

UNIT III - THERMAL SYSTEMS

3.1 Stoichiometry

Stoichiometry is the study of the relationship between relative amounts of substances. The formula of a compound provides information about the relative amount of each element

present in either one molecule of the compound or one mole of the compound. For example, one molecule of CaCl_2 contains 1 mol Ca^{2+} ions and 2 mol Cl^- ions.

Stoichiometry can be used to determine the chemical formula of a compound by studying the relative amounts of elements present or can be used to study the relative amount of compounds that are consumed and produced during a chemical reaction

3.2 Efficiency computation of Boilers

Efficiency testing helps us to find out how far the boiler efficiency drifts away from the best efficiency. Any observed abnormal deviations could therefore be investigated to pinpoint the problem area for necessary corrective action. Hence it is necessary to find out the current level of efficiency for performance evaluation, which is a prerequisite for energy conservation action in industry.

Most standards for computation of boiler efficiency, including IS 8753 and BS 845 are designed for spot measurement of boiler efficiency. Basically boiler efficiency can be tested by the following methods:

- 1) **The Direct Method:** Where the energy gain of the working fluid (water and steam) is compared with the energy content of the boiler fuel.
- 2) **The Indirect Method:** Where the efficiency is the difference between the losses and the energy input.

3.2.1 The Direct Method Testing

This is also known as 'input-output method' due to the fact that it needs only the Useful output (steam) and the heat input (i.e. fuel) for evaluating the efficiency. This efficiency can be evaluated using the formula:

$$\text{Boiler Efficiency} = \frac{\text{Heat Output}}{\text{Heat Input}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Boiler Efficiency} = \frac{\text{Steam flow rate} \times (\text{steam enthalpy} - \text{feed water enthalpy})}{\text{Fuel firing rate} \times \text{Gross calorific value}} \times 100$$

Example 3.1

Water consumption and coal consumption were measured in a coal-fired boiler at hourly intervals. Weighed quantities of coal were fed to the boiler during the trial period. Simultaneously water level difference was noted to calculate steam generation during the trial period. Blow down was avoided during the test. The measured data is given below.

Type of boiler: Coal fired Boiler

Heat output data

Quantity of steam generated (output)	: 8 TPH
Steam pressure / temperature	: 10 kg/cm ² (g)/ 180°C
Enthalpy of steam (dry & Saturated) at 10 kg/cm ² (g) pressure	: 665 kCal/kg
Feed water temperature	: 85°C
Enthalpy of feed water	: 85 kCal/kg

Heat input data

Quantity of coal consumed (Input)	: 1.6 TPH
GCV of coal	: 4000 kCal/kg

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Calculation

$$\text{Boiler efficiency } (\eta) = \frac{Q \times (H - h) \times 100}{(q \times \text{GCV})}$$

Where **Q** = Quantity of steam generated per hour (kg/hr)
q = Quantity of fuel used per hour (kg/hr)
GCV = Gross calorific value of the fuel (kCal/kg)
H = Enthalpy of steam (kCal/kg)
h = Enthalpy of feed water (kCal/kg)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Boiler efficiency } (\eta) &= \frac{8 \text{ TPH} \times 1000 \text{ kg/T} \times (665 - 85) \times 100}{1.6 \text{ TPH} \times 1000 \text{ kg/T} \times 4000 \text{ kCal/kg}} \\ &= 72.5\% \end{aligned}$$

3.2.1.1 Merits and Demerits of Direct Method**Merits**

- Plant people can evaluate quickly the efficiency of boilers
- Requires few parameters for computation
- Needs few instruments for monitoring

Demerits

- Does not give clues to the operator as to why efficiency of system is lower
- Does not calculate various losses accountable for various efficiency levels
- Evaporation ratio and efficiency may mislead, if the steam is highly wet due to water carryover

3.3 Energy Conservation Opportunities in Boilers**1. Stack Temperature**

The stack temperature (Temperature used to remove water vapor in the exhaust condenses on the stack walls) should be as low as possible. An estimated 1% efficiency loss occurs with every 22°C increase in stack temperature.

2. Feed Water Preheating using Economizer

Feed Water Preheating using economizer would reduce the exit temperature to 65°C,

thereby increasing thermal efficiency by 5%.

3. Combustion Air Preheat

Combustion air preheating is an alternative to feed water pre-heating. In order to improve thermal efficiency by 1%, the combustion air temperature must be raised by 20 °C using pre-heater.

4. Incomplete Combustion

Incomplete combustion can arise from a shortage of air or surplus of fuel or poor distribution of fuel. It is usually obvious from the colour or smoke, and must be corrected immediately.

5. Excess Air Control

Controlling excess air to an optimum level always results in reduction in flue gas losses; for every 1% reduction in excess air there is approximately 0.6% rise in efficiency.

6. Radiation and Convection Heat Loss

Repairing or augmenting insulation can reduce heat loss through boiler walls and piping.

7. Automatic Blowdown Control

Uncontrolled continuous blow down is very wasteful. Automatic blow down control can be installed that sense and respond to boiler water conductivity and pH. A 10% blowdown in a 15 kg/cm² boiler results in 3% efficiency loss.

8. Reduction of Scaling and Soot Losses

In oil and coal-fired boilers, soot buildup on tubes acts as an insulator against heat transfer. Any such deposits should be removed on a regular basis. It is estimated that 3 mm of soot can cause an increase in fuel consumption by 2.5% due to increased flue gas temperatures. Periodic off-line cleaning of radiant furnace surfaces, boiler tube banks, economizers and air heaters may be necessary to remove stubborn deposits.

9. Variable Speed Control for Fans, Blowers and Pumps

The possibility of replacing the dampers by a VSD should be improve the system efficiency.

10. Effect of Boiler Loading on Efficiency

The maximum efficiency of the boiler does not occur at full load, but at about two-thirds of the full load.

12. Proper Boiler Scheduling

Operate a few number of boilers at higher loads, than to operate a large number at low loads.

13. Boiler Replacement

The potential savings from replacing a boiler depend on the anticipated change in overall efficiency. A change in a boiler can be financially attractive if the existing boiler is:

- old and inefficient
- not capable of firing cheaper substitution fuel
- over or under-sized for present requirements
- not designed for ideal loading conditions

3.4 Efficiency computation of Furnaces

A furnace is an equipment to melt metals for casting or heat materials for change of shape (rolling, forging etc) or change of properties (heat treatment).

The efficiency of furnace can be judged by measuring the amount of fuel needed per unit weight of material.

$$\text{Thermal efficiency of the furnace} = \frac{\text{Heat in the stock}}{\text{Heat in the fuel consumed for heating the stock}}$$

The quantity of heat to be imparted (Q) to the stock can be found from

$$Q = m \times C_p (t_1 - t_2)$$

Where

Q = Quantity of heat of stock in Cal

m = Weight of the stock in kg

C_p = Mean specific heat of stock in

kCal/kg $^{\circ}$ C t_1 = Final temperature of stock desired, $^{\circ}$

C

t_2 = Initial temperature of the stock before it enters the furnace, $^{\circ}$ C

Example 3.2

An oil-fired reheating furnace has an operating temperature of around 1340 $^{\circ}$ C. Average fuel consumption is 400 litres/hour. The flue gas exit temperature is 750 $^{\circ}$ C after air pre-heater. Air is preheated from ambient temperature of 40 $^{\circ}$ C to 190 $^{\circ}$ C through an air pre-heater. The furnace has 460 mm thick wall (x) on the billet extraction outlet side, which is 1 m high (D) and 1 m wide. The other data are as given below. Find out the efficiency of the furnace by direct method.

Exit flue gas temperature =

750 $^{\circ}$ C Ambient temperature =

40 $^{\circ}$ C Preheated air temperature =

190 $^{\circ}$ C Specific gravity of oil = 0.92

Average fuel oil consumption = 400 Litres/hr
 = $400 \times 0.92 = 368$ kg/hr

Calorific value of oil = 10000

kCal/kg Average O₂ percentage in flue gas =

12% Weight of stock =

6000 kg/hr Specific heat of Billet = 0.12 kCal/kg $^{\circ}$ C

Average surface temperature of heating + soaking zone = 122 $^{\circ}$ C

Average surface temperature of area other than heating and soaking zone = 80

$^{\circ}$ C Area of heating + soaking zone = 70.18 m²

Area other than heating and soaking zone = 12.6 m²

Solution:

Heat input = 400 litres/hr

=

368 kg/hr Heat output

= $m \times C_p \times \Delta T$

= $6000 \text{ kg} \times 0.12 \times (1340 - 40)$

= 936000 kCal

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Efficiency} &= 936000 \times 100 / (368 \times 10000) \\ &= 25.43\% \\ &= 25\% \text{ (app)} \\ \text{Losses} &= 75\% \text{ (app)} \end{aligned}$$

3.5 Energy Conservation measures in Furnaces

- 1) Complete combustion with minimum excess air
- 2) Correct heat distribution
- 3) Operate furnace at the desired temperature
- 4) Reduce heat losses from furnace openings
- 5) Maintain correct amount of furnace draught
- 6) Optimum capacity utilization of furnace will give maximum thermal efficiency
- 7) Waste heat recovery from the flue gases improve system efficiency
- 8) Minimum refractory losses

The appropriate choice of refractory and insulation materials goes a long way in achieving fairly high fuel savings in industrial furnaces.

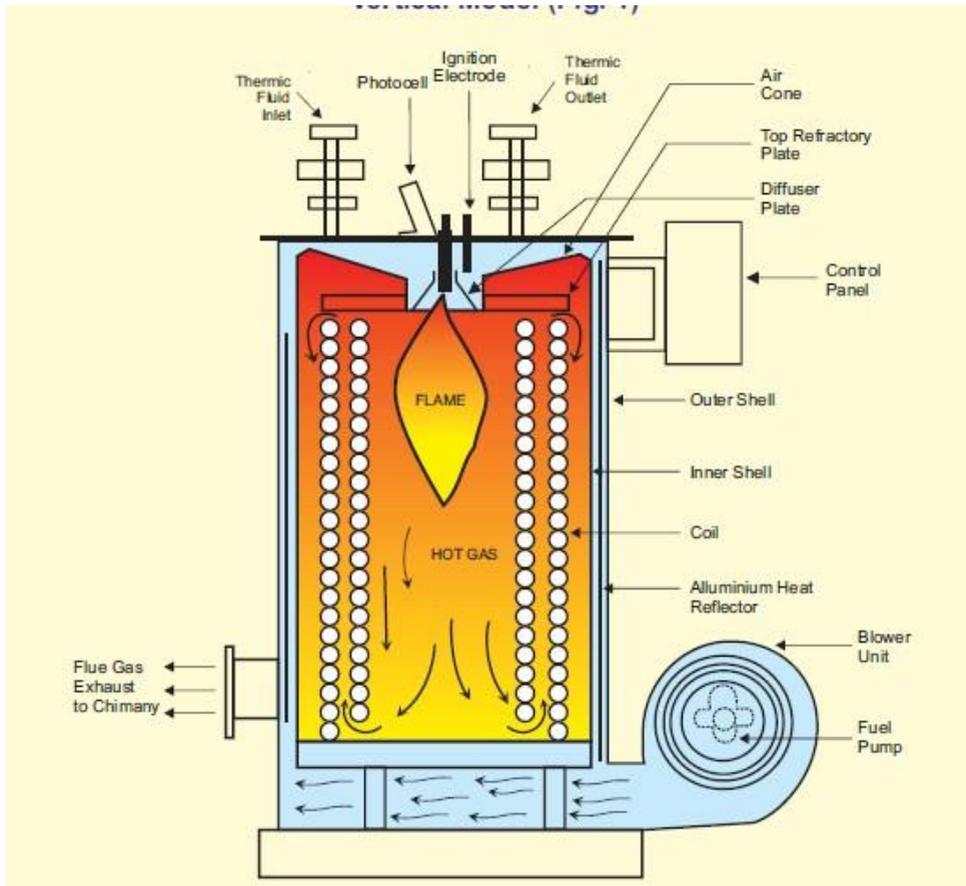
- 9) Use of Ceramic Coatings in furnace chamber promotes rapid and efficient transfer of heat, thereby extending life of refractories.

3.6 Thermic Fluid Heaters

Thermic Fluid is used as a heat transfer mechanism in some industrial processes and heating applications. Thermic Fluid may be a vegetable or mineral based oil and the oil may be raised to a high temperature without the need for any pressurization. The relatively high flow and return temperatures may limit the potential for flue gas heat recovery unless some other system can absorb this heat usefully. Careful design and selection is required to achieve best energy efficiency.

Thermic fluid heaters are used just to heat the water, not necessarily producing steam. Water is heated by passing hot thermic fluid in tubes submerged in water. This

arrangement is similar to the fire-tube boiler.



The combustion air enters through the fan inlet, travels upwards through the space between the inner shell & the outer shell, gets pre-heated & enters the top mounted burner. Hot flue gases travel down the full length of the vessel creating the first (radiant) pass. The flue gases then travel upwards through the space between the inner coil & the outer coil creating the second (convection) pass. The third (convection) pass is downwards through the space between the outer coil & the inner shell to the flue gas outlet.

3.7 Steam: Concept, Properties & Usage

Steam has been a popular mode of conveying energy since the industrial revolution. Steam is used for generating power and also used in process industries such as

sugar,paper,fertilizer,refineries,petrochemicals,chemical,food,syntheticfiberandtextiles.

Thefollowingcharacteristicsofsteammakeitsopopularandusefultotheindustry:

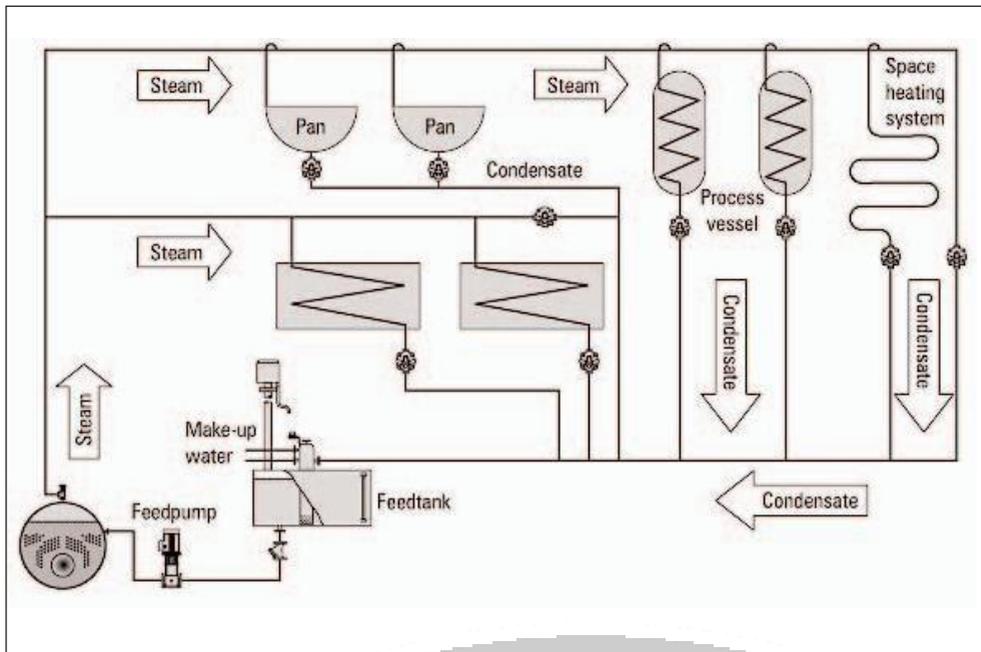
- Highestspecificheat andlatentheat
- Highestheattransfercoefficient
- Easytocontrolanddistribute
- Cheapandinert

Water can exist in the form of solid (ice), liquid (water) and gas (steam) respectively.If heat energy is added to water, its temperature rises until a value is reached at which thewater can no longer exist as a liquid. We call this the "saturation" point and with anyfurther of energy, some of the water will boil off as steam. This evaporationrequires relatively large amounts of energy, and while it is being added, the water and thesteam released are both at the same temperature. Equally, if steam is made to releasetheenergy that was added to evaporate it, then the steam will condense and water at sametemperature willbeformed.

3.8 SteamDistribution

The steam distribution system is the essential link between the steam generator andthe steam user. Whatever the source, an efficient steam distribution system is essential ifsteam of the right quality and pressure is to be supplied, in the right quantity, to the steamsing equipment. Installation and maintenance of the steam system are important issues,andmustbe consideredatthe designstage.

Figure 3.2SteamDistributionSystem



As steam condenses in a process, flow is induced in the supply pipe. Condensate has a very small volume compared to the steam, and this causes a pressure drop, which causes the steam to flow through the pipes. The steam generated in the boiler must be conveyed through pipe work to the point where its heat energy is required. Initially there will be one or more main pipes, or 'steam mains', which carry steam from the boiler in the general direction of the steam using plant. Smaller branch pipes can then carry the steam to the individual pieces of equipment. A typical steam distribution system is shown in Figure 3.2.

3.9 Steam Traps

The purpose of installing the steam traps is to obtain fast heating of the product and equipment by keeping the steam lines and equipment free of condensate, air and non-condensable gases. A steam trap is a valve device that discharges condensate and air from the line or piece of equipment without discharging the steam.

The three important functions of steam traps are:

- To discharge condensate as soon as it is formed.
- Not to allow steam to escape.

- To be capable of discharging air and other incondensable gases.

3.9.1 Types of Steam Traps

There are three basic types of steam traps into which all variations fall, all three are classified by International Standard ISO 6704:1982.

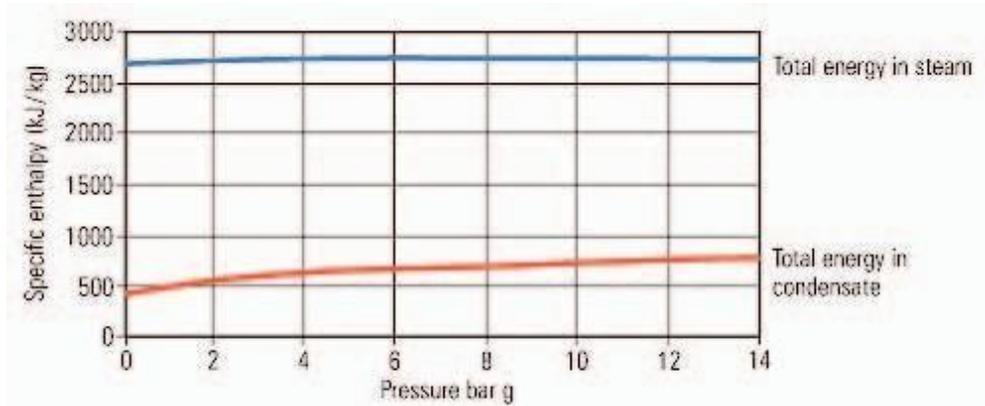
Thermostatic (operated by changes in fluid temperature) - The temperature of saturated steam is determined by its pressure. In the steam space, steam gives up its enthalpy of evaporation (heat), producing condensate at steam temperature. As a result of any further heat loss, the temperature of the condensate will fall. A thermostatic trap will pass condensate when this lower temperature is sensed. As steam reaches the trap, the temperature increases and the trap closes.

Mechanical (operated by changes in fluid density) - This range of steam traps operates by sensing the difference in density between steam and condensate. These steam traps include 'ball float traps' and 'inverted bucket traps'. In the 'ball float trap', the ball rises in the presence of condensate, opening a valve which passes the denser condensate. With the 'inverted bucket trap', the inverted bucket floats when steam reaches the trap and rises to shut the valve. Both are essentially 'mechanical' in their method of operation.

Thermodynamic (operated by changes in fluid dynamics) - Thermodynamic steam traps rely partly on the formation of flash steam from condensate. This group includes 'thermodynamic', 'disc', 'impulse' and 'labyrinth' steam traps.

3.10 Condensate Recovery

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Figure 3.3 Heat Content of Steam and Condensate at the Same Pressure

The steam condenses after giving off its latent heat in the heating coil or the jacket of the process equipment. A sizable portion (about 25%) of the total heat in the steam leaves the process equipment as hot water. Figure 3.3 compares the amount of energy in a kilogram of steam and condensate at the same pressure. The percentage of energy in condensate to that in steam can vary from 18% at 1 bar g to 30% at 14 bar g; clearly the liquid condensate is worth reclaiming. If this water is returned to the boiler house, it will reduce the fuel requirements of the boiler. For every 60°C rise in the feed water temperature, there will be approximately 1% saving of fuel in the boiler.

3.10.1 Benefits of Condensate Recovery

- Water charges are reduced.
- Effluent charges and possible cooling costs are reduced.
- Fuel costs are reduced.
- ★ More steam can be produced from the boiler.
- Boiler blowdown is reduced - less energy is lost from the boiler.
- Chemical treatment of raw make-up water is reduced.

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3.11 Flash Steam Recovery

Flash steam is produced when condensate at a high pressure is released to a lower pressure and can be used for low pressure heating.

The higher the steam pressure and lower the flash steam pressure the greater the quantity of flash steam that can be generated. In many cases, flash steam from high pressure equipments is made use of directly on the low pressure equipments to reduce use of steam through pressure reducing valves.

The flash steam quantity can be calculated by the following formula with the help of steam table:

$$\text{Flash steam available \%} = (S_1 - S_2) / L_2$$

Where: S_1 is the sensible heat of higher pressure condensate.

S_2 is the sensible heat of the steam at lower pressure (at which it has been flashed). L_2 is the latent heat of flash steam (at lower pressure).

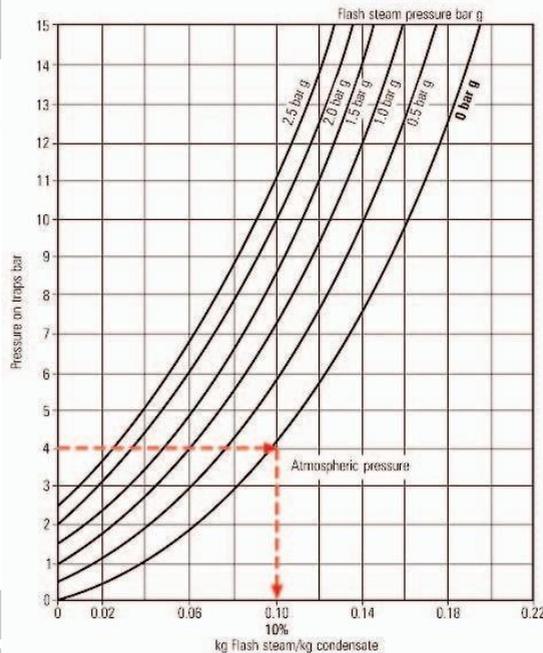


Figure 3.4 Quantity of Flash Steam Graph

Flash steam can be used on low pressure applications like direct injection and can replace an equal quantity of live steam that would be otherwise required. The demand for flash steam should exceed its supply, so that there is no build up of pressure in the flash vessel and the consequent loss of steam through the safety valve. Generally, the simplest method of using flash steam is to flash from a machine/equipment at a higher pressure to a machine/equipment at a lower pressure, thereby augmenting steam supply to the low pressure equipment.

In general, a flash system should run at the lowest possible pressure so that the maximum amount of flash is available and the back pressure on the high pressure systems is kept as low as possible.

Flash steam from the condensate can be separated in an equipment called the 'flash vessel'. This is a vertical vessel as shown in the Figure 3.5. The diameter of the vessel is such that a considerable drop in velocity allows the condensate to fall to the bottom of the vessel from where it is drained out by a steam trap preferably a float trap. Flash steam itself rises to leave the vessel at the top. The height of the vessel should be sufficient enough to avoid water being carried over in the flash steam.

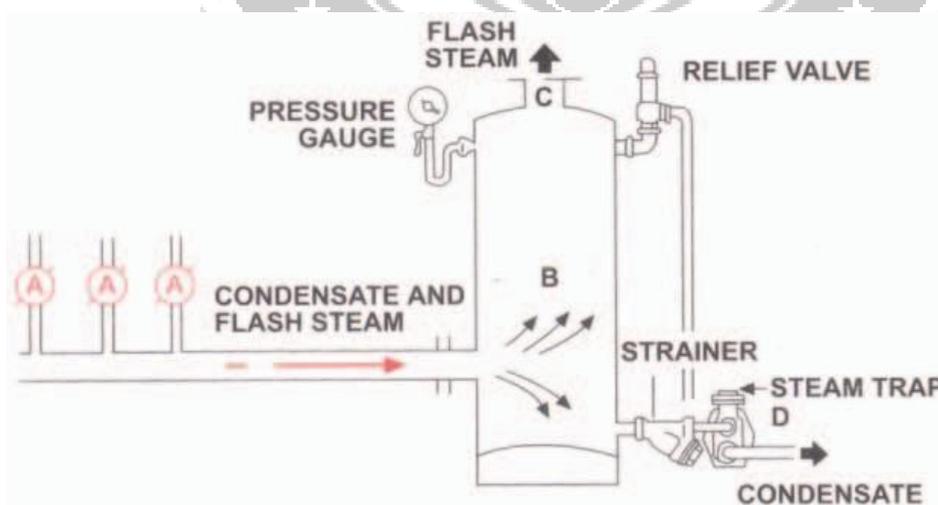


Figure 3.5 Flash Steam Recovery

The condensate from the traps (A) along with some flash steam generated passes through vessel (B). The flash steam is let out through (C) and the residual condensate from (B) goes out through the steam trap (D). The flash vessel is usually fitted with a 'pressure gauge' to know the quality of flash steam leaving the vessel. A 'safety valve' is also provided to vent out the steam in case of high pressure buildup in the vessel.

