Lattice Boltzmann study of mass transfer for two-dimensional Bretherton/Taylor bubble train flow

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Abstract

This work presents a procedure for the determination of the volumetric mass transfer coefficient in the context of lattice Boltzmann simulations for the Bretherton/Taylor bubble train flow for capillary numbers 0.1 < Ca < 1.0. We address the case where the hydrodynamic pattern changes from having a vortex in the slug (Ca < 0.7) to not having it (Ca > 0.7) [1]. In the latter case the bubble shape is asymmetric and cannot be approximated through flat surfaces and circular circumferences as is often done in the literature [2, 3]. When the vortex is present in the slug, the scalar concentration is well mixed and it is common to use periodic boundary conditions and the inlet/outletaveraged concentration as the characteristic concentration. The latter is not valid for flows where the tracer is not well mixed, i.e. Ca > 0.7. We therefore examine various boundary conditions (periodic, open, open with more than

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1 unit cell) and definitions of the characteristic concentration to estimate mass transfer coefficients for the range of capillary numbers 0.1 < Ca < 1.0. We show that the time-dependent volume averaged concentration taken as the characteristic concentration produces the most robust results and that all strategies presented in the literature are extreme limits of one unified equation. Finally, we show good agreement of simulation results for different Peclet numbers with analytical predictions of van Baten and Krishna [2]. *Key words:* Mass Transfer, Taylor/Bretherton bubble train flow, Multiphase flow, Lattice Boltzmann method, Binary liquid model, Flow in microchannels with parallel plates

1 1. Introduction

Monolith reactors have recently been getting more attention as a promis-2 ing alternative to slurry reactors and trickle bed reactors [3, 4]. These re-3 actors usually operate in the Bretherton-Taylor regime [5, 6] which is a flow 4 of equally sized, long air bubbles through a liquid medium, see Fig. 1. This 5 flow regime is characterized by the dominance of surface tension over inertia 6 and viscous effects, and by comparatively small gas flow velocities [7]. Due to 7 the dominance of surface tension, the flow exhibits advantageous properties 8 which cannot be achieved in its macroscopic counterparts: thin liquid films 9 [5] between bubbles and walls strongly enhance mass transfer from gas and 10 walls to liquid; the plug flow regime occurring in monolith reactors allows to 11 perform chemical reactions in slugs only [3]. Moreover, the low slip velocity 12 between gas and liquid is utilized in experiments to measure liquid velocity 13 [6]: bubbles travelling with approximately the same velocity as liquid can be 14

captured with a camera. These properties explain why nowadays one can find
a large number of applications of the Bretherton-Taylor bubble train flow:
continuous flow analyzers to measure liquid velocity, chemical reactors for
hydrogenation of nitroaromatics, 2-ethyl-hexenal, Fischer-Tropsch synthesis,
etc. The extensive reviews of Kreutzer et al. [3], Gupta et al. [8], Yue et al.
[7] cover a significant number of applications.

This work is focused on gas to liquid mass transfer for the two-dimensional Bretherton/Taylor flow. A good understanding of mass transfer and how it depends on parameters such as the capillary number, the Reynolds number, and slug and bubble lengths allows to properly manufacture a microchannel with properties necessary to ensure that chemical reactions are performed in the best possible manner. The mass transfer coefficient is defined as the flux from the gas-liquid interface divided by the difference of the imposed concentration and the characteristic concentration in the domain. The concentration distribution in the domain is prescribed by underlying hydrodynamics fields. For example, experimental studies [7, 4] show a complex dependency of the mass transfer coefficient on flow parameters: bubble and slug lengths, and bubble velocity, which in turn relate to the capillary number Ca and the Reynolds number Re. Yue et al. [7] established an experimental correlation for the volumetric mass transfer coefficient for a bubble train as a function of the diffusion coefficient, slug and bubble lengths, and bubble velocity:

$$k_L a = \frac{2}{d_h} \left(\frac{DU_{\text{bubble}}}{L_{\text{bubble}} + L_{\text{slug}}} \right)^{0.5} \left(\frac{L_{\text{bubble}}}{L_{\text{bubble}} + L_{\text{slug}}} \right)^{0.3},\tag{1}$$

where $k_L a$ is the volumetric mass transfer coefficient, d_h is the hydraulic diameter, L_{bubble} is the bubble length, L_{slug} is the slug distance (between bubbles), U_{bubble} is the bubble velocity, and D is the diffusion coefficient. The understanding of mass transfer for the bubble train flow is not possible without knowledge of hydrodynamic patterns. There are several works studying the hydrodynamic properties of the bubble train flow, both experimental [9, 10, 11] and numerical [12, 13, 1, 14, 15]. For the flow of long bubbles between parallel plates chosen here as the study case, it is indicated that there exists a vortex in the liquid slug for Ca < 0.7, and that the bubble shape is symmetric for low capillary numbers (Ca < 0.1 [11]) with the capillary number defined as:

$$Ca = \frac{\mu_{\rm liq} U_{\rm bubble}}{\gamma},\tag{2}$$

where μ_{liq} is the liquid viscosity, U_{bubble} is the bubble velocity, and γ is the interfacial tension. The fact that the bubble shape for Ca < 0.1 can be represented as two hemicircles and two planar interfaces with the vortex existing in the liquid slug has been utilized for analytical estimations of mass transfer properties.

Since the mass transfer coefficient is defined in terms of a mass flux through a certain area, see Sec 2, analytical estimates [3, 16] are based on a decomposition of the bubble surface in parts. The mass transfer coefficient is calculated through two separate contributions from two planar films and two hemicircles. For both contributions the Higbie penetration theory [17] is utilized, which states that the mass transfer coefficient for a simple flow geometry depends on the average time a liquid packet interacts with a geometrical feature. It can be calculated as $\sqrt{\frac{\pi D}{t_{char}}}$, where t_{char} is the interaction time. As an example of the application of the Higbie penetration theory, the mass transfer coefficient for the flow of bubbles between parallel plates is calculated as (similar to the work of van Baten and Krishna [2]):

$$k_L = 2\sqrt{\frac{\pi D}{t_{\rm film}}} + 2\sqrt{\frac{\pi D}{t_{\rm circle}}},\tag{3}$$

where $t_{\text{film}} = \frac{L_{\text{film}}}{U_{\text{bubble}}}$ stands for the interaction time of liquid traveling next to the planar part of the bubble, and $t_{\text{circle}} = \frac{\pi R_{\text{circle}}}{U_{\text{bubble}}}$ is the time during which the liquid in the slug travels the distance of half the bubble cap circumference.

Despite their simplicity, such analytical expressions work well for flows 32 with low capillary numbers Ca < 0.1 [4] where the bubble shape is sym-33 metrical and can be approximated with good precision. Moreover, because 34 of the hydrodynamic pattern in the slug (i.e. presence of a vortex in the 35 slug), one can estimate the time for a fluid batch to travel the whole circum-36 ference. However, with the increase of the capillary number the situation 37 changes significantly – the symmetrical bubble shape is lost and the bubble 38 resembles a bullet [18]. For flows with Ca > 0.7 there is also no vortex in the 39 liquid slug. In this case the Higbie theory fails to estimate the contribution 40 from bubble caps, which explains the need to turn to numerical simulations 41 where all hydrodynamic fields as well as complex bubble shapes are taken 42 into account. 43

Typical numerical studies of mass transfer [3, 2] do not consider the simulation of bubble shapes for Ca > 0.1. The interesting work by Onea et al. [19] only takes into account short length bubbles in microchannels with a square cross section. As well, in this work a Schmidt number of around 0.8 is used: thus, the thickness of the concentration and momentum boundary layer is similar leading to qualitative results since it's not possible to separate mixing due to hydrodynamics patterns from mixing due to diffusion.

51 The usual simulation of mass transfer is performed as follows:

⁵² I The bubble shape is calculated either through analytical correlations [5] or ⁵³ experimental correlations [11] without directly resolving bubble shapes ⁵⁴ through multiphase simulations. The expressions for bubble shapes are ⁵⁵ available only for flows with capillary number Ca < 0.1.

II Hydrodynamic fields are then obtained by performing simulations of one component flow around the bubble by imposing the bubble velocity on
 the channel walls. Thus, the simulations are performed in the reference
 frame moving with the bubble. A stress-free condition is imposed at
 the bubble surface.

III The mass transfer simulations are performed in the reference frame moving with the bubble. The saturation concentration is imposed at the bubble surface. Only one unit cell containing a single bubble is used for simulations. Periodic concentration boundary conditions are utilized to determine the volumetric mass transfer coefficient, which is calculated through the following equation [2]:

$$k_L a = \frac{\overline{\text{Flux}}}{C_{\text{bubble}} - \langle C_{\text{in/outlet}} \rangle} \frac{\text{bubble surface area}}{\text{unit cell volume}}, \quad (4)$$

where $\langle C_{\rm in/outlet}(t) \rangle = \int CU_{\rm in/outlet} dA / \int U_{\rm in/outlet} dA$ is the space-averaged inlet/outlet (periodic boundary conditions) concentration as a function of time. Therefore, in terms of the mass transfer definition, $\langle C_{\rm in/outlet}(t) \rangle$ plays the role of the characteristic concentration. The time-averaged concentration flux (Flux) is calculated as the difference between the overall average concentration in the whole domain ($\langle C_{\rm overall} \rangle = \int_V C dV/V$) at time t_1 and at time t_2 divided by the time difference $t_2 - t_1$. The agreement between numerical simulations [2] and experimental correlations of Bercic and Pintar [4] was good.

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The presented numerical approaches [2, 3] can be criticized on a number of 70 points. They mainly relate to the bubble shape approximation, which is taken 71 to be symmetrical, i.e. consisting of two hemispheres and film for the case 72 of flow in circular capillaries. This is valid for small capillary numbers only 73 (Ca < 0.1). As previously discussed, for such capillary numbers the tracer 74 is well mixed in the slug and the choice of the characteristic concentration 75 needed for the mass transfer coefficient, Eq. 5, is obvious. With minimal 76 differences in the results, it can either be the averaged concentration in the 77 liquid slug or the inlet/outlet space-averaged concentration. The latter is 78 used in the formulation of van Baten and Krishna [2] presented above. 79

While it is clear that periodic boundary conditions can be employed for 80 the calculation of hydrodynamic fields, the same does not apply to the mass 81 transfer coefficient simulations. Experimental correlations [4] show that the 82 concentration in a bubble train along the streamwise direction changes ex-83 ponentially with distance. Mass transfer simulations however, are made only 84 for one unit cell using periodic boundary conditions with the same concen-85 tration at the inlet and at the outlet. The question how a single unit cell 86 simulation corresponds to experimental measurements arises where the con-87 centration difference is measured at distances of at least a few unit cells [4]. 88 In other words, one needs to understand how the discrete one unit cell simu-89 lation corresponds to the continuous picture in experiments where one does 90 not distinguish discrete bubbles but takes measurements of concentration at 91 different locations. 92

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Addressing situations for a rich number of hydrodynamic patterns, shapes, 93 and effects of bubble lengths, etc for bubble train flows, we feel that there is 94 a need to examine carefully the strategies and assumptions behind the nu-95 merical calculations of the mass transfer coefficient. We aim at establishing 96 clear procedures as to how properly obtain the mass transfer coefficient via a 97 study of different boundary conditions and different definitions of the char-98 acteristic concentration. The case we want to examine is a two-dimensional 99 bubble train flow between parallel plates. We address the following: 100

I Applicability of periodic boundary conditions to determine the mass transfer coefficient when the vortex in the slug disappears, i.e. when Ca > 0.7.

II Validity of the inlet/outlet-averaged or domain-averaged concentrations
 as characteristic concentrations in the definition of the mass transfer
 coefficient.

III Translation of the continuous experimental picture to numerical simulations of a few unit cells, the issue of correspondence between space
 averages (simulations [2]) and time averages (experiment).

In addition, at the end of the manuscript we present results of the dependence of the volumetric mass transfer coefficient on the Peclet number that we compare with analytical [16] and experimental correlations [7]. The thorough determination of the mass transfer coefficient and associated Sherwood number as a function of other non-dimensional parameters such as gas holdup, bubble/slug lenghts, and the capillary number is left for future studies.



Figure 1: Simplified sketch of the bubble motion. Using periodic conditions for the velocity field is natural, but needs evaluation for mass transfer.

To establish numerical procedures we performed multiphase simulations 116 to extract bubble shapes [18, 13] for the range of capillary numbers Ca =117 0.1 - 1.0. For this range of capillary numbers we were able to capture the 118 bubble shape change and the change of hydrodynamic patterns. The mass 119 transfer simulations presented here were performed with various boundary 120 conditions (open, periodic) and with a few unit cells (1 to 10 unit cells). As 121 our numerical approach we take the lattice Boltzmann method, a relatively 122 new CFD competitor developed during the last 20 years [20, 21, 22, 23]. This 123 method was successfully applied to simulate not only single phase hydrody-124 namic problems [24], but also multiphase flows [25, 26, 27], heat transfer 125 [28, 29], and ferrofluids [30, 31]. 126

Mass transfer problems in the lattice Boltzmann framework were mainly 127 addressed in a series of works of Ginzburg and co-authors [32, 33, 34]. In con-128 trast to these works whose focus was on simulating the advection-diffusion 129 equation via the lattice Boltzmann framework, we concentrate on the ap-130 plication side. One should also mention the work of Yoshino and Inamuro 131 [35] about heat and mass transfers in porous media and the work of Derksen 132 [36] simulating lateral mixing in cross-channel flow. The last two works are 133 focused on problems of homogeneous nature and do not provide guidance as 134

¹³⁵ to how to obtain the mass transfer coefficient for heterogeneous cases.

The paper is organized as follows. We start with definitions of the volu-136 metric mass transfer coefficient and apply them to bubble train flow in order 137 to derive expressions to connect space- and time-averages. Then, the lattice 138 Boltzmann model used to simulate mass transfer is presented, followed by 139 benchmarks. Finally, numerical simulations of various boundary conditions 140 and simulations spanning a few unit cells for different hydrodynamic pat-141 terns are presented to establish the procedure to determine the volumetric 142 mass transfer coefficient. The comparison with analytical correlations is also 143 discussed. 144

¹⁴⁵ 2. Mass transfer definitions

By definition, the mass transfer coefficient from a surface with an imposed constant concentration C_{bubble} is:

$$k_L = \frac{\dot{m}}{P\Delta C}, \ \Delta C = C_{\text{bubble}} - C_{\text{medium}},$$
 (5)

where \dot{m} is the mass flux $\left[\frac{kg}{s}\right]$, P is the area of the surface $\left[m^2\right]$, and ΔC is 146 the concentration difference between the surface and the surrounding medium 147 $\left\lceil \frac{kg}{m^3} \right\rceil$. Therefore, k_L has units of $\left\lceil \frac{m}{s} \right\rceil$. Usually, the surrounding medium 148 concentration is taken at an infinite distance from the bubble. However, in 149 the case of complicated geometries and non-homogeneous concentrations, the 150 medium concentration can be the average concentration in the domain or the 151 flux-averaged concentration at the inlet or outlet, etc. Thus, one needs to 152 establish a clear definition of ΔC to determine the volumetric mass transfer 153 coefficient in the case of complex geometries and non-trivial hydrodynamic 154 velocity patterns. 155

We first examine the definitions of mass transfer in the case of point sources.

158 2.1. Point mass sources

In what follows we will present three approaches to calculate point mass transfer coefficients (by point source we assume the source to have an infinitesimally small surface area P):

1. Let us look at the infinitesimally small domain of volume $A\Delta x$, not moving and containing a point source. The concentration difference is $\Delta C = C^* - C(t)$, where C^* is the imposed point source concentration, and C(t) is the time-dependent concentration, which does not depend on the location due to the assumption of homogeneity. One can therefore write a time-dependent ordinary differential equation for the concentration in the domain:

$$\dot{m} = A\Delta x \frac{\mathrm{d}C}{\mathrm{d}t} = k_L P(C^* - C(t)), \qquad (6)$$

with the initial condition C(0) = 0. The solution can be found as:

$$C(t) = C^* (1 - \exp(-k_L at)), \tag{7}$$

where $k_L a$ is the volumetric mass transfer coefficient defined as:

$$k_L a = k_L \frac{P}{A\Delta x} = k_L \frac{P}{V},\tag{8}$$

where P is the source surface, V is the unit cell volume.

¹⁶³ 2. Let us predict mass transfer in a liquid moving with the velocity U, see ¹⁶⁴ Fig. 2.



Figure 2: The mass transfer in a moving liquid.

If one can assume that the point mass sources are homogeneously distributed in the whole medium, the mass accumulated in the volume $V = A\Delta x$ can be calculated as the difference of mass fluxes entering and leaving the domain $U(C(x + \Delta x) - C(x))$. The accumulated mass should be proportional to the mass transfer coefficient:

$$U(C(x + \Delta x) - C(x)) = k_L P(C^* - C(x)), \qquad (9)$$

giving the same solution, now in the spatial domain:

$$C(x) = C^* \left(1 - \exp\left(-k_L a \frac{x}{U}\right) \right).$$
(10)

Note that the concentration C(x) does not depend on time.

3. If one transfers to the frame moving with the liquid velocity U, the situation will be the same as in the first case. One can connect time and space with the velocity U $(t = \frac{x}{U})$.

169 2.2. Bubble train

In the application to bubble train flow it is useful to think of one bubble as a point source to be able to use the calculations presented above. For example, the expression (10) was used in experiments by Bercic and Pintar [4]. However, one should be accurate with the definition of velocities because two different phases co-exist in the bubble train flow. Usually, one can take the velocity U to be a bulk velocity or $U = U_{\text{gas}} + U_{\text{liq}}$, where U_{gas} and U_{liq} are liquid and gas superficial velocities, respectively. The gas and liquid superficial and actual velocities are connected with each other through a complex dependency on Ca, ϵ [13].

With experimental measurements of concentration at different locations, 179 the calculation of the mass transfer coefficient using the logarithmic func-180 tion is straightforward. However, if one wants to analytically or numerically 181 calculate the mass transfer coefficients, the situation is much more compli-182 cated because of the presence of two phases and complex bubble geometry. 183 As was mentioned before, depending on the capillary number the velocity 184 pattern and thus scalar mixing is different. Analytical approaches [16, 2] 185 assume that the contributions from film and bubble caps can be calculated 186 separately. Therefore, tracer from the film does not influence bubble caps 187 diffusion. However, this assumption overpredicts mass transfer for a number 188 of experiments [16]. This happens since some tracer concentration from the 180 film is mixed with the slug and increases the overall concentration in the 190 slug, thereby decreasing the mass transfer from the bubble caps. Therefore, 191 the analytical estimates for the mass transfer coefficient calculation do not 192 account for mutual mass transfer from neighbouring bubbles. 193

Overall, mixing patterns of the film and liquid slugs are of great importance for the estimation of mass transfer [7]. However, the assumptions usually taken for mass transfer calculations are small capillary numbers and certain mixing patterns such as to help to estimate the mass transfer using the penetration theory of Higbie [17]. In comparison with analytical calculations and simplifications, the numerical approach can take into account the complex mixing patterns and geometries. However, there are challenges as to how to mimic the continuous picture where the medium is moving with bulk velocity $U = U_{\text{gas}} + U_{\text{liq}}$ as it is done in experiments. Thus, the questions indicated in Section 1 arise. The next section gives more details about numerical simulations.

205 2.3. Numerical simulations

Ideally one wants to mimic the continuous picture as it is seen in ex-206 periments. Thus, mass transfer simulations for a number of unit cells each 207 containing a bubble are needed. As was indicated above, there are two ap-208 proaches towards it – either to simulate the bubble train and then to measure 209 concentration along the pipe, Eq. 10, or to transfer to the reference frame 210 moving with the bulk velocity U and conduct the same measurements. How-211 ever, both methods require tracking of moving bubbles which is complicated 212 from the numerical point of view. Therefore, one needs to come up with a 213 simple and smaller domain for calculations of the mass transfer coefficient, 214 which closely mimics the continuous picture of a large number of separated 215 bubbles. 216

To avoid complications with moving grids, our approach is to simulate mass transfer in a reference frame moving with the bubble. Therefore, one needs to examine Eq. 10 more closely.

We perform simulations in the frame co-moving with the bubble in which the bubble position stays constant. The bubble velocity U_{bubble} is different from the bulk velocity $U = U_{\text{gas}} + U_{\text{liq}}$, and one thus needs to perform a x coordinate variable change:

$$x(t) = U_{\text{bubble}}t$$

$$\overline{C(x)} = C^* \left(1 - \exp\left(-k_L a \frac{x}{U_{\text{gas}} + U_{\text{liq}}}\right) \right) \qquad (11)$$

$$\langle C(t) \rangle = C^* \left(1 - \exp\left(-k_L a t \frac{U_{\text{bubble}}}{U_{\text{gas}} + U_{\text{liq}}}\right) \right),$$

where $\langle C(t) \rangle$ is the space-averaged characteristic concentration, and C(x) is the time-averaged concentration at location x. One can make different choices for $\langle C(t) \rangle$ such as the concentration averaged over the whole domain or inlet/outlet space-averaged concentrations as used in [2, 3]. The volumetric mass transfer coefficient can be obtained through the space-averaged concentration:

$$k_L a t \frac{U_{\text{bubble}}}{U_{\text{gas}} + U_{\text{liq}}} = \ln \frac{C^*}{C^* - \langle C(t) \rangle}$$

$$k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{liq}} + U_{\text{gas}}} = \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{bubble}} t} \ln \frac{C^*}{C^* - \langle C(t) \rangle},$$
(12)

where the parameter $k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{gas}}+U_{\text{liq}}}$ is non-dimensional. One can also measure the volumetric mass transfer coefficient from concentrations given at times t_1 and t_2 :

$$k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{liq}} + U_{\text{gas}}} = \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{bubble}}(t_2 - t_1)} \ln \frac{C^* - \langle C(t_1) \rangle}{C^* - \langle C(t_2) \rangle}.$$
 (13)

Expressions (11 - 13) are the cornerstones of the present work . Four possible
scenarios of numerical simulations have been examined:

One unit cell is simulated with periodic boundary conditions, see Fig.
 In this case no tracer leaves the domain similarly to plug flow.
 Though easier to implement, it gives rise to the criticism that the inlet

concentration is equal to the outlet one. As was discussed, in experiments there is a concentration difference between the inlet and the outlet, even for one unit cell.

In this case, the volumetric mass transfer coefficient is calculated by Eq. 12. The characteristic concentration $\langle C(t) \rangle$ required for the volumetric mass transfer coefficient is taken as the average concentration in the domain:

$$C(t) = \frac{\int_{liquid} C \mathrm{d}V}{\int \mathrm{d}V}.$$
(14)



Figure 3: The two-dimensional benchmark for the mass transfer coefficient for the bubble located at the middle of the domain.

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2. Periodic boundary conditions are applied as in the first case but the characteristic concentration is taken as the inlet/outlet flux-averaged concentration [2]:

$$\langle C_{\text{inlet}}(t) \rangle = \frac{\int U(y)C(0, y, t)dy}{\int U(0, y)dy}$$
$$\langle C_{\text{outlet}}(t) \rangle = \frac{\int U(y)C(L_{\text{unit}}, y, t)dy}{\int U(L_{\text{unit}}, y)dy}$$
(15)

 $C_{\text{inlet}}(\boldsymbol{x},t) = C_{\text{outlet}}(\boldsymbol{x},t)$, due to periodicity.

The assumptions of this approach are that the concentration difference between the inlet/outlet- and the space-averaged over the whole unit cell is not significant. Thus, the tracer is assumed to be well mixed in the slug.

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3. The approach of van Baten and Krishna [2], where periodic boundary conditions are used and the mass transfer coefficient is calculated as the gain of the mass in the system divided by the concentration difference multiplied by the surface area:

$$k_L a = \frac{\dot{m}}{P\Delta C} \frac{P}{V} = \frac{\dot{m}}{V(C^* - \langle C(t) \rangle)},$$
(16)

where the mass flux in the domain can be calculated as:

$$\dot{m} = \frac{m_2 - m_1}{t_2 - t_1} = \frac{\int_{liq} C(\boldsymbol{x}, t_2) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x} - \int_{liq} C(\boldsymbol{x}, t_1) \mathrm{d}\boldsymbol{x}}{t_2 - t_1}.$$
 (17)

In the approach of van Baten and Krishna the inlet/outlet flux-averaged 233 concentrations were taken as the characteristic concentration $\langle C(t) \rangle$. 234 4. Simulation of several unit cells, see Fig. 4. This situation corresponds 235 to the head of the bubble train, after injection in the pipe and travel-236 ling along the channel. One can see that this situation best resembles 237 the experimental picture, but also requires larger computational re-238 sources. By simulating a certain number of bubbles in the train head, 239 the influence of the boundaries can be reduced. For example, left and 240 right boundary conditions in this case are taken as open boundaries, 241 i.e. $\partial C/\partial x = 0$. There is no ambiguity in the choice of the characteris-242 tic concentration. The average concentration of any unit cell far away 243 from boundaries will be governed by Eq. 13. 244



Figure 4: Benchmark for multiple unit cells.

One can notice that all examined cases are the extreme limits of one equation:

$$k_L a = \frac{\dot{m} - \int C_{\text{outlet}}(t)u(L_{\text{unit}}, y)\mathrm{d}y + \int C_{\text{inlet}}(t)u(0, y)\mathrm{d}y}{V\Delta C}, \qquad (18)$$

where $\Delta C = C^* - \langle C(t) \rangle$ with $\langle C(t) \rangle$ taken to be the average concentration in the whole liquid domain, \dot{m} is the mass gain in the domain, $\int C_{\text{inlet}} u(0, y) dy$ and $\int C_{\text{outlet}} u(L_{\text{unit}}, y) dy$ are inlet/outlet mass fluxes. Eq. 18 describes the mass balance: whatever was generated by the bubble surface equals the domain mass change minus whatever left the domain plus whatever entered it.

With periodic boundary conditions:

$$\int C_{\text{outlet}}(t)u(L_{\text{unit}}, y)\mathrm{d}y = \int C_{\text{inlet}}(t)u(0, y)\mathrm{d}y.$$

²⁵¹ In this case, Eq. 18 reduces to Eq. 16.

Another limiting case (will be shown later) is when the mass accumulation rate equals zero, i.e. $\dot{m} = 0$. This situation corresponds to a simulation of a few unit cells with open boundary for flows with Ca > 0.7.

Before we examine all the test cases above, some lattice Boltzmann mass
transfer benchmarks will be presented.

257 3. Validation

As was discussed earlier, analytical correlations for the mass transfer coefficient have been derived for a Taylor bubble train flow as two separate contributions: the mass transfer from two half circles and the mass transfer from the film. We will examine these mass transfer cases closely with the help of the lattice Boltzmann method and compare them against analytical solutions. The next sections will give a short introduction to the lattice Boltzmann method and present benchmark results.

265 3.1. TRT D2Q9 model

The lattice Boltzmann equation (LBE) operates on a square/cubic grid representing the physical domain in non-dimensional terms (hereafter we use subscript LB to denote non-dimensional quantities). It utilizes probability distribution functions (also known as particle populations) containing information about macroscopic variables, such as fluid density and momentum. The LBE consists of two parts: a local collision step, and a propagation step which transports information from one node to another along directions specified by a discrete velocity set. The LBE is typically implemented as follows:

$$f_i^*(\boldsymbol{x},t) = f_i(\boldsymbol{x},t) - \omega (f_i(\boldsymbol{x},t) - eq_i(\boldsymbol{x},t)), \quad \text{collision step}$$

$$f_i(\boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{c}_i, t+1) = f_i^*(\boldsymbol{x},t), \quad \text{propagation step},$$
(19)

where f_i is the probability distribution function in the direction c_i , eq_i is the equilibrium probability distribution function, and ω is the relaxation parameter. The term $-\omega(f_i - eq_i)$ is the so-called BGK collision operator [37]. However, the approach used here is the TRT (two-relaxation-times) collision operator [32, 34]. In comparison with the widely used BGK collision
operator, the TRT collision operator has better accuracy for diffusion and
convection fluxes, as well as a larger range of parameters where the scheme
is stable.

The TRT collision operator [38] decomposes the populations and the equilibrium distribution into a symmetric and an antisymmetric part:

$$f_i^{\pm} = \frac{f_i \pm f_{\bar{i}}}{2} , \ eq_i^{\pm} = \frac{eq_i \pm eq_{\bar{i}}}{2} ,$$
 (20)

where \bar{i} is the direction opposite to the *i*-th direction. The collision is performed with two independent relaxation rates for symmetric and antisymmetric modes:

$$f_{i}^{*}(\boldsymbol{x},t) = f_{i}(\boldsymbol{x},t) - \omega_{+}(f_{i}^{+} - eq_{i}^{+}) - \omega_{-}(f_{i}^{-} - eq_{i}^{-})$$

$$f_{i}(\boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{c}_{i}, t + 1) = f_{i}^{*}(\boldsymbol{x},t).$$
(21)

Note that the TRT collision operator reduces to the BGK operator if $\omega_+ =$ 274 ω_{-} . In comparison with the BGK collision operator, the TRT collision oper-275 ator has one additional degree of freedom. The TRT operator introduces the 276 following free parameter $\Lambda = \left(\frac{1}{\omega_+} - \frac{1}{2}\right) \left(\frac{1}{\omega_-} - \frac{1}{2}\right)$. This free parameter controls 277 the effective location of bounce-back walls [39], second-order accuracy of the 278 boundary [38] and interface schemes [40], spatial accuracy [41, 42], consis-279 tency [43] and, to some extent, stability [44, 45, 42]. In particular, $\Lambda = \frac{1}{4}$ 280 achieves the optimal stability for the isotropic advection-diffusion equation 281 |44|. 282

The parameters ω_+ , ω_- and eq_i fully define the lattice Boltzmann procedure. The two-dimensional, nine-velocity LBM D2Q9 we used in this work is defined on the set of lattice velocities with components:

$$c_{ix} = \{0, 1, 0, -1, 0, 1, -1, -1, 1\}, \text{ for } i = 0 \dots 8$$

$$c_{iy} = \{0, 0, 1, 0, -1, 1, 1, -1, -1\}, \text{ for } i = 0 \dots 8.$$
(22)

The equilibrium functions for the D2Q9 TRT model are represented as [44]:

$$eq_{i}^{+} = eq_{i}^{(m)} + g^{(u)}eq_{i}^{(u)}$$

$$eq_{i}^{(m)} = t_{i}^{(m)}c_{e} + eq_{i}^{(a)}$$

$$eq_{i}^{(u)} = t_{i}^{(u)}\frac{u_{LB,x}^{2} + u_{LB,y}^{2}}{2} + \frac{u_{LB,x}^{2} - u_{LB,y}^{2}}{4}p_{i}^{(xx)} + g_{xy}^{(u)}\frac{u_{LB,x}u_{LB,y}}{4}p_{i}^{xy} \quad (23)$$

$$eq_{i}^{(a)} = \frac{K_{LB,xx} - K_{LB,yy}}{4}p_{i}^{xx} + \frac{K_{LB,xy}}{4}p_{i}^{(xy)}$$

$$eq_{i}^{-} = t_{i}^{(a)}u_{LB,\alpha}c_{i\alpha},$$

where $K_{LB,xx,yy,xy}$ are proportional to components of the diffusion tensor, $c_e = \frac{K_{LB,xx}+K_{LB,yy}}{2}$, parameters $g^{(u)}$ and g^u_{xy} are either zero or one (see below), and the tensor $p_i^{(xx)} = c_{ix}^2 - c_{iy}^2$, the tensor $p_i^{(xy)} = c_{ix}c_{iy}$, the weights $t_i^{(u,m,a)}$ can be chosen based on stability criteria. The most commonly used set of weights, the so-called "hydrodynamic" weights, were chosen:

$$t_i^{(u)} = t_i^{(m)} = t_i^{(a)} = \left\{ 0, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{12}, \frac{1}{12}, \frac{1}{12}, \frac{1}{12}, \frac{1}{12} \right\}$$
(24)

It can be shown through the Chapman-Enskog procedure [46], that the simple update rule with the equilibrium function presented above restores the anisotropic advection-diffusion equation:

$$\partial_t C_{LB} + \partial_\alpha C_{LB} u_{LB,\alpha} = \partial_{\alpha\beta} D_{LB,\alpha\beta} C_{LB}, \qquad (25)$$

where the concentration $C_{LB} = \sum_{i} f_{i}$, and $D_{LB,\alpha\beta} = \left(\frac{1}{\omega_{-}} - \frac{1}{2}\right) K_{LB,\alpha\beta}$ is the

following diffusion tensor:

$$D_{LB,\alpha\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} D_{LB,xx} + \left(\frac{1}{\omega_{-}} - \frac{1}{2}\right)(g^{(u)} - 1)u_{LB,x}^{2} & D_{LB,xy} + \left(\frac{1}{\omega_{-}} - \frac{1}{2}\right)(g^{(u)}_{xy} - 1)u_{LB,x}u_{LB,y} \\ D_{LB,xy} + \left(\frac{1}{\omega_{-}} - \frac{1}{2}\right)(g^{(u)}_{xy} - 1)u_{LB,x}u_{LB,y} & D_{LB,yy} + \left(\frac{1}{\omega_{-}} - \frac{1}{2}\right)(g^{(u)} - 1)u_{LB,y}^{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(26)$$

We want to resolve the isotropic advection-diffusion equation, $D_{LB} = D_{LB,xx} =$ 283 $D_{LB,yy}$ or $K_{LB} = K_{LB,xx} = K_{LB,yy}$, with the non-diagonal diffusion tensor 284 components set to zero $(D_{LB,xy} = 0)$. In contrast to the D2Q5 model, with 285 D2Q9 it is possible to cancel the numerical diffusion by the proper choice 286 of the equilibrium functions, i.e. $g_{xy}^{(u)} = g^{(u)} = 1$. The particular choice of 287 parameters used in simulations is $c_e = \frac{1}{3}$, $\Lambda = \frac{1}{4}$. Thus, the diffusion co-288 efficient in the lattice Boltzmann system D_{LB} is matched through ω_{-} , i.e. 289 $D_{LB} = c_e \left(\frac{1}{\omega_-} - \frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{\omega_-} - \frac{1}{2}\right)$. For the particular choice $\Lambda = \frac{1}{4}, \omega_+$ can 290 be found easily as $\omega_+ = 2 - \omega_-$. 291

We validated two types of boundary conditions: Inamuro boundary conditions [35] and pressure anti bounce-back boundary conditions [39]. However, the simulation results are presented only for pressure anti bounce-back due to their ability to handle complex boundaries in a simple way:

$$f_{B,i}^* = -f_{F,\bar{i}}^* + 2eq^+(C^*, \boldsymbol{u}_{LB}), \qquad (27)$$

where C^* is the concentration to be imposed at the surface, u_{LB} is the surface velocity, *i* is the direction number pointing to the domain located at the boundary surface B, \bar{i} is the direction number opposite to *i* and is located at the fluid node *F* specifically so that node *B* is located at the location $F + c_i$.

²⁹⁷ Note that the parameters of the lattice Boltzmann scheme are connected ²⁹⁸ with physical parameters only through non-dimensional numbers govern-

ing the physics of the problem. In our case, this is the Peclet number, 299 $Pe = \frac{U_{\text{bubble}}L}{D}$. Therefore, one can choose any quantity, for example U_{bubble} 300 in the lattice Boltzmann units $(u_{\text{LB,bubble}})$ as long as the Peclet number is 301 matched in physical space and numerical simulations. The fact that $u_{\text{LB,bubble}}$ 302 can be varied in certain ranges is extremely useful in the context of numerical 303 simulations. This allows to increase the time step and decrease the compu-304 tational demand (by an order of magnitude). This point will be used in the 305 simulations and covered later. 306

The next section will cover LBM benchmarks that resemble the mass transfer from a bubble (mass transfer to the liquid with the parabolic velocity profile and mass transfer from a cylinder). As soon as we move to numerical simulations, all quantities are non-dimensional. Thus, we drop the subscript LB for brevity.

312 3.2. The radial case

The case to be examined is the mass transfer from a circle with radius a, with the circle approximated as a stair-case. It can be described by the following system of equations:

$$\partial_t C(r,t) = \frac{1}{r} \partial_r r \partial_r C(r,t)$$

$$C(a,t) = C_0, \ C(r,0) = C_{init}$$
(28)

The analytical solution is [47]:

$$\frac{C(r,t) - C_0}{C_{init} - C_0} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{\mu_n J_1(\mu_n)} \exp\left(-\mu_n^2 \frac{Dt}{a^2}\right) J_0\left(\mu_n \frac{r}{a}\right),\tag{29}$$

where μ_n is the *n*-th zero root of the 0th order Bessel polynomial $J_0(\mu_n) = 0$. Some of the corresponding roots are as follows: $\mu_1 = 2.4048$, $\mu_2 = 5.5201$, $\mu_3 = 8.6537, \mu_4 = 11.7915, \mu_5 = 14.9309$. By taking the initial concentration as 0, one obtains:

$$C(r,t) = C_0 \left(1 - \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{2}{\mu_n J_1(\mu_n)} \exp\left(-\mu_n^2 \frac{Dt}{a^2}\right) J_0(\mu_n \frac{r}{a}) \right).$$
(30)

Time dependency goes via the non-dimensional time: $\tau = \frac{Dt}{a^2}$. The domain size was 129×129 with the circle radius a = 40 lattice units. Some results for different diffusion coefficients are presented in Fig.5. The numerical simulations with the bounce-back boundary conditions are able to accurately reproduce the analytical results.

318 3.3. Poiseuille velocity profile

The problem we want to address can be formulated through the following PDE:

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x}U(y) = D\frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial y^2}$$

$$C(0, y) = 0, C(x, \pm \delta) = C^*, \frac{\partial C}{\partial y}(x, 0) = 0$$

$$U(y) = U_0 \left(1 - \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^2\right)$$
(31)

The procedure to solve this problem is presented in Appendix A which yields the final solution as:

$$C = C^* - C^* \sum_{m=0} C_m e^{-m^4 \frac{x}{\delta} \frac{1}{P_e}} e^{-m^2 y^2 / (2\delta^2)} {}_1 F_1 \left(-\frac{m^2}{4} + \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, m^2 \frac{y^2}{\delta^2} \right), \quad (32)$$

where coefficients C_m are taken from Eq. 48. The comparison between contours of analytical and simulation results is presented in Fig. 6. Parameters were taken as: D = 0.0185, the grid dimension is 80×1600 . The centerline velocity is $U_0 = 0.05$ which yields the Peclet number $Pe = U_0 \delta/(2D) = 108.108$.



Figure 5: Profiles for different diffusion parameters varied with ω_{-} (lines: Eq. 30, symbols: LB results). One can see that the diffusion from curved boundaries is captured accurately . r is the distance from the center.

The results are in good agreement. The simulations capture accurately the singular derivative for x = 0.

Now that the LBM is validated against the benchmarks relevant for the flow around bubbles, one can examine the cases mentioned in Section 2.3 to calculate the volumetric mass transfer coefficient for the Taylor bubble train flow.



Figure 6: Comparison between the analytical concentration contours and simulations with pressure anti bounce-back conditions, Eq. 27. The simulation was done for $D_{LB} = 0.0185$ with a 80×1600 grid. The centerline velocity is $U_0 = 0.05$, and the Peclet number is 108.108.

329 4. Numerical approach

A multiphase code was utilized to obtain the flow patterns and bubble 330 shapes for different capillary numbers [18]. Five particular cases were cho-331 sen to be examined, their results are summarized in Table 1. Note that 332 the velocities (LB system) in Table 1 are small. This means that to match 333 large Peclet numbers, $Pe = \frac{U_{\text{bubble}}L}{D}$, usually used in experiments, one needs 334 to decrease the diffusion coefficient $D = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{1}{\omega_{-}} - \frac{1}{2} \right)$. Thus, the parame-335 ter $\omega_{-} \approx 0.5$. However, for such values of ω_{-} the stability of the lattice 336 Boltzmann method drastically decreases [45]. On the other hand, one iter-337 ation in the lattice Boltzmann system corresponds to a physical time step 338 $\Delta t_{\rm phys} = U_{\rm bubble,LB} \frac{\Delta x}{U_{\rm bubble,phys}}$, where $U_{\rm bubble,phys}$ is the physical velocity [m/s], 339 and $t_{\rm phys}$ is the physical time step [s]. The iteration time is proportional 340 to the velocity $U_{\rm LB}$ and the typical number of simulation steps to obtain 341 the steady-state mass transfer coefficient for Ca < 0.2 is of the order of a 342 few million. Therefore, it is desirable to increase $U_{\rm LB}$ while maintaining the 343

Ca	Re	$U_{\rm bubble}$	δ	$\varepsilon_{\rm gas}$	$U_{\rm liq}$	$U_{\rm gas}$	L_{bubble}	$L_{\rm slug}$
0.097	1.656	0.0055	0.092	0.30	0.0046	0.0016	5.79	9.21
0.254	4.318	0.0143	0.132	0.28	0.0108	0.0041	6.12	8.88
0.526	8.938	0.0297	0.157	0.27	0.0209	0.0080	6.19	8.81
0.750	12.744	0.0424	0.167	0.25	0.0293	0.0107	5.96	9.04
1.040	17.665	0.0588	0.177	0.22	0.0397	0.0135	5.59	9.41

Table 1: Sample results with the binary liquid lattice Boltzmann model [18]. The following notations are used: the capillary number $Ca = \frac{U_{\text{bubble}}L}{\rho\nu_{\text{liq}}}$, U_{liq} is the superficial liquid velocity, U_{gas} is the superficial gas velocity, ε_{gas} is the gas holdup. δ is the non-dimensional film thickness, L_{bubble} and L_{slug} are the non-dimensional bubble and slug lengths (defined as multiplies of the channel height). The simulation sketch is presented in Fig. 1.

Peclet number. If one increases the velocity, then ω_{-} increases as well, which impacts positively on the stability of the LBM.

Given all the considerations above, mass transfer simulations are performed as follows:

Flow field Given a capillary number Ca, one needs to obtain hydrodynamic 348 fields around the bubble using the multiphase binary liquid lattice 349 Boltzmann model according to our previous work [18]. Periodic bound-350 ary conditions were used in that work. The grid used was 202×3000 351 which corresponds to the fluid domain of size 200×3000 . That grid 352 resolution was taken to ensure grid independency of the results [18]. 353 Note that we do not approximate bubble shapes by correlations, but 354 directly resolve them using the multiphase solver. 355

³⁵⁶ Bubble reference frame Once the hydrodynamics is solved, the mass trans-

fer simulations are conducted in the reference frame moving with the bubble, where the bubble stands still and the liquid flows around the bubble. We impose a uniform and steady concentration on the surface of the bubble with the anti bounce-back condition, Eq. 27.

Velocity improvement One can scale the velocity to perform faster sim-361 ulations. However, before doing it one needs to improve the velocity 362 field. This issue arises because of the multiphase model used in the 363 flow simulations. The binary liquid lattice Boltzmann model is a dif-364 fuse interface model where no clear boundary between gas and liquid 365 exists. We obtain the bubble shape by imposing a condition on the 366 order parameter field ϕ with $\phi \leq 0$ in the bubble [18]. The velocity of 367 the bubble is defined as the bubble tip velocity. Because of the square 368 grid, the shape of the bubble is determined within an accuracy of one 369 grid spacing. Thus, there is an error in the determination of the bubble 370 velocity. Though these errors are small, there is still a small non-zero 371 velocity component pointing into the bubble in some places, see Fig. 8 372 in [18] where some streamlines are penetrating the bubble surface. This 373 small velocity is amplified upon the velocity scaling and is inconsistent 374 with the advection-diffusion equation leading to instability after many 375 iterations. 376

Thus, before performing the mass transfer simulations an additional single phase hydrodynamic simulation is performed. A free-surface solver was developed in order to obtain a velocity field consistent with the advection-diffusion equation. We take results from the multiphase simulations, extract a bubble shape using the phase indicator $\phi \leq 0$,

and approximate the bubble shape by the stair-case line with imposed 382 free-slip boundary condition on it. The bubble velocity is then imposed 383 on the walls. This corresponds to conducting simulations in the ref-384 erence frame moving with the bubble. Appendix B covers the simple 385 free-slip boundary condition implementation drastically improving ve-386 locity patterns. The system is iterated until a steady state is reached 387 and as a result, all non-zero velocity components perpendicular to the 388 bubble surface are completely eliminated. Note, that these types of sim-389 ulations are much faster than the original multiphase simulations. We 390 compared original multiphase simulations with one-component free-slip 391 simulations. All quantities such as superficial slug and liquid velocities 392 are within 3% for all capillary numbers in the range $0.05 \le Ca \le 1.0$. 393 One can see in Fig. 7 two streamline profiles for Ca = 0.097 and 394 Ca = 1.040.395

³⁹⁶ Mass transfer After the improved velocity profiles are obtained one can ³⁹⁷ perform any mass transfer simulation with the various boundary con-³⁹⁸ ditions as covered in Section 2.3. For this purpose one needs to match ³⁹⁹ the Peclet number Pe taken from experiments.

400 5. Results

This section covers simulation results. We first examine the possibility to increase the fluid velocity while keeping the Peclet number the same. After that the results for periodic boundary conditions for 5 capillary number cases will be presented. Finally, we will examine many cell simulations for



Figure 7: The streamline patterns produced by the free-surface flow solver with simplified approximation of the free-slip bubble surface, see Appendix B. Two completely different velocity patterns are obtained, Ca = 0.097 (top) and Ca = 1.040 (bottom).

two representative velocity patterns related to Ca = 0.0907 and Ca = 1.04respectively (see Fig. 7).

The simulations were performed using an in-house code with different modifications for different boundary conditions. A typical mass transfer simulation (domain size is 3000×202 cells) for 10^6 iterations takes around 24 hours on an Intel dual core CPU with the internal clock frequency of 2 GHz. All simulations (serial for one unit cell and parallel for a few unit cells) are done using computers of the WestGRID high-performance clusters in West-

413 ern Canada.

414 5.1. Velocity scaling at constant Peclet number

This section addresses the process of significantly increasing the velocity magnitude while keeping dimensionless parameters the same to speed up simulations. This is especially important to be able to simulate a few unit cells in a reasonable time. For example, ten unit cell simulations require a grid of 30000×202 nodes. Since the Peclet number is the only dimensionless quantity governing the advection-diffusion equation:

$$Pe = \frac{U_{\text{bubble}} N_y}{D}.$$
(33)

one needs to increase the diffusion coefficient when the velocity is increased. 415 Simulation runs were made with velocities 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 15, 20, 40 times larger 416 than the original velocities. The velocities, their corresponding capillary and 417 Schmidt numbers are presented in Table 2. One can see that the Schmidt 418 number, $Sc = Pe/Re \approx 790$, has a value corresponding to a dye with a low 419 molecular diffusivity. This is done to minimize the dye diffusion influence on 420 results but rather study the mass transfer in hydrodynamics patterns pro-421 vided by the Taylor bubble flow. Periodic boundary conditions were used and 422 the mass transfer coefficient was calculated according to Eq. 4. One can see 423 in Table 2 that for small capillary numbers (Ca < 0.2) it is possible to scale 424 up velocity significantly (20-40 times) to obtain a velocity around 0.2 where 425 simulations are still stable. However, for larger capillary numbers the scale 426 up is smaller (2-4 times), and the velocity for stable simulations is around 427 0.1. Table 2 shows that the velocity limit for periodic boundary conditions 428 is 0.1 across all capillary numbers. To be on the safe side, velocities should 429

⁴³⁰ not be scaled up beyond that value. It gives us a preliminary idea to what ⁴³¹ extent one can scale periodic mass transfer simulations. The concentration ⁴³² contour profiles corresponding to Table 2 for different velocity scalings are ⁴³³ presented in Fig. 8. One can see an acceptable agreement between the cases ⁴³⁴ with the same Peclet number but different velocity scalings. Note, that the ⁴³⁵ speedup can be up to 10 to 40 times.

436 5.2. Average concentration results

In this section we will examine the case where the volume averaged con-437 centration over time is used as the characteristic concentration. To calculate 438 the volumetric mass transfer coefficient we used Eq. 12. Results for the coef-439 ficient $k_L a \frac{U_{\text{bubble}}}{U_{\text{gas}}+U_{\text{liq}}}$ are shown in Fig. 9 for different capillary, Peclet numbers 440 and velocity scalings indicated in Table 2. When the average concentration 441 gets close to $C^* = 1$, Eq. 12 gives inadequate results due to the accuracy of 442 the logarithmic function evaluation. This is the reason that curves in Fig. 443 9 tend to shoot up for long times. Due to velocity scaling each simulation 444 has a different physical time step. Thus, we normalized time such that it 445 represents a number of unit cell lengths which the bubble has travelled, i.e. 446 $N_{\text{cell units}} = \frac{\text{scale} \cdot U_{\text{bubble}} \cdot N_{\text{iter}}}{L_{\text{unit}}}$. Fig. 9 shows the volumetric mass transfer depen-447 dency against the distance in unit cell length. One can see in Table 3 that 448 for different Peclet numbers different time (number of unit cells) is required 449 to achieve steady state. For example, for larger Peclet numbers fewer length 450 is required to achieve the steady state condition. 451

452 Overall one obtains steady state volumetric mass transfer coefficients for 453 periodic boundaries simulations if the following conditions are fulfilled:

⁴⁵⁴ I Scaling is performed so that $U_{max} = \text{scale} \cdot U_{\text{bubble}} \leq 0.1$.

455 II The larger the Peclet number, the fewer iterations are required. One can

456 457

extrapolate data from Table 3, say
$$L_{\text{steady}}$$
, and estimate the number of iterations to reach the steady-state as scale $\cdot U_{\text{bubble}} \cdot N_{\text{iter}} \leq L_{\text{steady}}$.

458 5.3. Periodic boundaries with the inlet/outlet characteristic concentration

The volumetric mass transfer coefficient was calculated using Eq. 12 with 459 the characteristic concentration being the inlet/outlet flux averaged concen-460 tration as used by van Baten and Krishna [2]. One can see in Fig. 10 that the 461 calculated volumetric mass transfer coefficient behaves differently from the 462 domain averaged volumetric mass transfer coefficient. For example, for small 463 capillary numbers, i.e. Ca = 0.097, 0.254, 0.526 the values are overpredicted 464 $(k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{liq}}+U_{\text{gas}}} = 0.3, 0.25, 0.1).$ When the velocity pattern changes from hav-465 ing a vortex in front of the bubble to not having it, i.e. Ca = 0.75, 1.04466 the calculated values are underpredicted compared to estimates based on 467 volume-averaged concentration, i.e. $k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{liq}}+U_{\text{gas}}} = 0.06, 0.04$. As we will 468 see later, the domain-averaged characteristic concentration produces proper 469 mass transfer coefficients. 470

471 5.4. Van Baten and Krishna formulation

The van Baten and Krishna [2] formulation, Eq. 16, is calculated as the change of mass in the domain divided by the time difference. We examined two approaches: the characteristic concentration taken to be as the domain average and as the flux-averaged input/output concentration. The latter case corresponds to [2]. The results are presented in Fig. 11 for Ca = 0.097 and Ca = 1.04. One can see that the inlet/outlet flux averaged concentration is inconsistent. The reason that van Baten and Krishna [2] obtained the mass transfer coefficient close to the analytical estimation is that the liquid slug is well mixed (Ca < 0.1 which is below the range studied here) so that the averaged concentration is close to the inlet/outlet concentration.

However, results for the domain-averaged concentration using the ap-482 proach of van Baten and Krishna are close to simulation results in Section 483 5.2. Note that for Ca = 0.097 the obtained mass transfer coefficient value 484 is 10% lower than the value in Section 5.2. However, as will be shown later 485 the obtained volumetric mass transfer coefficient for Ca = 0.097 has the 486 same value as for the simulations of a few unit cells. Therefore the approach 487 of van Baten and Krishna [2] produces accurate results if the characteris-488 tic concentration is the volume-averaged concentration (not the inlet/outlet 489 flux-averaged concentration used in the original work). From the computa-490 tional point of view, it also requires the concentration fields in time and space 491 to calculate the mass change in time and the averaged domain characteristic 492 concentration. 493

494 5.5. Simulations for several unit cells

In order to achieve independence from the boundary conditions and a closer match with the physical system being modelled, one can simulate several unit cells, corresponding to the head of a bubble train. If end effects are eliminated then the average domain characteristic should change in time according to Eq. 13. This eliminates the ambiguity inherent in choosing a definition of the characteristic concentration, it becomes the same domainaveraged concentration as the one measured in experiments.

This section studies the number of unit cells required for the volumetric mass transfer coefficient to be independent of the influence of boundaries. We chose two different velocity patterns (see Fig. 7 for Ca = 0.097 and Ca = 1.04) to perform the simulations. For Ca = 0.097 we performed simulations with 4, 6, 8, 10 cells, and for Ca = 1.040 only with 4, 6, 8 cells. We observed however that simulations with a domain length of 10 unit cells produce the same results as those with 8 unit cells.

We keep velocity in the range 0.05 - 0.1 to avoid excessively long simula-509 tion times. The number of steps for mass to pass through the whole domain 510 can be approximated as $1.5 \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{bubble}}}$, which takes into account the bulk veloc-511 ity. If U_{bubble} is taken as 0.05 then for the domain size $L_{\text{unit}} = 3000$ one can 512 obtain the following number of iterations for the mass to cross the unit cell 513 $1.5\frac{3000}{0.05} = 90000$. Therefore, 10^6 iterations are enough for a system consisting 514 of 10 unit cells. For more accurate estimations of the number of time steps 515 depending on the Peclet number we refer to Section 5.1. 516

517 5.6. Ca = 0.097 results

There are two characteristics we want to track in the simulations: the average concentration in the unit cell with time (see Eq. 13), and the accumulated mass rate in the domain which takes into account inlet/outlet fluxes (see Eq. 18). The former resembles experiments: if one has a large enough number of unit cells, then the averaged domain concentration should change in time according to Eq. 13:

$$k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{gas}} + U_{\text{liq}}} = \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{bubble}}(t_2 - t_1)} \ln\left(\frac{C^* - \langle C(t_1) \rangle}{C^* - \langle C(t_2) \rangle}\right)$$
(34)

The non-dimensional volumetric mass transfer coefficient calculated based on Eq. 34 (domain-averaged concentration change in time) is represented in Fig. 12 for different unit cells. One can see that mass transfer coefficient values are the same as the mass flux concentration based on the van Baten and Krishna formulation with the characteristic concentration being the domain-averaged concentration (see Section 5.4). This demonstrates two things: the domainaveraged concentration is the only choice for the characteristic concentration, and periodic boundary conditions for one unit cell produce good results.

In comparison with periodic boundary conditions Eq. 18 allows to calculate the mass transfer coefficient differently. Eq. 18 can be rewritten as:

$$k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{liq}} + U_{\text{gas}}} = \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{gas}} + U_{\text{bubble}}} \frac{V \frac{\langle C(t_2) \rangle - \langle C(t_1) \rangle}{t_2 - t_1}}{}{} \\ - \int C_{\text{outlet}}(L_{\text{unit}}, y, t^*) u(L_{\text{unit}}, y) dy + \int C_{\text{inlet}}(0, y, t^*) u(0, y) dy}{V(C^* - \langle C(t^*) \rangle)},$$
(35)

526 where t^* is the mean between t_1 and t_2 .

Fig. 13 shows average concentrations in different units and $k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{lig}}+U_{\text{gas}}}$ 527 based on Eq. 35 calculated for each unit for velocity scale 10 and 6 unit cells 528 (all velocity scales produce the same results). It shows that the volumetric 529 mass transfer coefficient is consistent for internal segments, i.e. unit cells 530 numbers 2-4. The results for the volumetric mass transfer coefficient calcu-531 lated by Eq. 18 for multiple unit cells are close (less than 10% deviation) to 532 results for periodic boundary conditions in Section 5.2. The same dependen-533 cies can be found for 8 and 10 unit cells simulations but we do not present 534 them here. We also do not present 4 unit cells simulation results which are 535 highly influenced by entrance and exit effects. 536

The calculation of the volumetric mass transfer coefficient is more difficult using Eq. 35. However, it will be shown below that this equation can be significantly simplified in case of larger capillary numbers (Ca > 0.7).

540 5.7. Ca = 1.040 results

The same correlations were examined for a different velocity pattern at Ca = 1.040. The original Peclet number we started with is Pe = 14041(Table 2). To avoid stability problems of the lattice Boltzmann method we changed the original Peclet number by increasing diffusion to Pe = 2644(corresponding Schmidt number Sc = 709.84/5 = 158.96). Our goal is to understand the influence of velocity pattern, not to perform simulations with a certain Peclet number. Thus, we have a certain degree of freedom to vary the simulations' Peclet number. This is achieved by adjusting velocity and diffusion coefficients. For example, if the velocity scaling is 2, then by increasing the initial diffusion coefficient 10 times one will eventually obtain a Peclet number 5 times smaller than the initial Peclet number. The results with respect to the number of unit cells are the same as for Ca = 0.097: at least 6 unit cells are required to avoid the influence of inlet/outlet effects. Thus, only 6 unit cells results are presented in Fig. 14 which shows the average concentration for each unit cell. One can see that the average volume concentration for each unit cell converges to a constant value. Thus, all the mass generated by the bubble is transferred through the boundaries. This indicates that the liquid slug is unmixed since no concentration travels back to inlet with the vortex and increases the average concentration in each unit cell. Note that the periodic boundary conditions cannot show whether the liquid slug is mixed or not due to the fact that the averaged domain concentration always increases in time. Thus, the volumetric mass transfer coefficient $k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{liq}} + U_{\text{gas}}}$ can be calculated according to the definition, Eq. 18:

$$k_L a = \frac{\dot{m} - \int C_{\text{outlet}}(y)u(L_{\text{unit}}, y)\mathrm{d}y + \int C_{\text{inlet}}(y)u(L_{\text{unit}}, y)\mathrm{d}y}{V(C^* - \langle C(t) \rangle}, \qquad (36)$$

where V is the unit cell volume. There is no accumulated mass in the domain, so $\dot{m} = 0$. Like periodic boundary conditions, this case is another extreme limit of Eq. 18. Note that to calculate the volumetric mass transfer coefficient one needs only the spatial information and does not require the knowledge of how the averaged concentration changes in time, which significantly lowers storage requirements for the simulations with Ca > 0.7 where there is no vortex in the liquid slug.

Fig. 15 (bottom) shows the volumetric mass transfer coefficient based 548 on spatial calculations of inlet/outlet concentrations. One can see that the 549 volumetric mass transfer coefficient is close to the calculated volumetric mass 550 transfer coefficient using the time averaged approach and periodic boundaries 551 one unit cell simulations (presented in the same figure for comparison). Note 552 that results for approaches which incorporate the volume-averaged character-553 istic concentration either for one cell or a few unit cells coincide. Therefore, 554 for certain hydrodynamic patterns (Ca > 0.7), one can easily convert time 555 domain to spatial domain calculations using simulations of several unit cells. 556 557

558 5.8. Comparison of experimental and analytical correlations

While the goal of this paper is not to compare simulation results with the experimental measurements, we felt that a short note about such comparison will be beneficial. Unfortunately, to the authors' knowledge, there are no reported experimental results measuring the mass flux for bubbles flowing between parallel plates. However, an interesting correlation for the volumetric mass transfer coefficient was presented by Yue et al. [7] for three-dimensional

microchannel geometries:

$$k_L a = \frac{2}{d_h} \left(\frac{DU_{\text{bubble}}}{L_{\text{bubble}} + L_{\text{slug}}} \right)^{0.5} \left(\frac{L_{\text{bubble}}}{L_{\text{bubble}} + L_{\text{slug}}} \right)^{0.3}$$

$$k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{gas}} + U_{\text{liq}}} = 2 \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{d_h} \left(\frac{D}{L_{\text{unit}}(U_{\text{bubble}} + U_{\text{gas}})} \frac{U_{\text{bubble}}}{U_{\text{gas}} + U_{\text{liq}}} \right)^{0.5} \left(\frac{L_{\text{bubble}}}{L_{\text{bubble}} + L_{\text{slug}}} \right)^{0.3} \propto P e^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$(37)$$

One can see that the volumetric mass transfer correlation should be approximately proportional to $Pe^{-0.5}$. One can also use analytical estimates of the volumetric mass transfer coefficient calculated using the Higbie penetration theory [17]. One can derive the analytical expression for the mass transfer for bubble train flow between parallel plates by following the works [16, 2]:

$$k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{liq}} + U_{\text{gas}}} = \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{gas}} + U_{\text{liq}}} \left(4\sqrt{DU_{\text{bubble}}} \pi \frac{\sqrt{L_{\text{bubble}} - H(1 - 2\delta)}}{L_{\text{unit}} H} + 2\sqrt{2}\sqrt{DU_{\text{bubble}}} \frac{\sqrt{H(1 - 2\delta)}}{L_{\text{unit}} H} \right),$$
(38)

where *H* is the channel height, and δ is the non-dimensional film thickness (in channel heights).

Fig. 16 shows a comparison between the correlation by Yue et al. [7], the analytical expression, Eq. 38, and the current simulation results presented in Table 3. The coefficients are close to each other, especially given that the correlation by Yue et al. [7] is for three-dimensional cases. The fitting procedure based on the results of this work showed that the power of the Peclet number dependence is -0.50038 which is close to the theoretical value -0.5. The fitting curve is $7.745Pe^{-0.50038}$.

568 6. Summary

This work examines a way to calculate the volumetric mass transfer coefficient of Taylor/Batchelor bubble train flow in the framework of the lattice

Boltzmann method. The volumetric mass transfer for the Taylor/Batchelor 571 bubble train flow can be relatively easily estimated by measuring concen-572 trations of a scalar along the streamwise direction. In comparison with the 573 continuous nature of experiments, i.e. where one doesn't distinguish bubbles, 574 the numerical simulations are performed with a small number of discrete unit 575 cells, each containing a bubble. This work bridges the continuous nature of 576 experiments and a few unit cells simulations performed in the reference frame 577 moving with the bubble. We thoroughly performed and examined simulations 578 with different definitions of the volumetric mass transfer coefficient and char-579 acteristic concentration, i.e. domain-averaged or flux-averaged inlet/outlet 580 concentrations, for different hydrodynamic patterns seen in the bubble train 581 flow. We also performed open inlet/outlet mass transfer simulations for a 582 few unit cells to resemble the continuous picture seen in experiments. By 583 thorough comparison it was shown that the easiest recipe is to perform sim-584 ulations with periodic boundary conditions and calculate the volumetric mass 585 transfer coefficient based on the domain-averaged concentration through any 586 formulation (van Baten and Krishna, periodic boundary conditions, simu-587 lations of several unit cells) as they produce consistent results. The best 588 accuracy in terms of closeness to the results of simulations of several unit 589 cells (continuous picture seen in experiments) is achieved with formulations 590 based on the mass difference or on the domain-averaged concentrations taken 591 in different times, Eq. 13. Eq. 11 gives a slightly overestimated volumet-592 ric mass transfer coefficients (less than 10%). The original formulation of 593 van Baten and Krishna [2] is inconsistent if one takes the inlet/outlet flux-594 averaged concentration to be the characteristic concentration as in their orig-595

inal work. Simulations of several unit cells are harder to perform, but they 596 provide a good reference point since they more closely resemble the continu-597 ous nature of the bubble train flow. In addition, simulations of several unit 598 cells indicate how well the liquid slug is mixed. This can be used for velocity 599 patterns related to $Ca \ge 0.7$ (weak liquid slug mixing) which allows to cal-600 culate the volumetric mass transfer coefficient based on the spatial location 601 only, without requiring the time snapshots of domain concentration values 602 used in all other approaches. Finally, a sample of results was compared with 603 the experimental correlation of Yue et al. [7] and shown to be consistent. 604

605 7. Acknowledgements

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609 A. Mass transfer for planar Poiseuille flow

Close to the previous example but with a different velocity profile, the problem can be formulated through the following PDE:

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial x}U(y) = D\frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial y^2}$$

$$C(0,y) = 0, \ C(x,\pm\delta) = C^*, \ \frac{\partial C}{\partial y}(x,0) = 0$$

$$U(y) = U_0 \left(1 - \left(\frac{y}{\delta}\right)^2\right)$$
(39)

The following substitution simplifies the form of equations:

$$\zeta = \frac{x}{\delta} \frac{D}{U_0 \delta} = \frac{1}{Pe} \frac{x}{\delta}$$

$$\xi = \frac{y}{\delta}.$$
(40)

Then the following equation can be obtained:

$$\frac{\partial \Theta}{\partial \zeta} (1 - \xi^2) = \frac{\partial^2 C}{\partial \xi^2}$$

$$\Theta(\zeta, \xi) = C - C^* \Theta(0, \xi) = -C^* \Theta(0, \pm 1) = 0$$
(41)

After separation of variables, $\Theta(\zeta, \xi) = X(\zeta)Y(\xi)$ one can come up with two equations:

$$\frac{dX(\zeta)}{d\zeta} + m^4 X(\zeta) = 0$$

$$\frac{d^2 Y(\xi)}{d\xi^2} + m^4 (1 - \xi^2) Y(\xi) = 0$$
(42)

The first equation has a solution:

$$X(\zeta) = \exp(-m^4\zeta) \tag{43}$$

The second equation can be simplified after substitution $\bar{\xi} = m\sqrt{2}\xi$ to the standard equation:

$$Y'' - \left(\frac{1}{4}\bar{\xi}^2 + a\right)Y = 0,$$
(44)

where $Y' = dY/d\bar{\xi}$, and $a = -m^2/2$. The equation above has two solutions via parabolic cylinder functions or through the confluent hypergeometric function [48]:

$$Y_{1} = e^{-\bar{\xi}^{2}/4} {}_{1}F_{1}\left(\frac{a}{2} + \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{\xi^{2}}{2}\right)$$

$$Y_{2} = e^{-\bar{\xi}^{2}/4} {}_{1}F_{1}\left(\frac{a}{2} + \frac{3}{4}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{\bar{\xi}^{2}}{2}\right)$$
(45)

Taking symmetry conditions into consideration by leaving only the even solution, Eq. 42 has the following solution:

$$Y_m = C_m e^{-m^2 \xi^2/2} {}_1F_1 \left(-\frac{m^2}{4} + \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, m^2 \xi^2 \right)$$
(46)

To satisfy the boundary condition we need to find zeros of the hypergeometric function, i.e. ${}_{1}F_{1}\left(-\frac{m^{2}}{4}+\frac{1}{4},\frac{1}{2},m^{2}\right)=0$. First ten eigenvalues can be found

using numerical methods: 1.2967, 2.3811,3.1093,3.6969,4.2032,4.6548,5.0662, 5.4467, 5.8023,6.1373. One needs to satisfy one more condition to obtain coefficients C_m :

$$-C^* = \sum_m C_m e^{-m^2 \xi^2/2} {}_1F_1 \left(-\frac{m^2}{4} + \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, m^2 \xi^2 \right)$$
(47)

One can multiply both parts on $(1 - \xi^2)_1 F_1\left(-\frac{m^2}{4} + \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, m^2\xi^2\right)$ and through orthogonality (Stourm-Liouiville theorem) obtain coefficients:

$$C_m = -C^* \frac{\int_{\xi=0}^1 (1-x^2) e^{-m^2 \xi^2/2} {}_1F_1 \left(-\frac{m^2}{4} + \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, m^2 \xi^2 \right) \mathrm{d}\xi}{\int_{\xi=0}^1 (1-\xi^2) e^{-m^2 \xi^2/2} {}_1F_1 \left(-\frac{m^2}{4} + \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, m^2 \xi^2 \right)^2 \mathrm{d}\xi}$$
(48)

Therefore the complete solution can be written as:

$$C = C^* - C^* \sum_{m=0} C_m e^{-m^4 \frac{x}{\delta} \frac{1}{P_e}} e^{-m^2 y^2 / (2\delta^2)} {}_1 F_1 \left(-\frac{m^2}{4} + \frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2}, m^2 \frac{y^2}{\delta^2} \right), \quad (49)$$

where coefficients C_m are taken from Eq. 48. For the case C^* , the first ten coefficients are: 1.2008, -0.2991, 0.1608, -0.1074, 0.0796, -0.0627, 0.0515, -0.0435, 0.0375, -0.0329.

⁶¹³ B. Free surface boundary conditions

There are a few implementations of free boundary conditions [49, 50]. However, we developed the easy solver to impose the free surface boundary conditions at the complicated surface of the bubble. The reason is to impose the symmetric boundary conditions. Because the boundary is a staircase approximation, one can find the normal to the boundary which is always located by the angle of multiple of 45 degrees, see Fig. 17. The finding identification

of normals can be done automatically by a simple code. Imposing the sym-620 metric boundary conditions requires $U_{n,F} = -U_{n,B}$ and $U_{\tau,F} = U_{\tau,B}$. We can 621 copy populations in a certain order to do it, for example $f_{B,i} = f_{F,\bar{i}}$, where 622 c_i and $c_{\bar{i}}$ are complementary directions, where $c_{i,n} = -c_{\bar{i},n}$ and $c_{i,\tau} = c_{\bar{i},\tau}$ 623 where $c_{i,n} = (c_i \cdot n)n$ and $c_{i,\tau} = c_i - (c_i \cdot n)n$. One can check by taking the 624 definition of velocity $\rho \boldsymbol{u} = \sum_i f_i \boldsymbol{c_i}$ and substituting it in the relationships 625 above, that the normal velocities are canceled, i.e. $U_{n,F} = -U_{n,B}$, but the 626 tangential velocity component is conserved, $U_{\tau,F} = U_{\tau,B}$. 627

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Scale	U_{bubble}	ω_{-}	Time Itera-	C_{aver}
			tions	

		, , ,		
2	0.011	1.98	400000	0.318
4	0.023	1.96	200000	0.319
8	0.044	1.92	100000	0.320
10	0.055	1.90	80000	0.321
20	0.11	1.81	40000	0.324
40	0.22	1.66	20000	0.328

Ca = 0.097, Pe = 1313, Sc = 792.87

Ca = 0.254, Pe = 3414, Sc = 790.64

2	0.0286	1.98	800000	0.6533
4	0.0572	1.96	400000	0.6591
8	0.1144	1.92	200000	0.6692
10	0.1430	1.90	160000	0.6734
20	0.2860	1.81	80000	0.6894

Ca = 0.526, Pe = 7092, Sc = 793.46

2	0.0594	1.98	200000	0.3271
4	0.1188	1.96	100000	0.3315

Ca = 0.750, Pe = 10125, Sc = 794.49

2 0.0848 1.98 200000 0.3489	

Ca = 1.040, Pe = 14041, Sc = 794.84

	, , ,		
2 0.1176	1.98^{-51}	200000	0.3675

Table 2: Indications of the achievable stable velocity U_{bubble} when one scales velocity. Since the physical time step represented by a single iteration of the simulation is directly proportional $U_{\text{bubble,LB}}$, scaling the velocity directly translates to an effective speed-up of the simulation. Note that time iterations indicated in the table correspond to the same



Figure 8: Concentration contour profiles for velocity scalings as identified in Table 2 (top to bottom: Ca = 0.097, 0.254, 0.526, 0.750, 1.040). Lines correspond to all different scales indicated in Table 2 (top to bottom: 6 scalings, 5 scalings, 2 scalings, 1 scaling, 1 scaling). Lines for different scaling parameters coincide with or are close to each other showing that simulations with velocity scalings are consistent.



Figure 9: Volumetric mass transfer coefficient for different capillary numbers and velocity scales against the bubble travel distance in the laboratory frame. The "Cell Units" axis refers to the physical distance in unit cells lengths the bubble travels. A legend is provided for velocity scalings. All of them show a good agreement. One can see an abnormal rise of the mass transfer coefficient when the average concentration is close to C^* due to the logarithmic function evaluation. Table 3 summarizes the results presented here.

Ca	Pe	$L_{\rm steady}/L_{\rm unit}$	$k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{lig}} + U_{\text{gas}}}$
0.097	1313	7	0.21
0.254	3414	6	0.14
0.526	7092	3	0.095
0.750	10125	3	0.074
1.040	14041	2	0.0601

Table 3: The distance which a bubble propagates when the steady-state condition is achieved.



Figure 10: The volumetric mass transfer coefficient with the characteristic concentration based on the inlet/outlet flux averaged concentration as in [2]. One can see that depending on the velocity pattern, the values are either overpredicted or underpredicted in comparison to values specified in Table 3.



Figure 11: The van Baten and Krishna [2] formulations for Ca = 0.097 (top) and Ca = 1.04 (bottom) with the characteristic concentration being domain-averaged (left) and inlet/outlet flux-averaged (right). One can see that the van Baten and Krishna [2] formulation produces good results with the characteristic concentration being the average concentration. Moreover, the values are closer to values obtained with many cell simulations, see Fig. 12, than with periodic boundary simulations in Section 5.2. The characteristic concentration being inlet/outlet flux-averaged does not produce consistent results.



Figure 12: The non-dimensional volumetric mass transfer coefficient defined in Eq. 34 for 4 (top left), 6 (top right), 8 unit cells (bottom). Only scale 10 is presented since all other simulations produce the same results. One can see that 4 unit cells is not enough to avoid the influence of boundaries. However, the results for 6 and 8 unit cells are consistent and show that beginning from the third unit cell and ending with the penultimate cell, the results are consistent with periodic boundary simulations and van Baten and Krishna [2] formulations.



Figure 13: Average concentrations (left) and volumetric coefficients (right) for 6 unit cells. The volumetric mass transfer coefficient is calculated based on Eq. 35 and accounts for inlet and outlet fluxes.



Figure 14: Results for 6 unit cells. The Peclet number is Pe = 2644. One can see that the average concentrations reach a certain value and stay constant. Thus, the volumetric mass transfer coefficient, $k_L a \frac{L_{\text{unit}}}{U_{\text{liq}}+U_{\text{gas}}}$, can be calculated using the spatial approach, see Fig. 15. To decrease the initial Peclet number from 14041 to 2644, the corresponding scaling parameters for velocity and diffusion equal to 2 and 10.



Figure 15: The periodic (top left, 1 unit cell, Eq. 13), unit cells domain-averaged concentrations as a function of time (top right, 6 unit cells, Eq. 13), and spatial location (bottom, 6 unit cells, Eq. 36) calculated volumetric mass transfer coefficients. For the upper right figure, where the time-averaged calculation is presented, one needs to consider only results where there is no concentration saturation. Thus, one needs to consider only results with less than 20,000 iterations as the saturation happens fast due to the high Peclet number. It is not convenient to use them in practical cases for unmixed slugs, i.e. Ca > 0.7. All results coincide and give value of around 0.15 - 0.16. However, the calculations based on periodic boundary conditions produce a slightly overestimated volumetric mass transfer coefficient.



Figure 16: Comparison between the correlation by Yue et al. [7], the analytical correlation derived by following the work [16] and the mass transfer coefficient based on periodic boundary conditions. The fitting curve $(7.745Pe^{-0.50038})$ is proportional to $Pe^{-0.5}$ which corresponds to all correlations. One can as well see that the deviation from the analytical expression becomes larger with the increasing Peclet number, which happens because the analytical expression does not account for the velocity pattern and the bubble shape change.



Figure 17: Free-surface boundary condition represented in the lattice Boltzmann method. Boundary nodes are depicted by crosses, and fluid nodes are represented by dots. The populations at the corner boundary nodes are essentially the populations of the fluid node, but in a different order.