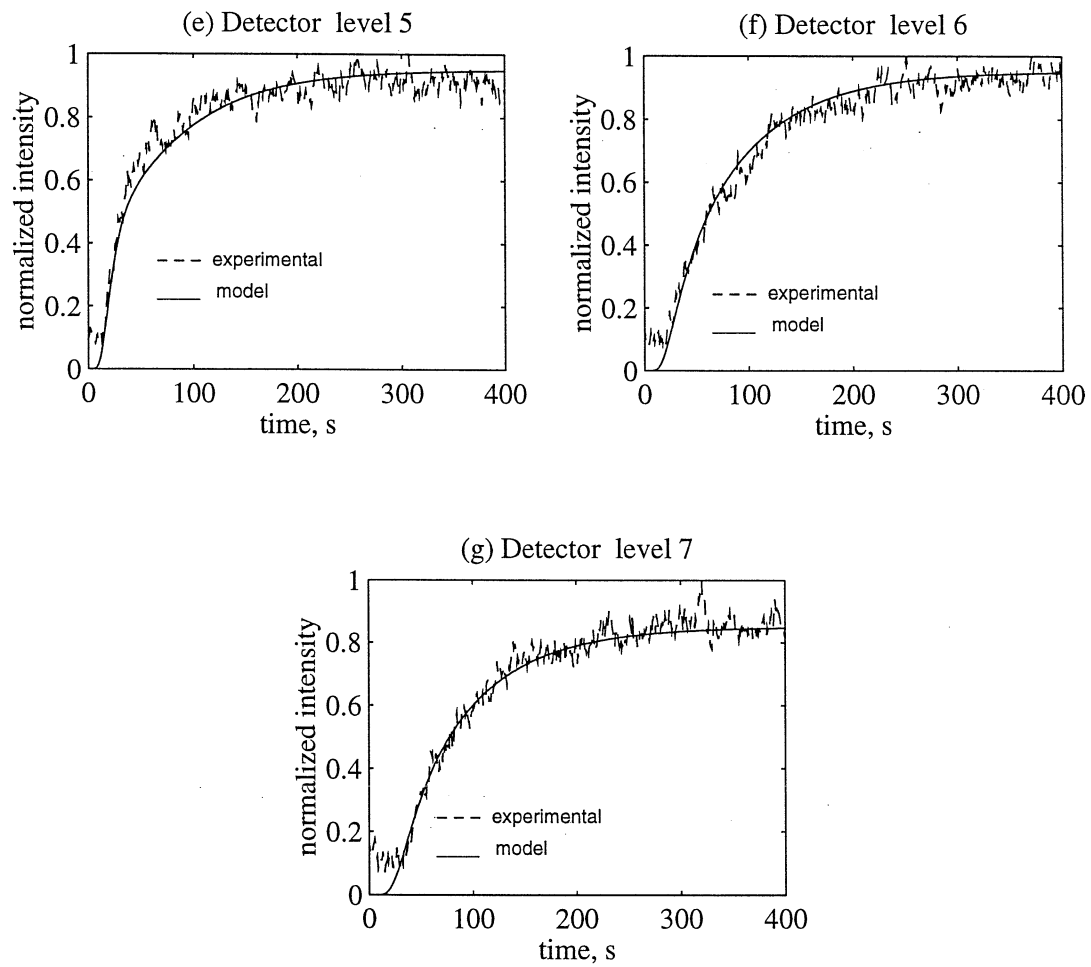


Figure F.9: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Center Injection at Level N2, Run 14.7

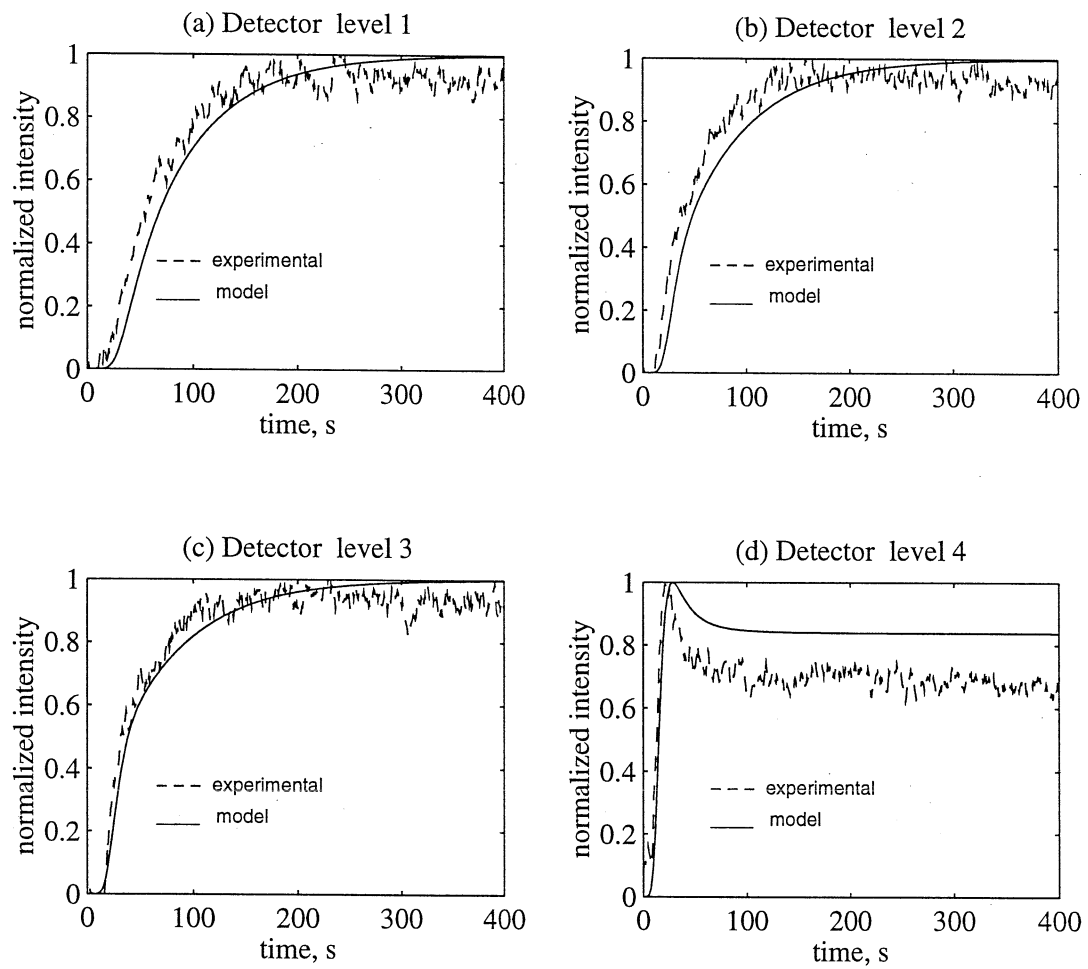


Figure F.10: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Wall Injection at Level N1, Run 14.8

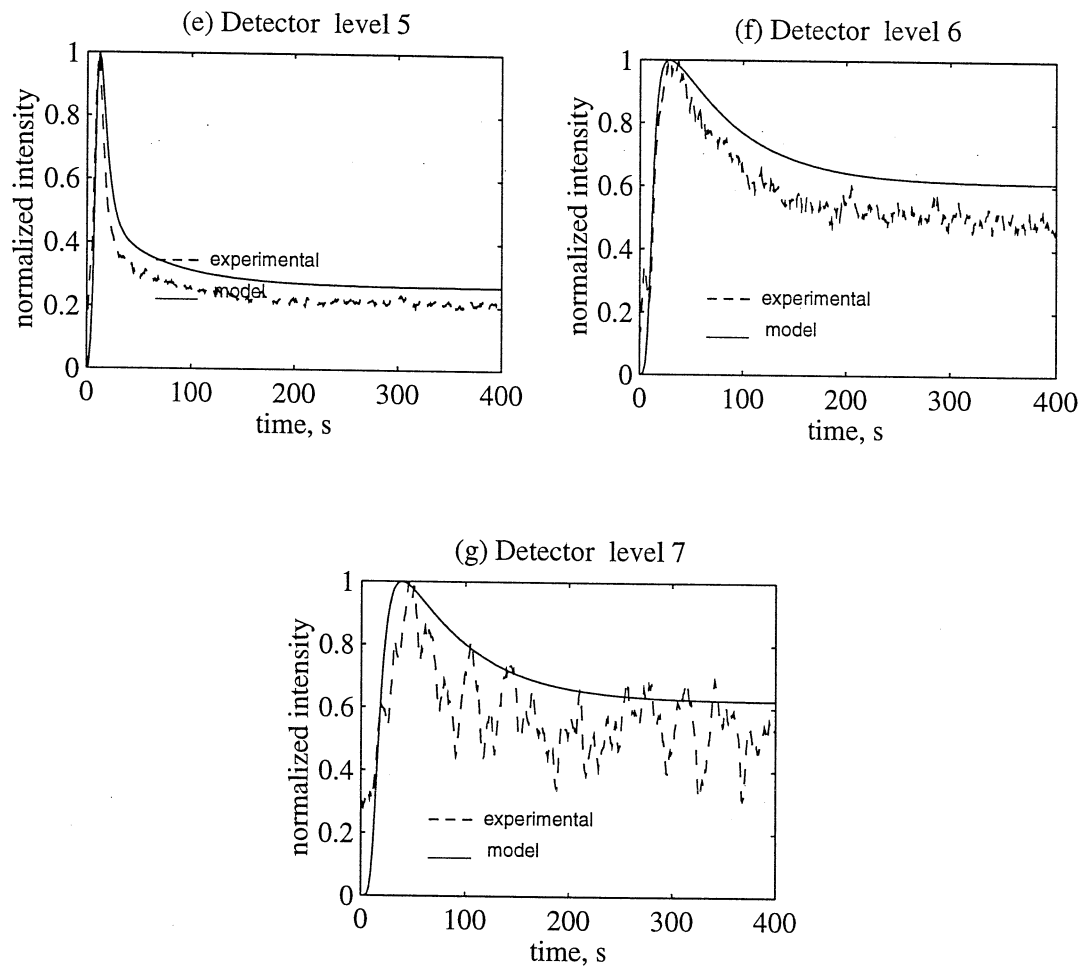


Figure F.11: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Wall Injection at Level N1, Run 14.8

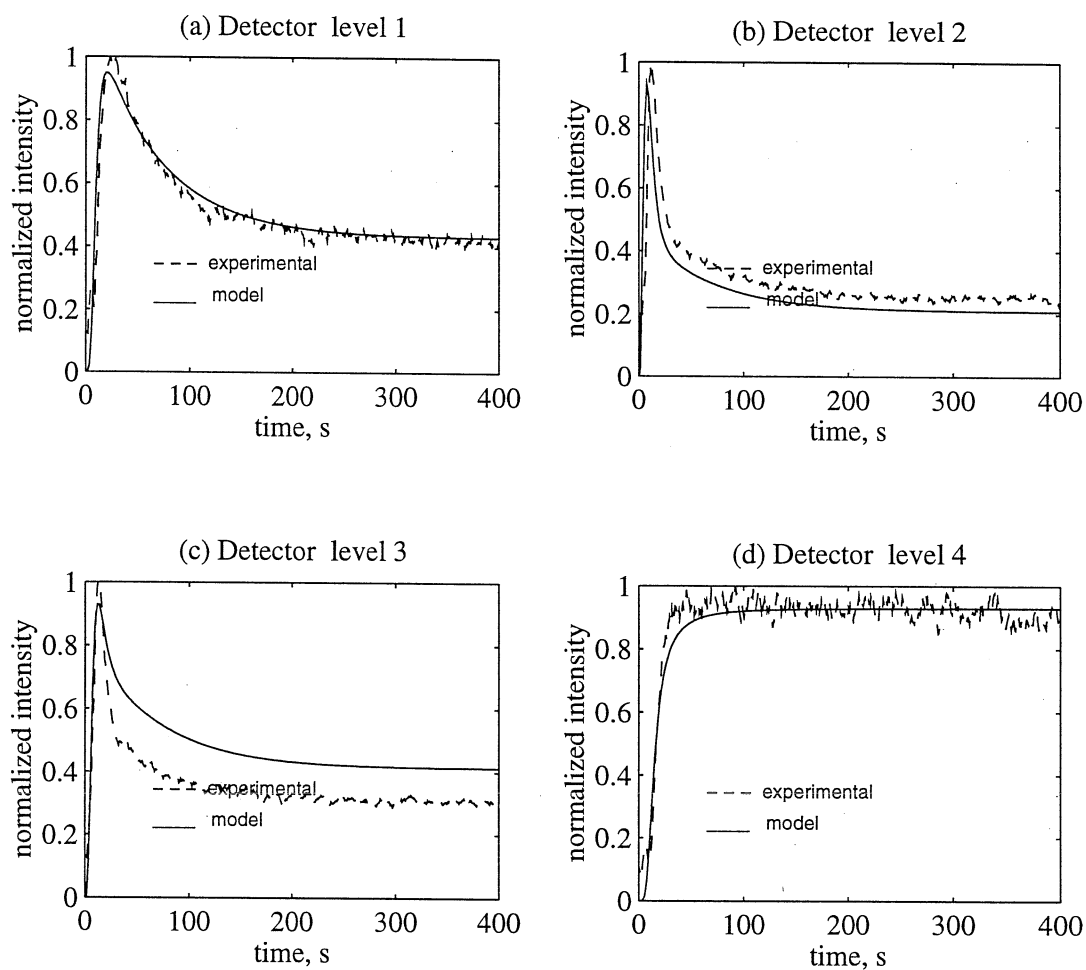


Figure F.12: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Wall Injection at Level N2, Run 14.8

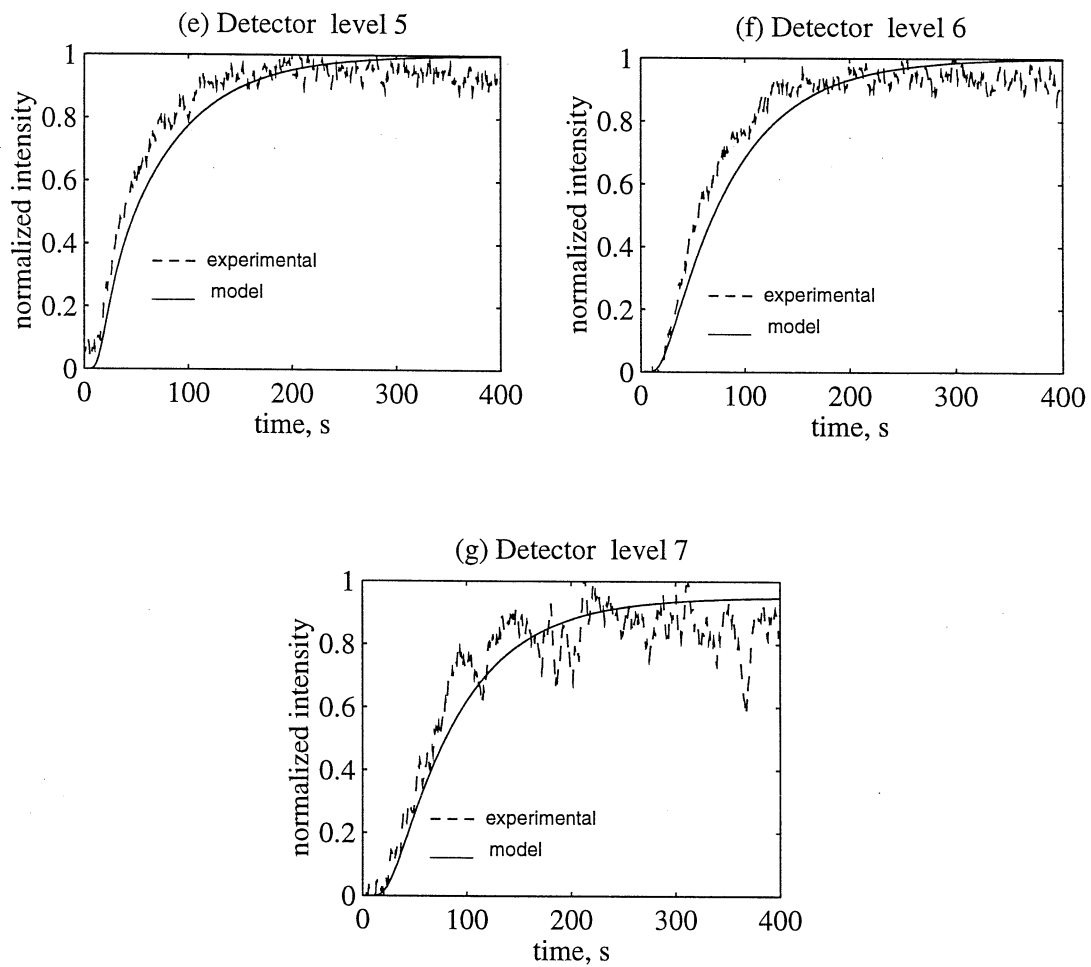


Figure F.13: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Wall Injection at Level N2, Run 14.8

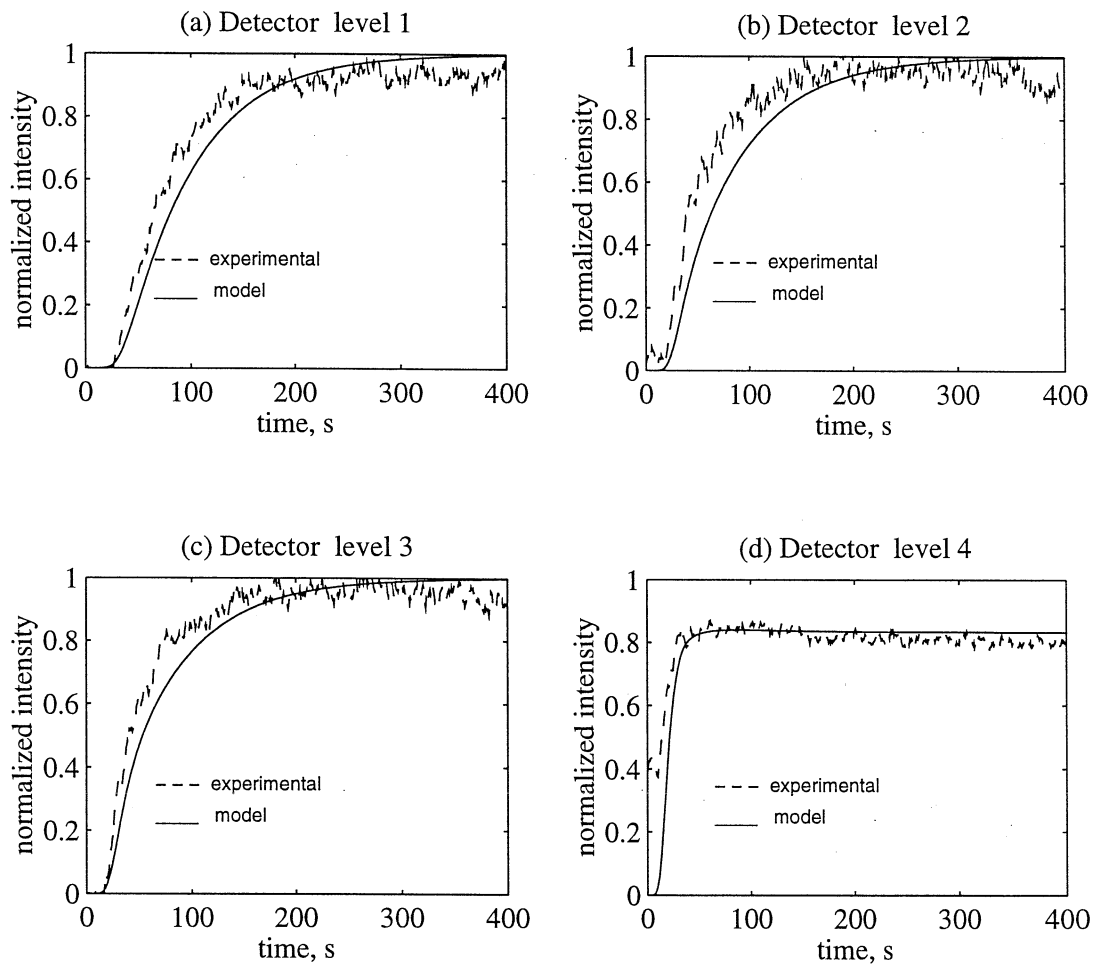


Figure F.14: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Center Injection at Level N1, Run 14.8

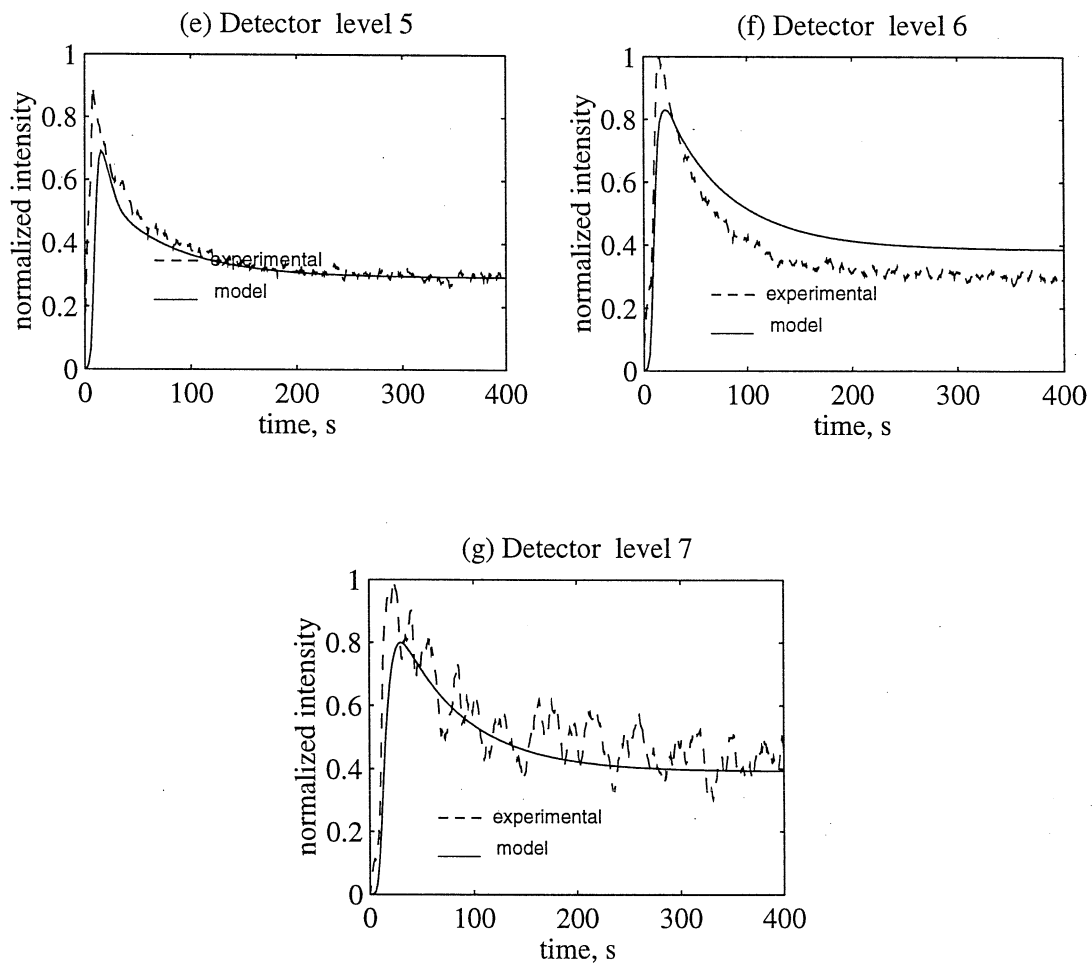


Figure F.15: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Center Injection at Level N1, Run 14.8

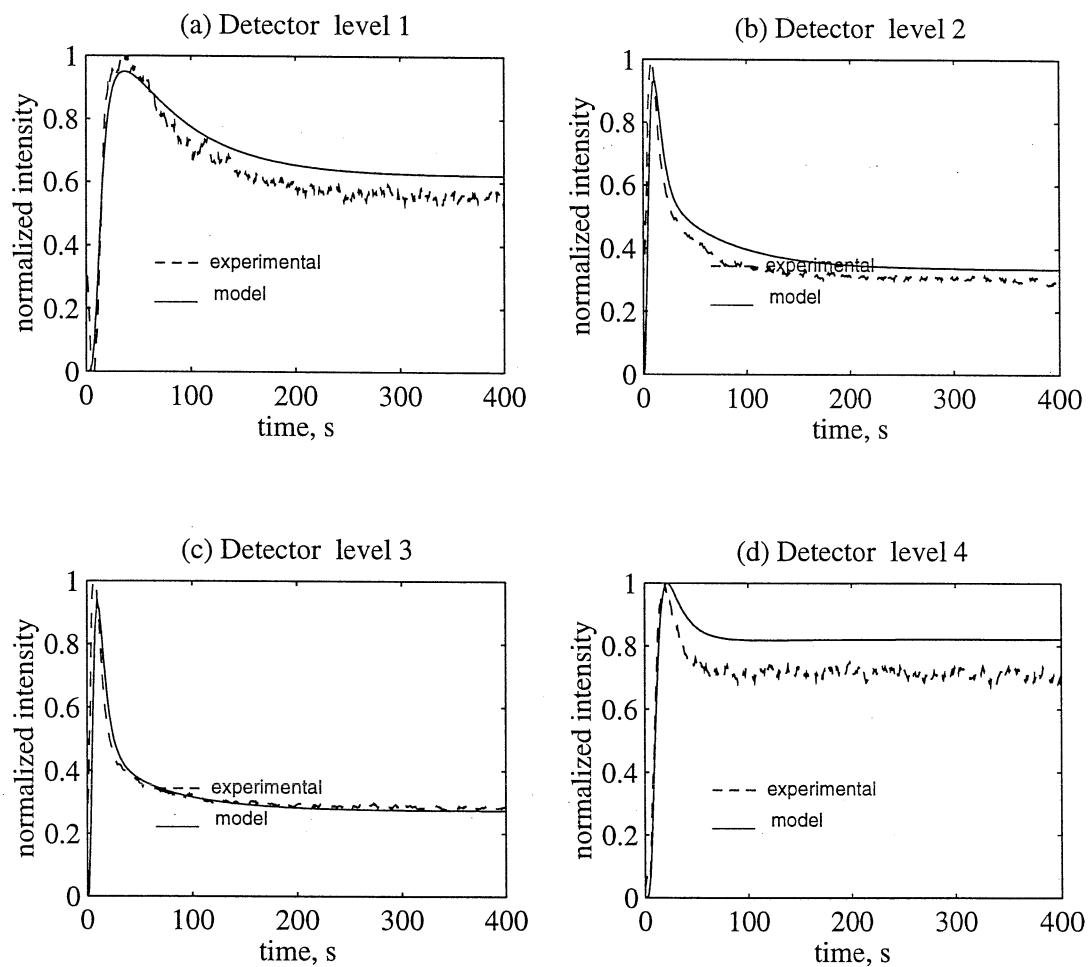


Figure F.16: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Center Injection at Level N2, Run 14.8

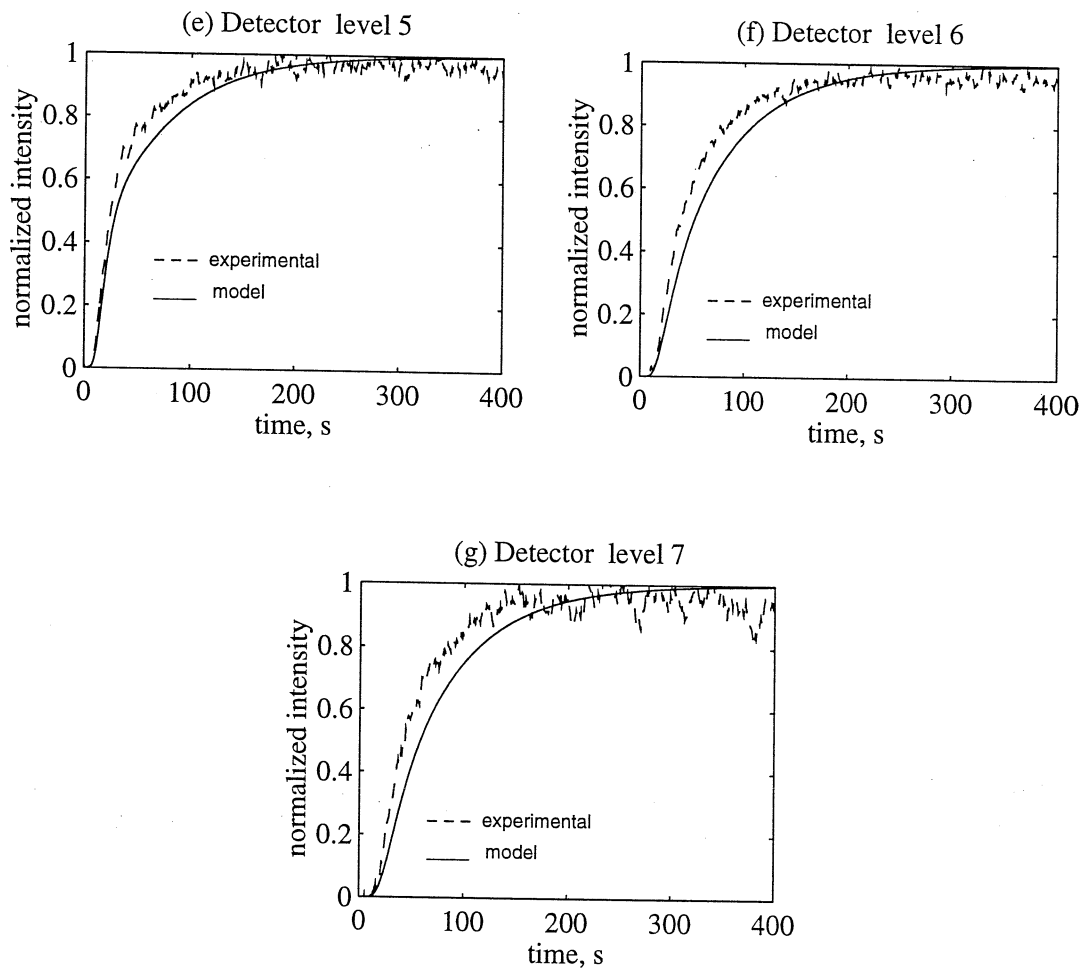


Figure F.17: Comparison of Model Prediction with Experimental Detector Responses for Center Injection at Level N2, Run 14.8

Appendix G

Application of RCFDM in the Presence of Homogeneous Liquid Phase Reaction

In this appendix the behavior of the recycle with cross flow and dispersion (RCFD) model in the presence of homogeneous liquid phase reaction (nonlinear kinetics) is studied. The objective is to compare the RCFDM with the one dimensional Axial Dispersion Model (ADM), using model parameters obtained for the same RTD. For this purpose, a set of two parallel irreversible reactions is considered:



The operating conditions of Myers et al. (1986), whose experiments were conducted in a column of diameter 19 cm, at a superficial gas velocity of 10 cm/s and a liquid velocity of 1 cm/s, are considered here. The reported mean residence time, for a gas-liquid dispersion height of 244 cm, is 203 s. The model parameters for RCFDM : $D_1=285 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$, $D_2=440 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$ and $D_{ri} = 34 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$, are obtained from CARPT/CT experiments as described in Chapter 6.2. The axial dispersion coefficient, obtained by fitting the ADM (without reaction) to the tracer response data of Myers et al. (1986), is $D_{ax}=352 \text{ cm}^2/\text{s}$.

The behavior of the RCFDM is studied for various values and ratios of k_1 and k_2 . Results are tabulated in Table G.1. The conversion of reactant A is given by $X_A = (C_{A_o} - C_A)/C_{A_o}$. Both RCFD and ADM yield near about the same results

for both conversion and selectivity with only minor discrepancies. This suggests that with model parameters for the same RTD, both the models yield similar predictions for the conversion and selectivity for the set of parallel reactions considered here. It is noted, however, that for all cases the assumption of complete backmixing reduces the conversion. For situations involving close to complete conversion, the assumption of complete backmixing will result in considerable over-sizing of the reactor.

Table G.1: Predicted Conversion and Selectivity for Various Values of k_1 and k_2

k_1 cc/mol. s	k_2 1/s	CSTR X_A	RCFDM		ADM	
			X_A	C_P/C_{A_0}	X_A	C_P/C_{A_0}
0.0006	0.0018	0.307	0.321	0.2585	0.3186	0.2571
0.05	0.15	0.968	0.998	0.9696	0.9973	0.9630
0.015	0.005	0.6661	0.7244	0.3482	0.7184	0.3466
0.0018	0.0006	0.2256	0.2895	0.0894	0.2877	0.0890
0.01	0.001	0.5317	0.5756	0.0972	0.5708	0.0967
0.05	0.05	0.9155	0.9730	0.8598	0.9690	0.8527

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