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## Pumice attrition in an air-jet

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**Abstract**

We present the results from a series of jet-attribution experiments performed using a standard ASTM device (ASTM D5757-00) on naturally occurring ash-sized (< 2 mm) pumice, a product of explosive volcanic eruption comprising highly porous silicate glass. We investigate the effect of both feed grain size and attrition duration on the production of fines. We utilize a wet methodology for fines collection to ensure recovery of the total grain size distribution for each experimental run. The experiments convert a restricted size range of pumice particles to a bimodal population of parent and daughter particles. The bimodal distribution develops even after short (~15 mins) attrition times. With increased attrition time, the volume of daughter particles increases and the mode migrates to finer grain sizes. Jet attrition efficiency depends heavily on the particle size of the feed; our data show little attrition for a feed of 500  $\mu\text{m}$  vs. highly efficient attrition for a 250  $\mu\text{m}$  feed. Our rates of attrition for pumice are extremely high compared to rates recovered from experiments on limestone pellets. Our fines production data are well modeled by:

$$\frac{m_{fines}}{m_{bed}^0} = 0.291(1 - e^{-0.312t})$$

where  $m_{bed}^0$  is the initial mass of particles in the bed,  $t$  is in hours, and the two adjustable coefficients dictate the long time limiting behaviour (0.291) and rate at which the limit is reached (-0.312). This functional form provides more realistic limits in time while preserving a zero intercept and defining a plateau for long residence times.

**Keywords:** Pumice; attrition; milling; ash production; fines production model; ASTM D5757-00

47

48 **1. Introduction**

49 Particle attrition is a process that operates in a diverse range of engineering and natural  
50 environments to cause particle size reduction, as well as, reshaping and resurfacing of particles. In the  
51 engineering sciences, particle attrition studies are commonly experimental in nature and concern the  
52 mechanisms, rates, and consequences of attrition in fluidized and conveyed systems. The experiments  
53 involve diverse materials such as: fluid cracking catalysts [1], limestone particles [2], and CO<sub>2</sub> sorbent  
54 pellets [3][4], tested under conditions relevant to the engineering environment. Attrition is also  
55 widespread in geological processes including sediment transport (e.g., stream beds, beach sand),  
56 volcanic eruption (e.g., xenolith milling), and glaciation (e.g., till deposits). There are, however, few  
57 experimental studies of attrition in geologically relevant systems or on geological materials.  
58 Exceptions include, but are not limited to: secondary fragmentation of crystal rich ash [5]; rounding of  
59 pumice clasts during transport in pyroclastic density currents [6]; wear of kimberlitic minerals [7–10];  
60 milling of lithic material within volcanic conduits [11] and abrasion of geological materials by eolian  
61 action [12].

62 Pumice is a naturally occurring resource produced through explosive volcanic eruptions. It is  
63 commonly defined as a highly vesicular silicic to mafic glass foam, having a bulk density less than  
64 water (i.e. floatable) [13][14]. Pumice represents an interesting material because it has unique  
65 properties: high vesicularity, low density, and a contiguous glass (i.e. not crystalline) framework. This  
66 porous volcanic material is of interest to both engineering and geological sciences. Some existing uses  
67 of pumice in industry include: a natural pozzolan for cement [15]; abrasives in skin products and  
68 dentistry; water filtration [16]; as a chemical or catalyst carrier in fluidisation systems [17,18] and as  
69 an inert fluidising solid [19]. These latter applications are of particular relevance to this study; if  
70 pumice is to be used in a fluidised system it is important to understand how grain size may evolve  
71 with residence time in the fluidised apparatus. On its own, pumice has low strength due to its highly  
72 vesicular nature and is easily broken down by crushing and fracturing of the thin, typically

73 interconnected, glass bubble walls. Its low density has made it an ideal aggregate in cement to reduce  
74 the density of concrete; it does so without reducing the strength of the concrete significantly.

75         Yet, despite its widespread industrial uses and its importance in geology, its susceptibility to  
76 attrition remains poorly known [20]. Pumice attrition has rarely been studied experimentally. Previous  
77 experimental work on pumice has shown the grain size reduction of pumice by ball milling [21–23]  
78 and the decrease in fines production with increased milling duration by rock tumbling [6,24]. These  
79 experiments inform on attrition processes typically involving continual particle-particle contact  
80 whereas air-jet experiments feature much shorter durations of particle-particle contact. A small  
81 amount of experimental work involving fluidization of pumice [25,26] has been done in volcanology  
82 with the aim of understanding: grain size distributions and sorting within natural deposits; the degree  
83 of particle segregation during flow; and elutriation of fine particles produced by attrition.

84         Here we present a suite of attrition experiments involving particles of pumice within an  
85 ASTM standard device providing a particle-laden jet. Our experiments are designed to further our  
86 understanding of how pumice (i.e. porous glassy material) undergoes grain size reduction in a gas jet  
87 and have relevance to fluidised beds using pumice as a catalyst support [27–29]. The experiments use  
88 well-characterized pumice particles having a known initial total grain size distributions (TGSD) and  
89 bed mass are subjected to jet attrition for fixed amounts of time. We then collect the experimental run-  
90 products and process them for their TGSD and use the data to establish rates/mechanisms for pumice  
91 attrition and the evolution of grain size with residence time.

92

## 93 **2. Review of Attrition in a Gas Jet**

94         Attrition processes comprise two primary mechanisms of particle size reduction:  
95 fragmentation and abrasion. Fragmentation refers to particle fracturing wherein the original particles  
96 (i.e. parent or mother particles), subjected to critical collisions are mechanically broken into smaller  
97 particles (i.e. daughter particles). Collisions causing fragmentation typically result from direct impact  
98 with other particles or a hard surface at, or above, a critical threshold velocity. Commonly the parent  
99 particle is fragmented into a number of smaller particles of similar size. Attrition by abrasion is a less

100 energetic mechanism involving wearing or rounding the rough edges or asperities of mother and  
101 daughter particles via lower energy particle-particle impacts. Abrasion generates a significant number  
102 of very fine particles, leading to bimodal grain size distributions, and creates particles with smoother  
103 morphologies.

104 Several factors govern the mechanisms and efficiency of attrition in fluidized gas-solid  
105 systems. The environmental factors, or experimental controls, include residence time in the attrition  
106 jet, temperature, gas type, vessel pressure, bed load and gas velocity. The important material  
107 properties governing attrition include grain size, hardness or strength, density, particle shape and  
108 surface texture [1].

109 Gwyn [30] was one of the first to study and model the production of fines in a fluidized  
110 system by attrition. His attrition experiments showed the production of fines to vary non-linearly with  
111 time ( $t$ ) and he modelled the fines production as:

$$\frac{m_{fines}}{m_{bed}^0} = K_a t^b \quad [1]$$

112 where  $m_{fines}$  and  $m_{bed}^0$  are the mass of fines and the initial bed particles, respectively [30]. The  
113 parameters  $K_a$  and  $b$  are constants determined by fitting Eq. 1 to experimental data. Commonly the  
114 experimental data show a dramatic and rapid decay in attrition rate after a brief period of *initial*  
115 *attrition* where the rough edges of the original particles are broken off to form smoother surfaces [30].  
116 This empirical equation captures this behaviour well and the Gwyn model has been used extensively  
117 to describe many different experimental datasets. However, one recognized limitation of Eq. 1 is that  
118 it assumes that all collisions are below a threshold velocity that would cause particle fracturing,  
119 creating new rough fracture edges [4]. Subsequent extensions of the Gwyn model focused on the three  
120 main areas of fluidized systems where attrition can occur: jet attrition [31]; bed and bubble attrition  
121 [32] and cyclone attrition [33].

122 In this study, we focus on jet attrition, the dominant mechanism operating within our  
123 experimental set-up (Figure 1; [2,4,34]). When jet attrition is the dominant process, the mass of fines  
124 produced through time can be modeled as:

$$m_{jet\ fines} = C_{jet} d_{pb} n_{or} \rho_g d_{or}^2 u_{or}^2 \quad [2]$$

125 where  $C_{jet}$  is a fitted constant,  $d_{pb}$  is the bed particle diameter,  $n_{or}$  is the number of orifices,  $\rho_g$  is the  
126 fluidizing gas density,  $d_{or}$  is the orifice diameter and  $u_{or}$  is the gas velocity at the orifice.

127 Alternatively, the attrition rate can be modeled with the mean particle diameter ( $\bar{d}$ ). This is less  
128 common, due to the extra work needed to characterize the particle size distribution (PSD), however it  
129 enables a complete understanding of the attrition processes (abrasion vs. fragmentation) operating.

130

### 131 **3. Methodology**

#### 132 3.1 Pumice samples from Mount Meager, British Columbia

133 The Mount Meager volcanic complex is a calc-alkaline stratovolcano complex situated  
134 approximately 150 km north of the city of Vancouver, in southwestern British Columbia and belongs  
135 to the northernmost extension of the Cascade Volcanic Arc [35]. The most recent eruption of the  
136 Mount Meager is dated to 2360 BP [36] and produced explosive and effusive dacite volcanic deposits  
137 including: pyroclastic fall deposits, pyroclastic flow deposits, and lava [37]. For this study, blocks (>  
138 10 cm) of pumice were collected from proximal to medial outcroppings of the pyroclastic fall deposit.  
139 The fallout deposit (Pebble Creek Formation of [35]) varies in thickness from 1 m to > 60 m near the  
140 volcanic vent, contains > 90% white to grey-white pumice clasts and is matrix free [35]. Pumice  
141 blocks from the fallout deposit have total porosity ranging from 60 - 75% [38], a skeletal (bubble free)  
142 density of 2255 kgm<sup>-3</sup> [39], a crystallinity ranging from 14 to 8% [40].

143 The pumice blocks were crushed and then manually dry sieved using a standard stack of Tyler  
144 sieves. The grain size fractions caught in the 500  $\mu$ m and 250  $\mu$ m mesh screens were divided into 20 g  
145 aliquots and stored in an airtight container ready for the experiments. Throughout this paper we refer  
146 to each grain size fraction by its catching sieve. For example, the 250  $\mu$ m input material was caught in  
147 the 250 mesh and therefore contained fragments >250  $\mu$ m but <500  $\mu$ m.

148

#### 149 3.2 Jet attrition rig

150 All experiments (Table 1) were performed at atmospheric temperature and pressure in a jet  
151 attrition rig (Figure 1) with dry air fed at  $10 \pm 0.5 \text{ L min}^{-1}$ , based upon the ASTM D5757-00 method  
152 [4,42]. This experimental rig consists of a flat, horizontal basal distributor plate with three orifices  
153 0.397 mm in diameter on which the initial sample is loaded (Figure 1). Directly above the distributor a  
154 710 mm long, 35 mm internal diameter stainless steel attrition tube is connected. Then the settling  
155 chamber is connected to the top of the attrition tube; it is wider in diameter (110 mm in the center)  
156 allowing for large particle settling and return to the attrition tube. The upper cone of the attrition  
157 chamber is connected to a fines collection bin. To enable gas to fully flow through the system, a gas  
158 exit pipe is connected to a ceramic filter within the fines collector bin. This ceramic filter has holes  
159  $\sim 0.1 \mu\text{m}$  in diameter to prevent the fines from escaping.

160 In this study we investigate the effects of variable attrition duration and feed size on the same  
161 material: naturally occurring pumice from Mount Meager. For each experiment the distributor plate,  
162 gas feed and attrition tube were connected, after which a 20 g sample of either  $250 \mu\text{m}$  or  $500 \mu\text{m}$  Mt.  
163 Meager pumice was introduced. Specifically, the sieved pumice sample was poured down the attrition  
164 tube to rest on the distributor plate after which the settling chamber and fines collector were  
165 connected. In-line building dry air was connected via a calibrated rotameter and increased to a flow  
166 rate of 10 liters per minute whilst checking for leaks. Providing the system was free of gas leakage,  
167 the experiment was left to run for the full prescribed duration. We performed experiments for 0.25,  
168 0.5, 0.75, 1, 2, 3, 5, 16 and 24 hours for the  $250 \mu\text{m}$  input material and for 16 and 24 hours for the  $500$   
169  $\mu\text{m}$  input grain size fraction. At the end of each experiment, the gas was switched off and the sample  
170 material was left to settle for at least 1 hour after gently knocking the apparatus to loosen adhering  
171 fine particles.

172 The product particles from each experiment were collected in three stages. Firstly, the fines  
173 collector (Figure 1) was removed and its contents (ultra-fine  $\sim < 4 \mu\text{m}$  particles) were brushed into a  
174 collection pot for post-experiment analysis. Secondly, the 'empty' fines collector, connecting pipes  
175 and the settling chamber were rinsed at least twice with deionised water over a  $63 \mu\text{m}$  sieve to remove  
176 any remaining fines adhering to the walls of the apparatus. We then removed the distributor plate

177 within a sample collection bag to recover all of this material, making sure to brush all of the  
178 bolts/washers to recover the entire sample. Lastly, the attrition tube was flushed again with deionised  
179 water over a 63  $\mu\text{m}$  sieve. This sieve was then dried in an oven and added to all the dry recovered  
180 material. We developed and recommend this “wet” collection method and cleaning procedure of the  
181 jet attrition rig because it ensures accurate and complete recovery of all particles, especially the finest  
182 material, produced in the attrition experiment. Brushing, for example, will often lose the finest  
183 particles that are inevitably lofted into the air. By flushing the system with water the particles become  
184 entrained and suspended and can be easily collected in the wash. Furthermore, this collection method  
185 allows for a more accurate estimate of the mass fraction of total fines (i.e. 63  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and the  
186 measurement of the total grain size distribution curves (TGSD) for each experiment. TGSD curves  
187 can be analysed for information on the relative proportion of parent material and daughter products,  
188 the full size range of fines produced and the statistical distribution of products (e.g. log-normal).  
189 However, we note that this wet collection method may not be suitable for all materials and may lead  
190 to unreliable results if particles absorb large amounts of water (e.g. clays) or undergo chemical  
191 reaction when wet.

192

### 193 3.3 Post-attrition sample characterisation

194 Given the electrostatic properties of fine pumice particles and the fine grain size of the experimental  
195 products, sieving can lead to large errors due to particle aggregation. Therefore, the entire recovered  
196 sample for each experiment was added to a small (~250ml) flask of deionised water. Each flask  
197 contained all of the recovered particles from a single attrition experiments and were subsequently  
198 measured using a Malvern Mastersizer 2000 with the hydro 2000Mu water dispersion module  
199 attached. This laser particle analyser is capable of measuring particles ranging from 0.02 to 2000  $\mu\text{m}$   
200 in size. Using a pump speed of 1900 rpm an aliquot of the attrition sample was added to the dispersion  
201 module and measured three times. An ultrasonic pulse was applied to the sample for 2 s before the  
202 measurement to prevent particles from aggregating in the water suspension. For each experimental  
203 product three separate aliquots were taken, each measured three times; the results presented here



204 therefore represent averages of nine measurements. No merging of datasets was required as the  
205 mastersizer analysed the complete total grain size distribution in a single measurement run.

206

## 207 **4. Results and Analysis**

### 208 4.1 ASTM fines collector

209 Results of the nine experiments using the 250  $\mu\text{m}$  grain size pumice show rapid and  
210 pronounced attrition (Figure 2). The rate and extent of attrition are summarized in Figure 2 as, both,  
211 the production of fines and the reduction in grain size of the starting material with the duration of the  
212 attrition experiment. The 250  $\mu\text{m}$  starting material reduces from 20 g to 6.1g in just 15 min  
213 (represented by open circles in Figure 2). In a similar manner the mass of material  $\sim < 4 \mu\text{m}$  collected  
214 in the fines collection bin (solid triangles) increases exponentially with increased attrition duration  
215 before reaching a plateau at  $\sim 6$  g.

216

### 217 4.2 Air Jet Index

218 The experimental conditions and the materials used in our experiments do not exactly match  
219 previous experimental studies. There are two critical differences, firstly, we use a 20 g bed load rather  
220 than the conventional ASTM 50 g. Secondly, we use a wet collection method to recover the total grain  
221 size distributions, not just those retained in the fines collector. To facilitate comparison of our  
222 experimental data set to results from previous studies of particle attrition in a gas jet, we have  
223 calculated a modified Air Jet Index (AJI), defined as:

$$AJI = \frac{\text{Mass of fines in collector}}{\text{Initial input mass}} \times 100\% \quad [3]$$

224 We express this parameter as ‘modified’ because the original AJI only considered material after a  
225 standard 5 hour ASTM experiment. We include a 5 hour experiment in order to match standard  
226 ASTM operating procedures but we have also calculated the parameter for the 8 other attrition  
227 durations (Table 2) to illustrate the transient evolution of the AJI. We compare our results to those for  
228 limestone particles intended for  $\text{CO}_2$  capture in fluidized systems and considered to experience  
229 substantial attrition [4]. The limestone particles had a mean particle diameter of 1000  $\mu\text{m}$  and were

230 fluidized with humid air ( $10 \text{ L min}^{-1}$ ) at  $20 \pm 3^\circ\text{C}$ . Figure 3 shows that the pumice is much more  
231 susceptible to attrition than limestone under the same conditions; on the scale shown limestone  
232 produces minimal fines. For a conventional attrition duration of 5 h, limestone has an AJI of 0.2%  
233 whereas Mt Meager pumice has an AJI of 20.2%. For pumice it is clear that the modified AJI  
234 increases exponentially with attrition duration. This exponential increase in AJI has also been  
235 observed for other catalyst particles such as methanol to olefins (e.g., [43]). Hao et al., [43] also show  
236 that in addition to mechanical stress, thermal stresses may also influence the attrition of particles. To  
237 investigate this on pumice further experiments should be performed at evaluated temperature.

238

#### 239 4.3 Total grain size distributions

240 Our procedure for collecting product particles from the experimental apparatus ensures that  
241 we were able to recover the entire experimental sample. Thus, in addition to measuring the total mass  
242 of the material that reached the fines collector after each experiment (Figures 2 and 3), we also  
243 measure the full grain size distribution of the run product for each attrition experiment. This enables  
244 us to describe how the grain or fragment size distribution changed with increasing attrition time  
245 (Figure 4). To illustrate the increased wealth of information derived from our sample collection  
246 procedure, we have calculated the maximum particle diameter able to enter the fines collector. This is  
247 the mass of sample expected to be recorded using the standard ASTM D5757-00 methodology. Our  
248 calculation is based on a Stokes law settling velocity of spherical particles against a  $0.0175 \text{ ms}^{-1}$   
249 upward superficial velocity of gas within the settling chamber (Figure 1). Using with a skeletal  
250 (bubble free) density of  $2255 \text{ kgm}^{-3}$  [39] this gives a maximum particle diameter of  $4.2 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  able to  
251 enter the fines collection bin.

252 The product particles derived from experiments using the  $250 \text{ }\mu\text{m}$  grain size initial material  
253 show a bimodal total GSD. They comprise a coarse peak that falls within the input size range ( $250 < d$   
254 ( $\mu\text{m}$ )  $< 500$ ) and a fine peak that migrates to finer grain sizes with increased attrition. Finally,  
255 considering the material entering the fines collector (left of the dashed line), increasing the attrition  
256 time increased the volume of fines (area under the curve), confirming our results in Figure 2. It is

257 clear that this metric (i.e. mass collected in fines collector) is useful as a monitor of attrition efficiency  
258 and rates. However, several other features relevant to understanding the mechanisms and rates of  
259 particle attrition are missed. Such features include the characteristic fragment size and the evolution of  
260 the parent and daughter subpopulations. Recovering a total GSD allows us to describe any bimodality  
261 in the data and the relative change in peak position. To illustrate this benefit, we now discuss some  
262 additional interpretations that become available from our TGSD vs. fines collection dataset.

263         Figure 4 provides a summary of the grain size distributions of all the experimental run  
264 products produced from an initial unimodal distribution between limits of 500  $\mu\text{m}$  and 250  $\mu\text{m}$ . It is  
265 clear that all experimental products show a bimodal distribution even after short residence times (i.e.  
266 15 min). The bimodal distribution developed during attrition is comprised of a coarser material peak  
267 (399-283  $\mu\text{m}$ ) and a peak of finer material (40-14  $\mu\text{m}$ ). We suggest that the development of the  
268 bimodal distribution is a result of attrition involving, both, the fragmentation and abrasion of larger  
269 particles to make new smaller particles. Furthermore, the bimodal distributions are dynamic in that,  
270 both, the positions of the two peaks and their relative magnitudes change systematically with time.  
271 This shift represents an evolving population of both parent and daughter particles as they are subject  
272 to increased durations of attrition. This detailed analysis of grain size characteristics is only possible  
273 when a TGSD is collected as outlined.

274         We interpret the coarse and fine peaks as representing a residual population of the initial  
275 particles that are being attrited to produce smaller daughter fragments. The covariance between the  
276 coarse and fine peaks strongly supports the concept that these two populations are parent and daughter  
277 particles, respectively (Figure 5a). The parent peak can be described by its grain size ( $F_p$ ) and  
278 magnitude ( $P$ ); similarly the daughter peak can be located at grain size  $F_D$  with height  $D$ . The location  
279 of the parent particle peak shows no systematic trend with attrition time (Figure 5b); the distribution  
280 shown is likely to reflect the variability in feed material falling between the 500 $\mu\text{m}$  and 250 $\mu\text{m}$  sieves.  
281 Except for the 5-hour experiment, we observe the location of the daughter fragment peak shifting to  
282 smaller grain sizes with attrition duration (Figure 5c). At significantly longer attrition times (16 and  
283 24 h), the size of the daughter products became stable, remaining at  $\sim 14 \mu\text{m}$ . This systematic shift in

284 the modal daughter size represents continued abrasion that continually removes surface irregularities  
285 within this sub-population. Lastly, we are able to quantify the range in relative magnitude between the  
286 parent particles and the daughter products (Figure 5d). This is expressed as the fraction P/D; higher  
287 values indicate a greater number of parent particles remaining. An exponential decay of parent  
288 particles occurs with increased attrition time. The daughter particle population becomes larger than  
289 the input feed within 1 hour, again suggesting that the majority of attrition occurs within the first hour  
290 for all the 250  $\mu\text{m}$  experiments.

291

#### 292 4.4 Changing input grain size

293 In all experiments using a 250  $\mu\text{m}$  feeding grain size we observed a rapid production of fines  
294 (Figures 2-5). However, in the experiments using a 500  $\mu\text{m}$  input grain size we observed very  
295 different results – fines production was inhibited. For comparison we present two 24 hour  
296 experiments, one using an input grain size of 250  $\mu\text{m}$  and the other a 500  $\mu\text{m}$  input, represented by the  
297 light and dark grey bars in Figure 6 respectively. For the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  feed experiment 92.5% of the  
298 material remained in the starting size bin, whereas for the 250  $\mu\text{m}$  feed only 8.4% of the material  
299 remained in the starting grain size bin. For this smaller feed material, grain size reduction was  
300 efficient and reduced large proportions of material (36.4%) to diameters  $<63 \mu\text{m}$ . We observe that in  
301 comparison the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  input material is extremely ineffective at producing fines  $<250 \mu\text{m}$  in  
302 diameter. From previous work on the suspension of pumice particles we know that the minimum  
303 velocity to keep 500  $\mu\text{m}$  and 250  $\mu\text{m}$  in suspensions is  $\sim 10^{-2} \text{ms}^{-1}$  [44]. Comparing this with the  
304 reported superficial gas velocity within the column/attrition tube ( $0.173 \text{ms}^{-1}$ ) [45] supports our  
305 conclusion that all material is capable of being suspended by the gas jet.

306 In our experiments we suggest that limited fine production for the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  feed is due to the  
307 relative number of particles suspended by the air jet and therefore able to partake in attrition processes  
308 (Figure 7). By continuity, the mass flow of particles ( $m_p$ ) entrained in the three jets can be  
309 approximated by:

$$m_p = \rho_p U_p (1 - \phi) \frac{\pi}{4} D_c^2 \quad [4]$$

310 where  $D_c$  is the internal diameter of the attrition tube,  $\rho_p$  is the particle density,  $\phi$  is the measured void  
311 fraction ( $\sim 0.47$ ) and  $U_p$  is the (downwards) particle velocity ( $\sim 5 \text{ mm s}^{-1}$ ) observed at the smooth wall  
312 of a transparent attrition tube. The mass flow rate was converted into an entrainment rate (i.e. number  
313 of particles entrained into the jets per second) by assuming spherical particles having grain sizes (750  
314 and 375  $\mu\text{m}$ ) defined by the median size between pairs of screening sieves. We found that for the  
315 coarse feed size the number of particles entrained was  $29 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , whereas for the finer feed it was  $231 \text{ s}^{-1}$ .  
316 The number of suspended coarse particles may be further reduced if they rest far away from the gas  
317 jet on the distributor plate where gas velocities are not sufficient enough to lift the particles [44]. By  
318 halving the input feed size the number of particles in the jets increases by an order of magnitude. We  
319 suggest that such a high particle concentration in the jet promotes attrition because the chance of  
320 successful collisions is high.

321

## 322 **5. Attrition Model**

323 Our experimental results clearly demonstrate the extreme vulnerability of pumice particles to  
324 mechanical attrition. The rate of production of fines during attrition is exponential and can be  
325 described by the Gwyn model (Eq. 1; Table 2). To a first order the Gwyn model with best-fit  
326 parameters  $K_a = 0.09402 \text{ hrs}^{-b}$  and  $b = 0.3901$  fits our data well (Fig. 7a). The Gwyn model assumes  
327 that particle attrition is achieved solely through abrasion and that fragmentation does not occur. In our  
328 experiments, analysis of our TGSD curves (Figures 4 and 5) strongly suggests that parent particles are  
329 fragmented to produce daughter particles. Both these parent and daughter particles are also abraded  
330 (surface chips removed) during residency in the experiment.

331 The Gwyn model can reproduce our experimental data set (Fig. 7a) reasonably well, but there  
332 are two ways in which a better functional form is warranted. Firstly, the Gwyn model is intended to  
333 capture fines production due to abrasion, whilst our experiments indicate both fragmentation and  
334 abrasion. Secondly, the function implies no limit to fines production over longer high residence times;

335 the function continues to rise, becoming aphysical when it exceeds 1. Lastly, the form of the best fit  
336 Gwyn function has difficulty in reproducing data over both short and long residence times (Fig. 7b,c).  
337 To address these deficiencies, we have adopted a two-parameter model that obeys both the zero (no  
338 attrition at time zero) and infinite time limits:

$$\frac{m_{fines}}{m_{bed}^0} = 0.291(1 - e^{-0.312t}) \quad [5]$$

339 where 0.291 is a constant that represents the amount of fines produced at long attrition durations and  
340 the exponent (-0.321) dictates how rapidly that limit is approached. Our model fit is shown in Figure  
341 7b, compared to the Gwyn model (Equation 1; dashed line in Figure 7b). Our attrition model also fits  
342 the experimental data well even at short residence times (Figure 7c).

343 In Figure 2 we showed that the attrition can be ascribed to two stages, described by previous  
344 workers as a period of initial attrition followed by a longer period of stable attrition [2]. For the 250  
345  $\mu\text{m}$  feed pumice, the initial stage spanned an hour after which the attrition rate decreased as the  
346 system achieved a stable state at longer ( $> 1$  h) residence times. We suggest that these high rates of  
347 initial attrition occur by exploiting naturally occurring defects in the pumice. Being a highly vesicular  
348 material, the interstitial glass and microcrystalline matrix form a delicate network, connected in places  
349 by thin bubble walls. In addition, the particle exterior is initially highly irregular. It is likely that only  
350 small differential velocities are required to chip and break this irregular particle exterior connected by  
351 delicate bubble walls (Figure 8). The chance for a collision to be successful in abrading or  
352 fragmenting the parent particle is high during this initial attrition phase. Lastly, following the period  
353 of initial attrition, the rate decays and becomes relatively stable. Further attrition is inhibited because  
354 all irregularities on the particle surface have been removed. For the 250  $\mu\text{m}$  feed experiments at  
355 relatively long residence times (16 and 24 h) the mean size of the daughter fragments does not  
356 decrease. We suggest that this size (14.2  $\mu\text{m}$ ) marks a minimum stable pumice fragment grain size  
357 achievable by these standard ASTM conditions.

358 The processes we have described in our attrition model for the porous volcanic material have  
359 large implications for both the engineering and geological sciences. Firstly, in engineering the  
360 naturally occurring resource, pumice, is often used to carry a catalyst or to act as an inert material in

361 fluidised beds [e.g., 15,16]. To use this material effectively in fluidised systems the role of attrition  
362 must be considered. The findings presented here will enable users to predict the rate of attrition and  
363 fines generation and therefore its stability in a fluidised system. Secondly, in volcanology pumice is  
364 commonly transported in a gas suspension during a volcanic eruption. For example, previous work  
365 has shown secondary fragmentation and attrition to occur within the conduit during the ascent of a gas  
366 particle mixture [e.g., 10,19]. Our experiments and quantitative analysis have strong implications for  
367 the rates of attrition and grain size reduction during this style of volcanic transport.

368

## 369 **6. Summary**

370 In this paper we adopted the methodology of the ASTM D5757-00 standard attrition test, with  
371 particular emphasis on the recovery of an entire grain size distribution from each experiment. By  
372 thorough water flush collection, we were able to analyze the total grain size distribution produced,  
373 rather than just the mass recovered in the fines collection bin. This technique allows for further  
374 insights into the attrition method operating (abrasion or fragmentation). We found that for Mt Meager  
375 pumice under ASTM test conditions (room temperature, 10 L min<sup>-1</sup> dry air) attrition mainly occurred  
376 through abrasion. Furthermore, we investigated how the parent and daughter population changed in  
377 mean grain size and magnitude with increased residence time. We found that the parent size remained  
378 within its original limits. However, the magnitude/volume of parent material decreased with increased  
379 attrition. The daughter fragmentation population increased in volume and migrated to finer mean  
380 grain sizes with increased attrition. We have also shown that the amount of suspended particles in the  
381 jet is a critical metric for attrition (Figure 8). Sufficient particle concentrations must be suspended for  
382 attrition to occur leading to fines preserved in the collection box. If the particle concentrations in the  
383 jet are not high enough no ultra-fine material will be produced, and all grain modifications remain on  
384 the distributor plate. Lastly, we present an alternative fines production model to that of Gwyn (1969),  
385 incorporating an infinite time condition where fines production ceases. This study has presented the  
386 first dataset on Mt. Meager pumice in a standard air-jet attrition device (ASTM D5757-00); our  
387 results quantify the extreme susceptibility for pumice to undergo attrition in a fluidized environment.

388 Furthermore, this study has broad reaching implications outside of engineering; the attrition of pumice  
389 has particular relevance to the volcanological sciences. For example the attrition of pumice to produce  
390 fine ash impacts the characteristics of tephra deposits [5]; aviation hazard [46] and plume dynamics  
391 [20].

392

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### Figure Captions

**Figure 1.** Schematic representation of standard ASTM experimental apparatus (ASTM D5757-00) used for jet attrition experiments (modified from [4]).

**Figure 2.** Summary of experimental results expressed in terms of masses of residual particles ~ 250  $\mu\text{m}$  in diameter (solid triangles) and masses of < 250  $\mu\text{m}$  diameter fine particles from the collector (open circles) as a function of time: (A) Experimental data plotted over full experimental time scale (25 h); grey shaded vertical box denotes area enlarged and shown in (B) over a shorter (1 h) timescale.

**Figure 3.** Variations in Attrition Jet Index (AJI; [4]) with total residence time. Experimental data on pumice attrition from this work (grey squares) are compared to published data on limestone particles (black squares; Knight et al. [4]).

**Figure 4.** Results of attrition experiments expressed as total grain size distribution curves comprising integrated size fractions as volume % measured by conventional sieving and by laser diffraction particle size analysis. The grain size distribution curves comprise two peaks which vary systematically in position and amplitude as a function of total attrition time).

533

534 **Figure 5.** Detailed analysis of total grain size distribution datasets (cf. Fig. 4). (A) Schematic diagram  
535 defining metrics used to characterize individual grain size (vol. %) distribution curves including: i)  
536 positions of two prominent peaks corresponding to the original (parental) mean particle size ( $F_P$ ) and  
537 mean size of daughter particles ( $F_D$ ); ii) respective amplitudes P and D. (B)  $F_P$  plotted against total  
538 attrition time. (C)  $F_D$  plotted against total attrition time. (D) Ratio of parent to daughter peak heights  
539 ( $P/D$ ) plotted against experimental residence time.

540

541 **Figure 6.** Data collected from attrition experiments (Table 1) designed to explore the effects of initial  
542 particle size on rates of jet attrition. Results of two experiments on pumice particles having mean  
543 grain sizes  $\sim 500$  and  $\sim 250$   $\mu\text{m}$  expressed as the mass % recovered in each size interval after 24 h of  
544 attrition. The 24 h experiment caused little attrition of the 500  $\mu\text{m}$  sample because of less efficient  
545 entrainment of particles into the jet.

546

547 **Figure 7.** Data from attrition experiments summarized as mass of fine ( $< 4$   $\mu\text{m}$ ) particles produced by  
548 attrition normalized by the initial mass of particles in the bed ( $> 4$   $\mu\text{m}$ ). (a) Experimental data (solid  
549 circles) are compared to best-fit curve based on equation proposed by Gwyn (1969). (b) The  
550 experimental data (solid circles) compared to best fit curve for Eq. 4 which offers a better functional  
551 form that preserves a zero intercept and rises to a fixed plateau. (c) Comparison of model curves to  
552 experimental data over restricted interval of 0-10 h (grey shaded time interval in b).

553

554 **Figure 8.** Schematic diagrams of particle movement and entrainment within ASTM jet attrition  
555 device. (a) Idealized jet showing regions of entrainment and ideal particle trajectories (modified from  
556 [2]). (b) Jet-particle interaction portrayed schematically for feed of  $>500$   $\mu\text{m}$  particles showing poor  
557 particle entrainment ( $\sim 29$  particles/s) resulting in low concentrations of particles in the jet, reducing  
558 opportunities for particle-particle collisions. (c) Jet-particle interaction for feed of  $>250$   $\mu\text{m}$  particles

559 representing more efficient particle entrainment by the jet (~231 particles/s) leading to a particle-laden  
560 jet with many successful attrition-producing collisions.

561

562 **Table 1.** Summary of experiments conducted on pumice from Mount Meager (MMP;[47]). For all  
563 experiments dry air was fed at  $10 \pm 0.5 \text{ L min}^{-1}$  and  $20 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ .

564

565 **Table 2.** Mass of fine particles ( $\sim < 4 \mu\text{m}$ ) collected from Fines Collection box (Fig. 1) for attrition  
566 experiments with a feed of  $250 \mu\text{m}$  pumice particles.

567

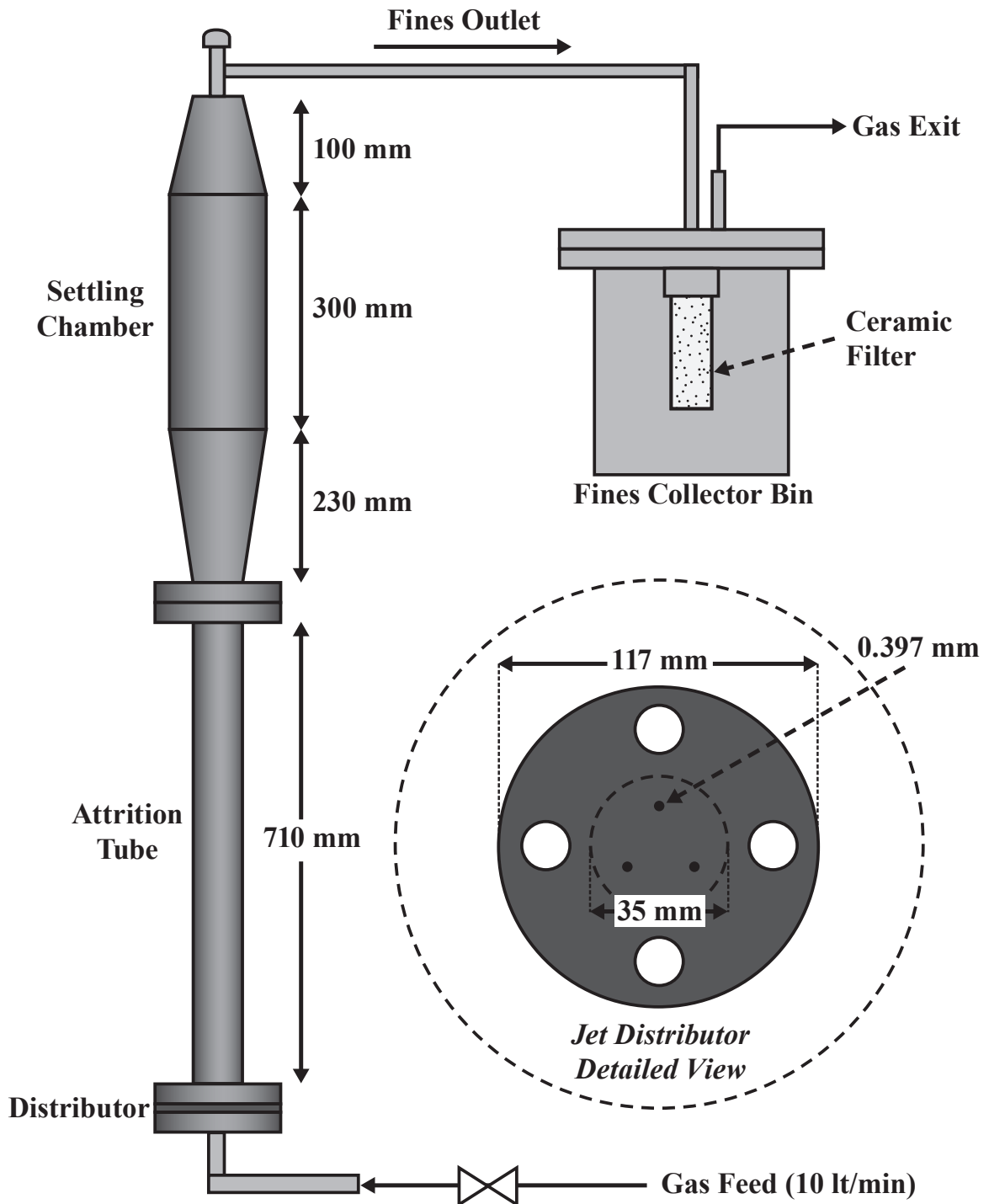


Figure 1: Jones et al., (in prep. for powder tech.)

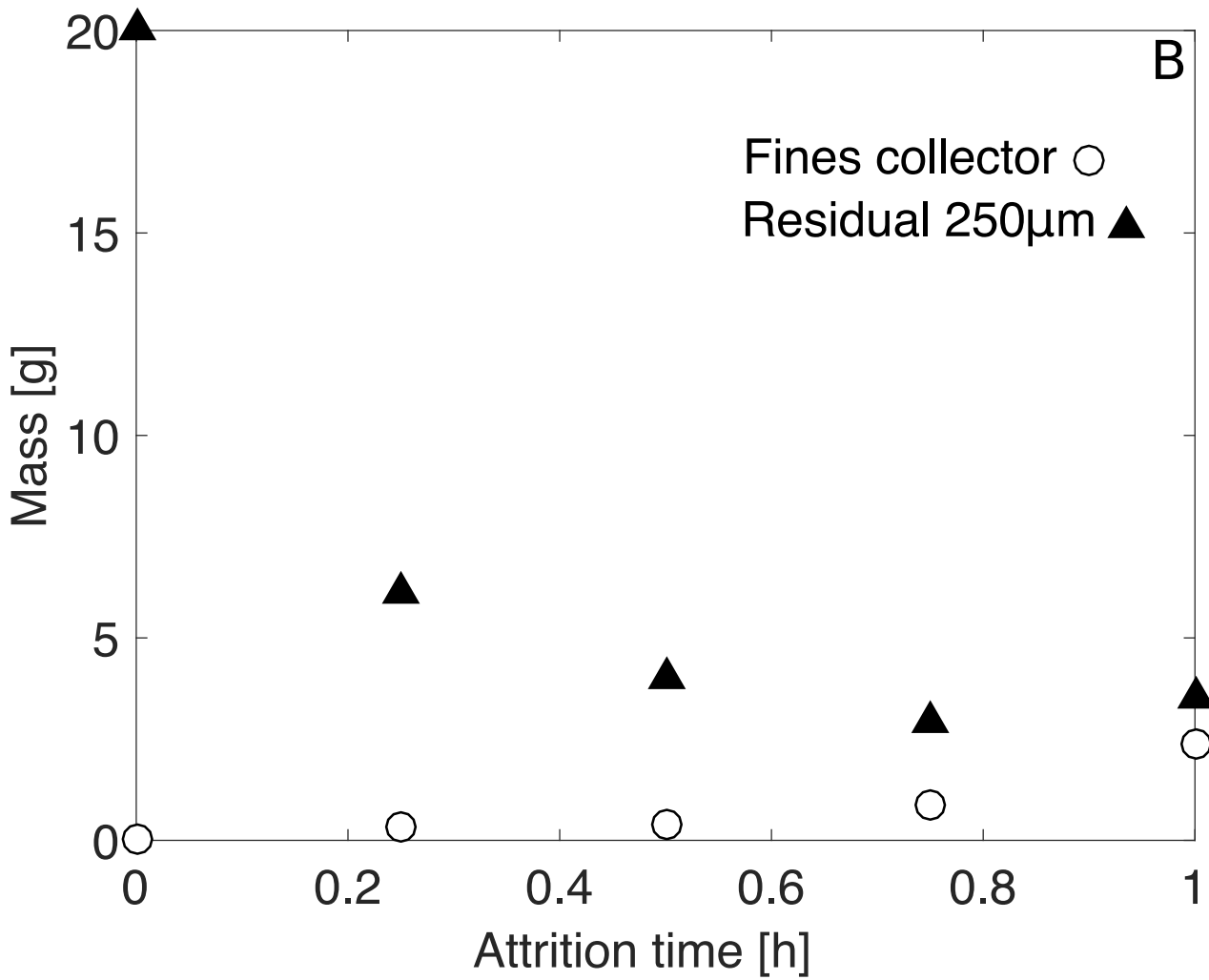
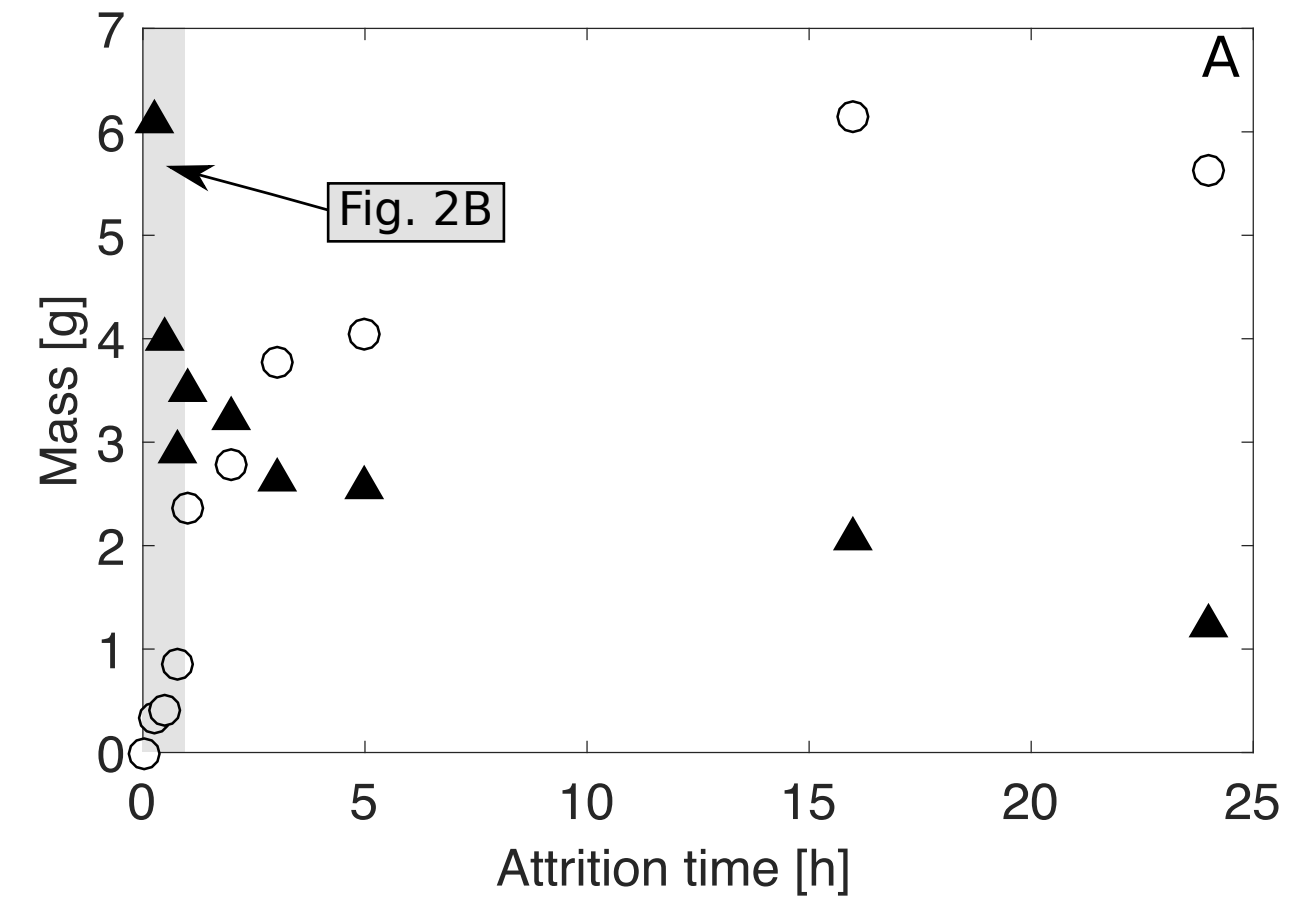


Figure 2: Jones et al., (in prep. for Powder Tech.)

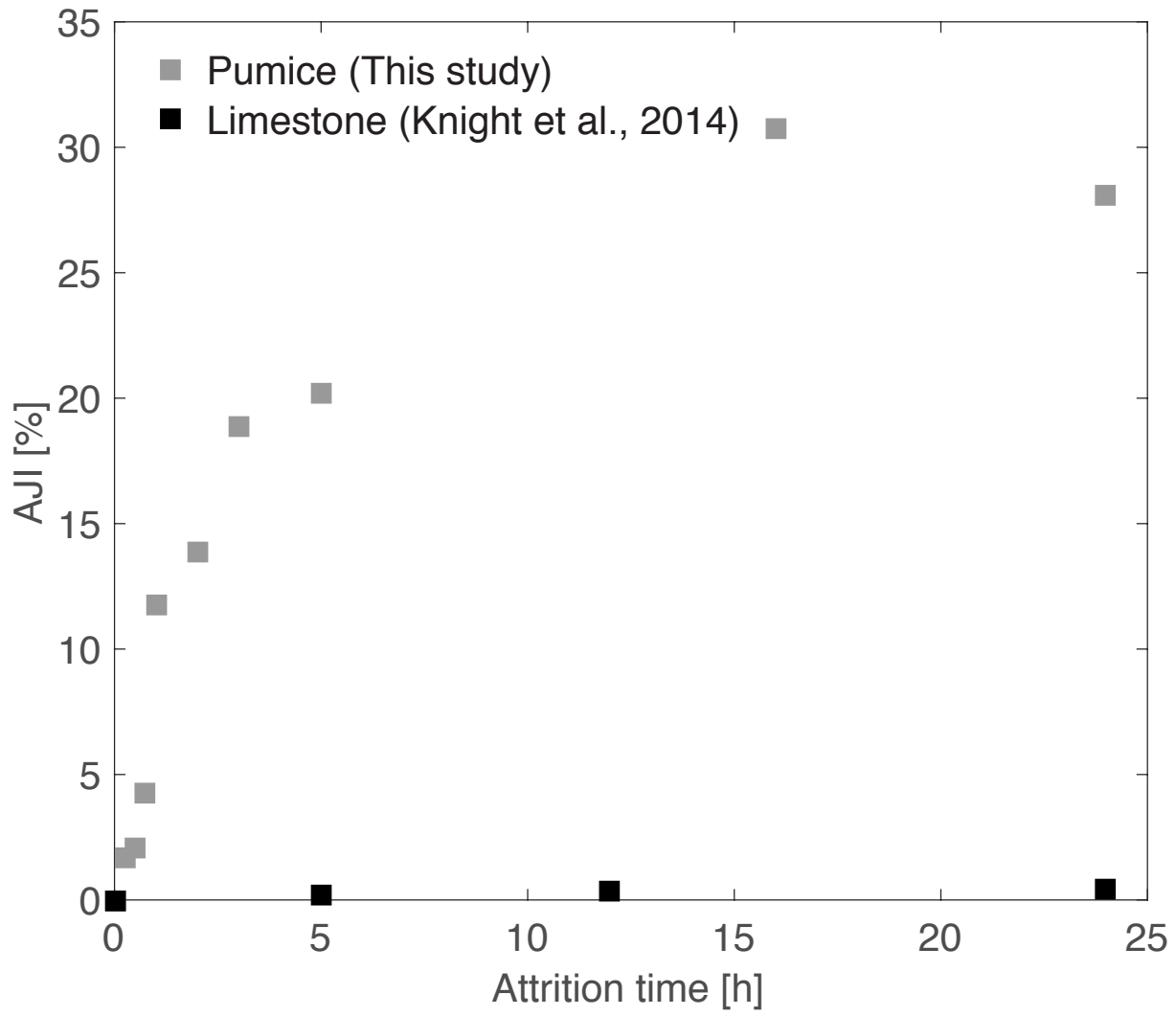


Figure 3: Jones et al., (in prep. for powder tech.)



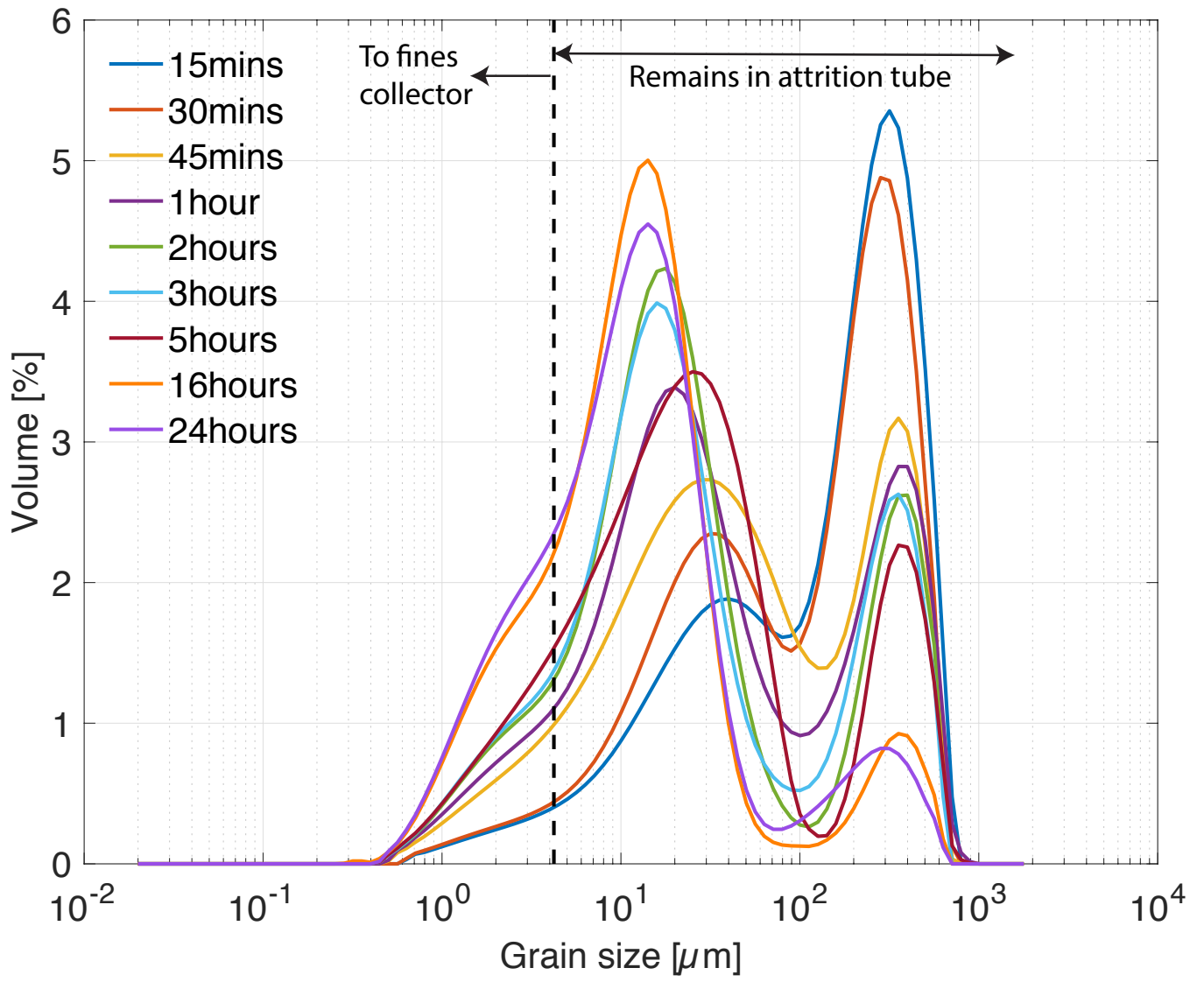


Figure 4: Jones et al., (in prep. for powder tech.)

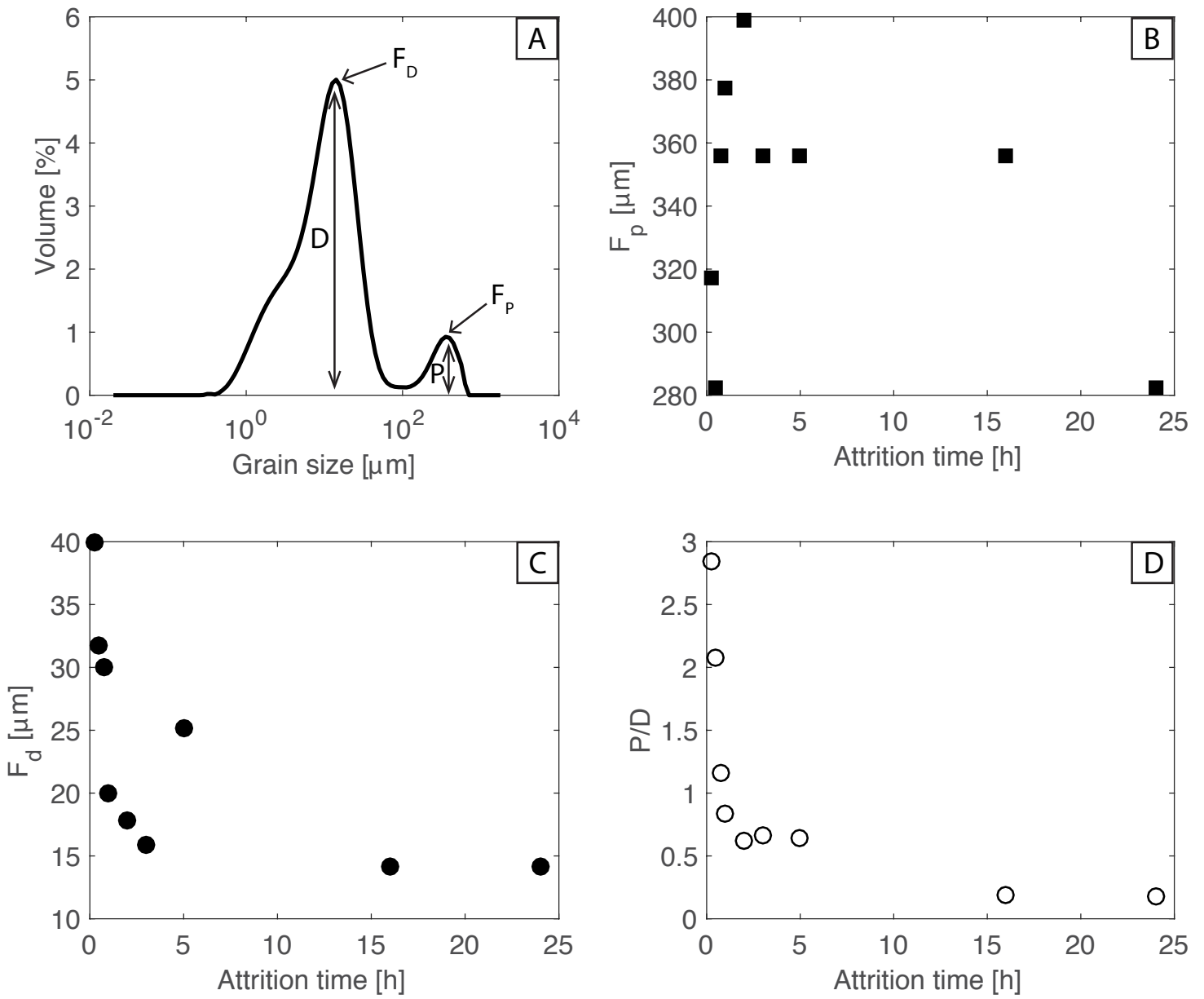


Figure 5: Jones et al., (in prep. for powder tech.)

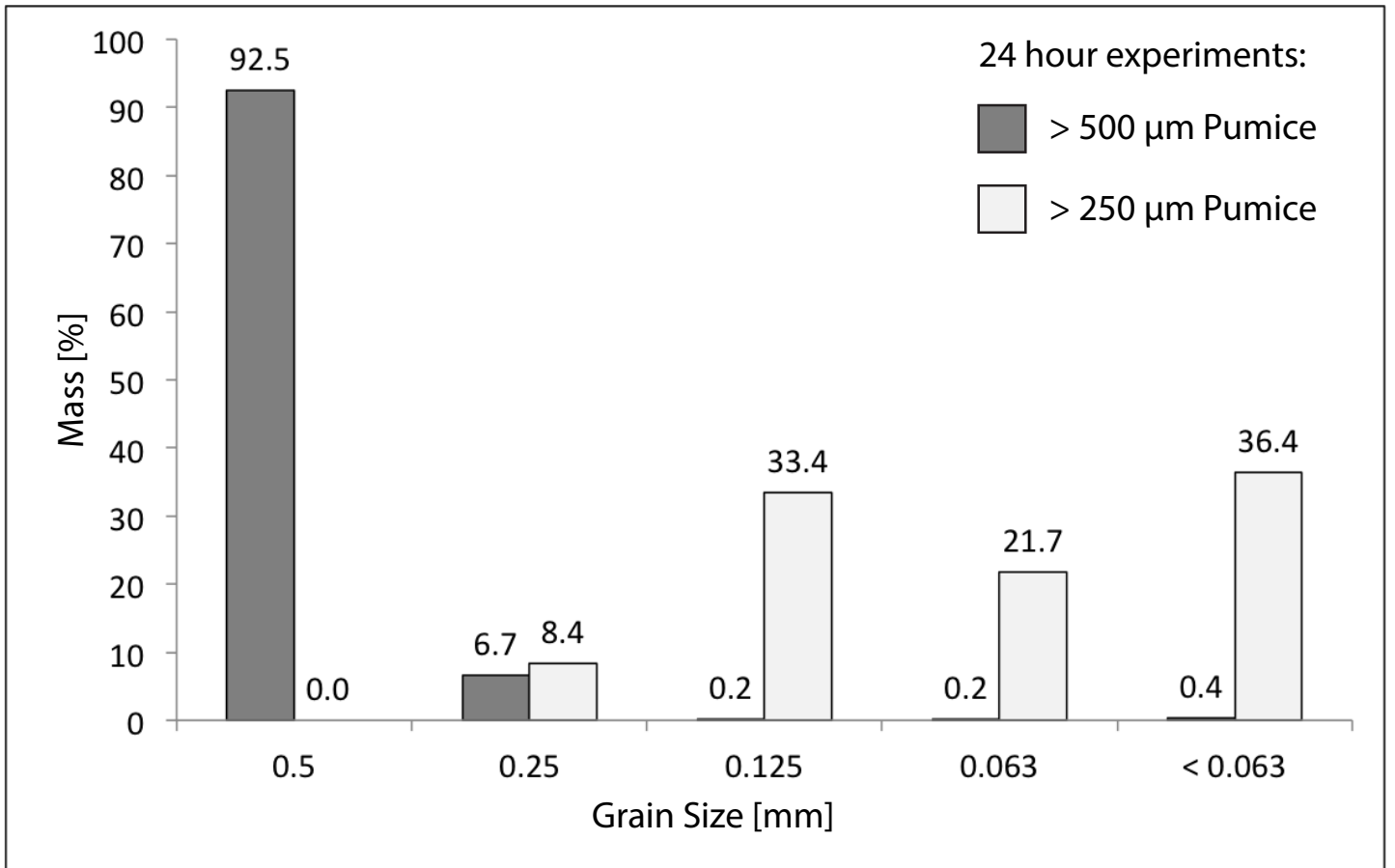


Figure 6: Jones et al., (in prep. for powder tech.)

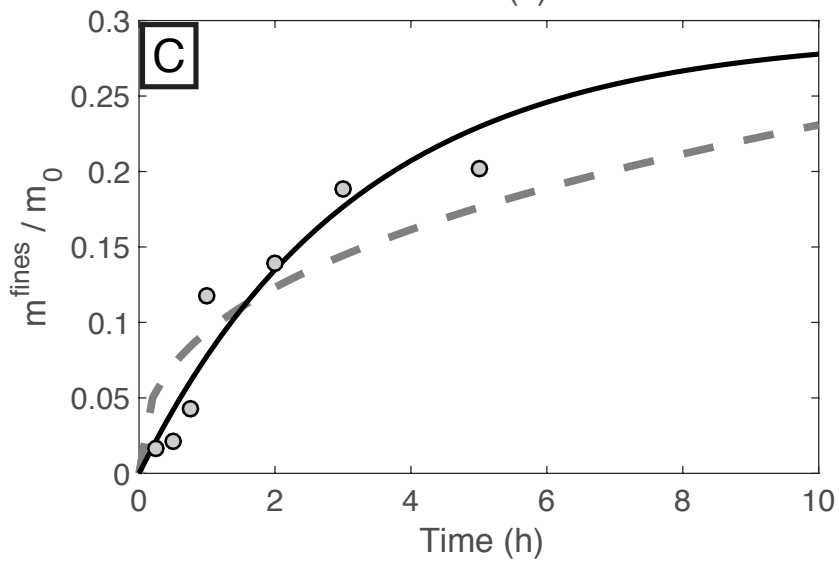
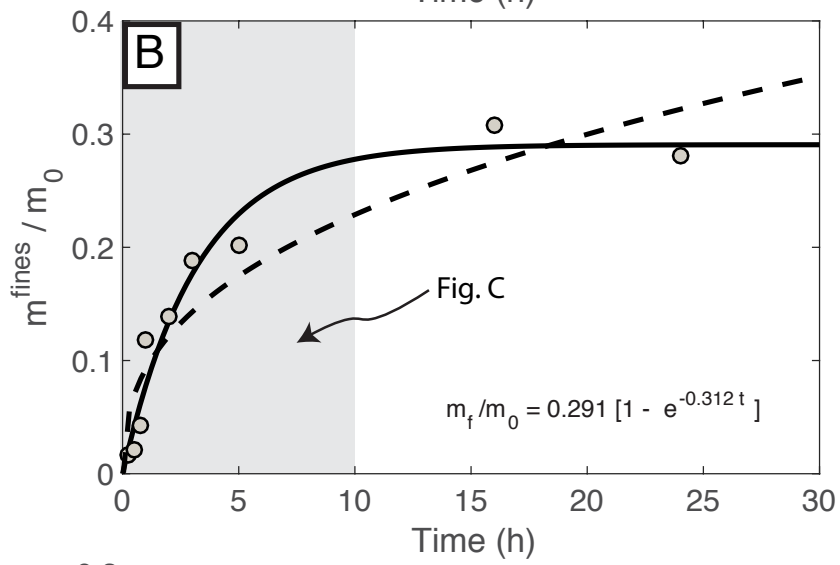
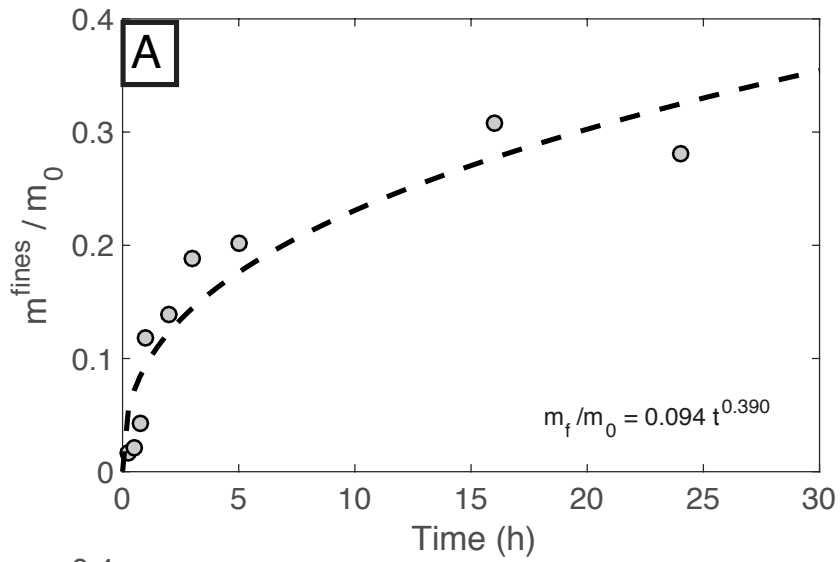


Figure 7: Jones et al., (in prep. for Powder Tech.)

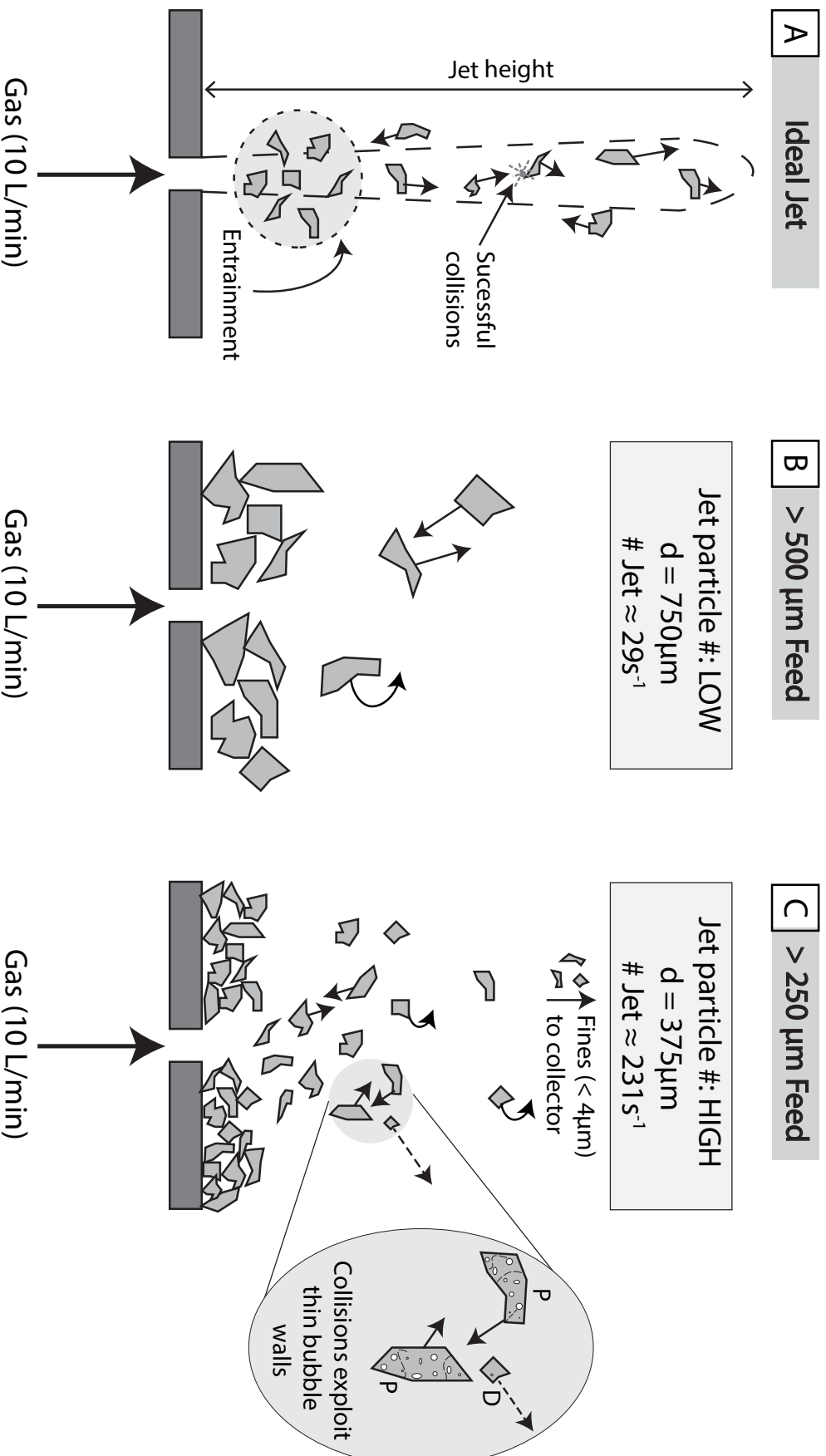


Figure 8: Jones et al., (in prep. for Powder Tech.)

<b>Material</b>	<b>Duration [h]</b>	<b>Initial size bin [<math>\mu\text{m}</math>]</b>	<b>Mass [g]</b>
MMP	0.25	250	20.0000
MMP	0.5	250	20.0000
MMP	0.75	250	20.0006
MMP	1	250	20.0001
MMP	2	250	20.0000
MMP	3	250	20.0001
MMP	5	250	20.0006
MMP	16	250	20.0001
MMP	24	250	20.0001
MMP	16	500	20.0173
MMP	24	500	20.0005

**Table 1:** Jones et al., (in prep. for Powder Tech.)

<b>Duration [h]</b>	<b><math>m_{bed}^0</math> [g]</b>	<b><math>m_{fines}</math> [g]</b>
0.25	20.0000	0.3336
0.5	20.0000	0.4196
0.75	20.0006	0.8567
1	20.0001	2.3589
2	20.0000	2.7798
3	20.0001	3.7718
5	20.0006	4.0343
16	20.0001	6.1514
24	20.0001	5.6154
16	20.0173	0.3336
24	20.0005	0.4196

**Table 2:** Jones et al., (in prep. for Powder Tech.)