

# BASIC PRINCIPLES and CALCULATIONS in **PROCESS TECHNOLOGY**

T. DAVID GRIFFITH

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# **Basic Principles and Calculations in Process Technology**

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# **BASIC PRINCIPLES AND CALCULATIONS IN PROCESS TECHNOLOGY**

T. David Griffith



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*This book is dedicated to the memory of  
my chemical engineer father, T. Ed Griffith*

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# FOREWORD

Dr. Griffith has assigned himself the challenging, and perhaps impossible, task of writing a book for plant operators with no university background explaining the content of the standard, four-year college chemical engineering curriculum. His aim is to facilitate communication between the operators and engineers in chemical plants, by familiarizing the operators with the science used by engineers and the jargon associated with it.

Dr. Griffith is well positioned to undertake his task, because of years of involvement in plant operations in the petroleum industry. He has shown considerable patience and tenacity at sticking to his goal and providing the industrial community with a book that is perhaps unique for the technical library. Now the operators can get some idea as to the meaning of such terms as material and energy balances, unit operations, equilibrium, entropy, enthalpy, thermal conductivity, diffusivity, and chemical reaction rates, which engineers use in their daily communications.

—*R. B. Bird*



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# PREFACE

There is too much detail in science that is too complex for process operators. That was a criticism of the first draft of this book. In addition, not every process technologist will need everything this book provides. However, the book was not written for the lowest common denominator. We cannot know in advance the exact physics to describe a process that an operator may encounter. Instead, this book is meant to educate process technologists by providing the basic principles that govern and explain their operations. It is a language guide for communication between process technologists and chemical engineers.

Why is the discharge from a sales-gas compressor hot when an engineer says the process is “adiabatic,” which means that there is no heat transferred? What does a chemical engineer mean when he or she says that a chemical reaction is “second” order and has a “yield” of 60% or an “extent of reaction” of 16.75 mol/mole? What is meant by stating that a high “stress” tensor causes turbulent flow in a long, smooth pipe that has no fittings? Why are the zones in a process furnace called the “radiation” zone and the “convection” zone?

While having a haircut one day in Norma’s Barber Shop in Bay City, Texas, I was talking with a former neighbor who happened to be an operator at the nearby South Texas Project Nuclear Power Plant. When he asked what I was doing, I told him about this book. He said that he and his fellow operators used “steam tables” to report values of the steam at the inlet and outlet of the giant turbines that drove the generators making electricity. He confessed that it would really be helpful to know what those numbers meant. This book provides the answer to his request.

Process operations are described by a “foreign” language, the terminology of chemical engineers. Process technologists make things work for those chemical engineers! The objective of this book is to enhance the communication of process operations so as to improve productivity and, most important, safety.

Chemical engineering is one of the broadest areas of technology. Operations range from giant oil refineries down to artificial organs and further down to the realm of nanotechnology on a microscopic scale. Although it encompasses a wide range of applications, the technology is well grounded in fundamental science and engineering principles. It also uses some of the highest forms of mathematics. However, most chemical engineers do not use those higher mathematics after receiving their degrees and going to work. Yet engineers do use the principles that they learned from all of the calculations they performed using that higher mathematics when they were earning their degrees.

This book covers the subject matter taught to chemical engineers, but the presentation of the material in this edition has been rearranged so that the subject of thermodynamics in Chapter 5 is taught before the chapters on material balances and energy balances in Chapters 8 and 9, respectively. Normally, a chemical engineer takes a course on material and energy balances early in his or her education because that subject does not require the higher math used in other areas. But Chapter 5, "Thermodynamics: Energy, Heat, and Work," gives significant insight into processes and it is perhaps the most important chapter in the understanding of the basic physics of process technology.

So, why learn the fundamental science behind the principles and calculations of process technology? The most important answer is safety. We can memorize all sorts of rules and learn different formulas but there will inevitably be an occasion when there is no exact rule for work or no specific method for a calculation. However, with an understanding of the science, we can extrapolate a rule or procedure to fit a situation. In addition, it is a lot easier to learn and remember rules and procedures when we understand the reasoning behind them.

Be forewarned that there is a lot of material to learn in this text. Will a process technologist use all of it? The answer is almost assuredly no, but just about everything in this text will be used by different process technologists at one time or another. In addition, since a technologist does not know what he or she will need in the future, we have attempted to provide as much science as practicable.

As mentioned, the book is organized differently than the coursework that a chemical engineer will encounter. It is arranged so that each chapter builds on its successors. In Chapter 1, "Introductory Concepts," the text begins by explaining how to solve problems. To exercise those skills, Chapter 2, "Areas, Volumes, Complex Objects, and Interpolation," stresses solving problems to calculate areas and volumes. Complex areas and volumes in that chapter teach the reader how to organize the solution of a multiple-step

problem. Chapter 3, "Units of Measure," focuses on the units of measure that are used throughout process industries. Then, the science begins. First are the gas laws in Chapter 4, "Gas Laws: Pressure, Volume, and Temperature," which are then used in Chapter 5, "Thermodynamics: Energy, Heat, and Work," to calculate work and changes in the enthalpy of gases. Chapter 6 is "Phase Equilibria," and Chapter 7, "Chemical Reaction Kinetics," examines chemical-reaction-rate expressions.

Next are the most important chapters: Chapter 8, "Material Balances," and Chapter 9, "Energy Balances." Typically, about 80% of the calculations that a chemical engineer will perform during his or her career are from those two chapters. Finally, there are three chapters on transport phenomena; Chapter 10 is "Transport Phenomena: Fluid Flow," which is known as momentum transport. Chapter 11, "Transport Phenomena: Heat Transfer," discusses energy transport, and Chapter 12, "Transport Phenomena: Mass Transfer," covers the details of separation processes that purify materials.

The opening of each chapter includes a list of chapter sections followed by an explanation of why that chapter is important to process technology. Included are example problems showing how to apply the principles and perform the calculations. In addition, figures illustrate what is described in the text. End-of-chapter problems not only include calculations, but also discussion questions to assist the student in putting the principles of process technology into their own words. Finally, appendices are provided for answers to selected problems, conversion factors, ideal gas constants, and steam tables. The tables in the last three appendices are provided so that data can be easily located instead of having to browse through the text.

The subject of transport phenomena mentioned in Chapters 10, 11, and 12 is likely the most mathematically complex subject in undergraduate studies using vectors, tensors, differential equations, and integral calculus. However, I have a bet with R. Byron (Bob) Bird, the lead author of the landmark book *Transport Phenomena*, which is used by almost every chemical engineer in the world, along with the now just published *Introductory Transport Phenomena*, that process technologists can understand its principles without those mathematics, including why fluid flow is called "momentum transport."

To quote the preface from Bird, Stewart, and Lightfoot, *Transport Phenomena* (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1960), "Obviously there is more material in this book than can be conveniently used in an introductory course. Having some additional material in the book will be helpful to instructors and advanced students and will, in addition, serve as a warning to the [student] that the 'boundaries of the course' do not coincide with the 'boundaries of the subject.'"

In this textbook, some of the advanced material has been put in sidebars within a chapter and appendices at the end of a chapter. The subject matter in those appendices most likely will never be encountered by the vast majority of process technologists. However, it just might be mentioned sometime by someone. In that eventuality, instead of relying on an unpredictable electronic search, the relevant appendix will provide a ready reference with further explanation of what may be an important topic.

—*T. David Griffith, Ph.D.*  
*Blessing, Texas*

# ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I have had the good fortune to be educated by the “eagles.” There have been so many people I have known who are worthy of being acknowledged in this endeavor. To be educated by one of the most outstanding academicians is noteworthy, but to be educated by so many in different fields is almost unbelievable.

Instead of writing about how each has contributed, I have decided to list them in alphabetical order. Most are well known in the fields of chemical engineering and statistics, and need no introduction. They are R. Byron (Bob) Bird, Michael M. (Iron Mike) Donovan, Robert D. Gunn, Joel O. Hougen and his brother Olaf, William G. (Bill) Hunter, Edwin N. Lightfoot, Robert S. Schechter, Warren E. Stewart, and William H. (Bill) Wade.

A special acknowledgement must be given to Professor Emeritus Bird who is also at the top of the list above not only because it was in alphabetical order. His comments on the book have made me think, which resulted in a greatly improved manuscript. This is particularly true when I attempted to use a simple one-word analogy for entropy in the introduction of Chapter 5, “Thermodynamics: Energy, Heat, and Work.” I decided that instead of equating entropy as simply a measure of disorder, it would be better to describe the different applications of the concept of entropy to different circumstances and systems. This is called the “reverse pyramid” style of communication which is one of the most effective methods that I learned almost 40 years ago when preparing slides for the presentation of a technical paper.

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# ABOUT THE AUTHOR

**Dr. T. David Griffith** received his B.S. in chemical engineering from The University of Texas at Austin and his Ph.D. from the University of Wisconsin–Madison, then ranked number one in chemical engineering studies. After working in research on enhanced oil recovery (EOR), he and two friends started a small chemical company in Wisconsin specializing in furniture restoration products. Later, his career took a major shift when he developed a record-setting electronic data interchange (EDI) software package for his wife’s computer software consulting business, and provided support to users as far away as Australia. Now, he is doing what he enjoys most, teaching in the hydrocarbon processing industry.

In addition to technical papers based on both graduate school and industrial research, he also wrote and published the user manuals for EDI (electronic data interchange) software, with which users set implementation records with trading partners J.C. Penney and Marathon Oil. Griffith says, “One would be amazed by the parallels between teaching students, reporting research results to associates, and supporting business customers over long distance.”

In addition to his background in chemical engineering, he was mentored by one of the most outstanding statisticians in the world, William G. Hunter, who had a B.S. and an M.S. in chemical engineering along with an M.S. and a Ph.D. in statistics. Griffith also says that he tries to be practical and takes the approach of understanding processes instead of just working with equations.

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# CHAPTER 4

## Gas Laws: Pressure, Volume, and Temperature

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The majority of process operations involve material that is in a gaseous state. Temperatures can range from  $-150^{\circ}\text{F}$  to over  $1,400^{\circ}\text{F}$  with pressures ranging from a vacuum to over 2,000 psi. These conditions are not isolated extremes, but rather conditions that are typically encountered in various hydrocarbon processing units. Given this wide range of operating conditions, it is critical that a process technologist understand the behavior of gases under extreme conditions.

Under "normal" conditions, all gases behave very much like an ideal gas. Those normal conditions range from about a few tens of degrees below  $0^{\circ}\text{F}$  to only several hundred degrees above, and with pressures from a vacuum to only a few atmospheres. However, as just noted, many processes are carried out under conditions that are anything but normal. As we will see, much can be learned about the nature of gases by studying "ideal" gases.

In general, the molecules, or atoms in the cases of the inert gases, are widely spaced. Consequently, their relatively small volume is insignificant and does not interfere with the relationships of pressure, volume, and

temperature that we refer to as PVT. But under the extreme conditions of high pressure and low temperature just described, that molecular volume does interfere and causes a gas to behave in a nonideal manner that results in a larger volume. In addition, certain gases, such as Freon coolants, have strong intermolecular forces between the molecules that make them behave in a nonideal manner under less extreme conditions. Those intermolecular forces can be attractive, repulsive, or both, causing the volume to be smaller or larger.

### Advanced Material

Appendix 4A at the end of this chapter discusses equations of state, most notably the equations and tables dependent upon the critical pressure and critical temperature of a nonideal gas. It is highly unlikely that a process technologist will ever have to calculate a PVT relationship for a non-ideal gas. However, from time to time he or she may hear terms such as reduced pressure or reduced temperature along with compressibility factor. Reading this appendix is optional.

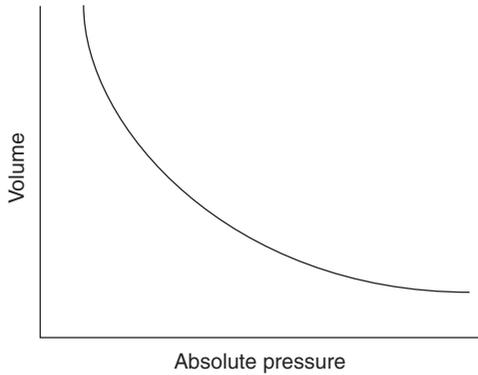
## 4.1 Boyle's Law

Simply stated, at a constant temperature the volume and absolute pressure of a gas's given mass are inversely proportional. That is, if the volume of that gas's given mass were to be changed by a certain factor, the absolute pressure would be increased by the inverse of that factor. This is known as Boyle's Law and is applicable whether the volume is being increased or decreased. It only holds true for ideal gases.

Putting Boyle's Law into a mathematical expression gives Equation 4.1.

$$V \propto \frac{1}{p} \quad (4.1)$$

In this equation,  $p$  is the absolute pressure and  $V$  is the volume of a constant amount of gas in terms of either moles or mass. The  $\propto$  symbol means that the left side of the equation is proportional to the right side. Think of this symbol as a "proportionality" symbol instead of an "equals" symbol. Figure 4.1 plots the volume of a constant mass amount of gas versus its absolute pressure at a constant temperature and shows the inverse proportional relationship of Equation 4.1.



**Figure 4.1** Plot of volume  $V$  versus pressure  $p$  of a gas at a constant temperature

Equation 4.1 implies that at constant temperature, the product of the absolute pressure times the volume is a constant for an ideal gas. This equation can be rewritten to show the effect of a before and after change of pressure and volume at constant temperature, giving us Equation 4.2.

$$p_1V_1 = p_2V_2 \quad (4.2)$$

The subscripts 1 and 2 indicate the states before and after a change. Note that the change may be a change of absolute pressure, a change of volume, or a combination of both.

Stated another way, the product of the absolute pressure times the volume for a given amount of an ideal gas always remains constant for ideal gases.

Equation 4.2 can also be rewritten as shown in Equation 4.3.

$$V_2 = V_1 \left( \frac{p_1}{p_2} \right) \quad (4.3)$$

Similarly, it can be arranged as Equation 4.4.

$$p_2 = p_1 \left( \frac{V_1}{V_2} \right) \quad (4.4)$$

The subscript of 2 denotes the after condition and the subscript of 1 denotes the before condition.

Also note that a lower case letter  $p$  is used for the absolute pressure. We are following the practice of chemical engineers who also use the uppercase

fancy script version letter P to denote that the pressure represents the combined effect of static pressure and gravitational forces taking into account the density of the fluid and its relative height. The pressure that is due to a column of fluid above a pressure point is given by Equation 4.5.

$$p = \rho gh \quad (4.5)$$

In this equation,  $p$  is the pressure caused by the fluid above the pressure point,  $\rho$  is the density of that fluid above the pressure point,  $g$  is the gravitational acceleration constant, and  $h$  is the total height of the fluid above the pressure point. Note that fluid below the pressure point has no contribution to the pressure; only the height of the fluid above the pressure point affects the pressure.

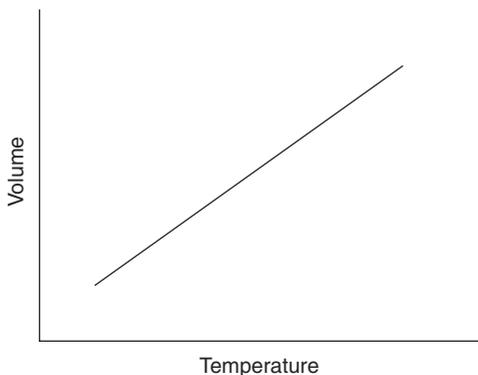
## 4.2 Charles's Law

After Boyle's Law was published by Robert Boyle in 1662, it was postulated by Jacques Charles in 1780 and confirmed in 1802 that the volume of a given mass of a gas would vary according to the **absolute temperature** of the gas. At this time, no one knew the true nature of gases.

Charles's Law states that under the condition of constant pressure the volume of a given mass of an ideal gas is directly proportional to its absolute temperature. Put into a mathematical form, Charles's Law becomes Equation 4.6.

$$V \propto T \quad (4.6)$$

In this equation,  $V$  is the volume of a fixed amount of gas in terms of either moles or mass and  $T$  is the absolute temperature. The linear relationship between volume and temperature is seen in Figure 4.2.



**Figure 4.2** Plot of volume  $V$  versus absolute temperature  $T$  for a gas at a constant pressure

Just as we did before, Equation 4.6 can be rewritten and then used to show volumes before and after a change of temperature, which results in Equation 4.7.

$$\frac{V_1}{T_1} = \frac{V_2}{T_2} \quad (4.7)$$

The subscripts 1 and 2 indicate the states before and after a change. Remember, absolute temperatures must be used. As mentioned in Chapter 3, “Units of Measure,” the absolute temperature scale is measured relative from absolute zero where all motion ceases. In the Celsius temperature scale, where the freezing point of pure water is defined as zero degrees Celsius ( $0^\circ\text{C}$ ) and the boiling point of water at 1 atmosphere of pressure is defined as one hundred degrees Celsius ( $100^\circ\text{C}$ ) absolute zero would be approximately  $-273.15^\circ\text{C}$ . For the Fahrenheit scale, with  $32^\circ\text{F}$  and  $212^\circ\text{F}$  being defined as the freezing and boiling points, respectively, absolute zero is  $-459.67^\circ\text{F}$ . Absolute temperature is discussed in more detail in the next section.

As with Boyle’s Law, Equation 4.7 can be rewritten to give Equation 4.8.

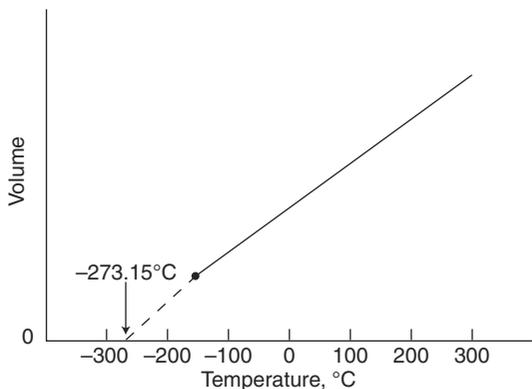
$$V_2 = V_1 \left( \frac{T_2}{T_1} \right) \quad (4.8)$$

Alternatively, it can be arranged as shown in Equation 4.9.

$$T_2 = T_1 \left( \frac{V_2}{V_1} \right) \quad (4.9)$$

## 4.3 Absolute Temperature

Absolute zero is defined as the temperature at which all motion ceases. When viewing Figure 4.2, we might assume that we could extrapolate the plot line of the gas’s volume versus the absolute temperature until the volume is equal to zero. This was initially hypothesized in 1848 and is plotted in Figure 4.3.



**Figure 4.3** Extrapolation to zero volume versus temperature to determine absolute zero

Using the data available at that time, the value of absolute zero was estimated to be  $-266.66^{\circ}\text{C}$  compared to the actual value of  $-273.15^{\circ}\text{C}$ . In reality, we cannot reach a volume of zero because atoms and molecules do occupy a finite amount of space.

While it may seem logical that the concept of a temperature of absolute zero came from the gas laws, in reality it came from the Second Law of Thermodynamics, which defines an absolute, thermodynamic temperature that is independent of the properties of any particular thermometric body. The law involves the concept of entropy, which is a measure of the disorder of a system. In essence, it prohibits us from getting more work, which is energy, out of a system than has been put into that system. Thus, it prohibits perpetual motion machines. These terms may seem strange—and they are. They are discussed in much more detail in Chapter 5, “Thermodynamics: Energy, Heat, and Work.”

## 4.4 The Ideal Gas Law

We have just seen that the volume of a specified amount of a gas at constant pressure is proportional to the absolute temperature. In addition, we saw that the volume of a specified amount gas at a constant temperature is also inversely proportional to its pressure. We can correctly assume that pressure of a specified amount of gas at a constant volume is proportional to its absolute temperature. Let us also add the fact that the volume at constant pressure and temperature is also proportional to the amount of gas. Similarly, the pressure at constant volume and temperature is proportional to the amount of gas. Thus, these laws and relationships can be combined to give Equation 4.10.

$$pV \propto nT \quad (4.10)$$

Here,  $n$  is the number of moles of gas: Again, an *absolute temperature* must be used along with an *absolute pressure*.

Scientists and engineers have defined an ideal gas to be a gas with properties affected only by pressure and temperature. Thus, Equation 4.10 only needs a magical constant so that any one of its variables can be calculated if the other three are known. That constant is the ideal gas constant  $R$  and is used to form the Ideal Gas Law given by Equation 4.11.

$$pV = nRT \quad (4.11)$$

Depending on the units of measure for the pressure, the volume, the number of moles, and the absolute temperature, some values for the ideal gas constant  $R$  are given in Table 4.1 and Appendix C for different units-of-measure systems.

**Table 4.1 Values for  $R$ , the Ideal Gas Constant**

System	Value with Units of Measure
SI	8.314 (kPa)(m <sup>3</sup> )/(kg mol)(°K)
cgs	0.08206 (L)(atm)/(g mol)(°K)
English	0.7302 (ft <sup>3</sup> )(atm)/(lb mol)(°R)
English	10.73 (ft <sup>3</sup> )(psia)/lb-mol)(°R)

### Example 4.1 Volume of an Ideal Gas

Calculate the volume a one-pound mole (1.00 lb<sub>m</sub> mol) of an ideal gas occupies at the standard condition of 32°F and 1.00 atmosphere of pressure.

#### Solution

The information given in the statement of the problem simplifies this problem. We do not need to convert the gas's mass to moles. However, we must convert the temperature in degrees Fahrenheit to the absolute temperature of degrees Rankine. That conversion is

$$T = 32^\circ + 460^\circ = 492^\circ\text{R}$$

Rewriting the Ideal Gas Law given by Equation 4.11 to calculate the volume gives

$$V = \frac{nRT}{p}$$

(Continues)

**Example 4.1 Volume of an Ideal Gas (Continued)**

Checking Table 4.1, we see that there is an ideal gas constant  $R$  for units of cubic feet, atmospheres, pound moles, and degrees Rankine. Substituting the values for the number of moles, the appropriate ideal gas constant, the absolute temperature, and the pressure gives

$$V = \frac{1.00 \text{ lb mol} \mid 1 \mid 0.7302 \text{ (ft}^3\text{)(atm) \mid 492}^\circ\text{R}}{\mid 1.00 \text{ atm} \mid \text{ (lb mol)}^\circ\text{R} \mid}$$

$$= 359 \text{ ft}^3$$

The volume determined in the previous example is important and is usually memorized by engineers. It is the unit volume for 1 lb mol of gas at 32°F and 1 atm or 14.7 psia, which is usually expressed as 359 ft<sup>3</sup>/lb mol. Besides the standard volume of 1 lb mol at 32°F and 1 atmosphere, another standard unit volume primarily used by the natural gas industry is defined at 59°F and 1 atmosphere with the value of 379 ft<sup>3</sup>/lb mol.

**Example 4.2 Volume of 11.0 Pounds of Methane at 80°F and 200 psig**

Calculate the volume of 11.0 lbs of methane gas at 200 psig pressure and 80°F.

**Solution**

There are several steps involved in this calculation. First, we must determine the question, which is to calculate the volume of a quantity of gas at a given temperature and pressure. In a second step, after establishing a basis, we must convert the mass of methane that will be the basis into pound moles. Third, we must convert temperature in degrees Fahrenheit into absolute degrees Rankin and, fourth, convert pressure from psig into psia. Fifth, we must select the appropriate ideal gas constant and use it with a rewritten form of Equation 4.11 to determine the volume of 11.0 lbs of methane gas. Finally, we can substitute the values previously determined into the rewritten equation to calculate the volume.

Basis: 11.0 lb of methane gas

As outlined above, we must calculate the number of pound moles in 11.0 lbs of methane. The molecular weight of methane is about 16.04, which is composed of one atom of carbon with an atomic mass of 12.00 amu and 4 atoms of hydrogen with atomic masses of 1.01 amu:

$$n_{\text{CH}_4} = \frac{11.0 \text{ lb}}{16.04 \text{ lb}/(\text{lb mol of CH}_4)}$$

$$= 0.686 \text{ lb mol of CH}_4$$

Now, we must convert the temperature to the absolute scale of degrees Rankine:

$$T = 80^\circ + 460^\circ = 540^\circ\text{R}$$

Just as we must use the absolute temperature, we must also use the absolute pressure. We were given the pressure in psig, which is pounds per square in gauge. Gauge pressure is taken relative to the pressure of the atmosphere, which would be 14.7 psia at sea level, and it will have lower pressures at higher elevations. The correction from gauge to absolute pressure at sea level under the standard condition of 1 atmosphere is:

$$p = 200 \text{ psig} + 14.7 \text{ psi} = 214.7 \text{ psia}$$

The rewritten form of Equation 4.11 from Example 4.1 for volume is

$$V = \frac{nRT}{p}$$

Substituting the values for the number of moles, the appropriate ideal gas constant, the absolute temperature, and the absolute pressure gives

$$V = \frac{0.686 \text{ lb mol} \mid 1 \mid 10.73 \text{ (ft}^3\text{)}(\text{psia}) \mid 540^\circ\text{R}}{\mid 214.7 \text{ psia} \mid (\text{lb mol})^\circ\text{R} \mid}$$

$$= 18.5 \text{ ft}^3$$

Checking for dimensional consistency, we see that lb mol cancels with lb mol, atm cancels with atm, and  $^\circ\text{R}$  cancels with  $^\circ\text{R}$ , leaving only  $\text{ft}^3$ , which is the appropriate unit for our answer of 18.5 cubic feet.

This result is expressed in only 3 digits, although it can be calculated to more. Why?

Hint: What was the number of significant figures in the mass of methane?

There are several ways that Equation 4.11 can be used. The most obvious is to “plug” all of the numbers into the equation each time there is a change and “turn the crank” to calculate a new volume or pressure, or whatever is unknown. However, most of the time not all of the variables are known for this method or it involves a lot of unnecessary arithmetic. In addition, it also involves looking up and confirming one of the gas constants previously described even if they have been memorized.

We could also go back to Boyle's Law and Charles's Law if we were changing only one variable, but due to thermodynamic effects we will discuss in the next chapter, the temperature of a system will usually change whenever the pressure changes.

So, what is the easiest way? Simply use Equation 4.11 to make a ratio of the variables before and after; this gives us Equation 4.12.

$$\frac{p_2 V_2}{p_1 V_1} = \frac{n_2 T_2}{n_1 T_1} \quad (4.12)$$

The subscripts 1 and 2 indicate the before and after states, respectively. Notice that the ideal gas constant  $R$  has been canceled because its ratio is unity. We can rewrite Equation 4.12 to calculate a new pressure when a given quantity of gas is compressed and it becomes Equation 4.13.

$$p_2 = p_1 \left( \frac{V_1}{V_2} \right) \times \left( \frac{T_2}{T_1} \right) \quad (4.13)$$

Alternatively, we can rewrite it to calculate the effect on the volume when a gas is compressed to a new pressure and temperature, as shown in Equation 4.14.

$$V_2 = V_1 \left( \frac{p_1}{p_2} \right) \times \left( \frac{T_2}{T_1} \right) \quad (4.14)$$

We could arrange Equations 4.13 and 4.14 to calculate the ratio of the pressures or volumes after and before. That would give us Equation 4.15.

$$\frac{p_2}{p_1} = \left( \frac{V_1}{V_2} \right) \times \left( \frac{T_2}{T_1} \right) \quad (4.15)$$

We could also rewrite Equations 4.13 and 4.15 to give us Equation 4.16.

$$\frac{V_2}{V_1} = \left( \frac{p_1}{p_2} \right) \times \left( \frac{T_2}{T_1} \right) \quad (4.16)$$

We can arrange Equation 4.12 as needed to calculate a final pressure, volume, or temperature given the before-and-after states of all of the other variables. Assuming that we understand the Ideal Gas Law and the "PVT" relationship between pressure, volume, and temperature, it is a lot easier to remember just one equation and rearrange it as necessary.

### Example 4.3 Effect of Temperature on Pressure of a Batch Reactor

Calculate the expected pressure of a 1.748 ft<sup>3</sup> batch reactor charged at 135 psig and heated from 95°F to 1,650°F.

#### Solution

Before plugging in a bunch of numbers, look at the problem. Here, we have an overstated problem. This is a sealed batch reactor. It may seem that we need to calculate the amount of gas charged to the reactor, but that is not the case. On the other hand, we may be in a laboratory where the reactor is weighed before and after it is charged. In that case, we could calculate the starting pressure of the gas. However, most times that number is measured and recorded by the experimenter.

Basis: Initial pressure of 135 psig

First, we convert pressure from psig to psia:

$$p_1 = 135 \text{ psig} + 14.7 \text{ psi} = 149.7 \text{ psia}$$

Next, we convert temperatures from degrees Fahrenheit into degrees Rankin:

$$T_1 = 95^\circ\text{F} + 460^\circ = 555^\circ\text{R}$$

and we obtain

$$T_2 = 1650^\circ\text{F} + 460^\circ = 2110^\circ\text{R}$$

Finally, we rewrite Equation 4.12 with  $V_2 = V_1$  and  $n_2 = n_1$  to give

$$p_2 = p_1 \left( \frac{T_2}{T_1} \right)$$

Substituting values for  $p_1$ ,  $T_1$ , and  $T_2$  with their units of measure gives

$$p_2 = 149.7 \text{ psia} \left( \frac{2110^\circ\text{R}}{555^\circ\text{R}} \right) = 569 \text{ psia}$$

In this example, because there were only two units of measure, we did not use the dimensional equation form for the preceding calculation.

In addition to calculating absolute values for pressure, volume, and temperature, as stated above we can calculate ratios that may be more useful. This is demonstrated in Example 4.4.

**Example 4.4 Change in Relative Volume**

Calculate the relative change in volume when a gas at 165 psig and 95°F is compressed to 855 psig and then heated to 1,250°F.

**Solution**

Basis: Initial pressure and temperature of 165 psig and 95°F, respectively.

First, we convert pressures from psig to psia:

$$p_1 = 165 \text{ psig} + 14.7 \text{ psi} = 179.7 \text{ psia}$$

and

$$p_2 = 855 \text{ psig} + 14.7 \text{ psi} = 869.7 \text{ psia}$$

Next, we convert temperatures from °F to °R:

$$T_1 = 95^\circ\text{F} + 460^\circ = 555^\circ\text{R}$$

and

$$T_2 = 1250^\circ\text{F} + 460^\circ = 1710^\circ\text{R}$$

Finally, we rewrite Equation 4.12 with  $n_2 = n_1$  canceling each other to give

$$\frac{V_2}{V_1} = \left(\frac{p_1}{p_2}\right)\left(\frac{T_2}{T_1}\right)$$

Substituting values and dimensions yields

$$\frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{179.7 \text{ psia} \mid 1710^\circ\text{R}}{869.7 \text{ psia} \mid 555^\circ\text{R}} = 0.637$$

Note that all of the dimensions cancel out only leaving the ratio, which by definition is dimensionless.

Not only are relative changes affected by temperature and pressure, but they are also affected by a *change in the number of moles of gas* when a chemical reaction occurs. Recently, the construction of a number of ethylene crackers has been announced in the Gulf Coast area due to the abundance of natural gas that contains ethane. Those crackers use steam with the ethane in a complex set of chemical reactions that reduce the amount of solid carbon formed, consequently reducing the cracker's "coking" caused by the deposition of

elemental carbon. In those crackers, 1 mole of ethane will produce 1 mole of ethylene and 1 mole of hydrogen according to the chemistry of:



An ethylene cracker is essentially a high-temperature furnace in which ethane flows through the piping, reaching temperatures on the order of 1,500°F in a matter of a few milliseconds. At that temperature, ethane starts to “pyrolyze” and form ethylene with a double bond as two hydrogen atoms are literally broken off. After exiting the furnace, it is quenched almost immediately lest it continue to break down, eventually becoming elemental carbon and molecular hydrogen.

### Example 4.5 Effect on Velocity during Ethane Cracking

Approximate the effect on the velocity of ethane as it is cracked in a furnace to form ethylene when it is under 30 psig while flowing at 950 scf/min through a nominal 4-inch schedule-80 pipe entering the furnace at 350°F and exiting at 1,550°F. The ratio of steam to ethane is 1:10.

#### Solution

Basis: Ethane at 350°F

Superfluous information: Initial pressure of 30 psig  
Flow rate of 950 scf/min  
Diameter of nominal 4-inch schedule-80 pipe

For all practical purposes, the pressure drop in the pipe will be small as it passes through the furnace and we can set this as

$$p_2 \cong p_1$$

The velocity of the gas is equal to the volumetric flow rate divided by the cross-sectional area of the pipe, which remains constant in the furnace. Thus, the effect on the velocity is essentially equivalent to the increase in the volume of the gas due to the change of temperature and the total number of moles of gas when the ethane is cracked. Therefore, the ratio of the velocities will be:

$$\frac{v_2}{v_1} = \frac{V_2}{V_1}$$

(Continues)

### Example 4.5 Effect on Velocity during Ethane Cracking (Continued)

Using the Ideal Gas Law, we can write this relationship:

$$\frac{v_2}{v_1} = \frac{V_2}{V_1} = \left(\frac{p_1}{p_2}\right) \times \left(\frac{n_2}{n_1}\right) \times \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1}\right)$$

For our condition with  $p_2 \cong p_1$ , the ratio of velocities is approximately

$$\frac{v_2}{v_1} = \left(\frac{n_2}{n_1}\right) \times \left(\frac{T_2}{T_1}\right)$$

From the chemistry and the statement of the conditions, we have

$$n_1 = \text{Moles}_{\text{ethane}} + \text{Moles}_{\text{steam}}$$

and

$$\text{Moles}_{\text{steam}} = 0.1 \times \text{Moles}_{\text{ethane}}$$

and then

$$n_1 = 1.1 \times \text{Moles}_{\text{ethane}}$$

Assuming that 100% of the ethane is consumed when cracking to produce the ethylene, we have

$$n_2 = \text{Moles}_{\text{ethylene}} + \text{Moles}_{\text{hydrogen}} + \text{Moles}_{\text{steam}}$$

and

$$\text{Moles}_{\text{ethylene}} = \text{Moles}_{\text{hydrogen}} = \text{Moles}_{\text{ethane}_{\text{consumed}}}$$

We then have

$$\begin{aligned} n_2 &= 2 \times \text{Moles}_{\text{ethylene}} + \text{Moles}_{\text{steam}} \\ &= 2 \times \text{Moles}_{\text{ethane}} + 0.1 \times \text{Moles}_{\text{ethane}} \\ &= 2.1 \times \text{Moles}_{\text{ethane}} \end{aligned}$$

This gives us

$$\frac{n_2}{n_1} = \frac{2.1 \times \text{Moles}_{\text{ethane}}}{1.1 \times \text{Moles}_{\text{ethane}}}$$

When rewritten, it becomes

$$n_2 = \frac{2.1}{1.1} n_1$$

Adjusting the temperature to *absolute* degrees Rankine gives us:

$$T_2 = 1550^\circ\text{F} + 460^\circ = 2010^\circ\text{R}$$

$$T_1 = 350^\circ\text{F} + 460^\circ = 810^\circ\text{R}$$

From the data, we calculate the following:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{v_2}{v_1} &= \left( \frac{(2.1/1.1) \times n_1}{n_1} \right) \times \left( \frac{2010^\circ\text{R}}{810^\circ\text{R}} \right) \\ &= 4.74 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we see that there will be an increase of over 4.7 times in the velocity of the gas as it passes through the pipe in the ethylene cracker furnace. This is a dramatic increase in velocity that had to be taken into account when the cracker was designed and operated.

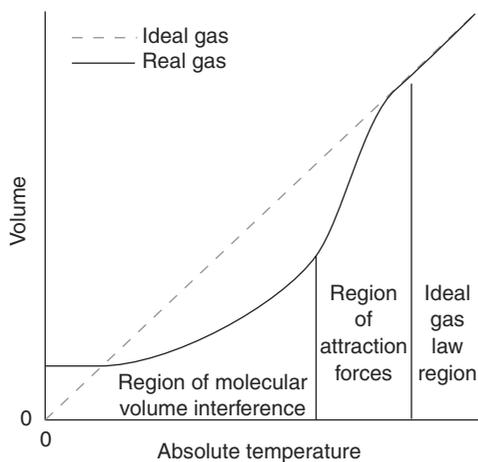
The preceding example was actually a simple problem that has been made more complicated here. The simple solution can provide an estimate for Step 13 of the problem-solving technique in Chapter 1, "Introductory Concepts," in which we judge our results. First, the cracking of ethane into ethylene with the hydrogen being given off doubles the number of moles of gas. Second, the increase of temperature, from 810°R (350°F) to 2,010°R (1,550°F), also more than doubles the volume. Thus, the volume of the gases would be about quadrupled, which approximates and confirms the 4.7 times increase in our previous calculation.

The exact increase in velocity is needed when designing the ethane cracker to insure that there will be sufficient residence time. Also, if the residence time is too great, the ethylene product will continue to crack to carbon and hydrogen gas. However, the actual calculations of the effect on cracking are much more difficult as the increase of the gas volume and thus the velocity is over the length of the pipe, while the temperature increase that more than doubles the volume occurs near the start of the pipe.

## 4.5 Real Gases

So far, we have worked with ideal gases. However, we live and, more importantly, work in a real world with real gases, and real gases like real people can behave badly. When a gas does behave badly, it is said to be nonideal because it does not obey the Ideal Gas Law. All gases do have nonideal behavior at high pressures and/or low temperatures, so *the two terms are used interchangeably*. However, some gases exhibit nonideal behavior at conditions where other gases exhibit ideal behavior.

Sometimes, as a gas is compressed or cooled before reaching the point at which the volume of the molecules becomes relatively large and thus inhibits a further reduction of volume, there are other attractive or repulsive forces that are generated. Those forces are **van der Waals forces**, which are caused by **dipole moments**. These forces affect the volume of a nonideal gas, as shown in Figure 4.4.



**Figure 4.4** Effect of temperature on the volume of a nonideal gas

A dipole moment is an electrostatic force between molecules. Some of the atoms of a gaseous molecule may hold more of the electron cloud due to their higher electronegativity than will the other atoms, resulting in localized charges on the molecule. Oxygen is such an atom because it becomes the location of a greater negative charge. A part of the remaining molecule becomes more positively charged and these molecules are said to be polar. The negatively charged volume of one molecule is attracted to a positively charged volume of another molecule. The force of attraction causes the

volume of the gas to be smaller than that predicted by the Ideal Gas Law. The volumes of the electron cloud with the same charge on two different molecules will repel each other.

In addition to permanent dipoles, there can be induced dipoles caused by the temporary location of the electrons as they move about the atoms in a molecule. The induced dipoles are also called *London dispersion forces* or, even more loosely, van der Waals forces. Those forces are controlled by quantum mechanics, which is one of the weirdest branches of physics.

### Why Dipoles on Molecules Don't Cancel

We might suppose that since there are an equal number of positive and negative volumes on all of the molecules, there would be an equal number of attractive and repulsive dipole interactions among all of the molecules that would cancel each other. However, this is not the case. Since opposite charges attract, which results in a lowering of energy, probability favors that more of the oppositely charged parts of different relatively close-by molecules will align together as compared to the like-charged parts of other close-by molecules aligning together. This difference in the number of alignments results in a net attractive interaction between all of the molecules since opposite charges attract. The net effect of the greater number of the attractive versus the repulsive dipole moments will be to reduce the volume of a nonideal gas.

Permanent dipole moments do not exist for the diatomic molecules of the elemental gases such as hydrogen, nitrogen, oxygen, fluorine, or chlorine because they share their valence electrons equally. Dipole moments also do not exist for the inert noble gases such as helium, neon, or argon, which are mono-atomic. However, the induced dispersion dipoles can exist.

To account for the discrepancies caused by these previously described forces and other such forces, scientists have developed complicated **equations of state** for nonideal gases; for example, the Ideal Gas Law is an equation of state. Two of those equations of state for nonideal gases with additional terms can be studied in Appendix 4A. Also, because the behavior of nonideal gases varies according to the molecular mass, the differences in the electronegativity of the molecules' atoms, the molecules' volume, and sometimes other contributing factors, those equations of state must use different values for the different parameters of the different gases. Also, different equations of state work better for different gases.

## 4.6 Volumetric Fractions and Mole Fractions

One major benefit of the behavior of gases is that the volume of one ideal gas in a mixture of ideal gases is equivalent to its mole fraction. For all practical purposes, the volume fractions and the mole fractions of the components of an ideal gas mixture are interchangeable.

We can prove the preceding statement by using the Ideal Gas Law. First, the definition of the mole fraction is given by Equation 4.17.

$$y_i = \frac{n_i}{\sum_{j=1}^k n_j} \quad (4.17)$$

For Equation 4.17, if  $y_i$  is the mole fraction of component  $i$  of a mixture  $k$  components of gas,  $n_i$  is the number of moles of  $i$ , and  $n_j$  is the number of moles of component  $j$  summed from component 1 to component  $k$ . We are using  $y_i$  for the mole fraction of a gas so as to be consistent with the nomenclature used later in this text where we will use  $x_i$  for the mole fraction of component  $i$  in a liquid.

Next, we substitute the Ideal Gas Law to calculate the number of moles  $n$  for any component, which gives us Equation 4.18.

$$y_i = \frac{\frac{pV_i}{RT}}{\sum_{j=1}^k \frac{pV_j}{RT}} \quad (4.18)$$

Note that all of the terms include  $\frac{p}{RT}$ , which we can now divide out to obtain Equation 4.19.

$$y_i = \frac{V_i}{\sum_{j=1}^k V_j} \quad (4.19)$$

Realizing that the total volume  $V$  is the sum of the partial volumes  $\sum_{j=1}^k V_j$ , we can substitute  $V$  and rewrite Equation 4.19 as Equation 4.20.

$$y_i = \frac{V_i}{V} \quad (4.20)$$

Equating the volume fraction of gas to its mole fraction is analogous to Dalton's Law of Partial Pressures, which equates the partial pressure of a mixture's gas component to the mole fraction of that mixture times the total

pressure. We use the total pressure of the gas in Equation 4.18 and not the partial pressure because we are using the volume fraction based on the total volume and total pressure of our system. If we used the total volume of the system instead of the volume fraction, then we would use the partial pressure of the gas and Equation 4.18 would look something like Equation 4.21.

$$y_i = \frac{\frac{p_i V}{RT}}{\sum_{j=1}^k \frac{p_j V}{RT}} \quad (4.21)$$

However, we normally don't think in terms of pressure fractions; instead, we think in terms of volume fractions, which is why we correlate mole fractions with volumetric fractions. In the end, it really makes no difference whether we view the fractions as either volume fractions or pressure fractions.

If the volume and temperature are considered to be constant, then we can rewrite Equation 4.21 to give the **partial pressure** of component  $i$ , which is found by Equation 4.22.

$$\begin{aligned} p_i &= y_i \sum_{j=1}^n p_j \Big|_{\text{Constant } V, n, \text{ and } T} \\ &= y_i p_{\text{Total}} \end{aligned} \quad (4.22)$$

When considering gas mixtures, the most important is our atmosphere, which consists of approximately 78% nitrogen, 21% oxygen, and 1% other gases. Those percentages are both the volumetric percentages and the mole percentages. To make a gas equivalent to our atmosphere, we would need to take about 4 volumes of nitrogen, 1 volume of oxygen, and add just a touch of "other."

## 4.7 Standard Conditions

We often see the rating of small compressors or other gas handling equipment given as so many standard cubic feet (SCF) at some pressure (psi) for a specified amount of time. But, what is a standard cubic foot and why is that measurement specified with a pressure?

As we saw with the Ideal Gas Law, the volume of a gas is proportional to the amount of that gas. However, most people do not think in terms of moles of a gas and it is even more difficult to think in terms of the mass of a gas. Yet we can and do think in terms of a volume. The only caveat is that we

must set the conditions of the gas's temperature and pressure to equate it to an amount of that gas. Thus, a specific temperature and a specific pressure have been adopted to define the conditions of the gas in a cubic foot and thus the number of moles of that gas in that cubic foot. Usually, when making specification, the acronym S.C. is used to indicate standard conditions or sometimes S.T.P is used for standard temperature and pressure.

Unfortunately, different scientific, engineering, governmental, and even international organizations have adopted different temperatures and pressures. Table 4.2 summarizes those temperatures and pressures per the defining organizations.

**Table 4.2 Some Standard Conditions for an Ideal Gas**

System	Temperature	Pressure	Volume/Unit
SI	273.15°K	101.325 kPa	22.415 m <sup>3</sup> /kg mol
Universal Scientific	0.0°C	760 mm Hg	22.415 L/g mol
American Engineering	491.76°R (32°F)	1 atm	359.05 ft <sup>3</sup> /lb mol
Natural Gas Industry	59.0°F (15.0°C)	14.696 psia (101.325 kPa)	379.4 ft <sup>3</sup> /lb mol

Source: David M. Himmelblau and James B. Riggs, *Basic Principles and Calculations in Chemical Engineering*, eighth ed. (Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 2012): 353.

Inspection of Table 4.2 shows that the SI, the Universal Scientific, and the American Engineering standard conditions have the same conditions of temperature and pressure. However, they have different mass for their standard volumes, but when volumetric flow rates through compressors and other processing equipment are being reported relative to standard conditions, the volume per unit mole is irrelevant for the purpose of defining the condition of temperature and pressure.

By specifying standard cubic feet for our volume per amount of time, we have specified a mass or rather the number of moles for that amount of time. The pressure term is then added to indicate how much force the compressor will have to work against. As will be seen in the next chapter on thermodynamics, a volume against a pressure is equivalent to a force over a distance that tells us how much work the compressor is capable of performing.

## 4.8 Concluding Comments

Understanding how gases behave as a function of temperature and pressure is critical to understanding process operations on those gases. This will be seen further in Chapter 5, where work is performed on or performed by gases.

We have seen that the volume of gases is proportional to the number of moles and the absolute temperature of the gas, and inversely proportional to the absolute pressure. The relationship between pressure, volume, moles, and temperature when combined with the ideal gas constant gave rise to the Ideal Gas Law, permitting the calculation of any one of the four independent terms when the other three are known.

In general, most gases at less than a few atmospheres of pressure and with temperatures greater than the extreme cold of cryogenic operations (about  $-150^{\circ}\text{F}$ ), can be treated as ideal gases. However, when dealing with large volumes of gases as may be the case in the hydrocarbon-processing industries, even small effects caused by a nonideal gas's behavior may have large financial consequences.

## Appendix 4A: Equations of State

There are about 20 different equations of state in use. It is beyond the scope of this text to discuss all of them. Most have been incorporated into computer simulations when needed. They have been used in calculations for advanced theoretical work that depend on the calculus of PVT, but they do exist and do provide results with an accuracy of 1% to 2%, which is significantly better than the Ideal Gas Law.

Some of the better-known equations of state are the Benedict-Webb-Rubin, the Clausius, the Holborn, the Kammerlingh-Onnes, the Peng-Robison, the Redlich-Kwong, and the Soave-Redlich-Kwong equations. One of the most commonly used equations is the van der Waals Equation of State.

### The van der Waals Equation of State

One of the most frequently used equations of state is the van der Waals equation shown in Equation 4.23.

$$\left(p + \frac{n^2 a}{V^2}\right)(V - nb) = nRT \quad (4.23)$$

Here,  $a$  is a measure of the attraction between the particles and  $b$  is the exclusion volume of a mole of particles. As can be seen in Equation 4.23, the form of the van der Waals equation is very similar to that of the Ideal Gas Law seen in Equation 4.11. Values for  $a$  and  $b$  have been experimentally determined and published for a number of different gases.

In general, the attraction constant  $a$  in the first set of terms shows that a lower pressure  $p$  will be required for a given volume and temperature.

Similarly, in the second set of terms, the quantity  $nb$  permits a larger volume  $V$  for a given pressure  $p$  and temperature  $T$ .

The other equations of state mentioned previously have structures similar to the van der Waals equation, but with additional terms. They all include some type of relationship of a modified pressure term multiplying a modified volume that equates to the number of moles of gas, the gas constant, and the absolute temperature.

While widely used, the van der Waals Equation of State has many limitations. The equation tends to break down when operating near the “critical temperature” and the “critical pressure” of the gas. Unfortunately, those temperatures and pressures are near the temperatures and pressures of some process operations, particularly for natural-gas plants.

### Compressibility Factors

Perhaps the best correlation of PVT for real gases uses a compressibility factor modified by an acentric factor that was developed by Kenneth Pitzer (“The Volumetric and Thermodynamic Properties of Fluids. I. Theoretical Basis and Virial Coefficients,” *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 77, no. 13, 1955: 3427) based on the **critical temperature** and **critical pressure** of a gas. The **critical point** is defined as the temperature and pressure at which a gas phase of a pure substance becomes indistinguishable from its liquid. There will be further discussion about the critical state in Chapter 6, “Phase Equilibria.” All you currently need to know is that the critical temperature and critical pressure of a pure gas is a unique physical property of that gas.

Using the compressibility factor, the ideal gas law equation of state becomes Equation 4.24.

$$pV = znRT \quad (4.24)$$

Here,  $z$  is the compressibility factor that corrects the Ideal Gas Law equation of state to a generalized equation of state. The modified compressibility factor  $z$  is given by Equation 4.25.

$$z = z^0 + z^1\omega \quad (4.25)$$

Here,  $\omega$  is the Pitzer acentric factor. Tables have been developed that correlate values for  $z^0$  and  $z^1$  with the reduced temperature and reduced pressure of the gas that are calculated by dividing the absolute temperature and absolute partial pressure of the gas by its critical temperature and critical pressure respectively, as shown in Equations 4.26 and 4.27.

$$T_R = \frac{T}{T_C} \quad (4.26)$$

$$p_R = \frac{p}{p_C} \quad (4.27)$$

Here,  $T_C$  and  $p_C$  are the critical temperature and pressure for a given gas.

Originally, only the first term,  $z^0$ , was correlated with the reduced temperature and pressure. However, it was determined that there still remained a slight error. Later, the Pitzer acentric factor  $\omega$  was developed that has a constant value unique to the chemical, which multiplies the second compressibility term  $z^1$  in Equation 4.25 and is a function of the reduced temperature and pressure. When  $z^0$  and  $z^1$  are added in Equation 4.25, the overall compressibility factor  $z$  for the pure gas can then be used in the generalized equation of state of Equation 4.24.

The value of the compressibility factor's use is that once the critical temperature and critical pressure for any gas is known, we can then use the reduced temperature and reduced pressure to obtain values for  $z^0$  and  $z^1$  without having to perform laboratory PVT experiments. Most gases have already had their critical temperatures and pressures determined. Unfortunately, some PVT experiments may still be required to determine the value of the Pitzer acentric factor  $\omega$  for gases not already quantified. However, it would not be necessary to carry out an exhaustive number of experiments over a wide range of temperatures and pressures as would be needed for the other equations of state.

### Example 4.6 Volume of Ethane

Ethane,  $C_2H_6$ , is a component of natural gas and an important reactant for the production of ethylene, which is polymerized to make the polyethylene used for plastic films, grocery bags, and other plastic containers. Ethane is one of the most important chemicals. To determine its relative danger, we can compare its volume at high temperature and pressure to that of an ideal gas. What is the expansion factor for ethane at 100°F and 2,000 psia? Is it more or less dangerous than an ideal gas?

#### Solution

At this high pressure, ethane will behave as a nonideal gas. Equation 4.24 can be used to give

$$\frac{p_2 V_2}{z_2} = \frac{p_1 V_1}{z_1}$$

(Continues)

**Example 4.6 Volume of Ethane (Continued)**

Subscripts 1 and 2 are used to denote before and after conditions. The expansion factor is the ratio of the volume after to the volume before, which can be calculated by rewriting the preceding equation to give

$$\frac{V_2}{V_1} = \frac{z_2 p_1}{z_1 p_2}$$

From Himmelblau and Riggs, *Basic Principles and Calculations in Chemical Engineering* (Prentice Hall, 2012), the critical temperature and critical pressure of ethane are

$$T_C = 305.40^\circ\text{K}$$

$$p_C = 708.1 \text{ psia}$$

From these critical properties, the reduced temperature and pressures are calculated to be

$$T_R = \frac{T}{T_C} = \frac{(100^\circ\text{F} + 460^\circ) / (1.8\text{R}^\circ/\text{K}^\circ)}{305.40^\circ\text{K}} = \frac{311.11^\circ\text{K}}{305.40^\circ\text{K}} = 1.019$$

and

$$p_R = \frac{p}{p_C} = \frac{2000 \text{ psia}}{708.1 \text{ psia}} = 2.824$$

Abbreviated tables of  $z^0$  and  $z^1$  from Lee and Kessler, *American Institute of Chemical Engineers Journal* 21, (1975), 510–518, as functions of  $T_C$  and  $p_C$  are shown in Tables 4.3 and 4.4.

**Table 4.3 Values of  $z^0$  as a Function of  $T_R$  and  $p_R$**

	$p_R$					
$T_R$	0.800	1.000	1.200	1.500	2.000	3.000
1.00	0.6353	0.2901	0.2237	0.2583	0.3204	0.4514
1.02	0.6710	0.5146	0.2629	0.2715	0.3297	0.4547
1.05	0.7130	0.6026	0.4437	0.3131	0.3452	0.4604
1.10	0.7649	0.6880	0.5984	0.4580	0.3953	0.4770
1.15	0.8032	0.7443	0.6803	0.5798	0.4760	0.5042
1.20	0.8330	0.7858	0.7363	0.6605	0.5605	0.5425

**Table 4.4** Values of  $z^1$  as a Function of  $T_R$  and  $p_R$ 

$T_R$	$p_R$					
	0.800	1.000	1.200	1.500	2.000	3.000
1.00	-0.0588	-0.0879	-0.0609	-0.0678	-0.0824	-0.1118
1.02	-0.0303	-0.0062	0.0227	-0.0524	-0.0722	-0.1021
1.05	-0.0032	0.0220	0.01059	0.0451	-0.0432	-0.0838
1.10	0.0236	0.0476	0.0897	0.1630	0.0698	-0.0373
1.15	0.0396	0.0625	0.0943	0.1548	0.1667	0.0332
1.20	0.0499	0.0719	0.0991	0.1477	0.1990	0.1095

The acentric factor  $\omega$  for ethane is

$$\omega_{\text{ethane}} = 0.098$$

Source: Kenneth Pitzer, "The Volumetric and Thermodynamic Properties of Fluids. I. Theoretical Basis and Virial Coefficients," *Journal of the American Chemical Society* 77, no. 13 (1955): 3427.

We were very lucky because Tables 4.3 and 4.4 do not have to be interpolated for temperature. If they did, it would have been more difficult as there would have been two independent variables,  $T_R$  and  $p_R$ . First one of the tables would have to be interpolated for either the reduced temperature or pressure, obtaining two values which then would have to be interpolated for the other reduced pressure or temperature.

In this example, the reduced temperature is 1.019, which is almost the same as the reduced temperature of 1.02 in Tables 4.2 and 4.3. Inspection of the compressibility values at that reduced temperature shows that  $z^0$  and  $z^1$  do not vary significantly. Thus, we can use values of 0.3297 and 0.4547 for  $z^0$  at  $p_R$  of 2.000 and 3.000, respectively, for a  $T_R$  of 1.02. Interpolating between those values gives

$$\begin{aligned} z^0 &= 0.3297 + \left( \frac{0.4547 - 0.3297}{3.000 - 2.000} \right) \times (2.824 - 2.000) \\ &= 0.4327 \end{aligned}$$

(Continues)

**Example 4.6 Volume of Ethane (Continued)**

Similarly, the values of  $z^1$  at  $p_R$  of 2.000 and 3.000 for  $T_R$  of 1.02 are  $-0.0722$  and  $-0.1021$ , respectively. Interpolating those values gives

$$\begin{aligned} z^1 &= -0.0722 + \left( \frac{-0.1021 - (-0.0722)}{3.000 - 2.000} \right) \times (2.824 - 2.000) \\ &= -0.0299 \end{aligned}$$

Using Equation 4.25, the compressibility factor for ethane at  $100^\circ\text{F}$  and  $2,000$  psia is calculated by

$$\begin{aligned} z &= z^0 + z^1 \omega \\ &= 0.4327 + 0.098 \times (-0.0299) \\ &= 0.4298 \end{aligned}$$

The expansion ratio can now be calculated comparing the volume after to the volume before by

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{V_2}{V_1} &= \frac{z_2 p_1}{z_1 p_2} = \frac{1.0000 \times 2000 \text{ psia}}{0.4298 \times 14.7 \text{ psia}} \\ &= 317 \end{aligned}$$

If the gas had been an ideal gas, the compressibility factor would have been unity and the expansion factor would have been

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{V_2}{V_1} &= \frac{z_2 p_1}{z_1 p_2} = \frac{1.0000 \times 2000 \text{ psia}}{1.0000 \times 14.7 \text{ psia}} \\ &= 136 \end{aligned}$$

Obviously, ethane gas can be more than twice as dangerous as an ideal gas.

The conditions of the preceding example are not that different from what might be encountered in a process operation, so be aware of compressed gases. Ideal gases can be dangerous, but real gases can be even more dangerous.

In addition to Pitzer's work cited above, more information about the use of compressibility factors for mixtures can be found in O.A. Hougen, K.M. Watson, and R.A. Ragatz, *Chemical Process Principals, Part II, Thermodynamics, Second Edition*. (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1959): 856–861.

Process gases are generally mixtures. For those gases, we can calculate values for a pseudocritical temperature and a pseudocritical pressure by adding the critical temperature and pressure of each component multiplied

by its mole fraction in the gas mixture. In essence, the result is a molar average critical temperature and molar average critical pressure. Though not exact, they are within engineering accuracy.

### Nomenclature

- $\rho$  Density, mass per unit volume, Equation 4.5
- $\omega$  Pitzer acentric factor, Equation 4.25
- $n$  Number of moles, Equation 4.10
- $p$  Absolute pressure, Equation 4.1
- $R$  Ideal gas constant, Equation 4.11
- SC Standard condition of temperature and pressure, may also be S.C.
- STP Standard temperature and pressure, may also be S.T.P.
- $T$  Absolute temperature, Equation 4.6
- $v$  Velocity, Example 4.5
- $V$  Volume, Equation 4.1
- $z$  Pitzer compressibility factor, Equation 4.24

## Problems

1. Write the Ideal Gas Law and briefly define its terms.
2. What is the minimum size of a pressure tank to keep the pressure of 4.0 pounds of methane (molecular weight 16) below 800 psig on a hot day with a temperature of 105°F? (Hint: Be careful of units.)
3. At a constant temperature, if the pressure of an ideal gas increases, does the volume for a given amount of material increase or decrease?
4. At a constant volume and amount, if the temperature of an ideal gas increases, does the pressure increase or decrease?
5. What is the compressibility factor  $z$  and why is it used?
6. Gas equations of state such as the Ideal Gas Law use (choose a or b)
  - a. absolute temperature scales such as degrees Rankine or degrees Kelvin.
  - b. relative temperature scales such as degrees Fahrenheit or degrees Celsius.
7. True or false: For an ideal gas at a constant pressure and temperature, the mole fraction of a component is the same as the volumetric fraction.
8. True or false: "Standard conditions" for gases have been defined by several organizations and are identical in their conditions, although values for temperature and pressure are expressed in different units of measure.

9. According to Boyle's Law, the volume of a fixed amount of gas at a constant temperature is proportional to pressure by which expression (a or b)?
- $V \propto \frac{1}{p}$
  - $V \propto p$
10. Is the pressure in Boyle's Law absolute or gauge?
11. According to Charles's Law, the volume of a fixed amount of gas at a constant pressure is proportional to the temperature by which expression (a or b)?
- $V \propto \frac{1}{T}$
  - $V \propto T$
12. Which of the following temperature scales can be used for Charles's Law: Celsius, Fahrenheit, Kelvin, and/or Rankine?

Given the following data, calculate the volume,  $V$ , for exercises 13 through 20:

13.  $P = 125$  psia  
 $T = 600^\circ\text{R}$   
 $n = 1.2$  lb mol
14.  $P = 75$  psia  
 $T = 700^\circ\text{R}$   
 $n = 3.2$  lb mol
15.  $P = 200$  psia  
 $T = 800^\circ\text{R}$   
 $n = 2.3$  lb mol
16.  $P = 65$  psia  
 $T = 650^\circ\text{R}$   
 $n = 3.8$  lb mol
17.  $P = 200$  psig  
 $T = 400^\circ\text{F}$   
 $n = 4.1$  lb mol
18.  $P = 925$  psig  
 $T = 760^\circ\text{F}$   
 $n = 1.7$  lb mol
19.  $P = 330$  psig  
 $T = 1100^\circ\text{F}$   
 $n = 4.5$  lb mol

20.  $P = 500$  psig  
 $T = 1300^\circ\text{F}$   
 $n = 2.6$  lb mol

For exercises 21 through 24, calculate the pressure,  $P$ :

21.  $V = 41$  cu.ft.  
 $T = 800^\circ\text{R}$   
 $n = 3.7$  lb mol
22.  $V = 32.0$  cu.ft.  
 $T = 1100^\circ\text{R}$   
 $n = 4.1$  lb mol
23.  $V = 220$  cu.ft.  
 $T = 300^\circ\text{R}$   
 $n = 2.2$  lb mol
24.  $V = 52$  cu.ft.  
 $T = 1200^\circ\text{F}$   
 $n = 1.7$  lb mol

Given the following, calculate the number of lb mols,  $n$ , for exercises 25 through 32:

25.  $P = 250$  psia  
 $V = 17$  cu.ft.  
 $T = 125^\circ\text{F}$
26.  $P = 150$  psia  
 $V = 215$  cu.ft.  
 $T = 60^\circ\text{F}$
27.  $P = 75$  psia  
 $V = 29$  cu.ft.  
 $T = -40^\circ\text{F}$
28.  $P = 200$  psia  
 $V = 120$  cu.ft.  
 $T = 100^\circ\text{F}$
29.  $P = 200$  psig  
 $V = 120$  cu.ft.  
 $T = 100^\circ\text{F}$
30.  $P = 100$  psig  
 $V = 220$  cu.ft.  
 $T = -150^\circ\text{F}$

31.  $P = 60$  psig  
 $V = 20$  cu.ft.  
 $T = 400^\circ\text{F}$
32.  $P = 300$  psig  
 $V = 330$  cu.ft.  
 $T = 215^\circ\text{F}$
33. What would the volume of an ideal gas at 250 psig in a pressure tank of 5 cu.ft. be at 1 atmosphere, assuming no change in temperature?
34. What would the pressure of that ideal gas in problem 33 be if the pressure tank was heated from  $80^\circ\text{F}$  to  $800^\circ\text{F}$ , assuming no release of the gas?
35. After calculating the new pressure of the gas in the cylinder in problem 34, would the increased temperature be needed to calculate the volume of the gas if it were released to the surroundings at 1 atmosphere, assuming no change in temperature when the gas is released?
36. A 5-gallon tank for propane with a molecular mass of 44.0 weighs 17.0 pounds empty and 36.5 pounds full. What is the volume of the propane if it were a gas at  $60^\circ\text{F}$  and 14.7 psia?
37. How many pounds of helium with a mole mass of 4.0 lb/lb mol under 2,265 psig at  $78^\circ\text{F}$  are there in a number-44 high-pressure steel cylinder that has a volume of 44 liters?
38. What volume of air in cubic feet would the helium in problem 37 displace if it were released in Denver with an atmospheric pressure of 25 in Hg?
39. A 1-gallon steel can is heated to  $280^\circ\text{F}$  to boil out all of its liquid contents. If it were sealed immediately after removing it from the heat, what internal pressure would result as it cools to  $90^\circ\text{F}$ , assuming that the initial pressure was 14.7 psia?
40. If the 1-gallon can in problem 39 collapsed when it cooled, what minimum volume would it have?
41. What are the two factors that cause gases to behave in a nonideal fashion?
42. Does the nonideal behavior of a gas vary? If so, describe the effect of temperature and the effect of pressure on that variation.
43. Why is it necessary to use "standard" conditions when specifying the rating of gas-processing equipment?
44. Are standard conditions the same in different industries throughout the world?
45. Which of the four sets of standard conditions are equivalent in terms of temperature and pressure?
46. Why is the volume per unit mole irrelevant when specifying the standard condition of temperature and pressure to measure the flow rate of a gas through process equipment such as a compressor?

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