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3206

Preliminary Plant Design Dept. of Chemical Process Technology

Subject

The production of methoxy-propanol and methoxypropoxy-propanol from propylene oxide and methanol

 $Telephone$

Keywords

Propylene glycolethers, Solvents, Propylene oxide, Methanol, Methoxy-propanol, Methoxy-propoxy-propanol, Homogeneous Catalysis

September 16th 1997 January 5th 1998

Faculteit der Scheikundige Technologie en der Materiaalkunde

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Summary

The main objective of this process predesign is to design a profitable plant that produces 85,000 t/a 1methoxy-2-propanol (MP-2) and 15,000 t/a methoxy-propoxy-propanol (MDP) from methanol (MeOH) and proylene oxide (PO). The product specification for MP-2 is >99.9 % with < 0.01 % w methanol and < 0.1 % w of its isomer MP-1. The purity of MDP has to be >99.0 % w with < 0.1 % w MP-1.

The products belong to the group of the proylene glycolethers. Applications of MP-2 in particular are pharmaceutical, cosmetic, cleaning and degreasing, crop protection and painting inks and coatings. The applications for MDP are the same except for the pharmaceuticals and cosmetics.

As mentioned before methanol and propylene oxide react to MP-2. However also the formation of an unwanted by-product, 2-methoxy-1-propanol (MP-1), takes place. MP-1 and PO react to MDP in a second reactor section. Sodiummethylate (NaOCH₃) is used as the homogeneuos base catalyst for the reactions. The selectivity of this catalyst towards MP-2 is over 90%.

The plant describes a continuous process and is designed for an annual onstream period of 50 weeks and is made up of two/resembling reactor sections which consist of a reactor followed by two distillation columns. The design is based on a German patent from January 1997.

Figure A below shows the process flow diagram.

Figure A: Process flow diagram

In the first reactor section the production of MP-2 takes place. The excess amount of methanol fed to the reactor is separated from the products in the first distillation column and is recycled to the reactor. In the second distillation column MP-2 is separated from MP-1. MP-1 is fed to the second reactor where it reacts to MDP. The surplus amount of MP-1 leaves the next column over the top and is recycled to the reactor. MDP is recovered in the fourth distillation column. The bottom stream consists of catalyst and heavier propylene glycolethers. This waste stream amounts $2,957.89$ t/a. The two reactors are multitubular plug flow reactors; the distillation columns are sieve plate columns.

The economic lifetime of the plant is assumed to be 15 years. To estimate the economics of the process Lang's factorial method has been used. The total investment of the project is 14,212 kfl&, the total operating costs are 171,524 kfl/a. The price of MP-2 and MDP is 1824 fl/t. This results in a net profit of the plant -from start-up- of 10,929 kfl/a. The Pay-back Time (PBT) is 4 years and 4 months; the Rate of Return (ROR) is 63.56% .

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Contents

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1. Introduction

Propylene oxide (PO) is one of the major intermediates in the chemical industry. Almost all PO produced is converted into derivatives like polyether polyols (polyurethanes), propylene glycols and propylene glycolethers.

Propylene glycolethers are forrned by the reaction of propylene oxide and a1cohols, like methanol and ethanol. Certain traditional ethylene glycolethers and their acetates are being replaced by their PO-based analogues. The main reason for this replacement is the (suspected) toxicity of some of the glycolethers based on ethylene oxide (EO). Therefore the market for propylene glycolethers is growing relatively fast.

Propylene glycolethers constitute the third largest market for PO-based derivatives (5%) . World production of propylene oxide was 32ÖO ktonnes per year in 1992, with an expected annual growth of 4 %. As aresuit, the market for propylene glycolethers constitutes approximately 350 ktonnes per year [28].

Propylene glycolethers are used in a broad variety of applications, like solvents in varnishes, inks and paints, but can also be encountered as heat transfer fiuids or anti-icing agents. The powerful dissolving characteristic of glycolethers and their esters, combined with their generally low volatility, is the basis of their main function as solvents.

Important propylene glycolethers are methoxy-propanol and methoxy-propoxy-propanol. The first one being the replacement for its toxic EO-based counterpart. Applications of methoxy-propanol can be found in pharmaceutics and cosmetics, as well as in cleaning, degreasing, crop protection, painting inks and coatings. Methoxy-propoxy-propanol shows the same applicative properties except for pharrnaceutics and cosmetics. .

The design focuses on the production of 100 ktonnes per year methoxy-propanol (MP-2) and methoxy-propoxy-propanol (MDP) out of the raw materials propylene oxide and methanol. The required production rates are 85 ktonnes per year MP-2 and 15 ktonnes per year MDP.

The process is simulated with the flowsheeter ChemCad.

2. Basis of Design forcedbridge Fraces Lerign.

The assignment for this preliminary plant design is to design a process that converts methanol and propylene oxide into the desired products 1-methoxy-2-propanol (MP-2) and methoxy-propoxypropanol (MDP). The design is based on a German patent from 1997 [25]. The specifications of the desired products are given in Table 2.1. In Appendix C.1 an overview of the substances in the process is presented.

Table 2.1: *Product specification list.*

2.1. Reactions and Reaction Mechanism

The process comprises of two reactor sections as will be discussed in section 2.2. The first reactor is dedicated to production of MP-2, while in the second reactor MP-1, the toxic and thus unwanted isomer of MP-2, reacts with PO to MDP. The following sections will give more insight in the reaction mechanism and in the main reactions taking place.

2.1.1. Reactions

As mentioned before, the main product forming reactions to MP-2 and MDP are performed in separate reactors.The product forrning reactions are listed below whereas a complete overview of all reactions taken into account is listed in appendix C2 :

 ΔH , = -98.36 kJ/mol at 157 °C

MDP reaction $\rm CH_3OCH(CH_3)CH_2OH + CH_3CH(O)CH_2 \rightarrow CH_3OCH_2CH(CH_3)OCH_2CH(CH_3)OH$ *MP- l PO' MDP* [2]

 ΔH = -112.58 kJ/mol at 177 °C

All reactions occurring are first order in the key-component propylene oxide.

2.1.2. The Reaction Mechanism

The reaction mechanism for the formation of propylene glycolethers comprises of several parallel and series reactions. Essentially, the highly reactive propylene oxide reacts with hydroxyl groups in the various (intermediate) reactants like methanol of MP-2. Due to the structure of PO, cleavage of the oxirane ring leads to the formation of two isomers out of each reactant. All these isomers, having a newly formed hydroxyl group from the oxirane ring, can react further with PO. This reaction mechanism results in a mixture of isomers of various propylene glycolethers. Therefore, the product distribution is a function of input variables like the molar ratio of reactants and temperature. In Appendix $C.2$ the reaction mechanism for the formation of propylene glycolethers as well as the formation of propylene glycols is outlined..

2.2 Catalyst Selection

The reactions mentioned in section 2.1 .1. can be catalysed in different ways. The possible ways to catalyse the reactions are thermic, by an acid, by a base or by zeolites. In selecting the catalyst, criteria like selectivity towards desired products (e.g. MP-2 instead of MP-1), conversion and cost of the catalyst were taken into account.

A homogeneous base is used as catalyst in the process. Base catalysts are known for their good selectivity towards one of two isomers. In this case selectivity towards MP-2 instead of MP-1 is over 90 per cent. Moreover, this type of catalysts can be obtained rather cheap.

Thermic catalysis is not desirable, because the temperature has to be high in order to start up the reactions. Besides, high temperatures may cause decomposition of the products to, for instance, aldehydes. With the use of an acid catalyst, equal amounts of MP-2 and MP-1 are formed. Therefore, acid catalysts are not considered as an option. The selectivity of the zeolite catalysts towards MP-2 is very high but conversion is too low (only $\underline{40}$ per cent). Moreover, zeolites are expensive.

The homogeneous base used in the process is sodiummethylate (NaOCH₃). The selectivity of this catalyst towards MP-2 is over 90%. Selectivity towards MP-2 of other base catalyst, like tertiary amines, is slightly better, but they are much more expensive than sodiummethylate.

Commonly used as base catalyst is sodiumhydroxide (NaOH). A negative effect of this catalyst with respect to the reactants is the direct reaction of the hydroxyl-ion OH with PO. As a result, valuable reactant is lost to unwanted propylene glycols. Moreover, it is very likely that difficulties will occur with achieving the required specifications of the products. This is especially true for MDP, because dipropylene glycol and MDP have almost the same boiling point. With sodiummethylate as catalyst this problem will not occur, because the methanolate-ion $(\overline{CH_3O})$ is actually methanol in ionized form. Therefore NaOCH₃ was chosen as a catalyst. A positive side effect of this catalyst is a slightly better selectivitiy than NaOH towards MP-2 instead of MP-1. Although sodiummethylate is more expensive than sodiumhydroxide, the advantages mentioned above justify the choice for sodiummethylate as catalyst..

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2.3 Hierarchial Approach

In this section a hierarchial approach described by Douglas (1988) will be used to define the assignment and to explain the process choices made.

The process essentially comprises of areaction section, in which MeOH and PO are converted into the products, and aseparation section to purify the products. Due to the nature of this process, the dedicated production of 100 ktonnes per year, a continuously operated process scheme is chosen. Figure 2.1 gives a block diagram for this process.

Fig. 2.1: *Block diagram input-output structure*

As shown in the block diagram above the input-output structure is straight forward. The reactants enter the process whereas desired products and some by-products leave the process.

The recycle structure of the process depends on the choice of a reactor configuration. For the reaction section two configurations can be distinguished. The main product forming reactions can be performed in one or two reactors. Due to the difference in reaction rates of the two main reactions, it is more favourable to use two reactors instead of one. The underlying reasons in favour of the two-reactor configuration are:

- two smaller reactors instead of one large reactor
- no need for very large recycle flows to push reactions towards desired products $-$
- more flexible operation optimised for the main reaction taking place in the reactor.

When focusing on the main reactions taking place, the recycle structure becomes clear. In the first reactor the conversion of MeOH and PO to MP-2 and inevitably its isomer MP-1 takes place. In the second reactor the unwanted MP-1 and fresh PO is converted to MDP. It was found that excess amounts of MeOH and MP-1 in the first, respectively second reactor are necessary to place. In the second reactor the unwanted MP-1 and fresh PO is converted to MDP. It was found that excess amounts of MeOH and MP-1 in the first, respectively second reactor are necessary to achieve the desired production r

This reasoning leads to the conclusion that the separation section consists of at least a recycle column and a product column for each reactor. For the one-reactor configuration the same kind of reasoning leads to a distillation train èomprising of at least two recycle columns and two product columns. The following process diagram for the two reactor configuration becomes clear. MP-2

2.4 Battery Limit

Essentially, the flow diagram of Fig.2.2 describes the process and its equipment within the battery limit. For this process the following equipment is taken into account:

- MP-2 reactor
- MDP reactor
- The recycle columns
- The product columns
- Heat transfer equipment
- Pumps
- **Valves**

Production of utilities, waste treatment and storage facilities are not considered within the battery [~]limit. .

Feed streams are fed to the process at 1.3 bar and 20°C. The compositions of the various feed streams are tabulated below.
Streams are tabulated below.
Compositions of the various feed streams are tabulated below.

Table 2.2: *Feed stream compositions*

 \overline{a} compositions \overline{a} The product streams leave the process at elevated pressure (2 bar) and 60[°]C in order to store the products properly in tanks. L

2.5 Utilities

The utilities available to meet heating and cooling requirements are steam and cooling air. The conditons for steam are given in Table 2.3

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Table 2.3: *Steam conditions*

Cooling water cannot be used in this design, because the total cooling water capacity is already used. Instead of cooling water, air is used. The design air temperature is set at 23° C.

Electricity is used at either 220 V or 380 V.

2.6 Lifetime and Site Location

The lifetime of the plant is assumed to be fifteen years. **,....**

The plant is situated in the Botlek industrial area nearby the Port of Rotterdam, according to the assignment. The raw materials needed for this process are easy accesible and transportation by road, water and rail is rather easy. \times

2.7 Market demand

Propylene glycolethers constitute the third largest market for PO-based derivatives (5 %). World production of propylene oxide was 3200 ktonnes per year in 1992, with an expected annual growth of 4 %. As a result, the market for propylene glycolethers constitutes approximately 350 \sim = 5% ktonnes per year. The market is growing relatively fast due to the replacement of (suspected) toxic EO-based glycolethers with their PO-based counterparts.

2.8. List of components

On the next page an overview of all used components and some of their properties is presented in Table 2.4.

Table 2.4 List of Components

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(1) Boiling point and melting point at atmospheric pressure
(2) Liquid density and viscosity at 20° C

3. Process Structure

In this chapter the structure of the process and a detailed description of the various unit- operations and operating conditions is given. The following section will give more insight in the process structure. ~~~

3.1 Process Description

In this section the process flowsheet (Appendix A) will be discussed. Together with the mass and heat balance (Appendix B1) and the list of stream compositions Λ ppendix B2), the process flow sheet will give a good overview of the process. Essentially, the flowsheet shows two reaction sections with a distillation section for each reaction section. The first reaction section produces methoxy-propanol (MP-2), whereas the second reaction section methoxy-propoxy-propanol (MDP) produces.

3.1.1. MP-2 Reaction Section

The feed streams enter the process at 1.3 bar and 20°C. The catalyst stream (1), methanol recycle stream (5) and fresh feed streams $(2 + 3)$ are separately pressurized to 27.5 bar in order to keep reactants liquid at reaction temperature. The great excess amount of volatile methanol makes this necessary. Methanol and propylene oxide feed streams are mixed up thoroughly with the recycle methanol stream from the the methanol recycle column (T7).

Before entering the reactor (R5), the mix-up stream of reactants (11) should be heated in order to start reaction. The heat of reaction is used to preheat the feed streams from 55°C to 140°C. Just before entering the reactor the mix-up stream (12a) and the catalyst stream (6) are mixed, initiating reaction. The reactor is not operated isothermally, but under a temperature profile. The reactor outlet temperature is 152° C, while the maximum temperature reached in the reactor is 170° C.

The effluent is depressurized to 1 bar over a control valve before entering the recycle methanol distillation column (T7). Excess methanol, residual PO and water leave the top of the column while product leaves as bottom stream (recycle ratio: 1.8). In the second column (TI2) MP-2 leaves the top as product with a purity of over 99.9% w. The bottom stream (17) of the MP-2 column contains $\mu_{\text{total}}/$. in great extent MP-1, MP-2 and some higher propylene glycolethers and propylene glycols. After repressurizing to 13 bar, this stream enters the second reaction section, where MDP is produced.

3.1.2. MDP Reaction Section

The second reaction section resembles the first reaction section in most aspects. In comparison with the first section two featurés are changed. First, the fresh PO stream is not mixed with the bottom stream of the second column untill the reactor inlet is reached. Otherwise reaction will probably already take place at the shell-side of the reactor, due to the presence of catalyst in the bottom stream. Second, the pressure needed to keep reactarits liquified is moderate, 13 bar; as result of the presence of heavy and less volatile components and the absence of MeOH in the bottom stream.

After repressurizing the recycle stream (20) of the MP-1 column $(T21)$ to 13 bar, the bottom stream of the second column (21) and the recycle stream are mixed thoroughly. The fresh PO stream (4) is also pressurized to 13 bar. First, the mix-up stream of reactants (21) is cooled to 100° . As a consequence, the heat capacity of the stream is large enough to be preheated to 170° C. Just in front of the reactor inlet, both feed streams are mixed together and reaction is started. As was the case in the first reaction section, the reactor is operated under a temperature profile. The maximum temperature reached during reaction is 200° C. The temperature at the reactor outlet is 174 $^{\circ}$ C.

After reaction, the more volatile components like MP-1, MP-2 and PO leave the recycle MP-1 column $(T21)$ as top products. The top stream is recycled to the reactor (recycle ratio: 2.4). The bottom stream of the column is led to the MDP purifying column (T28). MDP leaves $\overline{\text{the}}$ column as top stream with a purity of over 99.0 %w. The bottom stream (29) constitutes a mixture of heavy propylene glycolethers like MDP and MTP, and catalyst. To prevent crystillization from occurring in the column, it is important that the Na⁺ concentration in the bottom stream does not exceed 5 $\%$ w. $\qquad \qquad$ \qquad $\qquad \qquad$ \qquad \qquad $\frac{4}{x}$

The product streams (18, 29, 30) are cooled to 60°C and kept at 2 bar to prevent leakage of oxidizing air into the system. Under these conditions, the product streams are ready to be stored in. The product streams (18, 29, 30) are cooled to 60°C and kept at 2 bar to prevent leakage of
oxidizing air into the system. Under these conditions, the product streams are ready to be stored in
storage tanks.

3.2 Thermodynamics and Kinetics

In the next section the thermodynamics and kinetics of the process are described. Especially kinetics have a great influence on both reactors in the system as will be shown later.

3.2.1. Thermodynamics

For the simulation to be reliable and give good results it is very important to select a proper thermodynamic model. First a choice has to be made wether to use an activity-coefficient method or an equation of state model.

Activity-coefficient methods are being used when, among others:

- a liquid is (strongly) non ideal
- polar components are present
- electrolytes are present

Equations of state are preferred to be used when:

- super critical components are present
- operation condition is near critiéal
- the system consists of: normál fluids (CH, N_2 , O₂ etc.), light polar components or CO_2 , H₂S, $H₂$

The operating conditions and components present, do meet the requirements for an activitycoefficient method to be used much better than for an equation of state.

Since the so called UNIFAC method is an activity-coefficient method that accounts for a wide range of components and conditions this method is the one used to simulate the system.

Ne fined *components.* ~ ""

The components MP-1 and M4P had to be new-defined for they were not in the simulation program's database. The therrnodynamic properties neede'd for a good simulation, like heat capacity and heat of forrnation, of these components have been calculated by the Benson group-contribution method [1]. This Benson method is areliabie method that can be used for a wide range of compounds.

3.2.2. Kinetics

As was mentioned earlier, the reactions comprise of a number of series and parallel reactions simultaneously. In Appendix D all reactions taken into account and their kinetic data are listed. The following assumptions about the reactions were made: $\frac{1}{2}$ the reaction to M4P has the same kinetics as the reaction to MTP. With $\frac{2}{\sqrt{2}}$ of $\frac{2}{3}$

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- reactions to higher propylene glycolethers than M4P were not considered because only small amounts of M4P were formed.
- reactions to propylene glycols have the same kinetics as reaction to MP-2.
- reactions higher than DPG were not considered; only small amounts of DPG were formed.

All reactions occurring are first order in the key-component propylene oxide. The activation energy (E_A) , the pre-exponential constant (k_0) and thus reaction rate vary with each reaction. The reaction rate is given by the Arrhenius relation:

$$
k = k_0 \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{E_A}{R \cdot T}\right) \tag{3.1}
$$

Secure Through For the only variable in this relation is the temperature T, there lies the clue in enhancing selectivity \times towards desired products. Dividing two reaction rates, gives the selectivity towards a certain product. Depending on the activiation energy E_A in both reaction rates, selectivity will be enhanced by either increasing or decreasing temperature. For example, selectivity towards MP-2 relative to $MP-1$ is favoured by lower temperature.

Two major limitations are connected with using temperature as a tool. Temperature can not be increased infinitely to enhance selectivity. In this case very high pressure should be applied to keep the reaction mixture liquid. Also product degradation can occur. To prevent product degradation in this design, temperature should not be higher than 200°C.

On the other hand, if a low temperature is desirable, reaction rates will slow down. This implies for large reactors in order to get acceptable conversion.

large reactors in order to get acceptable conversion.
The limitations considered above fix the temperature range in which reactors should,be operated The limitations considered above fix the temperature range in which reactors should be operated
efficiently. $\frac{2}{100}$

above

3.3 Unit Operations

In the next sections the choices and conditions of unit operations are outlined.

3.3.1. Reactors

In general three types of reactors can be distinguished: batch reactors, continuous stirred tank reactors and plug flow reactors. Due to the nature of the process, continuous operation is desired, resulting in a choice between continuous stirred tank or plug flow reactors.

A plug flow reactor is the most suitable reactor for the process. The main reason for this choice is the fact that in a plug flow reactor the concentrations of the reactants stay high for a longer period of time than in a continuous stirred reactor. As aresult the concentrations of the products stay low. This increases the selectivity towards MP-2 and MP-1 in the first reactor and the selectivity towards A plug flow reactor is the most suitable reactor for the process. The main reason for this choice is
the fact that in a plug flow reactor the concentrations of the products stay low.
This increases the <u>selectivity toward</u>

The reactors in this design serve two purposes. Beside serving as a regular plug flow reactor, the reactor serves as a heat exchanger. The feed stream is preheated at the shell-side of the reactor by the heat generated by reaction. To prevent reaction from starting too early, the catalyst stream in the first reaction section and the fresh PO feed stream in the second reaction section are mixed just in) front of the respective reactor inlets with the respective preheated feed streams.

 $MP-2$ reactor (Rs) $(156 \rightarrow 158^{\circ}C)$ The MP-2 reactor in the first reaction section is dedicated to the production of MP-2. Inevitably, MP-l is produced. Selectivity towards MP-2 instead of MP-l is favoured by low temperature. Dividing both rate constants leads to this result. It was found that 130° C is the minimum temperature at which reaction takes place at acceptable rate. The maximum temperature is set by the pressure needed to keep the reaction mixture liquid (excess amount of volatile methanol). It was found that 170° C was the maximum temperature reached during reaction, which corresponds to a pressure of 23 bar. This maximum temperature will be reached in the reactor due to the temperature profile that is allowed for. profile that is allowed for.
Above 170^oC, increasing temperature leads readily to higher pressure needed to keep the reaction

mixture liquid. This was not considered desirable. To allow for slight temperature changes, the operating pressure in the reactor was chosen at 27.5 bar.

MDP reactor (Rig) (176 - 178°C)

In the second reactor, MDP is produced mainly by reaction of MP-1 with PO. Unfortunately, MDP will react with PO to form MTP. Again, selectivitiy towards MDP will increase with lowering temperature. It was found that for sufficiently high reaction rates 165° C was the minimum temprature. The maximum temperature reached during reaction is 200° C. The operating pressure for this reactor was chosen as 13 bar.

3.3.2. Distillation Columns

In general three types of columns can be distinguished: plate columns, random packed columns and structured packed columns. The choice for a plate column was based on the main advantages and disadvantages listed in Coulson and Richardson page 530 and further [6].

- Plate columns can handle a wider range of gas and liquid flow rates.
- Plate columns can be designed with more assurance (otherwise liquid distribution is difficult to maintain, especially in large packed columns).
- It is easier to make provision for sidestreams from plate columns.
- Packed columns are often applied when plate diameter is less than 0.5 m for small plates can not be cleaned in a proper way through manholes. \rightarrow •

Also three different types of plates can be distinguished: bubble-cap, valve plates and sieve plates (in order of descending price). In general, sieve plates are satisfactory for most applications. Valve plates are only used when the operating range can not be matched with sieve plates. Bubble caps have a positive liquid seal and can therefore operate at very low vapour rates. Because no special reasons were apparent for choosing the more expensive plates, sieve plates were chosen.

Separation is best when pressure is as low as possible. On the other hand, distillation beneath atmospheric pressure is expensive because vacuum has to be maintained. Therefore, if practically possible, atmospheric pressure was chosen as operating pressure.

3.3.3. Heat Exchangers

In absence of cooling water capacity, air is used to meet cooling requirements. For this purpose airfan coolers were used to meet cooling requirements.

The reboilers of the distillation columns are designed with usage of the steam capacity available on site. The type of reboilers used in this design is the horizontal thermosyphon reboiler. If no high viscosity fluids are present or no near vacuum operation is necessary, a thermosyphon reboiler is an economical choice and suitable for most applications. Sufficient static head is needed to create the thermosyphon effect. Therefore, the total column should be elevated resulting in extra costs for the foundation. With horizontal thermosyphon reboilers this negative effect is smallest. Compared to vertical thermosyphons, horizontal thermosyphons are easier maintained, although more complicated piping is necessary.

3.3.4. Reducing Valves

All the valves used at the plant are control valves. This means that also the reduction of the pressure of the streams entering the first and the third distillation column will be regulated simply by control valves. These two automatic control valves are basically globe valves with special trim designs.

3.3.5. **Pumps**

The two main types of pumps are the positive displacement pump and the centrifugal pump. Centrifugal pumps are most widely used in the process industry. Their efficiency depends on the flow-rate to be pumped through and is about 30 to 40% for the given flow-rates. So, because the flow-rates of all the different streams are small (with a maximum of 33 m³/h), and hence the efficiencies of the centrifugal pumps are low, positive displacement pumps are used throughout the plant. The positive displacement pumps used are all rotary pumps. They are able to deliver nearly constant rates and they are able to deliver against high pressures.

3.3.6. Mixers

For continuous mixing of low viscosity fluids, as is the case here, inline mixers can be used.

The mixing of the MeOH and PO feed streams of the first reactor with the MeOH recycle stream can be realized by using injection mixers, for the feed streams are much smaller than the recycle stream. Injection mixers are mixers in which the one fluid is introduced into the flowing stream of the other through a concentric pipe or an annular array of jets. Mixing will take place by entrainment and turbulent diffusion and will give a satisfactory blend in about 80 pipe diameters.

 \mathcal{R} 5) The injections of MeOH and PO needed in the first reactor can occur close to each other. The çatalyst, however, must be injected as close to the reactor inlet as possible to keep reactions from starting before entering the reactor. This wiU be done by injecting the catalyst into the feed stream of the reactor after it has been warmed up and letting it pass through a static mixer.

The mixing of the bottom stream of the second distillation column with the MP-1/MP-2 recycle stream can also be realized by using an injection mixer. PO must be injected as close to the reactor inlet as possible, in the same way and for the same reason the catalyst must be injected as close to the first reactor inlet as possible.

4. Equipment Calculations

4.1 Reactors

In this section the design calculations for the reactor are made. The results of these calculations can be found in appendix EI.

4.1.1. MP-2 Reactor (R5) ↓

The type of reactor

The reactor is a multitubular plug flow reactor. The reactions take place in the tubes and cooling takes place on the shell-side in order to remove the heat produced during the reactions. Since the feed must be heated before entering the reactor, the feed is used as the cooling medium.

The reactions

In the first reactor PO and MeOH react to mainly MP-2 and MP-I. The overall reaction is as follows:

 $PO + MeOH + H₂O - MP - 2 + MP - 1 + MDP + MTP + M4P + PG + DPG$

A kinetic reactor is modelled with ChemCad in order to calculate the required volume of the reactor and the product distribution. Although in practice the reactor is operated under a temperature profile, which will be explained later, the reactor modelled with ChemCad is an isothermal reactor at the mean reactor temperature. For the reactor design the conversion of the key component, PO, is said to be complete, so no PO leaves the reactor. The stoichiometric coefficients for the overall reaction are salculated with the results of the reactor simulated in ChemCad. The calculation of the coefficients is listed in Appendix E1.2. See (3) .

Mass balance

In order to calculate the conversion of the components in the reactor mass balances have to be made. PO is taken as the key component. The mass balance of PO can be described as follows:

$$
\frac{dC_{PO}}{dV} = \frac{r_{PO}}{\phi_v} \tag{4.1}
$$

In this equation the <u>reaction</u> rate of PO is determined by the kinetics of the reaction (Appendix D).
For the other compounds similar equations can be obtained. These are mentioned in Appendix E1.1.
The meaning of the sy

Equation 4.1 can also be written in terrns of the residence time in the reactor:

$$
\frac{dC_{PO}}{d\tau} = r_{PO} \tag{4.2}
$$

This has been done because of the different volumes of shell and tubes. The assumption is made that the residence times in shell and tube are equal.

Energy balance

The reactions that occur are exotherrnic so the heat of reaction has to be removed from the reactor. As mentioned above the cooling is done by sending the cold feed through the shell of the multitubular reactor.

The heat produced is the overall heat of reaction. The overall heat of reaction, ΔH_R is calculated by summation of the heats of formation of the compounds:

$$
\Delta H_R = \Sigma \mathbf{v}_i \Delta H_f \tag{4.3}
$$

The heats of formation of the compounds and the overall heat of reaction can be found in Appendix $E1.2$. The heats of formation were either found in the literature [10 and 21] or calculated by the method of Benson [1]. With the overall heat of reaction and the conversion of the key component known, the total heat production can be calculated. The energy balance for the reaction mixture is:

$$
\frac{dT}{d\tau} = \frac{-UA(T - T_{feed})/V - v_{PO}r_{PO}(-\Delta H_R)}{\Sigma C_{p,i}C_i}
$$
(4.4)

Since cooling is done by the feed it is also necessary to write down an energy balance for the feed.The energy balance for the feed becomes:

$$
\frac{dT_{feed}}{d\tau} = \frac{UA(T - T_{feed})/V}{\Sigma C_{p,i}C_i} \tag{4.5}
$$

The mass balances and energy balances above were numerically solved with the computer program RRStiff (see Appendix El.l for the equations used). This led to the temperature profiles in the RRStiff (see Appendix E1.1 for the equations used). This led reactor of both the reaction mixture (T) and the feed (Tfeed).

From the temperature profile in Fig. 4.1 it can be seen that in the first part of the reactor the heat production is higher than at the end of the reactor. This is due to the fact that at the beginning the reactant concentrations are high and as a result the reaction rate is high and that causes much heat production. Because UA is constant over the entire length of the reactor, the reactor temperature will rise in the beginning of the reactor because the local heat transfer capacity is too low. At the

end of the reactor the temperature will decrease because there the local heat capacity is too high. The heat produced during the reaction will be absorbed by the feed and for a small part by the reaction mixture itself.

In order to create the right distribution between those two destinations for the heat of reaction the value of UA is varied. By the method of 'trial and error' an appropiate value for UA is found. Hereby it is taken into account that the maximum temperature in the reactor must not exceed 170 °C to avoid vaporization of the reaction mixture at the given pressure. On the other hand the reed must not reach an outlet temperature that is too high. The right value of UA in order to achieve both of these conditions is 60000 W/m²°C. However in this case the feed eomes out of the shell at a temperature of 139 °C. That is still 12 °C too high but no heat exchanger was designed to cool this stream. A possible solution for this difficulty might be the removal of the feed from the shell, as soon as it has reached the right inlet temperature for the reactor. This will have as a consequence that the temperature in the reaction mixture will rise after removing the feed, due to a lack of cooling capacity.

Heat exchange in the reactor

The reactor can be seen as a shell and tube heat exchanger. Herefor, the design of the reactor follows the design of a shell and tube heat exchanger. The heat duty, Q, of the reactor can be calculated with the following formula:

$$
Q = U A \Delta T_m \tag{4.6}
$$

where, Q=heat duty (W)

U=heat transfer coefficient (W/m^{2°}C) A=heat transfer area $(m²)$ ΔT_m =mean temperature difference (°C)

 \sim

The mean temperature difference has been calculated by taking the mean value of 50 temperature differences from the temperature profile.

As mentioned above the value of UA is 60,000 W/m²/C. To start the design calculations a global value for U is taken. There are tables and nomographes available in the literature. When the heat transfer coefficient, U, is known the heat transfer area, A, can be calculated.

An extra complexity in the design is the fact that the inner volume of the tubes must equal the reactor volume and the outer area of the tubes must equal the heat transfer area. Furthermore, the ratio of the cross flow area of the shell, $A_{cr,s}$, and the cross flow area of the tubes, $A_{cr,t}$, should be equal to the ratio of the volumetric flow in the shell and tubes respectively. This is because of the assumption that the residence time in the shell is equal to the residence time in the tubes. This leads to the following equations, which determine the value for the tube diameter:

 $A = M - J$ T

$$
W = N_t \frac{\pi}{4} d_i^2 L \tag{4.7}
$$

$$
A_{cr,s} = A_{cr,t} \frac{\Phi_{v,s}}{\Phi_{v,t}}
$$
 (4.9)

$$
A_{cr,t} = \frac{N_t \frac{\pi}{4} d_i^2}{N_p} \tag{4.10}
$$

These equations determine the inner diameter of the tubes, the tube length and the number of tubes, as well as the required cross flow areas.

Once the tube diameter is known the reactor can be designed. The real value of the heat transfer coefficient can be calculated and compared to the original estimated value. During this procedure certain values like the baffle spacing and the tube pitch were varied in order to get the right crossflow area for the shell.

The expressions for the inside and outside fluid film coefficient are mentioned below. With these values and the values for the fouling factors, the overall heat transfer coefficient can be calculated.

$$
h_o = \left(\frac{k}{d_e}\right) j_H Re \, Pr^{0.33} \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_w}\right)^{-0.14} \tag{4.11}
$$

$$
h_i = (\frac{k}{d_i}) j_H Re Pr^{0.33} (\frac{\mu}{\mu_w})^{-0.14}
$$
 (4.12)

$$
\frac{1}{U} = \frac{1}{h_o} + \frac{1}{h_{od}} + \frac{d_o \ln(\frac{d_o}{d_i})}{2k_w} + \frac{d_o}{d_i} \cdot \frac{1}{h_{id}} + \frac{d_o}{d_i} \cdot \frac{1}{h_i}
$$
(4.13)

When the design for the reactor is finished the pressure drop on both sides can be calculated by means of the two formulas below.

$$
\Delta P_s = 8j_f \left(\frac{D_s}{d_e}\right) \left(\frac{L}{l_B}\right) \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_w}\right)^{-0.14} \frac{\rho u_s^2}{2}
$$
\n(4.14)

$$
\Delta P_t = N_p (8j_f (\frac{L}{d_i})(\frac{\mu}{\mu_w})^{-0.14} + 2.5) \frac{\rho u_t^2}{2}
$$
\n(4.15)

Construction material

The reactor is made of carbon steel. This is cheap and available in a wide range of forms and sizes. The use of carbon steel is possible here because there are almost no corrosive compounds. Only the water that is in the MeOH is corrosive, present only in very low concentrations.

The design results for the MP-2 reactor $\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\frac{1}{2}}\sqrt{1-\frac{1}{2}}\left(\frac{1}{2}-\frac{1}{2}\right)}$ can be found in Table 4.1. The ca1culations can be found in Appendix El.3.

Design item	Value	
$V(m^3)$	7.0	
$A(m^2)$	731.7	
d_i (mm)	44	
d_{o} (mm)	50	
L(m)	10	
N,	466	
$D_s(m)$	1.94	
ΔP_i (Pa)	299	
ΔP_s (Pa)	12	

Table 4.1. *Design resultsfor the MP-2 reactor*

4.1.2. MDP-Reactor (R19)

Type of reactor

This reactor is also a multitubular plug flow reactor. The design procedure for this reactor is similar to the design procedure for the first reactor and the results can be found in Appendix E1.

The reactions

The overall reaction in the second reactor is as follows:

PO + *MP-2* + *MP-l* + *PG* -+ *MDP* + *MTP* + *M4P* + *DP.G*

. $-$

The stoichiometric coeffcients for this reactor can be found in Appendix E1.2.

Mass and energy balance

The mass and energy balances can be found in Appendix E1.1. Here also the problem arises of finding the optimal value for UA. The temperature in the reactor must not exceed 200°C according to the voltalities of the components and the outlet temperature of the shell must not be too high. In this reactor the appropriate value for UA is $10,000 \text{ W}$ ^oC in order to keep the temperature in the reactor below 200°C. Originally, the feed temperature at the entrance of the shell is too high. In this way there is not sufficient cooling capacity and the outlet temperature of the feed will be too high. In order to prevent this, the feed is cooled by an air cooler before entering the shell-side of the reactor.

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The temperature profile for the MDP reactor becomes:

Fig. 4.2. *Temperature profile reactor 2*

Construction material

The MDP reactor is made of carbon steel, for the same reasons mentioned for the MP-2 reactor.

The design results for the MDP reactor are listed below in Table 4.2. The calculations can be found in Appendix E1.3

Design item	Value
$V(m^3)$	1.2
$A(m^2)$	122.0
d_i (mm)	45.
d_{o} (mm)	50.
L(m)	10
N,	78
$D_s(m)$	1.00
ΔP_t (Pa)	361
ΔP_s (Pa)	24

Table 4.2. *Design results for the MDP-reactor*

4.2 Distillation Column Design

In the next sections the design procedure for a distillation column is described. The symbols used in the equations are given in section 10. The equipment calculations can be found in Appendix E2.1 and the results can be found in Appendix E2.2.

-" **----- -,-**

4.2.1. Design Considerations

The operating range is the range over which a plate can be operated efficiently. Outside this range plate efficiency will drop sharp and pressure drop will increase. The upper limit to vapour flow is set by the condition of flooding. Flooding is caused by either the excessive carry-over of liquid to the next plate by entrainment, or by liquid backing-up in the downcorners. The lower limit of the vapour flow is set by the condition of weeping. Weeping occurs when the vapour flow is insufficient to maintain a level of liquid on the plate.

In the following sections the different steps in designing the overall-column dimensions and interior dimensions is briefly described. In Appendix $E2.1$ an extensive overview of estimations and calculation results is given. The procedure used to design the distillation column is described in Coulson & Richardson (page 50

4.2.2. **Tower Design**

The tower is divided into two sections, the top- or rectifying section and the bottom-or stripping section (with respect to the feeding stage). As a consequence the design of a distillation column falls apart in designing a plate for the rectifying and for the stripping section. The relationships for calculating both plates are the same.

The flooding condition fixes the upper limit of vapour velocity and thus the column diameter. High vapour velocity is needed for high plate efficiencies. Normally 85 per cent of the flooding velocity is taken as design value. The flooding velocity can be estimated from the correlation given by Fair:

$$
u_f = K_1 \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\rho_l - \rho_v}{\rho_v}}
$$
 (4.16)

 K_1 can be obtained from C&R and is correlated with the liquid-vapour flow factor F_{LV} in the following way:

$$
K_1 \propto F_{LV} = \frac{\Phi_{m,l}}{\Phi_{m,\nu}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\rho_{\nu}}{\rho_l}}
$$
(4.17)

To ca1culate the column diameter an estimate of the net area is required. This follows easily from the mass flow and the design value for flooding velocity calculated above. The net area, A_{net} must be corrected for the downcomer area in the columns.

Typically, 12 per cent of the total area is taken as initial design value. This leads to the following column diameter:

$$
d_{col} = \sqrt{\frac{4}{\pi} \cdot A_{col}} \quad , \quad with \quad A_{col} = \frac{A_{net}}{1 - 0.12}
$$
 (4.18)

The next step is the design of a provisional plate. Coulson gives some methods to estimate parameters like weir dimensions, active area, hole area, hole size, the number of holes and the hole pitch.

With the results calculated and estimated above one still has to justify if the column will be practically operabie. At first weeping is considered, then plate pressure drop, downcomer back-up and finally entrainment is checked.

Weeping

The lower limit of the operating range occurs when liquid leakage through the plate holes becomes excessive. The minimum design vapour velocity through the holes is given by:

$$
u_{h,\min} = \frac{[K_2 - 0.90(25.4 - d_h)]}{(\rho_v)^{\frac{1}{2}}}
$$
(4.19)

The hole diameter, d_h , was chosen arbitrarily in the provisional plate design. K_2 is a constant, depending on the depth of clear liquid on the plate (C&R).

The clear liquid depth equals the weir height h_w plus the crest of liquid over the weir h_{ow} . The latter can be estimated using the Francis weir formula for segmental downcomers:

$$
h_{ow} = 750 \left[\frac{\Phi_{m,l}}{\rho_l l_w} \right]^{2/3} \tag{4.20}
$$

The weir length, l_w , is estimated with C&R.

Weeping will not occur if vapour velocity exceeds the required minimum vapour velocity. Otherwise the provisional plate design has to be adjusted.

Plate pressure drop

The total plate pressure drop h₁, expressed in mm liquid, is as follows:

$$
h_t = h_d + (h_w + h_{ow}) + h_{r, \text{in }S} \text{.}
$$
\n(4.21)

The dry plate pressure drop, h_d , is given by:

$$
h_d = 51.[\frac{u_h}{C_o}]^2 \cdot \frac{\rho_v}{\rho_l} \tag{4.22}
$$

22

 C_0 is called orifice coefficient and is a plate property; u_h is the hole velocity. The residual head h_r is given by:

$$
h_r = \frac{12.5 \times 10^3}{\rho_l} \tag{4.23}
$$

Downcomer back-up

The level of liquid and froth in the downcomer should be weIl below the top of the outlet weir on the plate above to prevent flooding. The downcomer liquid back-up (h_h) is defined as follows:

$$
h_b = (h_w + h_{ow}) + h_t + h_{dc}
$$
 (4.24)

The head loss in the downcomer, h_{dc} , results from resistance to flow in the downcomer and can be estimated using the following equation:

$$
h_{dc} = 166 \left(\frac{\Phi_{m,d}}{\rho_l A_m} \right) \tag{4.25}
$$

To account for the froth density in the downcomer, the liquid back-up (h_b) calculated from equation 4.24 should satisfy the following condition:

$$
h_b < \frac{(l_t + h_w)}{2} \tag{4.26}
$$

Finally, the residence time in the downcomer must be sufficient for the entrained vapour to disengage from the liquid stream. A residence time at least of 3 seconds is recommended. The residence time is given by:

$$
t_r = \frac{A_d \cdot h_b \cdot \rho_l}{\Phi_{m,d}} \tag{4.27}
$$

Entrainment check

With the entrainment check the amount of liquid flowing with vapour is calculated. The flow factor F_{LV} is correlated with the fractional entrainment and the percentage flooding. Typically, the fractional entrainment should fall below 0.1 in order to neglect entrainment effects on plate efficiency. In the design plate efficiency is assumed to be 80 percent.

Design results

The column diameter, column height, number of trays are listed below in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3 *Design results distillation columns*

*) Though the relative volatility of MP-2 relative to MP-1 is almost constant throughout the entire column, the stripping section of column T12 shows an immense increase of the tray streams towards the bottom of the column. No possible explanation was found. The increase of the tray streams was met by enlarging the diameter of the bottom trays of the stripping section. In reality, different diameters in one section are not desired. A small change in the proces conditions or stream compositions changes the stream profile in the column which changes the separation. Using different diameters in one section makes it difficult to control the separation. immense increase of the tray streams to
ease of the tray streams was met by enlancement diameters in one section are not de
stream profile in the column which change of the separation.

4.3 Heat Exchangers

4.3.1 General Relations for Heat Transfer

The results of the heat exchanger design can be found in Appendix E3.

The general equation for heat transfer across a surface is as follows:

$$
Q = U A \Delta T_m \tag{4.6}
$$

where, Q =heat duty (W)

U=heat transfer coefficient $(W/m^2^{\circ}C)$ A=heat transfer area $(m²)$ ΔT_m =mean temperature difference (°C)

One can find the true mean temperature difference by multiplying the logarithmic mean temperature difference (LMTD) by a correction factor, F_t .

$$
\Delta T_{lm} = \frac{(T_1 - t_2) - (T_2 - t_1)}{\ln \frac{(T_1 - t_2)}{(T_2 - t_1)}}
$$
\n(4.28)

$$
\Delta T_m = F_t \Delta T_{lm} \tag{4.29}
$$

The correction factor F_t is dependent on two dimensionless temperature ratios, R and S.

$$
S = \frac{(t_2 - t_1)}{(T_1 - t_1)}
$$
(4.30)

$$
R = \frac{(T_1 - T_2)}{(t_2 - t_1)} \times C_{\mathfrak{h}} \times C_{\mathfrak{h}} \times C_{\mathfrak{h}} \times C_{\mathfrak{h}} \times (4.31)
$$

In the literature there are graphs available to determine the correction factor with known values of R and S (for instance Fig. 12.19 in Coulson and Richardson) [6].

The heat load of a stream can be calculated if one knows the heat capacity and the desired temperature difference :

$$
Q = \Phi_m C_p (T_{out} - T_{in}) \tag{4.32}
$$

If a phase change (e.g. condensation or vaporization) occurs during heating or cooling the equation for the heat load becomes:

$$
Q = \Phi_m [C_p (T_{out} - T_{in}) + \Delta H_{vap}] \tag{4.33}
$$

When designing a heat exchanger, one uses a global value of U. Reasonable values for the heat transfer coefficient can be obtained from Coulson and Richardson [ref. 21]. Then, with Q and the LMTD calculated from the equations above, the necessary heat transfer area can be calculated by equation 4.6.

4.3.2 Air Coolers

For the preliminary design of the air cooled heat exchangers the procedure recommended by Brown [ref. 4] is used. In this procedure certain assumptions were made. First, the approximate value of the heat transfer coefficient was determined by means of the table presented in the article. Second, the air temperature rise is calculated via an empirical formula. Furthermore the design is made for bare tubes, although in practice finned tubes will be used. The heat transfer area of a finned tube is assumed to be 15 times the heat transfer area of a bare tube of the same size. The empirical formula for the air temperature rise is as follows:

$$
(T_{air,out} - T_{air,in}) = \left(8.806 \cdot 10^{-4}\right)U\left[\frac{(T_{tubes,in} + T_{tubes,out})}{2} - T_{air,in}\right]
$$
(4.34)

For this temperature rise a correction factor is needed which can also be obtained from the article by Brown. Once the temperature rise of the air is known the LMTD can be calculated and then the heat transfer area is known.

The fan power required for the air cooler was obtained from another article, Glass [ref. 16]. It is related to the heat transfer coefficient and the heat transfer area.

4.4 Pumps

Efficiencies

The efficiencies of the positive displacement pumps used is taken as $\frac{70\%}{\sqrt{25}}$.

Pump shaft power

The power required for pumping an incompressible fluid is given by:

$$
Power = \frac{\Delta P \Phi_{\nu}}{\eta_p} \times 100 \tag{4.35}
$$

where, ΔP = pressure differential across the pump, N/m²,

 ϕ_{v} = volumetric flow rate, m³/s,

 $\eta_{\rm p}$ = pump efficiency, %.

Pouve
$$
=
$$
 Wa43

The Table below shows the pump shaft power of all the pumps used at the plant, except for the pumps in the condenser sections of the different distillation columns.

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Table 4.4 *Pump shaft power*

 $\overline{\cancel{\phi}}$

4.5 Utilities

The utilities consumed by the equipment consist of low pressure steam, middle pressure steam and electricity. The amounts of utilities neccessary for the plant are listed in Appendix E4.

5. Process **Control**

Instruments are provided to monitor and control the key variables during plant operation. These process control equipment are installed to ensure safe and stable operation of the plant. In this plant vife types of controllers are used: pressure controllers (PC), temperature controllers (TC), flow controllers (FC), level controllers (LC) and speed controllers (SC). \mathcal{L}

5.1 Process stability

For process control and product specification garantee the plant is provided with control equipment. In this section the way the different process units are controlled is described.

5.1.1 Reactors

Constant pressure and temperature in the reactors are essential to ensure the stability of the process. Since the feed streams of the reactors are first warrned up by reacting streams through the tubes of the reactors, the heat exchange within the reactors is between two process streams whose flows are fixed. Therefore, a by-pass control will be used to control the temperature. The temperature of the cooling stream will be measured at some point (or points) in the reactor and the temperature controller regulates a valve in the cooling stream by-passing (part of) the reactor. The pressure in the reactor is controlled by a pressure controller that regulates a valve in the product stream out of the reactor.

5.1.2 Distillation Columns

Feed streams ~ *ç*

The flow-rates of the feed streams of distillation columns T7 and T21 are controlled by a pressure controller on the preceding reactor that regulates a valve in the reactor output stream and thus the column feed stream. The feed flow-rates of columns T12 and T28 are set by the level controllers of column T7 and T21 respectively.

Condenser

It is important to be able to control the distillate streams of the columns rather well, for in many cases they contain the desired product. To do this, every column is equiped with a set of controllers in the condenser section. A pressure controller measures the pressure in the top stream leaving the column and signals a speedcontroller which, on its turn, regulates the speed of the aircooler fan(s). Furtherrnore a level controller measures the liquid level in the top accumulator and regulates a valve in the distillate stream. Finally a flow controller is placed in the reflux stream and regulates a valve in the same stream.

Stripping section and reboiler

To be able to control the bottom streams of the colums as weIl, the columns will also be equiped with a set of controllers in the stripping section and the reboiler section. The temperature is often used as an indication of composition. The temperature sensor should be located at the position in the column where the rate of change of temperature with change in composition of the key component

is big. The temperature controller will be placed somewhere in the stripping section where this is the case and it will be cascaded with a flow controller which regulates the flow-rate of the steam flow of the reboiler. Furthermore a level controller is placed at the bottom of the column and regulates a valve in the bottom product stream.

5.1.3 Heat Exchangers

The air cooled heat exchangers in the condenser sections of the columns are controlled by a cascade arrangement of a pressure controller and a speed controller. The pressure controller measures the pressure at the top of the column and acts as the master controller over the speed controller. The slave speed controller on its turn regulates the speed of the fans. The other air coolers are controlled by a cascade arrangement of a master temperature controller in the output stream and a speed controller.

5.1.4 Pumps

The rotary pumps used are all running at fixed speeds and are all equiped with the same standard control units. The output pressure is controlled by a by-pass contro!: the pressure is measured at the downstream side and the controller regulates a valve in the stream by-passing the pump. The output flow is controlled by a flow controller that regulates a valve in the output stream.

5.2 Safety Features

The process control equipment described above are installed to ensure stabie operation of the plant. As said before it is very important to install extra control equipment such as alarms, safety trips and interlocks to alert operators of serious, and potentially hazardous, deviations in process conditions and thus to make the process as save as possible.

The equipment needing the most attention are the two reactors.They both will be equiped with an automatic trip system. This system contains the following basic components:

- 1. Temperature and pressure sensors that provide an output signal when a preset value is exceeded.
- 2. A system of electric relays to transfer the signal to an actuator.
- 3. An actuator to carry out the required action.

This action might for example be the closing of a valve in the catalyst feed of the first reactor or the PO feed of the second reactor. The closing of those streams will prohibit the reaction from occuring and hence control the temperature and pressure of the system.

Also the columns need extra attention. Additional temperature indicating or recording points will be included up the columns for monitoring column performance and for trouble shooting.

6. Safety, Health and Environment

In the next sections a short evaluation will be given about the safety, health and environmental (SHE) risks considering the process. Finally, a short Hazard and Operability (HAZOP) analysis will be presented in order to select the critical unit operation(s).

6.1 Safety, HeaIth and Environmental Aspects.

The process comprises two hazardous substances. Both methanol and propylene oxide are toxic and very flammable substances. Therefore, it is important that those feed streams are handled with care. Spills of one of the substances, especially PO, is very dangerous due to the fact of (very) low lower explosion limits in air. Moreover, PO reacts readily and heavily with any agent containing active hydrogen atoms.

In general, the following safety measures should be considered. At first, all piping and instrumentation containing one of both substances should be checked regularly for leakage. Secondly, in case of sudden pressure increase, pressure relief valves are installed (for example in the reactor). The gaseous and flammable effluents are led to a flare. Finally, all electrical equipment, instrumentation and piping should be grounded electrically to prevent any build-up of static charges in the system. Only a spark is needed to initiate a major blow-out.

Fire protection is clearly needed. In case of methanol fire a complication occurs. Methanol flames are practically invisible in daylight. Thereby, water is not a suitable fire-extinguishing agent, because water dissolves in methanol. Protein-based alcohol-resistant foams are suitable and recommended for this job.

In case of propylene oxide fire, leakage or spills, water can be used. It is important to spray copious amounts of water to reduce the extent of vapour in the air (lower explosion limit is 1.9 %). Considering the environmental aspects of both substances it is necessary to prevent running-off of diluted PO or methanol to the sewer system. Containment walls should be built.

The hazardous nature of these substances leads to the conclusion that thoroughly trained personnel should be employed.

6.2 Waste Treatment

The waste stream leaving the process contains mainly higher propylene glycol ethers like MDP and MTP and catalyst. The catalyst is present as Na⁺. The presence of catalyst in this stream makes disposal of this waste stream to some incineration unit necessary. In designing such a unit the formation of any toxic product should be prevented. If needed scrubber or stripping sections can be applied to clean off-gases.

Some measures, like <u>ion exchanging</u>, could be considered to recover \widehat{Na} . The resulting mixture of approximately equal amounts of MDP and MTP could be used as braking fluid. Recovered Na⁺ and methanol can be mixed approximately equal amounts of MDP and MTP could be used as braking fluid. Recovered Na⁺ and
6.3 HAZOP-analysis

The structure of the process indicates clearly that the first and section reaction section resembie each other strongly. Therefore, in the following HAZOP-analysis only the MP-2 reactor and the methanol recycle column are taken into account. The results for these units can be translated easily to other units.

As the HAZOP-analysis will show, critical units in the process are the <u>reactors</u>. Especially, the $\tilde{ }$ is reactor, having great amounts of both volatile methanol and propylene oxide, makes stable operation difficult. T $\frac{1}{e}$ $\frac{1}{e}$ $\frac{1}{e}$ $\frac{1}{e}$ operation difficult. Temperature is a critical constant. If reactor inlet temperature is too high, unacceptable pressure build-up due to rapid reaction rates can lead to blow-out. As a result, temperature and pressure are considered as critical constants implying for example high leve systems.

The HAZOP-analysis for the MP-2 reactor is presented in Table 6.1 whereas the HAZOP-analysis for the methanol recycle column is presented in Table 6.2.

HAZOP-analysis for MP-2 reactor

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Table 6.1: *HAZOP-analysls[or MP-2 reactor*

HAZOP analysis for methanol recycle column

Table 6.2: HAZOP-analysis for the methanol recycle distillation columns

7. Project Economics

In this chapter a preliminary cost estimation of the project at the flow-sheet stage is made as well as the project's economic evaluation. All the equations and values of the estimates used in this chapter can be found in Coulson and Richardson's [6]. The cost of the project can be divided into the total the project's economic evaluation. All the equations and values of the estimates used in this chap
can be found in Coulson and Richardson's [6]. The cost of the project can be divided into the tot:
investment cost and the investment cost and the operating cost. The total investment cost is calculated with the use of a so equipment items required for the process. The other costs are estimated as factors of the Equipment ϵ osts. The operating costs, the costs of producing the product, can be estimated from the flow-sheet, the capital cost estimate and the operating labour estimate.

7.1 TotaI Investment Cost

The total investment cost is comprised of the fixed capital and the working capital. As said before the fixed capital can be calculated with the use of the Lang factorial method and the purchase cost of the major equipment items required for the process. The working capital is taken as a factor of the fixed capital.

7.1.1 Estimation of Purchased Equipment Costs

 $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$ The estimation of the purchased equipment costs forms the basis of the Lang method and must be determined as accurately as possible. The prices for the equipment, except for the air coolers, are derived from the DACE-prijzenboekje [29]. The depicted data are prices for september 1995. The method usually used to update historiçal cost data makes use of published cost indices. These relate present costs to past costs, and are based on data for labour, material and energy costs published in govemment statistical digests and therefore account for inflation. The correction is perforrned using the following equation:

Cost (1997) = Cost (19..)
$$
\cdot \frac{\text{Cost index 1997}}{\text{Cost index 19.}} \times = \sqrt{995}
$$
 (7.1)

The cost index numbers used are taken from the DACE-prijzenboekje as well and are shown in Table 7.1. The year 1985 is taken as the reference year (index 100). The index number for 1997 is extrapolated from the historic values.

I

The calcy ated equipment costs are given in Table 7.2 on the next page. A more detailed calculation is given in Appendix $H.$).

Table 7.2: *Purchased equipment casts*

7.1.2 Fixed Capital Costs

The fixed capital cost of the project is given as a function of the total purchase equipment cost, as follows:

$$
C_f = f_L \cdot PCE \tag{7.2}
$$

where: C_f = fixed capital cost

PCE = the total delivered cost of all the major equipment items

 f_L = the 'Lang factor'

The 'Lang factor' depends on the type of process being used. For predominantly fluids processing plants, like this process, a value of 4.7 can be taken as a rough estimate [6].

To make a more accurate estimation, the cost factors compounded into the 'Lang factor' are considered individually. These fixed capital costs can be divided into direct and indirect costs.

The direct-cost items that are usually incurred in the construction of a plant, in addition to the cost equipment are:

- Equipment erection, including foundations and minor structural work.
- Piping, including insulation and painting.
- Electrical power and lighting.
- Instruments, local and control room.
- Process, buildings and structures.
Site and site preparation.
- •
- Storage, raw materials and finished product.
- Utilities (Services), provision of plant for steam, water, air, firefighting services (if not ν costed seperately).

Ancillary buildings, offices, laboratory buildings, workshops. ν

In this design, the last three factors are not taken into account for the calculation of the direct cost because they are either outside the battery limit or are already present at the site.

In addition to the direct cost of the purchase and installation of equipment, the capital cost of a project will include the indirect costs listed below.

- Design and engineering costs, which cover the cost of design and the cost of 'engineering' the plant: purchasing, procurement and construction supervision.
- Contractor's fees.
- Contingency allowance.

The contribution of each of these items to the total capital cost is calculated by multiplying the total purchased cost of equipment (PCE) by an appropriate factor. Typical factors, based on historical cost data of other fluids processing plants, are given in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3: *Typical factors for estimation of project fixed capital cost*

The total physical plant cost (PPC) is calculated as follows:

$$
PPC = PCE(1 + f_1 + \dots + f_6) = PCE(1 + 1.60) = 2.60 PCE \tag{7.3}
$$

The fixed capital cost can now be calculated, using the following formula.

$$
C_f = PPC \cdot (1 + f_7 + f_8 + f_9) = 2.60 \, PCE \cdot 1.45 = 3.77 \, PCE \tag{7.4}
$$

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7.1.3 Working Capital

Working capital is the additional money required over and above the fixed capital, to start up the plant and operate it to the point when income is eamed. It includes the cost of:

- Start-up: includes process modifications, start-up labour and loss in production.
- Initial catalyst charges.
- Raw materials and intermediates in the process.
- Finished product inventories.
- Funds to cover outstanding accounts from customers.

As said before, when applying the Lang method, the working capital is estimated as a percentage of the fixed capital costs. According to C&R, the estimate range is 10-20% of the fixed capital costs.
In this case 15% is taken as the estimate percentage.
Alger

Now, the total investment costs can be calculated, adding the fixed and working capital.

7.2 Operating Costs

An estimate of the operating costs, the cost of producing the product(s), is needed to judge the viability of the project. The operating costs can be calculated in a way simular to the calculation of the total investment cost. They are are divided into direct and indirect costs and the direct costs are subdivided into fixed costs and variable costs. These direct and indirect costs be calculated from the flow-sheet, the capital cost estimate and the operating labour cost estimate. Simply adding of the direct and indirect costs gives the total annual operating cost.

•

An overview of all the costs making up the operating costs is given in the following sections.

7.2.1 Direct Operating Costs

As mentioned above, the direct operating costs include variable and fixed costs. Costs which are dependent on the amount of product produced belong to the variable costs.

7.2.1.1 Variabie Costs

The variable costs include:

- Raw materials.
- Miscellaneous operating materials.
- Utilities (Services). •

Raw materiais.

Raw materials.
These are the major materials required to manufacture the products. The quantities can be obtained
from the flow-sheet and multiplied by the price of get the annual costs.
Raw materials Consumption Price Cos from the flow-sheet and multiplied by the price to get the annual costs.

Table 7.5: Raw material costs per year.

Miscellaneous materials (plant supplies).

Under this heading are included all the miscellaneous materials required to operate the plant that are not covered under the headings raw materials or maintenance materials. Such as, safety clothing, instrument charts and gaskets. As a rough guide, the cost of miscellanous materials can be taken as 10 % of the maintenance cost.

Utilities.

The annual cost of utilities used, like steam and power, can be calculated from the flow-sheet and the given prices.

Table 7.6: *Steam casts per year.*

Table 7. 7: *Electricity casts per year.*

7.2.1.2 Fixed Costs

Fixed costs are costs that do not vary with the production rate. They include:

- Maintenance (labour and materials).
- Operating labour.
- Laboratory costs.
- Supervision.
- Plant overheads.
- Capital charges.
- Local taxes.
- Insurance.
- Licence fees and royalty payments.

Maintenance.

Includes the cost of maintenance labour and materials needed for the maintenance of the plant. The annual maintenance costs for chemical plants are high, typically 5-15% of the fixed capital costs. As a rough estimate the annual maintenance cost is taken as 10% of the fixed capital cost.

Operating labour.

This is the manpower needed which is directly involved with running the process. Because of the small size of the plant, only two men will be needed to operate the plant. To operate three shifts a day, at least five shift crews will be needed. This means at least 10 men are needed as operating labour. The cost of each man is estimated as being fl 118,000 a year. These costs include shift allowance, a thirteenth month, allowance for holidays, national insurance, total pension contributions etc.

Supervision.

Assumed are two operating managers for the whole plant. The cost of each manager is estimated as fl 127,000 a year. These costs include the same allowances as for operating labour except shift allowance.

Laboratory costs.

These are the annual cost of the laboratory analyses required for process monitoring and quality control. As a rough estimate the costs are taken as 25% of the operating labour cost.

Plant overheads.

Included under this heading are all the general costs associated with operating the plant not included under the other headings; such as general management, plant security, medical and canteen services. A typical range of these costs is 50 to 100% of the operating labour costs; depending on the size of the plant and whether the plant is built on a new site, or an extension of an existing site. Since the plant is small with little personnel working on it and is built on a existing site, the lower limit of the typical range is taken as the estimate: 50% of the labour costs.

Capital charges.

The investment required for the project is recovered as a charge on the project. Rather than to consider the cost of capital as depreciation or interest, it is easier to take the cost as a straight, unspecified, capital charge on the operating cost. Here, 6.67 % of the fixed capital (annually) is taken as the estimate of the capital charge.

Local taxes.

A typical estimation of the taxes that have to be paid is 2% of the fixed capital costs.

Insurance.

Contains the annual insurance premium paid to the insurers for the site and plant insurance. A typical value is 1% of the fixed capital.

Royalties and licence Jees.

The proces has been developed exclusively by the operating company therefore no royalties and licence fees have to be paid.

7.2.2 Indirect Operating Costs

The indirect operating costs are costs that arise from the fact that the site will have to pay a share of the company's general operating expenses. These include:

- Sales expense.
- General overheads.
- Research and development costs.
- Reserves.

The costs of the individual indirect operating costs vary from company to company. As a range of estimate 20 to 30% of the direct operating costs is usually taken. For this methoxy propanol plant 20% of the direct operating costs is used.

Table 7.8 below gives an overview of the operating costs discussed above.

Table 7.8: Summary of production costs.

7.3 Economie Evaluation of the Project

As the purpose of investing money in a chemical plant is to earn money, some means of comparing the economie performance of the project is needed. A few techniques of economie evaluation, the criteria used to judge the economie performance of the plant and the results of the calculations are outlined in this section. The criteria can be divided into two groups: statie criteria and dynamic criteria. The former do not account for the time value of money whereas the latter do. Also the lifetime of the project does not always play a role in statie criteria whereas it does in dynamic criteria. Examples of static criteria are pay-back time (PBT) and rate of return (ROR). Examples, given here, of dynamic criteria are the net present worth (NPW) and total net present worth (TNPW) of the project and the discounted cash-flow rate of return (DCFRR). There is no one best criterion on which to judge the investment opportunity. The èriterion used depends on the kind of project and the company's preference. The calculation and some tables of the different criteria can be found in Appendix H.2.

In the sections above only the costs of the project were discussed and not the incomes. The eamings of the project come from the sales of the products MP-2 and MDP. Table 7.10 shows the sales figures of the plant.

7.3.1 Cash-flow Diagram.

The net cash flow at any time is the difference between the earnings and expenditure which, on their turn, are based on the estimates of sales volumes, sales prices, investment and operating costs that have been made for the project. The cash-flow diagram below shows the forecast cumulative net cash flow over the life time of the project. The diagram gives a clear picture of the resources required for the project and the timing of the eamings. The designing of the plant is assumed to last 1 year, the actual building (start-up inc1uded) 2 years.

Figure 7.1: *Cash-flow diagram*

7.3.2 Pay-back Time.

The pay-back time is defined as the time required after the start of the project to pay off the initial investment from income. Pay-back time as a criterion of investment performance does not, by this definition, consider the performance of the project after the pay-back time.

The pay-back time can be calculated or read from the cash-flow diagram. The pay-back time for this methoxypropanol plant is 4 years and 4 months.

7.3.3 Rate of Return.

Cash-flow figures do not show how weU the capital invested is being used. Some way of measuring the performance of the capital invested is needed. The rate of return (ROR) is the ratio of annual profit to investment and is a simple index of the performance of the money invested. The simplest method is to base the ROR on the average income over the life of the project and the original investment. This method takes into account the fact that the annual profit will not be constant over the life of the project -although that is not shown in the cash-flow diagram. The ROR can be calculated using formula 7.5.

$$
ROR = \frac{F - C}{C \cdot G} \cdot 100\% \tag{7.5}
$$

where: $F-C =$ cumulative income (f)

 $C =$ investment (f)

 $G =$ life of the project (f)

The ROR for this project is 63.56% .

7.3.4 Net Present Worth (NPW) and Total Net Present Worth (TNPW).

Figure 7.1 shows the net cash flow at its value in the year in which it occurs. So the values on the yaxis show the "future worth" of the project: the cumulative "net future worth", NFW. A way to account for the time value of money is to calculate the net present worth (NPW) of cash flow. The NPW can be calculated by using formula 7.6 below.

$$
NPW = \frac{NFW \text{ in year } n}{(1 + r)^n} \tag{7.6}
$$

where: $r =$ discount rate (interest rate) $(-)$

The discount rate is taken to be 0.16.

The total net present worth (TNPW) can be calculated as follows:

$$
TNPW = \sum_{n=1}^{n=t} \frac{NFW}{(1+r)^n}
$$
 (7.7)

The TNPW will be less than the total NFW, and reflects the time value of money and the patterns of earnings over the life of the project.

To get an easy and quick overview, the results are shown in Figure 7.2.

Figure 7.2: Results of the dynamic criteria calculations

7.3.5 Discounted Cash-flow Rate of Return (DCFRR).

The discounted cash-flow rate of return (DCFRR) is the maximum interest rate that the project could pay and still break even by the end of the project life. The value is found by trial-and-error calculations using formula 7.8.

$$
\sum_{n=1}^{n=t} \frac{NFW}{(1+r)^n} = 0
$$
\n(7.8)

Where: $r =$ discounted cash-flow rate of return (-) The discounted cash-flow rate of return for this methoxy propanol plant is 0.565. $\leq 6.5\%$ **-=-**

 $\bar{\alpha}$

The investment criteria discussed in this section are set out in Table 7.11, which shows the main advantage and disadvantage of each criterion.

Table 7JJ 1: *Investment criteria and their advantages and disadvantages*

8. Conclusions and Recommendations

The objective of the assignment, to design a plant for the production of 85,000 t/a MP-2 and 15,000 t/a MDP with respective purities of at least 99.9 %w and 99.0 %w, has been met.

The production of MP-2 is 85,024 t/a. It has a purity of 99.92 %w, containing 0.051 %w MP-1 and 0.0087 %w MeOH. The production of MDP is 15,005 t/a. Its purity is 99.12 %w, containing 0.055 %w MP-I.

In absence of purges, the conversion of MeOH and PO is 100% . Only minor losses to side products occur. The catalyst used in the process is the homogeneous base sodiummethylate (NaOCH₃).

The waste stream is 2,958 t/a, resulting in a waste percentage of 2.87 %. Due to the presence of Na⁺, this stream is ready for waste treatment. However, some recovery measures like ion-exchange could be considered. The remaining mixture of MDP and MTP, free from Na⁺, can be used as brake fluid whereas the removed Na⁺, after regeneration, can be recycled to the first reactor séction. This implies a continuous catalyst regeneration cycle.

The process structure is simpie. The two-reactor configuration leads to operation optimjsed for the main reaction taking place in' the respective reaction 'sections. Another feature of this configuration is the built-in flexibilitiy. If market demands would change, production rates of MP-2 and MDP can be adjusted to meet these demands.

The heat integration in the process is done by use of heat exchange in both reactors. The heat of reaction is utilised to preheat the feed streams before entering the reactor. In effect, the reactor can be looked upon as a shell and tube heat exchanger with reaction taking place within the tubes. Further, only coolers are applied in the process. Due to the absence of cooling water, air is used to meet cooling requirements. All coolers are designed as air-fan coolers. Therefore, the temperature of the product streams can not be lower than 60°C.

Energy and power integration in the distillation columns needs further investigation. It is likely that the product streams can not be lower than 60° C.
Energy and power integration in the distillation columns needs further investigation. It is likely that energy savings are attainable when integrating the columns.

The safety of this process is a major concern. Beside the hazardous and readily flammable substances PO and MeOH, reactors are considered to be critical units. Controlling temperature and pressure in these units is very important to be able to maintain stabie and safe operation of the process.

The process as designed is a profitable plant, making 10.9 million guilders a year. This leads to a pay-out time of 4 years and 4 months. Assumed that the designing and construction of the plant takes 3 years, it can be concluded that the investment is being recovered after 1 year and 4 months after the start-up of the plant. These satisfying figures present an estimate of the economics of the process. They lie within the so called 30% certainty area and should be considered as a first raw related that the investment is being feed
after the start-up of the plant. These satisfying figures present an
process. They lie within the so called 30% certainty area and shot
estimate.

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FV03206 *10. List ofsytmbols*

10. List of symbols

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Chapter 4.2: Distillation columns

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Chapter 4.3: Heat exchangers

Chapter 4.4: Pumps

Chapter 7: Economics

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APPENDIX A: PROCESS FLOW I

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Appendix B1: Mass and Heat Balance

Appendix 81: Mass and Heat 8alance ctd.

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Appendix Cl: Substances in the process

 η γ ₁ + φ φ)

I-Methoxy-2-propanol (MP-2): (, $\rm CH_{3}O$ - $\rm CH_{2}$ - $\rm CH_{3}$ - $\rm OH$ 5 waardog H_3 C_{H_3O} - CH - CH₂ - OH *2-Methoxy-I-propanol (MP-I):* \circ H HН ne x Propx Prof of CH_3O CH_2 - CH_3 - OH_2 - CH_3 - CH_3 - CH_2 - CH - OH *Methoxy-propoxy-propanol:* (two of four *isomers*) (hDP) CH_3 CH_3 $RP2 + PO$ CH_3O - CH_2 - CH - O - CH - CH_2 - OH $\bigg($

Appendix C2: Reaction mechanism

The following reactions were taken into account:

The reaction mechanism is as follows and is applicable to all reaction numbers, except $\frac{1}{2}$. The reaction including the association is applicable to an reaction numbers, except numbers 6 and 7. (gle ℓ s).

For reaction number 6 and 7 the following mechanism is applicable:

 \rightarrow NaOCH₃ $Na⁺ + CH₃O⁻$ $CH₃O⁻ + H₂O$ $CH₃OH + OH$ δ^* $\mathcal{A}_{\delta^{++}}$ $OH^- + CH_3CH(O)CH_2$ HO-CH₂CHO⁻ $CH₃$ HO-CH₂CHOH + $HO-CH_2CHO + CH_3OH$ $CH₃O$ $CH₂$ $CH₃$ $CH_3O₁$ $+|Na^{+}|$ \mathcal{D} NaOCH₃

Note: When using NaOH as catalyst the l<u>ast three reactio</u>ns are applicable, resulting in formation of unwanted propylene glycols.

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Appendix D: Reactions with kinetic data

The following reactions were taken into account. The reference temperature for heat of reaction is 430 K. These values were calculated with standard heat of formation and heat capacity-temperature relations.

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In the following table kinetic data of the reactions mentioned above is given. With the Arrhenius relation and this kinetic data, reaction rate constants can be calculated.

Table D.l: *Kinetic data*

Appendix E1.I

Mass and energy balances reactors

MP-2 reactor (Equipment nr 5)

DIFFERENTlAL EQUATIONS:

- d(T)/d(T A U) = (-UA(T -Tfeed)/vb+(kl ·ca·cb·ckat+k2·ca·cb·ckat+k3·ca·cc·ckat+k4·ca·cd·ckat+ k5·ca·ce·ckat+k1·ca·cf·ckat+k1·ca·cg·ckat+k5·ca·ch·ckat)·-1·DHr)/((ca·cpa+ cb·cpb+cc·cpc+cd·cpc+ce·cpe+cf.cpf+cg·cpg+ch·cph»
- $d(TFEED)/d(TAU) = (UA \cdot (T-Tfeed)/vb) / ((ca0 \cdot cpa + cb0 \cdot cpb + cc0 \cdot cpc + cd0 \cdot cpC + ce0 \cdot cpc +$ cfO·cpf+cgO·cpg+chO·cphO»
- d(CA)/d(TA U)= -(kl·ca·cb·ckat+k2·ca·cb·ckat+k3 ·ca·cc·ckat+k4·ca·cd ·ckat+ kS·ca·ce·ckat+kl·ca·cf·ckat+kl·ca·cg·ckat+kS·ca·ch·ckat)

d(CB)/d(TAU) = -(kl·ca·cb·ckat+k2·ca·cb·ckat)

 $d(CC)/d(TAU) = (k1 \cdot ca \cdot cb \cdot ckat - k3 \cdot ca \cdot cc \cdot ckat)$

 $d(CD)/d(TAU) = (k2 \cdot ca \cdot cb \cdot c \cdot kd \cdot ca \cdot cd \cdot c \cdot c \cdot kd)$

 $d(CE)/d(TAU) = (k3 \cdot ca \cdot cc \cdot ckat + k4 \cdot ca \cdot cd \cdot ckat - k5 \cdot ca \cdot ce \cdot ckat)$

 $d(CF)/d(TAU) = -(k1 \cdot cf \cdot ca \cdot ckat)$

 $d(CG)/d(TAU) = (k1 \cdot cf \cdot ca \cdot ckat - k1 \cdot ca \cdot cg \cdot ckat)$

```
d(CH)/d(TAU) = (kS·ca·ce·ckat-kS·ca·ch·ckat)
```

```
K1 = K_{0,1}·exp(-E_{A1}/(T·8.314))K2 = K_{0,2} \cdot \exp(-E_{A2}/(T \cdot 8.314))K3 = K_{0.3}·exp(-E_{A3}/(T.8.314))K4 = K_{0.4}·exp(-E<sub>A4</sub>/(T·8.314))
K5 = K_{0.5}·\exp(-E_{A5}/(T \cdot 8.314))CPA = (1.651e5-6.295e2 \cdot T + 2.011 \cdot T \cdot 2 - 1.308E - 3 \cdot T \cdot 3)/1000CPB = (1.058E5 - 3.622E2 - T + 9.379E - 1.7 \times 2)/1000CPC = (1.541E5 + 2.134E2 \cdot T)/1000CPE = (2.066E5 + 4.202E2 \cdot T)/1000CPF = (2.764E5 - 2.090E3 \cdot T + 8.125 \cdot T \cdot 2 - 1.412E - 2 \cdot T \cdot 3 + 9.370E - 6 \cdot T \cdot 4)/1000CPG = (5.808E4 + 4.452E2 \cdot T)/1000CPH = (2.602E5+6.082E2 \cdot T)/1000
```
Where A or a=PO B orb=MeOH C or $c=MP-2$ Dor d=MP-I E ore=MDP F or f=H₂O Gor g=PG H or h=MTP kat=catalyst 'O'=in the feed

TAU=residence time (s) vb=reactor volume (1) c=concentration (mol/l) Dhr=overal1 heat of reaction (J/mol) CP=specific heat (J/moIK)

$$
(4.4)
$$

$$
(4.5)
$$

Appendix E1.1

Mass and energy balances reactors

MDP reactor (Equipment nr 19)

DIFFERENT/AL EQUAT/ON(S):

d(T)/d(TAU) =(-UA·(T-Tfeed)/Vbuis+(k3·ca·cc·ckat+k4·ca·cd·ckat+k5·ca·ce·ckat+ k7 ·ca·cg·ckat +k5 ·ca·ch ·ckat)·-l· D Hr)/(ca·cpa+cc·cpc+cd ·cpC+ce·cpe+cg·cpg+ ch·cph+ci·cpi+cj·cpj+CKAT·cpkat)

d(TFEED)/d(TAU) = (UA·(T-Tfeed)/Vbuis)/(ca0·cpa+cc0·cpc+cd0·cpC+ce0·cpe+cg0·cpg+ chO·cph+ciO·cpi+cjO·cpj+ckat·cpkat)

d(CA)/d(TAU) = -(k3·ca·cc·ckat+k4·ca·cd·ckat+k5·ca·ce·ckat+k7·ca·cg·ckat+k5 ·ca·ch·ckat)

 $d(CC)/d(TAU) = -(k3 \cdot ca \cdot cc \cdot ckat)$

 $d(CD)/d(TAU) = -(k4 \cdot ca \cdot cd \cdot ckat)$

 $d(CE)/d(TAU) = (k3 \cdot ca \cdot cc \cdot c \cdot kat + k4 \cdot ca \cdot cd \cdot c \cdot kat + k5 \cdot ca \cdot ce \cdot c \cdot kat)$

 $d(CG)/d(TAU) = -(k7 \cdot ca \cdot cg \cdot ckat)$

 $d(CH)/d(TAU) = (k5 \cdot ca \cdot ce \cdot ckat - k5 \cdot ca \cdot ch \cdot ckat)$

 $d(CI)/d(TAU) = (k5 \cdot ch \cdot ca \cdot ckat)$

 $d(CJ)/d(TAU) = (k7 \cdot ca \cdot cg \cdot ckat)$

```
K3 = K_{03}·exp(-E<sub>A3</sub>/(T·8.314))
K4 = K_{0.4}·exp(-E_{A.4}/(T \cdot 8.314))K5 = K_{0.5}·exp(-E<sub>A.5</sub>/(T·8.314))
K7 = K_{0.7}·exp(-E_{A.7}/(T \cdot 8.314))CPA = (1.651e5-6.295E2 \cdot T + 2.011 \cdot T^2 - 1.308E - 3 \cdot t^3)/1000CPC = (1.541E5 + 2.134E2 \cdot T)/1000CPE = (2.066E5+4.202E2 \cdot T)/1000CPG = (5.808E4 + 4.452E2 \cdot T)/1000CPH = (2.602E5+6.082E2 \cdot T)/1000CPI = (2.602E5+6.082E2 \cdot T)/1000CPJ = (1.414E5+6.195E2 \cdot T)/1000CPKAT = (8.756E4 + 3.970E - 1 \cdot T - 6.380E - 3 \cdot T^2 + 2.439E - 6 \cdot T^3 + 2.571E - 10 \cdot T^4)/1000
```
Where A or a=PO C or c=MP-2 Dor d=MP-l E or e=MDP Gor g=PG H or h=MTP lor i=M4P J or j=DPG 'O'=in the feed TAU=residence time (s) c=concentration (mol/l) Dhr=overall heat of reaction (J/mol) vb=reactor volume (1) CP=specific heat (J/moIK)

Appendix E 1.2

Calculation of the stochiometric coefficients and the overall heat of reaction

Reactor 2 PO+ MP2 + MP1+ PG -> MOP + MTP + M4P + DPG

Appendix E 1.3 Reactor design

Appendix E 1.3 Reactor design

Appendix E 2.1: Overview Column Calculations

Performed for the top plate of the rectifying section, column T1.

Flow-rates and physical properties from ChemCad.

Diameter calculations

Liquid-vapour flow factor:

Provisional plate design:

 $\underline{\overline{Ad}}$ - 100 = 12 Acol lw := 0.75·Dcol weir height (mm), C&R: hw := 45 hole diameter (mm), C&R: Dh:=5 plate thickness (mm), $C&R$: tp: = 5 $lw=2.1$

Perforated area:

Number of holes:

number of holes:

Ah N:= $\frac{Ah}{\pi (1 - 3)^2}$ N = 1.788.10⁴ $\frac{1}{4}$ (Dh.10)

fiole diam?

Rectification section design:

-check weeping

maximum liquid rate (kg/s):

 $max\phi ml := \frac{\phi ml}{3600}$ $max\phi$ ml = 1.364

minimum liquid rate (kg/s), at 70% turn down:

$$
min\phi ml := 0.70 \cdot max\phi ml
$$
\n
$$
min\phi ml = 0.955
$$

 \mathfrak{D}

clear liquid depth (mm liquid):

$$
howmax := 750 \cdot \left(\frac{\text{max}\phi \text{ml}}{\rho 1 \cdot \text{l} \text{w}}\right)^{\frac{2}{3}}
$$
\n
$$
howmax = 6.826 \qquad \text{(eq. 4.20)}
$$
\n
$$
howmin := 750 \cdot \left(\frac{\text{min}\phi \text{ml}}{\rho 1 \cdot \text{l} \text{w}}\right)^{\frac{2}{3}}
$$
\n
$$
howmin = 5.381 \qquad \text{(eq. 4.20)}
$$
\n
$$
form Fig. 11.30, C&R:
$$
\n
$$
hw + howmin = 50.381 \qquad \text{K2} := 30.0
$$
\n
$$
miniimum vapour velocity (m/s):
$$

$$
uhmin := \frac{(K2 - 0.90 \cdot (25.4 - Dh))}{\sqrt{(pv)}} \qquad \qquad uhmin = 10.715 \qquad (eq. 4.19)
$$

actual minimum vapour velocity (m/s):
\n
$$
uhminactual := 0.70 \cdot \frac{\phi v max}{Ah}
$$
\n
$$
uhminactual = 12.104
$$

The actual minimum vapour velocity (uhminactual) exceeds the minimum vapour velocity (uhmin). Therefore the minimum operating rate will be weil above weep point.

Plate pressure drop

Dry plate drop Maximum vapour velocity through holes (m/s):

 $uh := \frac{\phi v max}{\phi w max}$ Ah $uh = 17.291$

Orifice coefficient (Co)

hole pitch (m), C&R:

 $lp := 3.25 \cdot Dh$ $lp = 16.25$

From Fig. 11.34:

for plate thickness/hole diameter = $\frac{dp}{dh} = 1$ and $\frac{\text{Ah}}{100}$ = 8.544 Ap $Co := 0.84$

Dry plate drop (mm liquid):

hd :=
$$
51 \cdot \left(\frac{uh}{Co}\right)^2 \cdot \frac{pv}{pl}
$$

hd = 34.09 (eq. 4.22)

residual head (mm liquid):

$$
hr := \frac{12500}{\rho l} \qquad \qquad hr = 16.711 \qquad (eq. 4.23)
$$

Total plate drop (mm liquid):

ht := $hd + (hw + howmin) + hr$ $ht = 101.183$ (eq.4.21)

Downcomer design (back-up):

Downcomer pressure loss:

height of the bottom edge of the apron above the plate (mm):

As Aap is less than Ad, therefore Aap is used in the next equation:

head loss in the downcomer:

hdc :=
$$
166 \cdot \left(\frac{\phi m l}{3600} \right)^2
$$

hdc = 0.102 (eq.4.25)

downcomer back-up in terms of clear liquid:

froth height:

For safe design the ciear liquid back-up (hb) should not exceed half the plate spacing (+ weir height), to avoid spacing:

This is indeed the case, so tray spacing is acceptable

check residence time (sec):

The residence time in the downcomer must be at least 3 seconds to allow the entrained vapour to disengage from the liquid stream.

Check entrainment

actual velocity (based on net area):

 $uv := \frac{\phi v max}{\phi w max}$ An per cent flooding \cdots \cdot 100 = 61.613 uf

As the per cent flooding is weil bellow the design figure of 85, the column diameter could be reduced, but this would increase the pressure drop.

 $uv = 1.12$

from figure 11.29, C&R:

Flv = 0.008 gives entrainment ψ := 0.11

entrainment should be less than 0.1 in order to neglect entrainment effects on the plate efficiency.

Appendix E 2.2a: Results Calculations Column T7

CHEMCAD data

Appendix E 2.2b: Results Calculations Column T12

CHEMCAD data

 $\mathcal{C}^{\mathcal{C}}$

Appendix E 2.2c: Results Calculations Column T21

CHEMCAD data

 $\label{eq:1.1} \begin{array}{ll} \left| \vec{a} \right| & \\ \hline \end{array}$

Appendix E 2.2d: Results Calculations Column T28

CHEMCAD data

 $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L})$. The $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L})$

Appendix E 3. Heat exchanger calculations

Reboilers

Appendix E 3. Heat exchanger calculations

Condensers

Appendix E 3. Heat exchanger calculations

Coolers

Appendix E4. List of utilities

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Appendix F.l SPECIFICATION FORM TOWERS

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Technische Universiteit Delft FVO nr.: 3206 Vakgroep Chemische Procestechnologie

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Date : 5/1/98 Designers : M.G. van den Eijnden
J.C. IJsebaert **IJsebaert** B.R. Regenbogen F.A.M. Wieland

 $\label{eq:1.1} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial t}$

 $\label{eq:1.1} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{r}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{r}} \mathbf{r} + \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{r}} \mathbf{r}$

Appendix F.l SPECIFICATION FORM TOWERS

Technische Universiteit Delft FVO nr.: 3206 Vakgroep Chemische Procestechnologie

Date : 5/1/98 Designers : M.G. van den Eijnden J.C. IJsebaert B.R. Regenbogen F.A.M. Wieland

Appendix F.l SPECIFICATION FORM TOWERS

Technische Universiteit Delft FVO nr.: 3206 Vakgroep Chemische Procestechnologie

Date : 5/1/98 Designers : M.G. van den Eijnden J.C. **Dsebaert** B.R. Regenbogen FA.M. Wieland

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Appendix F.1 SPECIFICATION FORM TOWERS

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Date : 5/1/98 Designers : M.G. van den Eijnden J.C. IJsebaert B.R. Regenbogen FA.M. Wieland

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Technische Universiteit Delft Vakgroep Chemische Procestechnologie FVO Nr. : 32 06

Date:5-1-1998 Designers:

M.G. van den Eijnden J.C. IJsebaert B.R. Regenbogen F.A.M. Wieland

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FVO Nr. : 3206

Date:5-1-1998 Designers:

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Date: 5-1-1998 Designers: M.G. van den Eijnden J.C. IJsebaert B.R. Regenbogen F.A.M. Wieland

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Date: 5-1-1998 Designers:

M.G. van den Eijnden J.C. IJsebaert B.R. Regenbogen F.A.M. Wieland

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FVO Nr. : 3206

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FVO Nr. : 3206

Date: 5-1-1998 Designers: M.G. van den Eijnden J.C. IJsebaert B.R. Regenbogen

F.A.M. Wieland

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Appendix F2 Specification forms heat exchangers

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Appendix F2 Specification forms heat exchangers

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Temperature IN Temperature OUT

Pressure Material

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J.C. IJsebaert

B.R. Regenbogen F.A.M. Wieland

[bar]

 \mathfrak{c}° c] $[°c]$ 23 68 230 60

1.3

carbon steel

1.0

Appendix F2 Specification forms heat exchangers

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Date: 5-1-98 Designers: M.G. van den Eijnden J.C. IJsebaert B.R. Regenbogen F.A.M. Wieland

SPECIFICATION FORM PUMP

Appendix G1. Equipment list reactors and distillation columns

Appendix G1. Equipment list reactors and distillation columns

Appendix G2. Equipment list heat exchangers

Appendix G2. Equipment list heat exchangers

Appendix G2. Equipment list for heat exchangers

Appendix G3. Equipment list pumps

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Appendix G3. Equipment list pumps

Appendix H.1: Equipment costs

TOWERS

Punton

Appendix H2. Economic Evaluation Criteria

 (s)

 \overline{a}

b)

Rate of return calculation

 $\mathsf{ROR} = ((\mathsf{F}\text{-}\mathsf{C})/(\mathsf{C}^*\mathsf{G}))^*\mathsf{100\%}$

 $ROR = 63.56%$

Appendix H2. Economie Evaluation Criteria

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NPW and TNPW calculation

Discount rate $r = 0.16$

DCFRR

The DCFRR is the discount rate at which the TNPW at the end of the plant life time equals zero. The value can be found by trial-and -error; varying the value of r. $DCFRR =$ 0.565