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Abstract: Waste Water Treatment Plants are known to have significant emissions of several pollutants from the different treatment phases. Among such pollutants, volatile organic and inorganic compounds, often having low odour detection thresholds, cause odour nuisance to the population. One of the purposes of the present work is to determine which are the more suitable methodologies to assess the odour emissions from liquid passive area sources, by means of a thorough study of the models capable of describing the volatilization phenomena of the odoriferous compounds from such sources. Several different models were evaluated for the open field emission, selecting the most appropriate one. Moreover, the models describing volatilization under a forced convection regime inside a wind tunnel device have been investigated, in order to describe the situation inside this sampling device, typically used for sampling on liquid sources. By means of experimental tests involving pure liquid acetone and pure liquid butanone, it was verified that the model more suitable to describe precisely the volatilization inside the sampling hood is the model for the emission from a single flat plate in forced convection and laminar regime, with a fluid dynamic boundary layer fully developed and a developing mass transfer boundary layer. The proportionality coefficient for the model was re-evaluated in order to account for the specific characteristics of the adopted wind tunnel device. Due to the differences between the fluid dynamic conditions in the open field and inside the hood, it was deemed useful to devise a correlation that - according to the flush rate adopted inside the chamber - is capable of computing the wind velocity at a 10 m height that would cause the same emission flux that is estimated from the analysis of the sample collected with the wind tunnel. Finally, the field of application was clearly defined for the considered models during the project, discussing the two different kinds of compounds commonly found in emissive liquid pools or liquid spills, i.e. gas phase controlled and liquid phase controlled compounds.





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## **Assessing Odour Emissions from Liquid Area Sources**

Federico Lucernoni, Laura Capelli, Valentina Busini, Selena Sironi

Our work discusses a methodology for the determination of emission rates of pollutants like VOCs and odours from liquid area sources like waste water treatment plant tanks. The method entails sampling on the (simulated) liquid source with a Wind Tunnel device, calculating the Specific Emission Rate (SER) and finally rescaling the SER in order to be representative of the real conditions, outside the device, in the open field.

In the research, laboratory experiments were performed adopting a Wind Tunnel and a simulated liquid pool, investigating the emissions of two VOCs, acetone and butanone. We study a particular kind of sampling device, a Wind Tunnel, for field applications on liquid passive area sources, such as waste water treatment tanks. The present research is part of the ongoing effort in different parts of the world aimed to gaining a better understanding of how the hood devices work, what happens exactly inside them during sampling and how to use the obtained data in order to be able to obtain meaningful conclusions and insights concerning the problem of emissions assessment from area sources. Such problems are addressed and discussed also in other papers recently published on Atmospheric Environment (Parker et al., 2013).

The main results of the present study are highlighted, discussing how the proposed procedure for rescaling the emission rate to the open field scenario can be really useful, especially for atmospheric dispersion modelling purposes.

As novelty of this work and its contributions to the field of liquid surfaces emissions assessment and pollutants dispersion modelling, please consider our paper “Assessing Odour Emissions from Liquid Area Sources” for publication on Atmospheric Environment Journal.

We hope this paper will be of interest for the readers of the journal.

Best regards,

Federico Lucernoni and Laura Capelli

Highlights for the article “Assessing Odour Emissions from Liquid Area Sources”:

- Liquid area surfaces are significant sources of odours and VOCs emissions.
- Lawmakers concur that the emissions should be monitored.
- There are no widely accepted methodologies for emissions assessment.
- The paper tries to provide a method for evaluating liquid sources.
- The procedure entails also the recalculation of the emission in the field.

## 1 **ASSESSING ODOUR EMISSIONS FROM LIQUID AREA SOURCES**

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7

### 8 **ABSTRACT**

9 Waste Water Treatment Plants are known to have significant emissions of several pollutants from the  
10 different treatment phases. Among such pollutants, volatile organic and inorganic compounds, often having  
11 low odour detection thresholds, cause odour nuisance to the population. One of the purposes of the  
12 present work is to determine which are the more suitable methodologies to assess the odour emissions  
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20 is the model for the emission from a single flat plate in forced convection and laminar regime, with a fluid

21 dynamic boundary layer fully developed and a developing mass transfer boundary layer. The  
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23 characteristics of the adopted wind tunnel device. Due to the differences between the fluid dynamic  
24 conditions in the open field and inside the hood, it was deemed useful to devise a correlation that –  
25 according to the flush rate adopted inside the chamber – is capable of computing the wind velocity at a 10  
26 m height that would cause the same emission flux that is estimated from the analysis of the sample  
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28 Finally, the field of application was clearly defined for the considered models during the project, discussing  
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30 phase controlled and liquid phase controlled compounds.

31

32 **Keywords:** Specific Emission Rate; Olfactometry; Liquid Pools; Passive Area Sources; Volatilization  
33 Phenomena; Wind Tunnel.

34

## 35 1. INTRODUCTION

36 Waste Water Treatment Plants (WWTP) are known to have significant emissions of several pollutants from  
37 the different treatment phases (Capelli et al., 2009a; Prata Jr. et al., 2016a; Santos et al., 2012). Among  
38 them, volatile organic and inorganic compounds, often having low odour detection thresholds, are typically  
39 a cause of odour nuisance to the near-living population (Capelli et al., 2009a; Parker et al., 2013; Prata Jr. et  
40 al., 2016a). Whereas point source, such as stacks (Bockreis and Steinberg, 2005; Capelli et al., 2013) are  
41 typically subject to periodical emission monitoring, this is not the case for area sources, such as WWTP  
42 tanks, which, however, often represent the main source of VOCs and odour emissions in this kind of plants  
43 (Capelli et al., 2008; 2009a). For this reason, area sources should be considered as well as point sources for  
44 odour emission characterization and impact assessment, as already provided by some regulations on the  
45 matter (D.g.r. n. IX/3018, 2012; VDI 3880, 2011). However, assessing odour emissions from area sources

46 such as wastewater treatment tanks, i.e. the so-called “passive” area sources, which means without  
47 outward flow, is typically a rather complicated task, since there is no straightforward nor established  
48 procedure (Capelli et al., 2013). First of all, already choosing the most appropriate technology for sampling  
49 is difficult among the different ones that have been proposed and are currently applied for this scope  
50 (Muezzinoglu, 2003; Blunden and Aneja, 2008; Beghi et al., 2012; Rumsey et al., 2012; Hentz et al., 2013;  
51 Hudson and Ayoko, 2008; Bliss et al., 1995; Kim and Park, 2008). In recent studies there is evidence that so-  
52 called “hood methods”, entailing an enclosure of some sort (e.g., wind tunnels), whereby emission rates  
53 are derived from the data regarding the concentration at the outlet of the sampling device combined with  
54 the dimensions of the device and the operating conditions, should be preferred for this purpose (Hudson  
55 and Ayoko, 2008; Capelli et al., 2013). There are different types of dynamic hoods, mainly distinguished  
56 between Flux Chambers (FC) (Klenbusch, 1986; Prata Jr. et al., 2016a) and Wind Tunnels (WT) (Smith and  
57 Watts, 1994; Jiang et al., 1995; Capelli et al., 2009b; Parker et al., 2010), the latter being considered for this  
58 study. With hood methods, the assessment of the odour emission rate (OER) involves 3 phases: on-site  
59 sampling (Capelli et al., 2009b; Koziel et al., 2005; Sironi et al., 2014a), sample analysis (CEN EN 13725,  
60 2003) and data elaboration (Lucernoni et al., 2016; Ranzato et al., 2012). With the odour concentration it is  
61 possible to evaluate the Specific Odour Emission Rate (SOER), that is the odour units emitted from the  
62 source per surface and time unit [ $\text{ou}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ ] referred to the neutral sweep air flow rate used during sampling  
63 (Capelli et al., 2009b).

64 The main problem is that emission rates, calculated as above-mentioned (Capelli et al., 2013), refer solely  
65 to the specific sampling conditions inside the hood, and therefore are not representative of the effective  
66 emissions from the source in the open field when subject to natural ventilation (Hudson and Ayoko, 2009;  
67 Leyris et al., 2005). In order to evaluate the SOER occurring in the open field at different wind conditions, it  
68 is necessary to scale the value obtained for the hood to the real situation, thereby adopting a suitable  
69 correlation. While sampling and analysis methodologies are fairly established (analysis more than sampling,  
70 as previously discussed), the elaboration of the datum is still an open issue. The studies of Sohn et al.  
71 (2005) and Sironi et al. (2014b) propose to use a correlation for the re-calculation of the SOER for the open

72 field based on the Prandtl's boundary layer theory for laminar flow, assuming a proportionality of the SOER  
73 measured at the sampling conditions (i.e. sweep air velocity) and the SOER at the actual wind speed with  
74 the square root of the ratio between actual wind speed and sweep air velocity:

$$75 \quad SER_{field} = SER_{WT} \left( \frac{U_{10}}{U_{WT}} \right)^{0.5} \quad (1)$$

76 The adoption of a dependence with the square root of the air velocity – typical of the laminar flow – does  
77 not account for the fact that in real situations the flow above a liquid area surface is typically turbulent  
78 (Sutton, 1934). Moreover, this approach clearly entails a big approximation of the real situation, since by  
79 relating the actual wind speed – conventionally measured at a height of 10 m above ground – with the  
80 sweep air speed inside the wind tunnel, on one hand it is assumed that the wind profile is constant with the  
81 height, which is typically not the case, the wind profile can be described by means of specific mathematical  
82 relationships (Bonan, 2005; Cook, 1997; Drew et al., 2013; Tieleman, 2008), and on the other hand it  
83 doesn't consider the difference between open-field conditions and forced convection inside an enclosure  
84 (WT). For these reasons, this work aims to investigate a suitable model to relate the datum obtained from  
85 the WT to the real situation. For this purpose, a suitable model based on Prandtl's boundary layer theory  
86 accounting for the volatilization inside the hood (Perry, 1997; Incropera et al., 2007) was experimentally  
87 verified and then related to a model describing the volatilization in the open field, thereby referring to the  
88 semi-empirical models existing for the estimation of emissions from liquid pools as a function of the wind  
89 speed. This relationship allowed to establish a new correlation for the recalculation of the SOER to the  
90 actual wind speed in the open field, thereby discussing reliability and field of application of this new  
91 proposed model.

92

## 93 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

### 94 **2.1. The Wind Tunnel device**

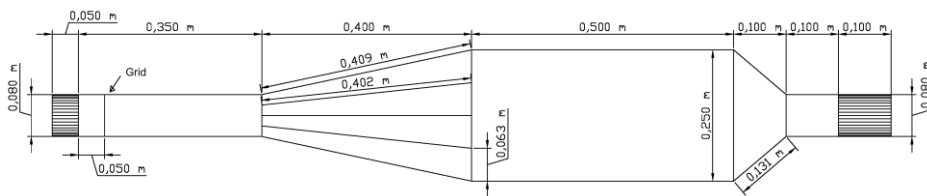
95 The WT adopted for this work was designed and developed by the Olfactometric Laboratory at Politecnico  
96 di Milano. The structure of the hood is described in detail by Capelli et al. (2009b) and is depicted in Fig. 1  
97 and 2. The central body has a 25x50 cm base section and is 8 cm high. The hood is open at the bottom and



98 is laid on top of the emissive surface. The body has two converging sections at the extremes, connected to  
 99 the inlet and outlet of the chamber that can be closed with specific fittings allowing to feed the neutral air  
 100 at the inlet and collect the sample at the outlet. The WT is made of PVC and is equipped with buoyant parts  
 101 that allow sampling on liquid sources.



102  
 103 *Figure 1: The LabOlf Wind Tunnel*



104  
 105 *Figure 2: The Wind Tunnel scheme*

106 **2.2. Volatilization model for the open field**

107 In the scientific literature there are several models that have been proposed in order to describe the  
 108 volatilization phenomena of chemical compounds from liquid pools in the open field. Such models, typically  
 109 developed in the field of industrial safety, for the most part rely on the theory developed by Sutton (1934).  
 110 Sutton for his research (1934) considered a pool of a pure liquid volatile compound, subject to the wind  
 111 action in the open field and he evaluated the dependence of the emission rate on the major factors that  
 112 can influence the phenomenon. The resulting correlation can be expressed as:

113 
$$SER = K U_h^{0.78} a^{0.89} x_0^{-0.11} \quad (2)$$

114 Where: *SER* is the Specific Emission Rate; *K* is the proportionality constant; *U<sub>h</sub>* is the wind speed at the  
 115 considered height; *a* is a constant depending on the physical characteristics of the atmosphere; *x<sub>0</sub>* is the  
 116 characteristic dimension of the pool in the leeward direction.

117 Relying on Sutton’s dissertation (1934), several later studies have been able to determine semi-empirically  
 118 the constant terms  $K$  and  $a$  (Kawamura and MacKay, 1987; Committee for the Prevention of Disasters,  
 119 1992). The values of these two parameters are usually what distinguish one model from the other. Among  
 120 the variety of this kind of models, here the one adopted in the text “Methods for the calculation of physical  
 121 effects” (Committee for the Prevention of Disasters, 1992) is considered because it has been validated by  
 122 many authors and with different sets of data (Pasquill, 1943; Clancey 1974; Jeulink, 1983; MacKay and  
 123 Matsugu, 1973). According to this model the emission in the open field can be expressed as:

$$124 \quad SER = 0.002 U_{10}^{0.78} X^{-0.11} M_i \frac{P_v(T_{pool})}{RT_{pool}} \quad (3)$$

125 Where:  $SER$  is the Specific Emission Rate in  $[\text{kg}/\text{m}^2/\text{s}]$ ;  $M_i$  is the molar mass of the evaporating compound  
 126 in  $[\text{kg}/\text{mol}]$ ;  $P_v(T_{pool})$  is the vapour pressure of the liquid compound at the surface temperature in  $[\text{Pa}]$ ;  $R$   
 127 is the universal gas constant equal to  $8.314 [\text{J}/\text{mol}/\text{K}]$ ;  $T_{pool}$  is the surface temperature of the pool in  $[\text{K}]$ ;  
 128  $U_{10}$  is the wind velocity at 10 m in  $[\text{m}/\text{h}]$ ;  $X$  is the characteristic dimension of the pool in the leeward  
 129 direction in  $[\text{m}]$ ;  $Sc$  is the mixed Schmidt’s number (i.e. air’s kinematic viscosity over compound’s  
 130 diffusivity).

131

### 132 2.3. Volatilization models inside the Wind Tunnel

133 Since there are no available models in the literature for the particular situation of emissions inside a WT,  
 134 among the various models (Perry, 1997; Incropera et al., 2007; Bejan and Kraus, 2003; Shah and London,  
 135 1978; Bliss et al., 1995), the one deemed more appropriate for the case at hand is the model for mass  
 136 transfer under forced convection over a single flat emissive surface in laminar regime. In fact, for the air  
 137 velocity range considered (Capelli et al., 2009b), the fluid dynamic regime is fully developed laminar. Thus,  
 138 the thickness of the fluid dynamic boundary layer can be assumed equal to the 50% of the hood’s height  
 139 (Bejan and Kraus, 2003) and the mass transfer boundary layer can be computed as:

$$140 \quad \delta_m = \delta_f Sc^{-\frac{1}{3}} \quad (4)$$

141 Where:  $\delta_f$  is the fluid dynamic boundary layer thickness in  $[\text{m}]$ ;  $\delta_m$  is the mass transfer boundary layer  
 142 thickness in  $[\text{m}]$ ;  $Sc$  is the mixed Schmidt’s number ( $\frac{D_i}{\nu}$ ).

143 From this correlation, it is easy to see that for compounds with  $Sc > 1$ , as the case under evaluation, the  
 144 mass transfer boundary layer develops inside the fluid dynamic one, with  $\delta_m \leq \delta_f$  and therefore it is  
 145 possible to assume that the top wall of the hood has a negligible effect on the volatilization and is non-  
 146 influencing for the mass transfer phenomenon. Anyway, for the sake of comparison, the model for the  
 147 situation of internal flows between to emissive plates in laminar regime was considered as well (Perry,  
 148 1997; Incropera et al., 2007).

149 It is possible to write the mass balance between the inlet and outlet of the WT, obtaining:

$$150 \quad Q C_{out} = Q C_{in} + K_{c,ave} (C_i - C_B) A \quad (5)$$

151 Where:  $Q$  is the neutral air flow rate flushed in the WT in [ $m^3/s$ ];  $C_{out}$  is the emitted compound  
 152 concentration at the outlet in [ $mol/m^3$ ];  $C_{in}$  is the emitted compound concentration at the inlet in  
 153 [ $mol/m^3$ ], that is 0 if neutral air is used;  $K_{c,ave}$  is the convective mass transfer coefficient, averaged over the  
 154 exchange length, in [ $mol/m^3$ ];  $A$  is the base area of the WT in [ $m^2$ ],  $C_i$  is the gas-liquid interface  
 155 concentration of the emitted compound in [ $mol/m^3$ ];  $C_B$  is the emitted compound concentration in the bulk  
 156 of the gas phase inside the hood in [ $mol/m^3$ ], which can be assumed equal to 50% of the outlet  
 157 concentration, taking it as the average between inlet and outlet concentrations with a 0 inlet concentration  
 158 (Bejan and Kraus, 2003). Thus:

$$159 \quad C_{out} = \frac{K_{c,ave} C_i A}{\left(Q + \frac{K_{c,ave} A}{2}\right)} \quad (6)$$

$$160 \quad SER = \frac{C_{out} Q M_i}{A} \quad (7)$$

161 The values of  $K_{c,ave}$  change from the “single surface” model to the “parallel surfaces” model, as here  
 162 reported in Eq. (8) and Eq. (9) respectively (Perry, 1997; Incropera et al., 2007):

$$163 \quad K_{c,ave} = 0.664 \left( \frac{D_i^4}{L_{WT}^3 \nu} \right)^{\frac{1}{6}} U_{WT}^{1/2} \quad (8)$$

$$164 \quad K_{c,ave} = 1.40 \frac{D_i^{\frac{2}{3}} U_{WT}^{\frac{1}{3}}}{L_{WT}^{\frac{1}{3}} h^{\frac{1}{3}}} \quad (9)$$

165 Where:  $D_i$  is the compound's molecular diffusivity in air in [ $\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ ];  $L_{WT}$  is the length of the WT central body  
166 in [m];  $\nu$  is the air's kinematic viscosity in [ $\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ ];  $h$  is the height of the WT in [m];  $U_{WT}$  is the air velocity  
167 inside the hood in [m/s].

168

#### 169 2.4. The experimental tests

170 In order to evaluate which volatilization model suits better the case under study and describes more  
171 accurately the emission phenomenon inside the WT, it was decided to perform a set of experimental runs  
172 with evaporating pure compounds. It was decided to adopt acetone first, as it is easily detectable by a GC-  
173 TCD and is volatile enough to be considered a gas-phase controlled compound for emissions (Fingas, 1998;  
174 2013) and it is also a reasonably safe compound to use. Then, aiming to have further confirmation of the  
175 validity of the model for different substances, the experiments were performed also with another  
176 compound capable of providing a confirmation of the outcomes obtained with acetone. The chemical  
177 chosen for this second set of experiments is butanone, also a compound that can be easily detected via GC-  
178 TCD and reasonably safe.

179 For the tests, a small PE tank filled with the pure liquid compound, exactly fitting the WT central body, was  
180 placed under the hood simulating the liquid source. Then, the cylinder-fed neutral air was flushed through  
181 the inlet of the chamber, at different velocities, ranging from 0.0096 to 0.0527 m/s. In order to have a  
182 uniform and reliable collection of the gaseous sample at the outlet, a PET tube, equipped with a sampling  
183 port, was connected to the outlet of the WT. The sample was collected by means of a Nalophan® bag and a  
184 sampling vacuum pump (Capelli et al., 2009b; Koziel et al., 2005; Sironi et al., 2014a). The sample was then  
185 analysed by means of Dynamic Olfactometry (CEN, 2003) in order to determine its odour concentration.

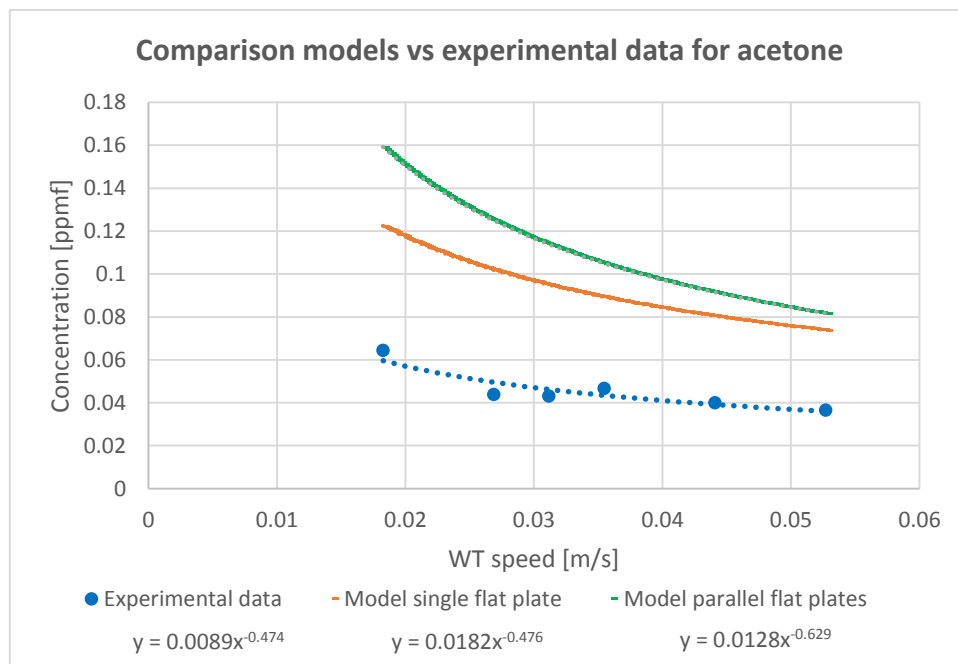
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### 187 **3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

#### 188 3.1. Experimental results and model validation

189 The samples analysis via GC-TCD allowed to obtain the outlet concentrations expressed as acetone or  
190 butanone ppm for each test. Since the concentration is a function of pool's surface temperature, for each  
191 datum the value was expressed also as ppm fraction [ppmf], normalizing the values dividing by the

192 saturation concentration for the compound at the surface temperature of that specific run. This procedure  
 193 allows to compare results obtained in different days with different temperatures and confront the  
 194 experimental data with the forecasts of the two models considered (i.e. single and double plate). Fig. 3 and  
 195 Fig. 4 report the values of concentration expressed as ppm fractions [ppmf], in function of the speed of the  
 196 neutral flushing air inside the WT. The experimental data, for clarity's sake, are reported in Table 1 and  
 197 Table 2 for acetone and butanone respectively.



198

199 *Figure 3. Comparison model-experimental data for acetone*

199

200

*Table 1: Experimental data for acetone*

<b>Q<sub>air</sub> [l/h]</b>	<b>v, WT [m/s]</b>	<b>C, exp [ppmf]</b>
1210	0.01826	0.06445
1790	0.02687	0.04396
2070	0.03117	0.04322
2360	0.03548	0.04672
2930	0.04409	0.03997
3500	0.0527	0.0366

201

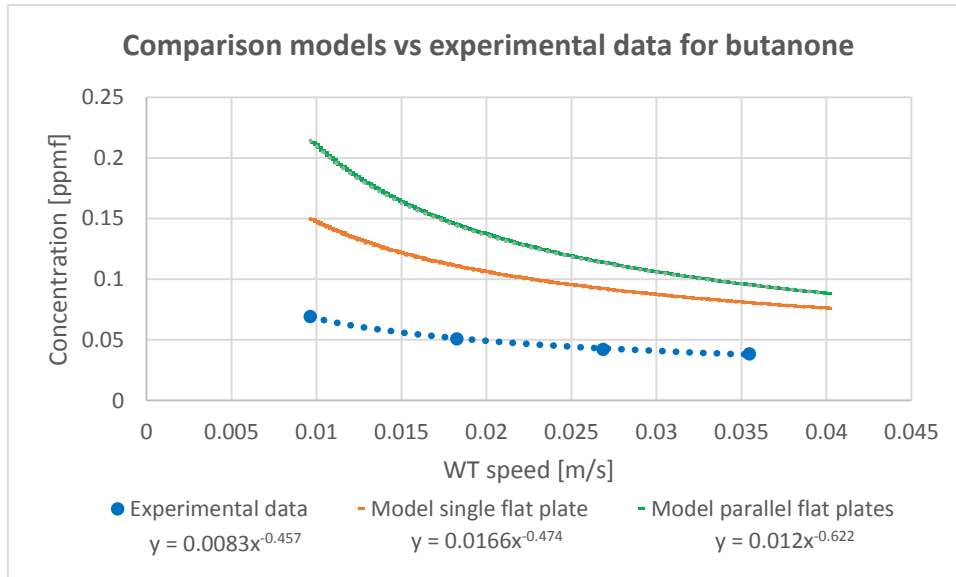


Figure 4: Comparison model-experimental data for butanone

Table 2: Experimental data for butanone

Q <sub>air</sub> [l/h]	v, WT [m/s]	C [ppmf]
640	0.00964	0.0692
1210	0.01826	0.051
1790	0.02687	0.04228
2360	0.03548	0.03855

It is possible to observe how the exponential dependency of concentration on air velocity obtained through the experiments is well described by the volatilization model for the single flat plate geometry. However, it is possible to see also an offset between experimental points and model prediction that seems to overestimate the concentration. Since mass transfer models have a semi-empirical nature and the peculiar case of the WT is somewhat different from the flat plate geometry, it was deemed reasonable to evaluate a new proportionality coefficient for the WT geometry that would fit better the situation at hand, substituting it to the value of 0.664 present in the original model. This would optimize the data-fitting of the model when applied to the specific case of the WT device. The values obtained are 0.33 for acetone and 0.30 for butanone. Therefore, an average value was considered of 0.315. Inserting this new coefficient into the equation for the definition of the convective mass transfer coefficient, a new expression is obtained:

$$K_{c,ave} = 0.315 \left( \frac{D_i^4}{L_{WT}^3 v} \right)^{\frac{1}{6}} U_{WT}^{1/2} \quad (10)$$

217

218 3.2. Correlation between wind speed in open field and air velocity inside the Wind Tunnel

219 Once the volatilization model has been defined, it was possible to proceed to the derivation of the formula  
 220 for the estimation of the wind speed in the open field, at 10 m, that would cause the same emission rate  
 221 from the source as the one obtained with the WT device  $U_{10}^*$ . This is the velocity that will be used for the  
 222 recalculation of the SER, at the actual value of the wind speed recorded at 10 m by a meteorological  
 223 station, starting from the WT data. The equations for the assessment of the SER in the two cases are  
 224 equalled, adopting Eq. (3) for the open field and Eq. (5)-(7) for the WT, yielding:

$$225 \quad 0.002U_{10}^{*0.78}X^{-0.11}M_iC_i = \frac{0.315\left(\frac{D_i^4}{L^3v}\right)^{\frac{1}{6}}U_{WT}^{\frac{1}{2}}C_i}{Q+0.315\left(\frac{D_i^4}{L^3v}\right)^{\frac{1}{6}}U_{WT}^{\frac{1}{2}}\frac{A}{2}}QM_i \quad (11)$$

226 It is possible then to get the value of the velocity at 10 m ( $U_{10}^*$ ), as a function of the velocity in the WT  
 227 ( $U_{WT}$ ), as here shown:

$$228 \quad U_{10}^* = \sqrt[0.78]{157.5 \frac{L^{-0.39} v^{-\frac{1}{6}} U_{WT}^{0.5} h}{h D_i^{-0.67} + 0.1575 L^{0.5} v^{-\frac{1}{6}} U_{WT}^{-0.5}}} \quad (12)$$

229 From the application of such correlation, the emission rate value can be then scaled according to the actual  
 230 wind velocities of interest, as depicted in Eq. (13):

$$231 \quad SER_{field} = SER_{WT} \left(\frac{U_{10}}{U_{10}^*}\right)^{0.78} \quad (13)$$

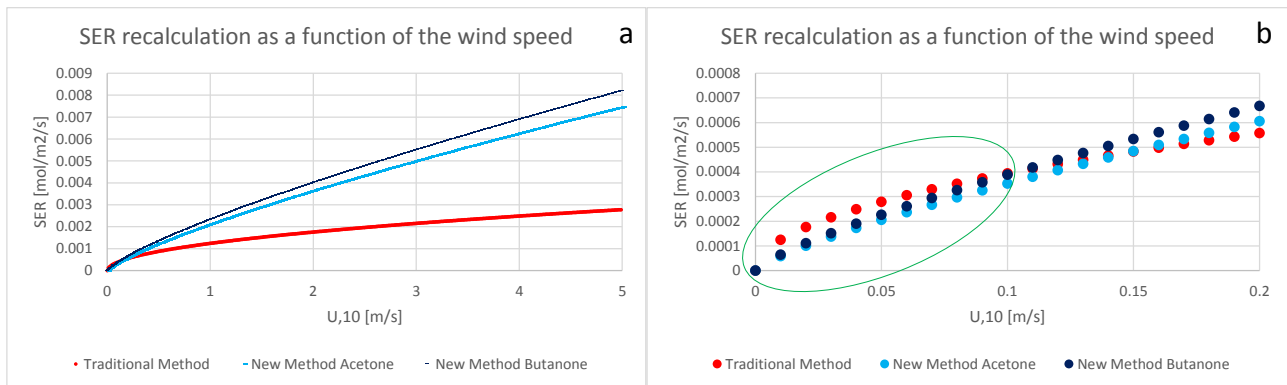
232 This correlation relies on the exponential dependency between the emission rate and the wind velocity for  
 233 turbulent conditions. In order to investigate the differences between the proposed model and the SER  
 234 scaling procedure commonly adopted (Sohn et al., 2005; Sironi et al., 2014b), it was deliberately chosen a  
 235 concentration of 1000 ppm at the outlet of the WT, with an air speed inside the chamber of 0.035 m/s. The  
 236 chosen parameters values are summarized in Table 3:

237 *Table 3: Parameters values chosen for the comparison*

v,WT [m/s]	c,out [ppm]	SER,WT [mol/m2/s]	U,10 range [m/s]
0.035	1000	0.000233	0-5

238

239 By applying the model and comparing the forecast with the new model and the one obtained with the  
240 “regular” procedure, it was possible to obtain the plots depicted in Fig. 5.



241  
242 *Figure 5: SER recalculation method for acetone (blue line) vs SER recalculation method for butanone (purple*  
243 *line) vs traditional SER recalculation method (red line) as a function of the wind speed (Fig. 5a). Zoom for the*  
244 *0-0.2 wind speed U<sub>10</sub> range (Fig. 5b).*

245 It is possible to see that the two new models behave quite differently with respect to the old one,  
246 forecasting SER values that become more distant as the wind speed at 10 m increases. The new models  
247 indicate much higher emissions for strong winds with respect to the “regular” method. This difference can  
248 be explained as mostly due to the different exponent used for the SER recalculation in the two  
249 methodologies. In fact, the “regular” method considers the air speed inside the WT equal to the wind speed  
250 in the open field at the same height and relies on the scaling formula reported in Eq. (1). Looking at Fig. 5b,  
251 it is possible to see how for low wind speeds the new models actually forecast lower emissions with respect  
252 to the traditional method. This is due to the fact that for such speed range, the velocities are too low for  
253 the new exponent (0.78) effect to be predominant and it is possible to observe how the wind speed  
254 recalculation formula (Eq. 12) leads to forecasting lower emissions.

255 As discussed above, the most suitable exponent to use in the SER recalculation formula is 0.78, as it is an  
256 expression for scaling the emission rate in the open field, in the lower atmosphere, that is typically  
257 turbulent.

258

#### 259 **4. GENERALIZATION TO ODOUR EMISSIONS**



260 In order to be able to generalize the models previously presented to the field of olfactometry, it is  
261 necessary to clearly define their field of application.

262 According to the studies carried out by Fingas (1998; 2013), the volatilization phenomena concerning  
263 compounds like paraffins with a chain longer than 10 carbon atoms, are not gas phase controlled (GPC) and  
264 therefore the velocity of the wind swiping the source's surface has no influence on the SER.

265 The research by Parker et al. (2010), investigating the volatilization of the compounds usually found in the  
266 wastewaters of industrial activities or animal feeding operations, has highlighted that – if the liquid source  
267 is a diluted aqueous solution – the solubility value for the considered compounds in water plays a crucial  
268 role in determining what phenomenon is controlling the overall volatilization process. In order to compare  
269 the different chemical species, the non-dimensional Henry's constant ( $H_{cc}$ ) was referred to. The non-  
270 dimensional Henry's coefficient ( $H_{cc}$ ) can be determined from the Henry Law coefficient ( $H_{cp}$ ), according to  
271 Eq. 14:

$$272 \quad H_{cc} = \frac{1}{H_{cp} * R * T} \quad (14)$$

273 Where:  $H_{cc}$  is the non-dimensional Henry coefficient;  $H_{cp}$  is the dimensional Henry coefficient in  
274 [ $\text{mol}/\text{m}^3/\text{Pa}$ ];  $R$  is the universal gas constant in [ $\text{J}/\text{mol}/\text{K}$ ];  $T$  is the room temperature in [ $\text{K}$ ].

275 It was found out that only for the compounds with a very low dimensionless Henry's constant ( $H_{cc} < 0.001$ )  
276 the velocity of the gas sweeping the surface of the liquid surface is the controlling phenomenon in the  
277 volatilization process and such compounds are defined Gas Phase Controlled (GPC). On the contrary, for  
278 compounds characterized by a high non-dimensional Henry's constant ( $H_{cc} \gg 0.001$ ), typically  
279 characterized by a low solubility in water, the effect of the wind velocity becomes negligible, compared to  
280 the phenomena occurring in the liquid phase bulk. For intermediate values of the dimensionless Henry's  
281 constant, both phenomena in the liquid phase and in the gas phase play an important role and should be  
282 accounted for properly. In order to better understand the range of  $H_{cc}$  values for the distinction between  
283 GPC, LPC and "intermediate" compounds, it is possible to refer to the dissertation proposed by Parker et al.  
284 (2010). Relying on the work of Parker et al. (2010), in fact, it is possible to infer that compounds with

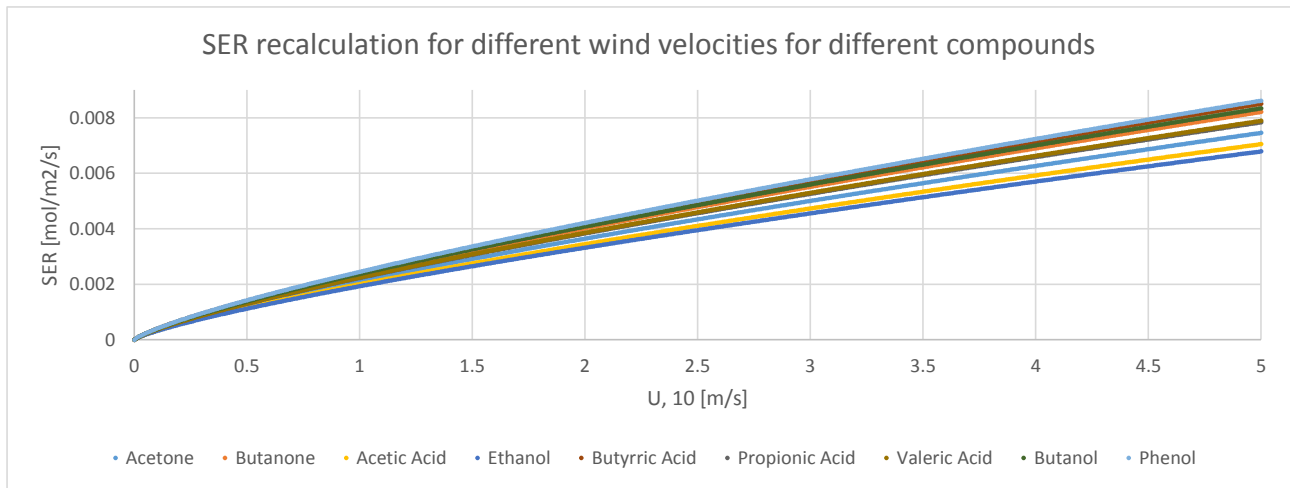
285  $H_{cc} < 0.0006$  can be classified as GPC, compounds with  $H_{cc} > 0.0562$  can be classified as LPC and  
 286 compounds with  $0.0006 < H_{cc} < 0.0562$  can be classified as “intermediate”.

287 In Table 4, the values for the diffusivities in air are listed along with the non-dimensional Henry coefficients  
 288 for several odorous compounds usually found in WWTP tanks, both GPC and LPC, indicating as well for each  
 289 compound whether it is Gas Phase Controlled (GPC) or Liquid Phase Controlled (LPC). In order to compile  
 290 Table 4, the dimensional Henry coefficients were taken from R. Sander (2015). Table 4, for clarity’s sake,  
 291 was compiled grouping the LPC compounds in the upper rows and GPC compounds in the lower rows.

292 *Table 4: Values for the diffusivities and non-dimensional Henry’s coefficients for the considered odorous*  
 293 *compounds*

Compound	Diffusivity in air @ 20 °C [m <sup>2</sup> /s]	H <sub>cc</sub> @ 25 °C [-]	Type
Methyl-mercaptan	1.21398E-05	0.106162606	LPC
Ethyl-mercaptan	1.01292E-05	0.144077822	LPC
Benzene	8.70165E-06	0.224121056	LPC
Toluene	7.82022E-06	0.268945268	LPC
Tetrachloroethylene	7.27439E-06	0.733487094	LPC
Orto-xylene	7.15497E-06	0.201708951	LPC
Alfa-pinene	5.85698E-06	5.451593266	LPC
Ethylbenzene	7.15497E-06	0.288155644	LPC
Butanol	8.69139E-06	0.000336182	GPC
Phenol	8.27155E-06	2.12325E-05	GPC
Butyrric Acid	8.43937E-06	8.96484E-06	GPC
Propionic Acid	9.55295E-06	7.33487E-06	GPC
Valeric Acid	9.45326E-06	3.36182E-05	GPC
Ethanol	1.18929E-05	0.000212325	GPC
Acetic Acid	1.12227E-05	1.00854E-05	GPC
Acetone	1.03057E-05	0.001613672	~ GPC
Butanone	8.89749E-06	0.002241211	~ GPC

295 In order to evaluate the variability of the correlation between wind speed in the open field and air velocity  
 296 inside the WT, in function of the change in the compound’s diffusivity in air, the same calculations  
 297 described in par. 3.2 were performed to assess the SER for a set of odoriferous compounds typically found  
 298 in liquid passive area sources. The compounds considered are characterized by low values of the non-  
 299 dimensional Henry’s constant ( $< 10^{-3}$ ), thus fall within the field of application of the models (i.e. GPC  
 300 compounds).



301

302

*Figure 6: SER recalculation for several odorous compounds*

303

It can be seen how Fig. 6 focuses only on the so-called Gas Phase Controlled compounds characterized by

304

values of the non-dimensional Henry coefficient  $H_{cc}$  lower than 0.001 (GPC in Table 4). In particular, the

305

compounds considered in Fig. 6 are: acetone, butanone, acetic acid, ethanol, butyric acid, propionic acid,

306

valeric acid, n-butanol and phenol. The resulting SER values showed a maximum variability of 12% (Fig. 6) if

307

GPC compounds only are considered. Such value of variability can be considered acceptable, given that, the

308

experimental uncertainty in olfactometry can be as much as 50% (CEN EN 13725, 2003); thus, it is possible

309

to take an averaged value of diffusivity for the application of the model to odour, this value being  $9.65 \cdot 10^{-6}$

310

$\text{m}^2/\text{s}$ .

311

312

## 5. CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE PERSPECTIVES

313

The need of a method to define the Specific Odour Emission Rate (SOER), after odour sampling with a WT

314

and recalculate the SOER at the different wind speeds in the open field, implies knowing the models most

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suitable for describing the volatilization phenomena inside the WT and in the open field. This is why in the

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present work it was necessary in the beginning to analyse thoroughly the different models describing such

317

processes. For the open field scenario, it was chosen as reference the model proposed in the textbook

318

“Methods for the calculation of physical effects” (Committee for the prevention of disasters, 1992).

319

Conversely, for describing the phenomenon inside the hood, as there are no models specific for the

320

particular configuration of the Wind Tunnel, two models have been considered. The two models are the

321 ones describing the situations closer to the WT configuration. Eventually, the model for mass transfer  
322 under forced convection from a single flat emitting surface in fully developed laminar motion regime and  
323 developing mass transfer boundary layer, was preferred as the most appropriate to describe the real  
324 situation. The decision was reached as a consequence of theoretical considerations. In order to verify the  
325 applicability of the chosen model to the WT case, experimental tests were carried out with pure liquid  
326 acetone and butanone. The outcomes confirmed that the mass transfer model for a single flat plate  
327 forecasts a dependency of the emission on the sweep velocity equal to the dependency obtained  
328 experimentally. However, the experimental concentration values are clearly lower than the model  
329 prevision. Therefore, it was proposed to modify the model equation, varying the proportionality coefficient,  
330 defining a value specific for the peculiar case of the WT.

331 Additional studies are necessary and should be carried out testing different compounds, GPC as well as LPC,  
332 in order to improve the estimation of the suitable generalized experimental coefficient reported in Eq. (19),  
333 also investigating the effects of the inlet zone on the phenomenon.

334 Furthermore, a correlation was defined that from the flush air speed in the WT, allows to assess the wind  
335 velocity in open field at 10 m that would cause the same emission as the one calculated with the data  
336 obtained in the WT. The correlation has the great advantage to account for the differences existing  
337 between volatilization in the open field and volatilization in the WT. The formula returns a wind velocity  
338 value that can then be used to recalculate the obtained SOER/SER to the wind velocities of interest: e.g., in  
339 the case of an odour impact assessment with atmospheric dispersion modelling, these are the wind  
340 velocities of the whole time domain of the simulation. Throughout the present work, it was taken great  
341 care in the definition of the field of application of the presented models and correlations. Relying of  
342 previous studies (Fingas, 1998; 2013), it is possible to say that the volatilization of low-volatility  
343 compounds, is not influenced by the velocity of the wind sweeping the liquid surface. Moreover, the  
344 researches by Hudson and Ayoko (2008) and Parker et al. (2010), led to concluding that for diluted  
345 solutions, only for the case of compounds with dimensionless Henry's constant  $< 10^{-3}$  the volatilization  
346 process is controlled exclusively by the wind velocity on the surface. As a consequence of these findings, a  
347 possible future development of this project would be to incorporate the models here described into a more

348 general model framework, capable of describing the volatilization of compounds that are not only  
349 controlled by forced convection. In addition, it would be necessary to extend the validation of the proposed  
350 models, performing other experiments with compounds different from acetone and butanone, both pure  
351 and in aqueous solution. Furthermore, it would be useful to define a methodology to better compare the  
352 experimental data with the forecasts of the model. This may entail carrying out chemical analysis as well as  
353 olfactometric analysis. The latter has the additional criticality of performing the olfactometric analysis  
354 directly in the field in ambient air, a difficult task. Finally, it would be interesting to investigate the adoption  
355 of the friction velocity instead of simply the wind velocity in the model, considering the effects that waves  
356 on the liquid surface may have on the friction velocity and the emission rate itself, effects that some recent  
357 researches seem to indicate are actually not negligible (Prata Jr. et al., 2016b).

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477 **Figures Captions**

478 Figure 1. The PoliMi LabOlf Wind Tunnel.

479 Figure 2. The Wind Tunnel scheme.

480 Figure 3. Comparison model-experimental data for acetone.

481 Figure 4. Comparison model-experimental data for butanone.

482 Figure 5: SER recalculation method for acetone (blue line) vs SER recalculation method for butanone  
483 (purple line) vs traditional SER recalculation method (red line) as a function of the wind speed (Fig. 5a).  
484 Zoom for the 0-0.2 wind speed  $U_{10}$  range (Fig. 5b).

485 Figure 6. SER recalculation for several odorous compounds.

486 **Tables Captions**

487 Table 1. Experimental data for acetone.

488 Table 2. Experimental data for butanone.

489 Table 3. Parameters values chosen for the comparison among the considered models.

490 Table 4. Values for the diffusivities and non-dimensional Henry's coefficients for the considered odorous  
491 compounds.