Analysis and Design of Advanced Energy Systems: Computer-Aided Analysis and Design

edited by M. J. MORAN R. A. BAJURA G. TSATSARONIS



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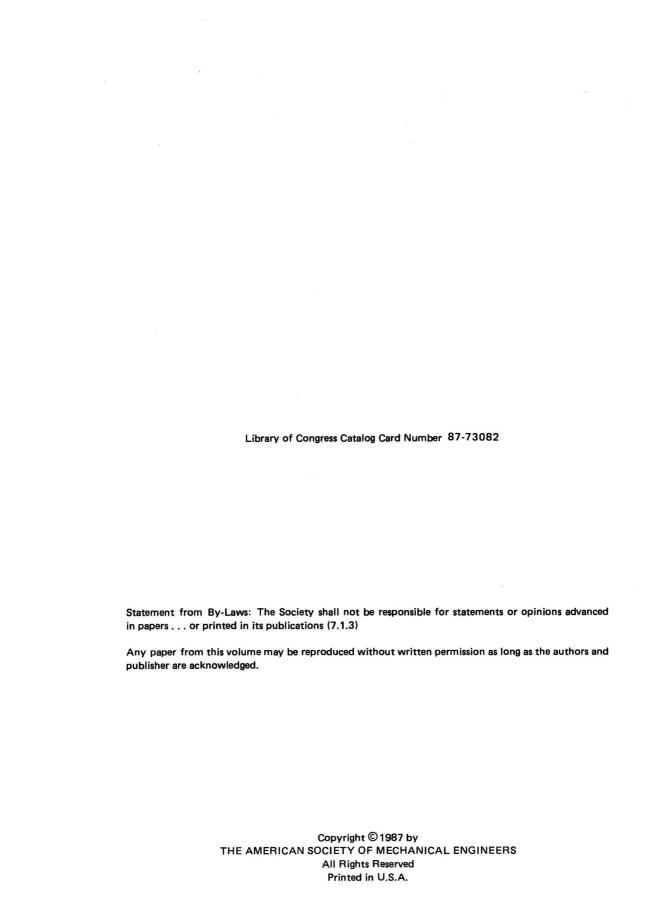
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FOREWORD

The goal of effective energy resource utilization underlies the need for steady improvement in thermal energy systems. To this end, thermodynamic analysis is particularly relevant, especially when aided by modern optimization and computational techniques and integrated with economic considerations encountered in engineering practice. These topics provided focal points for the *Symposium on the Analysis and Design of Advanced Energy Systems* held at the 1987 ASME Winter Annual Meeting under the auspices of the System Analysis Committee of the Advanced Energy Systems Division. This volume, titled *Computer-Aided Analysis and Design* is one of three comprising papers presented at the symposium. The other two volumes are titled, respectively, *Fundamentals* and *Applications*. The division of the papers presented at the symposium into these three categories is only approximate, for several papers might appear with equal justification under more than one of the headings.

The present symposium is but one of a series of recent or planned conferences in the general area of thermal systems analysis and design sponsored by the ASME Advanced Energy Systems Division. Readers interested in the work of a related symposium held in Rome in May 1987 should see *The Proceedings of the IV International Symposium On The Second Law Analysis of Thermal Systems*, Enrico Sciubba and Michael J. Moran co-editors (published by ASME with the identifying code 100236).

The present three volumes, together with the Proceedings of the IV International Symposium mark high water levels both for activity worldwide in thermal system analysis and design and for ASME's leadership in this field. Future symposia will build on the unprecedented activity realized in 1987, and may be expected to draw additional workers into the field while spurring the interests of those presently active.

The assistance of those individuals who reviewed articles is sincerely appreciated. In addition, the following deserve thanks for helping to chair the symposium sessions: Enrico Sciubba and William Wepfer. Finally, our greatest thanks are owed to the many individuals whose toil and technical expertise is exhibited in the papers of this volume.

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CONTENTS

Computer-Aided Optimization for Large-Size Steam Turbine Power Plants: Theory and Application	
S. S. Stecco, G. Bidini, and R. Milloni	1
Computer Simulation With Experimental Validation of Heat and Mass Transfer in Humidification Processes	
D. A. Kouremenos, K. A. Antonopoulos, and J. G. Koulias	7
Modeling the Off-Design Performance of Power Plants for Systems Studies — Issues and Methodologies	
M. R. Erbes and J. N. Phillips	15
Knowledge-Based Approach to Automated Design of Thermal Energy Systems	
A. S. Kott, J. H. May, and C. C. Hwang	23
A Fast Algorithm for Isentropic and Isenthalpic Changes in the Properties of Steam	
D. A. Kouremenos and A. M. Lappas	33
Modelling of a Magma Energy Geothermal Power Plant	
R. F. Boehm, D. L. Berg, Jr. and A. Ortega	37
The Phased Construction Operation of Integrated Coal Gasification Combined-Cycle Power Plants	
M. R. Erbes, J. N. Phillips, and R. H. Eustis	45
Second Law Analysis of Diesel Engine Combustion	
J. H. Van Gerpen and H. N. Shapiro	53
Thermodynamic Analysis of Direct Injection Diesel Engines by Multi-Zone Modelling	
D. A. Kouremenos, C. D. Rakopoulos, and E. Karvounis	67
Aero-Derived Reheat Gas Turbines With Steam Injection Into the Afterburner	
G. Cerri and E. Sciubba	79

COMPUTER-AIDED OPTIMIZATION FOR LARGE-SIZE STEAM TURBINE POWER PLANTS: THEORY AND APPLICATION

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ABSTRACT

A computer-aided optimization process for large-size steam-turbine plants has been developed and tested. Using the proposed numerical method, improvement of overall plant performance is achieved through optimization of extractions. A case in point is an operating 660-MW plant where improved efficiency signifies savings of approximately 1500 kW in fuel.

NOMENCLATURE

```
= Enthalpy
M, M1, M2 = Flows
         = Number of extractions (n = n' + n")
n
         = Regeneration factor
         = Enthalpy of the steam extracted
h<sub>sj</sub>
        downstream of heat exchanger j (j = 1, n)
<sup>h</sup>с ј
         = Enthalpy of the main condensate
        downstream of heat exchanger j (j = 1, n)
         = Enthalpy of the steam extracted
h j
        upstream of heat exchanger j (j = 1, n)
Wu
         = Specific work
         = Efficiency
η
```

Subscripts

```
1, 1a, 2, 2a, 3, 3a, 3b, 4, 4a = Point in the heat
    cycle (Figure 3)
o = Turbine inlet extraction
j = Heat exchanger index
```

USING COMPUTER-AIDED PROCESSES TO OPTIMIZE STEAM POWER PLANTS

While the large-size steam-turbine power plant undeniably represents a fully mature technology, research on plant optimization is still receiving considerable attention at major Western European research centers. The common objective of this intense ongoing research effort is optimization of the advanced

fossile fuel plants developed in the various nations two-shifting steam in Great Britian, combined gas-steam in Italy and West Germany, both types in Switzerland [1, 2, 3], with there being considerable room for improvement in conventional steam plants as well.

In the proposed optimization process, a numerical model utilizing special steam libraries has been devised to provide immediate calculation verification [4] and to analyze actual plant performance at contract point under specified conditions [5]. The model, herein applied at design to improve overall plant performance through extraction optimization, is applicable at both the design and operating stages. (The underlying principles of a related optimization process are detailed in [6].) It should be noted that even a tiny (i.e., one or two points per thousand) modification to stated values is significant: In fact, in a plant generating 660 MW - perhaps the most widespread size in Western Europe - one point per thousand corresponds to 660 kW!

Proper application of the process is related to three fundamental conditions:

- Simplicity of modeling. Care should be exercised to ensure good correspondence between the modeled and actual plants.
- Calculation speed. Speed is, of course, related to available computer power.
- 3. Flexibility of the model. This feature is imperative since steam plants differ considerably in terms of maximum pressures, number of heat exchangers, and pump solutions (layout, etc.).

NUMERICAL FEATURES IN SIMULATING STEAM PROPERTIES

In analyzing the exergy balance of a steam-turbine power plant, the thermophysical properties of the steam are computed with the special steam library presented in [4]. These properties may be expressed by internationally-used equations in which the T-S chart is divided into four subregions:

Region 1: Compressed and saturated liquid from 0 to 350 C delineated by the lower limit curve and the 100 MPa isobar.

Region 2: Saturated and superheated steam excluding the area around the critical point.

Region 3: Critical point and surrounding area.

Region 4: Compressed and saturated liquid from 350 °C to critical temperature.

Other equations are necessary in order to define the saturation line and the line which divides the approximately isentropic second and third regions originating on the saturation line at 350°C. If the so-called "direct variables" (i.e., those other than temperature and pressure) are known, they can be iteratively used to determine the so-called "indirect variables" (i.e., the temperature and pressure values from which the other steam properties are derived). In the indirect variables, Regions 1 and 4 cover compressed liquids, with Regions 2 and 3 covering superheated steam. In this case, the area outside the limit curve is divided into only two regions, compressed liquids and superheated steam, by specific iterative techniques.

DESIGN CHARACTERISTICS OF THE POWER PLANT

The fundamental input design data are:

- Maximum cycle temperature and pressure.
- Superheating temperature and pressure.
- Turbomachine efficiencies.
- Deaerator pressure.
- Number of extractions present.

(Parameters of lesser importance have been omitted.)

The aim of the proposed calculation program is to perform a comparative analysis of the influence exerted on performance by varying one of the fundamental parameters within a range of significant and technically viable variations. However, certain aspects such as steam leakages, steam control labyrinths, bypass seals, etc. can be ignored at the design stage: As these do not affect selection, calculation of their effects can be left to the final verification stage once optimum conditions have been determined.

OPTIMIZING EXTRACTION PRESSURES

A typical steam plant with reheating is schematically illustrated in Figure 1; the same plant without reheating is shown simplified according to [6] in Figure 2. A description of the simplified plant's main features and how they were selected is detailed in [7], with the plant's heat cycle in Figure 3. In the simplified plant, there are 1 + M' + M' extractions mass flows, the first one at deaerator pressure Pd, with M' corresponding to low-pressure extractions and M' to high-pressure extractions. All extractions are routed to mixing surface heat exchangers.

It is commonly known that the cycle's regeneration

It is commonly known that the cycle's regeneration factor may be defined as

$$R = (h_3 - h_1)/(h_2 - h_3)$$
 (1)

and its relative thermodynamic efficiency as

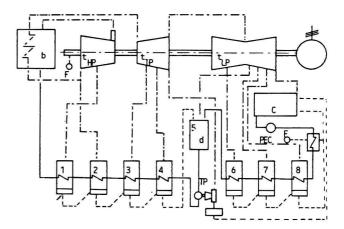


Figure 1 - A typical plant schematic

t = turbine; b = steam generator; d = deaerator; c = condenser

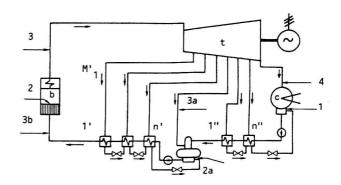


Figure 2 - Power plant without reheating

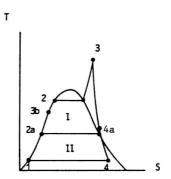


Figure 3 - Thermal cycle of plant presented in Fig 2

$$\gamma = 1 - \frac{(h_4 - h_1)}{(h_3 - h_{3b})(1 + \sum_{j=1}^{n} j^{M} j' + M_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{n} j^{M} j'')}$$
(2)

The optimization criterion is based upon an important characteristic, i.e., that the optimum system having n

extractions possesses the same efficiency as a complete regeneration plant with n + 1 extractions.

As explained in [6], the plant in Figure 1 can be modeled as in Figure 4, where the deaerator is replaced by condenser equivalent S. Note that division into a double-loop system presents notable advantages in terms of calculation time.

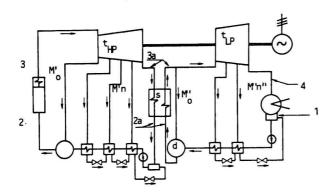


Figure 4 - Simplified schematic of "equivalent" power plant steam circuit

Efficiencies of the two cycles determined by this method can be written

$$\gamma_{I} = 1 - \frac{(h_{4a} - h_{1a}) M1}{(h_{3} - h_{2}) M2}$$
(3)

where

$$M1 = (1 + M_0" + \sum_{j=1}^{n} M_j")$$

$$M2 = (1 + M_0" + \sum_{j=1}^{n} M_j" + M_0" + \sum_{j=1}^{n} M_j")$$

Observing the schematic representation of the double loop in Figure 5, it is obvious that optimization consists of rendering maximum the function

$$F = 1 + M_0 + \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} j M_j$$
 (5)

Passing from Equation (5) to (6), which entails thermal balancing of the heat exchangers, the optimization process is conducted to determine the term

$$F = \frac{(1 + \frac{h_2 - h_{c1}}{h_0 - h_{s0}}) \cdot (1 + \frac{h_1 - h_{sn}}{h_n - h_{sn}})}{1 + (h_{cn} - h_{sn})/(h_n - h_{sn}) - G}$$
(6)

where

$$G = \sum_{j=1}^{m-1} {}_{j} [(h_{c j} - h_{c j+1})/(h_{j} - h_{s j})]$$

$$\prod_{j=1}^{m-1} {}_{j} [1 - (h_{s p} - h_{s p+1})/(h_{p+1} - h_{s p+1})]$$
 (7)

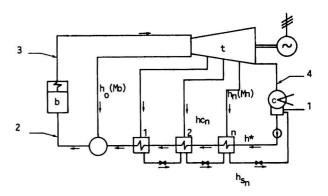


Figure 5 - Typical subsystem

Details on the numerical aspects of the solution herein omitted for the sake of brevity are given in [6].

APPLICATIONS AND FINAL COMMENTS

Verification of the model was achieved through testing of a 660-MW plant operated by ENEL, Italy's electric authority. Design plant efficiency with actual extraction pressures is, referring to the cycle and neglecting electrical generator,

$$\eta = 44.26\%$$

Proceeding according to the proposed optimization criteria yields

$$\gamma = 44.36\%$$

with an increase of approximately 0.1%. For a 660-MW plant this corresponds to actual fuel savings of approximately 1500~kW.

Examination of the results reveals that the accuracy of the method for determining maximum cycle efficiency is on the order of 1 %.. This error means that optimum pressure evaluations differ in relation to the pressure-related efficiency variation - which can be considerable when the curve is flat. In the case being examined, the maximum efficiency (44.44 %) is obtained at 12 MPa for an extraction pressure at the inlet of the high-pressure heat exchanger, rather than the 15 MPa prescribed in the codes (Fig. 6).

It should be pointed out that there was significant room for improvement using the proposed model - despite the fact that we are dealing with a recently-designed and -built plant. Yet, the advantages are even greater if the optimization is implemented during the design selection stage when it is possible to weigh the consequences deriving from alternative plant solutions such as:

- 1. Supression or retention of an extraction(s).
- 2. Differences in extraction layouts.
- 3. Differences in pressure levels.

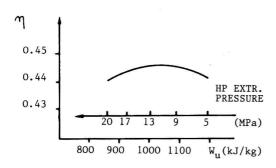


Figure 6

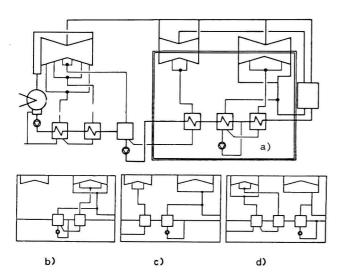


Figure 7 - Schematic of various solutions.

Of these, acting on the number of extractions was felt to be the most viable approach. Hence, in the plant schematically illustrated in Figure 7, four possibilities were examined:

Condition a: Optimal reference conditions.

Conditionb: Elimination of the medium-pressure extraction.

Condition c: Elimination of the first high-pressure extraction.

Condition d: Elimination of the first high-pressure extraction with doubling of the medium-pressure extraction.

The results plotted in Tables 1 and 2 speak for themselves: Elimination or repositioning of extractions have very different effects, which can be faced successfully by means of the described optimization procedure.

The proposed optimization process, applicable to a wide range of actual design conditions, provides solutions which significantly improve overall plant efficiency.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Contribution of MPI funding is gratefully acknowledged

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TABLE 1

EXTR. No.	COND. (Fig.7)	M FEEDRATE	h KJ/KG	p MPa	°C
1	a b c d	.3490 .3504 -	3138. 3138. -	12.06 12.06 -	325. 325. -
2	a b c	.1600 .2703 .1634 .1329	2926. 2926. 2926. 2926.	3.977 3.977 3.977 3.977	250. 250. 250. 250.
3	a b c d1 d2	.0967 - .0981 .0747	3236. - 3238. 3296. 3153.	1.344 - 1.350 1.685 .966	193. - 194. 204. 178.
4	a b c d	.0807 .0811 .0811 .0811	2976. 2976. 2976. 2976.	.438 .438 .438 .438	147. 147. 147. 147.
5	a b c	.0722 .0717 .0717 .0717	2762. 2762. 2762. 2762.	.140 .140 .140 .140	109. 109. 109. 109.
6	a b c d	.0706 .0706 .0706 .0706	2568. 2568. 2568. 2568.	.036 .036 .036	74. 74. 74. 74.

TABLE 2

CONDITIONS (Fig.7)	EFFICIENCY
a	47.67 %
b	46.39 %
c	46.41 %
d	46.65 %

COMPUTER SIMULATION WITH EXPERIMENTAL VALIDATION OF HEAT AND MASS TRANSFER IN HUMIDIFICATION PROCESSES

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ABSTRACT

A computer algorithm has been developed for the simulation of heat and mass transfer in humidification processes. The algorithm is based on a finite-difference solution of the momentum, heat and mass transfer differential equations and of the continuity equation, supplemented with the $k-\epsilon$ turbulence model in the case of turbulent flow. Experimental validation of the procedure is made in the case of a counter current annular air-water two-phase flow in a circular vertical tube. Measurements have been made of the velocity and of the dry and wet bulb temperatures in various axial and radial positions within the tube. The parameters influencing the process are numerous, including the water and air Reynolds numbers, the water film thickness, the water and air inlet temperatures, the inlet humidity of the air and the corresponding inlet velocity profile. Comparison of the experimental values with the calculated ones show that the simulation method developed in reliable.

1. INTRODUCTION

Heat and mass transfer in humidification processes is of interest in various engineering applications. This study presents a computer simulation of heat and mass transfer in the case of an air-water, annular two-phase, counter-flow within a vertical tube. As shown in Figure 1, the water flows downwards in the form of an annular thin film in the interior surface of the tube, while the air is forced upwards. The main parameters influencing this humidification process are the water and air Reynolds numbers, the water film thickness, the water and air inlet temperatures, the inlet humidity of the air and the corresponding inlet velocity profile.

The computer algorithm developed solves the momentum, energy and mass transfer differential equations together with the continuity equation by use of existing finite-difference techniques and provides the complete fields of velocity, temperature and concentration of water vapor within the air, the total pressure drop and the total evaporated mass of water. In the case of turbulent flow, the algorithm makes use of the k- ϵ turbulence model [1] . The choise of the two-equa-

tion k- ϵ turbulence model is based on the fact that zero and one-equation models require a length scale distribution to be prescribed and this is not always feasible. On the other hand, the use of higher level models requiring much more equations and computing time, whose performance is not in every case clearly established, could not be justified in the flow case examined. The use of the k- ϵ model implies that the more reliable predictions are to be expected at the higher Reynolds numbers.

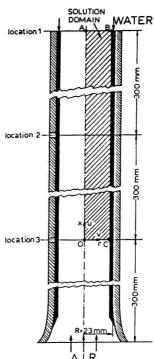


Fig.1. Test tube and solution domain.

The water film flows downwards
while the air is forced upwards.

For validating the algorithm developed, experiments have been performed. The measurements include the values of velocity and wet and dry bulb temperatures at various locations within the vertical tube (Fig.1), the water film thickness, the total evaporated mass of water and the total pressure drop of air flow. The measurements agree well with the corresponding calculated values.

One of the purposes for developing the present computer algorithm is to produce the data needed for constructing general correlations describing humidification processes of this kind. Such a correlation (based at present only on the measurements) which links the total evaporated mass of water to the main parameters of the humidification process, is presented.

2. EXPERIMENTS

2.1 Experimental apparatus

Measurements have been performed by employing the experimental apparatus shown schematically in Figure 2. The main part of the apparatus is the test tube 11 where the air and water film flow occurs. The tube is in vertical position, it is made from plexiglas with a wider lower end, thus facilitating the air inflow and water outflow. The internal diameter of the measurement tube is 46 mm, its lenth is 900 mm and it has apertures at appropriate locations on its surface for performing velocity and temperature measurements inside the tube. The flow of the air is developed within a 2100 mm long tube (item 7 in Figure 2), which comes before the test tube 11.

- 1. Variable Transformer
- 2. Fan
- 3. Air flow-meter
- 4. Air mixing box
- 5. Light
- 6. Inflow air thermometer
- 7. Entrance section
- 8. Adjustment system
- 9. Water receiving box
- 10.Water temperature measuring aperture
- 11.Test tube
- 12.Aperture for measuring wet bulb temperature
- 13.Aperture for measuring dry bulb temperature
- 14.Aperture for measuring velocity and pressure
- 15.Water inlet box
- 16.Water flow smoothering filters
- 17.Cylindrical mesh
- 18.Flexible air outlet duct
- 19.Water flow-meter
- 20. Thermostatic water tank and pump
- 21.Precision scales
- 22.Digital thermometer
- 23.Oblique tube pressure gauge and Prandtl tube
- 24.Piezoelectric manometer
- 25.Water supply regulating valve
- 26.Filter
- 27. Water regulating valve
- 28.Voltage stabilizer
- 29.Fan
- 30.Thermostat checking thermometer
 - Fig. 2. Schematic representation of the experimental apparatus.

2.2 Main parameters

The measurements have been performed for four different values of the three main parameters, \dot{V}_a , \dot{V}_w , t_w , defining the problem, i.e.

Air flow rate : \dot{V}_a = 10.0, 15.0, 25.0, 35.0 m $^3/h$ Water flow rate : \dot{V}_w = 54.3, 93.2, 152.8,192.6 1t/h Water temperature : t_w = 25.0, 30.0, 35.0, 40.0 $^{\circ}$ C

Therefore, the total number of cases examined is 4x4x4=64, as shown in Table 1. The corresponding values Re_a and Re_w of the air and water Reynolds numbers are shown in the same Table.

Low water Reynolds numbers had to be employed in order to avoid formation of water ripples, as the intention here is to examine the humidification process without the uncertainty introduced in both the measurements and the numerical calculations by the formation of ripples. Low Reynolds numbers have practical applications in analogous phenomena as for example in the evaporation of NH3 in NH3-H2 atmosphere employed in neutral gas absorption refrigeration units. Also, analogous situations may be found in applications concerning rectification or gas absorption columns encountered in the chemical industry.

Table 1. Cases examined and main parameters

case	Ů _₩	l v _a	tw	₩.	m₀ from	error	Re _w	Rea
	lt/h	m ³ /h	°C	gr/h	eq.(1)	Δħ _W (%)		į.
14074567890110745678901107456789010789010789011074567890107456789010745678901074	๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛๛		0.000000000000000000000000000000000000	00000000000000000000000000000000000000	######################################	טמין משי בלמתי לימי לימילי כילול מבילי מממש בלי לממטי להיסי בסימים בלבלבל למסים בין ממסים בלילים מסיל בנילים מ מיחין משי בלמתי לימי לימילים להיסי שני בלי ביסימים בלילים מחלי להיסיב בסיסים מימיב ביסים מיליבי בילים מסים במי בינים במידי מיחים בנותים בים בשבינותים שביבי ביסימים שביבי במילים מימיבים מימים בלבל בלבל מימיבים מימים בלבל מ	151515150505022222222255555555555555555	4415611-001-00-00-00-00-00-00-00-00-00-00-00-

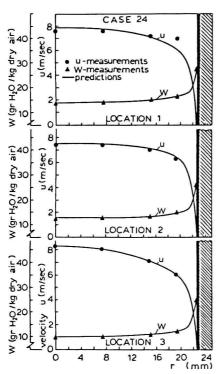


Fig.3. Measurements and numerical predictions of axial velocity and humidity ratio for case 24 (\dot{V}_a = 35 m³/h, \dot{V}_w = 93.2 lt/h, t_w = 30°C).

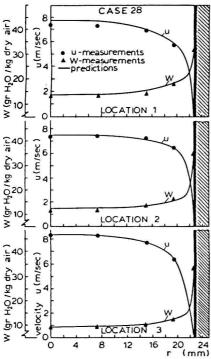


Fig.4. Measurements and numerical predictions of axial velocity and humidity ratio for case 28 (\dot{V}_a = 35 m³/h, \dot{V}_w = 93.2 lt/h, t_w = 35°C).

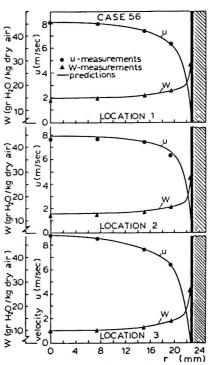


Fig.5. Measurements and numerical predictions of axial velocity and humidity ratio for case 56 (\dot{V}_a = 35 m³/h, \dot{V}_w = 192.6 lt/h, t_w = 30°C).

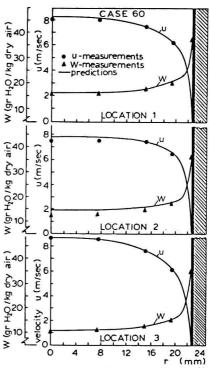


Fig.6. Measurements and numerical predictions of axial velocity and humidity ratio for case 60 (\dot{V}_a = 35 m³/h, $\dot{V}_{\overline{W}}$ = 192.6 lt/h, t_W = 35°C).

2.3 Velocity measurements

For each one of the 64 cases of Table 1, the axial velocity u of air has been measured, by employing a 3 mm Prandtl tube, at the radial positions r=0, $r=P_c/3$, r=2R/3 and $r=r_{max}$ of the sections 1,2 and 3 (Figure 1). Symbol r_{max} denotes the position nearest to the water, at which measurements can be performed without the water affecting the measuring device. Examples of the measured values are shown in Figures 3 to 6, which relate to cases 24, 28, 56 and 60 respectively. In the same Figures, numerical predictions are also shown, which will be discussed later.

2.4 Temperature measurements

The local dry and wet bulb temperatures of the air have been measured by employing two thermocouples at the same positions as for the velocity. Special care has been taken for avoiding effects of conduction errors and, owing to the small temperature differences and to the surrounding cylindrical water film and tube, effects of radiation were practically absent. The thermocouple for the measurement of the dry bulb temperature was always dry because of the air flow, while the one for the measurement of the wet bulb temperature was kept wet by using a small piece of cotton continously supplied with distilled water.

The measurements have been performed for each one of the cases of Table 1. The humidity ratio W (kg water vapor/kg dry air) has been determined from the measured values of the dry and wet bulb temperatures by using the psychrometric chart. Figures 3 to 6 show examples of the humidity ratio distribution corresponding to cases 24, 28, 56 and 60.

2.5. Measurement of the evaporated mass of water

One of the most important quantities in the process examined is the total evaporated mass of water, $\dot{m}_{W}(gr/h)$. This has been determined by weighing the water on its way in and out of the measurement tube, for each one of the 64 cases considered.

From the practical point of view, it is very usefull to be able to predict the final result of the humidification process, i.e. the total evaporated mass of water, \dot{m}_W , in terms of the parameters \dot{V}_a , \dot{V}_w and t_w . For this purpose, the following correlation has been developed by least square fitting to the 64 measured values of \dot{m}_w :

$$\frac{\dot{\bar{m}}_{w}}{\dot{\bar{m}}_{wo}} = \frac{t_{w}}{t_{wo}} \left[-0.23 - 0.1953 \quad \frac{\dot{v}_{a}}{\dot{v}_{ao}} + (0.6719 + 0.656 \quad \frac{\dot{v}_{a}}{\dot{v}_{ao}}) \frac{t_{w}}{t_{wo}} \right] \\
\left[1 + \left(\frac{\dot{v}_{w}}{\dot{v}_{wo}} - 1 \right) (0.056 + 0.016 (2.7 - \frac{\dot{v}_{ao}}{\dot{v}_{ao}})^{2}) \right] \tag{1}$$

where the normalizing values \dot{m}_{WO} = 80 gr/h, \dot{V}_{ao} =10m³/h, \dot{V}_{WO} = 54.3 lt/h, t_{WO} = 25°C correspond to case 1. The success of the approximation is shown in Table 1, which displays the measured values of \dot{m}_{W} and the calculated ones from equation (1) as well as the relative error between them.

The evaporated mass of water increases considerably with increasing air flow rate or increasing water temperature and to a much lesser extent with increasing water flow rate. Figure 7 shows the variation of $\dot{\text{m}}_{\text{W}}$ in terms of t_{W} with \dot{V}_{W} as a parameter, in the case of \dot{V}_{a} = $10\text{m}^3/\text{h}$, while Figures 8,9 and 10 present analogous results for \dot{V}_{a} = 15, 25 and 35 m $^3/\text{h}$ respectively. All Figures show the measured values as well as the calculated ones by use of correlation (1).

2.6 Measurement of water film thickness and air total pressure drop

The mean thickness of the water film has been mea-

sured by use of an electric contact micrometer for various values of the water Reynolds number. The results are shown in Figure 11.

The total pressure drop between sections 1 and 3 (Figure 1) has been measured for each one of the 64 cases, by use of two Prandtl tubes located at the axis of the test tube.

The parameters affecting the accuracy of the measurements are numerous. Care has been taken for the uniformity of the water film thickness and for the smoothness of film free surface. The test tube was placed with precision to vertical position and the water

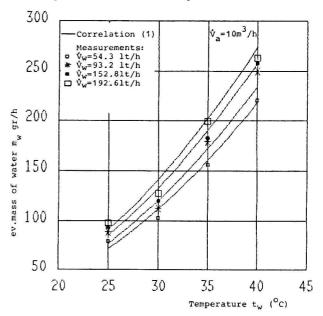


Fig.7. Total evaporated mass of water in terms of the water temperature, for air flow rate $10\ m^3/h\,.$

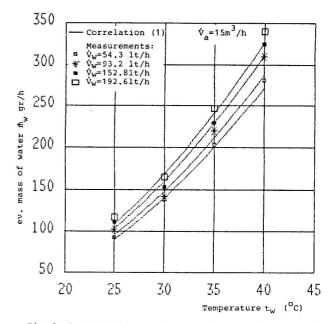


Fig.8. Total evaporated mass of water in terms of the water temperature, for air flow rate $15~{\rm m}^3/{\rm h}$.

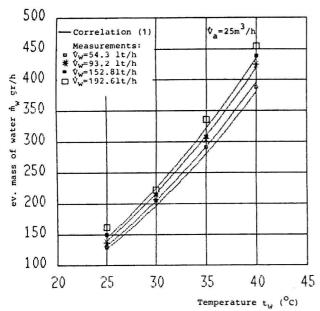


Fig.9. Total evaporated mass of water in terms of the water temperature, for air flow rate 25 $\rm m^3/h$.

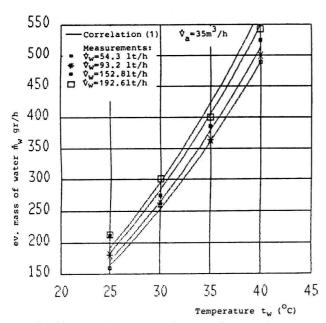


Fig.10. Total evaporated mass of water in terms of the water temperature, for air flow rate 35 $\rm m^3/h.$

and air were suitably incoming into the test tube as shown in Figure 2. Also, the ambient temperature and humidity ratio were kept constant with corresponding flactuations $\pm 0.5^{\circ}$ C and ± 0.3 gr water vapor/kg dry air. Estimation of all kinds of uncertainties introduced, suggested an error of the measurements less than 5%.

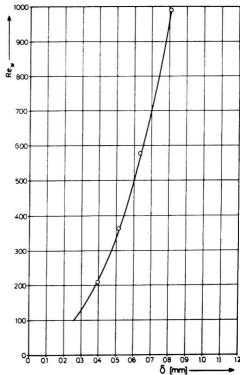


Fig.11. Measured thickness of the water film in terms of the water Reynolds number.

3.COMPUTER SIMULATION

3.1 Governing differential equations

The transport equations governing steady, two-dimensional, incompressible, viscous flow with simultaneous heat and mass transfer, may be written in terms of cylindrical polar coordinates x,r within the solution domain OABC (Figure 1) in the following common form:

$$\frac{1}{r} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\rho u r \Phi) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (\rho v r \Phi) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (r \Gamma_{\Phi, eff} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial x}) - \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial r} (r \Gamma_{\Phi, eff} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial r}) \right] = S_{\Phi}$$
(2)

where the general dependent variable Φ may stand for any of the following (see Table 2): the velocity component u in the axial direction x; the velocity component v in the radial direction r; the temperature T; the partial pressure of the water vapor p_w ; the kinetic energy of turbulence k and the volumetric rate of dissipation of kinetic energy of turbulence ϵ . The quantities k and ϵ pertain to the turbulence model employed to simulate turbulence transport effects, details of which may be found in [1]. The terms Γ_{Φ} ,eff and S_{Φ} stand for the "effective exchange coefficient" and for the "source" of property Φ , respectively, and take the values shown in Table 2. For Φ = 1, Γ_{Φ} ,eff = 0 and S_{Φ} = 0, the general transport equation (2) reduces to the continuity equation.

Symbols μ , $\Pr(\equiv \mu \; c_p/k)$ and $Sch \; (\equiv \mu/\rho D)$, appearing in Table 2, stand for the molecular viscosity, Prandtl and Schmidt numbers, respectively, while μ_t , \Pr_t and Sch_t are the corresponding turbulent properties taken, according to the turbulence model employed, as

$$\mu_{t} = 0.09 \rho k^{2}/\epsilon \tag{3}$$

$$Pr_{t} = Sch_{t} = 1 \tag{4}$$

Quantities σ_k and σ_ϵ are turbulent Prandtl numbers for the transport of k and ϵ and are taken equal to 1 and 1.22 respectively. The expression for the term G, which stands for the generation of turbulence kinetic energy, may be found in [2]. Lastly, the symbol p, in the table, denotes the local pressure.

Table 2. Values of the variable Φ and of the terms $\Gamma_{\Phi,\text{eff}}$

Transport equation	Φ	Γ _Φ ,eff	s _Ф
x-momentum	u	μ+μ _t	− 3p
r-momentum	v	μ+μ _t	$(\mu + \mu_t) \frac{v}{r^2} - \frac{\partial p}{\partial r}$
energy	т	$\frac{\mu}{Pr} + \frac{\mu_t}{Pr_t}$	0
mass	P _w	$\frac{\mu}{\text{Sch}} + \frac{\mu_{t}}{\text{Sch}_{t}}$	0
turbulence kinetic energy	k	$\frac{\mu^{+\mu}t}{\sigma_k}$	G-pe
dissipation of turbulence kinetic energy	ε	μ+μ _t σ _ε	1.44G $\frac{\varepsilon}{k}$ -1.92p $\frac{\varepsilon^2}{k}$
continuity	1	0	0

3.2 Properties of the wet air

The molecular viscosity μ of the wet air is calculated with good accuracy for T ${\mbox{\Large \buildrel C}}$ 310 K, from the dry air relation [3]:

$$\mu = 145.8 \times 10^{-8} \frac{T^{3/2}}{T + 110.4} \text{ (kg/m sec)}$$
 (5)

In the pressure and temperature ranges considered, the density ρ of the wet air can be evaluated from the ideal gas relation [4]: $\rho = \frac{1+W}{R_a + WR_W} - \frac{p}{T} \tag{6}$

$$\rho = \frac{1+W}{R_a + WR_w} - \frac{p}{T} \tag{6}$$

where $\rm R_a\,(=\,287~J/kg~K)$ and $\rm R_W\,(=\,462~J/kg~K)$ are the constants of the air and of the water vapor, respectively. The humidity ratio W is linked to the partial

pressure of water vapor,
$$p_w$$
, via relation [4]:
 $W = 0.62198 \frac{p_w}{p-p_w}$ (7)

The molecular diffusion coefficient D of the water vapor in solution in the air is calculated from relation $\cite{[5]}$:

$$D = 2.305 \times 10^{-5} \frac{1.0133}{p} \left(\frac{T}{273}\right)^{1.81} (m^2/sec)$$
 (8)

where p in bar and T in K.

3.3 Boundary treatment and solution procedure

In the present simulation, equation (2) for Φ = u,v,T,p_W,k,ϵ , 1 is solved by a finite-difference procedure outlined later, within domain OABC (Figure 1). The interface between the wet air and the water film (boundary CB) is treated as a wall moving downwards with velocity equal to the mean velocity of the water. The radial velocity v is taken equal to zero on this boundary, while the temperature, T, and the partial pressure of water vapor, pw, along the tube are prescribed analytically as:

$$(T)_{CB} = a_t x^2 + b_t x + c_t$$
 (9)

$$(p_w)_{CB} = a_p x^2 + b_p x + c_p$$
 (10)

where the coefficients a,b,c have been calculated by least square fitting of the above 2nd order polynomials to the saturation T and $p_{\rm W}$ values on the film surface at locations 1,2 and 3 (Figure 1), which are known from the experiments. For imposing the boundary conditions for $\textbf{u}, \textbf{v}, \textbf{T}, \textbf{p}_{\textbf{W}}$ and the ones for k and ϵ along the "wall" boundary CB, the "Wall Function" treatment has been adopted details of which may be found in [2].

Analytical functions describing the variations of u,T and p_{W} in terms of the radial coordinate r, have been employed along the inlet boundary OC. These functions have been derived by curve fitting to the available measurements along boundary OC. The radial velocity on boundary OC has been taken v = 0 and the distributions of k and ϵ are approximately those corresponding to fully-developed turbulent flow (of appropriate turbulence level) in a straight duct of circular cross-section.

At outflow boundary AB only the distribution of the normal velocity u has to be specified. It is calculated during the numerical solution procedure by adding to the adjacent interior nodal values an increment such that the overall continuity is maintained.

Lastly, on the symmetry axis OA, the velocity component normal to the axis is zero as are the normal gradients of all other variables.

The methodology of the TEACH series of computer programs [6] has been employed for solving differential equation (2) for $\Phi = u, v, T, p_w, k, \varepsilon, 1$. A computational grid of coordinate lines is generated within the solution domain and the differential equations are integrated over the control volumes of this grid to yieldfinite-difference equations of the form:

$$A_{\mathbf{p}} \Phi_{\mathbf{p}} = \sum_{\mathbf{n}} A_{\mathbf{n}} \Phi_{\mathbf{n}} + S \tag{11}$$

$$n = N, S, E, W$$

where the coefficients A express the combined effects of convection and diffusion as described in [7]. The summation is over the neighbours N,S,E,W of the typical node P of the grid. The solution of the resulting difference equations is performed by use of the SIMPLE algorithm [8].

3.4 Results

The computer simulation outlined above has been tested succesfully in the cases of Table 1 for isothermal flow, i.e. equation (2) for Φ = T has not been solved, for the reasons explained below:

The properties affected by the temperature (which in extreme cases varies from $T_{\mbox{\scriptsize air}}$ = $25^{\circ}\mbox{C}$ to $T_{\mbox{\scriptsize water}}$ = $40^{\circ}\mbox{C})$ are the molecular viscosity μ and the molecular difffusion coefficient D, according to equations (5) and (8) respectively, and the density ρ of the wet air, according to equation(6). Because of the turbulence, the "effective" viscosity and the "effective" diffusion coefficient are much greater than the corresponding molecular values and therefore the influence of the temperature becomes negligible. The temperature, in the extreme case of T_{air} = 25°C, T_{water} = 40°C, causes a 5% increase of the air density only very near the water film. As shown by the present predictions, this increase causes only 1% maximum change in the velocity and humidity fields, because most part of the air is retained to $25^{\rm O}C$ - $27^{\rm O}C$ apart from a thin layer near the water where the temperature reaches 40°C. Because of the small influence of the temperature (i.e. less than 1%),