## VARIATIONS IN MASS TRANSFER

WITH DISPERSED BUBBLES

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WITH DISPERSED BUBBLES

By

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# A Thesis

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SCOPE AND CONTENTS:

Using a single bubble suspended in a liquid flow regime, the effects of velocity, bubble size, and surfactant levels on the gas transfer process across the bubble interface were investigated. Mass transfer data reported in the literature for non-circulating carbon dioxide bubbles was verified. A mathematical model predicting the mass transfer process for the single bubble system used in this study was formulated and this model provided a reasonable fit for experimental data obtained for the dissolution of a carbon dioxide bubble into an aqueous solution of a second sparingly soluble gas. The fate of a hypothetical air bubble in an aerator was briefly considered.

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 $\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{n$ 

 $\frac{1}{\lambda}$ 

 $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ 

 $\ddot{\phantom{a}}$ 

 $\frac{1}{2}$  ,  $\frac{1}{2}$  ,  $\frac{1}{2}$ 

#### CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

In the activated sludge waste treatment process, microbiological floc and organic wastes are mixed in an aerobic reactor or aeration tank to facilitate the utilization of the waste products as substrate or food for the microorganisms thus purifying the carrier liquid. In the conventional process, the floc and the treated water are separated and the micro-organisms are returned to be mixed with additional untreated waste. A continuous process is maintained wherein the aerobic "bio-mass "grows at the expense of the substrate utilizing the dissolved oxygen in the liquid as a hydrogen acceptor.

There are three basic requirements for an aeration tank, namely (l) an adequate volume to provide the required time for the substrate removal reactions to occur, (2) adequate mixing to keep the biological floc in suspension and promote contact with the waste, and (J) an adequate oxygen supply to keep the process aerobic. At present there are two conventional means of maintaining both the mixing and the oxygen requirements surface - mechanical and diffused air aerators. The former relies on a rotor which splashes

 $\mathbf 1$ 

droplets of liquid into the atmosphere and vigorously mixes the liquid thereby keeping the microorganisms in suspension and promoting a high degree of surface renewal to maximize oxygen transfer into the liquid. With the latter, air bubbles are introduced into the liquid some distance beneath the surface. During their formation and subsequent rise, oxygen is transferred across the interfacial boundary and into the liquid. The drag of the rising bubbles creates a "roll" of the tank contents which keeps the tank contents in homogeneous suspension. The bulk flow causes some surface turbulence which, coupled with the action of bubbles bursting at the surface, promotes further transfer of oxygen from the atmosphere.

In a diffused air system, the mass transfer properties of the aerator are governed by the mass transfer coefficient, the total bubble interfacial area, and the mass transfer driving force. It is believed that tank geometry and diffuser submergence have some effect as well. To eliminate many of the variables that necessarily must be considered in studies on aerators, it was considered desirable to study the mass transfer process using a single bubble under controlled conditions. To obtain a more detailed knowledge of the mass transfer process associated with a single bubble of known interfacial area in a continuous liquid

phase, the effects of velocity, bubble size, and surfactant levels on the gas transfer across the interface were investigated. A simplified model illustrating the fate of an air bubble in a hypothetical aerator is briefly presented.

### CHAPTER 2

#### LITERATURE REVIEW

## Development of Theories on the Mechanism of Mass Transfer

The generally accepted physical law governing the diffusion process is Fick's Law:

> $\frac{dm}{dt}$  = - D A  $\frac{dc}{dv}$  (1) where:  $\underline{\text{dm}}$  = the rate of mass transfer, dt  $A =$  the cross-sectional area perpendicular to the direction of diffusion,  $\underline{\texttt{do}}$  = the concentration gradient, and

 $D = a$  proportionality factor known as the diffusivity. The negative sign indicates that the diffusion proceeds in a direction opposite to that of the increasing concentration gradient  $\frac{dc}{dv}$ 

 $\overline{dy}$ 

Starting with Fick's Law, Lewis and Whitman (1924) proposed a two-film theory for mass transfer across a gaseous-liquid interface& They assumed that two thin films on either side of the interface provided an "in series" diffusional resistance to mass transfer. The rate of mass transfer through each film must be equal for steady state, consequently:

4

 $\bigwedge$ 

$$
\frac{dm}{dt} = - D_G A \left(\frac{dc}{dy}\right)_G = - D_L A \left(\frac{dc}{dy}\right)_L
$$
 (2)

where:  $D_G$  and  $D_T$  are the diffusivities of the transferring substance in the gas and liquid phases respectively, and

$$
\begin{array}{ll}\n\text{(d c)} & \text{and} & \text{(d c)} \text{ are the concentration gradients of} \\
\text{(d y)}_{\text{G}} & & \text{(d y)}_{\text{L}}\n\end{array}
$$

the transferring substance in the gas and liquid respectively.

If the concentration in the gas phase is expressed as a partial pressure and if the concentration gradients through both films are assumed to be linear, then equation 2 may be rewritten as:

$$
\frac{dm}{dt} = - D_G A \left( P_1 - P_G \right) = - D_L A \left( C_L - C_1 \right) \qquad (3)
$$

where  $P_i$  = the partial pressure of the transferring substance at the interface,

 $P_G$  = the partial pressure of the transferring substance in the atmosphere above the interface,

 $Y_G$  = the gaseous film thickness,

- $C_{I}$  = the concentration of the transferring substance in the bulk of the liquid,
- $C_i$  = the interfacial concentration of the transferring substance, and

 $Y_{\text{L}}$  = is the liquid film thickness.

Lewis and Whitman defined the mass transfer coefficients for the gas and liquid phases as  $k_{G}$  =  $D_{G}$  and  $k_{L}$  =  $D_{L}$  $T_{\rm G}$   $T_{\rm L}$ 

respectively.

The resulting equation is:

$$
\frac{dm}{dt} = k_G A (P_G - P_i) = k_L A (C_i - C_L)
$$
 (4)  
They applied this equation to the mass transfer of gases of low, intermediate, and high solubility. With gases of low solubility, only a small concentration gradient can be established across the liquid film. The liquid at the interface is essentially saturated with solute and the gas film may be neglected in any calculations. The resulting mass transfer equation becomes:

$$
\frac{dm}{dt} = k_L \qquad A \quad (\mathbf{C}_1 - \mathbf{C}_L) \tag{5}
$$

Lewis and Whitman assumed that a steady state equilibrium existed in the two films; however, upon formation of the interface, some time would be required to establish equilibrium conditions throughout the film. To account for this non equilibrium period Higbie (1935) proposed a "penetration theory" wherein the penetration period was defined as the initial unsteady-state period of gas absorption which preceeded the steady state period described by the Lewis and Whitman two-film theory. If the penetration period was in order of the time of contact of an element of liquid at the interface, deviations from the two - film model

occurred. Starting with Fick's Law of Diffusion, Higbie arrived at the following equation for the mass of solute gas (m) absorbed in time  $"t_{\alpha}"$  into a stagnant liquid:

$$
m = 2 \sqrt{\frac{D_L}{TT} t_e}
$$
 A  $(C_i - C_L)$  (6)

where:  $t_{\alpha}$  = the time of exposure of the liquid to the gas, and,

$$
C_i
$$
 = that concentration of solute corresponding to the partial pressure of solute gas in the gaseous phase.

Higbie concluded that the mass transfer coefficient  $(k_L)$  was directly proportional to the square root of the diffusivity  $(D_{L})$  and inversely proportional to the square root of the time of exposure  $(t_{\alpha})$  of the gas at the surface. In support of his postulate, he stated that it was

> "consistent with common experience that agitation and shortening the period of.exposure increase the coefficient."

Higbie attempted to verify the penetration theory with data obtained from a carbon dioxide - water system. He noticed that invariably, the experimental  $\dim$  values dt were lower than those predicted by the penetration theory for small time of exposures  $({\rm t_e})$ , but that as  ${\rm t_e}$  increased, the experimental results approached the theoretical penetration

theory prediction. To account for this deviation, he discarded the assumption of equilibrium at the surface and imposed a "first order process surface resistance phenomenon." This model had a rate that was proportional to the degree of unsaturation or removal from equilibrium at the surface and fit his experimental data. This illustrated that as the time of exposure decreased, the absorption coefficient did not increase indefinitely as was predicted by the penetration theory, but approached some maximum finite initial value. He concluded that in an aeration system, more agitation beyond a certain degree would be useless unless new interfacial area was created.

Danckwerts (1951) arrived at the general equation for mass transfer (equation 1) without considering two stagnant films. He proposed a model for absorption into a turbulent liquid where eddies continually exposed fresh surface to the gas, then returned to the bulk of the liquid. Considering equation 6 for a stagnant liquid, he noted that if the scale of turbulence in a turbulent liquid were greatly in excess of the depth of penetration of the solute, the relative motion of the liquid beneath the surface could be disregarded. He then defined a rate of surface renewal (r) and proceeded to show that:

$$
k_L = \sqrt{D_L r}
$$

Dobbins (1956) noted discrepancies in all of the previous theories. His principal objections to the Lewis and Whitman theory was the assumption of steady state mass transfer. It was certain that turbulence in the bulk of the liquid promoted film renewal and at the instant of renewal, an unsteady state mass transfer condition would exist. The Higbie and Danckwerts penetration theories were based on the assumption that the transfer rate across the surface could be taken as that for an infinite liquid depth. This would be true as long as r were large enough so that the gas which penetrated would be largely confined to a surface layer much smaller than the actual depth. Dobbins went on to show that this assumption was unnecessary. Using the age distribution functions that Danckwerts employed in developing his theory, and assuming that the film was always maintained in a statistical sense but its composition was continuously changed by the liquid from beneath the surface, Dobbins arrived at the following expression for  $k_{L}$ :

$$
k_{\mathbf{L}} = \sqrt{D \mathbf{r}} \qquad \text{coth} \quad (\underline{rL}^2) \qquad (7)
$$

where  $L = 1$ iquid film thickness.

It is apparent that the Lewis and Whitman and the penetration theories are two special cases of equation 7. As the renewal rate *r* approached zero, equation 7 approaches the film model

equation ( $k_{\overline{L}} = \underline{D}$  ), and when the coth term exceeds 3.0, L equation 7 reduces to the Danckwerts equation  $(k_L = \sqrt{D - r})$ .

## Development of the Concept of Circulation

In 1928, Bond and Newton (1928) investigated the rise of rates of bubbles. They cited Hadamard's (1911) modification of Stoke's Law for spherical globules:

$$
V_{t} = \frac{1}{K} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{2}{9} & (\rho_{1} - \rho_{2} )_{S} r^{2} \\ (\rho_{1} - \rho_{2} )_{S} r^{2} \end{pmatrix}
$$
 (8)

where:  $V_t$  = the terminal velocity of the falling drop or rising bubble,

 $\beta_i$  = the density of the dispersed (drop or bubble) phase,

 $P_2$  = the density of the continuous phase,

 $g =$  the gravitational constant,

 $r =$  the radius of the drop or bubble,

 $\mathcal{M}_2$  = the viscosity of the continuous phase, and

$$
K = \frac{2/3 + \mu_1}{\mu_2}
$$
 where  $\mu$  is the viscosity of  
the dispersed phase,

and noted that if  $\mu$ ,  $\gg$   $\mu$ , rigid sphere behaviour occurred because  $\frac{1}{k}$   $\longrightarrow$  1.0. However, if the fluid drop were very K inviscous (i.e. - air), then  $\mu_1 < \mu_2$  and  $\frac{1}{K} \longrightarrow 1.5$ .

Consequently, the rise rates for air bubbles should be about 150% of those predicted for rigid spheres of equivalent mass. Experimental data showed that for less than some critical bubble diameter, rigid sphere behaviour occurred and  $1 \implies 1.0$ . Bond and Newton attributed this to surface K tension  $(\sigma)$  forces and using dimensional analysis, they predicted a critical radius  $\bar{r}$  at which the transition would occur:

$$
\overline{r} = \frac{\sigma}{(\rho_1 - \rho_2)_{g}}
$$
 (9)

In their discussion, they stated that when  $\frac{1}{K}$   $\longrightarrow$  1.5 and when the critical radius  $\bar{r}$  was exceeded,

# " the fluid just inside and outside of the inter face had a common tangential velocity."

Ih other words, circulation was occurring in the droplet or  $bubble$ .

Rosenberg (1950) made a comprehensive study of the drag and shape of air bubbles rising in liquids. He noticed that the drag coefficient  $(C_{\mathbf{p}})$  for air bubbles was considerably lower than that predicted using rigid sphere behaviour for the range of Reynolds numbers between 70 and  $400$ . This he attributed to "slip at the boundary of the fluid sphere.''

Using photographic methods to observe the fall of

droplets and the diffusion patterns within the droplets, Garner (1950) concluded that air bubbles of diameter greater than about 0.02 cm. circulated and the rise rate of the bubble increased over that predicted for a rigid sphere. Garner stated that for rigid sphere behaviour, the fluid in ·contact with the sphere had the same velocity as the sphere and since no boundary layer slip could occur, the fluid would have zero velocity with respect to the surface of the sphere. For fluid sphere behaviour (circulation), the viscous drag acting on the surface caused a motion of the fluid within the sphere and again no slip occurred at the surface.

In an effort to rectify some of the discrepancies in the literature about the transition from non-circulating to circulating conditions, Garner and Hammerton (1954) studied bubble rise rates and used ammonium chloride fog, introduced into the bubble upon formation, to observe any circulation& They found that for air bubbles in clean water, circulation commenced at bubble diameters of 0.015 to 0.03 cm and reached a maximum at  $0.25$  cm diameter. It was halted by the addition of very small amounts of surface active matter for all bubbles with diameters less than 0.6 em. They concluded that the Bond and Newton critical radius (equation 9) failed to predict the transition diameter. Garner and Hammerton attributed the discrepancies in previous data to

four possible factors: temperature, rate of formation, wall effect, and surface active contaminants.

Haberman and Morton (1954) studied the rise rates of single bubbles in water and noticed that for tiny bubbles, the drag coefficients were essentially the same as for rigid spheres. As bubble size increased, a decrease in the drag below that of rigid spheres was observed indicative of circulation. With further increases in bubble size, viscous and hydrodynamics forces predominated over the surface tension forces, which had originally maintained the smaller bubbles in t a spherical shape, and flattening of the bubble occurred to form a "cap" having a higher drag coefficient than a rigid sphere of equivalent volume.

Griffith (1962) proposed an "Insoluble film Theory" where surfactants adsorbed on a fluid globule moving in a liquid accumulated at the rear of the globule to form a cap of immobile surface. He then showed that it was the reduction in surface tension by a surfactant rather than the resultant surface tension alone that was the criterion for the transition from a circulating to a non-circulating state upon the addition of surfactants. Experimental evidence was presented that provided good agreement with his model. Measurement of the Mass Transfer Coefficient KL

It wasn't until the mid-century mark that reliable and reproduceable measurements of mass transfer coefficients

 $(k_{\text{L}})$  were made. Among others, Datta et al. (1950) recorded mass transfer coefficients for carbon dioxide dissolving into water. The  $k_t$  values obtained were indicative of circulating conditions within the bubbles.

Coppock and Meiklejohn (1951) began with the mass transfer equation (equation 1) and noted that for a stream of bubbles aerating a liquid:

$$
V \, d c = dm \, N \, \underline{h} \tag{10}
$$

where:  $V = volume$  of liquid in the aerator, de and dm - incremental changes in concentration

of the solute in the liquid and mass of the solute in the gas respectively,  $N =$  number of bubbles produced per unit time, h = height of the aerator, and

 $V_{\infty}$  = rise rate of the bubbles.

They combined equations *5* and 10 to obtain:

 $\frac{dc}{dt} = k_L \frac{A}{V}$  N  $\frac{h}{V_{\infty}}$  ( $\hat{V}_1$  -  $C_L$ ) (11)

where  $A = average surface area of each bubble.$ As was expected, a plot of log  $(C_i - C_L)$  versus time for a given set of conditions in an aerator was linear, the slope being equal to:

slope =  $k_L$  ( $\frac{A}{V}$  N  $\frac{h}{V_{\infty}}$ ) (12)

More recently, the terms within the bracket in equation 12 have been combined and defined as the specific surface area (a). Equation 12 then becomes:

slope =  $k_{L}$  a (13)

The term  $k_{\text{L}}$ a has been defined as the overall mass transfer coefficient for a particular aeration system.

Downing and Trusdale (1955) in an effort to understand reaeration 1n the Thames estuary in England, studied the effect of various factors on  $k_{L}$  values. Wind velocity, wave height, and submerged turbulence were shown to have a positive effect on  $k_{L}$ . Temperatures also increased  $k_{L}$ , but to a lesser degree. Oil films were found to have a depressing effect on  $k_{L}$  and it was hypothesized that this was due to the added diffusional resistance. Surfactants also depressed  $k_T$ , but only up to a certain limiting concentration beyond which no further depression occurred.

A Theoretical development from first principles was made by Garner and Keey (1958) to determine the local mass transfer rates at any angle 9 from the forward stagnation point around a rising sphere.

Griffith (1960) presented several correlations using the Reynolds  $(\underline{V} \underline{d})$ , Sh**e**rwood  $(k_{T_i} \underline{V}_{\infty})$ , and Schmidt  $(\underline{\mathcal{V}})$  $\frac{u}{D}$ , bilerwood  $\frac{u}{D}$  , and behind  $\frac{v}{D}$ numbers, the shear viscosity  $($  $)$ , and the surface tension (0) for both laminar  $(R \lt 1.0)$  and turbulent  $(R \gt 1.0)$ 

spheres and for varying degrees of circulation from rigid sphere to fully circulating behaviour. He determined the empirical constants for his correlations using experimental data obtained with a water tunnel apparatus similar to the one used in this study. For rigid sphere behaviour, he found the following correlation:

> $S_h = a + b$  Re  $\frac{1}{2}$  S<sub>c</sub>  $\frac{1}{3}$  (14) where:  $Sh = Sh$ erwood number,  $Re =$  Reynolds number.  $Sc = Schmidt number, and$ a & b - empirical constants depending on the constituent of the bubble phase.

Eckenfelder and O'Connor (1961) and Rich (1961) correlated the Sherwood, Reynolds and Schmidt numbers in a different fashion for application to diffused air aeration systems. They added a depth factor  $L$  (depth to the diffusers) and manipulated terms so that the overall mass transfer coefficient  $(k_\text{Ia})$  for an aeration system was a function of the tank volume  $(V)$ , tank depth  $(L)$ , and air flow rate  $(q)$  as follows:

$$
k_{L}a = B \underbrace{L}_{V} \underbrace{(1-m)}_{V} \qquad (1-n)
$$
 (15)

where:  $B = a$  constant characteristic of the aeration system, and  $(1-m)$  and  $(1-n)$  = exponents also characteristic of

the aeration system.

Dobbin (1964), and later Metzger and Dobbins (1967), studied mass transfer across an atmospheric surface into a turbulent liquid. They obtained data from which they calculated the rate of surface renewal  $(r)$  and film depth  $(L)$ in equation 7 developed by Dobbins (1956) for the mass transfer coefficient  $(k_{\text{L}})$ .

k<sub>L</sub> Variations in Waste Treatment Aeration Systems:

Doing both laboratory and prototype studies, several investigators in the sanitary engineering literature have attempted to determine the effects of many factors, including surface active agents, on  $k_T$  values. Lynch and Sawyer (1954) performed batch aeration studies on solutions *of* tap water containing known concentrations of various household synthetic detergents (syndets). They noted that each retail syndet had different foaming characteristics and each varied in their effect on oxygen transfer.

A decrease in the "oxygenation capacity" of diffused air aerators with the addition of detergents was observed by Baars  $(1955)$ . However, he noticed that the oxygenation capacity of a Kessener Brush pilot plant was increased by the addition of detergents. This he attributed to the fact that detergents induced rigid sphere behaviour in rising bubbles from a diffuser while with the Kessener Brush, the vigorous turbulence around the teeth of the rotating brush caused rapid stripping and renewal of the surface layers.

Downing et al. (1957) made experimental studies on the surface aeration of deaerated water using various concentrations of household detergents from 0.1 to 15.0 mg/1. In all cases, he found that increasing concentration of the detergents depressed the reaeration rate. In further studies,Downing and Scragg (1958) found that the performance of a pilot activated sludge treatment plant was impaired by the addition of small concentrations of detergents when compared to the performance of a detergent-free plant. This they attributed to a decrease in the oxygenation capacity of the aerator caused by the surface active properties of detergents.

A comprehensive investigation of the effects of increasing surfactant concentration on the overall mass transfer coefficient for a given diffused air aerator  $(k_\text{L}a)$  was made by Maney and Okun (1960). Generally, with initial increases in surfactant concentrations, a very marked drop in  $k_T a$  was noticed. The overall coefficient reached a minimum value and then gradually increased as the surfactant concentration was increased further. They also noticed that for a given air flow rate and diffuser orifice,increasing the surfactant concentration lowered the surface tension and resulted in a more rapid formation of bubbles of smaller volume. In this and in subsequent paper (Maney and Okun, 196J),they theorized that the original rapid drop of  $k<sub>T</sub>$  a could be the result of

Ą,

the cessation of circulation inside the bubble. Surface active agents, owing to the polar nature of their molecules, are attracted to interfaces and would coat a bubble thereby impeding surface flow and stopping circulation. Once circulation has stopped, increasing the concentration of surfactant would no longer affect  $k_t$ ; however, the lower surface tension and subsequent formation of smaller bubbles would increase the total bubble interfacial area. In an aerator of constant volume, this would cause an increase in the specific bubble surface (a) and result in the observed gradual increase in  $k_\text{L}a$ .

Eckenfelder and O'Connor (1961) and other investigators have established a ratio relating the  $k_T a$  value obtained with a waste containing surfactants to that value obtained in clear tap water

$$
\mathbf{\infty} = \mathbf{k}_{\mathbf{L}^{\mathbf{a}}} \text{ (for waste)} \tag{16}
$$
\n
$$
\mathbf{k}_{\mathbf{L}^{\mathbf{a}}} \text{ (for tap water)}
$$

For most waste,  $\propto$  varies between 0.25 and 1.0 and is dependent upon the type of waste, the type of aeration device used, and the geometry of the tank.

#### CHAPTER 3

### EXPERIMENTAL

To study the mass transfer with single dispersed bubbles, a water tunnel was constructed using concepts employed by Griffith (1960), Houghton (1967) and other workers. The apparatus, sketched in figure 1, consisted of  $1\frac{1}{2}$  inch nominal inside diameter glass pipe separated by neoprene gaskets. All piping was manufactured by  $Q_s V_s F_s$ Limited, England. Incorporated in the loop were a centrifugal pump with variable speed drive, an orifice plate, a thermometer, a scintered glass diffuser, and a modified test section. Flexible tygon tubing adapted the pump to the rigid glass piping.

Figure 2 shows the test section in which the gas bubble was suspended on a teflon tip supported by fine stainless steel tubing. During the tests, the size of the bubble was kept constant by feeding gas through a three-way glass valve from a "Manostat" micropipet (1.0 cc capacity, accurate to  $\frac{1}{2}$  0.001 cc). A cross-sectional drawing of the teflon tip and stainless steel tubing is sketched in figure 3a. The tip had a diameter of approximately 0.170 em. at the top with an expanding taper to approximately  $0.320$  cm at about the



SKETCH OF APPARATUS













FIGURE 3b



three-quarter point and a reducing taper to approximately 0.25 em at the base. It is seen that two stainless steel tubes were connected to the tip, one inside the other. The outer one (0.065" O.D.) was for structural support while the inner one (0.020" O.D. and approximately 0.012" I.D.) carried gas to the bubble. Neoprene stoppers and gaskets were used wherever required in the apparatus.

Equipment associated with the gas feeder assembly is pictured in figure Jb. A regulated gas cylinder fed gas through a Fisher-Milligan Gas Washer Bottle to saturate the feed gas with water vapour. A needle valve controlled the gas flow to the bubble feeder assembly when a fresh supply of gas was required. A second pressure - regulated supply of gas was connected to the glass diffuser in the bottom leg of the apparatus.

Two orifice plates (5/16" and 3/16" diameter) were calibrated in place by pumping from a constant-head reservoir, through the orifice, and into a tank mounted on a scale. The time taken to pump a given weight of water for a constant head differential across the orifice plate was measured. The flow was calculated and calibration curves for the  $5/16$ " and  $7/16$ " orifices were plotted (Appendix "A"). Calibration curves giving the average or Q/A velocity in the pipe for a given orifice differential also appear on Appendix "A".

<sup>A</sup>study of pipe centre-line velocities was made using red acid Rhodamine B dye. The thermometer was removed from the top horizontal of the apparatus and inserted in place of the bubble feeder assembly. A hypodermic syringe was used to inject small "pulse" inputs of dye into a preset flowing stream of water in the loop through a stopper at the former location of the thermometer. The front of this input of tracer was taken to be the centre-line velocity in the pipe and was timed over a distance of 61.1 em along the top horizontal pipe for various Q/A flow rates set using a constant orifice differential. The ratio of  $\frac{Q/A}{centre-line}$  velocity versus Reynolds number was plotted in figure 4. Within the scatter of the data, there is essentially no visible discontinuity between the plotted points for each orifice plate and a continuous curve was constructed through all points.

Streeter (1961, page 3 - 15) presented the following formula for turbulent flow conditions:

$$
\frac{V_{\text{max}}}{V_{\text{Q/A}}} = \frac{1.0 + 4.07 \frac{f}{8}}{1.0}
$$
 (17)  
where  $V_{\text{max}} = \text{maximum pipe velocity (centre-line)},$ 

$$
V_{Q/A}
$$
 = average pipe velocity, and

 $f =$  Fanning friction factor, For high Reynolds numbers  $(R \ge 10^4)$  values of f=0.031 have been given for smooth pipes (Eskinazi 1962, page 390).


Substituting into equation 17, we obtain:

$$
\frac{V_{\text{max}}}{V_{\text{Q/A}}} = 1.25 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{V_{\text{Q/A}}}{V_{\text{max}}} = 0.80
$$

Figure 4 indicates that the estimated curve through the experimental points approaches  $\frac{V_{Q/A}}{4}$  = 0.82 at Re  $\overline{v}_{\text{max}}$ 

The relatively small difference between the experimental results and those predicted by equation 17 are not considered significant.

For small Reynolds numbers (laminar flow conditions), the velocity profile was assumed to be parabolic (Eskinazi, 1962), and the average velocity was taken to be one-half the maximum or centre-line velocity;

$$
\frac{V_{Q/A}}{V_{\text{max}}} = 0.50 \tag{18}
$$

for the limiting condition. For this apparatus, it was assumed that the average pipe velocity increases, there was a gradual tendency to progress from a parabolic profile, where  $= 0.50$  at low Reynolds numbers, to a fully developed  $\frac{v_{Q/A}}{v}$ max  $V_a$ turbulent profile, where  $Q/A = 0.82$  at high Reynolds  $\overline{v}_{\text{max}}$ numbers. Figure 4 was used to plot a second calibration curve for the orifice plates of centre-line velocity versus orifice differential which appears in Appendix. "A". The

 $5/16$ " orifice plate was used for the duration of this study.

Dye studies were also made by suspending a potassium permanganate crystal in the centre of the pipe and observing the resulting stream line for various flow velocities. Visual observations indicated that the flow regime was essentially laminar up to a pipe Reynolds number of 2300 when turbulent flow patterns were first observed.

The bubble was observed through a Brunson  $#605936$ telescope equipped with an optical micrometer. At the test section, the surface of the  $1\frac{1}{2}$  I.D. glass pipe had a prominent curvature about the vertical axis. This refraction widened the observed image of the tip and bubble inside the pipe when the pipe was filled with water. Using the optical micrometer, the actual width of various objects was measured in air outside the pipe and compared to the equivalent width, measured inside the water-filled test section. A calibration curve was plotted and appears in Appendix  $"B"$ . A straight line was fitted through the origin by least squares, and from the slope, the following relationship was obtained.

> $W = 0.732 W$ where  $W = actual width$  $W^*$  = apparent width in water-filled test section.

This correction factor was used to reduce all widths measured in the test section throughout this work.

Areas and volumes of various bubble sizes under various centre-line pipe velocities were determined. Photographs were taken of bubbles ranging from 0.127 em to 0.216 cm in height above the teflon tip and using centreline pipe velocities from  $4.0$  to ll.0 cm/second. The photographic negatives were mounted on 35 mm slides and then projected on a screen. The outline of each bubble was traced from the screen projection (Appendix  $"C"$ ). Coordinates of the circumference of the traced projection of the bubble were transferred to computer data cards with the aid of a Benson-Lehner Oscar Model  $F_a$ . A computer program was developed utilizing the summation of successive volumes and areas of incremental frustrums of a cone to approximate the bubble area and volumes (see Appendix  $"H"$ ). The accuracy of this program was checked by tracing the coordinates of a two-dimensional projection of a sphere (a circle in two dimensions) of known size. It was found that for a sphere of  $0.270$  cm diameter on the tracing, the area and volume calculated with the Oscar and computer program was 0.2293  $\text{cm}^2$  and 0.01024  $\text{cm}^3$  respectively whereas the standard formulae of Area =  $\pi d^2$  and Volume =  $\frac{\pi}{6}$  d<sup>3</sup> gave 0.2290 cm<sup>2</sup> and 0.01031 cm<sup>3</sup> respectively. Therefore, the computer program was considered reliable.

Plots of bubble height versus bubble area and volume appear in Appendix "C", Parabolic second order regression lines for each of the four centre-line pipe velocities were fitted. In fitting the data, it was assumed that at the limiting condition of zero bubble height, the area and volume were independent of the range of velocities used.

Likewise, the photographic and regression fitting methods described above were used for an inverted bubble. The results also appear in Appendix  $"C"$ .

Prior to testing, the apparatus was dismantled and thoroughly cleaned. The glass pipe was soaked in an acid  $$ chromate cleaning solution and all pipes and fittings were rinsed with distilled water.

In preparation for an experimental run, high purity oxygen or nitrogen gas was bubbled from the scintered glass diffuser up one side of the loop for approximately two hours in order to saturate the distilled water with either oxygen or nitrogen and strip other dissolved gases. The threeway valve was set in the l-2-3 position and high purity carbon dioxide was connected to the bubble feeder assembly and allowed to escape at a low rate from the teflon tip to prevent water from entering the feeder assembly. Immediately prior to a run, the nitrogen (or oxygen) flow was stopped, the desired water velocity was set, and the temperature of the water, barometric pressure, and static head at the bubble

elevation, were recorded.

The 3-way valve in the feeder assembly was set in the 1-3 position and then a  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  bubble was formed on the teflon tip and fed appropriate quantities of  $CO_{2}$  from the micro-pipet to replace that gas which transferred from the bubble into the liquid to maintain the bubble at a constant size. The quantity of gas fed to the bubble was recorded every 30 seconds and a volumetric feed rate, that was proportional to the rate of  $CO_{2}$  mass transfer across the interfacial area of the bubble, was calculated. Normally, the duration of a run would be 40 minutes. Immediately following a run, several 20 micro-liter samples of liquid were taken from the water tunnel and injected into a Beckman Infra-red Carbon Analyser. The carbon concentrations obtained were used to calculate the dissolved  $CO_{2}$  level in the water tunnel for that run.

Runs were made with the teflon tip positioned both erect and inverted. No difference was noticed in the results of either configuration so it was decided to employ an erect bubble tip as the bubble appeared more stable. Two bubble heights  $(0.165 \text{ cm and } 0.203 \text{ cm})$  and two centre-line pipe velocities (5 and 10 cm/sec.) were selected. Combinations of these yielded bubble Reynolds numbers of 104, 121, 212, and 246. All runs were made with pure carbon dioxide initially in the bubble. A set of runs for the Reynolds numbers

specified above was made with nitrogen dissolved in the water of the loop. Another set of runs was made with oxygen in the liquid phase. A third set of runs was made with the liquid phase deaerated. This was accomplished by first saturating the water with oxygen and then adding sodium sulfite to a concentration of approximately 75 mg/l to deoxygenate, and hence degasify, the water. Some runs were repeated with the addition of concentrations of ABS, a surface active agent, in varying concentrations to a maximum of ?.4 mg/1. Generally, at least three repeated runs were made for each condition.

The "Methylene Blue" technique as outlined in Standard Methods for the examination of Water and Wastewater (12th edition) was used for determination of the surfactant concentration. A Coleman Model 14 Universal Spectrophotometer with 20 mm rectangular curvettes was used far the colour comparison. The calibration curve of percent transmitting versus ABS concentration is shown in Appendix "D".

As it was felt that the interfacial area would directly affect the rate of mass transfer from a given bubble, the diameter of a sphere of equivalent surface area was chosen to characterize the test bubble. A summary of the experimental conditions for each series of runs made appears in Table I.

## TABLE (1)

## SUMMARY OF EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS



#### CHAPTER 4

## DATA ANALYSIS

Before analyzing the data, the cumulative gas volumes recorded every 30 seconds from the micro-pipet during the course of a run were transposed to volumetric feed rates  $\frac{dV}{dt}$  and plotted with time.

Throughout this study, the temperature could not be controlled, but varied between the limits of 27.0<sup>o</sup>C and 31.5  $^{\circ}$ C with a mathematical average of 28.67 $^{\circ}$ C over all runs. The temperature for each run was recorded and used to select the dissolved gas saturation concentration value in the liquid. This value was picked from the curves plotted in Appendix "E" using data taken from the Handbook of Physics and Chemistry. However, to select the appropriate viscosity and diffusivity values to use for calculating the Reynolds, Sherwood, Schmidt and Peclet numbers in each series of runs, the arithmetic average temperature of  $28.67^{\circ}$ C was used. The viscosity *V* was selected from data supplied by Eskinazi (1962) and the diffusivity D from data by several workers  $-$ Davidson and Cullen (195?), Baird and Davidson (1962), and Metzger and Dobbins (196?). Plots showing the temperature dependence of the diffusivity and viscosity appear in Appendicies "E" and "F". The values used were

 $y = 8.36 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec}$  and  $D = 2.2 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec}$ . for carbon dioxide,  $D = 2.28 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec}$ , for nitrogen, and  $D = 2.65 \times 10^{-5}$  cm  $^2$ /sec. for oxygen. /·

The data for a carbon dioxide bubble dissolving into degasified (oxygenated and then deoxygenated with sodium sulfite) water was analyzed first. Knowing the molecular weight of carbon dioxide, the temperature and the pressure in the immediate vicinity of the bubble,  $\frac{\text{dV}}{\text{d}t}$  may be changed to a mass feed rate  $\frac{dm}{dt}$ . This is the mass rate at which carbon dioxide transfers across the interface of the bubble in question and corresponds to the left hand side of equation 1.

> $\frac{dm}{dt} = k_L A \t(C_1 - C_L)$  (1) dt

The interfacial area A can be determined from figure 23; the interfacial  $CO_2$  concentration  $C_1$  is equal to the saturation value of  $CO_{2}$  in distilled water  $(C_{S_{2}})$  at the given temperature and pressure (from Appendix "E" ), and the concentration of dissolved gas in the bulk of the liquid  $C_{T_{1}}$ was obtained using the carbon analyzer. Knowing this, the unknown mass transfer coefficient  $k_{L}$  was calculated using equation 1 for the experimental conditions. These  $k_{T}$  values were then used to verify Griffith's  $CO_{2}$  correlations for Reynolds, Schmidt and Sherwood numbers.

Because the Fisher-Milligan gas washer bottle was employed in the gas feeding apparatus, it was assumed that both the gas in the bubble and the feed gas were saturated with water vapour and in equilibrium with the liquid phase. Hence, a volume correction was applied to the volume of gas fed to the bubble using water vapour pressure data taken from the Handbook of Physics and Chemistry. This correction amounted to approximately a  $4\%$  decrease in  $\frac{dV}{dt}$  for the static heads encountered in this study. It was not necessary to correct the partial pressures of gases in the bubble because the data used for saturation concentration values (Appendix "E") taken from the Handbook of Physics and Chemistry, were adjusted for vapour gases saturated with water vapour.

A mathematical model for two-way mass transfer was developed based on a volume balance on the single bubble system used in the experiment (figure 3a). The direction of mass transfer for gases A and B across the bubble interface can occur either way depending on the relative gas concentration values at the interface and in the bulk of the liquid. As before, transfer into the bubble was assumed positives Then for a volume balance on this system:

(Volume Rate of ) (Volume Rate of) (Volume Rate of) (Input of A) (Change of A) (Change of B) (20) (Frequency 
$$
A
$$
) = (Change of A) (Change of B) (20) (Frequency  $A$ ) (in the bubble) (Teeder Assembly) (1n the bubble) (in the bubble) (21) (31)

From the rate of mass transfer equation (equation  $1$ ), we may now write:  $\frac{dm_A}{dt}$  =  ${}^kLA$  **A** · (C<sub>iA</sub> - C<sub>LA</sub>)

or: 
$$
dm_A
$$
 =  $k_{LA}$    
  $A \cdot (v_A \cdot c_{SA} - c_{LA})$  (22)

and similarly: 
$$
\frac{dm_B}{dt} = \frac{k_{LB}}{k_{LB}} \cdot A \cdot (\frac{V_B}{V_A + V_B} \cdot C_{SB} - C_{LB})
$$
 (23)

where the subscripts *A* and B refer to gases *A* and B respectively. These rates of mass transfer (equations 22 and 23) may be transposed into corresponding rates of volume transfer by giving proper consideration to the gas molecular weight (MW), barometric pressure (P) at the bubble elevation, and the temperature  $(T)$  of the system. Then we have for equations 22 and 23 respectively;

$$
\left(\frac{dV_{A}}{dt}\right) = \frac{MW_{A}}{22.4} x \frac{P}{760.0} x \frac{273.0}{T} x \frac{kLA}{T} x A \cdot \left(\frac{V_{A}}{V_{A}+V_{B}} x C_{SA}-C_{LA}\right) (24)
$$

and:

$$
\frac{dV_A}{dt} = \frac{MW_B}{22.4} x \frac{P}{760.0} x 273.0 x k_{LB} x A' \left(\frac{V_B}{V_A + V_B} \cdot C_{SB} - C_{LB}\right)
$$
 (25)

substituting into equation 21:

$$
\frac{dV_{A}}{dt} = \frac{A}{22.4} \quad x \frac{P}{760.0} \quad x \quad \frac{273.0}{T} \quad x' \quad \frac{(MW_{A} x K_{LA}) \left\{ \frac{V_{A}}{V_{A} + V_{B}} C_{SA} - C_{LA} \right\} + (MW_{B} x K_{LB}) \left\{ \frac{(MW_{B} x K_{LB}) \left\{ \frac{V_{B}}{V_{A} + V_{B}} C_{SB} - C_{LB} \right\} \right\} (26)}{(MW_{B} x K_{LB}) \left\{ \frac{V_{B}}{V_{A} + V_{B}} C_{SB} - C_{LB} \right\} (26)}
$$

Equation 26 was integrated to find  $V_{A_{\bullet}}$  the cumulative volume fed to the bubble at any time from the micropipet.

On examining equations 24 and *25,* it is seen that there will be no transfer of gas A when:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}\n\left(\begin{array}{ccc}\nV_A & x & C_{SA} \\
\hline\n\end{array}\right) & = & \left(\begin{array}{ccc}\nC_{LA}\n\end{array}\right) \\
\left(\begin{array}{ccc}\nV_A + V_B\n\end{array}\right) & = & \left(\begin{array}{ccc}\nC_{LA}\n\end{array}\right) \n\end{array}
$$

and that there will be no transfer of gas B when:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc} (V_{B} & x & C_{SB}) & = & (C_{LB}) \\ (\overline{V}_{A} + \overline{V}_{B} & & ) & = & (C_{LB}) \end{array}
$$

For the experimental conditions, gas A is carbon dioxide and occupies 100% of the bubble volume at the time zero while only dissolved to a relatively small extent in the water. Gas B (either oxygen or nitrogen) exists at something less

than a saturated concentration value at the static head at the bubble elevation. It was assumed that gas B was dissolved to an amount equal to the saturation concentration of B at the static head in the upper horizontal pipe of the apparatus. Consequently, two driving forces result whereby carbon dioxide dissolves from the bubble into the liquid and gas B comes out of solution and begins to occupy some of the bubble volume. During the course of a run, the term progressively becomes larger until a steady state  $\left\langle \frac{\mathbf{v}_{\text{B}}}{\mathbf{v}_{\text{A}} + \mathbf{v}_{\text{B}}} \right\rangle$ 

is reached where:

$$
\begin{array}{ccccc}\n\left(\begin{array}{cc} V_{B} & x & C_{SB} \end{array}\right) & = & \left(\begin{array}{c} C_{LB} \end{array}\right)\n\end{array}
$$

and no further transfer of B occurs and a system is maintained whereby a small fraction of the bubble volume is occupied by carbon dioxide and the rate of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  input from the micro-pipet has a finite value equal to the rate of transfer of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  from the bubble.

*A* computer program was developed to simulate an experimental run where the bubble contained 100% by volume of gas *A* immediately upon formation and a second gas B was dissolved in the liquid phase. Equation 26 was used as a

mathematical model to establish the program. The program is given in Appendix "H". All known or measured experimental variables were specified for each run and used as input data for the program. The variables included bubble area and volume, flow velocity, barometric pressure, static head above the bubble, temperature, molecular weight of both gases A and B. the mass transfer coefficients  ${}^{k}$ LA and  ${}^{\text{K}}$ LB for gases A and B respectively, the existing concentration of gas A in the liquid phase, and the saturation concentration of both gases A and B in the liquid phase. Also specified in the data input for the computer solution were the length of the simulated experimental run desired and the increments of time with which the integration is made.

The program prints out the volumetric feed rate from the micropipet  $\frac{(dV_{A})}{dV_{A}}$  at any time during the course  $\left(\overline{\text{dt}}^{\bullet}\right)$ IN of a run. Incidental to this computation, the volumes of gases A and B in the bubble during a run were calculated as well as other pertinent variables. A typical print out of results from the program also appears in Appendix "H".

### CHAPTER 5

#### RESULTS

### Carbon Dioxide - Degasified Water

A typical plot of the volumetric feed rate of the micro-pipet versus time for the solution of  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  into degasified water (the sodium sulfite runs) appears in figure  $5.$  It was noticed that after a small initial decline, the feed rate approached a constant value in three to four minutes. At least three repeat runs were made for each set of experimental conditions and the arithmetical average of all experimental points for each run beyond the initial three to four minute period was used to calculate the  $k_{T}$ value for that run. Average  $k$ L values for each set of repeat runs were calculated and the appropriate Reynolds, Sherwood, and Schmidt numbers were determined. These were compared to those correlations advanced by Griffith in figure  $6$ . The calculations appear in Appendix "I". It may be seen that the  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  - degasified water data compares favourably with Griffith's values. It was decided to use Griffith's correlations to obtain  ${\tt CO}_{2}$ ,  ${\tt N}_{2}$ , and  ${\tt O}_{2}$   ${\rm ^kL}$  values for the conditions of this experiment.



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# Carbon Dioxide - Aqueous Nitrogen Solution (CO<sub>2</sub>-N<sub>2</sub> data)

Typical plots of the experimental results for a Reynolds number of  $247$  appear in figure  $7$ . Superimposed on the experimental data points are two curves obtained from the mathematical model with  $k_{L}$  values representative of circulating (Sh = 1.13 Pe  $^{1/2}$ ) and non-circulating (Sh = a + b Re  $1/2$  Sc  $1/3$ ) conditions. Neither curve provides close agreement with the experimental data - the initial rate of volume transfer lying somewhere between the noncirculating and circulating curves. From this comparison coupled with the observed apparent initial decay in feed rate with the  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  - degasified water data, it was postulated that the turbulence associated with the bubble formation resulted in initial bubble circulation which was rapidly damped. Consequently, an exponential decay from circulating conditions to non-circulating conditions, at the beginning of the run was arbitrarily imposed upon the mathematical model and fitted by a trial-and-error solution. Figures 8 through 11 indicate the fit obtained with typical runs for each of the four Reynolds Numbers used in this study when  $99\%$  of the decay from the circulating to the non-circulating case occurred in the first half minute.











# Carbon Dioxide - Aqueous Oxygen Solution (CO<sub>2</sub> - O<sub>2</sub> data)

Figures 12 through 15 show the experimental data for some of the runs made with a carbon dioxide bubble and oxygen dissolved in the liquid phase. The solid line is the plot of the results obtained when the mathematical model again incorporates the same initial half-minute decay from circulating to non-circulating  $k$ L values as was done with the  $CO_2 - N_2$  data.

When comparing the  $CO_{2} - O_{2}$  data with the equivalent  $CO<sub>2</sub>$  - N<sub>2</sub> data, the former volumetric feed rate decreases to a steady state at a faster rate than the latter. This would be predicted from the mathematical model, as the driving force for the accumulation of oxygen in the bubble,  $\overline{V}_{R}$   $\rightarrow$   $\overline{V}_{B}$   $\rightarrow$   $\overline{V}_{R}$  ) from equation 26,is greater than that for nitrogen as  $C_{SB}$  is 36.73 mg/l for oxygen and 16.56 mg/l for nitrogen at  $28.67$ <sup>oC</sup>.

### Surfactant Runs

A series of runs using the larger bubble size and larger flow velocity ( $Re = 247$ ) were made with alkyl benzene sulfonate (ABS) concentrations varying from  $0.0$  to  $7.4$  mg/l. Table VII shows the results of the ABS determinations for these runs. The rate of mass transfer  $\frac{(\text{dm})}{(\text{dt})}$  for a  $\text{CO}_2$  -  $\text{N}_2$ system is calculated from volumetric feed rate data in Table IX , and presented in figure 16 for the different surfactant



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concentrations. The level of surfactants had no significant influence on the results as the runs for various levels could be superimposed with no marked deviation. The slightly different dissolved  $CO_{2}$  levels in the liquid phase could change the driving force and thereby affect the rate of mass transfer  $\frac{(\text{dm})}{(\text{dt})}$ , but the dissolved CO<sub>2</sub> levels for these runs only varied between the limits of approximately 35 mg/1 and 85 mg/1 and this variation would not significantly affect the fit of the experimental data.



### CHAPTER 6

### APPLICATION

Since the simultaneous diffusion of two or more gases into or out of a bubble was predicted successfully by considering each gas individually, it was thought to be of interest to consider the fate of an air bubble in an aerator. Another computer program was developed to simulate mass transfer from a hypothetical air bubble rising in an aeration tank. The program appears in Appendix "I".

Several simplifying assumptions were made, the major one being:

 $i$ ) Temperature = 20<sup>0</sup>C

Kinematic viscosity  $v$  = 0.01 cm<sup>2</sup>/sec.for water Diffusivity  $D = 2.14 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec.}$  for oxygen Diffusivity  $D = 1.88 \times 10^{-5} \text{ cm}^2/\text{sec.}$  for nitrogen

ii) Constant static head of 760 mm. Hg.

- iii) The process is not diffusion limiting in the gaseous phase as the oxygen approaches depletion in the bubble.
	- iv) The dissolved oxyge,n in the liquid phase is zero.
		- v) The dissolved nitrogen in the liquid phase is equivalent to the saturation value for the partial pressure of nitrogen in air.

- vi) Initially the bubble composition is 80% nitrogen and 20% oxygen.
- vii) No transition from the circulating to the non-circulating state occurs.

The mass transfer coefficient  $(k_{T_1})$  values were calculated from the Boussinesq relationship (Sh = 1.13  $Pe^{1/3}$ ) for circulating bubbles and from the Griffith relationship (equation 14) for non-circulating bubbles. Two bubble diameters were selected for consideration 0.206 em and 0.600 em., the former being a bubble diameter used previously in this work, and the latter being the largest bubble diameter in which the circulation could be stopped by the addition of small amounts of surface active materials (Garner and Hammerton  $1954$ ). Rise rates of  $18.0$  cm/sec. and 22.0 cm/ sec. were used (Appendix "G") for the smaller and the larger bubble diameters respectively.

Plots of the volume of the constituent gases at the end of various retention times appear in figures 17 and 18. For a circulating bubble of 0.206 em diameter, over half of the oxygen in the bubble is depleted in 0.24 minutes, and for a 0.600 em. diameter circulating bubble, half of the oxygen is depleted in 1.07 minutes. Nitrogen also dissolves from the bubble into the liquid as the retention time increases. The initial transfer of oxygen increases the





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partial pressure of nitrogen and this causes a concurrent transfer of nitrogen from the bubble. Decreases in bubble volume would result from the transfer of both oxygen and nitrogen gases.

The foregoing suggests that consideration must be given to bubble retention times in an aerator as oxygen depletion may result from extended bubble hold-up. The assumption of atmospheric pressure in figures 17 and 18 decreases the rate of gas depletion in comparison to rates in actual aerators with higher static heads. The higher pressures would increase the aqueous saturation concentration values of the gases in the bubble and cause a higher' driving force for mass transfer which would result in a more rapid dissolution rate of the bubble.

### CHAPTER 7

### CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

For a single bubble suspended in a liquid flow regime, it has been established that:

- 1. The mass transfer data obtained by Griffith (1960)for carbon dioxide bubbles could be reproduced.
- 2. A mathematical model could be formulated that predicted the two-way mass transfer process for a pure bubble dissolving into an aqueous solution of a different gas. This model provided a good fit for the experimental data obtained.
- 3. Backdiffusion of the gas in the aqueous solution into the bubble must be considered unless some means of completely degasifying the liquid is provided.
- $4.$  For the system described, a rapid decay in initial circulation caused a reduction in the initial mass transfer coefficient  $({}^{\mathbf{K}}\mathbf{L})$  to that of a non-circulating bubble. Approximately  $99\%$ of the decay occurred in the first half minute of a run.
5. No significant effect in the resultant mass transfer coefficient  $\binom{k}{L}$  or the rate of decay could be observed for surfactant (ABS) concentrations up to  $7.4 \text{ mg}/1$ . Any variations in the overall mass transfer coefficient  $({}^k\text{L}^a)$  for non-circulating bubbles must be associated with an increase in specific surface area  $(a)$ .

Extending the model of concurrent mass transfer to or from a bubble when two or more gases are involved to a hypothetical bubble in an aerator:

- 6. In actual aerators, a substantial decrease in the rate of oxygen transfer would result with bubble hold-up from the depletion of oxygen in the bubble. This effect is more pronounced with smaller bubbles than with larger ones. For the circulating hypothetical bubble considered in this investigation, at least one half of the oxygen content of the bubble would be depleted in 0.24 minutes for an initial bubble diameter of  $0.206$  cm., and in  $0.87$ minutes for an initial bubble diameter of 0.600 cm.
- 7. Decreases in bubble volume with bubble hold-up are caused by the transfer of both oxygen and nitrogen from the bubble accelerating the reductions in area (A) through which transfer

can occur.and reducing further the overall oxygen transfer coefficient  $({}^k\mathbf{L}^a)$ .

Future work with this apparatus could possibly be directed toward using different bubble sizes and/or larger liquid flow velocities in an effort to induce circulation in the bubble and study the corresponding mass transfer properties of the system. Modification of the bubble supporting tip may be necessary to facilitate this.

Increasing the static head at the bubble elevation while still maintaining the same level of dissolved gas in the liquid would result in higher terminal steady state volumetric feed rates of the carbon dioxide - aqueous oxygen or nitrogen solution runs. This would reduce the possibility of error when recording the relatively low volumetric feed rates once the system has reached a steady state.

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#### APPENDIX "A"

# ORIFICE PLATE CALIBRATION CURVES

 $\tilde{\mathbf{v}}$ 

 $\bar{\mathbf{y}}$ 





 $\mathbf{r}$ 



 $\tilde{z}$ 

APPENDIX "B"

### OPTICAL DISTORTION CALIBRATION CURVE



APPENDIX "C"

#### BUBBLE AREA AND VOLUME DETERMINATIONS

# BUBBLE AREA AND VOLUME DETERMINATIONS BY COMPUTER PROGRAM



 $\frac{1}{2}$ 







PHOTOGRAPH OF TYPICAL BUBBLE

bubble height =  $0.203$  cm  $velocity = 6.6 cm/sec$ erect configuration







 $\mathcal{S}$ 







#### APPENDIX "D"

## ALKYL BENZENE SULFONATE CALIBRATION CURVE

 $\omega \neq \lambda$ 

 $\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{2} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{2} \frac{1}{2} \sum$ 



# APPENDIX "E"

 $\frac{1}{2}$ 

 $\mathcal{L}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$ 

### SOLUBILITIES AND DIFFUSIVITIES OF VARIOUS GASES IN WATER





APPENDIX "F"

 $\frac{1}{2}$ 

 $\sim$   $\sim$ 

KINEMATIC VISCOSITY OF WATER

 $\label{eq:2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\sum_{i=1}^n\frac{1$ 



APPENDIX "G"

#### BUBBLE RISE RATE VARIATION WITH DIAMETER

 $\sim 10^7$ 



 $\overline{c}$ 

APPENDIX "H"

COMPUTER PROGRAMS USED FOR ANALYSIS

#### NOMENCLATURE USED FOR COMPUTER PROGRAMS

SYMBOL

 $\ddot{\phantom{1}}$ 



 $\label{eq:1} \mathbf{e}^{(1)} = \mathbf{e}^{(1)} + \mathbf{e}^{(1)} + \mathbf{e}^{(1)} + \mathbf{e}^{(1)}$ 

#### SYMBOL

BKL99 Mass transfer coefficient for gas B after 99% of the decay from circulation to noncirculation has transpired.

BM Mass of gas B in bubble.

BMRATE **EXECUTE:** Rate of decay of mass transfer coefficient of  $\hat{g}$ as B from circulating to non-circulating values.

BMW Molecular weight of gas B.

BUBLM Total mass of bubble.

BU Volume of gas B in bubble.

CA Concentration of gas A dissolved in liquid phase.

CBINIT Concentration of gas B dissolved in liquid phase.

C02 Concentration of oxygen in liquid phase.

CN2 Concentration of nitrogen in liquid phase.

CSA Saturation concentration of gas A.

CSB Saturation concentration of gas B.

DAM Incremental change in mass of gas A in bubble.

DAV Incremental change in volume of gas A in bubble.

DBM Incremental change in mass of gas B in bubble.

DBV Incremental change in volume of gas B in bubble.

DECAYT Time taken for 99% of decay from circulation to non-circulation to occur.

DEGK Temperature in Degrees Kelvin.

DELA Incremental change in bubble area.

DELV Incremental change in bubble volume.

DENOM Denominator.

DFA Mass transfer driving force for gas A.



RATE02 Volumetric rate of change of oxygen in bubble.

# SYMBOL



```
BUBBLE AREA AND VOLUME BY METHOD OF CO-ORDINATES USING AN OSCAR
\subset\mathsf{C}INCREMENTAL AREAS OF THE CONVEX SURFACES OF SUCESSIVE FRUSIRUMS
\mathsf{C}OF CONES ARE USED.
                                                         A. WARREN WILSON.
       DIMENSION X(800), Y(800)
   88 READ (5,1) (X(I), Y(I), I = 1,200,1)
    1 FORMAT (8(2F5.3))
      WRITE (6,99) (X(I), Y(I), I = 1,10)
   99 FORMAT (1H-,10(2F6.3))
      AREA = 0.0VOLUME = 0.0J = 0DO 3 I = 1.196.2H = 0.50 * (X(I + 2) = X(I) + X(I + 3) = X(I + 1))
      R1 = 0.50 * (Y(I + 1) - Y(I))<br>R2 = 0.50 * (Y(I + 3) - Y(I + 2))<br>THE FOLOWING IS 1000 POTTOM FOR
      THE FOLLOWING IS A CORRECTION FOR GLASS DISTORTION
\subsetR1 = R1 * 0.7317R2 = R2 * 0.7317S = SQRT(H * * 2 + (R1 - R2) * * 2)DELA = 3.1416 * S * (R1 + R2)DELV = 3.1416 * H * (R1 * * 2 + R2 * * 2 + R1 * R2) / 3.0
      AREA = AREA + DELAVOLUME = VOLUME + DELV
    3 CONTINUE
      WRITE (6,4) AREA, VOLUME
    4 FORMAT (1HO,14HBUBBLE AREA = ,1PE14.7,/1HO,
     1 16HBUBBLE VOLUME = ,1PE14.7)
      J = J + 1IF (J.GE.9) GO TO 77
      GO TO 88
   77 STOP
      END
```

```
PARABOLIC REGRESSION LINE SPECIFYING Y-INTERCEPT OF THE FORM
        Y = A + B1 + X + B2 + X + + 2A. WARREN WILSON.
  DIMENSION X(500), Y(500)
 1 READ (5,2) N, AAVG, (X(I), I = 1,N,1), (Y(I), I = 1,N,1)
 2 FORMAT (110, F10.7/ (8F10.6))
  WRITE (6,3) N, AAVG, (X(1), Y(1), I = 1, N, 1)3 FORMAT (1H1,3HN = 13.5X,13HSPECIFIED A = F10.7712F12.61)
  SX = 0.0SYX = 0.0S X2 = 0.0S X3 = 0.05X4 = 0.0SYX2 = 0.0DO 4 I = 1.111SX = SX + X(I)SYX = SYX + Y(1) * X(1)SX2 = SX2 + X(1) + X2SX3 = SX3 + X(I) + 3SXA = SX4 + X(1) + ASYX2 = SYX2 + Y(I) + X(I) + 24 CONTINUE
  DENOM = SX2 * SX4 - SX3 * * 2
  B1 = (SYX + SX4 - SYX2 + SX3) / DENOM
  B2 = (SYX2 \times SX2 - SYX \times SX3) / DENOM
  WRITE (6,5) AAVG, B1, B2
5 FORMAT (1HO,3HA =,F12,7/1HO,4HB1 =,F12,7/1HO,4HB2 =,F12,7)
  WRITE (6,6)
6 FORMAT (1H-17X)1HY-15X+1HX)EX = 0.1307 CONTINUE
  WYE = A + B1 * EX + B2 * EX * * 2
  WRITE (6,8) WYE, EX
8 FORMAT (1H0, (F12.7, 5X, F12.7))
  EX = EX + 0.010IF (EX.GT.0.220) GO TO 9
  GO TO 7
9 CONTINUE
  GO TO 1
77 STOP
  END
```
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DETERMINING KL RATES FROM STEADY-STATE VOLUMETRIC FEED RATE DATA
   MASS TRANSFER IN ONE DIRECTION ONLY
   CONSIDERING WATER VAPOUR PRESSURE EFFECTS
   VAPOUR PRESSURE OF WATER AT 28.67 DEG. C.
                                               = 29.474 MM. HG.
 1 READ (5,2) NRUN, HGT, VEL, BARP, STATHD, TEMP, CSA, CA, FINVFR,
      AMW
 \mathbf{1}2 FORMAT (I3+2F10+4/2F10+4/2F10+4/2F10+4/F10+4)
   WRITE (6,3) NRUN, HGT, VEL, BARP, STATHD, TEMP, CSA, CA, FINVFR,
  \mathbf{1}AMW
          (1H1 \cdot 13HRUN NUMBER = \cdot 13/1H0 \cdot 16HBUBBLE HEIGHT = \cdot F10.4)3 FORMAT
     2HCM/1H0+23HCENTER-LINE VELOCITY = +F10+4+6HCM/SEC/1H0+22HBAROME
  \mathbf{1}2TRIC PRESSURE = \bulletF10\bullet4\bullet5HMM HG/1H0\bullet14HSTATIC HEAD = \bulletF10\bullet4\bullet335HIN. WATER ABOVE TOP HORIZONTAL PIPE/1H0,14HTEMPERATURE = ,F10.4
  4+18HDEGREES CENTIGRADE/1H0+41HSATURATION SOLUBILITY OF DISPERSED G
  5AS = »F10.4+11HMG/L AT STP/1H0+46HDISPERSED GAS CONCENTRATION IN L
  6IQUID PHASE = $F10•4•31HMG/L AT EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS/1H0+
  736HSTEADY-STATE VOLUMETRIC FEED RATE = +F10+4+6HCC/MIN/1H0+
  824HDISPERSED GAS MOL WGT = \cdotF10.4)
   IF (HGT.EQ.0.165) GO TO 4
                      GO TO 5
   IF (HGT.EQ.0.203)
4 CONTINUE
   IF (VEL.EQ.5.0) GO TO 6
   IF (VEL.EQ.10.0) GO TO 7
 5 CONTINUE
   IF (VEL.EQ.5.0) GO TO 8
   IF (VEL.EQ.10.0) GO TO 9
6 CONTINUE
   AREA = 0.096VOLUME = 0.00345GO TO 10
 7 CONTINUE
   AREA = 0.099VOLUME = 0*00360GO TO 10
8 CONTINUE
   AREA = 0.130VOLUME = 0.00525GO TO 10
9 CONTINUE
   AREA = 0.134VOLUME = 0.00550GO TO 10
10 CONTINUE
   WRITE (6+11) AREA* VOLUME
11 FORMAT (1H-+14HBUBBLE AREA = +F6+3+6H SQ CM/1H0+
     I6HBUBBLE VOLUME = +F8+5+6H CU CM)
  1
   DEGK = 273.0 + TEMPHEAD = ((STATHD + 43.2) * 25.4 / 13.546) + BARP
   CSA = HEAD * CSA / 760.0AV = VOLUMEAM = (AV * AMW * HEAD * 273.0) / (22.4 * 760.0 * DEGK)THE FOLLOWING CARD CORRECTS FOR WATER VAPOUR CONTENT IN FEED GAS
   FINVFR = FINVFR * (1.0 - (29.474 / HEAD))FINMFR = (FINVFR * AMW * HEAD * 273.0) / (22.4 * 760.0 * DEGK)
   WRITE (6,12) AM, FINMFR
12 FORMAT (1HO+31HDISPERSED GAS MASS IN BUBBLE = +F10+6+2HMG/
      1HO.3OHSTEADY-STATE MASS FEED RATE = .F10.6.6HMG/MIN)
  \mathbf{1}AKL = FINMFR / (AREA * (CSA - CA) * 0.001)
  WRITE (6,13) AKL
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13 FORMAT (1HO+32HDISPERSED GAS STEADY-STATE KL = +F10+4+6HCM/MIN)<br>GO TO 1<br>END

SIMULATED EXPERIMENTAL RUN 1 READ (5,2) NRUN, HGT, VEL, BARP, STATHD, TEMP, CSA, CSB, CA, AMW, BMW, AKLINL, BKLINL, DECAYT, AKLFIN, BKLFIN, TMAX, DT  $\mathbf{1}$ 2 FORMAT (I3, 2F10.4/2F10.4/4F10.4/2F10.4/3F10.4/2F10.4/2F10.4) NRUN, HGT, VEL, BARP, STATHD, TEMP, CSA, CSB, CA, WRITE  $(6,3)$ AMW, BMW  $\mathbf{1}$ 3 FORMAT (1H1,13HRUN NUMBER = +13/1H0,16HBUBBLE HEIGHT = +F10+4+ 1 2HCM/1H0+23HCENTER-LINE VELOCITY = +F10+4+6HCM/SEC/1H0+22HBAROME ZIRIC PRESSURE =  $pF10a4p5HMM HG/1HOp14HSTATIC HEAD = pF10a4p$ 335HIN. WATER ABOVE TOP HORIZONTAL PIPE/1H0,14HTEMPERATURE = ,F10.4 4,18HDEGREES CENTIGRADE/1H0,41HSATURATION SOLUBILITY OF DISPERSED G 5AS =  $pF10*4911$ HMG/L AT STP/1H0+41HSATURATION SOLUBILITY OF DISSOLV 6ED GAS =  $\sqrt{510}$ +4+11HMG/L AT STP/1H0+46HDISPERSED GAS CONCENTRATION 7IN LIQUID PHASE = +F10+4+31HMG/L AT EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS/1H0+ 824HDISPERSED GAS MOL WGT = •F10.4/1H0.24HDISSOLVED GAS MOL WGT = •  $9F10.41$ WRITE (6,301) AKLINL, BKLINL, DECAYT, AKLFIN, BKLFIN, TMAX, DT 301 FORMAT (1HO,27HINITIAL DISPERSED GAS KL = ,F10.4,6HCM/MIN/1HO, 127HINITIAL DISSOLVED GAS KL = »F10.4»6HCM/MIN/1H0.72HTIME TAKEN FO 2R INITIAL KL TO EXPONENTIALLY APPROACH FINAL KL BY 0.990 = .F10.4, 33HMIN/1H0,38HFINAL STEADY-STATE DISPERSED GAS KL = ,F10,4,6HCM/MIN 4/1H0,38HFINAL STEADY-STATE DISSOLVED GAS KL = ,F10.4,6HCM/MIN/ 51HO, 16HLENGTH OF RUN = ,F10.4, 3HMIN/1H0, 24HINTEGRATION INCREMENT =  $6.9F10.493HMIN$ IF (HGT.EQ.0.165) GO TO 4 IF (HGT.EQ.0.203) GO TO 5 4 CONTINUE IF (VEL.EQ.5.0) GO TO 6 IF (VEL.EQ.10.0) GO TO 7 5 CONTINUE IF (VEL.EQ.5.0) GO TO 8 IF (VEL.EQ.10.0) GO TO 9 6 CONTINUE  $AREA = 0.096$ VOLUME =  $0.00345$ GO TO 10 7 CONTINUE  $AREA = 0.099$ VOLUME = 0.00360 GO TO 10 8 CONTINUE  $AREA = 0.130$ VOLUME =  $0.00525$ GO TO 10 9 CONTINUE  $AREA = 0.134$ VOLUME =  $0.00550$ GO TO 10 10 CONTINUE DEGK =  $273.0 + TEMP$ CBINIT =  $($ (STATHD \* 25.4 / 13.546) + BARP) \* CSB / 760.0 HEAD =  $( (STATHD + 43.2) * 25.4 / 13.546) + BARP$  $CSA = HEAD * CSA / 760.0$  $CSB = HEAD * CSB / 760.0$ AKL99 =  $0.99$  \* AKLFIN +  $0.01$  \* AKLINL BKL99 =  $0.99$  \* BKLFIN +  $0.01$  \* BKLINL AMRATE = ALOG10((AKLINL - AKLFIN) / (AKL99 - AKLFIN)) / DECAYT<br>BMRATE = ALOG10((BKLINL - BKLFIN) / (BKL99 - BKLFIN)) / DECAYT WRITE (6,11) AREA, VOLUME, DEGK, CBINIT, HEAD, AMRATE, BMRATE

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11 FORMAT (1H-+14HBUBBLE AREA = +F10+5+5HSQ CM/1H0+16HBUBBLE VOLUME
  1= \sqrt{F10.65}, SHCU CM/1H0, 14HTEMPERATURE = \sqrt{F10.44}, 14HDEGREES KELVIN/
  21H0,30HDISSOLVED GAS CONCENTRATION = .F10.4,31HMG/L AT EXPERIMENTA
  3L CONDITIONS/1H0,14HSTATIC HEAD = ,F10,4,28HMM HG ABOVE BUBBLE ELE
  4VATION/1H0,34HDECAY RATE FOR DISPERSED GAS KL = ,F10.4,5HMIN-1/
  51HO.34HDECAY RATE FOR DISSOLVED GAS KL = ,F10.4,5HMIN-1)
  WRITE (6,12)
          (1H1,10HTIME (MIN),3X,10HVOLUMETRIC,6X,4HMASS,6X,11HDISP G
12 FORMAT
  1AS KL, 3X, 11HDISS GAS KL, 3X, 11HVOLUME DISP, 3X, 12HVOL DISP GAS, 3X,
  2 12HVOL DISS GAS/14X,10HFEED RATE,3X,10HFEED RATE,5X,8H(CM/MIN),
  36X,8H(CM/MIN),6X,7HGAS FED,7X,9HIN BUBBLE,6X,9HIN BUBBLE/15X,
  AV = VOLUME
  BV = 0.0BUBLM = (AV * AMW * HEAD * 273.0) / (22.4 * 760.0 * DEGK)
  TOTAV = 0.0AM = BUBLMBM = 0.0T = 0.013 ICOUNT = 014 PPA = AM / BUBLM
  PPB = BM / BUBLMDFA = PPA * CSA - CADFB = PPB * CSB - CBINITAKL = AKLFIN + (AKLINL - AKLFIN) * 10.0 * * (-AMRATE * T)
  BKL = BKLFIN + (BKLINL = BKLFIN) * 10.0 * * (-BMRATE * T)
  DAM = AKL * 0.001 * AREA * DFA * DT
  DBM = BKL * 0.001 * AREA * DFB * DT
  DAV = (DAM * 22.4 * 760.0 * DEGK) / (AMW * HEAD * 273.0)
  DBV = (DBM * 22.4 * 760.0 * DEGK) / (BMW * HEAD * 273.0)
   IF (DFB.GE.0.0)
                  GO TO 15
  IF (DFB.LT.0.0)
                  GO TO 16
15 DBV = 0.0
16 CONTINUE
  AV = AV + DBVBV = BV - DBVTOTAV = TOTAV + DAV + DBVRATEV = (DAV + DBV) / DTRATEM = (DAM + DBM) / DTBM = BM - DBMAM = (AV * AMW * HEAD * 273.0) / (22.4 * 760.0 * DEGK)
  BUBLM = AM + BMIF (T.LT.2.0) GO TO 17
  IF (T.GE.2.0) GO TO 18
17 CONTINUE
  IF (ICOUNT.EQ.0)
                    GO TO 19
   IF (ICOUNT.EQ.250) GO TO 19
  IF (ICOUNT.EQ.500) GO TO 19
  IF (ICOUNT.EQ.750) GO TO 19
  GO TO 21
18 CONTINUE
  IF (ICOUNT.EQ.0)
                    GO TO 19
   IF (ICOUNT.GT.O)
                   GO TO 21
19 WRITE (6,20) T. RATEV, RATEM, AKL. BKL. TOTAV, AV. BV
20 FORMAT (1H0+F8+3+5X+F10+6+5X+F10+6+5X+F7+4+7X+F7+4+6X+F9+6+5X+
  1F9.695X9F9.6121 CONTINUE
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 $ICOUNT = ICOUNT + 1$ 

T = T + DT<br>
IF (T. GT. TMAX) GO TO 22<br>
IF (ICOUNT. GE. 1000) GO TO 13<br>
IF (ICOUNT. LT. 1000) GO TO 14<br>
22 CONTINUE<br>
GO TO 1<br>
END

```
SIMULATION OF MASS TRANSFER PHENOMENA FOR SINGLE AIR BUBBLE
 1 READ (5,2) DIAM, TMAX, DT, AKL, BKL, CO2, CN2
 2 FORMAT (7F10.4)
  WRITE (6,3) DIAM, TMAX, AKL, BKL, CO2, CN2,
 3 FORMAT (1H1+18HBUBBLE DIAMETER = +F6+3+2HCM/1H0+ 24HBUBBLE RETENT
 1ION TIME = \sqrt{57.3}, 3HMIN/1HO, 18HOXYGEN KL VALUE = \sqrt{57.4}, 6HCM/MIN/
  21HO,20HNITROGEN KL VALUE = ,F7.4,6HCM/MIN/1HO,
  343HDISSOLVED OXYGEN CONCENTRATION IN LIQUID = 5F8.4344MMG/L/1HO,
  445HDISSOLVED NITROGEN CONCENTRATION IN LIQUID = \bulletF8.4.4HMG/L)
   AREA = 3.1416 * (DIAM * * 2)
  VOLUME = 3.1416 * (DIAM * * 3) / 6.0
  T = 0.0PPFO2 = 0.20PPFN2 = 0.80WRITE (6,5)
 5 FORMAT (1H1,119HOXYGEN VOL
                                 NITROGEN VOL OXYGEN MASS
                                                               NITROGE
                                         TIME<sup>5</sup>
          BUBBLE VOL BUBBLE DIAM
                                                               DI SSOLU
                                                      KLRATE
  IN MASS
  2TION/ 4X, 4H(CC), 10X,4H(CC), 11X,4H(GM), 12X, 4H(GM), 9X, 4H(CC),
  39X, 4H(CM), 10X, 5H(MIN), 5X, 8H(CM/MIN), 2X, 11HRATE OF OXY/
  4110X, 8H(CC/MIN))
 6 CONTINUE
   ICOUNT = 07 CONTINUE
  VO2 = PPFO2 * VOLUMEVN2 = PPPN2 * VOLUMEAMO2 = (VO2 + 32.0 + 273.0) / (22.4 + 293.0)AMN2 = (VN2 * 28.0 * 273.0) / (22.4 * 293.0)DMO2 = -AKL * 0.001 * AREA * (PPFO2 * 43.39 - CO2) * DTDMN2 = -BKL * 0.001 * AREA * (PPFN2 * 19.01 - CN2) * DTDV02 = (DM02 * 22.4 * 293.0) / (32.0 * 273.0)
  RATEO2 = DVO2 / DT
  IF (ICOUNT.EQ.0) GO TO 8<br>IF (ICOUNT.GT.0) GO TO 10
 8 WRITE (6,9) VO2, VN2, AMO2, AMN2, VOLUME, DIAM, T, AKL, RATEO2
 9 FORMAT (1HO, F9.6, 5X, F10.6, 4X, F10.7, 5X, F10.7, 5X, F10.6,
 14X, F8.5, 6X, F9.5, 3X, F7.4, 3X, F10.7)
10 CONTINUE
   ICOUNI = ICOUNI + 1T = T + DTAMO2 = AMO2 + DMO2AMN2 = AMN2 + DMN2VO2 = (AMO2 + 22+ + 293+0) / (32.0 * 273.0)
  VN2 = (AMN2 + 22.4 + 293.0) / (28.0 + 273.0)VOLUME = VO2 + VN2PPF02 = VO2 / VOLUMEPPFN2 = VN2 / VOLUMEDIAM = (6.0 / 3.1416 * VOLUME) * * (0.333)AREA = 3.1416 * (DIAM * * 2)
   IF (T.GT. TMAX) GO TO 11
   IF (ICOUNT.GE.250) GO TO 6
   IF (ICOUNT.LE.250) GO TO 7
11 CONTINUE
   GO TO 1
  END
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RUN NUMBER =  $38$ BUBBLE HEIGHT = 0.2030CM CENTER-LINE VELØCITY = 10.0000CM/SEC BARØMETRIC PRESSURE = 753.7000MM HG STATIC HEAD = 5.0000IN. WATER ABØVE TØP HØRIZØNTAL PIPE TEMPERATURE = 28.0000DEGREES CENTIGRADE SATURATIØN SØLUBILITY ØF DISPERSED GAS = 1327.0000MG/L AT STP SATURATION SOLUBILITY OF DISSOLVED GAS = 16.7400MG/L AT STP DISPERSED GAS CØNCENTRATIØN IN LIQUID PHASE = 36.3000MG/L AT EXPERIMENTAL CØNDITIØNS DISPERSED GAS MØL WGT = 44.0000 DISSØLVED GAS MØL WGT = 28.0000 INITIAL DISPERSED GAS KL = 2.2200CM/MIN INITIAL DISSØLVED GAS KL = 2.2500CM/MIN TIME TAKEN FØR INITIAL KL TØ EXPØNENTIALLY APPRØACH FINAL KL 8Y 0.990 = 0.5000MIN FINAL STEADY-STATE DISPERSED GAS KL = **0.5370CM/MIN** FINAL STEADY-STATE DISSELVED GAS KL = 0.4820CM/MIN LENGTH ØF RUN = 40.0000MIN INTEGRATION INCREMENT = 0.0010MIN **BUBBLE AREA =** 0.13400SC CM **BUBBLE VØLUME =** 0.00550CU CM TEMPERATURE = 301.0000DEGREES KELVIN DISSØLVED GAS CØNCENTRATIØN = 16.8077MG/L AT EXPERIMENTAL CØNDITIØNS STATIC HEAD = 844.0794MM HG ABØVE BUBBLE ELEVATIØN

DECAY RATE FØR DISPERSED GAS KL =  $4.0000M1N-1$ 

DECAY RATE FØR DISSØLVED GAS KL = 4.0000MIN-1





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 $\mathcal{A}^{\text{max}}_{\text{max}}$ 

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## APPENDIX "I"

## DATA, CALCULATIONS, AND RESULTS TABLES

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### TABLE III

CALCULATIONS OF DIAMETER OF SPHERES OF EQUIVALENT SURFACE AREA



### TABLE IV

#### CALCULATIONS OF AVERAGE  ${}^{\bf k}{\bf L}$  VALUES FOR THE CO<sub>2</sub>- DEGASIFIED WATER RUNS ֦֧֦֧֦֧֦֧֦֧֦֧֝֜*֪*



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# TABLE V

 $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}}$ 

#### $\mathtt{CALCULATIONS}$  FOR  $\mathtt{CO}_{p}$  - SULFITE DATA

 $\mathcal{L}_{\text{max}}$  and  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{max}}$  and  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{max}}$  and  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{max}}$ 



The Boussinesq relationship (Sh = 1.13 Pe  $^{1/2}$ ) was used to calculate the circulating  $k_{L}$  values at the beginning of a run for all gases used.

The following equations obtained from Griffith (1960) were used to determine the non-circulating  $k_{L}$ values which were rapidly approached after each run commenced;



#### TABLE VI





#### TABLE VII

### SURFACTANT DETERMINATIONS



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#### TABLE VIII

#### EXPERIMENTAL CONDITIONS FOR THE SURFACTANT RUNS



To calculate the mass feed rate  $\frac{(\text{dm})}{(\text{dt})}$  from the volumetric feed rate  $\frac{dV}{dt}$ , the following relationship was used:  $\frac{\text{(dm)}}{\text{(dt)}} = \frac{\text{(dV)}}{\text{(dt)}}$  •  $\frac{\text{(273.0)}}{\text{(Temp.)}}$  •  $\frac{\text{(Static Head)}}{\text{(760.0)}}$  •  $\frac{\text{(Molecular Weight)}}{\text{(22.4)}}$ 

where the temperature is in degrees Kelvin and the static head is in mm  $Hg$ .

The following relationships exist for the experimental conditions in this study:



# TABLE IX 116

# $\frac{{\rm d}\mathbf{m}}{{\rm d}\, \mathbf{t}}$  CALCULATIONS FOR VARIOUS SURFACTANT LEVELS



 $\mathcal{L}^{\mathcal{L}}$ 



 $\hat{\mathcal{A}}_{\mathcal{A}}$ 





# APPENDIX "J"

## NOMENCLATURE

 $\gamma_{\rm{f}}$ 

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#### NOMENCLATURE

- Term Meaning
- A Area, or as a subscript, gas A.
- a Interfacial surface area per unit volume of aeration tank, or an empirical constant, or as a subscript, gas A.
- ABS Alkyl Benzene Sulfonate.
- B A constant characteristic of an aeration system, or as a subscript, gas B.
- b An empirical constant.
- c Concentration of solute gas.
- Interfacial concentration of solute gas.  $C_{1}$
- Concentration of solute gas in the bulk of the  $\mathtt{C}_{\mathtt{L}}$ liquid phase.
- $C_{\rm s}$  Saturation solubility.
- D Diffusivity.
- $D_{\overline{G}}$ Diffusivity in the gaseous phase.
- $D_{T}$ Diffusivity in the liquid phase.
- d Diameter.
- f Fanning friction factor.
- G As a subscript, the gaseous phase.
- g Gravitational constant.
- h Height of an aerator.
- i As a subscript, interface.
- K Batio of proportionality between terminal velocity of a rigid sphere and that of an equivalent fluid sphere.

NOMENCLATURE (CONT•D)



NOMENCLATURE (CONT•D)



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