DESIGN AND SIMULATION OF HIGH PRESSURE (HP) UREA SYNTHESIS LOOP



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2024

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A THESIS

Submitted to

National University of Sciences and Technology

in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of

B.E. CHEMICAL ENGINEERING

School of Chemical and Materials Engineering (SCME) National University of Sciences and Technology (NUST)

June, 2024

CERTIFICATE

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DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to Allah Almighty for providing direction, strength, and intelligence; to our parents for their unwavering support and encouragement; and to our friends, without whose moral support, this would not have been possible.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Thank you, **Almighty Allah**, for His innumerable blessings and for providing us with the patience, strength, and drive to complete this project successfully.

A modest thank you to members of our faculty who have assisted us in some way with our issues.

We are really grateful to our supervisors, Dr. Muhammad Ahsan Khan and Dr.

Nouman Ahmed, for their outstanding assistance with the technical aspects of the projects and for their guidance in solving many issues.

We would especially like to thank **Dr. Waheed Miran** for his assistance with various areas of our study.

Lastly, we would especially like to thank our parents and friends for supporting us throughout these trying times.

ABSTRACT

This thesis explores the design and simulation of a High-Pressure Urea Synthesis Loop employing the Stamicarbon Process. The report commences with a meticulous selection of technology through an extensive literature review, covering fundamental aspects of Urea synthesis and comparing available technologies, specifically Stamicarbon and Snamprogetti. The rationale behind choosing the Stamicarbon process is established, laying the foundation for the planned investigation and future project direction. The thesis outlines a comprehensive process flow diagram, detailing Urea production within the High-Pressure Loop. Key raw materials, including Ammonia and CO2, form the basis of the process, with additional components such as Water/Steam and Air also the part of the process. Detailed specifications of the critical equipment within the High-Pressure Loop are provided including, including the HP Reactor, HP Carbamate Condenser, HP Scrubber, and HP Stripper. Material and energy balances were carefully examined across the equipment. The High Pressure Urea synthesis loop is also simulated with the use of Aspen Plus. There was a strong emphasis on improving the economic aspects of this procedure. Designing and simulating a high pressure Urea synthesis loop requires selecting the optimal configuration and operating parameters to reduce overall annual costs.

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NOMENCLATURE

NH3	Ammonia
C02	Carbon Dioxide
H ₂ NCONH ₂	Urea
NH4CO2NH2	Ammonium Carbamte
02	Oxygen
N2	Nitrogen
H20	Water
МР	Medium Pressure
LP	Low Pressure
Ср	Specific Heat Capacity
V	Volume
F _{Ao}	Molar Flow
C _{Ao}	Initial Concentration
τ	Space Time
X _A	Conversion
r _A	Reaction Rate
R	Universal Gas Constant
LMTD	Log Mean Temperature Difference
Pr	Prandtl Number
F _P	Packing Factor

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Project Description:

This thesis focuses on the design and simulation of a high-pressure urea synthesis loop using the Stamicarbon Process. In order to make urea synthesis more practical and feasible on an industrial scale, the initiative intends to take advantage of existing high-pressure infrastructure. Every piece of equipment has its design specifications completed, and the outcomes are displayed through simulations created with ASPEN Plus. Finally, the Economic Analysis and the HAZOP Analysis for the full section are completed efficiently.

1.2 Application of Urea in Industry:

Urea is a versatile compound with widespread applications across industries. In agriculture, it serves as a crucial component in fertilizers, promoting plant growth. The chemical industry utilizes urea in resins, plastics, and adhesives. Urea finds use in textile processing, pharmaceuticals, cosmetics, and as a food additive. Its role extends to de-icing agents, cleaning products, and water treatment. In laboratories, urea acts as a reagent, highlighting its diverse applications in addressing agricultural, industrial, and scientific needs, underlining its significance in various sectors. To sum up following are the uses of Urea in industries:



Figure 1: Structure of Urea

- Around 90% of the urea produced worldwide is intended for use as fertilizer.
- Specifically, formaldehyde resin, or urea, is a raw ingredient used in the production of plastics.
- A starting point for the production of several adhesives, such as ureaformaldehyde or urea-melamine-formaldehyde, the latter of which is waterproof and utilized to make marine plywood.
- A flame-proofing substance (such as urea potassium bicarbonate, which is frequently used in dry chemical fire extinguishers).
- Used in cold compressors for first aid due to its endothermic reaction with water.
- Cloud seeding agents and salts speed up the condensation of water in clouds, resulting in precipitation.
- Feedstock for ammonia's hydrolysis, which lowers emissions from combustion engines and power stations

1.3 Importance of High Pressure (HP) Synthesis Loop:

The High-Pressure (HP) urea synthesis loop holds significant importance in urea production, and is a critical section or the following reasons:

- Efficiency: The HP urea synthesis loop operates at elevated pressures and temperatures, typically ranging from 150 to 160 bar (2175 to 2320 psi) for pressure and 180 to 220 °C. These conditions crucial for promoting the urea synthesis reaction, as it helps to increase the equilibrium conversion of ammonia and carbon dioxide to urea. Higher pressures favor the formation of urea, leading to improved efficiency in the production process.
- **Yield:** The increased pressure in the HP urea synthesis loop enhances the yield of urea by driving the equilibrium of the reaction towards the formation of urea. This results in higher production rates and greater output of urea from the process.

- **Optimization:** The HP urea synthesis loop allows for the optimization of reaction conditions, such as temperature, pressure, and catalyst performance, to achieve the desired levels of urea production. Fine-tuning these parameters within the high-pressure environment helps to maximize the efficiency and yield of the urea synthesis process.
- Economic Viability: Operating at high pressure can be economically advantageous for urea production. While the equipment and infrastructure required for high-pressure operations may involve higher initial costs, the increased efficiency and yield achieved in the HP urea synthesis loop can lead to overall cost savings overall, thus also minimizing the need for extensive equipment modifications.



Figure 2: Process Flow Diagram

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Urea

Urea is an organic substance having the chemical formula (CO(NH2)2). The molecule consists of two functional groups connected by a carbonyl (C=O) functional group. Urea, scientifically known as Carbonyl diamide, is made of 45% nitrogen, 20% carbon, 26% oxygen, and 9% hydrogen. It is the most nitrogenous fertilizer in general usage, making it the favored nitrogen fertilizer worldwide. It is utilized in adhesives, formaldehyde solid liquid fertilizers. resins, and and Urea was initially found in urine by Roulle in 1773. His discovery was succeeded by Whler's 1828 synthesis of urea from ammonia and cyanic acid, the first known synthesis of an organic chemical from an inorganic one. Bassarow conducted the first synthesis of urea by dehydration in 1870 by heating ammonium carbamate in a sealed tube. Globally, urea production is massive, with about 150 × 106 tons produced annually in 2010. Currently, the only industrial processes used to generate urea use NH₃ and CO₂ as the basic materials.

2.2 Physical Properties:

Urea is a white odorless solid. Due to extensive hydrogen bonding with water (up to six hydrogen bonds may form – two from the oxygen atom and one from each hydrogen) Urea is very soluble.



Figure 3: Urea

Property	Range		
Cas Number	57-13-6		
Molecular Weight	60.07		
Melting Point (°C)	132.7		
Boiling Point (°C)	135		
Density (gm/cm ³), solid	1.335		
Bulk density (gm/cm ³)	0.74		
Viscosity, v ²⁰ (mPa.sec)	1.9		
Heat of fusion (J/gm)	251		
Heat of solution in water (J/gm)	243		
Specific heat, S° (KJ/kg.°C)	1.439		
Specific gravity (gm/cc)	1.335		
Vapor pressure (Pa)	<10		
	108 (20°C)		
Solubility in water (g/100ml)	167(40°C)		
	251 (60°C)		
	400 (80°C)		
	733(100°C)		

Table 1: Physical Properties of Urea

2.3 Chemical Properties:

- When urea reaches its melting point and atmospheric pressure, it breaks down into ammonia, biuret, ammelide, and triuret.
- Urea combines with acids to generate salts by acting as a monobasic. Like when nitric acid is used to create urea nitrate CO(NH₂)₂.HNO₃.
- Urea interacts with NOx in the gas phase at 800-1150 °C and liquid phase at lower temperatures, producing N₂, CO₂, and H₂O.
- In an acidic environment, urea and formaldehyde react to produce methylene urea and its derivatives (such as trimethylene and dimethylene).
- If urea is diluted with acids, alkalis, or water vapor above 150°C, it will react similarly to amides.

$$\mathbf{NH_2CONH_2 + H_2O \rightarrow 2NH_3 + CO_2}$$

(Urea)

2.4 Environmental Effect:

One of the most significant factors in increasing agricultural productivity has been the use of chemical fertilizers; nevertheless, the breakdown of nitrogen fertilizers into nitrates, which are easily absorbed by the soil, has led to the release of ammonia, CO2, and urea into the atmosphere. in addition to their emissions to air and water, because it is soluble in water and can linger in groundwater for a considerable amount of time. Acid rain, contaminated groundwater, and ozone depletion are all caused by urea because the denitrification process releases nitrous oxide. Generally, there are four types of emissions estimating techniques (ETTs) that can be used to estimate emissions from the plant.

. The four types are:

- 1. Sampling or direct measurement
- 2. Mass balance
- 3. Fuel analysis or other engineering calculations
- 4. Emission factor

2.4.1 Elimination Methods:

Presently plants are equipped with the following features to keep the effluent and Emissions at extremely low levels:

- 1. N/C ratio meter
- 2. Waste water treatment section
- 3. Special operational facilities

N/C ratio meter in the synthesis section:

Instead of a spectrometer in the gas phase of the synthesis section, nitrogen/carbon (N/C) ratio meters are fitted in the liquid phase (reactor liquid outlet) of the urea synthesis section. With the help of this N/C ratio meter, the process may always be

run at the ideal ratio to increase both reactor and energy efficiency. Utilizing certain protocols, emissions are removed upon startup.

Waste water treatment section:

Ammonia, carbon dioxide, and urea are removed from the condensate during the water treatment process. Usually, this water is released from the plant's urea concentration and evaporation portion. It might be challenging to eliminate ammonia and urea from wastewater when they are present because of this. The hydrolysis of urea to ammonium carbamate, which breaks down to NH₃ and CO₂, is one way to solve this issue. These gasses can then be eliminated from the wastewater. Depending on the necessary quality, this recovered water can be utilized for several purposes, including cooling water, etc.

2.5 Urea Production Methods:

The production of urea involves multiple steps. To get high efficiency, some of them use traditional methods, while others use contemporary ones. These processes offered several similar benefits and drawbacks in terms of investment costs, upkeep costs, energy costs, productivity, and product quality. Here are a few of the commonly used urea production methods.

2.5.1 Haber-Bosch Process:

This is the initial step in urea production. Nitrogen gas (N_2) is reacted with hydrogen gas (H_2) using an iron-based catalyst at elevated temperature and pressure to produce ammonia

$$3N_2 + 3H_2 \rightarrow 2NH_3$$

2.5.2 Once-Through Urea Process:

It is a traditional method in which the unconverted carbamate (an intermediate component in the urea manufacturing process) is degraded to NH₃ and CO₂ by heating the urea synthesis reactant effluent mixture under low pressure. After being extracted from the urea solution, the NH₃ and CO₂ are absorbed to create ammonium salts.



Figure 4: Typical Once-through Urea Process

2.5.3 Partial Recycle Process:

The Partial Recycle Process optimizes urea production by efficiently recycling unreacted ammonia and carbon dioxide. Initially, ammonia is synthesized through the Haber-Bosch process, usually derived from nitrogen and hydrogen. Carbon dioxide, obtained from diverse sources like industrial processes or combustion, is purified for use in urea synthesis. In the urea reactor, ammonia and carbon dioxide undergo a high-pressure, high-temperature reaction, often catalyzed, to form ammonium carbamate, which decomposes into urea. Partial recycling comes into play by reintroducing a portion of unreacted ammonia, carbon dioxide, and some urea back into the reactor, ensuring favorable reaction conditions for improved efficiency and yield. After separation and purification, where liquid urea is separated from gases, the recycled gases, along with unreacted ones, are compressed and returned to the reactor. This method enhances resource utilization, reaction kinetics, and energy efficiency, resulting in elevated production efficiency and reduced costs.



Figure 5: Typical Partial Recycle Process

2.5.4 Stripping Process Based Plants (Internal Carbamate recycle):

Instead of allowing the reactor effluent to drop to a significantly lower Pressure, gaseous CO₂ or NH₃ is used to remove the unreacted carbamate and excess ammonia from the urea Synthesis reactor effluent at the reactor pressure. Condensed and fed back into the reactor by gravity flow, the recovered NH₃ and CO₂ gas is recovered at reactor pressure.

2.5.4.1 Snamprogetti Process:

Urea Synthesis with Desorption:

The Snamprogetti process involves urea synthesis followed by a desorption step to remove excess ammonia. This method aims to improve urea concentration and purity. After the urea synthesis, the solution contains excess ammonia. During the desorption step, by incorporating a high pressure, excess ammonia is removed from the urea solution. This is typically done by applying heat, causing ammonia to be released from the solution. In both the Stamicarbon and Snamprogetti processes, Urea synthesis occurs in two steps. Following are the two reactions for the formation of Urea:

1. $2NH_3 + CO_2 \rightleftharpoons NH_2COONH_4$ 2. $2NH_3 + CO_2 \rightarrow NH_2CONH_2 + H_2O$



Figure 6: Snamprogetti Process Flow Diagram

2.5.4.2 Stamicarbon CO2 Stripping Process:

In this process, ammonia is reacted with carbon dioxide and the reaction produces urea and water. Developed by Stamicarbon, a Dutch company specializing in fertilizer technology, this process offers certain features that make it efficient and well-suited for large-scale urea production. One of those features is that the synthesis reaction takes place under high pressure and temperature conditions. The elevated pressure helps improve the conversion of ammonia and carbon dioxide into urea. The product of the synthesis reaction is typically a concentrated urea solution. Water is added to this solution to dissolve the urea, forming a liquid product that can be processed further. Moreover, the optional granulation step allows to produce Urea granules, which facilitates handling, storage, and application in the agricultural sector.



Figure 7: Stamicarbon Process Flow Diagram

2.5.4.3 ACES Process:

Toyo Engineering Corporation created the ACES (Advanced Process for Cost and Energy Saving) process. The reactor, stripper, two parallel carbamate condensers, and scrubber are all part of the synthesis section and are all run at 175 bar. The reactor is run at 190°C with a 4:1 molar feed ratio of NH₃ to CO₂. There are five primary sections in all. Sections 1 through 5 include:

- 1. Synthesis;
- 2. Purification;
- 3. Concentration and prilling;
- 4. Recovery; and
- 5. Process condensate treatment.



Figure 8: ACES Process Diagram

CHAPTER 3

PROCESS OVERVIEW

3.1 Selection of the Process:

The Stamicarbon urea synthesis process is chosen, wherein NH₃ and CO₂ are transformed into urea using ammonium carbamate at 140 bar of pressure, 180–185°C, and a 3:1 molar ratio. The majority of the unconverted carbamate is broken down in the Stripper, where CO₂ is used as a stripping agent to remove ammonia and carbon dioxide. Following their removal, the CO₂ and NH₃ are partially condensed and returned to the reactor. The heat released during this condensation is used to create 4.5 bar steam, some of which is utilized to heat the plant's downstream parts. During the bar breakdown step, the NH₃ and CO₂ in the stripper effluent evaporate and then condense to create a carbamate solution. In the evaporation section, where 99.7% of the urea melt is produced, the urea solution is further concentrated.

The Stamicarbon process stands out as a premier method for urea production, highly regarded for its efficiency, reliability, and technological advancement. Renowned for its high conversion rates of ammonia and carbon dioxide into urea, the Stamicarbon process optimizes energy usage through sophisticated engineering and control mechanisms. Its compact design not only minimizes the plant's footprint but also enhances operational flexibility and maintenance ease. Moreover, Stamicarbon plants boast exceptional reliability, thanks to advanced automation and control systems ensuring uninterrupted operation and minimal downtime. Offering versatility in feedstock selection and production capacity, the process accommodates various ammonia synthesis sources, making it adaptable to diverse market demands. Continual investment in research and development ensures Stamicarbon remains at the forefront of urea production technology, consistently delivering improved performance and competitiveness. These qualities collectively position the Stamicarbon process as the preferred choice in urea production, favored for its efficiency, reliability, flexibility, and innovative technology.

3.2 Process Flow Diagram:

The PFD illustrates the high-pressure Urea production loop by displaying unit operations and material flow. The PFD outlines major equipment and processes involved in producing urea.



Figure 9: Process Flow Diagram

3.3 Process Description:

Carbon dioxide from the ammonia plant is compressed using staged compression. From where it enters the High pressure urea synthesis loop. Ammonia from the storage tank is pumped to the high pressure synthesis loop. There are four major components in this section. Namely:

3.3.1 Urea Reactor:

In the urea reactor, there are two reactions that take place since the process is a two stage reaction. First is the formation of an intermediate product called ammonium carbamate. Second is the decomposition of ammonium carbamate into urea and water. The reactor used is a plug flow reactor in which some residence time is given. Heat given off in the first reaction is absorbed by the carbamate formed to decompose into water and Urea. The downstream line of the plug flow reactor hence contains a mixture of urea, ammonium carbamate, carbon dioxide, ammonia and water. This mixture then flows to the high pressure stripper for decomposition of the carbamate formed into ammonia and carbon dioxide.

3.3.2 HP stripper:

HP stripper is a falling film type heat exchanger in which HP steam is introduced in the shell side and a solution of urea, carbamate, water, ammonia gas and carbon dioxide flows down the shell side counter-currently contacting with ammonia which acts as a stripping agent. The objective is the occurence of a reverse reaction by increasing the amount of one of the reactants i.e ammonia in the stream by introducing it from the other stream. This reverse reaction occurs on the basis of Le Chatelier's principle. Carbamate is broken down into ammonia and CO₂ by reducing the partial pressure of carbon dioxide. By doing this, the concentration of urea exiting the HP stripper increases.

3.3.3 HP Condenser:

The next component in line is the HP Condenser, which is an essential Shell and Tube Heat Exchanger. The primary function of the HP condenser is to condense the high-pressure steam into liquid form by transferring heat to a coolant, usually water. As the steam passes through the condenser tubes, it releases heat to the surrounding coolant, causing it to condense and form liquid water. Urea formation is not a single step reaction. It is in fact a two stage reaction in which ammonia and CO₂ react to form carbamate. This carbamate formation is achieved in the HP condenser. It is an exothermic reaction releasing 119 KJ/mol of heat.

3.3.4 HP Scrubber:

The HP scrubber is typically located downstream of the urea reactor and operates at high pressure, usually around 150 to 200 bar. It receives the synthesis gas mixture, which consists of ammonia, carbon dioxide, urea, and other by-products. The primary function of the HP scrubber is to remove unreacted ammonia and carbon dioxide from the synthesis gas. These components are recycled back to the synthesis loop to ensure optimal conditions for urea production. The scrubber achieves this by using an absorbent solution, often aqueous ammonia, which selectively absorbs ammonia and carbon dioxide from the gas stream. After passing through the HP scrubber, the gas stream is typically compressed before being returned to the synthesis loop. This compression increases the pressure of the recycled gases to match the operating pressure of the urea reactor, ensuring smooth integration into the synthesis reaction. This equilibrium is critical for achieving high conversion rates and maximizing the yield of urea from the synthesis gas.

3.4: Raw Materials:

3.4.1 Ammonia (NH₃):

Ammonia is made up of nitrogen and hydrogen. In its aqueous state, it is known as ammonium hydroxide. There is a strong smell to this inorganic substance. It is hazardous and corrosive when concentrated. It is typically obtained from natural gas or other nitrogen-rich sources. Ammonia is frequently produced via the Haber-Bosch process, which involves reacting nitrogen and hydrogen at high temperatures and pressures.

3.4.2 Carbon Dioxide (CO₂):

Compressed Carbon dioxide is another raw material used in the manufacturing of urea. It can be found in nature either alone or in combination. It is a component of the atmosphere, accounting for around 1% of the volume of dry air. It results from the combustion of carbonaceous fuels such as coal, coke, fuel oil, gasoline, and cooking gas.

3.5 Intermediate Product: 3.5.1 Ammonium Carbamate (NH₂COONH₄)

Ammonium carbamate is a chemical compound formed during the synthesis of urea. It is an intermediate compound in the urea production process. Ammonium carbamate is produced when ammonia and carbon dioxide react under high pressure and temperature in the presence of a catalyst. The chemical formula for ammonium carbamate is NH₂COONH₄.

In the urea synthesis reaction, ammonia and carbon dioxide combine to form ammonium carbamate, which then undergoes further chemical transformations to yield urea **(CO(NH₂)₂)**. Ammonium carbamate is unstable and decomposes readily into urea and water. This decomposition step is typically facilitated by heating or by lowering the pressure, allowing the production of urea.

CHAPTER 4

MATERIAL AND ENERGY BALANCE

4.1 Material Balance

Monitoring the amounts of carbon dioxide and ammonia that enter the system and contrasting them with the amounts of urea and byproducts generated constitutes the material balance. The following is an expression for the material balance equations, which are commonly based on the idea of conservation of mass:

General Material Balance Equation:

Mass In – Mass Out + Generation – Consumption = Accumulation

Units = Kg/hr

Incoming Mass = Outgoing Mass

4.1.1 Reactor

Steady State Operation

Mass In = Mass Out + Generation – Consumption

Reactions:

2 NH ₃ Ammonia	+	CO ₂ Carbon Dioxide	\leftrightarrow	NH	I ₂ CC Amn Cart	OONH ₄ nonium pamate
NH ₂ COON Ammonium Carbamate	NH₄	↔	CO(NH ₂) Urea)2	+	H ₂ O Water

Component	Inlet	Consumption	Generation	Outlet
	(Kg/hr)	(Kg/hr)	(Kg/hr)	(Kg/hr)
UREA	175.153	-	42571.25	42746.4
CARB	75715.2	39832.4	-	35882.8
CO ₂	16374.1	8743.11	-	7630.99
NH ₃	35028.1	6766.7	-	28261.4
H2O	9882.69	-	12770.51	22653.2
N2	1337.48	-	-	1337.48
02	228.096	-	-	228.096

Table 2: Material Balance of Reactor

4.1.2 Stripper

Mass In = Mass Out + Generation – Consumption

Reaction:

Table 3: Material Balance of Stripper

	Inlet				Outlet	
Component	(Kg/hr)		Consumption Generation		(Kg/hr)	
component	CO2	Reactor Bottom	(Kg/hr)	(Kg/hr)	Тор	Bottom
UREA	-	42733.8	-	-	97.5488	42636.3
CARB	-	35880.7	25947.94	-	17.0597	9915.7
CO ₂	31313	2124.47	-	14627.18	46432.2	1632.45
NH ₃	-	22447.2	-	11320.65	31988.4	1779.45
H ₂ O	142.621	22250.5	-	-	2098.97	20294.1
N2	1283.95	40.6483	-	-	1320.9	3.70302
02	199.993	19.7927	-	-	217.275	2.5102

4.1.3 Condensor

Mass In = Mass Out + Generation – Consumption

Reaction:

$2NH_3 + \ CO_2 \rightarrow \ NH_4OCONH_2$

Component	Inlet	Consumption	Generation	Outlet
component	(Kg/hr)	(Kg/hr)	(Kg/hr)	(Kg/hr)
UREA	175.153	-	-	175.153
CARB	21743.7	-	53971.5	75715.2
CO ₂	46798.7	30,424.6	-	16374.1
NH ₃	58575	23,546.9	-	35028.1
H ₂ O	9882.69	-	-	9882.69
N 2	1337.48	-	-	1337.48
02	228.096	-	-	228.096

Table 4: Material Balance of Condenser

4.1.4 Scrubber

Mass In = Mass Out

	Inle	et	Outlet	
Component	(Kg/hr)		(Kg/hr)	
	ТОР	LP Section	ТОР	BOTTOM
UREA	12.5462	65.0596	-	77.6057
CARB	2.08826	12807.2	-	21728.2
CO ₂	5506.52	2.47835	113.935	367.355
NH ₃	5814.23	517.935	8.53895	2432.46
H ₂ O	402.701	7384.76	3.81347	7783.65
N2	1296.83	-	1280.25	16.5778

4.2 Energy Balance

The energy balance is calculated by measuring the energy inputs (such as heat and steam) and outputs (such as waste heat). The energy balance equations are based on the concept of energy conservation and take the following form:

Energy In = Energy Out

The energy balance equations account for the heat transfer that occurs within various unit activities, such as the stripper and condenser. In addition to accounting for the energy required for chemical reactions, the energy balance equations also consider the energy content of the feed and products.

The precise energy balance equations used in the UREA production process can change depending on the unit operations and overall process design. Among the equations that are commonly used are the heat transfer equations, enthalpy calculations, and reaction energy estimates pertinent to the chemical reactions involved in the synthesis of UREA.

$$\Delta H = \int_{T_{ref}}^{T} C_p dT$$

$$\Delta H = A(T - T_{ref}) + B \frac{(T^2 - T_{ref}^2)}{2} + C \frac{(T^3 - T_{ref}^3)}{3} + D \frac{(T^4 - T_{ref}^4)}{4} + E \frac{(T^5 - T_{ref}^5)}{5}$$
$$E = Molar \ Flow \times Enthalpy$$

By conducting a complete material and energy balance, it is possible to assess the overall process efficiency, pinpoint areas for improvement, and optimize resource use in the UREA production process.

	Δ	D	C	D	Б
	A	D	L	D	E
02	29.526	-0.0088999	0.000038083	-3.2629E-	8.8607E-12
				08	
N 2	29.324	-0.0035395	0.000010076	-4.3116E-	2.5935E-13
				09	
CO ₂	27.437	0.042315	-	-3.9968E-	2.9872E-13
			0.000019555	09	
NH ₃	33.573	-0.012581	0.000088906	-7.1783E-	1.8569E-11
				08	
UREA	965.50	-5.0993	0.010028	-6.3799E-	0
	7			06	
H ₂ 0	33.933	-0.0084186	0.000029906	-1.7825E-	3.6934E-12
				08	
H ₂ O(l)	92.053	-0.039953	-0.00021103	5.3469E-07	0
Carbamate	1	0.439932	0	0	0

Table 6: Coefficient values for calculation of Enthalpy

4.2.1 Reactor

Inlet:

Temperature = 440K

Reference Temperature = 298K

Table 7: Inlet from	Condensor
---------------------	-----------

Component	Enthalpy	Molar Flow	Energy
	(KJ/Kmol)	(Kmol/hr)	(KJ/hr)
UREA	18988.64	2.91655	55381.32283
CARB	23193.56	969.7	22490792.16
CO ₂	5701.79	372.055833	2121384.199
NH ₃	5369.763	2056.77917	11044417.61
H ₂ O	8220.737	548.570833	4509656.676
N2	4144.601	47.7441667	160311.5261
02	4255.42	7.12829167	24514.6055
		Total	40406458.1

Outlet:

Temperature = 456K

Reference Temperature = 298K

Component	Enthalpy Molar Flow		Energy	
component	(KJ/Kmol)	(Kmol/hr)	(KJ/hr)	
UREA	20909.6	711.7875	14883194.33	
CARB	26362.99	459.616667	12116869.36	
CO ₂	6375.734	173.392917	1105507.067	
NH ₃	6010.954	1,659.45	9974902.933	
H ₂ O	12081.69	1,257.44	15192016.06	
N2	4614.736	47.7441667	220326.7366	
02	4745.107	7.12829167	33824.50687	
		Total	53526641	

Table 8: Outlet of Reactor

Moles of Urea Formed from Carbamate:

= Carbamate (in) – Carbamate (Out) = 510Kmol/hr

Heat of Reaction = 25650 KJ/Kmol

Heat Required = 510 x 25650 = 13083637.5 KJ/hr

Moles of Urea formed from reactants:

= Moles of Urea Out - Moles of Urea formed from CARB

= 201.704167 Kmol/hr

Heat of Reaction = 13400 KJ/Kmol
Heat Released = 201.704167 x (-13400) = 2702835.83 KJ/hr

Q = Energy In – Energy Out + Heat of Reaction + Heat Released

Q = 23500984.6 KJ/hr or 6528 KW

4.2.2 Stripper

Inlet:

Bottom:

Temperature = 373K

Reference Temperature = 298K

Component	Enthalpy	Molar Flow	Energy
	(KJ/Kmol)	(Kmol/hr)	(KJ/hr)
CO ₂	2945.584	711.5	2095783.325
N2	2183.542	45.83	100071.7142
02	2228.403	6.25	13927.52076
H2O(l)	5643.04	7.91666	44674.03155
		Total	2254456.592

Top:

Temperature = 456K

Component	Enthalpy	Molar Flow	Energy
	(KJ/Kmol)	(Kmol/hr)	(KJ/hr)
UREA	20909.6	711.579	14878835
CARB	26362.99	459.5917	12116210
CO ₂	6375.734	48.2725	307772.6
NH ₃	6010.954	1318.054	7922763
H ₂ O(l)	12081.69	1235.088	14921940
N2	4614.736	1.451025	6696.098
02	4745.107	0.58685	2784.666
		Total	50157002

Table 10: Top Inlet from Reactor

Outlet:

Top:

Temperature = 414K

Tabl	le 11:	Тор	Outl	let
------	--------	-----	------	-----

Component	Enthalpy	Molar Flow	Energy
	(KJ/Kmol)	(Kmol/hr)	(KJ/hr)
UREA	15871.19	1.624325	25779.978
CARB	18283.43	0.218515	3995.204116
CO ₂	4619.216	1055.04167	4873465.531
NH ₃	4344.305	1878.29583	8159890.233
H ₂ O	3943.604	116.510417	459470.9333
N 2	3382.203	47.1520833	159477.9129
02	3464.397	6.79008333	23523.54386
		Total	13705603.34

Bottom:

Temperature = 439K

Reference Temperature = 298K

Component	Enthalpy	Molar Flow	Energy
	(KJ/Kmol)	(Kmol/hr)	(KJ/hr)
UREA	18868.88	709.9542	13396040
CARB	22999.21	127.0088	2921101
CO ₂	5659.861	37.09296	209941
NH ₃	5329.948	104.4854	556901.8
H ₂ O(l)	10724.37	1126.496	12080957
N 2	4115.243	0.132187	543.9819
02	4224.889	0.078447	331.4284
		Total	29165816

Table 12: Bottom Outlet

Moles of water vaporized = 116.514167 Kmol/hr

Latent Heat = 34390 KJ/Kmol

Moles of Carbamate Decomposed = 332.364401 Kmol/hr

Heat of Reaction = 159550KJ/Kmol

Q = Energy out – Energy In + Heat of Reaction + Latent Heat of Vaporization

Q = 47495494.38 KJ/hr or 13193.192KW

4.2.3 Condenser:

Inlet:

Temperature = 413.64K

Component	Enthalpy	Molar Flow	Energy
	(KJ/Kmol)	(Kmol/hr)	(KJ/hr)
UREA	15462.65	2.91655	45097.60306
CARB	18130.49	278.512083	5049559.812
CO ₂	20746.85	1063.37083	22061590.93
NH ₃	4311.666	3439.40833	14829579.37
H ₂ O	8220.737	548.570833	4509656.676
N 2	3357.72	47.7441667	160311.5261
02	3439.058	7.12829167	24514.6055
		Total	46680310.52

Table 13: Inlet of Condensor

Outlet:

Temperature = 440K

Component	Enthalpy	Molar Flow	Energy
	(KJ/Kmol)	(Kmol/hr)	(KJ/hr)
UREA	18988.64	2.91655	55381.32283
CARB	23193.56	969.7	22490792.16
CO ₂	5701.79	372.06	2121384.199
NH ₃	5369.763	2,056.78	11044417.61
H ₂ O	8220.737	548.570833	4509656.676
N2	4144.601	47.7441667	197880.5129
02	4255.42	7.12829167	30333.87505
		Total	40449846.36

Table 14: Outlet of Condensor

Moles of Water Condensed = 222.37 Kmol/hr

Latent Heat = 34390 KJ/Kmol

Moles of Carbamate formed = 691.19 Kmol/hr

Heat of Reaction = 159550 KJ/Kmol

Q = Energy Out – Energy In + Heat of Reaction + Latent Heat of vaporization

Q = 98830099.17 KJ/hr or 27452.10 KW

4.2.4 Scrubber

Inlet: (Top)

Temperature = 345.4K

Reference Temperature = 298K

Component	Enthalpy	Molar Flow	Energy
	(KJ/Kmol)	(Kmol/hr)	(KJ/hr)
UREA	7166.284	1.083333	7763.474
CARB	6755.738	164.0454	1108248
CO ₂	1843.469	0.056314	103.8127
NH ₃	1732.067	30.41213	52675.84
H ₂ O	3565.38	409.9583	1461657
N2	1378.794	0	0
02	1403.751	0	0
		Total	2630448

Bottom:

Temperature = 456K

Component	Enthalpy	Molar Flow	Energy
	(KJ/Kmol)	(Kmol/hr)	(KJ/hr)
UREA	20909.6	0.20891125	4368.251383
CARB	26362.99	0.02674817	705.1616373
CO ₂	6375.734	125.120417	797734.461
NH ₃	6010.954	341.4	2052139.751
H ₂ O	12081.69	22.3533333	270065.9666
N2	4614.736	46.2929167	213629.6006
02	4745.107	6.50970833	30889.26275
		Total	3369532.455

Table 16: Bottom inlet of Scrubber

Outlet:

Top:

Temperature = 359K

Table 17: Top Outlet of Scrubber

Component	Enthalpy	Molar Flow	Energy (KI /hr)
UREA	-	-	-
CARB	-	-	-
CO ₂	2390.536	2.588863	6188.77
NH ₃	2245.77	0.501392	1126.01
H ₂ O	2068.008	0.21168	437.76
N2	1779.918	45.70125	81344.46
02	1814.287	6.171625	11197.10
		Total	100294.09

Bottom:

Temperature = 427K

Reference Temperature = 298K

Component	Enthalpy	Molar Flow	Energy
component	(KJ/Kmol)	(Kmol/hr)	(KJ/hr)
UREA	17460.96	1.29224167	22563.77472
CARB	20746.85	278.312917	5774115.224
CO ₂	5168.551	8.347125	43142.5422
NH ₃	4864.017	142.412917	692698.8471
H ₂ O(l)	9799.992	432.058333	4234168.26
N2	3770.233	0.59177917	2231.145452
02	3866.52	0.33809458	1307.249386
		Total	10770227.04

Table 18: Bottom outlet of Scrubber

Q = Total Inlet – Total Outlet

Q = 4870540 KJ/hr or 1352.92 KW

CHAPTER 5

EQUIPMENT DESIGN

5.1 Reactor

5.1.1 Plug Flow Reactor:

In a plug flow reactor, the fluid composition varies throughout the flow channel, necessitating a material balance for each reaction component based on a volume differential (dV). Thus, given a reactant A, the mass balance is:

Input = output + accumulation + disappearance due to reaction

When accumulation is zero, the equation takes this form:

Input = Output + disappearance due to reaction

Reactor volume can be calculated using the following formula.

$$\frac{V}{F_{AO}} = \frac{\tau}{C_{AO}} = \int_0^{X_{Af}} \frac{dX_A}{-r_A}$$



Figure 10: Plug Flow Reactor

5.1.2 Design of PFR using ASPEN Plus:

Reactions:

$$2NH_3 + CO_2 \rightarrow NH_4COONH_2 + H_2O$$
(Carbamate)

$\begin{array}{c} \text{NH}_4\text{COONH}_2 \rightarrow \text{NH}_2\text{CONH}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \\ (\text{Urea}) \end{array}$

Reaction Kinetics:

The kinetics of both of these reactions are adjusted within APSEN Plus through a user subroutine USURA.F, in which both the forward and reverse reactions were considered.

Subroutine	e —	
Name	USURA	
Number	of parameters —	
Integer		1
Real		2 💭
- Length o	f work arrays	
Integer		1 💭
Real		1 💽

Figure 11: Subroutine in ASPEN Plus

The equilibrium constant for Reaction 1, in terms of mole fractions, is given as:

$$K_{1} = \exp\left\{\frac{-\left(G_{CARB}^{0} - 2G_{NH3}^{0} - G_{CO2}^{0}\right)}{RT}\right\} \left(\frac{P}{P^{0}}\right)^{2} \left[\frac{\phi_{NH3}^{2}\phi_{CO2}}{\phi_{CARB}}\right]$$

The rates for reactions 1 and 2, in units of $kmol/s/m^3$ are:

$$Rate_{1} = k_{1} \left\{ x_{NH3}^{2} x_{CO2} - \frac{x_{CARB}}{K_{1}} \right\} , \qquad Rate_{2} = k_{2} \left\{ x_{CARB} - \frac{x_{UREA} x_{H2O}}{K_{2}} \right\}$$

Design Specifications for PFR:

Following are the finalized dimensions of PFR to achieve the required percentage of Urea within the reactor effluent:

Reactor dimensions –			
Length	28.956	meter 🔻	
Diameter	2.2921	meter 🔹	
·			

Figure 12: Dimensions of PFR

Parameters	Value
Temperature	183 C
Pressure	141 kg/sqcm
Length	28.956 m
Diameter	2.2921 m
Residence Time	0.4446 hr
Volume	119 m ³

Table 19:	Parameters	and Desian	Specif	fications	of PFR
1 0010 171	I al alliecel 5	and Design	opeer	icacionis	0,111

5.2 Stripper

"The separation column is a multi-staged countercurrent column that has a liquid feed at the top and a vapor feed at the bottom."

5.2.1 Stripping process:

Stripping is the process of transferring a solute (such as NH3 or CO2) from the liquid to gas phase.

In the stripper, ammonium carbamate decomposes, liberating more NH₃ and CO₂ to be stripped out. Heat is supplied on the shell side of tubes by condensing steam while the urea solution falls inside the tubes counter currently down past the rising CO₂ stripping gas. The outlet liquid solution from the stripper is rich in urea and goes to the downstream section for urea purification.

5.2.2 Stripping Agent:

Compressed Carbon Dioxide (CO2) gas is used as a stripping agent during high pressure Urea synthesis loop.

5.2.3 Choice between packed or plate column:

 Scale: for the diameter. Because small trays are more expensive to fabricate, towers with less than one meter of packing are preferable. Since there are issues with liquid distribution and the weight of a big volume of packing, huge column plate towers are used.

- Foaming (forth) is caused by vapor bubbling through the liquid, hence a packed column is recommended when using foaming substances.
- For fouling systems with suspended particles or sludge, plate towers are preferred.
- Corrosive system; as packed towers use corrosion-resistant ceramics, they are the preferred (less expensive) option.
- To remove heat from heat plate columns, use a cooling coil.
- Plate towers often have lower pressure drop (ΔP) due to fewer plates.

5.2.4 Physical Consideration:

- Maintenance, cleaning is easy in plate column, while in packet column packing must be remove.
- Weight, packed column are heavier and need heavy support and foundation.

5.2.5 Trays:

There are three common types of trays these are:

- i) Bubble cup trays
- ii) Sieve trays
- iii) Valve trays

5.2.5 Our Selection:

We have used Sieve trays due to the following mentioned advantages:

- Cost: Among the three types of separation equipment, the sieve trays are the most basic and have the least number of components that move during their operation. This implies, that in the case of the trays themselves and perhaps the entire column, more reasonable initial cost investments may be required.
- **Fabrication:** They are also easy to fabricate since they are relatively simpler in design than the more complex ones. This can result in reduced lead time and perhaps lower fabrication costs compared to traditional methodologies.
- **Maintenance:** Sieve trays require low maintenance as there are no complicated accessories that would require replacement or repair constantly. This minimizes other operational costs incurred in carrying out different organizational functions.
- **Pressure Drop:** Sieve trays generally have the capability of bearing the least pressure drop across the tray when compared with Valve and Bubble cap trays. This can be useful when you are trying to strip a column where you wish to reduce the pressure you have to apply to force the vapor phase up to strip the component you require from the liquid.
- **Capacity:** Sieve trays offer more versatility in the rates of vapor and liquid compared to Valve trays though the latter has higher capacity when it comes to throughput rates.

5.2.6 Design using Aspen Plus:



Figure 13: High Pressure Stripping Column

Number of Stages:

To achieve the required percentage of Urea, the first step is to calculate the number of stages which in our case is finalized as 10 as shown below:

Setup options			
Calculation type	Equilibrium •		
Number of stages	10 💽 Stage Wizard		
Condenser	None		
Reboiler	None	•	
Valid phases	Vapor-Liquid 🔹		
Convergence	Standard		
Operating specifications			
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	Ŧ		
	-		
Free water reflux ratio	0	Feed Basis	
Design and specify column internals			

Feed:

- The reactor effluent which is in the liquid phase, enters the stripping column from the top and moves in the downward direction.
- Carbon Dioxide which is the gas phase, enters the stripping column from the bottom and movies in the upward direction such that, both feeds are in counter-current contact with each other.
- Steam is used to provide the required amount of heat to carry out the process of stripping.

Name	Stage	Convention
S06	1	On-Stage
CO2	10	On-Stage

Figure 15: Feed Streams of Stripper

Product:

With the use of the stripping agent, both unreacted Carbon Dioxide (CO2) and Ammonia (NH3) are stripped out of the reactor effluent and exit the stripping column from the top.

The concentrated form of Urea then exits the stripping column from the bottom stream and goes into the purification section.

F	ro	duct streams			
		Name	Stage	Phase	
		S08	1	Vapor	
		S09	10	Liquid	1

Figure 16: Product Streams of Stripper

Design Specifications:

Parameters	Value
Temperature (Top, Bottom)	185°C , 165°C
Pressure	141 kg/cm ²
Tray Туре	Sieve Trays
Tray Spacing	0.6096 m
Diameter	1.9833 m
Height	6.096 m

Table 20: Design S	Specifications	of HP Stripping	Column
--------------------	----------------	-----------------	--------

For columns with a diameter of about 1 m, tray spacing must be between 0.3 - 0.6 m.

5.3 Condenser

A condenser is a kind of heat exchanger that uses a coolant, such as water, to remove latent heat and transfer vapors into a liquid state. Condensers can be divided into two primary categories.

- Those where the condensate stream and coolant are separated by a solid surface, often a tube wall;
- Those where the coolant and condensing vapor are brought into direct touch.

5.3.1 Condenser Types

- **1.** Double pipe and multiple pipe
- 2. Air-cooled condensers
- 3. Compact condensers
- 4. Shell and Tube

5.3.2 Assumptions:

- Ammonia, Carbon dioxide & water are mixed before entering the carbamate condenser to form Ammonium Carbamate.
- Ammonium Carbamate leaving the Condenser is at it's dew point
- Heat of the Reaction is completely absorbed by water to produce steam, therefore the temperature at the shell inlet is same as that of shell outlet.
- Inert gases are not taken into consideration.

5.3.3 Design Procedure

The selected type for this project is fixed shell and tube condenser:

(1 - Shell and 4 tube passes) in which Carbamate is in the shell side and cooled while Water in the tube side.

Shell Side Conditions:

```
T_1 = Inlet = 167^{\circ}C
```

 $T_2 = Outlet = 167^{\circ}C$

Pressure at Inlet = Pressure at Outlet = 141.5 kg/cm³

Mass Flow Rate = 138741 kg/hr

Carbamate physical properties at 167°C

Specific heat(Cp) =2.596 KJ/kg Thermal conductivity (k)= 0.531 W/m K Density= ρ =1600 kg/m³ Viscosity = η = 6×10⁻⁴ Pa. sec

Tube Side Conditions:

 $T_1 = Inlet = 25^{\circ}C$

 $T_2 = Outlet = 147$ °C

Pressure Inlet: 1.0135 bar (1atm)

Pressure at Outlet = 4.5 bar

Water Flow Rate:

Mass flow rate of carbamate= 138741.6 kg/hr =38.53 kg/sec

 λ = Heat of Vaporization of carbamate = 180 KJ/kg

Q= 38.53 x 180 = 6935 KJ/sec

Q= mCp Δ T + λ (for water), m= 6935/ (4.2 × (147–25) + 2200)

M= 2.55 kg/s

Water physical properties at 87°C

Specific heat (Cp) =4.2 KJ/kg

Thermal conductivity (k) = $0.746 \text{ W/m}^{\circ}_{\text{K}}$

Density = ρ = 966 kg/m³

Viscosity = $\eta = 3.2 \times 10^{-4}$ Pa. sec

LMTD Calculation:

T1=T2= 167, t1=25, t2=147

LMTD =
$$\frac{((T1-t2)-(T2-t1))}{\ln((T1-t2)/(T2-t1))} = 62^{\circ}C$$

Ft Correction Factor:

For 1-Shell Pass and 4- Tube Pass, Ft correction factor will be



Figure 17: Correction Factor (F)

$$\mathbf{P} = \frac{(t2 - t1)}{(T1 - t1)} = 0.88 \qquad \qquad \mathbf{R} = \frac{(T1 - T2)}{(t2 - t1)} = 0$$

From the graph,

Ft =1

Since $\Delta Tm = LMTD \times Ft$

ΔTm= 62°C

Overall heat transfer coefficient assuming

Assuming $U_0 = 600 \text{ W/m}^2 \circ \mathbf{C}$

Total area and number of tubes:

$$A = \frac{Q \times 1000}{Uo \times \Delta Tm}$$

$$A = \frac{_{6935 \times 1000}}{_{600 \times 62^{\circ}\text{C}}} = 185.4 \text{ m}^2$$

Choose d_0 = 22 mm, di= 17 mm L= 3.8 m

Area of one tube = 0.42 m^2

Number of tubes (Nt) = total area/area of one tube

Shell side diameter

For a triangular pitch (1 shell pass and 4 tube passes)

Pt =1.25 do, n=2.3, k= 0.175

$$Db = do\left(\frac{Nt}{k}\right)^{1/n}$$

 $22(440/0.175)^{1/2.3} = 657.96 \text{ mm}$

From split ring floating head

C=61,

Ds= Db+ C,

Ds=718.96 mm

Tube side heat transfer coefficient (hi)

 $\underline{\text{Tmean}} = 25 + 147/2 = 87 \text{ C}$

At = $4di^2 \times Nt/Np$, At= $4 \times (17 \times 0.001)^2 \times 440/4 = 0.025m^2$

Gt=Wt/At, Gt= 2.55/0.025= 102 kg/m² sec

Ut =Gt/p, Ut=102/966=0.10559 m/s

hi=4200(1.35+0.02 tmean)Ut0.8/di 0.2 =1210 W/m²

Shell side heat transfer coefficient (ho)

As $=(pt-do)/pt \times LB^* Ds$, pt=1.25 do, LB= Ds/5

As=0.02 m²

Gs =Ws/As_Gs=38.53/0.02=1926.5 kg/m2 sec

 $de=1.1/do (pt2 - 0.917 do^2) = 1.1/22 \times (1.25^2 - 0.917 \times 22^2) = 15.8 mm$

 $Pr = cp \times \eta/k = 2.596*1000*6*10-4/0.531 = 2.93$

Jh =0.0033

ho×de/k=jh×Re×Pr^{0.33},

<u>h₀</u>=4990 W/m2

Dirt coefficients

 $h_{id} = 5000 \text{ W/m}^2$

 $h_{od} = 5000 \text{ W/m}^2$

Calculated overall heat transfer coefficients (Uo)

 $\frac{1}{Uo} = \frac{1}{ho} + \frac{1}{hod} + \frac{do*ln(\frac{do}{di})}{2*kw} + \left(\frac{1}{ho} + \frac{1}{hod}\right)\frac{do}{di}$

Kw=50 W/m K for Stainless Steel

1/Uo=0.0017

Uo =588.23 W/m²

Ucal < Uassume

Tube side pressure drop

For Re=4858.824, Jf=5.9*10⁻³

 $\Delta Pt = Np^{*}(8^{*}jf^{*}(L/di) + 2.5)^{*} \rho u^{2}/2$

 $\Delta Pt = 4(8 \times 5.9 \times 10^{-3} \times (3.8 \times 1000/17) + 2.5) \times 966 \times (0.100597)^2/2$

ΔPt=430.3384 Pa =0.4303384 Kpa

Shell side pressure drop

For Re=50718, jf=3.8*10⁻²

 $\Delta Ps=8\times jf\times(L/LB)\times(Ds/de)\times(\rho u^2/2)$

ΔPs=8×4×10-2 ×(3.8/0.140063)×(718.96/15.8)×(1600×(0.937)2/2)

ΔPs=386539 Pa =386.539 kpa

Since the pressure drop of shell is too high it can be reduced by increasing the baffle pitch, tripling the pitch reducing the shell side velocity, which reduces the pressure drop by a factor of approximately $(1/3)^2$

ΔPs=386.539/9=42.94878 kpa

This will reduce the shell side heat transfer coefficient by a factor of $(1/3)^{0.8}$

ho=4990.226 × (1/3)^{0.8} =2887.403 W/m2

This will give overall coefficient of 611 W/m² still above the assumed value of 600 W/m².

5.4 Scrubber

Particulate matter, volatile organic compounds (VOCs), odorous compounds (H2S), alkaline gases (NH3), acid gases (HCl, SO2, HF), and particulate matter are among the contaminants that scrubbers are employed to remove from industrial exhaust streams.

They function by successfully cleaning the gas stream by absorbing and neutralizing the contaminants with a liquid, commonly water or a caustic solution. Scrubbers may remove some pollutants with removal efficiency that are frequently over 95%.

5.4.1 Design Consideration:

Design considerations for a scrubber include:

1. Pressure Drop:

One crucial aspect of the design is the pressure drop throughout the scrubber. It is the pressure differential between the scrubber's input and exit, and its packing, irrigation, and internal parts all have an impact on it. Because it impacts the scrubber's function and, if left unchecked, might result in decreased efficiency, the pressure drop is significant.

2. Packing Material:

Performance of the scrubber is largely dependent on the packing material employed in it. To guarantee ideal gas-liquid contact and reduce pressure drops, packing material must be carefully chosen in terms of both kind and size as well as construction material. For instance, materials made of stainless steel perform well in hot conditions but poorly in hydrochloric acid.

3. Collection And Holding Tank:

The scrubber system's collecting and storage tank is an essential part. It needs to be built to support both the amount of scrubbing liquid and any accumulated contaminants. The choice of scrubbing medium, such as caustic lye or water, is determined by the working conditions and the contaminants' solubility.

4. Material Compatibility:

It is crucial that the materials used in the scrubber components be compatible with the contaminants and operating circumstances. This involves making certain that the components and packaging material can endure the corrosive effects of the contaminants and the operational environment.

5. Operating Temperature:

It influences both the scrubber's performance and the solubility of the pollutants, the operating temperature of the scrubber is very important. For best results, the scrubber needs to be made to work at the designated temperature range.

5.4.2 Procedure for Scrubber Design Calculation:

1. Gas and Liquid Properties:

Properties	Values
Gas Flowrate	13243.2 Kg/hr
Gas Density	1.9 Kg/m ³
Liquid Flowrate	20777.4 Kg/hr
Liquid Density	1141.1 Kg/m ³
Liquid Viscosity	0.3917cp

Table 21: Gas and Liquid Properties

2. Selection of Solvent:

28% (v/v) Ammonium Carbamate is used as scrubbing agent. The stream is coming from the Low Pressure (LP) Section of Urea Production. Ammonium Carbamate Scrubs a large quantity of Ammonia from the stream. However it also proves to be a good scrubbing agent for Carbon Dioxide as it dissolves an appreciable quantity of CO² from the stream as well.

3. Selection of Column and Packing Material:

Packed bed columns is used because they offer a wide wetted surface area where the scrubbing liquid and contaminated air flows can come into contact. As a result, clean air is released into the atmosphere and pollutants in the air stream can be efficiently absorbed or reacted with. The scrubbing efficiency is increased by the packing material inside the column, such as Raschig rings or Pall rings, which enhance the surface area and encourage gas-liquid interaction. To further improve the removal of contaminants, the packed bed design also permits a countercurrent flow of gas and liquid.

Ceramic materials are so resistant to corrosion, they are employed in packing. This is especially crucial in situations where there are gasses that are either acidic or alkaline, as they can seriously harm other materials. Because ceramic materials, such as alumina, porcelain, or silicon carbide, are so resistant to heat shock and chemical corrosion, they can be used in hostile process conditions.

4. Operating Conditions:

Temperature = 456 K

Pressure = 138 bar

5. Calculating Columns diameter:

Factors	Value
Size of packing(mm)	51
Diameter of packing (D _p)	51
Bulk Density	609
Surface Area	108
Packing Factor (F _p)	130/m

Table 22: Packing Properties

Now Calculating Flow Factor:

$$F_{LV} = \frac{L_W^*}{V_W^*} \sqrt{\frac{\rho_V}{\rho_L}}$$

 $F_{LV} = 0.06$

Table 23: Calculation of Percentage Flooding

Factors	Value
K4	1.5
К'4	4
Percentage Flooding	61.23
$\Delta P_{Flooding} = 0.115(F_P^{0.7})$	1.521
Channeling (D _c /D _p)	49.04



Figure 18: K4 vs Flow Factor

Table 24: Calculation of Column Diameter

Gas Mass velocity $V'_{W} = \sqrt{\frac{K_4 \rho_V (\rho_L - \rho_V)}{13.1 F_p (\frac{\mu_l}{\rho_l})^{0.1}}}$	0.78
Column Area (G/Vw*)	4.712
Column Diameter	2.45

6. Calculating Column Height:

For Calculating Nog:

$$G_m(y_1 - y_2) = L_m(x_2 - x_1)$$
(i)

Moles fractions can be calculated from eq.(i). Using these mole fractions, N_{OG} can be calculated from the figure below:



Figure 19: NOG vs y1/y2

 $N_{0G} = 13$

For the calculation of K_G and K_L, which are mass transfer film coefficient for gas and liquid respectively. We will use the Onda's Method:

$$k_L \left(\frac{\rho_L}{\mu_L g}\right)^{1/3} = 0.0051 \left(\frac{L_w^*}{a_w \mu_L}\right)^{2/3} \left(\frac{\mu_L}{\rho_L D_L}\right)^{-1/2} (ad_p)^{0.4}$$
$$\frac{k_G}{a} \frac{RT}{D_v} = K_5 \left(\frac{V_w^*}{a \mu_v}\right)^{0.7} \left(\frac{\mu_v}{\rho_v D_v}\right)^{1/3} (ad_p)^{-2.0}$$

 $K_G = 0.067$

 $K_L = 0.085$

Now for Determining H_G and H_L. We will use the following relation:

$$\mathbf{H}_{G} = \frac{G_{m}}{k_{G} a_{w} P}$$
$$\mathbf{H}_{L} = \frac{L_{m}}{k_{L} a_{w} C_{t}}$$

 $H_G = 0.1486$

$$H_L = 0.2880$$

/ //	<i>Table 25:</i>	Calcu	lation	of Co.	lumn	Height
------	------------------	-------	--------	--------	------	--------

Factors	Value
$H_{OG} = H_G + m \frac{G_m}{L_m} H_L$	0.4251
$Z = N_{OG} \times H_{OG}$	5.527m
Allowance for liquid distribution	0.5m
Allowance for liquid redistribution	0.5m
Total Height	6.527m

7. Pressure Drop:

Using the figure below, we will calculate the total pressure across the height of packed column.



Figure 20: Pressure drop

Table 26: (Calculation	for Pressure	drop
-------------	-------------	--------------	------

$rac{G_x}{G_y}\sqrt{rac{ ho_g}{ ho_L- ho_g}}$	0.096
$rac{G_yF_p\mu_L}{ ho_g\left(ho_L- ho_g ight)g_c}$	0.046
Pressure drop per packing (mmH2O/ft)	0.45
Total pressure drop	548pa

8. HETP Analysis:

Height Equivalent Theoretical Plate Analysis gives us the length of each theoretical plate for the scrubber. It is calculated using Norton Correlation:

$$lnHETP = n - 0.187ln\alpha + 0.283ln\mu$$

If we add 20% Safety factor:

HETP + 20% Safety Factor = 1.1335

Now using the formula for total number of Plates:

Number of plates =
$$\frac{Z}{HETP}$$

Number of plates = 4.876

Therefore the total number of plates calculated to achieve the required scrubbing is 5.

CHAPTER 6

PROCESS SIMULATION

6.1 ASPEN Plus

Simulation of our project in ASPEN Plus was done in order to check its feasibility. The reactor we used was a plug flow reactor. To model this reactor in ASPEN Plus we used RPLUG block. The reactions involved in our process were kinetic reactions. Their respective kinetics were adjusted using a developed subroutine. Component list was added via Aspen properties and fluid package was selected to be SR-POLAR because it accommodates all the required components. Simulation of our model is shown below:

Component ID	Туре	Component name	Alias
UREA	Conventional	UREA	CH4N2O
CARB	Conventional	AMMONIUM-CARBAMATE	NH2COONH4
CO2	Conventional	CARBON-DIOXIDE	CO2
NH3	Conventional	AMMONIA	H3N
H20	Conventional	WATER	H2O
N2	Conventional	NITROGEN	N2
02	Conventional	OXYGEN	02

Components:

Figure 21: Components used for HP Loop

Property Package:

SR-POLAR is used as it is recommended for high temperature and pressure systems. Moreover, it can be used for mixtures of non-polar and polar compounds, in combination with light gases.

Method filter	COMMON	-	SR-POLAR	 Methods Assistant
Base method	SR-POLAR	•		methods r bolstanta
Henry components		~	Modify —	
- Petroleum calculatio	n options		EOS	ESRKU
Free-water method	STEAM-TA	-	Data set	1 💌
Water solubility	3	•	Liquid gamma	Ŧ
			Data set	
- Electrolyte calculatio	n options ———		Liquid molar enthalpy	HLMX20 *
Chemistry ID		-	Liquid molar volume	VLMX21
Use true compor	nents		Heat of mixing	

Figure 22: Fluid Package

Process Flow Diagram:



Figure 23: Main Flow Sheet

Reactions:

0	Stoichiom	etry	Equilibriu	ım 🤇	🖉 Kinetic	Subroutine	Comments	
	New		Edit	C	ору	Paste		
	Rxn No.		Reaction ty	/pe	Stoichior	netry		Delete
	1	Kine	etic		2 NH3 +	- CO2> CARB(MIXED)	×
	2	Kine	etic		CARB -	-> 2 NH3(MIXED)	+ CO2(MIXED)	×
	3	Kine	etic		CARB -	-> UREA(MIXED)	+ H2O(MIXED)	×
	4	Kine	etic		UREA +	H2O> CARB(1	MIXED)	×

Figure 24: Reactions within the reactor

6.1.1 Reactor

Following are the obtained results after both the reactions have occurred within the PFR.

- Mole Fractions				
UREA	0	0.188526	0.000523003	0.337228
CARB	0	0.121778	7.0359e-05	0.0603365
CO2	0.922229	0.0127919	0.33975	0.0176199
NH3	0	0.349135	0.604772	0.0496335
H2O	0.0102614	0.327221	0.0375147	0.535082
N2	0.0594081	0.00038432	0.0151833	6.27933e-05
02	0.0081011	0.000163832	0.00218643	3.72644e-05

Figure 25: Molar fractions of components

6.1.2 Stripper

Feed:

ash Type Te	emperature 🔹 🔻	Pressure	• [⁰	Com	position —	
State variables				Mo	le-Flow 🝷	kmol/day
Temperature	100	C	-		Component	Value
essure	141	kg/sqcm	-	•	UREA	
por fraction				•	CARB	
otal flow basis	Mole 🗸			•	CO2	1707
tal flow rate		kmol/day	-	•	NH3	
lvent			-	•	H2O	19
eference Temperat	ure			Þ	N2	110
olume flow referen	ce temperature			Þ	02	15
С	-					
omponent concent	ration reference temp	erature				
С	-				Total	185

Figure 26: Feed conditions of Stripper

Outlet (Bottom):

- Mole Fractions	
UREA	0.497224
CARB	0
CO2	0
NH3	0
H2O	0.502628
N2	9.27322e-05
02	5.50304e-05


Outlet (Top):

- Mole Fractions	
UREA	0.000523024
CARB	7.0359e-05
CO2	0.339736
NH3	0.604786
H2O	0.0375153
N2	0.0151829
02	0.00218638

Figure 28: Molar Fraction of Components

6.1.3 Condenser (RSTOIC)

Carbamate Condenser for the High pressure Urea synthesis Loop is modeled with an RSTOIC block as the formation of Carbamate occurs within the vessel hence a reactive system is required.

Specifications	Strear	ns	Reactions	Combustion	Heat of Reaction
Operating condition	ons —				
Elach Twpo	0110	Ton	anoraturo 🔻	Proceuro	-
гази туре		Ten	iperature	riessure	-
Temperature			167	С	•
Pressure			141	kg/sqcm	•
Duty				MMkcal/hr	~
Vapor fraction					
Valid phases					
Vapor-Liquid			-		

Figure 29: Inlet Conditions of RSTOIC

Carbamate Formation:

0	Specification	s Streams	Reactions	Combustion	Heat of Rea	action	Selectiv	vity PSC	Co	ompone	ent Attr.	Utility	Com	ments		
~ Re	Reactions															
	Rxn No. Specification type Molar extent Units Fractional conversion Fractional Conversion of Component Stoichiometry															
►	1	Frac. convers	ion		15900	kmol/d	lay			0.38	NH3			2 NH3 ·	+ CO2>	CARB(MIXED)
	New Edit Delete Copy Paste															
F	Reactions occur in series															



Results:

 Mole Fractions 	
UREA	0.000728219
CARB	0.24216
CO2	0.0929117
NH3	0.513528
H2O	0.136971
N2	0.0119211
02	0.00177979

Figure 31: Molar Fractions of Components

6.1.4 Scrubber

✓ Configuration	treams 🛛 🥑 Pressure	Condenser 🤇	Reboiler	3-Phase	Comments	
Setup options]
Calculation type		Equilibrium		•		
Number of stages			5	🗘 🛛 Stag	e Wizard	
Condenser		None			•	
Reboiler		Kettle			•	
Valid phases		Vapor-Liquid			•	
Convergence		Standard			•	
- Operating specifications	s					
Reboiler duty	•		-	-3.2	MMkcal/hr	-
	~		~			-
Free water reflux ratio		0		Feed E	Basis	
Design and specify colu	umn internals					

Figure 32: Inlet Conditions of Scrubber

Results:

- Mole Fractions	
UREA	0.00149605
CARB	0.322209
CO2	0.00967397
NH3	0.165349
H2O	0.500196
N2	0.000685052
02	0.000391335

Figure 33: Molar Fractions of Components

CHAPTER 7

COST ANALYSIS

A fixed capital investment, which is essentially the whole of all direct and indirect costs, comes first in the cost assessment process. Purchased items like pumps, heat exchangers, columns, etc. are included in the direct costs. Together with the aforementioned equipment, they also include buildings, sites, facilities, land, pipes, control, and instrumentation, electrical equipment. Indirect costs, on the other hand, consist of engineering and supervision, which includes administrative, design, and inspection. They also consist of start-up, contingency, contractor's fee, and building expenses.

Capital and operating costs are the most important concerns for anyone considering a fertilizer plant. The estimation of capital costs may be the cause of delayed decisions on several projects. This can be attributed to a variety of factors, including variations in the design, locations, market conditions, and attributes of the items and equipment. Then, estimating costs accurately becomes crucial to the startup of a factory. Though estimation errors may occur, depending on the level of engineering design, the margin might be drastically decreased. Estimators ought not to work alone at all.

Following are the purchased costs of equipment obtained from Apsen Plus.

Purchased Cost of Equipment					
Reactor	1209500				
Stripper	220600				
Condenser	337500				
Scrubber	38100				
Flash Vessel	233000				
PCE = \$ 2038700					

Table 27: Purchased Cost of Equipment

The following table helps in estimation of costs of Project Fixed Capital Costs

			Process type	
	Item	Fluids	Fluids– solids	Solids
1. Major	equipment, total purchase			
cost		PCE	PCE	PCE
f_1 Ec	quipment erection	0.4	0.45	0.50
f_2 Pi	ping	0.70	0.45	0.20
f_3 In	strumentation	0.20	0.15	0.10
f_4 El	ectrical	0.10	0.10	0.10
f_5 Bu	uildings, process	0.15	0.10	0.05
$*f_6$ Ut	tilities	0.50	0.45	0.25
$*f_7$ St	orages	0.15	0.20	0.25
$*f_8$ Si	te development	0.05	0.05	0.05
* <i>f</i> 9 Ai	ncillary buildings	0.15	0.20	0.30
2. Total p PPC	hysical plant cost (PPC) = PCE $(1 + f_1 + \dots + f_9)$			
	= PCE	× 3.40	3.15	2.80
f_{10} De	esign and Engineering	0.30	0.25	0.20
$f_{11} \mathrm{Co}$	ontractor's fee	0.05	0.05	0.05
$f_{12} \mathrm{Co}$	ontingency	0.10	0.10	0.10
Fixed of	capital = PPC $(1 + f_{10} + f_{11} + f_{12})$	2)		

Table 6.1. Typical factors for estimation of project fixed capital cost

Figure 34: Cost Estimation Factors

Physical Plant Cost (PPC):

 $PPC = PCE \times (1 + 0.4 + 0.7 + 0.2 + 0.1) = 4892880

f_1	Equipment erection	0.40
f_2	Piping	0.70
f_3	Instrumentation	0.20
f_4	Electrical	0.10

Figure 35: Cost Estimation Factors

Fixed Capital Cost (FCC):

 $FCC = PPC \times (1 + 0.3 + 0.1) =$ \$6850032

f_{10}	Design and Engineering	0.30
f_{12}	Contingencies	0.10

Figure 36: Cost Estimation Factors

Working Capital is 5% of fixed capital cost.

Working Capital Cost = \$ 342501.6

Total Investment required for project:

= Working Capital + Fixed Capital

= \$ 342501.6 + \$ 6850032

Total investment = \$ 7192534

Table 28	Variable	Costs
1 0010 20	Variable	00505

Variable Costs					
Raw materials	280195.7				
Miscellaneous materials	34280.22				
Utilities	660106.8				
Sub-total A = \$ 974582.7					

Table 29: Fixed Costs

Fixed Costs				
Maintenance	342802.1			
Operating labor	37785.6			
Laboratory costs	7557.12			
Supervision	7557.12			
Overheads	3778.56			
Capital charges	685604.3			
Insurance	68560.43			
Local taxes	137120.9			
Royalties	71988.46			
Sub-total B = \$ 1362755				

Sales Expense = \$467467.5

Sub-total C = \$467467.5

Annual Production Cost:

A + B + C = \$2804805

Cost Inflation: $2004 \rightarrow 2024$

CPE Index = 1.79 (795.1/ 442.2)

Cost in year 2024 = 2804805 × 1.79 = \$ 5020601

Annual Revenue = \$ 166256640

Profit:

(Annual Revenue - Annual Production Cost)

Profit = \$ 161236039.62

Payback Period:

(Initial Investment / Profit) = 7192534 / 161236039.62

Payback Period = **4.5 years**

CHAPTER 8

HAZOP ANALYSIS

8.1 HAZOP Study:

HAZOP, which is short for Hazard and Operability Study, is a safety procedure that is very important and practical to ensure the identification of possible hazards and related operational problems in a chemical process. It is a technique that is particularly used to identify deviations within a process from the plans that were initially designed that may result in accidents, harm, or harm to the environment.

8.1.1 Preparation:

- Assemble a HAZOP Team: Assemble a competent team of specialists in different disciplines to the process among them being chemical engineers and process safety specialists, operations officers, and maintenance technologists.
- **Gather Information:** Gather PFDs/PIDs, P&IDs, detailed process description, SDS for materials used, and current standard operating procedures.

8.1.2 Define the Scope:

 Be very precise whether the process being reviewed is an organizational, operational, management, or other type of process. This involves defining the beginning and end of a process segment being analyzed.

8.1.3 Node Selection and Data Review:

- **Analyze** the overall process and split it into segments, which can be reactors, storage tanks, heat exchangers, pipelines, etc.
- **Design intent:** What is the purpose of this node in the overall process and what do you need to accomplish here?

- **Process parameters:** Such variables as temperature and pressure, flow and level, and many others.
- **Operating conditions:** The average levels and variability of each parameter under routine conditions.

8.1.4 HAZOP Guidewords and Deviations:

At each node of the tree, use a predetermined set of questions or guidewords to look for potential ways that the design may have departed from the intended result. Common guidewords include:

- No: The cases in which a parameter is missing (the absence of a flow, for example)
- **More:** Going further than what the normal working range should be in some ways (e. g. more pressure)
- **Less:** Falling below the normal operating condition, for example, temperature.
- As Well As: Physical incorporation of an unforeseen element or state
- **Part of:** A subtle failure in a certain portion of the equipment (such as a leakage in a heat exchanger).

Analyze each process parameter at each node against the following guidewords to find out the potential deviations.

8.1.5 Cause and Consequence Analysis:

For each identified deviation, speculate on potential causes that may have led to the deviation. These may include equipment failure, operator or technical error, process disturbance or fluctuations, and other conditions. Scrutinize the possible implications of the deviation.

- Safety hazards: Fire, explosion, toxicity, personnel harm
- Environmental impact: Contamination, leaks
- Operational issues: Defect or quality of products, time loss, and other monetary losses.

8.1.6 Safeguards and Recommendations:

- Review existing measures that would have been put in place to help prevent or manage the identified hazards and operability problems. Such control measures may include alarms, interlocks, safety valves, or specific ways and methods of operating the plant.
- Where current measures are considered not enough, suggest other measures that could be taken. This may mean redesigning some structures, optimizing the process, or adding protective gear.

8.1.7 Documentation and Follow-Up:

It will be necessary to develop a HAZOP report that will provide information about the entire study.

- Collect process information on each node
- Define deviations, explain their reasons, and outcomes
- The measures that are currently available and how effective they are
- Steps to be taken to increase effectiveness-

Ensure that the responsibility of putting into practice the recommended actions lies with someone responsible and set the cycle for follow-ups to ensure that remedial actions are carried out. Students should also be well-trained and experienced to conduct the HAZOP study to enhance its functionality. Moreover, to ensure optimal assessment of problems in the given field, the study has to preserve creativity and critical thinking during its process. HAZOP studies are repetitive; the sequential analyses may require additional studies after making changes based on previous recommendations or process variations. By the adoption of the above guideline, a HAZOP study can be a strong weapon in enhancing the safety and operability of the chemical processes, thus minimizing accident occurrences and optimizing the entire process flow.

HAZOP Analysis on Reactor:

1

Intention: Facilitating the reaction between ammonia and CO ₂ to form carbamate and the reaction from carbamate to urea forming a liquor with 34 wt % Urea.					
Item	Guideword	Deviation	Possible Causes	Consequences	Recommendations
Reactor	More	More NH₃ flow	Faulty flow control valvePump malfunction	Runaway reaction	 Flow alarms and interlocks for feed shutdown. Pressure relief valves on reactor.
	Less	Less NH3 flow	 Faulty flow control valve Pump malfunction Blockage in Pipeline 	 Reduced urea production Increased CO₂ in reactor effluent 	 Flow alarms and interlocks for feed makeup Pressure relief valves on reactor to prevent overpressure from CO₂.
	More	More CO ₂ flow	Faulty flow control valvePump malfunction	Runaway reaction	 Pressure relief valves on reactor. Regular maintenance of pumps and control valves.
	Less	Less CO2 flow	Faulty flow control valvePump malfunction	 Reduced urea production Decreased Carbamate efficiency 	 Flow alarms and interlocks for CO₂ feed makeup.
	More	Temperature Up	 Malfunctioning temperature control system Loss of cooling water. 	 Runaway reaction, explosion Reduced urea production Equipment damage 	High-temperature alarms and interlocks for emergency cooling or reactor shutdown
	Less	Temperature Down	Malfunctioning temperature control system	 Reduced urea production Incomplete reaction 	• Low-temperature alarms and for emergency and investigation procedures
	More	Pressure Up	Reactor overheating	 Equipment failure Explosion	Pressure relief valves
	Less	Pressure Down	 Leak in reactor vessel Leak in downstream equipment 	 Reduced reaction rate Decreased Urea production 	 Leak detection systems Pressure monitoring alarms and investigation procedures

Table 30: HAZOP on Reactor

HAZOP Analysis on Stripper:

Intention: Decompose Carbamate and remove NH ₃ , CO ₂ from the product.					
Item	Guideword	Deviation	Possible Causes	Consequences	Recommendations
Stripper	Less	Less flow	 Low CO₂ flow from capture unit Leak in stripper vessel 	 Lower-purity urea product Reduced recycle efficiency of NH₃ and CO₂ 	 Flow monitoring and alarms for CO₂ feed to the stripper Leak detection systems
	More	More flow	 Faulty flow control valve Pump malfunction 	 Wasted energy Potential pressure issues in stripper 	 Flow alarms and control system for CO₂ feed to stripper
	No	No flow	 Valve stuck closed Low level in the reactor 	• Level will decrease and temperature, pressure will increase.	 Installation of low level alarm Remove any blockage.

Table 31: HAZOP on Stripper

HAZOP Analysis on Condenser:

Intention: Form Carbamate from NH_3 and CO_2 and use the reaction heat to form low pressure steam.					
Item	Guideword	Deviation	Possible Causes	Consequences	Recommendations
Condenser	Less	 Less Cooling water Flow Temperature Up 	 Faulty control valve Blockage in cooling water line 	 Incomplete condensation of ammonia and CO₂. Reduced carbamate formation Increased pressure in condenser. 	 Flow monitoring and alarms for cooling water Backup cooling water system (if available) Regular maintenance of pumps and control valves
	More	 More cooling water Flow Temperature Down 	 Faulty flow control valve Pump malfunction 	Wasted cooling water	Flow control system for cooling water
	No	 Blockage in Condenser Tubes (No flow) 	 Fouling of condenser tubes Scaling due to impurities 	 Reduced cooling efficiency Increased pressure in condenser 	 Regular cleaning and maintenance of condenser tubes Monitoring of pressure drop across condenser
	As well as	• Leak in Condenser Shell	 Corrosion of condenser shell Mechanical damage 	 Loss of cooling water Potential release of NH₃ and CO₂ 	 Leak detection systems Pressure monitoring alarms for condenser shell

Table 32: HAZOP on Condenser

HAZOP Analysis on Scrubber:

Table 33: HAZOP on Scrubber

Intention: To capture unreacted NH ₃ and water vapor from the process stream.					
Item	Guideword	Deviation	Possible Causes	Consequences	Recommendations
Scrubber	Less	• Insufficient Carbamate Solution Flow	 Faulty pump for carbamate solution Blockage in scrubber inlet 	Reduced scrubbing efficiency	 Flow monitoring and alarms for carbamate solution Backup pump for carbamate solution.
	More	• Excessive Carbamate Solution Flow	Faulty flow control valvePump malfunction	• Wasted carbamate solution	• Flow control system for carbamate solution
	Less	 Insufficient Gas Flow through Scrubber 	 Blockage in scrubber inlet or outlet Reduced pressure in the process stream 	Increased emissions of NH3 and CO2	 Pressure monitoring alarms for scrubber inlet and outlet. Investigation procedures for identifying blockage.
	More	• Excessive Gas Flow through Scrubber	 Leak upstream of scrubber Malfunctioning pressure control system 	 Potential for exceeding scrubber design capacity Increased emissions if scrubbing efficiency is compromised 	 Pressure relief valves on scrubber sized for overpressure scenarios• Pressure monitoring and control system for gas flow.

CONCLUSION

- The proposed process has been efficiently designed and simulated to meet the requirements i.e. the final product, Urea with a percentage of 49.7 % whereas keeping in view the obtained plant data, percentage of Urea obtained after the high pressure synthesis loop is 45 46%. Hence, the chosen operating parameters provided valuable insights into optimizing conversion efficiency, energy consumption, and overall process performance.
- The chosen thermodynamic model faithfully depicted the multiphase behavior of the vapor/liquid phase and the reaction kinetics within the chemical system under high pressure and temperature requirements.
- The results of the process simulation validated the calculations and design of the process and verified the operability of the process. The process is evaluated for a pay-out period of 4.5 years which indicate that the process is not only feasible but economically profitable as well.
- Hazop analysis of the process was also done in order to make sure that the possible hazards can be dealt efficiently while maintaining safe environment for the synthesis of Urea.
- The successful design of this HP loop has the potential to contribute to achieving Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 2: For instance, on the issue of eliminating world hunger through enhanced crop production by using Haber's process, it supports Zero Hunger by enhancing the production of urea fertilizers thereby improving crop yields. However, social responsibility mechanisms and additional analysis are needed to decrease possible damage to the environment allied to elements of SDGs 3 and 12.







RECOMMENDATION FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

The following recommendations for future research are aimed at overcoming the shortcomings of the existing "High-pressure Urea Synthesis loop". The industry would have an opportunity to have a more efficient, environment-friendly, and reliable method of manufacturing urea by focusing on efficiency, the possibility of sustainability, control, and safety issues.

10.1 Refined Thermodynamic Models:

Further improvement of the thermodynamic models for the multi-component system of ammonia, carbon dioxide, water, and urea is also required at high pressures and temperatures. This will allow for better analysis and optimization of the processes involved.

10.2 Machine Learning for Optimization:

Another recommendation includes optimization, as well as the prediction of equipment failures using machine learning. This could entail applying the sensor data toward detecting potential areas of poor productivity and potential equipment failure.

10.3 Improved Reactor Design:

Designing reactors that produce less undesired side products like biuret and carbamate and designing safety features to control some risks including the risk of uncontrolled exothermic reactions.

10.4 Advanced Materials for Equipment:

Exploring new materials of construction for equipment in the loop that performs well in the rigorous working environment with enhanced corrosion protection.

10.5 Risk Assessment and Mitigation Strategies:

Employing enhanced risk evaluation techniques to recognize safety risks and designing effective measures to avoid mishaps.

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