

Elements of Chemical Reaction Engineering

SIXTH EDITION

H. Scott Fogler



Elements of Chemical Reaction Engineering

Sixth Edition Global Edition We want to minimize s^2 to give α and k'.

$$s^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} (t_{im} - t_{ic})^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[t_{im} - \frac{0.05^{(1-\alpha)} - C_{Aic}^{(1-\alpha)}}{k'(1-\alpha)} \right]^{2}$$
(7-25)

We shall carry out a first regression to find approximate values of α and k. Next, we use a common procedure, which is to round α off to an integer and then carry out a second regression to find the best value of k after α has been set equal to an integer.

TABLE E7-3.1 RESULTS OF 1ST REGRESSION

POLYMATH Results

Example 7-3.1 Use of Regression to Find Rate Law Parameters 08-05-2004

Nonlinear regression (L-M)

Model: $t = (.05^{(1-a)}-Ca^{(1-a)})/(k^{*}(1-a))$

<u>Variable</u>	Ini guess	Value	95% confidence
a	3	2.04472	0.0317031
k	0.1	0.1467193	0.0164110

Nonlinear regression settings Max # iterations = 64

Precision

R^2 = 0.9999717 R^2adj = 0.999966 Rmsd = 0.2011604 Variance = 0.3965618 Table E7-3.2 Results of 2nd Regression With $\alpha=2$

POLYMATH Results

Example 7-3.2 Use of Regression to Find Rate Law Parameters 08-05-2004

Nonlinear regression (L-M)

Nonlinear regression settings Max # iterations = 64

Precision

R^2 = 0.9998978 R^2adj = 0.9998978 Rmsd = 0.3821581 Variance = 1.1926993

The results shown are

$$\alpha = 2.04$$

$$k' = 0.147 \text{ dm}^3/\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}$$

$$\alpha = 2.0$$

$$k' = 0.125 \text{ dm}^3/\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}$$

The first regression gives α = 2.04, as shown in Table E7-3.1. We shall round off α to make the reaction second order, (i.e., α = 2.00). Now having fixed α at 2.0, we must do *another* regression (cf. Table E7-3.2) on k' because the k' given in Table E.7-3.1 is for α = 2.04. We now regress the equation

$$t = \frac{1}{k'} \left[\frac{1}{C_{A}} - \frac{1}{C_{AO}} \right]$$

The second regression gives $k' = 0.125 \text{ dm}^3/\text{mol} \cdot \text{min}$. We now calculate k

$$k = \frac{k'}{C_{B0}} = \frac{0.125 \, (\text{dm}^3/\text{mol})}{0.5 \, (\text{dm}^3/\text{mol}) \, \text{min}} = 0.25 \left(\frac{\text{dm}^3}{\text{mol}}\right)^2 / \text{min}$$

<u>Analysis:</u> In this example, we showed how to use nonlinear regression to find k' and α . The first regression gave $\alpha = 2.04$, which we rounded to 2.00 and then regressed again for the best value of k' for $\alpha = 2.0$, which was k' = 0.125 (dm³/mol)/min giving a value of the true specific reaction rate of k = 0.25 (dm³/mol)²/min. We note that the reaction order is the same as that in Examples 7-1 and 7-2; however, the value of k is about 8% larger. The r^2 and other statistics can be found in Polymath's output.

7.5.2 Model Discrimination

One can also determine which model or equation best fits the experimental data by comparing the sums of the squares for each model and then choosing the equation with a smaller sum of squares and/or carrying out an F-test. Alternatively, we can compare the residual plots for each model. These plots show the error associated with each data point, and one looks to see whether the error is randomly distributed or whether there is a trend in the error. When the error is randomly distributed, this is an additional indication that the correct rate law has been chosen. An example of model discrimination using nonlinear regression is given in Chapter 10, Example 10-3.

7.6 Reaction-Rate Data from Differential Reactors

Data acquisition using the method of initial rates and a differential reactor is similar in that the rate of reaction is determined for a specified number of predetermined initial or entering reactant concentrations. A differential reactor (PBR) is normally used to determine the rate of reaction as a function of either concentration or partial pressure. It consists of a tube containing a very small amount of catalyst, usually arranged in the form of a thin wafer or disk. A typical arrangement is shown schematically in Figure 7-8. The criterion for a reactor being differential is that the conversion of the reactants in the bed is extremely small, as is the change in temperature and reactant concentration through the bed. As a result, the reactant concentration through the reactor is essentially constant and approximately equal to the inlet concentration. That is, the reactor is considered to be gradientless, 4 and the reaction rate is considered spatially uniform within the bed.

The differential reactor is relatively easy to construct at a low cost. Owing to the low conversion achieved in this reactor, the heat release per unit volume will be small (or can be made small by diluting the bed with inert solids) so that the reactor operates essentially in an isothermal manner. When operating this reactor, precautions must be taken so that the reactant gas or liquid does not bypass or channel through the packed catalyst, but instead flows uniformly across the catalyst. If the catalyst under investigation decays rapidly, as discussed in Chapter 10, the differential reactor is not a good choice because the reaction-rate parameters at the start of a run will be different from those at the end of the run. In some cases, sampling and analysis of the product stream may be difficult for small conversions in multicomponent systems.

Most commonly used catalytic reactor to obtain experimental data

Limitations of the differential reactor



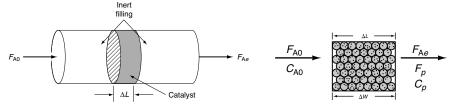


Figure 7-8 Differential reactor.

Figure 7-9 Differential catalyst bed.

⁴ B. Anderson, ed., Experimental Methods in Catalytic Research, San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

For the reaction of species A going to product (P)

$$A \rightarrow P$$

the volumetric flow rate through the catalyst bed is monitored, as are the entering and exiting concentrations (Figure 7-9). Therefore, if the weight of catalyst, ΔW , is known, the rate of reaction per unit mass of catalyst, $-r_A'$, can be calculated. Since the differential reactor is assumed to be *gradientless*, the design equation will be similar to the CSTR design equation. A steady-state mole balance on reactant A gives

$$[F_{A0}] - [F_{Ae}] + \left[\left(\frac{\text{Rate of reaction}}{\text{Mass of catalyst}} \right) (\text{Mass of catalyst}) \right] = 0$$

$$F_{A0} - F_{Ae} + (r'_{A})(\Delta W) = 0$$

The subscript *e* refers to the *exit* of the reactor. Solving for $-r'_A$, we have

$$-r_{\rm A}' = \frac{F_{\rm A0} - F_{\rm Ae}}{\Delta W} \tag{7-26}$$

The mole balance equation can also be written in terms of concentration

Differential reactor design equation

$$-r_{\rm A}' = \frac{v_0 C_{\rm A0} - v C_{\rm Ae}}{\Delta W} \tag{7-27}$$

or in terms of conversion or product flow rate F_P

$$-r_{\rm A}' = \frac{F_{\rm A0}X}{\Delta W} = \frac{F_{\rm P}}{\Delta W} \tag{7-28}$$

The term $F_{A0}X$ gives the rate of formation of product, F_P , when the stoichiometric coefficients of A and of P are identical. Adjustments to Equation (7-28) must be made when this is not the case.

For constant volumetric flow, Equation (7-28) reduces to

$$-r_{A}' = \frac{\nu_{0}(C_{A0} - C_{Ae})}{\Lambda W} = \frac{\nu_{0}C_{P}}{\Lambda W}$$
 (7-29)

Consequently, we see that the reaction rate, $-r'_A$, can be determined by measuring the product concentration, C_P .

By using very little catalyst and large volumetric flow rates, the concentration difference, $(C_{A0} - C_{Ae})$, can be made quite small. The rate of reaction determined from Equation (7-29) can be obtained as a *function* of the reactant concentration in the catalyst bed, C_{Ab}

$$-r_{\rm A}' = -r_{\rm A}'(C_{\rm Ab}) \tag{7-30}$$

by varying the inlet concentration. One approximation of the concentration of A within the bed, C_{Ab} , would be the arithmetic mean of the inlet and outlet concentrations

$$C_{Ab} = \frac{C_{A0} + C_{Ae}}{2} \tag{7-31}$$

However, since very little reaction takes place within the bed, the bed concentration is essentially equal to the inlet concentration

$$C_{Ab} \approx C_{A0}$$

so $-r'_A$ is a function of C_{A0}

$$-r_{\rm A}' = -r_{\rm A}'(C_{\rm A0}) \tag{7-32}$$



As with the method of initial rates (see the CRE Web site, http://www.umich .edu/~elements/6e/software/nonlinear_regression_tutorial.pdf), we find $-r_{A0}$ as a function of C_{A0} and then use various numerical and graphical techniques to determine the appropriate algebraic equation for the rate law. When collecting data for fluid–solid reacting systems, care must be taken that we use high flow rates through the differential reactor and small catalyst particle sizes in order to avoid mass transfer–limitations. If data show the reaction to be first order with a low activation energy, say 8 kcal/mol, one should suspect the data are being collected in the mass transfer–limited regime. We will expand on mass transfer–limitations and how to avoid them in Chapter 10, and also in Chapters 14 and 15.

Example 7-4 Using a Differential Reactor to Obtain Catalytic Rate Data

The formation of methane from carbon monoxide and hydrogen using a nickel catalyst was studied by Pursley.⁵ The reaction

$$3H_2 + CO \rightarrow CH_4 + H_2O$$

was carried out at 500°F in a differential reactor where the effluent concentration of methane was measured. The raw data is shown in Table E7-4.1.

Table E7-4.1 RAW Data

 $C_{\mathrm{CH_4}}(\mathrm{mol}/\mathrm{dm^3})$ P_{CO} (atm) Run $P_{\rm H_2}$ (atm) 1.73×10^{-4} 1 1.0 2 1.8 1.0 4.40×10^{-4} 4.08 1.0 10.0×10^{-4} 1.65×10^{-4} 0.1 1.0 2.47×10^{-4} 1.0 0.5 1.75×10^{-4}

 $P_{\rm H_2}$ is constant in Runs 1, 2, 3. $P_{\rm CO}$ is constant in Runs 4, 5, 6.

⁵ J. A. Pursley, "An investigation of the reaction between carbon monoxide and hydrogen on a nickel catalyst above one atmosphere," Ph.D. thesis, University of Michigan.

The exit volumetric flow rate from a differential packed bed containing 10 g of catalyst was maintained at $S_0 = 300 \text{ dm}^3$ /min for each run. The partial pressures of H_2 and CO were determined at the entrance to the reactor, and the methane concentration was measured at the reactor exit.

Determine the rate law and rate-law parameters. To better understand how we will determine the rate law and its parameters, we will break the solution into three parts, (a), (b), and (c), as shown below.

(a) Relate the rate of reaction to the exit methane concentration. The reaction-rate law is assumed to be the product of a function of the partial pressure of CO, f(CO), and a function of the partial pressure of H₂, g(H₂), that is,

$$r'_{CH_A} = f(CO) \cdot g(H_2)$$
 (E7-4.1)

(b) Determine the rate-law dependence on carbon monoxide, using the data generated in part **(a)**. Assume that the functional dependence of r'_{CH_4} on P_{CO} is of the form

$$r'_{\text{CH}} \sim P_{\text{CO}}^{\alpha}$$
 (E7-4.2)

(c) Generate a table of the reaction rate as a function of partial pressures of carbon monoxide and hydrogen, and then determine the rate-law dependence on H₂.

Solution

(a) Calculate the Rates of Reaction. In this example the product composition, rather than the reactant concentration, is being monitored. The term $(-r'_{CO})$ can be written in terms of the flow rate of methane from the reaction

$$-r'_{\text{CO}} = r'_{\text{CH}_4} = \frac{F_{\text{CH}_4}}{\Delta W}$$

Substituting for F_{CH_4} in terms of the volumetric flow rate and the concentration of methane gives

$$r'_{\text{CH}_4} = \frac{v_0 C_{\text{CH}_4}}{\Delta W}$$
 (E7-4.3)

Since v_0 , C_{CH_4} , and ΔW are known for each run, we can calculate the rate of reaction. For run 1

$$r'_{\text{CH}_4} = \left(\frac{300 \text{ dm}^3}{\text{min}}\right) \frac{1.73 \times 10^{-4}}{10 \text{ g-cat}} \text{ mol/dm}^3 = 5.2 \times 10^{-3} \frac{\text{mol CH}_4}{\text{g-cat} \times \text{min}}$$

The rate for runs 2 through 6 can be calculated in a similar manner (Table E7-4.2).

TABLE E7-4.2 RAW AND CALCULATED DATA

Run	P _{CO} (atm)	P _{H₂} (atm)	$C_{CH_4}(\text{mol/dm}^3)$	$r'_{CH_4} \left(\frac{\text{mol CH}_4}{\text{g-cat} \cdot \text{min}} \right)$
1	1.0	1.0	1.73×10^{-4}	5.2×10^{-3}
2	1.8	1.0	4.40×10^{-4}	13.2×10^{-3}
3	4.08	1.0	10.0×10^{-4}	30.0×10^{-3}
4	1.0	0.1	1.65×10^{-4}	4.95×10^{-3}
5	1.0	0.5	2.47×10^{-4}	7.42×10^{-3}
6	1.0	4.0	1.75×10^{-4}	5.25×10^{-3}

(b) Determining the Rate-Law Dependence in CO. For constant hydrogen concentration (runs 1, 2, and 3), the rate law

$$r'_{CH_4} = k g(P_{H_2}) P_{CO}^{\alpha}$$

can be written as

$$r'_{\text{CH}_4} = k' P_{\text{CO}}^{\alpha} \tag{E7-4.4}$$

Taking the natural log of Equation (E7-4.4) gives us

$$\ln(r'_{CH_4}) = \ln k' + \alpha \ln P_{CO}$$

We now plot $\ln(r'_{CH_4})$ versus $\ln P_{CO}$ using runs 1, 2, and 3, for which the H_2 concentration is constant, in Figure E7-4.1. We see from the Excel plot that $\alpha = 1.22$.

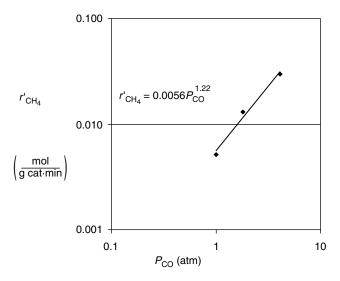


Figure E7-4.1 Reaction rate as a function of concentration.

Had we not been so pressed for time and included more points, we would have found that the reaction is essentially first order with $\alpha = 1$, that is

$$-r'_{CO} = k' P_{CO}$$
 (E7-4.5)

From the first three data points in Table E7-4.2 where the partial pressure of H₂ is constant, we see the rate is linear in partial pressure of CO

$$r'_{\mathrm{CH}_4} = k' P_{\mathrm{CO}} \cdot g(\mathrm{H}_2)$$

Now let's look at the hydrogen dependence.

(c) **Determining the Rate-Law Dependence on H**₂. It will not be intuitively obvious how to do this analysis until you have studied Chapter 10 where we have rate laws with concentrations or partial pressures in both the numerator and denominator of the rate law. From Table E7-4.2 it appears that the dependence of r'_{CH_4} on P_{H_2} cannot be represented by a power law. Comparing run 4 with run 5 and then run 5 with run 6, we see that the reaction rate first increases with increasing partial pressure of hydrogen, and subsequently decreases with increasing $P_{\rm H_2}$. That is, there

If we had used more data (not given here) we would have found $\alpha = 1$.