

# “Reason for Higher Rate of Gas Flow per unit Cross – Sectional Area of Smaller Pore Aperture,,

## ABSTRACT

**Objectives:** The objectives of this research are to 1) Formulate equation that shows the effect of pore aperture (or confinement) on not just the mass movement of molecules but the movement of individual molecules and 2) elucidate the derived equation and illustrate with diameter of pipes or tubes in literature.

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**Methods:** Theoretical and calculational.

**Results:** The results reaffirm that higher volume of gas flows through pore aperture of longer diameter than shorter diameter. The same is applicable to longer tubes. The velocity of flow (volume of gas diffusing per cross – sectional of pore aperture per unit time) is higher for shorter diameter of pore aperture than longer diameter of pore aperture. The converse is the case for the entropy implicit in the flow of gas through pores of different diameter.

**Conclusion:** The “reduced velocity” is inversely proportional to the cube root of the diameter of the pore. The entropic value arising from the effect of diameter is directly proportional to natural logarithm of the square of half of the diameter. If the diameter of the pore is equal to the dB wavelength the gas molecule may continue its motion at a root mean square velocity.

**Keywords:** Carbon (IV) oxide; diffusion; randomness; entropy; “reduced velocity”; pore aperture, kinetic energy; root mean square velocity.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The kinetic energy of gases is well known, and the velocity of any gaseous particle in gas phase at 273.15 K and above can be determined without much consideration for forces of interaction that promotes a departure from ideality. Gas molecules do not have restricted motion, movement

15 being in any direction. What seems to be ignored is the effect of gravity within the very strong  
16 gravitational field of the earth unlike in the moon where astronauts float almost randomly due to weak  
17 gravitational field force. In the absence of concentration gradient (chemical potential gradient) or  
18 pressure gradient, the random motion of gas molecules is due not only to collision between  
19 molecules, but to the weak gravitational attraction for each molecule. This helps in the distribution of  
20 gases in all direction in a three dimensional space (3 – D space). The additional implication is that  
21 more time could be spent before a gas molecule in gas phase reaches a specific target, though the  
22 root mean square velocity remains quantitatively the same. However, according to Simpkins and  
23 Williams [1], Brown and Escombe [2], observed that pipes of smaller uniform cross-section deliver  
24 gases at a higher rate measured in unit of volume per unit cross – sectional area per unit time than  
25 pipes of larger uniform cross-section. It is presumed however, that all pipes were in contact with  
26 carbon (II) oxide ( $\text{CO}_2$ ) in a vessel at the same temperature and pressure.

27         Mere fact that gas molecules diffuse from the region of higher concentration to lower  
28 concentration does not preclude randomness in the motion of the molecules because of weak  
29 gravitational attraction for the molecules by the earth. But the randomness is far more pronounced in  
30 open space at zero concentration gradient. It is suggested that confinement or restriction in the space  
31 available for the diffusion of gases may reduce randomness. The effect of confinement or restricted  
32 space on the diffusion of gases has been studied in different ways [3, 4]. Etienne et al [3], Burada et  
33 al [4], and Martens [5] expressed concern for the entropic effect of confinement on the motion of  
34 particles; Chow and Skolnick [6] investigated the effect of confinement which entails slowing down of  
35 particle motion in cellular medium in particular. The effects of confinement and crowded biological  
36 environment on the diffusion of biomolecules have been studied earlier [6 – 9]. Although some highly  
37 technical terms and much higher mathematics in particular that are poorly understood may have been  
38 used in some research papers [4], but useful information can be obtained. For instance, “in  
39 fluorescence correlation spectroscopy (FCS) analysis it is generally assumed that molecular species  
40 diffuse freely in volumes much larger than the three-dimensional FCS observation volume. However,  
41 this standard assumption is not valid in many measurement conditions, particularly in tubular  
42 structures with diameters in the micrometer range, such as those found in living cells (organelles,  
43 dendrites, etc) and microfluidic devices (capillaries, reaction chambers etc)”[3].

44 In the application of Einstein equation, the time it may take a particle in gas phase or in  
 45 solution and intra-cellular medium is often given as  $x^2/2D$  where the parameters,  $x$  and  $D$ , are the  
 46 root mean square distance (displacement) and diffusion coefficient respectively. However, the long  
 47 dimension length of the cell or vessel containing reaction mixture components is not equal to root  
 48 mean square displacement. This is so because the equation is formulated based on mass diffusion of  
 49 molecules such that average displacement cannot be attributed to any single molecule; each  
 50 molecule may cover distance different from distance covered by any other molecule. Given specified  
 51 condition for the determination of  $D$ , the root mean square distance,  $x$  can be correctly determined for  
 52 a given time,  $t$ . In other words, the parameter  $x$  is a function of  $t$ , and not the other way round. Thus  
 53 within the mass movement of molecules along concentration or pressure gradient individual  
 54 molecules retain its velocity influenced by potential energy intrinsic in the concentration or pressure  
 55 gradient and thermal energy. This is to suggest that single molecule motion can be tracked  
 56 instrumentally. Single-particle tracking (SPT) methods with hi-tech instrumentation are, according to  
 57 Michalet [10] and references therein, widely used for the study of microscopic behaviour and  
 58 interactions of individual molecules or microscopic objects in soft matter and biological environment.  
 59 Based on kinetic theory of matter, the root mean square velocity of gas molecule in free space is  
 60 established. From point "a" to point "b" the distant apart may be » the long dimension length of the  
 61 molecule such that the molecule may not move in only one direction. Therefore, if the distance apart  
 62 is say,  $l$  the latter divided by the total time spent in all direction in random motion should be < the root  
 63 mean square velocity. It is speculated that randomness is minimized in confined space such as space  
 64 within the tube. In this regard, more than 100 years ago Brown and Escombe [2] observed that pipes  
 65 of narrower diameter delivers carbon dioxide at higher rate in volume per unit cross section per unit  
 66 time than pipes of wider diameter. There seem not have been any precise reason for this observation  
 67 and any other observation by contemporary investigators [3, 5]. Therefore, the objectives of this  
 68 research are to 1) Formulate equation that shows the effect of pore aperture (or confinement) on not  
 69 just the mass movement of molecules but the movement of individual molecules and 2) elucidate the  
 70 derived equation and illustrate with diameter of pipes or tubes in literature.

## 71 **2.0 Formulation of Mathematical Model**

72 This section concerns the formulation of the fundamental model which begins with following  
 73 equation.

$$u = \frac{v}{n} \quad (1)$$

Where  $v$  and  $u$  are the root mean square (r m s) velocity and “reduced velocity” (otherwise called “pseudo-velocity”), respectively, and,  $n$  is » 1 due to time spent in other directions other than the preferred direction in a straight line. This view is similar to the analogy expressed in literature. The difference however, is that the diffusion of solute facing obstacles in fluid phase including intracellular environment is the case as described by Kao et al [11]. The time required for an auto to reach a target destination depends on its speed, the fraction of time it is in constant motion, and its route. This is to say there may not be direct straight course to preferred destination. Continuous motion of an automobile at constant speed is analogous to not only fluid-phase solute diffusion [11], but to the diffusion or random displacement of gas molecules driven by thermal energy.

The main principle upon which this derivation is based is de Broglie principle (dB). Therefore, apply dB and obtain:

$$m \left( \frac{v}{n} \right)^2 = h f_{dB(1)} \quad (2)$$

Where  $f_{dB(1)}$  is the reduced dB frequency,  $m$  is the mass of a molecule and  $h$  is the Planck’s constant. Accordingly, there should be increased dB wavelength ( $\lambda_{dB(1)}$ ). These parameters, decreased  $f_{dB(1)}$  and increased  $\lambda_{dB(1)}$  are regarded as pseudo-quantities in contrast to the real quantities expected if the total distance in all directions as against the preferred single direction to the target destination, is divided by the total time. From Eq. (2),

$$f_{dB(1)} = f_{dB}/n^2 \quad (3)$$

Equation (3) arises because  $mv^2 = hf_{dB(1)}n^2$  and  $hf_{dB(1)}n^2 = hf_{dB}$  where  $f_{dB}$  is the dB frequency at r m s velocity,  $v$ .

Meanwhile,

$$(mu)^2 = \left( \frac{h}{\lambda_{dB(1)}} \right)^2 \quad (4)$$

Where  $\lambda_{dB(1)}$ , is the pseudo-wavelength applicable to reduced velocity (or pseudo-velocity). From Eq. (4),

$$u^2 = \left( \frac{h}{m\lambda_{dB(1)}} \right)^2 \quad (5)$$

Since  $\left( \frac{v}{n} \right)^2 = u^2$ , then,  $\left( \frac{v}{n} \right)^2 = \left( \frac{h}{m\lambda_{dB(1)}} \right)^2$  and so,

$$\lambda_{dB(1)} = \frac{nh}{mv} \quad (6)$$

Besides,  $\lambda_{dB} = \frac{h}{mv}$ . Hence,

$$\lambda_{dB(1)} = n \lambda_{dB} \quad (7)$$

Where  $\lambda_{dB}$  is the dB wavelength at  $r$  m s velocity,  $v$ . As long as Eq. (1) holds, then,

$$n = d_0/d \quad (8)$$

Where  $d_0$  (or  $v t$ ) and  $d$  ( $u t$ ) are the total distance covered in every direction and the distance covered in the real direction on a straight course (*i.e.* along preferred straight route) respectively in time,  $t$ .

Meanwhile,

$$v/n = \lambda_{dB(1)} f_{dB(1)} \quad (9)$$

Thus,

$$v \text{ or } \frac{d_0}{t} = n \lambda_{dB(1)} f_{dB(1)} \quad (10)$$

From Eq. (10),

$$\lambda_{dB(1)} = d_0/n f_{dB(1)} t \quad (11)$$

However,  $mu = h/\lambda_{dB(1)}$  and so, substitution of  $\lambda_{dB(1)} = h/mu$  into Eq. (11) gives:

$$u = nh f_{dB(1)} t / m d_0 \quad (12)$$

Meanwhile multiply both side of Eq. (12) by  $n$  and obtain:

$$nu \text{ (or } v) = n^2 h f_{dB(1)} t / m d_0 \quad (13)$$

There should be a time  $t_x$  ( $t_x \neq t$ ) such that  $f_{dB(1)} t_x = n$ . Therefore, if  $D_0$  is the total distance covered in all directions in  $t_x$ , at  $r$  m s velocity,  $v$ , then,

$$D_0 = n^3 \lambda_{dB} \quad (14)$$

Equation (14) arises as follows: In place of  $t$  in Eq. (13)  $t_x$  is used while in place of  $d_0$ ,  $D_0$  is used; since  $h/mv = \lambda_{dB}$ , then when  $D_0$  is made the subject of the formula, Eq. (14) remains as it is.

Keeping the relationship between  $u$  and  $v$  in mind, and as long as Eq. (14) holds, then,

$$D_1 = n^2 \lambda_{dB} \quad (15)$$

where  $D_1$  is the distance measured in a single straight line towards the preferred destination in  $t_x$ . So,

$$D_0 = n^2 \lambda_{dB(1)} \quad (16)$$

Equation (16) arises because  $\lambda_{dB(1)} = n \lambda_{dB}$  and,

$$D_1 = n \lambda_{dB(1)} \quad (17)$$

Note that the above equation arises because, the dB wavelength ( $\lambda_{dB}$ ) at  $v$  is shorter than the wavelength ( $\lambda_{dB(1)}$ ) at  $u$  while the total distance ( $D_0$ ) covered in all directions in a random motion in time,  $t_x$  at  $v$  is always longer than  $D_1$ .

In Eq. (13),  $f_{dB(1)} = u/\lambda_{dB(1)}$  and so,

$$v = hn^2ut/md_0\lambda_{dB(1)} \quad (18)$$

Substitution of Eq. (12) into Eq. (18) gives:

$$v = h^2n^3t_x^2f_{dB(1)}/m^2d_0^2\lambda_{dB(1)} \quad (19)$$

In Eq. (19),  $D_0/t_x = d_0/t = v$ . So,

$$v = h^2n^3t_x^2f_{dB(1)}/m^2D_0^2\lambda_{dB(1)} \quad (20)$$

In Eq. (20)  $n^3f_{dB(1)}$  stands for  $nf_{dB}$  (i.e.  $n(n^2f_{dB(1)}) = nf_{dB}$ ) and if Eq. (16) is squared the result can be used in place of  $D_0^2$  in Eq. (20) so that,

$$v = h^2t_x^2f_{dB}/m^2n^3\lambda_{dB(1)}^3 \quad (21)$$

Yet,  $f_{dB} = v/\lambda_{dB}$  and so, Eq. (21) becomes:

$$v = h^2t_x^2v/m^2n^3\lambda_{dB}\lambda_{dB(1)}^3 \quad (22)$$

Keeping in mind that  $D_0$  is the same as  $n^3\lambda_{dB}$  and making appropriate substitution into Eq. (22), and after rearrangement, the result is:

$$m^2\lambda_{dB(1)}^3D_0 = h^2t_x^2 \quad (23)$$

Therefore,

$$\lambda_{dB(1)}^3 = h^2t_x^2/m^2D_0 \quad (24)$$

From Eq. (24),

$$\lambda_{dB(1)} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{h^2t_x^2}{m^2D_0}} \quad (25)$$

Nonetheless,  $\lambda_{dB(1)} = h/mu$  and substitution into Eq. (25) gives:

$$h/mu = \sqrt[3]{\frac{h^2t_x^2}{m^2D_0}} \quad (26)$$

Making  $u$  in Eq. (26) subject of the formula gives:

$$u = \frac{h}{m} \sqrt[3]{\frac{m^2D_0}{h^2t_x^2}} \quad (27a)$$

But  $t_x^2 = D_0^2/v^2$  and  $v^2 = 3k_B\theta/m$  such that substitutions into Eq. (27a) give:

$$u = \sqrt[3]{\frac{3k_B\theta h}{m^2D_0}} \quad (27b)$$

Equation (27b) is subject to analysis in the results and discussion section.

## 2.1 Derivable equation of entropy arising from random motion of gases

Given that the rate of flow or flux per cross-sectional area through a given pore of known diameter is:

$R_v/\pi r^2$ , then,

$$u = \sqrt[3]{\left(\frac{3k_B\theta h}{m^2 n^3 \lambda_{dB}}\right)} = R_v/\pi r^2 \quad (28)$$

Where,  $r$  and  $R_v$  are the radius of the pore and rate of gas flow in volume per unit time respectively.

There is need to add that if  $X$  volume of a gas diffused through a pipe in time  $t$ , regardless of length, the total distant along the length of the pipe whose uniform cross-section is known is  $(X/\text{cross-sectional area})/t$ . In Eq. (28),  $n^3 \lambda_{dB}$  takes the place of  $D_0$  defined in Eq. (14). Making  $n^3$  subject of the formula gives:

$$n^3 = \left(\frac{\pi r^2}{R_v}\right)^3 \frac{3k_B\theta h}{m^2 \lambda_{dB}} \quad (29)$$

Replacing  $\lambda_{dB}$  in Eq. (29) with  $h/\sqrt{3mk_B\theta}$  gives after rearrangement:

$$n^3 = \left(\frac{\pi r^2}{R_v}\right)^3 \left(\sqrt{\frac{3k_B\theta}{m}}\right)^3 \quad (30)$$

If volume ( $V_{(1)}$ ) swept out in specific direction is given as  $V_{(1)} = A n^2 \lambda_{dB}$  where  $A$  is the cross – sectional area and if the volume ( $V$ ) swept out in multiple directions in random motion is given as  $V = A n^3 \lambda_{dB}$ , then  $\frac{V}{V_{(1)}} = n$ . Therefore, the entropic expression is:

$$\Delta S = R \ln n$$

$$\Delta S = R \ln \left( \frac{\pi r^2}{R_v} \sqrt{\frac{3k_B\theta}{m}} \right) \quad (31)$$

At the earliest part of diffusion through the pore the rate of flow or diffusion in terms of volume per cross-sectional area of pore per unit time, is given by Eq. (27) or Eq. (28) where  $D_0$  is replaced by the diameter of the pore. The earliest rate of diffusion ( $R_{vE}$ ) otherwise called conductance through the pore in terms of volume per unit time is therefore given as:

$$R_{vE} = \pi r^2 \cdot \sqrt[3]{\frac{3K_B\theta h}{m^2 D_0}} \quad (32)$$

Substitution of Eq. (32) into entropy equation, Eq. (31) (the replacement of  $R_v$  with  $R_{vE}$ ), gives after rearrangement the equation of entropy at the earliest stage of diffusion through the pore.

$$\Delta S = R \ln \left( \left( \sqrt[6]{3mk_B\theta} \right) \cdot \sqrt[3]{\frac{d_{La}}{h}} \right) \quad (33)$$

where  $d_{ia}$  is the diameter of pore.

The advantage of transport of particles through restricted channels in fluid medium and pores has been put to good use. For instance, the advent of nanotechnology has its application in civil engineering (effectively dispersing engineered nanomaterials in fiber-reinforced composites during processing involves transport through a polymer solution or melt as well as through the rigid fiber network) and medicine (delivering drugs, diagnostics, or therapeutic agents to targeted tissues in the human body requires transport through the rigid extracellular matrix and the extracellular fluid volume or through the highly selective blood–brain barrier) [7]. The issue is that nanoparticles move through pores or spaces that are not less than nano-scale size. It is obvious therefore, that the issue of pore size is very important or has very useful application in both biological and physical processes. But it is not yet known if pore size or extra – or intra – cellular space is shorter than nano – scale length. Porous structures (metal – organic framework materials), possessing big surface area, have potential application as novel adsorbents and catalysts [12]. Possible use for greenhouse gases removal, hydrogen storage for future clean energy technologies, and for highly selective separation of gaseous mixtures has according to Sartowska *et al* [12] and references therein been the motivation for the interest in porous structures. Construction at the nanometre length scale of porous materials which may be needed at present, for many potential applications has been proposed by Sartowska *et al* and references therein [12]. Although the fluid media as can be found in extra – or intra – cellular medium, presents different hydrodynamic environment from gas phase, both media have one thing in common and that is just diffusion phenomenon. However, in support of the difference in rate of diffusion between fluid medium and gas phase, is the observation that the diffusion of dye molecules being confined in single conical nanopore channels is slower than that in the bulk solution [13] unlike the report by Brown and Escombe [2]. Whatever be the case, it is not certain yet if a pore size or intermolecular space within the cell in particular or through the membrane can be as short as the dB wavelength of the smallest molecule, the hydrogen molecule let alone larger or heavier molecules. Related to this concern is the discussion on quantum aspects of the center-of-mass motion of complex molecules, *i.e.* on the coherent splitting of their dB wave fronts, their recombination and interference and most importantly the experiments, in which dB wavelengths range between  $\lambda_{dB} = h = m v = 0.3 - 5 \exp(-12) \text{ m}$ , which is typically  $10 \exp(3) - 10 \exp(4)$  times smaller than the size of the molecule itself and comparable to the shortest wavelengths in high-resolution transmission electron



microscopy [14]. The implication or effect of radius as short as dB wavelength is to be stated in the results and discussion section.

The advantage of pore size has application in domestic kerosene stove where the combustion chamber is surrounded by two perforated cylinders with open ends. The hydrocarbon (HC), kerosene which according to Matveev *et al* [15] contains dozens of various HC components has been the object of intense research with intention of determining ways of obtaining maximum energy value available in it. Its total combustion in Jet engine [15], lantern [16] combustion chamber and use of ethanol – kerosene mixture [17] require sufficient supply of oxygen that can be made possible with device that can reduce randomness like pores with very short diameter ranging from few nanometers to few micrometers.

### 3. Methods

The research is mainly theoretical which attempts to derive equations (based on de Broglie principle) that can elucidate qualitatively and quantitatively the reason why narrower apertures allows larger volume of gas diffusion per unit cross-sectional area per unit time than pores of longer diameter. The degree of randomness and cognate entropic parameter were determined by substituting appropriate data in literature to the appropriate equations derived in this research.

### 4. Results and Discussion

A series of stepwise derivation based essentially on dB principle – the wave – particle duality – ended in two major equations, Eq. (27b) and Eq. (31). Before, proceeding with the mathematical equation, it is instructive to realize that dB principle seems to be applicable mainly to components of the electromagnetic spectrum as the paper by [14] suggests. Although the issues in the paper by Brand *et al* [14] are not very clear as expected for non-specialist, but they go to illustrate almost the universality in the application of dB theory *vis-à-vis* its application in this research in the elucidation of physico-chemical phenomenon. In other words dB model can be applied to both micro – and macro – particles in motion. This research does not cover diffraction experiment but reference to double – or multiple – split diffraction experiment is intended to support the premise that dB model can apply to almost every particle: According to Brand *et al* [14] and references therein, double – and multi – slit diffraction experiments with massive matter have been realized with electrons, neutrons, atoms and their clusters, as well as small and large molecules. This issue is therefore, connected to the view that a relationship between physical constants from the microcosms (subatomic world) and the

macrocosms (cosmos) plays an important role in physics [18]; this implies that Planck's constant may be "a bridge" between microcosm and macrocosm which seems to be accomplished by writing Newton's gravitational constant as a function of Planck's constant [18]. But there is also a role for Planck's constant in the concept of wave – particle duality in which the particle aspect can best be described as a deterministic property in addition to its description as discrete local particle subject to detection and in which the wave aspect which is probabilistic or stochastic in nature is also described as the indistinguishable delocalized wave nature that explains the interference pattern [14] characteristic of typical wave as observed in double slit experiment. What is relevant is that dB wave length and frequency as used in this research may be justified.

At this junction Eq. (27b) and Eq. (28) can be re-examined. If  $D_0 \rightarrow \lambda_{dB}$ , that is, if  $n^3 \rightarrow 1$ ,  $u \rightarrow v$ . This can be shown as follows: With  $n = 1$ , substitution of  $h/\sqrt{3mk_B\theta}$  into Eq. (28) expressing  $u$ , should give:

$$u = \sqrt[3]{\frac{3k_B\theta h^2 \sqrt{3mk_B\theta}}{m^2 h}} \quad (34a)$$

Taking the cube of Eq. (34a) and simplifying gives:

$$u^3 = \left( \sqrt{\frac{3k_B\theta}{m}} \right)^3 \quad (34b)$$

Taking the cube root gives:

$$u = \sqrt{\frac{3k_B\theta}{m}} \equiv v \quad (34c)$$

Equation (34c) is very likely because in Eq. (1)  $u = v/n$ . Consequently  $\frac{v}{n} = \sqrt[3]{\left(\frac{3k_B\theta h}{m^2 n^3 \lambda_{dB}}\right)}$ ; squaring of both sides of the equation, should eliminate  $n^3$  such that re – substitution of  $h/\sqrt{3mk_B\theta}$  into the resulting equation reproduces the root mean square velocity,  $v$ .

The equations, Eq. (27b) and Eq. (28) – the reduced velocity equation – and Eq. (31), the equation of entropic effect were derived so as to quantify the parameters they stand for. However, there are models in literature [19, 20] that may not yield the same results as applicable to the models in this research. Indeed the flow rate of carbon (IV) oxide in volume per hour in particular as reported by Brown and Escombe [2] is « the results (Table 1) obtainable from the use of models such as

$C_{mL} = \frac{d^3}{3l} \sqrt{\frac{\pi R_0 T}{2M_m}}$  [20] where  $C_{mL}$ ,  $d$ ,  $l$  and  $R_0$  are the conductance through long tube of uniform circular cross section, diameter of the tube's orifice, length of the tube and universal gas constant

respectively;  $T$  and  $M_m$  are the thermodynamic temperature and molar mass of the gas respectively. The same scenario also played out when the results (Table 1), that is the values of the conductance of an aperture whose equation is given as  $C_a = A \cdot \sqrt{\frac{R_0 T}{2\pi M_m}}$  [20] (where  $A$  is the cross – sectional area of aperture) is compared with results from Brown and Escombe [2]. At a glance in Table 1, one sees that all parameters determined by different models, the model in this research and model in literature, were higher with longer diameter (or radius) of the aperture. In Table 2, are parameters generated at the earlier part of diffusion or flow of gas through the aperture of the tube. Expectedly the “reduced velocity” of flow is lower for longer tubes than shorter tubes; but the conductance values were higher for longer tubes than for shorter tubes. Also, the entropic parameters (Table 1 – 3 ) were higher for longer pore diameter than for shorter pore diameters for tubes in line with the models, Eq. (31) and Eq. (33), in this research. One should also consider the fact that flow at the earlier part is around the thickness of the pore aperture.

Table 3 shows the parameters generated at the earlier stage of diffusion through the pore aperture. The conductance,  $C_a$  and the entropy,  $\Delta S$  are higher with longer diameter than smaller aperture unlike the reduced velocity,  $u$ . This scenario is what may be prevalent in kerosene stove in which there are two perforated open – ended cylinders, the inner and outer cylinders. The small apertures reduce the random diffusion or more technically the entropy in gas flow thereby concentrating the air/oxygen around the ignited weak soaked in kerosene. A lot have been expressed regarding the combustion of kerosene [15 – 16, 18]. However, it is a commonplace observation that in the absence of perforated cylinders around the combustion chamber or the weak, high degree of luminosity of the flame is the case due to insufficient air supply. But with the perforated cylinders massive supply of air in higher concentration leads to complete combustion that gives bluish flame with much less luminosity.

One may recall the fact that the aim of this research is to proffer answer or reason why smaller apertures allows faster rate of gas flow per cross – sectional area per unit time. Equation (27b) seems to explain this observation. But it must be pointed out that there are ways of gas flow such as pure molecular diffusion (in this case there is no contact with the walls of the pore), Knudsen + molecular diffusion (in which there are contacting and non-contacting molecules with the walls of the pore), pure Knudsen diffusion (in which there is total contact or collision with the wall of the pore), and diffusion through “tortuous paths” which occurs in compacted solids [19, 20]. A gas molecule will

always deviate from its originally course, as a consequence of randomness which is reduced according to Eq. (27) or Eq. (28). The issue arising from these various ways or mechanism is the negation of one or two of the postulates of the kinetic theory of gases in particular; the fact that gas molecules in the absence of chemical potential gradient or pressure gradient is always in constant random motion colliding elastically with each other and the walls of the vessel cannot be overlooked.

One may wish to know the significance of Eq. (27b) or Eq. (28) given Eq. (1). Equation (27b) or Eq. (28) unlike Eq. (1) directly illustrates likely effect of diameter on the rate of diffusion in volume per unit cross – sectional area per unit time. The question is there any capillary whose diameter is of the nano-scale length needs to be answered. This may not be impossible if suitable technology to do so has been contrived similar to suggestion elsewhere [12]. But if in nature, human pulmonary system for instance where the terminal bronchiole diameter may not be as small as nano-scale length, it shows that randomness may not be totally eliminated in bio – and non – biophysical process such as diffusion. As shown in Table 1, there are different values of  $u$  for different values of the diameter of the pores if it is assumed that the diameter of the pores is equal to  $D_0$ . Indeed the magnitude of  $u$  for the same gas is inversely proportional to the cube root of  $D_0$  or diameter,  $d$  (which may be  $= n_p \lambda_{dB}$  where  $n_p$  may be number of times the molecules moved in different directions or degree of randomness.). Thus the values of  $u$  decrease as  $D_0$  or  $d$  increases, while according Eq. (31) the entropy decreases with decrease in the length of the diameter of the pores (Table 1). Determination of  $u$  values and entropy implicit in random motion seem not to have any parallel in literature as in this research which should motivate further research experimentally. But a lot of concern has been expressed in literature without equations that may quantify the parameter as in this research. According to Marten [5] and references therein, there are large variety of natural and artificial confined geometries in which the geometric restriction to the particles' dynamics result in confined diffusion and what is referred to as entropic barrier. While a typical man-made confined geometry may be the perforated double cylinders of kerosene stove [18] there are natural confined geometries such as biological cells, membrane ion channels *etc* [5], the bronchioles in lungs, the stomata in plants *etc*. There is a call for the recognition of both Brownian motion and entropic effects whenever study of transport of gases at the macro – and nano – scales through confined geometries is carried out [21] such as stomata, for instance. In gas phase the reduction of randomness or entropy, promotes higher volume of gas flow per cross – sectional area of pore per unit time which is more likely with pore of shorter diameter than pore of

longer diameter as shown by the work of Brown and Escombe [2]. The basis of this is illustrated with Eq. (27b) and Eq. (28) in this research and the entropic values are shown in Table 1 – 3. Initially or at earliest stage of diffusion the parameter expressed by Eq. (27b) or Eq. (28) are higher (Table 2) than latter values but much less than latter values with respect to entropic values calculated with Eq. (31). Several authors (researchers to be specific) after Brown Escombe [2] namely Raschk [22], Wong *et al* [23], McElwain and Chaloner [24], Hetherington and Woodward [25], Franks and Beerling [26], MacElwain *et al* [27] cited by Elliott – Kingston *et al* [28] confirms the effect of smaller stomata and consequently small apertures in general. Smaller stomata have > surface area to volume ratio than larger stomata [28]. Before proceeding further, it is necessary to state that this research is not about plant physiology; rather stoma is a good example that exemplifies the effect of the diameter of apertures.

It is relevant to point out that within mass movement of molecules, a single molecule translational motion is the focus of model formulation; this is no longer strange as single – particle tracking method with hi – tech instrumentation are used for the study of microscopic behaviour and interactions of individual molecules, microscopic objects in soft matter or biological environment [10].

## 5. CONCLUSION

The equations that explain the effect of different diameters of conduit pipes which may be biological or non – biological were derived. The reduced velocity is inversely proportional to the cube root of the diameter of the pore. The entropic value arising from the effect of diameter is directly proportional to natural logarithm of the square of half of the diameter. If the diameter of the pore is equal to the dB wavelength the gas molecule may continue its motion at a root mean square velocity.

**Table 1. Entropic parameters, conductance of aperture and long cylindrical tube from theory and experiment.**

and experimental		B & E for aperture (Experimental) Exp (-11) (m <sup>3</sup> /s) []	$C_{mL} = \frac{a^3}{3l} \sqrt{\frac{R_0 T}{2\pi M_m}}$ for long tube (Theoretical) Exp (-3)(m <sup>3</sup> /s) []	B & E $C_{mL}$ for long tube (Experimental result) Exp (-11) (m <sup>3</sup> /s) []
$\Delta S = R \ln \left( \frac{v^2}{Rv} \sqrt{\frac{3k_B \theta}{m}} \right)$ (J/mol.K)(in this research and [])	$C_a = A \cdot \sqrt{\frac{R_0 T}{2\pi M_m}}$ for aperture (Theoretical) Exp (-3) (m <sup>3</sup> /s) []			
56.95	43.02	6.61	7.722	1.325

55.20	12.14	2.58	1.853	0.35
"	"	2.83	7.722	1.158
53.20	2.87	1.54	6.916	1.079
53.28	3.04	1.74	6.806	1.122
51.55	0.87	1.11	3.847	0.636
51.53	0.86	1.10	3.175	0.569

$C_a$  is the Conductance of aperture;  $C_{mL}$  is the conductance of long tube. B&E is Brown & Escombe result from experiment;  $R_0$ ,  $S$ ,  $r$ ,  $R_v$  and  $k_B$  are the gas constant, entropy, radius of pore, rate of flow of gas in volume per unit time, and Boltzmann constant;  $A$ ,  $M_m$ ,  $\theta$  (in this research),  $T$  (in literature) area of pore, molar mass of the gas and thermodynamic temperature respectively.

**Table 2. Entropic parameter, reduced velocity, and conductance of aperture of a long tube.**

Earlier $\Delta S = R \ln \left( \frac{(\sqrt{3mk_B\theta})^3 \sqrt{\frac{dla}{h}}}{\sqrt{\frac{3mk_B\theta}{h}}} \right)$ for a long tube in this research and [] (J/mol.K)	velocity, and $L = \frac{2}{\pi r^2 l} \frac{1}{(m)\theta}$	Earlier B & E Theoretical $u$ for a long tube in this research and [] (m/s)	Earlier B & E Theoretical $C_a =$ $\pi r^2 u$ for a tube in this research and [] (exp (-5) m <sup>3</sup> )
57.01	0.0424	0.3972	1.7923
"	0.0682	0.3389	2.8841
"	0.0424	0.3972	1.7923
56.96	0.0435	0.3939	1.7751
56.99	0.0436	0.3935	1.8110
57.02	0.0538	0.3667	2.2968
56.86	0.0522	0.3706	1.9833

$C_a = \pi r^2 u = \pi r^2 \sqrt{\frac{3k_B\theta h}{m^2 D_0}}$ ;  $u = \sqrt{\frac{3k_B\theta h}{m^2 D_0}}$ ; Earlier B&E theoretical  $u$  means the reduced velocity and other lower parameters at the earliest stage of diffusion through the long tube. The same is applicable to entropy.  $S$ ;  $C_a$ ,  $r$ ,  $l$ , and  $d_{ia}$  are the entropy, conductance of aperture of a long tube, radius of aperture, length of tube, and diameter of tube;  $m$ ,  $R$ ,  $k_B$ ,  $h$ , and  $\theta$  are mass of the molecule, gas constant, Boltzmann constant, Planck's constant and thermodynamic temperature. Some parameters are theoretically determined in this research.

**Table 3. Earlier entropic parameter, reduced velocity, and conductance of aperture.**

Earlier $\Delta S = R \ln \left( \frac{(\sqrt{3mk_B\theta})^3 \sqrt{\frac{dla}{h}}}{\sqrt{\frac{3mk_B\theta}{h}}} \right)$ for aperture in this research and []	Diameter [] (mm)	Earlier B & E theoretical $u$ for aperture in this research and [] (m/s)	Earlier B & E theoretical $C_a =$ $\pi r^2 u$ in this research and [] for aperture exp (-4) m <sup>3</sup> /s
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(J/mol.K)			
~56.95	22.7	0.489	1.98
55.20	12.06	0.604	0.69
"	"	"	"
53.20	5.86	0.768	0.21
53.28	6.03	0.761	0.22
51.55	3.233	0.936	0.08
51.53	3.216	0.938	~ 0.08

$C_a = \pi r^2 u = \pi r^2 \sqrt{\frac{3k_B \theta h}{m^2 D_0}}$ ,  $u = \sqrt{\frac{3k_B \theta h}{m^2 D_0}}$ , Earlier B&E theoretical  $u$  means the reduced velocity and other lower parameters at the earliest stage of diffusion through the aperture. The same is applicable to entropy.  $S$ ;  $C_a$ ,  $r$ ,  $l$ , and  $d_{ia}$  are the entropy, conductance of aperture of a long tube, radius of aperture, and diameter of aperture;  $m$ ,  $R$ ,  $k_B$ ,  $h$ , and  $\theta$  are mass of the molecule, gas constant, Boltzmann constant, Planck's constant and thermodynamic temperature. All parameters are theoretically determined in this research.

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