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Hanane Bouras, Yacine Haroun, Régis Philippe, Frédéric Augier, Pascal

Fongarland

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1	CFD modeling of mass transfer in Gas-Liquid-Solid
2	catalytic reactors
3	Hanane Bouras ^{1, 2} , Yacine Haroun ^{1,*,} Régis Philippe ² , Frédéric Augier ¹ , Pascal Fongarland ²
4 5	1 : IFP Energies Nouvelles, Etablissement Lyon, Rond-Point Echangeur Solaize, F-69360 Solaize, France;
6 7 8	2 : Université de Lyon, CPE Lyon, Univ. Claude Bernard Lyon 1, CNRS, Laboratoire de Génie des Procédés Catalytiques (UMR 5285), 43 bd du 11 novembre 1918, F-69616 Villeurbanne, France.
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11	Submitted to
12	Chemical Engineering Science
13	Corresponding Author: yacine.haroun@ifpen.fr
14	Tel.: +33 (0)4 37 70 29 29
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22	Abstract
23	This work investigates Gas-Liquid-Solid mass transfer coupled to heterogeneous catalytic
24	reaction using Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD). The numerical model is based on the Volume-
25	of-Fluid (VOF) approach, coupled with a convection-diffusion equation for mass transfer resolution.
26	First, the numerical method was validated on a case of falling liquid film over a semi-infinite planar
27	surface. Then, a micro-structured reactor with α -methylstyrene hydrogenation is studied. A good
28	agreement is found between experimental data of (Tourvieille et al. 2013) and simulation results.
29	Afterwards, a vertical spherical beads string is investigated. Convective transport by transversal
30	velocities is identified as an important contributor to the overall Gas-Liquid-Solid mass transfer.
31	While the film model is applicable in pure diffusion regimes, the resistances-in-series model is not
32	relevant and over-estimates the real mass transfer by nearly 30% when mass transfer occurs in liquid
33	film flow without bulk.
34 35	The present work shows how CFD can be an effective tool for predicting hydrodynamic and catalyst geometry effect on mass transfer in Gas-Liquid-Solid reactors.
36	
37	Keywords: Gas-Liquid-Solid reactors; mass transfer; CFD; volume of fluid method; film model;
38	catalytic reaction
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42	

43 Nomenclature

r _{Pd.}	Intrinsic reaction rate	$[mol.s^{-1}.g_{Pd}^{-1}]$
a _{GL}	Gas-liquid specific interfacial area	[m ² .m ³ _{Lig}]
a_{LS}	Liquid-solid specific interfacial area	$[m^2.m_{Lig}^3]$
A_{LS}	Liquid solid contact area	[m ²]
$A_{S,cata}$	Catalyst surface	[m ²]
С	Solute concentration	[mol.m ⁻³]
C_{AMS}	Initial α -methylstyrene concentration	[mol.m ⁻³]
C_{H_2}	Hydrogen concentration	[mol.m ⁻³]
$C_{H_2}^*$	Hydrogen thermodynamic equilibrium concentration	[mol.m ⁻³]
$\overline{C_{S,H_2}}$	Mean hydrogen surface concentration	[mol.m ⁻³]
D	Diffusion coefficient	[m ² .s ⁻¹]
С	Solute concentration	[mol.m ⁻³]
D_E	Effective diffusivity in the porous catalyst	$[m^2.s^{-1}]$
D_{H_2}	Hydrogen molecular diffusion coefficient	4.88.10 ⁻⁹ [m ² .s ⁻¹]
\overline{Flux}	Hydrogen consumption flux	[mol.s ⁻¹]
\vec{g}	Gravity acceleration	9.81 [m.s ⁻²]
k	Intrinsic reaction rate constant	$[mol^{0.27}.s^{-1}.g_{Pd}^{-0.27}]$
k _{GL}	Gas-liquid mass transfer coefficient	[m.s ⁻¹]
K _{GL}	Higbie gas-liquid mass transfer coefficient	[m.s ⁻¹]
k _{LS}	Liquid-solid mass transfer coefficient	[m.s ⁻¹]
K _{ov}	Overall external GLS mass transfer coefficient	[m.s ⁻¹]
$K_{ov,A}$	Analytical external overall mass transfer coefficient	[m.s ⁻¹]
K _{ov,FM}	overall external mass transfer coefficient by film model	[m.s ⁻¹]
K' _{ov,FM}	Modified overall external mass transfer coefficient by film model	[m.s ⁻¹]
K _R	Overall external mass transfer coefficient by resistances-in- series model	[m.s ⁻¹]
n	Reaction order	0.73 [-]
Р	Operating pressure	[bar]
Q_L	Liquid flow rate	[m ³ .s ⁻¹]
Rei	Inlet Reynolds number of the i-th phase $Re_i = \rho_i v_i D_i / \mu_i$	[-]
Sh_{GLS}	Gas-liquid-solid Sherwood number $Sh_{GLS} = K_{ov}\delta_{geo}/D_{H_2}$	[-]
Т	Operating temperature	283 [K]
t _{contact}	Contact time(in the Higbie approach)	[s]
\vec{u}	Velocity vector	[m/s]
V _{cata}	Catalyst volume	[m ³]
v_G	Local Gas phase velocity	[m.s ⁻¹]
v_i	Interface velocity	[m.s ⁻¹]
v_L	Local liquid phase velocity	[m.s ⁻¹]
V_{Liq}	Liquid volume	[m ³]
W_{Pd}	Palladium mass fraction in the catalyst	[-]
X _{AMS}	α-methylstyrene conversion	[%]

44 Greek letters

α_L	Liquid volume fraction $\alpha_L = V_{liq}/V_{fluid}$	[-]
Φ	Level-set function	[-]
$ ho_i$	Density of phase i	[kg.m ⁻³]

μ_i	Viscosity of phase i	[Pa.s]
σ	Surface tension	[N.m ⁻¹]
κ _i	Interface curvature	[-]
$ ho_{cata}$	Catalyst density	[kg.m⁻³]
η_S	Surface efficiency factor	[-]
Φ_n	Thiele modulus	[-]
δ_{cata}	Catalyst layer thickness	[m]
β	Fully developed flow liquid film thickness	[m]
δ_{app}	Apparent liquid film thickness	[m]
δ_{C}	Liquid film thickness at the channel's centre	[m]
δ_A	Arithmetic mean liquid film thickness $\delta_A = rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_i$	[m]
δ_{geo}	Geometric liquid film thickness $\delta_{geo} = V_{liq}/A_{LS}$	[m]
δ_H	Harmonic mean liquid film thickness $\delta_H = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N 1/\delta_i$	[m]

45 Abbreviations

CLSVOF	Coupled Level-Set and VOF
VOF	Volume Of Fluid
LS	Level-Set
CICSAM	Compressive Interface Capturing Scheme for Arbitrary Meshes
UDS	User Defined Scalar
CFD	Computational Fluid Dynamics
GLS	Gas-Liquid-Solid
Pd	Palladium

46 1. Introduction

47 Gas-liquid-solid reactors with a fixed bed are widely used in industry, they are encountered in 48 several applications such as petroleum refining, chemicals production, pharmaceuticals, waste-water 49 treatment, and many other fields. In most cases, the gas flows next to the liquid flowing around and 50 wetting totally or partially a solid phase (catalyst), these reactors operate in co-current down-flow or 51 up-flow configurations, as well as counter-current flow configuration. Regarding the widely 52 encountered case where the limiting reagent is initially contained in the gas phase, due to the solute 53 concentration gradients between phases, two interfacial gas-liquid and liquid-solid mass transfers 54 resistance could take place before allowing a reaction on the catalyst particles. These external 55 transfers can be merged as an overall gas-liquid-solid transfer coefficient. Reliable design of such 56 processes depends on the ability to accurately predict the hydrodynamics, the interfacial mass 57 transfer rates, and their couplings. However, the interfacial mass transfers are affected by 58 hydrodynamic parameter variations such as film thickness and velocity field distribution. In addition, 59 for the sake of simplicity, gas-liquid-solid mass transfer coefficients in such reactors are usually 60 estimated using (i) the resistances-in-series model or (ii) the film model. On one hand, the 61 resistances-in-series model was derived assuming a bulk concentration in the liquid phase. However, 62 in the specific case of co-current down-flow occurring in trickle bed or in falling film reactors, as the 63 liquid film thickness happens to be thin, the existence of a bulk concentration in the liquid phase is 64 far from being obvious and the applicability of this widely encountered approach needs to be 65 reviewed. On the other hand, the film model developed by Lewis and Whitman (1924) defines mass 66 transfer coefficients as the ratio of molecular diffusion coefficient to concentration boundary layer 67 thickness. However, the difficulty lies in the right estimation of mass transfer boundary layer 68 thickness in complex flows.

69 In recent years, Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) has proved to be a powerful tool for small 70 scales and local phenomena analysis which are difficult to investigate experimentally. CFD enable 71 access to velocity, pressure and concentration fields in complex systems and geometries through the 72 resolution of continuity, momentum and concentration transport equations respectively. Several 73 numerical works investigated the multiphase flow along solid surfaces, including mass transfer 74 restrained to gas-liquid interfacial transfer. (Haroun et al. 2010b) studied interfacial reactive mass 75 transfer in a 2D stable falling liquid film, using the Volume-Of-Fluid approach (VOF) to solve the film 76 hydrodynamics, and a modified concentration transport equation including the thermodynamic 77 equilibrium at the gas-liquid interface. The simulated Sherwood numbers were compared to the 78 analytical solution suggested by (Higbie 1935) and a good agreement was achieved. (Xu et al. 2008) 79 used the VOF method to study the gas-liquid interfacial mass transfer in a 2D wavy falling film, in 80 order to improve the understanding of the interface velocity fluctuations effect on gas-liquid mass 81 transfer, the results were compared to an empirical experimental expression. (Haroun et al. 2010a; 82 Haroun et al. 2012; Haroun and Raynal 2016) applied the numerical model developed in (Haroun et 83 al. 2010b) on a 2D structured packing element, to study the effect of geometry on liquid film flow

84 and mass transfer, a good agreement is found with (Higbie 1935) solution. (Marschall et al. 2012) 85 investigated the mass transfer for 3D free-surface flows, namely a stagnant liquid film and gas 86 bubble, using the VOF method and a modified concentration transport equation including Henry's 87 law, the comparison with analytical and experimental results shows a good agreement. Later on, 88 (Sebastia-Saez et al. 2013) evaluated the two-phase film flow and gas-liquid mass transfer along a 89 structured packing element, the results show a reasonably good agreement with theoretical and 90 experimental data, such as the liquid film thickness and Sherwood number. (Chii-Dong et al. 2011) 91 conducted 2D and 3D simulations of the two-phase flow inside a falling film micro-reactor, the 92 numerical model is based on the VOF approach, this preliminary study highlights the complexity to 93 predict flow behavior in micrometric high aspect ratio geometries, since convergence difficulties 94 were faced particularly for the interface stability. Despite the numerous scientific studies on two-95 phase free-surface flow simulation and interfacial mass transfer, only few numerical studies 96 simulated the gas-liquid-solid mass transfer considering a heterogeneous catalytic reaction. The 97 majority of these works are based on the Eulerian framework, where the gas-liquid and liquid-solid 98 interfaces are not tracked explicitly. For instance, Lopes et al. (2007) and Lopes and Quinta-Ferreira 99 (2007) proposed a CFD model coupling hydrodynamics to catalytic wet air oxidation (CWAO) of 100 vanillic and phenolic acids respectively. The authors validated their CFD model against hydrodynamic 101 experimental data, before conducting predictive simulation of the reactive performance. In the same 102 context, Lopes and Quinta-Ferreira (2010) used both the Euler-Euler and VOF method to predict 103 reactive performance of CWAO. The numerical domain consisted of 200 non-overlapping spherical 104 particles. Because of coarse meshing resolution, the authors found better predictions using Euler-105 Euler as opposed to VOF model. Later on, (Jejurkar et al. 2020) investigated the gas-liquid-solid mass 106 transfer in a trickle-bed reactor, the two-phase flow is modelled using an Euler-Euler model where 107 the gas-liquid and liquid-solid interfaces are not tracked explicitly. In summary, there are no 108 contributions on numerical investigation of gas-liquid-solid mass transfer coupled with 109 heterogeneous catalytic reaction using the VOF approach.

The aim of the present work is to use computational Fluid Dynamics to improve the understanding of mass transfer in gas-liquid-solid contactors, when the transfer is accompanied by catalytic heterogeneous reactions on the solid phase. The multiphase hydrodynamic resolution is based on the Volume-Of-Fluid (VOF) numerical approach, while mass transfer resolution is investigated by a convection-diffusion transport equation.

115 First, the CFD modeling is validated on a 2D laminar falling film with mass transfer along a vertical 116 semi-infinite catalyst plane by comparing the results to available models from the literature. The 117 model is then applied on a 3D falling film micro-structured reactor and pellet string reactor to couple 118 hydrodynamics, mass transfers and heterogeneous reaction. The modelling results are compared to 119 the experimental work of (Tourvieille et al. 2013), for α -methylstyrene catalytic hydrogenation in a 120 micro-structured reactor. For all the aforementioned cases, a particular attention is attributed to the 121 overall mass transfer calculation. The gas-liquid-solid overall mass transfer coefficient obtained by 122 CFD is compared to (i) the gas-liquid and liquid-solid resistances-in-series modeling and (ii) the one-123 film mass transfer modeling. The results are further discussed and an adapted modeling methods 124 suggested.

Simulations of two phase flow are carried out with the volume of fluid method (VOF) with the commercial CFD software ANSYS Fluent 19. In the following section, the governing equations are described. Section 3 presents the model validation on a 2D falling liquid film over a vertical plane. The results for a falling film micro-structured reactor and pellet string reactor are presented in Section 4.

130 2. Computational model

131 **2.1.** hydrodynamic model

132 The present work aims to couple multiphase flow with gas-liquid-solid mass transfer and 133 reaction at the solid surface. To do so, the multiphase flow is solved using the volume of fluid approach (VOF), which is a numerical method suitable to describe immiscible fluid flows by resolving the transport equation (1) of the volume fraction α in the computational domain.

$$\frac{\partial \alpha_L}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \nabla \alpha_L = 0 \tag{1}$$

Where α_L represents the liquid volume fraction ranging from 0 to 1. A value of 1 stands for liquid filled cells, whereas a value of 0 stands for gas filled cells. The interface is represented by the values in between. The VOF method tracks and describes explicitly the interface between the flowing fluids using interface reconstruction or finite volume discretization schemes.

140 The VOF approach might face limitations for complex flow configurations, such as high aspect 141 ratio geometries, where spurious fluxes appear at the interface which becomes unstable. For this 142 reason, the Coupled Level-Set (LS) and VOF (CLSVOF) method is used (Sussman and Puckett 2000). 143 To begin with, the Level-Set method is a numerical scheme which deals with fluid-interface motion, 144 usually used for an accurate resolution of the interface topology. The LS method solves the evolution 145 of a level-set indicator function Φ as the following:

$$\frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial t} + \vec{u} \cdot \nabla \Phi = 0 \tag{2}$$

146 Where Φ is positive on one side of the interface, negative on the other side, and equal to zero at the 147 interface. The LS formulation captures the interface with a higher accuracy than VOF but suffers 148 from mass conservation issues. However, these issues are overcome by combining the LS and VOF 149 methods (CLSVOF) (Sussman and Puckett 2000). In the scope of this work, CLSVOF is used when 150 convergence issues or interface stability issues are encountered.

In addition, the conservation of mass (eq. (3)) and momentum equations (eq. (4)) are alsosolved for the gas-liquid incompressible and isothermal flow.

$$\nabla . \left(\rho \vec{u} \right) = 0 \tag{3}$$

$$\rho\left(\frac{\partial \vec{u}}{\partial t} + \vec{u}.\nabla \vec{u}\right) = -\nabla P + \mu \nabla^2 \vec{u} + \rho \vec{g} + \vec{F}$$
(4)

The force \vec{F} considered in equation (4) accounts for external body forces other than gravity, pressure and viscosity. In this work, this force includes the effects of surface tension on the gasliquid and liquid-solid interfaces, it is modelled by the continuum surface force (CSF) model proposed by (Brackbill et al. 1992) as the following :

$$F_{vol} = \sigma_{ij} \frac{\rho \kappa_i \nabla \alpha_i}{\frac{1}{2} (\rho_i + \rho_j)}$$
(5)

157 Where κ_i is the interface curvature, ρ_i is the density of phase i, ρ the volume-averaged density, 158 and σ_{ij} is the surface tension. The VOF model requires fine meshes for the gas-liquid interface to be 159 sharp, coarse meshes may induce errors in the interface curvature values, which may lead to 160 aberrant values of velocity, also known as spurious fluxes (Meier et al. 2002).

161 To guarantee resolution accuracy of the volume fraction transport equation, time step size 162 should fulfil the CFL condition (Courant-Friedrichs-Levy). This condition depends on the mesh and 163 velocity profile. As the velocity profile changes at each iteration, the variable time-step option was 164 used to ensure a maximum CFL value of 1.

The numerical simulations are performed using ANSYS Fluent v19.2, which is a commercial code. The gas-liquid interface was advected using the Compressive Interface Capturing Scheme for Arbitrary Meshes (CICSAM), the mass and momentum conservation equations were discretized using the second order upwind numerical scheme, and the Coupled algorithm was used for the pressurevelocity coupling.

170 **2.2.** *mass transfer model*

For multiphase flows, ANSYS Fluent allows solving an additional scalar transport equation in the mixture, which is a User Defined Scalar (UDS) equation. To obtain the mass transfer coefficients between the different phases, the limiting reagent concentration was computed inside the domain using the latter approach as follows:

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} + \nabla (uC - D\nabla C) = S$$
(6)

175 Where u is the velocity, C is the solute concentration inside the domain, D is the diffusion coefficient 176 in (m²/s) and S is a user defined source term.

This work investigates the gas-liquid-solid mass transfer in the presence of a heterogeneous catalytic reaction at the surface of the solid catalyst using two methods. The first one consists of simulating a gas absorption into the liquid, coupled to its consumption by a heterogeneous reaction at the solid surface. The second one is based on the resistances-in-series model, where the gas-liquid and liquidsolid mass transfer coefficients are estimated separately, to be used to estimate the overall mass transfer coefficient.

183 **2.3.** Implementation of the heterogeneous catalytic reaction

184 In many cases, the heterogeneous reaction takes place in the porous catalyst layer volume, 185 through a coupled reaction/diffusion process. It can be modelled by the addition of a source term 186 through this catalyst volume, meaning that the diffusion inside the catalyst needs to be taken into 187 account, as well as an accurate description of the porous catalytic layer. Implementing a catalyst 188 discretisation in the CFD calculation would impact significantly computation time. Therefore, in this 189 work, the heterogeneous catalytic reaction is accounted for by a surface reaction modulated with a 190 surface effectiveness factor η_S to take into account possible internal diffusion limitation. The 191 following flux condition at the surface of the catalyst is derived.

$$Flux = -\frac{\eta_{S}\rho_{cata}W_{Pd}V_{cata}a_{c}}{A_{s,cata}}$$
(7)

192 Where a_c is the intrinsic reaction rate, W_{Pd} is the Pd mass fraction in the catalyst, V_{cata} and 193 ρ_{cata} are respectively the catalyst volume and density, and η_s is the surface efficiency factor which 194 is estimated classically through the Thiele modulus Φ_n . Since the flux condition (equation (7)) is 195 applied at the catalyst's external surface, the concentration within the catalyst pores is not 196 accessible. Smaller scale simulations are required to access such information. The α -methylstyrene 197 catalytic hydrogenation reaction was considered with a Pd/Al₂O₃ catalyst. Due to its very fast 198 intrinsic kinetics, this reaction is very often operated in full external mass transfer regime and is a 199 good candidate to probe chemically overall external mass transfer efficiency of different GLS reactor 200 configurations (Meille et al. 2002; Meille and de Bellefon 2004). The reaction rate simplifies to an nth 201 order reaction in the selected experimental conditions:

 $r_{Pd} = k C_{H_2}^n$ (8) 202 Where n = 0.73 and k is the reaction rate constant (Tourvieille et al. 2013). As the reaction rate 203 depends on hydrogen concentration, the concentration transport equation (eq. (6)) is solved for 204 hydrogen only. The reaction is accounted for using the flux method explained above (eq. (7)).

Even though the flux condition is applied on the surface of the catalyst, the diffusion throughout the catalyst volume is accounted for by the efficiency factor, which is defined as the following for an nth order catalytic reaction and is estimated at each mesh cell:

$$\eta_{S} = \frac{1}{\Phi_{n}} = \sqrt{\delta_{cata}^{2} \frac{(n+1)\rho_{cata}W_{Pd}kC_{H_{2}}^{n-1}}{2D_{E}}}$$
(9)

208 Where δ is the catalyst thickness, k is the reaction rate constant and D_E is the effective 209 diffusivity. This latter parameter is estimated as $D_{H_2}/4$ since the tortuosity ranges from 2 to 3, and 210 the internal porosity is nearly 0.6 (Tourvieille et al. 2013) and there is no Knudsen diffusion term.

Since the reaction rate and flux condition (eq. (7)) depend on the hydrogen concentration, only one concentration convection-diffusion equation is solved for H_2 concentration. The overall mass transfer coefficient can be post-processed after the solute concentration computation, the total hydrogen consumption flux is used to calculate the global mass transfer coefficient K_{ov} . a_{GL} and the AMS conversion X_{AMS} as follows directly linked to the 1:1 stoichiometry between the 2 reactants:

$$K_{ov}. a_{GL} = \frac{hydrogen\ consumption\ flux}{V_{liq}\left(C_{H_2}^* - \overline{C_{S}}_{H_2}\right)}$$
(10)

$$X_{AMS} = \frac{hydrogen\ consumption\ flux}{Q_L C_{AMS}} \tag{11}$$

216 a_{GL} is the gas-liquid interfacial area, V_{liq} is the liquid volume inside the reactor, C_{AMS} is the AMS 217 concentration fixed to 1 mol/m3 at the inlet, Q_L is the liquid volumetric flow rate. The gas-liquid 218 interfacial area a_{GL} has been chosen arbitrarily.

219 $C_{H_2}^*$ is the thermodynamic equilibrium concentration of H₂ in the liquid phase (mol/m³) given by the 220 following expression (Herskowitz et al. 1978) :

$$C_{H_2}^* = 1.3 (0.0145.T(K) - 1.6985)P(bar)$$
(12)
221 Where T and P are the operating temperature and pressure.

222 $\overline{C_{S}}_{H_2}$ used in equation (10) is the mean hydrogen concentration at the catalyst's surface. Because 223 of various possible definitions and for verification purpose, it was determined using two methods. 224 The first one consists in calculating the average concentration at the catalyst surface at the post-225 processing stage of the CFD simulation. The second method is based on the hydrogen consumption 226 flux at the catalyst surface. At the permanent regime, the hydrogen consumption flux is equivalent 227 to the reactive flux at the catalyst surface, therefore the following model can be used to estimate 228 $\overline{C_{S}}_{H_0}$:

$$\overline{Flux} = K_{ov}a_{GL}V_{liq}(C_{H_2}^* - \overline{C_s}_{H_2})$$

$$= \sqrt{\delta_{cata}^2 \frac{(n+1)\rho_{cata}W_{Pd}k\overline{C_s}_{H_2}^{n-1}}{2D_E}} \cdot \frac{\rho_{cata}W_{Pd}V_{cata}k\overline{C_s}_{H_2}^n}{A_{s,cata}}$$
(13)

Where *Flux* is the averaged hydrogen consumption flux at the catalyst surface. Equation (13) is a non-linear equation which can be solved using an optimization algorithm such as a Levenberg-Marquardt one. In this work, the two approaches lead to very similar results, as the hydrogen surface concentration estimated by both methods are close, therefore only the first method is finally used in the following sections.

234 **2.4.** Resistances-in-series model analysis

Gas Liquid Solid reactor models usually use the resistances-in-series model to estimate the overall mass transfer coefficient, termed $K_R a_{GL}$ to distinguish it from $K_{ov} a_{GL}$ presented in equation (10), considering that the overall external mass transfer inside such reactors is governed by two drivers in series, gas-liquid and liquid solid mass transfer resistances. First, a gaseous component diffuses from the gas bulk to the liquid film through the gas-liquid interface, the solute concentration stabilizes inside the liquid volume and reaches a liquid bulk concentration, then it is consumed by the heterogeneous reaction at the catalyst surface.

The overall mass transfer coefficient K_R is determined using the resistances-in-series model, defined as follows:

$$\frac{1}{K_R a_{GL}} = \frac{1}{k_{GL} a_{GL}} + \frac{1}{k_{LS} a_{LS}}$$
(14)

This model is developed assuming the presence of a liquid bulk inside the liquid film. The gas phase consists of pure H₂, and as the hydrogen is poorly soluble in the liquid phase, the gas-liquid mass transfer coefficient represents the liquid-side mass transfer.

247 The mass transfer coefficients k_{GL} and k_{LS} are determined respectively from simulations of:

• Physical gas absorption into the liquid through the gas/liquid interface

• Physical solid dissolution into the liquid through the liquid/solid interface

First of all, the physical gas absorption mass transfer coefficient k_{GL} is obtained after solving equation (6), considering a zero-concentration flux at the catalyst surface. The solute diffuses throughout the gas-liquid interface and accumulates inside the liquid film. At steady state, equation (6) takes the following form:

 $\nabla . (uC) = D\nabla^2 C$ (15) 254 The convective flux difference (*uC*) between the inlet and the outlet of the domain is calculated to 255 estimate the diffusion flux. The mass transfer coefficient is then defined from the diffusion flux as 256 the following:

$$k_{GL} = \frac{D\nabla^2 C}{a_{GL}(C^* - C_B)}$$
(16)

257 Where C^* is the concentration at the interface, equal to the thermodynamic equilibrium 258 concentration. Whereas C_B is the mean solute concentration in the liquid film.

In order to determine the mass transfer coefficient k_{LS} , the solid dissolution is simulated considering the diffusion properties of Hydrogen from the solid to the liquid. The concentration convection-diffusion equation (eq. (6)) is solved considering a zero-concentration flux at the gasliquid interface. k_{LS} is calculated using the following equation:

$$k_{LS} = \frac{D\nabla^2 C}{a_{LS}(C_{wall} - C_B)}$$
(17)

263 Where C_{wall} is the concentration at the surface of the catalyst, and C_B is the mean solute 264 concentration in the liquid film.

The coefficients k_{LS} and k_{GL} are then used to estimate the overall mass transfer coefficients using the resistances-in-series model presented in equation (14).

267 3. Validation case

268 **3.1. 2D** simulation of mass transfer in a liquid falling film

This section presents the simulations performed to develop and validate the numerical model. It consists of a 2D falling liquid film over a vertical plate, the aim is to guarantee a good agreement between the predictions and adequate analytical solutions, and to verify the validity of the resistances-in-series and film models in this numerical set-up.

273 **3.1.1.** Set-up & boundary conditions

The computational domain consists of a vertical plane plate of 1mmx250mm, water and hydrogen enter the domain at the top, and flow co-currently downward over the plate. The hexahedral mesh has a high cell density near the plane plate in order to improve the interfacesharpness and concentration gradients in the liquid film

The boundary conditions are presented in Figure 1. The gas and liquid enter the domain at $Re_G = 2.74$ and $Re_L = 3.98$ respectively. The concentration is fixed to the equilibrium concentration C^* at the gas inlet and gas-adjacent wall, and to C = 0 at the liquid inlet. At the remaining boundaries, Neumann boundary conditions ($\nabla C = 0$) are specified.

282

3.1.2. Mesh convergence study

In their work, Haroun et al. (2010b) recommended to have at least 5 cells in the concentration boundary layer for an accurate concentration gradient description and gas-liquid mass transfer calculation. In order to determine the adequate mesh resolution to obtain accurate numerical description of hydrodynamics and overall gas-liquid-solid mass transfer, a mesh sensitivity study is performed. All the tested meshes are structured, for which the mesh resolutions are varied as shown in Figure 2. The criterion on which the final mesh is selected is mesh convergence calculation of the overall Sherwood number.

Figure 2 shows the evolution of gas-liquid-solid Sherwood number with mesh resolution. It can be observed that the overall Sherwood number does not change for meshes above 4.7 10⁵ cells, corresponding to 14 cells within the liquid film thickness, indicating the mesh convergence of the simulation. It is interesting to note that the mesh used in this work are hexahedral with higher cell resolution near the catalyst surface in order to improve the interface sharpness and the concentration gradients calculation.

It is to be noted that for the other study cases : 3D Falling Film Micro-Reactor and 3D falling film on spherical particles were meshed with mesh resolution much higher than 14 mesh cells within the liquid film. Moreover, it is interesting to note that in the Falling Film Micro-Reactor, a very sharp

mesh with a mesh resolution higher than the requirement of 14 cells is used in order to capture thefilm's meniscus shape.

301 3.1.3. Analytical solution

The liquid flow over such a semi-infinite vertical plane plate was studied by (Nusselt 1916), who suggested an analytical expression for the interface velocity (u_I) and liquid film thickness (β) depending on the flow and physico-chemical properties. The analytical solutions are expressed as follows:

$$u_I = \frac{\rho_L g \beta^2}{2\mu_L} \tag{18}$$

$$\beta = \left(\frac{3\nu^2 R e_L}{g}\right)^{\frac{1}{3}} \tag{19}$$

306 Where β is the liquid film thickness. This analytical solution was used to validate the numerical 307 hydrodynamic results.

308 Concerning mass transfer validation, (Higbie 1935) developed a model to obtain the local and 309 global gas-liquid mass transfer coefficients in such films under laminar flow depending on the 310 contact time, the coefficients are expressed as follows:

$$k_{GL,local} = \sqrt{\frac{D}{\pi t_{contact}}} \quad ; \quad K_{GL} = 2\sqrt{\frac{D}{\pi t_{contact}}} \quad ; \quad t_{contact} = \frac{l(x)}{u_I}$$
(20)

The contact time is estimated based on the interface curvilinear length l(x) from the inlet to a position x.

Figure 3 shows the gas volume fraction distribution. It can be seen that the liquid film flows continuously over the plane plate, this film seems to have a constant thickness. The liquid film is slightly curved at the establishment zone near the inlet because the inflow velocity value is low.

The interface velocity and the liquid film thickness were compared to the analytical solution. As one can see from the Table 2, the numerical values are in good agreement with the analytical values with 318 very low relative deviation for both evaluated parameters. When the flow is established, the 319 simulated liquid film maintains a constant thickness throughout the domain, the liquid film thickness 320 reported in Table 2 corresponds to the converged film thickness.

321

3.1.4. Mass transfer validation

322 Figure 4 shows a comparison between the analytical and numerical local mass transfer 323 coefficients, for the 2D falling film over a vertical solid plate. The numerical mass transfer coefficient 324 k_{GL} is obtained using equation (16), where the bulk concentration C_B is taken at the furthest 325 location from the gas-liquid interface, at the solid surface. As one can see, there is a high difference 326 between the simulated and analytical values at the inlet of the domain, due to the difference 327 between concentration boundary conditions at adjacent gas and liquid inlets, causing a high 328 concentration gradient therein. However, overall, the numerical model reproduces the analytical 329 solution with a good agreement in the rest of the domain.

The gas-liquid mass transfer coefficient is well predicted by CFD simulations as seen above. Similarly, considering the dissolution of chemical species from a solid surface into the liquid film, and following the method described in the section 2.4, the liquid-solid mass transfer coefficient can be computed. The diffusive flux is determined by Fick's law, considering the diffusion coefficient of hydrogen.

The H₂ concentration profile in the liquid film when H₂ is consumed at the solid surface is represented in **Figure 5**. As one can see, the obtained profile is linear within the liquid film, which means that mass transfer takes place in the absence of a liquid bulk and due to the specific kinetics (zeroth order in substrate) and gas conditions (pure and isobaric H2 flow) this profile remains the same all along the falling length. The corresponding overall mass transfer coefficient K_{ov} obtained through equation(**10**), for this reactive simulation is of 5.99.10⁻⁵ m.s⁻¹.It can be compared to K_R , its physical counterpart obtained following the resistance in series strategy (eq. (**14**)). In K_R , the gasliquid and liquid-solid mass transfer resistances were obtained from the physical absorption and dissolution cases respectively, K_R is equal to 7.95.10⁻⁵m.s⁻¹. The results show a 27% deviation, as the resistances-in-series model overestimates the mass transfer coefficient. This deviation is due to the absence of a bulk concentration in the liquid film, as the film thickness is low and the flow is laminar and unidirectional, meaning that the radial mixing is poor.

347 K_{ov} was also compared to the analytical overall coefficient $K_{ov,A}$ obtained from the equations 348 below for a similar situation but under pure diffusion only (no fluid convection), at steady state:

$$\begin{cases} D_{H_2} \cdot \frac{dC_{H_2}}{dy} = 0\\ D_{H_2} \nabla C_{H_2} \Big|_{y=0} = \frac{Flux}{A_{S,cata}} & at \ y = 0 \ (catalyst \ surface)\\ C_{H_2}(y = y_I) = C_{H_2}^* & at \ y = y_I \ (gas - liquid \ interface) \end{cases}$$
(21)

Where *Flux* is the heterogeneous catalytic flux condition at the catalyst surface defined in equation (7), and $C_{H_2}^*$ is the hydrogen equilibrium concentration given by equation (12). The corresponding analytical concentration profile is given by the following expression:

$$C_{H_2}(y) = \frac{Flux}{D_{H_2}}(y - y_I) + C_{H_2}^*$$
(22)

The corresponding analytical overall mass transfer coefficient $K_{ov,A}$ is derived from equation (23), and is expressed as the following:

$$K_{ov,A}. a_{GL} = \frac{D_{H_2} \frac{dC_{H_2}}{dy}}{V_{liq}(C_{H_2}^* - C_{H_2} S)} = \frac{Flux}{V_{liq}(C_{H_2}^* - C_{H_2} S)}$$
(23)

This $K_{ov,A}$ and the overall mass transfer coefficient K_{ov} obtained by CFD are equal, indicating that in this configuration, the vertical convective down-flow does not impact the radial transport which is ensured only by pure diffusion in the liquid film thickness.

357 Similarly, the $K_{ov,FM} = D_{H_2}/\delta_{film}$ given by the film model gave a good agreement with the 358 computed overall mass transfer coefficient K_{ov} , the relative deviation being equal to 1.3% as reported in Table 3. This means that the diffusion layer thickness is nearly equal to the actual overallhydrodynamic liquid film thickness.

361 4. Study cases

362 4.1. 3D simulation of a Falling Film Micro-Reactor (FFMR)

363 The developed numerical model has been applied to simulate one channel of a falling film micro-364 structured reactor in order to validate its ability to predict hydrodynamic and mass transfer 365 parameters in a more complex set-up, where the liquid film thickness takes different values 366 depending on the location within the channel. This feature is obtained due to the structuration at 367 the sub-millimetre-scale of the channel, thus involving a flow driven by capillary and viscous forces. 368 The purpose is to improve the understanding of mass transfer behaviour in similar film 369 morphologies, to identify the most suitable mechanism to describe GLS mass transfer, and to 370 compare the numerical results with available experimental results published by (Tourvieille et al. 371 2013) on the hydrogenation of α -methylstyrene with a coated Pd/Al₂O₃ catalyst under mass transfer 372 controlled regime but also on liquid film profiles established by fluorescent confocal microscopy 373 under various flow conditions. These results were used to further validate the model both for 374 hydrodynamic and mass transfer predictions.

The FFMR (Large version) is a falling film containing several parallel micro-structured channels, where the gas and liquid flow counter-currently, transferring the reagents from gas to the liquid and from the liquid to the solid, in the case of the presence of a coated heterogeneous catalyst. Microstructuration applied to falling film contact mode brings very stable G-L interfaces and intensification through liquid film thinning due to capillary forces. More details about the reactor can be found in (Tourvieille et al. 2013) and in (Vankayala et al.).

Only one longitudinal half of a single channel has been simulated to reduce computation time, usinga symmetry boundary condition in the middle of the channel.

As in the experimental work where two different plates were used, two numerical domains were considered: a first one without catalyst coating for the hydrodynamic validation, and a second one taking into account the catalyst layer thickness of 40µm.

As we assume that all the channels have an equivalent behaviour, the liquid is evenly distributed at the inlet, all the liquid channels have the same liquid and gas flow rates (Tourvieille 2014). Moreover, liquid enters the domain at $C_{H_2} = 0$, and the concentration of hydrogen in the gas phase is constant for it consists of pure H₂, and the interface H₂ concentration is equal to the equilibrium concentration given by equation (12).

To be fully representative of the experimental work, and because starting procedure plays a significant role on wetting, the channel is initially overflowed with the liquid at the inlet liquid velocity. The contact angle was not characterized experimentally, thus different contact angle values were tested in the model, and it is found that the liquid film profile is well represented with contact angle values of 20°.

396 Liquid flow over a flat plane can take several forms. At large liquid flow rates, a continuous liquid 397 sheet is formed on the solid surface, which might breakup at certain locations. Falling film micro-398 reactors are known for preventing film breakup, they facilitate the stability of the liquid film and the 399 corresponding gas-liquid interface and gas-liquid-solid 3-phase contact lines. Due to the combination 400 of capillary forces and small channel widths, liquid is pulled up along the sides of the channels and 401 covers up a significant portion of the channel width. The most desirable flow configuration is when 402 the liquid flows in a meniscus shape as shown in Figure 6, that is to say for small Weber numbers, as 403 the interface shape is governed by the interfacial energy.

404 Downward co-current two-phase flows were simulated, and converged liquid film profiles were 405 compared to the corresponding experimental results. In order to avoid compatibility issues between 406 the liquid phase and solid material of the FFMR, the hydrodynamic experiments were performed 407 using ethanol/hydrogen instead of MCH+AMS/hydrogen. For consistency purposes, hydrodynamic 408 simulations are performed using ethanol/hydrogen, and reactive mass transfer simulations are 409 carried out with MCH+AMS/hydrogen. The properties of ethanol/hydrogen are given in Table 1. 410 Figure 6 shows this comparison for different inlet liquid flow rates. The numerical results are in good 411 agreement with the experimental values indicating a very good prediction of the hydrodynamics by 412 the CFD simulations.

The gas-liquid interface curves upwards moving from the channel's centre to the three-phase contact lines (always located at the edges of the channel due to the starting wetting procedure), and the interface is not disrupted across the numerical domain. The more the liquid flow rate increases, the flatter the interface becomes. Such behaviour was found in many experimental studies (Tourvieille et al. 2013; Yeong et al. 2006). Besides, the liquid film is contained inside the channel regardless of tested liquid inlet flow rates in the investigated flow rate range. The results shown in **Figure 7** were obtained with a contact angle value of 20°.

Logically, as shown in Figure 7, the corresponding specific gas-liquid area values are in good agreement with the experimental results, with a relative deviation to the experimental results only up to 10% at the lowest liquid flow rate. The variation of the specific gas-liquid area illustrates well the effect of liquid flow rate, as this latter increases, the interface flattens, the mean liquid thickness increases too leading to the decrease of the specific area.

425 **4.1.1.** Mass transfer

426 In this section, the two-phase flow of hydrogen and methylcyclohexane/ α -methylstyrene 427 mixture is investigated, and two channel dimensions were simulated for further validation. The 428 coated channels characteristics are summarized in **Table 4**.

As one can see from Figure 8, H_2 diffuses from the gas phase to the liquid phase, and is consumed by the heterogeneous catalytic reaction at the solid wall. Due to the liquid film thickness variation inside the channel, the liquid is saturated with H_2 near the three phase contact line as the liquid film thickness is lower at this location. Whereas, at the channel's centre, the liquid film thickness reached its maximum value leading to a lower H_2 concentration at the catalyst surface. In addition, the mass transfer fully developed regime is reached at 5mm from the channel's inlet, thus the concentration profile is the same at different plane cuts of the channel as shown in Figure 8.

Experimental liquid volumes were estimated using a developed correlation in (Tourvieille et al.
2013), which can explain the 20% difference between numerical and experimental liquid volumes
reported in Table 5.

439 As one can see from Table 5, the experimental and CFD predicted H_2 consumption fluxes are in 440 the same orders of magnitude and follow the same evolution with liquid flow rate. The relative 441 deviation between CFD and experimental results are 17%, 2% and 0.8% at liquid flow rates of 442 3ml/min, 5ml/min and 7ml/min respectively. The same findings apply on the α -methylstrene 443 conversions. However, the overall mass transfer coefficients $K_{ov}a_{GL}$ show significant deviations 444 between experimental values and numerical values, this is mainly due to experimental liquid 445 volumes estimations. According to (Tourvieille et al. 2013), evaporation was noticed at low pressure 446 in the experiment and a significant liquid volume was found at the gas outlet. Thus, the effective 447 liquid volume inside the reactor in reaction conditions was lower than the one predicted through the 448 correlation and the overall mass transfer coefficients were overestimated. However, evaporation

was negligible at 5 bar, which means that data measured at 5 bar are the most reliable ones,
especially concerning the H₂ consumption flux (Tourvieille et al. 2013).

The deviation in $K_{ov}a_{GL}$ even for the best experiment remains large because of an important difference in the liquid volume determination as already mentioned. For the experimental results, it is approached through a correlation and for this work it is precisely simulated using the hydrodynamic model. That's why in the following, comparisons with experimental data will be carried out on the H₂ consumption flux (which is equivalent to a comparison in $K_{ov}a_{GL}V_{liq}$).

456 Figure 9 compares experimental and numerical $K_{ov}a_{GL}V_{liq}$, as well as the evolution with liquid flow rate and pressure for the 2 plates with different channel geometries. The quantity $K_{ov}a_{GL}V_{liq}$ is 457 458 equivalent to H₂ consumption flux normalized by the concentration difference between $C_{H_2}^*$ and the surface concentration $C_{H_2,S}$. The computed $K_{ov}a_{GL}V_{liq}$ are very close to the experimental values 459 460 except at the minimum liquid flow rate where a more significant deviation is present, this might be 461 explained by a higher variability in the experiment. As one can see, the other numerical values are 462 within 10% around the experimental ones, this allows us to conclude that CFD was able to capture 463 and predict the effect of channel dimension on this coupled situation involving hydrodynamics, mass 464 transfer and heterogeneous reaction. One interesting fact, both numerical and experimental mass 465 transfer coefficients reach higher values with bigger channels which is counterintuitive in micro-466 structuration. Indeed, micro-structuration is needed to obtain a curved and thinned liquid interface 467 in comparison to unstructured conventional falling. films. However, because of the presence of the 468 free interface, too much structuration can be detrimental in this case, leading to thicker films with 469 the smaller channels at the same mean flow velocity or flowrate. This holds true as long as the 3-470 phase contact lines remain stable and at the edges of the channels.

471 Figure 10 shows a comparison between experimental and predicted values for α -methylstyrene 472 conversion at P=5bar. As one can see, numerical predictions are in good agreement with

473 experimental values thus validating the developed CFD model, the liquid flow rate effect on474 conversion is also well represented.

The resistances-in-series model has been tested on this case study as well. The results are summarized in **Table 6**. They show on average 32% deviation between the computed overall mass transfer coefficients, $K_{ov}a_{GL}$, and the resistances-in-series model, K_Ra_{GL} . These results show that the resistances-in-series model is not adapted to describe the overall mass transfer coefficient, the liquid film thicknesses obtained in FFMRs are low, leading to the absence of a bulk concentration within the liquid film.

Similarly to the semi-infinite planar case, the applicability of the film model was tested. An interesting difference lies in the definition of the correct characteristic length because of the encountered variable thickness in the cross section of it. Thus, different liquid film thicknesses were used to define the film model mass transfer coefficient, namely the liquid thickness at the centre of the channel δ_c , the arithmetic mean thickness δ_A , the geometric liquid thickness δ_{geo} defined as the ratio of the liquid volume to the wetted surface, and finally the harmonic mean thickness δ_H .

487 The film model underestimates the mass transfer coefficient using δ_c , δ_A and δ_{geo} , and strongly 488 overestimates it using δ_H ; the lowest mean relative deviation reported in Table 7 for $K_{ov,FM}$ corresponds to the arithmetic mean liquid film thickness δ_A , the mean relative deviation is above 489 490 30% for the remaining liquid film thickness definitions. These differences are caused by the liquid 491 film morphology, where the film thickness is very low near the three-phase contact line and reaches 492 a maximum at the centre of the channel, causing important local differences in H₂ consumption at 493 these locations. Nonetheless, to reconciliate the sophisticated CFD simulations with the simple film 494 model, a correction factor A can be introduced to the film model to predict well the mass transfer:

$$K'_{ov,FM} = A \frac{D}{\delta}$$
(24)

The results are presented also in **Table 7** and the best fit was obtained using δ_A . However, δ_{geo} is considered to be the most interesting thickness value, for its easier acquisition both experimentally and numerically.

498 4.2. 3D simulation of a reactive falling film on string of spherical 499 catalyst particles

500 The previously studied cases consisted of falling films over a regular plane or micro-channel. In 501 order to highlight the effect of the solid catalyst shape and to go towards more complex geometries 502 encountered in fixed beds, simulations of reactive two-phase flow over stacked 1mm diameter 503 spheres were carried out. The purpose of this case study is to investigate the effect of liquid film 504 thickness distribution within the domain on GLS mass transfer involving a heterogeneous catalytic 505 reaction, and to check the validity of resistances-in-series and film models on a such complex 506 configuration. Contrary to the two previous cases, here the chosen geometry is likely to induce 507 convection in other directions than the main flow direction and its impact on overall external 508 transport from the gas phase to the solid catalyst surface will be investigated.

The three dimensional simulation domain consists of 12 spheres of 1mm diameter stacked inside a cylinder, where the co-current hydrogen/water flow takes place by gravity from inlet to outlet. The mesh was generated using SnappyHexMesh, with high refinement near the spheres to increase the number of cells in the liquid film.

For the first hydrodynamic investigation, the gas and liquid inlet Reynolds numbers are 25 and 30 respectively, and the flow takes place in isothermal (T=283K) and isobaric conditions. The hydrogen concentration at the liquid inlet is equal to zero, and C^* at the gas inlet, it is homogeneous in the gas phase a it consists of pure hydrogen, and reaches the equilibrium concentration given by equation (12) at the gas-liquid interface.

518 The liquid forms a continuous film over the catalyst particle string at steady state as shown in

Figure 11-a, the thickness varies throughout the domain. As one can see from Figure 12-a, the liquid film is thinner at the equatorial plane of each particle and accumulates at the contact region between spheres. Similarly, as shown in

Figure 11-b and Figure 12-b, the interface velocity reaches its maximum value where the liquid film is thin and vice-versa, due to mass conservation inside the computational domain. The total number of spheres was chosen in order to ensure the fully developed regime is reached.

525

4.2.1. Mass transfer analysis

The convection diffusion equation of concentration (eq. (6)) was solved at different pressure conditions, that is to say at different thermodynamic equilibrium concentrations $C_{H_2}^*$. In order to investigate the effect of particle shape on mass transfer, purely diffusive conditions are also considered. The pure diffusion is an artificial calculation since the convective term is artificially considered equal to zero in the concentration transport equation, but the liquid film thickness profile remains the same as for convection-diffusion conditions.

As one can see from Figure 13, when convection is neglected in transport analysis, the diffusion boundary layer is equivalent to the whole liquid film thickness (Figure 13-a). Whereas when the convection effects are taken into account, the diffusion boundary layer is closer to the particles (Figure 13-b), the liquid film is loaded with hydrogen since the concentration is maximum in a large proportion of the liquid film, the concentration then decreases near the surface of the spheres where it is consumed by the heterogeneous catalytic reaction.

In order to bring out the effect of convection, **Figure 14**-a compares the concentration profiles in the liquid film at the great circle of a particle. As one can notice, the concentration profile is linear when convection is neglected. In contrast, the convection boosts the solute transfer since the concentration is nearly constant far from the spheres, and the diffusion is predominant near the spheres as the concentration profile becomes linear. 543 Figure 14-b shows a comparison between the hydrogen consumption flux with and without 544 convection. The flux is significantly increased by convection in comparison to pure diffusion, it is on 545 average 6 times higher. This result is substantially different from the two previous study cases for 546 the radial velocity profile contributes to radial transport enhancement in this case. In addition, one 547 can also notice that the flux profile shape is smooth for pure diffusion and reaches peaks at the great 548 circle of particles. In contrast, when convection is considered, the flux profile shape is asymmetric 549 and reaches a peak at the top of each particle, following the shape of the radial velocity as shown in 550 Figure 15.

The same evolution is noticed for the distribution of the solute surface concentration on the spheres surface. **Figure 16** shows the difference in surface concentration of the solute with and without convection on the 10th sphere. For pure diffusion, the surface concentration is symmetric, whereas the radial velocity boosts the concentration at the first hemisphere of the particles when convective transport is considered.

556 The local overall external mass transfer K_{ov} obtained for convection-diffusion is represented in 557 Figure 17. K_{ov} is calculated at each mesh cell of the gas-liquid interface, and defined as the ratio of the 558 local hydrogen consumption flux and the local concentration difference $(C_{H_2}^* - \overline{C_{S,H_2}})$. K_{ov} follows 559 the same trend as the surface hydrogen consumption flux and surface concentration, Figure 17 560 reports only the data at P=1bar because the K_{ov} profiles are exactly the same for P=3bar and 561 P=5bar. After going through the flow stabilization zone at the inlet, for the 2-4 first spheres, the 562 mass transfer coefficient profile becomes similar from one sphere to another and is maximized at 563 the first hemisphere of each particle, with the liquid acceleration, then decreases at the second 564 hemisphere with the liquid deceleration.

565 The average external overall mass transfer coefficients are obtained by integrating the local 566 overall external mass transfer coefficient presented in Figure 17 throughout one sphere in the fully 567 developed mass transfer regime, that is to say on the 10th sphere for instance. As done previously,

the apparent diffusion layer thickness is obtained from the average K_{ov} using the film model. The apparent diffusion layer thicknesses reported in Table 8. The results show that the radial convection enhances mass transfer. The apparent diffusion layer is low when convection is accounted for, this means that the diffusion takes place in a small liquid film thickness near the surface, which was explicitly noticed in Figure 14-a.

As shown in Table 8, The mass transfer coefficients determined by resistances-in-series model are on average 37% higher than the obtained overall mass transfer coefficient, once again because the gas-liquid and liquid-solid mass transfer layers overlap, since there is no bulk concentration in the liquid film.

577 Concerning the film model, neither the geometric thickness nor the average thickness gives good 578 results, as the apparent diffusion layer thickness δ_{app} is very small compared to the liquid 579 hydrodynamic thickness.

Further investigation of the convection effect on mass transfer has been made, considering several liquid Reynolds number conditions to investigate the liquid velocity and viscosity effects, the diffusion coefficient remains fixed at 4.88.10⁻⁹m²/s. As one can see from Figure 18-a, the geometric thickness increases with Reynolds number as well as viscosity.

The overall mass transfer coefficient is represented in **Figure 18**-b since the liquid film thickness increases with the Reynolds number, the mean mass transfer layer becomes thicker and the mass transfer coefficient decreases. However, convection enhances mass transfer since the convective mass transfer coefficient remains higher than the purely diffusive mass transfer coefficient.

In order to gather all these data in a single correlation, a gas-liquid-solid Sherwood number Sh_{GLS} corresponding to the overall external mass transfer has been estimated. Figure 19 shows that this Sherwood number increases with the Reynolds number, and seems to reach an asymptotic value of 6 in the investigated conditions since the flow regime is laminar. When the convection is 592 neglected, the mass transfer coefficient was equal to D/δ_{geo} , leading to a Sherwood number equal 593 to 1. Thus, a tentative correlation has been derived for this overall Sherwood number, taking the 594 following form:

$$Sh_{GLS} = Sh_{asymptotic} - (Sh_{asymptotic} - Sh_{diff}) \cdot \exp(-A.Re)$$
⁽²⁵⁾

595 Where Sh_{diff} is the Sherwood number for pure diffusion and $Sh_{asymptotic}$ is the asymptotic 596 value of the Sherwood number equal to 6 in this case. The constant A was fitted on the obtained 597 numerical data, and the tentative correlation is given by:

$$Sh_{GLS} = 6 - 5.\exp(-0.048.Re)$$
 (26)

As one can see from Figure 19, Sherwood numbers estimated by the correlation presented in equation (26) and by CFD are close, the maximum relative error is 11% and the average relative error is 4.74%.

601 In summary, This case illustrates the effect of a more complex geometry corresponding to pellet 602 string reactor on hydrodynamic and mass transfer performances. It is found that the convection 603 enhances drastically the mass transfer rate, in contrast with the two previous study cases where 604 diffusion was the exclusive radial transport phenomenon. However, since the string of few particles 605 are stacked in a perfectly aligned pattern, the two-phase flow behavior is different from the one 606 encountered in trickle-bed reactors, where the catalyst particles are stacked randomly and are more 607 packed, leading to more complex phase distributions inside the reactor. Nevertheless, this work 608 shows that CFD simulation allows investigating realistic complex reactive systems such as trickle-bed 609 reactors.

610 *5. Conclusion*

A numerical model has been developed in order to improve the understanding of reactive falling
liquid films flow over different catalytic surfaces. This model coupled a robust hydrodynamic VOF

613 description with a consistent gas-liquid-solid mass transfer and a surface heterogeneous catalytic 614 reaction. Three case studies have been simulated, namely a 2D semi-infinite falling liquid film over a 615 vertical planar surface, a 3D falling film micro-reactor and a 3D falling liquid film over a string of 616 spherical particles.

First, the CFD modeling of two-phase flow in bidirectional domain and three dimensional microchannel reactor have been investigated. The simulation results were compared respectively to Nusselt's model (Nusselt 1916) and experimental data of (Tourvieille et al. 2013). The simulation results show a very good agreement in both cases.

Regarding mass transfer, the overall external gas-liquid-solid mass transfer behavior encountered under heterogeneous catalytic reaction conditions is significantly different in the three study cases. Indeed, For the 2D semi-infinite plate, the gas-liquid mass transfer coefficients is found to be in good agreement with the analytical solution of (Higbie 1935). In addition, the gas-liquid-solid mass transfer is well described by the film model, when a pure radial diffusion regime is reached at steady state. Moreover, this work shows that the resistances-in-series model is not suitable to describe mass transfer for this case, since it overestimates the mass transfer coefficient by 27%.

Regarding the 3D falling film micro-reactor (FFMR), a good agreement is obtained between experimental and simulated overall mass transfer coefficients. It is found that the gas-liquid-solid mass transfer is predominantly diffusive, a correction factor is proposed and introduced to the film model to account for the non-uniform liquid film thickness in the channel. For FFMR system, it is also found that the resistances-in-series model overestimates the overall mass transfer coefficient by 32% for similar aforementioned reasons as the 2D falling liquid film.

Finally, using the validated CFD model, mass transfer in trickling flow conditions over a string of 12 spherical catalyst particles with a heterogeneous catalytic reaction at the catalyst surface has been studied, using the validated CFD model. It is found that the gas-liquid-solid mass transfer

regime is mainly dominated by the convection induced radially by this geometry. The convection enhances mass transfer, leading to thin mass transfer boundary layers. In addition, it is found that the film model does not give representative results for this case, and a new Sherwood number correlation is developed to correct the model. This work shows also that the overall GLS external mass transfer coefficients estimated by the resistances-in-series model are on average overestimated by 37% again because of bulk concentration absence.

643 To conclude, this work shows that the mass transfer in two-phase laminar flows with reaction 644 occurring at the solid surface are dependent on the solid geometry and behave differently regarding 645 the overall external mass transfer. Not all the cases are equivalent to a simple falling liquid film, thus 646 each case needs to be studied separately. In addition, this work proves that CFD can be an a 647 powerful tool, not only to predict complex flow patterns, but also to simulate physically relevant 648 mass transfer processes coupled with heterogeneous reactions, as well as to improve the 649 understanding of multi-physics phenomena in gas-liquid-solid fixed bed reactors. Nowadays , thanks 650 to the development of high performance calculations resources, this approach might be extended to 651 fixed-bed reactors. However, the predictions would be limited to a few hundreds of particles instead 652 of the entire reactor. Even though the simulated scales are far from the reactor scale, the presented 653 numerical model can be applied to improve understanding of local mass transfer mechanisms.

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720 *Figures*



721

722 Figure 1: Numerical domain for the 2D liquid falling film over a plane plate



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Figure 2 : gas-liquid-solid Sherwood number variation with mesh resolution for a 2D falling liquid film over a vertical

725 plane plate









Figure 4: analytical and simulated mean gas-liquid mass transfer coefficients for $Re_L = 3.98$ and $Re_G = 731$ 2.74*at* T = 283K and P = 1bar. Analytical values computed using (Higbie 1935)



Figure 5 : hydrogen concentration profile in the liquid film in the presence of a heterogeneous catalytic reaction, for $Re_L = 3.98$ and $Re_G = 2.74$ at T=283K. The liquid-solid interface is located at y=0 and the gas-liquid interface is located at y=100µm



Figure 6 : Comparison between numerical and experimental liquid film profiles for ethanol flow in a 600*200μm²
 channel, the liquid flow rate ranges from 4ml/min to 10ml/min. the simulations are performed in isothermal (T=283K)
 and isobaric (P=1bar) conditions



Figure 7 : Specific gas-liquid area comparison for ethanol/H₂ flow at Q_L between 3ml/min and 7ml/min in a 600*200 μ m² channel, the simulations are performed in isothermal and isobaric conditions (T=283K, P=1bar). Numerical results are compared to experimental data of (Tourvieille 2014). Error bars represent ±5%



Figure 8 : concentration profiles in the liquid film for the hydrogenation of α -methylstyrene to cumene in a 600*200 μ m² at $Q_L = 7ml/min$, T=283K and P=5bar. The outlet plane is located at z=0mm, the concentration profiles are shown from left to right at z=5mm, z=10mm, z=15mm and z=20mm.



Figure 9 : Comparison between experimental data and numerical results $K_{ov}a_{GL}V_{liq}$ at T=283K and P=5bar. For the 600*200µm² channel, the liquid flow rate varies from 3ml/min to 7ml/min and experimental results are drawn from (Tourvieille et al. 2013).For the 1200*400µm² channel, the liquid flow rate varies from 5ml/min to 13ml/min and experimental data are drawn from (Tourvieille 2014). Error bars represent ±20%



Figure 10 : α -methylstyrene conversion comparison at P=5bar and T=283K, the initial α -methylstyrene is 1mol/m³. For the 600*200 μ m² channel, the liquid flow rate varies from 3ml/min to 7ml/min and experimental results are drawn

- 756 from (Tourvieille et al. 2013). For the 1200*400μm² channel, the liquid flow rate varies from 5ml/min to 13ml/min and
- 757 experimental data are drawn from (Tourvieille 2014).



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Figure 11: (a) Liquid volume fraction distribution in z=0 plane cut for $Re_G = 25$ and $Re_L = 30$ (b) velocity magnitude profile in z=0 plane cut for $Re_G = 25$ and $Re_L = 30$. The two-phase flow is solved in isothermal and isobaric conditions (T=283K and P=1bar)





763 Figure 12 : (a) liquid film thickness variation and (b) gas-liquid interface velocity variation throughout the domain at





Figure 13 : Hydrogen concentration profiles at P=1bar, T=283K, $Re_G = 25$ and $Re_L=30$ for (a) pure diffusion (b)



Figure 14 : (a) Concentration profile comparison at the equatorial plane of the 10th sphere between pure diffusion conditions and convective-diffusive conditions at P=1bar, T=283K, $Re_G = 25$ and $Re_L=30$ and (b) axial evolution of hydrogen consumption flux for pure diffusion and convection-diffusion regimes at P=1bar, T=283K, $Re_G = 25$ and $Re_L=30$



Figure 15 : axial evolution of gas-liquid interface velocity magnitude and hydrogen consumption flux variation throughout one pellet in convection-diffusion regime at P=1bar, T=283K, $Re_G = 25$ and Re_L =30





Figure 16 : Hydrogen surface concentration comparison at the 10th sphere for P=1bar, T=283K, $Re_G = 25$ and Re_L =30 for pure diffusion and convection-diffusion conditions



Figure 17 : overall mass transfer coefficient axial variation throughout the domain in convection-diffusion regime for P=1bar, T=283K, $Re_G = 25$ and $Re_L = 30$



Figure 18 : (a) geometric liquid film thickness variation with Reynolds number and liquid viscosity and (b) overall mass transfer coefficient variation with Reynolds number and liquid viscosity in convection-diffusion regime for H2/mehylcyclohexane and α -methylstyrene mixture two-phase flow, for different inlet liquid Reynolds number conditions (10< Re_L <120) and fixed inlet gas Reynolds number $Re_G = 25$, at P=1bar and T=283K.



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Figure 19 : gas-liquid-solid Sherwood number Sh_{GLS} variation with Reynolds number and liquid viscosity for inlet liquid Reynolds numbers between 0 and 120, inlet gas Reynolds number of $Re_G = 25$, at P=1bar and T=283K.

791 **Tables**

	Composition	Operating pressure [bar]	Density $ ho \left[kg/m^3 ight]$	Viscosity $\mu [kg/m.s]$	Surface tension [N/m]
		1	0.086	$8.60\ 10^{-6}$	-
Gas phase	Pure hydrogen	3	0.26	$8.61 \ 10^{-6}$	-
		5	0.43	8.61 10 ⁻⁶	-
	Water		998	$1.00 \ 10^{-3}$	0.072
Liquid phase	Methylcyclohexane and α -methylstyrene (MCH+AMS)	1, 3 and 5	770	9.10 10 ⁻⁴	0.022
	Ethanol		789	$1.04 \ 10^{-3}$	0.0218

792 Table 1 : physicochemical properties of the two-phase systems

793

Table 2 : Comparison between the numerical and analytical solution for the two-phase flow over a plane plate

	Analytical solution	Numerical solution	Relative deviation [%]	
Interface velocity u_I [cm/s]	3.53	3.54	0.28%	
Liquid film thickness $oldsymbol{eta}$ [µm]	85.03	84.62	0.48	

794 Table 3 : film model post-processing data for different pressure conditions

Pressure (bar)	C* (mol/m3)	$\begin{array}{c} K_{ov} a_{GL} \\ (s^{-1}) \end{array}$	δ_{hydro} (µm)	$\delta_{diffusion}$ (µm)	Relative deviation (%)
1	3.1	0.729	80.4	81.5	1.37%
3	9.4	0.730	80.4	81.5	1.37%
5	16.4	0.729	80.4	81.6	1.50%

Table 4 : Coated plate characteristics used by (Tourvieille et al. 2013) for 600*200µm² channels and (Tourvieille

796 2014) for 1200*400μm² channels

Channel cross section dimensions (µm ²)	600x200	1200x400
channel number per plate	100	50
Catalyst density $ ho_{cata}$ (g/m³)	690278	737231
Palladium mass fraction W_{Pd} (%)	4.42	4.5
Palladium mass m_{Pd} per plate (mg)	22	49
Catalyst layer volume V_{cata} (cm ³)	0.72	1.46

Catalyst layer thickness (μm)	40	80	
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797 Table 5 : Summary of experimental and numerical values at P=5bar for the α -methylstyrene hydrogenation to

798 cumene in a 600*200μm² channel

	Liquid flow rate Q _L (ml/min)	<i>H</i> ₂ surface concentration (mol/m3)	Liquid volume in the reactor (m3)	H ₂ consumption flux (mol/s)	Conversion (%)	$\begin{array}{c} K_{ov} a_{GL} \\ (s^{-1}) \end{array}$
Evention	3	4.30	5.60.10 ⁻⁷	3.46.10 ⁻⁵	70%	5.10
Experimental	5	4.80	6.80.10 ⁻⁷	3.79.10 ⁻⁵	47%	4.80
values	7	4.30	7.80.10 ⁻⁷	3.40.10 ⁻⁵	30%	3.60
Numerical	3	4.97	8.24.10 ⁻⁷	4.06.10 ⁻⁵	81%	4.31
Numerical	5	4.55	9.70.10 ⁻⁷	3.71.10 ⁻⁵	45%	3.23
values	7	4.11	$1.08.10^{-6}$	3.37.10 ⁻⁵	29%	2.54

Table 6 : comparison of GLS mass transfer coefficients K_{ov} . a_{GL} to the ones obtained by the resistances-in-series

800 model $K_R a_{GL}$ in isothermal conditions (T=283K), for pressure conditions from 1bar to 5bar, and liquid flow rate

801 conditions from 3ml/min to 7ml/min.

Pressure (bar)	<i>C</i> * (mol/m3)	Liquid flow (mL/min)	$\begin{array}{c} K_{ov} a_{GL} \\ (s^{-1}) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} K_{R} \cdot a_{GL} \\ (s^{-1}) \end{array}$	Relative error (%)
1	3.1	3ml/min	1.78	1.19	33%
		5ml/min	1.23	0.86	31%
		7ml/min	0.98	0.77	21%
3	9.4	3ml/min	1.77	1.19	33%
		5ml/min	1.22	0.85	30%
		7ml/min	0.97	0.74	24%
5	16.4	3ml/min	1.75	1.19	32%
		5ml/min	1.21	0.85	29%
		7ml/min	0.96	0.74	24%

802 Table 7 : Film model optimization data in a 600*200μm² channel for liquid flow rates between 3ml/min and

803 7ml/min, pressure conditions between 1bar and 5bar, at fixed operating temperature (T=283K)

		δ _C	δ_A	δ_{geo}	δ_H
Film model $K_{ov,FM} = D/\delta$	Mean relative deviation [%]	32.99%	10.64%	30.24%	113.71%
Modified film model	Correction factor A [-]	1.479	1.112	1.405	0.469
$K'_{ov,FM} = A.D/\delta$	Mean relative deviation [%]	1.85%	1.48%	3.72%	6.66%

Table 8: comparison of GLS mass transfer coefficients K_{ov} . a_{GL} to the ones obtained by the resistances-in-series

805 model $K_R a_{GL}$ in isothermal conditions (T=283K), for pressure conditions from 1bar to 5bar, at $Re_G = 25$ and $Re_L = 30$.

Pressure (bar)	<i>C</i> * (mol/m3)	$\begin{array}{c} K_{ov} a_{GL} \\ (s^{-1}) \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} K_{R} \cdot a_{GL} \\ (s^{-1}) \end{array}$	Relative error (%)
1	3.1	2.60	1.90	36%
3	9.4	2.60	1.89	37%
5	16.4	2.60	1.89	37%

806 Table 9 : overall external mass transfer post-processing data in convection-diffusion and pure diffusion regimes at

807 1<P(bar)<5, T=283K, $Re_G = 25$ and Re_L =30.

Convection and diffusion						
Pressure (bar)	<i>C_S</i> (mol/m3)	Reaction flux (mol/s)	$K_{ov}\left(m.s^{-1} ight)$	δ_{app} [μm]	$\delta_{geo} \left[\mu m ight]$	
1	0.84	1.47.10 ⁻⁹	1.83.10 ⁻⁴	26.59	122.72	
3	2.84	4.22.10 ⁻⁹	1.82.10 ⁻⁴	26.78	122.72	
5	5.23	7.16. 10 ⁻⁹	1.82.10 ⁻⁴	26.87	122.72	
Pure diffusion						
Pressure (bar)	<i>C_S</i> CFD (mol/m3)	Reaction flux (mol/s)	$K_{ov}\left(m.s^{-1} ight)$	δ_{app} [μm]	$\delta_{geo} \left[\mu m ight]$	
1	0.19	4.11.10 ⁻¹⁰	4.01.10 ⁻⁵	121.63	122.72	
3	0.69	1.23.10 ⁻⁹	4.01.10 ⁻⁵	121.92	122.72	
5	1.30	2.13.10 ⁻⁹	3.99.10 ⁻⁵	122.08	122.72	