

*Lohew.
Thesis case*



THE RATE OF INTERACTION
BETWEEN
LIQUIDS AND GASES

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GENERAL DISCUSSION

The problem of transferring either matter or energy from one phase to another is almost universally encountered in some form by the chemical engineer. The processes of boiling, evaporation, distillation, drying and many others depend upon heat transfer, while extractions, absorptions, and the like involve the transfer of matter. The purpose of this paper is to discuss a limited part of the general field outlined above, considering only those interactions which occur between liquids and gases.

Interaction
between
Phases

The industrial application of these interactions are important in a wide variety of industries. Gas absorption systems are employed to recover ammonia and light oils from coal gas, to produce sulphite and bleach liquors for the manufacture of paper, to remove carbon dioxide from flue gases in the production of liquid carbonic acid, and to recover volatile solvents after they have evaporated. Air conditioning by humidification or dehumidification, and the cooling of hot water by sprays or towers are other

Applications
of
Liquid-Gas
Interactions.

processes involving the same essential characteristics of transfer between liquid and gas. General relationships should exist between these operations which are all so similar in their nature and the semi-theoretical discussion on page 17 suggests the probable similarities.

At present very little is known about the design of gas absorption equipment except regarding ^{the} ~~two~~ performances of actual installations in operation. In other words it has been impossible to design new equipment to handle new problems and predict the results with any accuracy. The main reason for this is that the effect of various factors upon the absorption has not been clearly recognized and that engineers have considered merely the performance figures from tests without going back to the essential theory of absorption.

Inadequate
Methods
of
Designing
Equipment

The performance of an absorption machine is given in terms of the recovery under definite conditions. For example, a scrubber may be advertised as recovering 95% of the light oil from 100,000 cu.ft. of coal gas per hour. The initial light

oil content and the amount of scrubbing oil is usually given, but these figures are not sufficient to give a good estimate on the recovery if operating conditions are radically changed.

In the first place, none of the figured given is of itself a measure of the "efficacy" of the scrubber as an absorption machine. The "95% recovery"

can be considered as an estimate of performance, and yet it is well recognized that the percentage recovery varies enormously as other factors such as concentration of inlet gas, temperature, velocity of gas and amount of scrubbing oil are changed. Furthermore, the recovery figure gives no idea as to the efficiency of the scrubber, since the maximum theoretical absorption may vary anywhere from 0 to 100% and is definitely fixed by the operating conditions. 100% or perfect absorption is theoretically possible in a tower of infinite length or with infinite time of contact, while if the scrubbing oil were saturated with benzol when fed to the top of the tower no absorption could be realized. For this

Objections
to
Basing
Design
on
"Recoveries"

reason a given scrubber, operating on two different processes, might recover 97% in one case and only 85% in another and yet be performing its duty with the same efficacy in both instances.

The difference in recoveries would then be due solely to differences in operating conditions.

Another objection to attaching great significance to recovery figures is evident when the recoveries attained by different types of scrubbers operating under similar conditions are compared. An excellent tower might give 95% absorption from a certain gas and yet the poorest absorber would recover perhaps 80%. This slight difference in recovery figures is easily explained when it is realized that the difficulties of absorption really begin when the concentrations of gas to be absorbed become low. And yet, as a matter of visualization, it is difficult to estimate the relative efficacies of two pieces of equipment when the recovery figures in which the estimate is based vary so slightly in magnitude.

It is possible, however, to make comparison between absorption machines which will be independent of the operating conditions of the test runs. The method of accomplishing this consists merely in determining the rate of absorption and from this a so-called "absorption coefficient." The latter term is merely the rate of absorption under unit conditions and will be explained in detail later on. It is entirely analogous to the coefficient of heat transfer used in problems in the flow of heat, and can be used as a direct estimate of the value of any machine as an absorber.

The
Rate
of
Absorption.

THE RATE OF INTERACTION

The rate of transfer of energy or of matter from gas to liquid or vice versa is determined by the same general laws as apply to the rate of heat-flow and of electrical flow.* Under any definite set of conditions these systems tend to come to conditions of equilibrium

Equilibria
and
Rates
of
Reaction

* The rate of chemical reaction is also proportional to the distance from equilibrium, but the mathematical expressions in this case are frequently complicated.

and the rate at which they approach equilibrium at any time is proportional to the difference between conditions at that time and the equilibrium conditions. The driving force or potential of the reaction is determined by the distance from equilibrium; in heat flow it is the temperature drop and in electrical flow the voltage drop.

In the discussion of gas absorption systems a simple nomenclature, a modification ^{of that} (1) suggested by Lewis, will be introduced. The material to be absorbed is the solute, the inert gas which brings it into the system is the carrier, and the absorbing liquid is the extractor. Concentrations of solute in the liquid extractor are denoted by X ; in the carrier it is simplest to use a term proportional to the concentration, namely, the actual pressure of the solute in the gas, P or p .

Nomenclature

Equilibrium is reached in gas absorptions when the liquid extractor is saturated with solute at this pressure P which the solute has in the gas at that point. On the other hand, if the

extractor is not saturated with solute, absorption takes place and the tendency is to establish a condition of equilibrium. The driving force tending to cause absorption is measured by the difference between P , the pressure of solute in the gas, and p , the equilibrium or saturation pressure over the liquid extractor whose concentration is X , p , which is sometimes called the back pressure of the liquid, is a function of X and frequently Henry's Law, i.e., $p = ax$, can be applied, "a" being a proportionality constant derived from direct measurements. The driving force or potential is, therefore, $(P-p)$ which is frequently written as Δp . The rate of absorption may now be written

$$\frac{dW}{d\theta} = \alpha (P-p) = \alpha \Delta p$$

dW is the amount of material absorbed in the time $d\theta$ when the driving pressure is $(P-p)$, and α is a proportionality factor. Before discussing the other factors which influence the rate of absorption, it is advisable to visualize the interaction between gas and liquid as ^{it} they occurs when a drop of liquid is suspended in a gas.

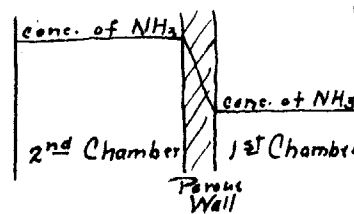
Driving
Pressure
or
Potential
Differences

The passage of any given substance through a liquid or a gas is carried on by two processes of diffusion of the substance through the fluid and convection in the mass of fluid itself. These two processes are also instrumental in the transfer of heat, although here a third influence, that of radiation, must also be considered. The effects of diffusion and convection are illustrated in the following example. Assume a porous wall of appreciable thickness separating two chambers, the first of which contains air and the second air and ammonia gas. In the second chamber ammonia will be quickly and evenly distributed throughout the space by convection currents. Since the separating porous wall freely permits the passage of gas, ammonia will travel through it into the first chamber. But in this case the gas normally held in the pores of the wall is not free to move in currents, convection is absent, and as a result the ammonia passes through the wall only by the relatively slow process of diffusion through stationary gas by molecular motion. Once on the other

Diffusion
and
Convection

side of the wall, it is rapidly distributed throughout the first chamber by convection currents. If a plot be constructed showing the concentrations of ammonia in the gas at any time during the transfer against its location in the chamber or wall, the concentrations would be uniform in each of the chambers but a considerable concentration gradient would be observed in the wall. From this it is evident that, since the

processes of convection are generally so much more rapid than those of diffusion, the resistance to the passage of ammonia through the system is almost entirely caused by the gas layer where convection currents are absent.



It has long been recognized that a solid in contact with a fluid retains on its surface a film of the fluid, a film which is not truly stationary but which nevertheless is not subject to convection currents such as obtain in the main body of the fluid. This film is not of a definite thickness; its inner face against the solid surface is practically stationary, but from this

Fluid
Films

limit motion increases in the fluid the further it is from the wall, so that it quickly assumes the velocity of the convection currents when a short distance from the solid. The phenomenon is illustrated by water flowing through channels - the lowest velocity is found nearest the walls and bottom, the highest is reached at points furthest from the bounding surfaces. Text books on the flow of heat recognize this surface film effect through which the diffusion of heat is very slow, resulting in great resistance to the passage of heat and high temperature drops.

The same concepts apply in cases where liquids and gases are in contact, whether as drops, bubbles or comparatively stationary surfaces. If a drop of liquid be suspended in a gas two surface films will exist. The gas may be in turbulent motion as a whole, but close to the drop a thin layer of gas will adhere to the liquid and not be subject to convection.

Similarly, the inside of the liquid may be in motion, but at the surface there will be found a thin layer of liquid whose motion relative to its surrounding gas film is very slight. Exchange of material or of heat between gas and liquid must take place through the mass of gas, through these two films, and through the mass of liquid, or in other words, through four resistances arranged in series.

Importance
of
Film
Resistances

Since these four resistances are encountered in series, the total resistance is the sum of the separate resistances; therefore, if any of the resistances be very small relative to the others it may be neglected in summation. It has just been shown that the two resistances in the main fluid bodies are slight because of convection currents which rapidly distribute matter or energy throughout the fluid. This means that they can be neglected in the discussion and the whole question of exchange now simplifies to a consideration of diffusion through liquid and gaseous films.

The laws governing electrical and thermal flow are equally applicable to diffusion phenomena through fluid films. Briefly, the rate at which any material will diffuse through a fluid film is proportional to the area of the film and to the driving force or potential gradient, terms whose significance has already been explained. It is frequently impossible to determine the contact area between liquid and gas in an absorption machine even approximately, but it is entirely reasonable that this would be proportional to the volume of the machine in most cases. As a result the volume is substituted for the actual area of contact, and the resulting expression for the rate of diffusion through a fluid film is

$$\frac{dW}{d\theta} = BV (P-p)$$

This rate expression, differs from the previous one only in the substitution of B, a new proportionality factor and V, the volume of equipment for \propto . B, the proportionality factor, is a term which varies with the conditions of operation and whose characteristics

Diffusion
Formula

must be determined. It may be defined as the rate of absorption per unit volume and per unit of driving pressure and is called the coefficient of absorption, or in general, the transfer coefficient.

FACTORS AFFECTING THE TRANSFER COEFFICIENT

A careful study of many types of absorption equipment has resulted in the following generalities concerning the value of B. First; the value of B is greatly influenced by the design of the absorption machine; in fact the absorption coefficients obtained for various equipments are a direct measure of their efficacy as absorbers per unit of volume. The variation of B with design is so great that the effect of other factors must be studied by comparing a series of runs all made on the same machine. Gas velocity relative to the liquid has a marked influence upon B because the film resistances to diffusion are reduced when the tearing or brushing action of moving gas thins down the effective thickness of the film. Liquid velocities cannot generally be varied

Factors
affecting
B

over wide ranges, but increasing the amount of liquid in the system within limits increases the area of surface exposed. Temperature undoubtedly influences the transfer coefficient, since at higher temperatures the molecules diffuse more rapidly. Furthermore, the character of the liquid, especially as regards its viscosity, must make a great difference although nothing definite is known about this effect as yet. The effects of gas velocity and of rate of flow of water will be discussed more in detail. Gas velocity past the liquid is usually the principle factor affecting B in any definite machine. The effect of gas velocity relative to the liquid should be somewhat the same in all types of apparatus, but the effect of velocity past the walls of the machine is not directly concerned. On the other hand, this latter velocity is the one which is measured, and hence its effect should vary with the design. For example, the water in a packed tower is

held by the packing and is not picked up by the gas as a spray to any extent. In a spray chamber, however, increasing the gas velocity increases liquid velocity as well, so that velocity of gas relative to liquid is not increased in proportion with the increase in velocity past the walls. It would therefore, be expected that gas velocity as actually measured should influence B more in coke towers than in spray chambers. Boiling cap bubblers are somewhat between these two limits of design in that the interaction is with liquid on the plate and also with spray above the plate.

Effect
of
Gas
Velocity

The nature of this velocity function can be predicted in a general way from a knowledge of gas velocity effects in heat transfer from gases to solids. The coefficient of heat transfer from gas to pipes has been carefully determined by a number of investigators, and Nusselt (2), Weber (3) and Beckett (4) have decided that it is best expressed as a power function of the velocity through the pipes. The same general relationship holds for

Velocity
Effect
a
Power
Function

for water in pipes, and it seems reasonable that a power function should be satisfactory for absorption equipment.

Increasing the water feed to a packed tower or spray should increase the area of contact almost proportionately up to a point where the packing surface is covered in one case or the maximum number of drops has been reached in the other. Beyond this point an increase in water flow should have very little effect, since excess water would ^{merely} ~~surely~~ flood the tower or in the spray chamber and would cause the formation of larger drops without increasing the actual number of unit droplets.

Effect
of
Rate
of
Flow
of
Liquid

The two important operating factors on the gas side of absorption units are the coefficient of absorption, B , and the friction drop through the tower. It is essential that this latter be kept fairly low when large volumes of gas are to be handled. The relationships between gas velocity, absorption coefficient and friction drop are, therefore, of great importance. It is well known that the friction drop for gases in

turbulent motion is a power function of the velocity, a function which approximates 1.7 in pipes but which is generally figured as 2. If friction drops through absorption machines are also power functions of the velocity it should follow that B and the friction drop are also connected by a power term, i.e.,

$$\text{Friction drop} = cB^n$$

Friction
Drop

Exact knowledge of the terms in this equation would make it possible to calculate the optimum gas velocity to be attained in designing an absorber for any specific purpose.

The relationship between the diffusion of heat energy and that of matter through the stationary gas film can be shown in several ways, one of the easiest being to consider the operations occurring in an adiabatic humidifier. (5)

Relationship
between
Heat Transfer
and
Absorption
Coefficients.

In this equipment air is humidified by contact with a spray of water which is recirculated through the system, no heat being received or lost from the apparatus except through the air or make-up water. It is obvious that the water will soon reach a temperature at which the heat given up to it by the air

just balances the cooling effect of evaporation and humidification, i.e., the water will assume and maintain a constant temperature. This equilibrium temperature of the water is identical with the wet bulb temperature of the air in contact with it and the following mathematical relationships show the amount of heat and of water vapor diffusing between gas and liquid.

The basis of calculation is one pound of dry air which carries with it M pounds of water. The temperature of the air is T , that of the water is t and the moisture content of the air is M while the moisture content of saturated air at the temperature of the water, t , is m ; i.e., capitals apply to conditions of gas and small letters to those of liquid.

Since the heat for vaporizing the water comes entirely from the air, the water being at constant temperature, the heat lost by one lb. of air equals the heat required to vaporize $d M$ lbs. of water. Denoting the heat of vaporization of water by r and the humid heat of the air (specific heat of a mixture of one

lb. of air and $\frac{M}{H}$ lbs. of moisture)

by s

$$r \, dM = -s \, dT$$

Integrating, on the assumption that r and s are constant over the short temperature range in question

$$M = -\frac{sT}{r} + \text{const.} \quad (1)$$

A second expression may be developed by equating the rate of heat transfer from air to the rate of heat loss from the water caused by evaporation, since the liquid remains at constant temperature. The rate of heat transfer from the air is

Derivation
of

$$\frac{h}{k} = s$$

$$\frac{dQ}{d\theta} = h A (T-t) \quad (2)$$

where dQ heat units diffuse in the time $d\theta$, A is the area of the drop film, $(T-t)$ is the driving temperature potential, and h is the coefficient of heat transfer.

The rate of heat loss from the water by evaporation is

$$\frac{dQ}{d\theta} = k' A (p-P)r$$

where p is the vapor of pressure of water at temperature, t , i.e., the vapor pressure of water from the liquid inside the film, and P is the vapor pressure of water in the air outside the film.

(p-P) is, therefore, the driving pressure potential of diffusion and k' is a diffusion coefficient. For this discussion the term (m-M) will be substituted for (p-P), introducing * only a slight error. The modified expression then becomes

$$\frac{dQ}{d\theta} = k A (m-M)r \quad (3)$$

Equating (2) and (3)

$$h A (T-t) = kA (m-M)r \quad m-M = \frac{h}{kr} (T-t)$$

$$M = m - \frac{h}{kr} (T-t) =$$

$$m - \frac{h}{kr} T + \frac{h}{kr} t \quad (4)$$

The two essential equations for M, (1) and (4), must obviously be identical. Therefore, $-\frac{sT}{r} + \text{const} = m - \frac{h}{kr} T + \frac{h}{kr} t$

Since T is not a function of m or t, two conclusions can be drawn from the mathematical nature of this equation.

The first is that $m + \frac{h}{kr} t$ is a constant; this necessitates, since m

* The relation between (p-P) and (m-M) is as follows: $M = P \frac{x}{760-P} \times \frac{18}{29}$

and $m = \frac{p}{760-p} \times \frac{18}{29}$ If P and p are small

compared to 760 mm, as is almost always the case, the error of substitution is very slight.

increases with t , that both m and t remain constant, or in words that the temperature of the water cannot change in the process. This is, of course, the first assumption used in figuring the above equations.

The second and vital conclusion is that $\frac{h}{kr} T$ equals $\frac{sT}{r}$ or that $\frac{h}{k} = s$. Expressed in another way, the coefficient of heat diffusion divided by the coefficient of diffusion of ^{water} matter equals the humid heat of the gas mixture.

It is obvious that h and k must be expressed in units as given above for this relationship to hold.

The significance of this relationship is extremely important and the limits of its applicability must be investigated.

It really means that the performance of any machine as an absorber can be predicted from its performance when used for heat transfer. Obviously the possibility of doing this would reduce absorption and heat transfer to a common basis and allow of their treatment as parallel phenomena.

Significance
of
 $\frac{h}{k} = s$

EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The data available for calculating the absorption or heat transfer coefficients in various types of equipment has been obtained chiefly from work done at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The types of equipment studied include coke towers, glass bubble-
Equipment Studied

rs, plate columns with slotted boiling caps, centrifugal oil spray chambers, spray nozzle chambers and spray cooling towers.

The rate of absorption in packed towers was studied by Kenney (6) and Stewart (7). Kenney absorbed sulphur dioxide in water, and Stewart absorbed carbon dioxide in caustic solution in the same equipment. The significance of their results was not realized at the time of their theses but Lewis (1) later discovered that the absorption coefficient for either case was a power function of the gas velocity, a function which he approximated as two. It was further found that the absorption coefficient for SO_2 was really the same as that for CO_2 if multiplied by a suitable factor deducted from the molecular weights of the solutes and carriers. The data, however, was not sufficiently accurate to justify definite

conclusions as to the effects of gas velocity and the natures of the gases.

Keats (8) studied the operation of a packed tower as a dehumidifier and obtained accurate values for heat transfer coefficients under definite conditions. A tower 12 inches in diameter was filled with carefully selected three inch coke for 5'4", hot saturated air was blown in at the bottom, and cold water fed in at the top. The results of his runs to determine the effect of air velocity on the coefficient of heat transfer are shown in Plot I, and the equation $h = 0.109 V^{1.47}$ is seen to fit the experimental points very closely. This high power function of 1.47 checks qualitatively with the results of Kenney and Stewart. Keats' results on the effect of water velocity, Plot 2, were meagre, but a hyperbolic curve seems most suitable and is in line with the theory outlined on page 16. Three runs made at varying temperatures (not shown) gave coefficients which could be empirically connected by assuming h proportional to the temperature in degrees Fahrenheit raised to the 1.9 power.

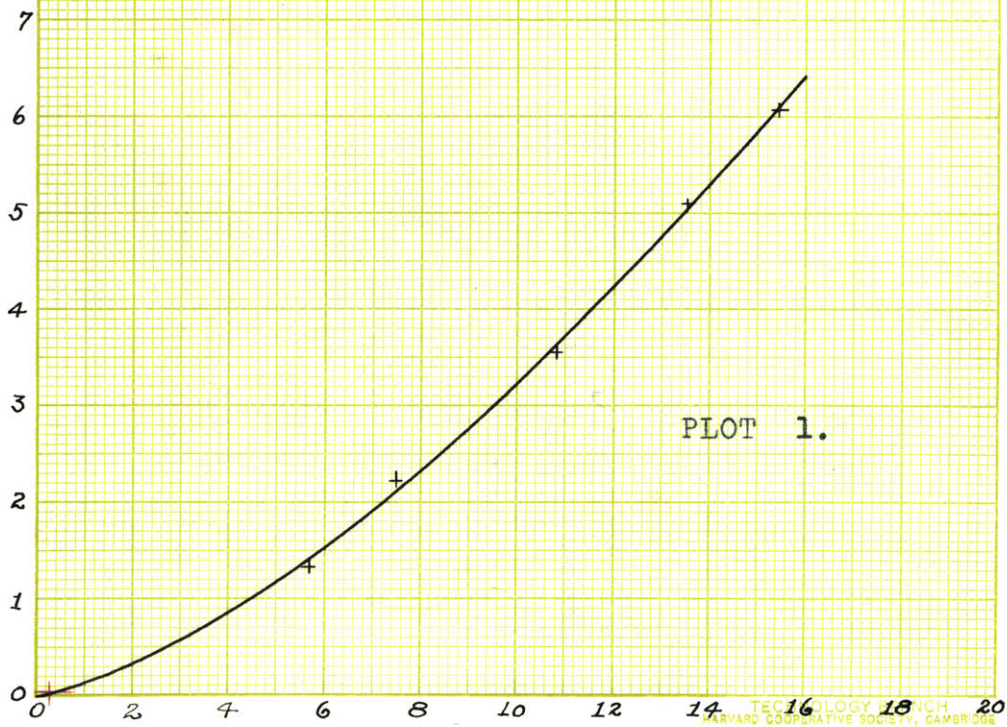
Dehumidification
in
Coke
Towers

EFFECT OF GAS VELOCITY
ON THE COEFFICIENT OF HEAT TRANSFER
IN A COKE-FILLED TOWER

Ordinates - Heat Transfer Coefficients,
in B.T.U. per min. per ft.
per ° F

Abscissae - Air velocities in lbs. of
dry air per minute.

Equation of Curve - $y = 0.109 x^{1.47}$

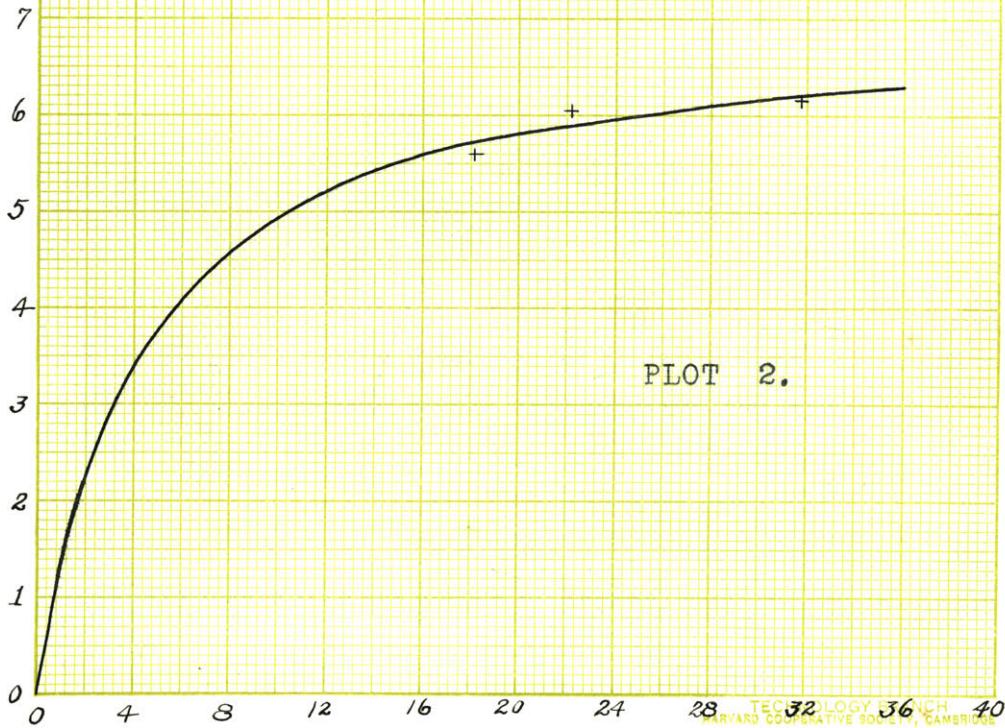


EFFECT OF RATE OF WATER FLOW
ON THE COEFFICIENT OF HEAT TRANSFER
IN A COKE-FILLED TOWER

Ordinates - Heat Transfer Coefficients,
in B.T.U. per min. per cu.ft.
per ° F.

Abscissae - Lbs. of Water fed to Towers
per minute.

Equation of Curve - $y = \frac{7.10 x}{x + 4.5}$



In this connection it is interesting to note that Tobin and Mossdrop (9) working on the absorption of CO₂ from a 14% gas with sodium carbonate solution, operated with a tower similar to that used by Keats. They used very low velocities and obtained a coefficient of absorption of .008 lbs. of CO₂ per cu.ft. per minute with a driving pressure of one lb. of CO₂ per lb. of air. The velocity in lbs. of air per minute was only about 2% of the maximum used by Keats, i.e., about 0.3 lbs. of dry air per minute. Recalculating this absorption coefficient over to heat transfer by the expression $\frac{h}{k} = s$, s should be about .274. h, therefore, equals k x s or about 0.022. This point is shown in red in Plot I and ~~lies right on the curve expressing Keats' results.~~ Comparing this figure numerically with the value given by the formula $h = 0.109 V^{1.47}$, the latter is .0186 so that the check is within 16%.

Absorption
of
CO₂ in a
Coke
Tower

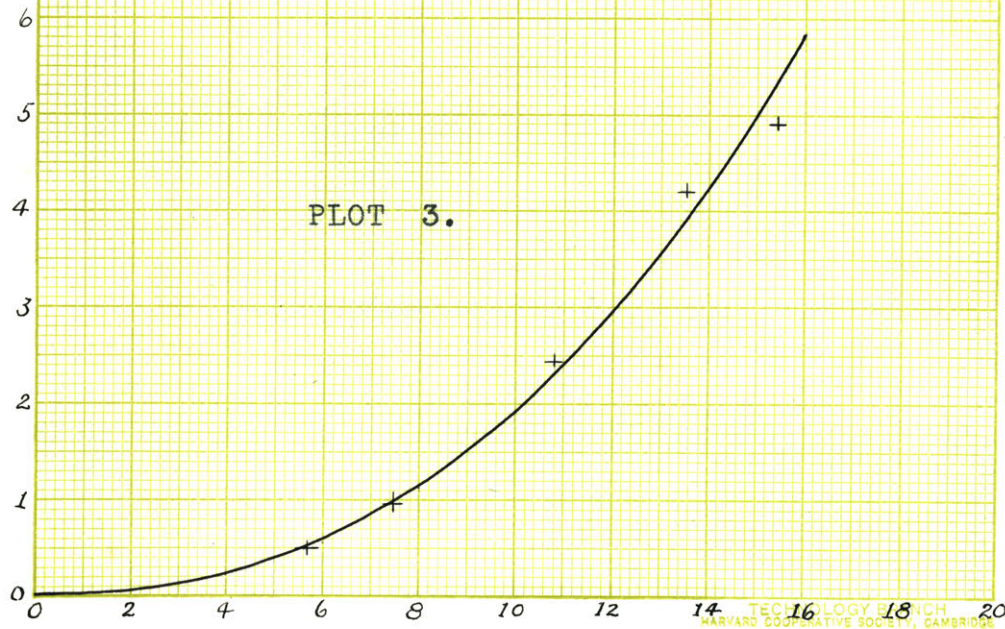
Plots 3 and 4 show the friction drop through Keats' tower plotted against the air velocity and h respectively. The friction drop is proportional to $V^{2.37}$ and to $h^{1.61}$; in other words the friction drop increases more rapidly than h does as the velocity is

RELATION BETWEEN
PRESSURE DROP AND GAS VELOCITY
IN A COKE-FILLED TOWER

Ordinates - Pressure Drops in inches of water. Coke column 5 ft.4 in. high.

Abscissae - Air Velocities in lbs. of dry air per minute.

Equation of Curve - $y = 0.00817 x^{2.37}$

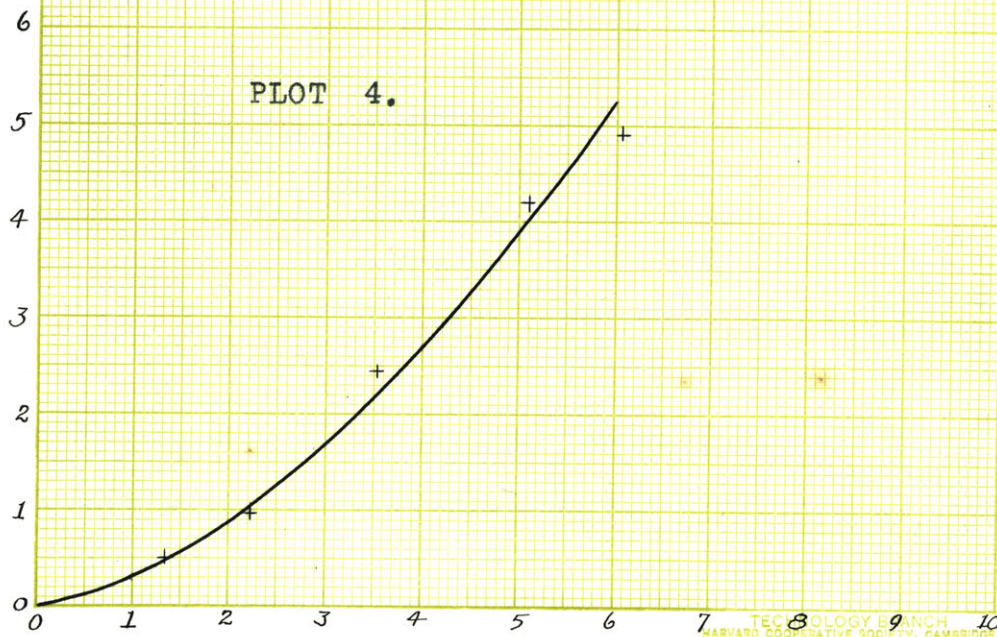


RELATION BETWEEN PRESSURE
DROP AND THE HEAT TRANSFER COEFFICIENT
IN A COKE-FILLED TOWER

Ordinates - Pressure Drops in inches of
water. Coke column 5 ft. 4 in.
high.

Abscissae - Heat Transfer Coefficients
in B.T.U. per min. per cu.ft.
per °F.

Equation of Curve - $y = 0.283 x^{1.63}$



raised. From this relationship a coke tower could be designed to give the proper air velocity for optimum operation if the economic conditions were known. Since it seems altogether probable that gas absorption and heat transfer are parallel phenomena, the equation connecting k and friction drop in a coke tower should be of the same form as above, namely: friction drop = $c k^{1.61}$.

Friction
Drop

It is proposed to continue work with this same tower functioning as a humidifier and as a gas absorber. In this way it is hoped to obtain absolute proof of the direct ratio existing between heat transfer and gas absorption referred to on page 21, i.e., that $\frac{h}{k} = S$.

Carlson and Harrop (10) studied the absorption of ammonia from air with water in a glass laboratory bubbler and found that k varied directly as the first power of the air velocity. They further determined that k was apparently unaffected by varying the concentration of ammonia in the air. This latter would naturally be expected, since any variability in concentration should cause a corresponding variation in the driving pressure and not affect the coefficient of absorption.

Absorption
in
Glass
Bubbler

Reynolds and Sanders (11) continued a series of investigations started by the writer on the absorption of ammonia from air by water in a plate column equipped with slotted boiling caps. They performed about 130 runs and obtained data which checked closely with the formula

$$k = c V^{0.9}$$

with constant water velocity and water level on the plates. The effect of varying the flow of water was almost negligible, but increasing the depth of liquid on the plate increased k greatly up to a certain depth: due to the increased time of contact between gas and liquid.

Absorption
with
Boiling
Caps

SPRAY CHAMBER

The writer was permitted the use of some unpublished data on the operation of a centrifugal spray chamber in two series of tests. The first series of about 35 runs was made to determine the chamber's performance when cooling hot condenser water with air. The second series of 12 runs was made on its operation as an absorption machine for removing ammonia from air.

Centrifugal
Spray
Chamber
for
Heat
Transfer
and
Absorption

From the data thus obtained coefficients of heat transfer and of ammonia absorption have been calculated. It was evident that

Note: RTS made a mistake in theory when computing the coeffs with different depths of liquid. The coefficients, when calc. correctly, do not show any variation with depth (between 1 1/2 & 4 inches, the range studied.) WGL

the first set of data on cooling hot water was much more reliable than that obtained by the absorption tests, so series one was investigated to determine the effect of air velocity, rate of flow of water, and temperature on the heat transfer coefficient. Air velocity exerted the most marked influence (see plot no. 5), water flow had some effect (see plot no. 6) and increasing temperature evidently increased the coefficient. The general formula which contains all these functions is

$$h = c V^{0.65} \frac{W}{W + 0.8} t^*$$

Centrifugal
Spray
Chamber
for
Heat
Transfer
and
Absorption

It will be noted that the velocity power of 0.65 is the lowest which has been obtained from the tests just discussed.

The ammonia runs were made at essentially constant temperature and rate of water flow. The experimental error was considerable for these runs, and the method employed in calculating air velocity was undoubtedly very inaccurate. On the plot of k , the absorption coefficient, against air velocity, a 0.65 power curve has been

* Units are arbitrary because of the confidential nature of the original data.

EFFECT OF GAS VELOCITY
ON THE COEFFICIENT OF HEAT TRANSFER
IN A SPRAY CHAMBER

Ordinates - Heat Transfer Coefficients,
corrected to a common temperature
and water velocity

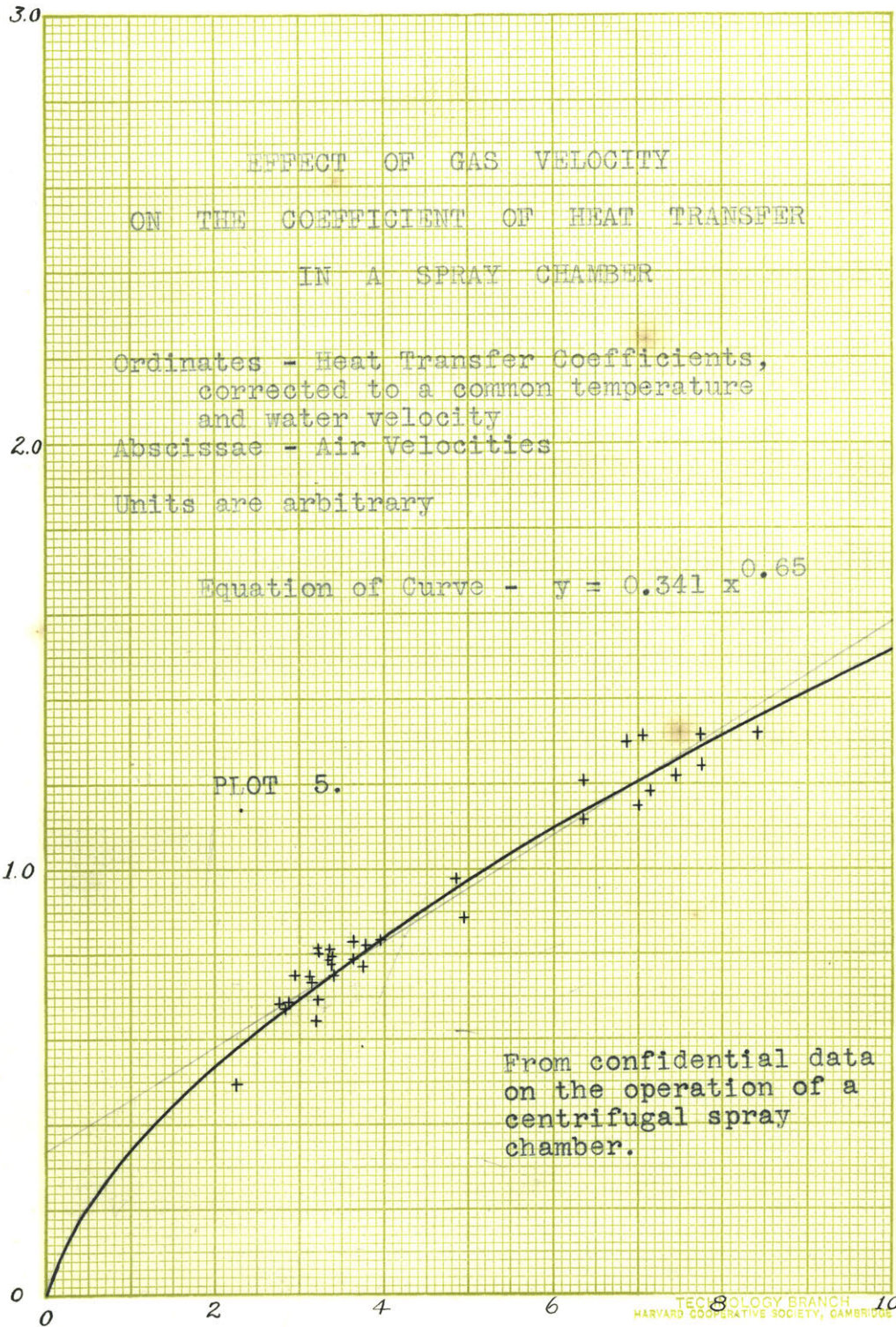
Abscissae - Air Velocities

Units are arbitrary

Equation of Curve - $y = 0.341 x^{0.65}$

PLOT 5.

From confidential data
on the operation of a
centrifugal spray
chamber.



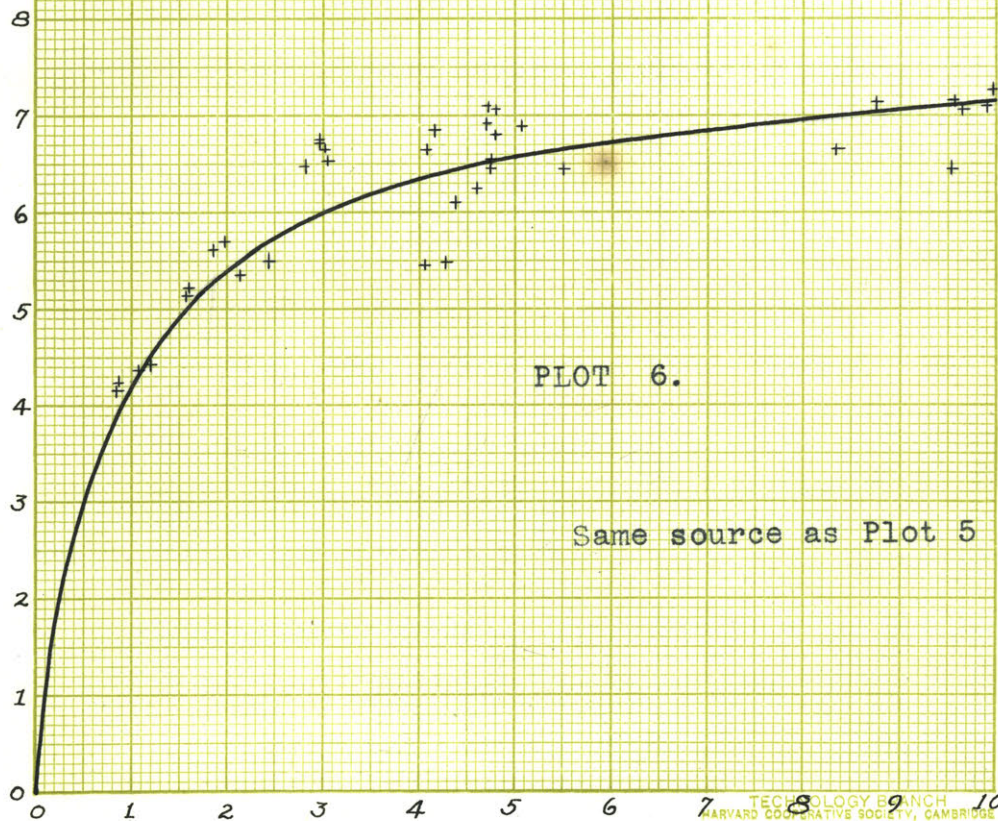
REPECT OF RATE OF WATER FLOW
ON THE COEFFICIENT OF HEAT TRANSFER
IN A SPRAY CHAMBER

Ordinates - Heat Transfer Coefficients,
corrected to a common temperature
and air velocity

Abscissae - Rate of flow of water

Units are arbitrary

$$\text{Equation of } y = \frac{7.70x}{x + 0.80}$$



constructed because air velocity should have the same effect here as it had in series 1. It is evident that this curve fits the points as well as could be expected from the scattering.

These two series of runs offer an excellent chance for checking or disproving the theory outlined on page 21 which states that $\frac{h}{k} = s$. Accordingly h and k have been calculated for the same conditions of air velocity, water flow and temperature. h was expressed in B.T.U. per cu.ft. per minute with a driving potential of 1° F., and k in lbs. of ammonia per cu.ft. per minute with a driving pressure of 1 lb. of ammonia per lb. of air. $\frac{h}{k}$ should equal s , the specific heat of 1 lb. of dry air plus the heat capacity of the ammonia in it; this is about 0.25. Actually the calculations gave $\frac{h}{k} = 0.17$ which is a 32% deviation from the predicted value. This check was unexpectedly close and indicates the probable validity of the relationship.

Check on

$$\frac{h}{k} = s$$

EFFECT OF GAS VELOCITY
 ON THE COEFFICIENT OF AMMONIA ABSORPTION
 IN A SPRAY CHAMBER

Ordinates - Absorption Coefficients
 (runs at same temperature and
 water velocity)

Abscissae - Air Velocities

10

Units are arbitrary

9 Equation of Curve - $y = 1.90 x^{0.65}$

8

7

6

5

4

3

2

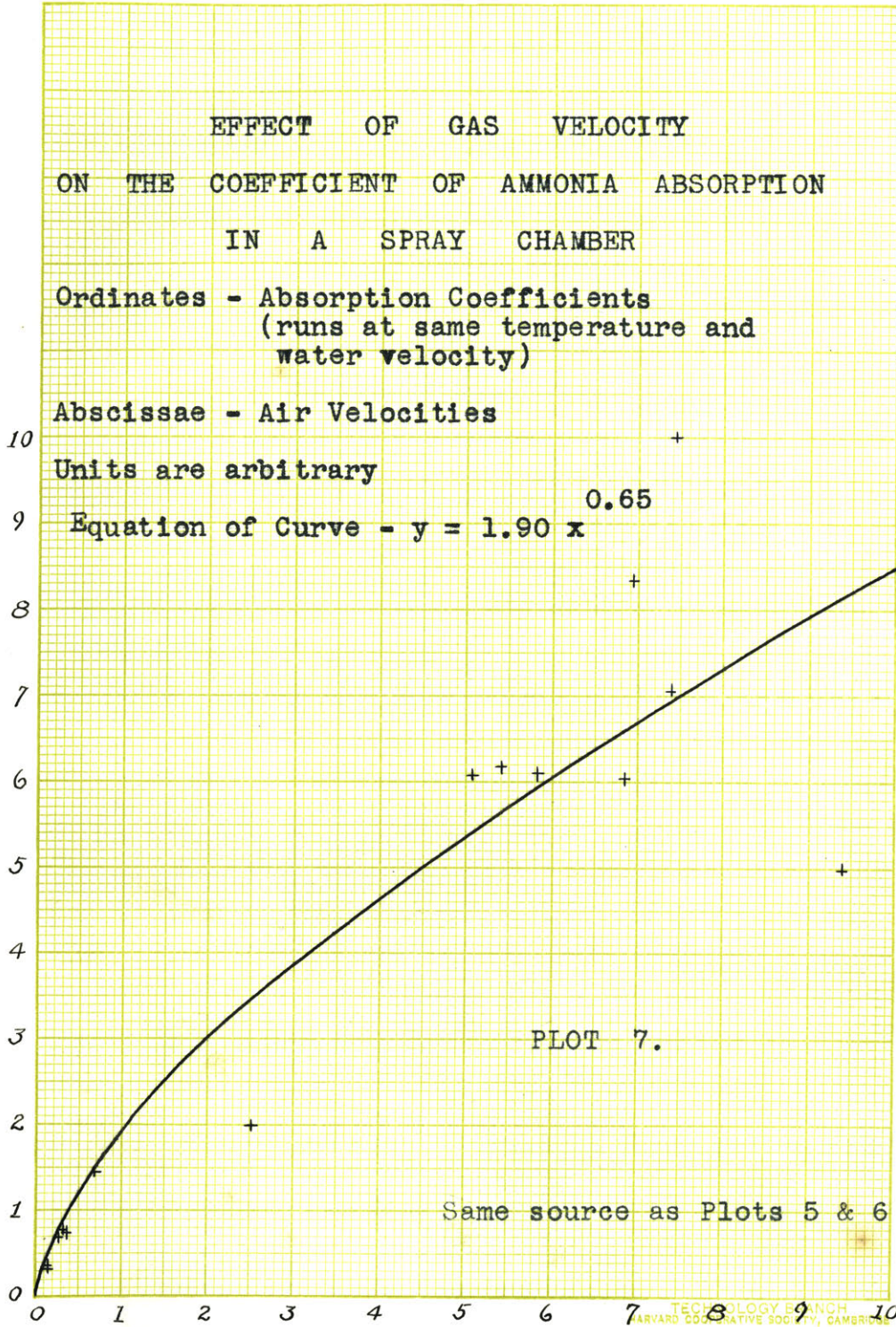
1

0

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

PLOT 7.

Same source as Plots 5 & 6



Further unpublished data from tests on a spray-nozzle chamber used for dehumidification indicate that for this type of equipment the effect of air velocity is slight although some increase in h can be noted as the air velocity rises.

Spray-
Nozzle
Chamber

Irregularities in the values of h caused by other factors made it impossible to accurately estimate a power function to be applied to the air velocity and furthermore this latter was not varied over a very wide range.

Farrow and Hopkinson (12) operating a spray tower for cooling hot condenser water, calculated h , the coefficient of heat transfer, from the general formula

$$\frac{Q}{\theta} = h V \Delta T_{\text{average}}$$

where $\frac{Q}{\theta}$ is the sensible heat taken up by the air per minute, T is the average temperature difference between water and air, and V is about 1700 cu.ft. Their water flow and temperatures and the initial humidities of the air were varied over a considerable range, yet when the results were calculated by this method h was found to be approximately constant as 0.33 B.T.U. per minute per cu.ft. per degree Fahrenheit.

Spray
Cooling
Tower

Very little variation in air velocity was possible in this tower and the slight differences which did occur had no appreciable effect on the coefficient.

In all cases studied the rate of flow of the liquid had only a slight effect on h and this effect could be expressed by a hyperbolic function of the formula $h = \frac{CW}{W+b}$

where W is the rate of the flow of the liquid.

The table given below furnishes a fair estimate of the value of the power function which should be applied to the gas velocity in the formula $h = cV^n$.

Type of Equipment	Value of "n" in formula, $h = cV^n$
Coke Tower	1.5
Glass Bubbler	1.0
Slotted Bubbling Caps	0.9
Centrifugal Spray Chamber	0.65
Spray Nozzle Chamber	Very low
Spray Cooling Tower	Very low

General
Results
of
Tests

If the operation of these different types of equipment be considered it is seen that the theory of the effect of gas velocity past the walls is borne out. In the coke tower gas velocity exerts its maximum effect and n is high because the water is not carried along by the gas but remains on the coke. As a result the velocity of gas relative to liquid increases about proportionately to the absolute velocity of the gas, and the effect of the latter is marked. At the other end of the table those machines which spray drops into the air give low powers of n . This was predicted on page 15 because the relative velocity of gas to liquid could be only slightly increased by a large increase in absolute velocity.

Comparison
of
Results
with
Theory

CONCLUSIONS

The results of many investigations have shown that the rate of interaction between gases and liquids can be expressed in the form

$$\frac{dQ}{d\theta} = k V (P-p)$$

where matter is being transferred, or as

$$\frac{dW}{d\theta} = h V (T-t)$$

if the transfer is one of heat. The two coefficients, h and k , are closely related, and for any specific equipment operating under definite conditions the ratio $\frac{h}{k}$ should equal s , the specific heat of the gas.

The values of h and k are affected primarily by the design, but also by various operating factors such as gas velocity, rate of flow of liquid, temperature, and liquid employed. Equipment which has a large contact surface per unit of volume gives high values of h or k , and vice versa.

Gas velocity affects the coefficients as a power function which varies with the nature of the liquid-gas contact. Where the liquid held on a solid surface so that it is not picked up as a spray by the gas, the effect of gas velocity is high. In packed towers, for example, h varies approximately as $V^{1.5}$. In bubbling equipment this power is about unity

Gas
Velocity

and for spray design decreases to very low values. This means that gas velocity does not greatly affect the rate of interaction between a gas and a spray carried in it, since the relative velocity between gas and liquid can be only slightly increased by a large increase in the speed of the gas through the apparatus.

Liquor flow has only a slight effect on the coefficient with the rates normally employed. If the rate is reduced too low, however, the exposed surface of contact is cut down and the coefficient drops off rapidly. The effect is best represented by a hyperbolic function of the form

$$h = c \frac{w}{w + a}$$

Increasing the temperature undoubtedly raises the coefficient, but the exact relationship is not known sufficiently well to permit generalization. Finally, the nature of the liquid must greatly affect h and k , but since all experiments to date have been made with water or aqueous solutions nothing is quantitatively known about this subject.

Liquor
Flow

Other
Factors

The table below gives rough approximations of the coefficients of heat transfer which might be expected from various types of equipment in normal operation. These values are calculated on the assumption that dehumidification is being carried out in each machine, and hence they give an estimate on the comparative efficacies per unit volume of the types listed. h is expressed as B.T.U. per cu.ft. per minute per degree Fahrenheit and is used in the formula

Comparison
of
Types

$$\frac{Q}{\theta} = h V \Delta T$$

Type	Value of h
Packed Tower (velocity = 3 ft. per sec.)	4
Boiling Caps (3 caps per sq.ft. of plate)	1
Spray-Nozzle Chamber	1.5
Spray Cooling Tower	0.3

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