# 2. PROBLEM SOLVING IN EXAMPLES

According to the three kinds of mathematical models the three kinds of users has been evolved and each of them considers FEMINA as a different program even if the program control and presentation of results is similar:

- □ The simplest job concerns the users considering FEMINA only as a simple regression program. They only need to know how to prepare data (observation matrix with independent and dependent variables, e.g. time and measured response) and they must learn two commands: how to read data file (command ROM or READ) and how to run the regression program (command NELREG) all other actions are automatic, including selection of the best regression model (models of axial dispersion, Gaussian distribution, response of ideally mixed tanks in series and many others are implemented).
- □ The second group form users dealing with stimulus-response experiments, peoples, making analysis of residence time distributions and looking for a suitable model of a continuous system (usually lumped parameter model) describing their data-measured responses. They need not know anything about finite element method, they only need to learn approximately 20 basic commands and first of all they have to know which basic RTD models are available, how to modify existing models and how to prepare new ones for specific applications. Typical analysis consists of the following steps:
  - Reading experimental time courses of stimulus and response functions from files to the so called observation matrix (command ROM).
  - The "raw" data processing, covering corrections of different kinds, for example extrapolation or approximation of tail (command TAIL), half-life correction (TCF), raising background correction (TCBGR) and eventually "manual" corrections, e.g. local smoothing, noise filtering (FFT) and normalisation of time courses (NORM). Further on integral characteristics of responses, i.e. moments (MOM) are usually calculated.
  - In the case, that the stimulus as well as the response functions are known, the impulse response of a system can be calculated using fast Fourier transform (FFT) method with regularised deconvolution. FFT can be also used for calculation of correlation functions and power spectral densities of processed responses.
  - Selection of suitable lumped parameter model represented by a system of ordinary differential equations for time courses of concentrations described in a script file (read by command RMODEL). A part of the script file are also specifications of model parameters, their bounds and default values all these data can be modified (commands PARSET,PARLIM) and selected parameters (PARFIT) can be optimised by comparison with experimental responses using one of two available optimisation algorithms (OPTIMA or SOMA).
- The third group of users considers FEMINA as a more or less standard finite element program, which is little bit similar to the much bigger program COSMOS/M from point of view of range of applications and user interface. This part of FEMINA is the most demanding, because it is necessary to learn approximately 50 basic commands, names of finite elements (PIPE2D, PLANE2D, FLOW2D,...), names of calculated degrees of freedom (TEMP, PRES, UX, UY, ...), names of important element parameters (ETau, ESxx stresses, ERe Reynolds, EQ flowrates, ...) and also names of system variables used for interactive definition of interpreted functions (XX, YY, TIME, ...). Finite element solution of a problem consists of the following steps:
  - Building geometrical model. Definition of region using entities POINT (PT), CURVE (CR), SURFACE (SF), VOLUME (VL). A basis of a model are points, as all other entities

are defined in terms of points and therefore a change of a point position is automatically projected into changes of curves, surfaces and volumes.

- Building finite element model. Specified region is meshed by finite elements (EL) and nodal points (ND) connecting elements (remark: point PT is an entity of the geometrical model, while the node ND is the finite element model entity, these two notions should be distinguished). Any created element is defined by a list of nodes defining its geometry and further on by assigned group of parameters EGROUP (specifying algorithms), a group MPROP (material properties) and RCONST (real constants). In addition to the coordinates *x*,*y*,*z* several nodal parameters DOF (Degree Of Freedom), which are primary targets of solution, e.g. temperatures, pressures, velocities,..., are assigned to every node.
- As soon as nodes are formed, the boundary conditions, initial conditions and loading can be specified. It is possible to fix any DOF in any node (this is so called strong boundary condition) or just only to specify its initial value, which will be changing during calculations (initial conditions). In the same way it is possible to assign loads or more generally concentrated sources to any DOF, e.g. a point heat source to temperature or a force component to a displacement. Specified values of nodal parameters need not be constants, they can be functions of time, temperature, coordinates and these functions can be defined either as an algebraic expression or as a table of values.
- Calculation of selected nodal parameters by steady or transient solution of partial differential equations describing given problem. Transformation of differential equations to a system of algebraic equations is based upon weighted residual method, assembly and solution of this system is performed by frontal method.
- Postprocessing is usually performed automatically after solution and consists in calculation of quantities derived from DOFs (e.g. element stresses calculated from nodal displacement or velocities calculated from stream function).
- Graphical and numerical outputs.
- Data import and export. Data describing geometry and finite element model as well as results of calculations can be saved to text files, all database can be saved or loaded to binary files (database is formed by all important variables describing not only current status of finite element model, but also active residence time distribution models, observation matrix, i.e. all time responses, and others). Journal of processed commands and also of the control commands like loops, jumps,...(session file) is automatically created and can be modified by any text editor. The session file can be later on read and interpreted line by line. The session file represents parametrical description of a problem which can be solved for different values of parameters and thus it is possible to look for an optimal solution minimising deviation between model prediction and experimental data.
- □ We expect, that the fourth group of users will be formed, because FEMINA code is completed by modules for import results from FLUENT and COSMOS codes, by algorithms of collimated detectors  $\gamma$ -radiation and by effective methods for simulation stimulus-response experiment with suppressed distortion by numerical diffusion. Therefore FEMINA can be used as a CFD postprocessor, a tool for verification of CFD results.

# 2.1. Program control

Program FEMINA is controlled first of all by commands and not by using menu (only few commands are accessible also from menu and dialog windows). Commands can be prepared in advance as a text file and interpreted using command FILE (batch mode), or you can write them directly into the window CONSOLE as a line of text (interactive mode). You can mix the both modes freely during a session, some part is better to process as a batch another parts interactively. Structure of a command line is simple:

key-word list of parameters separated by spaces or commas, terminated eventually by semicolon;

Key-word is 6 characters long (more precisely, only first 6 characters are distinguished), and synonyms are frequently defined, e.g. MPL is the same as MPLIST (list of material parameters). Command parameters are processed as algebraic expressions, with constants, variables, arithmetic operators, parentheses, functions and so on. Parameters identifying calculated DOFs (Degree Of Freedom), element parameters or element names can be specified by name:

TEMP /temperature/, UX,UY,UZ /displacements/, RX,RY,RZ /rotations/, VOLT /voltage/, VX,VY,VZ /velocities/, PRES /pressure/, OMG /vorticity/, PS,PSX,PSY,PSXX,PSYY,PSXY /stream function and its derivatives/, CA,CN,CD /concentration/, EQ /flowrate/, PIPE2D, PLANE2D,FLOW2D /the most common finite elements for modelling pipes, plates, and two dimensional fluid flow/

## Example:

FPT 123, TEMP, -1,25+A; prescribes temperature 25+A <sup>0</sup>C in the node nearest to the point 123.



Processing of each line begins by identification of the key-word (e.g. FPT in the previous example). If the word is not found in the list of standard commands, FEMINA tries to interpret the line as a simple script command according to the syntax which will be described later (the same script language is used for the RTD model definition). The simplest and the most frequent command is the assignment *Variable=expression*, where *Variable* is one from 250 system variables (full list of variables will be presented in chapter 3)<sup>1</sup>. For example A,B,...Z, are general purpose simple variables, NPT, ND, NE, NTC specify number of points, nodes, elements and time curves (responses), DT is a time step, NT number of observation points, vectors KX(i), CP(i), DEN(i), VISC(i) are material parameters of the *i*-th material group (thermal conductivity, specific heat capacity, density, viscosity,...). In the *expression* you can use any arithmetic operator (+,-,\*,/,\*\*), parentheses, standard functions (SIN(x),EXP(x),ABS(x),MIN(x,y...),...) and of course any user defined variables.

## Example:

KX(1)=0.6 sets the value of thermal conductivity of the material parameter in the group number 1.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> You can also define your own variables or vectors, e.g. REAL GEORGE, JOHN(20) INTEGER DORIS(5), and use them in the same way as system variables. However, system variables cannot be overrided and e.g. REAL DT has no effect upon the system variable DT. The commands REAL, INTEGER are examples of script commands of interpreter.

It is not necessary to specify all parameters in the command line, because it is sufficient (and highly recommended for interactive work) to write only the keyword, the name of command, and all parameters will be in this case specified in a controlled dialog<sup>2</sup>. If a parameter ends with semicolon (even during dialog), the parameter processing ends and default values are assigned to remaining parameters.

Little bit different is processing commands which make use the mouse either for picking already defined entities (points PID, nodes NID, curves CID, elements EID, responses TID ...) or for new points or nodes definition. For example the command for the definition of point can be written with all four parameters (PT index,X,Y,Z) and in this case the mouse is not needed. However, if we write only one parameter (PT index), the mouse is activated and the located point position is confirmed by left-click. In this way it is possible to create arbitrary number of points with successive indices using one command, because each left-click generates one point – the sequence ends with right-click.

A sequence of commands can be prepared in a file and executed as a program. The commands written into a batch file cannot comprise graphics, lists or optimisation commands (commands like GRAPH or OPTIMA will be skipped). The reason why the graphics is suppressed is obvious, because it would have no sense to project graphs or lists on screen in a fast sequence during run. The optimisation (commands OPTIMA and SOMA) has been excluded from batches because possible optimisation of optimisation algorithm itself would cause recursions and is therefore forbidden. On the other hand control commands, first of all #LOOP and #IF commands, can be used as a part of batch and applied for example for processing results in the NT-time steps:

T=0 #LOOP lab,NT processing results in time T T=T+DT #LABEL lab

Batch files can be created using any text processor, however it is much easier to create them in the interactive mode: the sequence RECORD ... ENDREC records all processed commands into a batch file automatically. A batch file can be processed either by the command FILE (this is a typical batch processed without an user intervention<sup>3</sup>) or issuing the command MACRO: in this case the commands are processed in fact in the interactive mode, including graphics and dialogs but without possibility to use e.g. LOOPs. Instead of MACRO you can write simply the name of batch file as a keyword and in this way it is possible to customise FEMINA by your own commands.

Program FEMINA works under operating systems Windows 95,98,2000. The following files should be placed into active directory:

FEMINA.EXE,	pre/postprocessor, optimisation
RUNFEM.EXE,	FEM solver
RUNFEMD.EXE,	FEM solver in double precision
RUNMOD.EXE,	RTD models solver
RUNBOX.EXE,	Cartesian boxing
RUNDET.EXE,	Collimated detector processing
RUNDET1.EXE,	Collimated detector processing
RUNMRG.EXE,	Mesh automatic a region
RUNMCT.EXE	Mesh interior of contours

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Please, take in mind, that for example W=3\*L/U is *not* a basic command with the keyword W= and parameter 3\*L/U. It is a script command of interpreter which cannot be obviously processed part by part in a controlled dialog.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> The only important and frequently used exception is the command VALUE *variable* which always expects numerical value from keyboard which is assigned to the *variable*.

RUNMND.EXE	Create mesh of elements from defined set of nodal points
RUNMPT.EXE	Create mesh of elements from a set of key-pints
RANLREG.EXE,	Linear regression
RANNREG.EXE,	Nonlinear regression
RANNREG2.EXE,	Multiple nonlinear regression

Auxiliary files (model definition files, pictures) are located in the subdirectory /FILES/

\$FEMINA.CMD,\$FEMWIN.CFG,\$FEMINA.TXT, \$COMMAND.TXT, \$VARLIST, \$PUMPS.TXT, RTD model definition files \*.mdt and also bitmap icons \*.bmp. The file \$FEMINA.CMD is a setup file (lists of RTD models, external programs) and \$FEMWIN.CFG sets initial position and size of child windows; both the files can be modified by any text processor.

After start up FEMINA.EXE the following windows will be displayed:



Program always begins with a problem name specification (e.g. TEST), which becomes the name of created files, specifically TEST.SES (session file, copy of commands), TEST.DBG (copy of listings being sent do display using commands PTLIST, ELIST,...), TEST.OUT and TEST.TEP (results).

The commands with parameters presented in the following examples are in fact copies of session files, and this text could have been literally retyped into the console window. However it is much better to write only key-words and to specify parameters in subsequent dialog – only then you can understand the parameter meaning.

The examples are presented in three nearly independent sections: Finite element models (2D temperature, 2D flow and 1D pipelines), RTD models and response processing (deconvolution), and the last section is devoted to model identification (optimisation).

#### 2.2. Finite element models for transport processes

The command sequence is nearly the same for all finite-element problems: first reference points are defined (Points), then curves CR, surfaces SF and volumes VL. Afterwards, a mesh of finite elements and node points is generated on the curves, surfaces and volumes (commands MCR, MSF, or MVL). Boundary conditions are prescribed at selected nodes (commands NFCR, FPT, ...). It is always necessary to specify definitions of material properties and other element characteristics (commands MPROP, RCONST, EGROUP), it does not matter whether it is done at the beginning or at the end of the problem specification. These parameters are different for different kinds of finite elements, the most important elements are PLANE2D (temperature, concentration and electrical potential in a plate), FLOW2D (fluid element, where velocities, pressures, stream functions, temperature, concentrations and electrical potential can be calculated), PIPE2D (pipes), PUMP and CSTR (Continuously Stirred Tank Reactor). Problem solution is always started by the SOLVE command with parameters which determine number of time steps and maximum number of iterations for flow, electrical field, temperature, concentrations) and stresses calculation.

Equations for heat and mass transport are of this general form

$$\Lambda(\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + u \cdot \nabla\phi) = \nabla \cdot \lambda \nabla\phi + Q - S\phi$$
(2.2-1)

where  $\phi$  is temperature *T* or concentrations  $c_N$ ,  $c_D$ ,  $c_A$ , while  $\lambda$  is the heat conductivity or diffusion coefficients  $D_N$ ,  $D_D$ ,  $D_A$ , respectively. *Q* is a source term and *S* is a sink; these terms can be defined (or modified) interactively by user as functions of time, coordinates, temperature, concentrations and other variables. Let as explain this concept in more details for the heat (enthalpy) transfer: the heat source  $Q=Q_e+Q_u$  (units W/m<sup>3</sup>) consists of two parts, the first one,  $Q_e$ , electric ohmic heating is predefined in FEMINA, while the second part  $Q_u$  can be supplied by user in form of a function (FUNDEF) or a table (CURDEF). Thus a dissipation of mechanical energy by friction, internal microwave heating, reaction enthalpies and similar production terms describing reactions kinetics for mass transport equations can be defined. Indices of functions used for definition of  $Q_u$  and *S* terms are specified as EGROUP parameters (there are 4 pairs of indices for *T*,  $c_N$ ,  $c_D$ ,  $c_A$  equations and one additional function defining hydraulic characteristics, together nine user defined functions for any kind of finite element). This is not only the source or the sink term, but also transport coefficients  $\lambda$  and  $\Lambda$  which can be defined by user as functions and the same holds for boundary and initial conditions thus ensuring maximum flexibility of problem specification.

The most frequently used commands in the following examples are:

SCALE xmin,xmax,ymin,ymax	ranges of axes X,Y
ZI, ZO	zoom in, zoom out (zooming is defined by mouse)

PT *i*,*x*,*y*,*z* reference point definition (i=index of point) of geometrical model (using a mouse)

- CIRCLE *i,central point, point on perimeter, number of segments* circle described by two points (and created from at least 4 segments parabolic curves)
- CR2PT *i*,*i*1,*i*2 curve number *i* described by 2 points *i*1,*i*2 (straight line). A similar command CR3PT creates a quadratic curve from three points. It is possible to define a sequence of points and linear or quadratic curves simultaneously using the command CRSPOLY.
- PMERGE this command merges and renumbers key-points having the same coordinates (or nearly the same, within the tolerance TOL). Curves and surfaces are merged too during this operation. It is recommended to perform this command after CRSPOLY and before surfaces will be created from curves. Anyway, PMERGE makes geometrical model more clear and transparent.

SF8FP *i,i1,i2,...,i8* surface described by 8 points (the first four points are corners of a curved quadrilateral). Surface (entity SF) is in this case a quadrilateral with four curved sides (CR), and these curves will be created automatically. Similar commands SF3PT, SF4PT form surfaces from 3 or 4 points respectively.

Note: Created entities (points, curves, surfaces, nodes, elements,...) can be displayed by commands with LIST at the end, e.g. PTLIST, CRLIST, SFLIST for points, curves and surfaces respectively. Entities can be plotted (PTPLOT, CRPLOT,...), or deleted (PTDEL, CRDEL,...) in a similar way.

## MSF index of surface, Nx,Ny, Lx,Ly, number of nodes, number of internal nodes

- generation of finite elements on a specified surface. All created elements are of the same type, they have the same index of the material properties group MPROP, real constants group RCONST and the group EGROUP specifying computational algorithm of element matrices. The number of nodes determines the element topology: for example 3 and 6 represent triangles with three and six nodes, 4 and 8 are quadrilateral elements. The parameters Nx,Ny determine the number of segments, dividing two adjacent sides of the quadrilateral surface, and Lx,Lydetermines a non-uniformity of this division.<sup>4</sup> A positive value gives the ratio of the last and the first segment length (i.e. Lx=1 uniform division, Lx<1 element size decreases towards the side end). A side orientation, that is the identification of the beginning and the end, is depicted as a diamond symbol near beginning of side. A negative value of Lx is an instruction for generation of elements diminishing symmetrically towards the ends (Lx<-1) or towards the centre of side (-1<Lx<0). Similar operations are MCR and MVL, meshing curves or volumes respectively.
- MRG *index of contour, number of nodes, number of internal nodes, default number of nodes on curve, smoothing iterations, subdivision of triangles, attractivity of boundary nodes, size, near* automatic generation of a triangular mesh on a 2D region defined by a contours (contour is a list of curves, specified by the command CT interactively). Size of generated elements is determined by predefined position of nodes along the contour and can be specified using command CRN for each curve of the contour individually (parameters of CRN are similar as in the following command MCRC). In the case that the number of nodes is not specified by the CRN command, the parameter *default number of nodes* is applied to each boundary curve. The parameter *Smoothing* concerns an iterative procedure which makes distances between nodes similar, with the exception of boundary points. These boundary nodes could attract the nearest internal nodes (*attractivity* >1) giving finer mesh along boundary curves. The parameter *subdivision of triangles* increases number of generated elements (=1 four-times, =2 sixteen-times and so on, because each triangle is decomposed to 4 triangles in one step). The last parameters *size, near* are not so important (default values 1 are usually the best), they have only a slight effect upon the shape and density of generated triangles.

Similar commands are MCT (mesh multiple contours), MPT (mesh points – generates triangular elements connecting a set of key-points PT) and MND (mesh nodes). These commands are not aimed primarily for a finite element analysis, rather for situation, when you have a list of points  $(x_i, y_i)$  and corresponding values in a data file and you need to diplay contours, calculate surface integrals etc.

# MCRC CR-first, Nx, Last/First, Number of Nodes, RC-group, CR-last, CR-step

generates Nx two-node elements (pipes, pumps or mixed tanks) on curves starting from index *CR-first*, up to the *CR-last* with step *CR-step*. The elements will be defined by parameters in the *RC-group* (these parameters determine the equivalent pipe diameter, cross section area, heat transfer coefficient at the outer side, ambient temperature  $T_e$ , and electric field intensity).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> If the division has been prescribed at an adjacent surface, these parameters are submitted as default.

# MCR4 *CR pipe 1, CR pipe 2, RC-HEXC*



generates special 4-node elements *HEXC* (heat exchangers) which connects formerly defined *PIPE2D* elements on curves *CR pipe 1* and *CR pipe 2* (number of these elements must be the same on both curves otherwise the operation *MCR4* fails). See also *MCR2*, which creates *PIPE2D* and *HEXC* simultaneously on a given pair of curves.

# NMERGE

To ensure connectivity of elements the operation which merges nodes with identical (or very close) coordinates x,y,z has to be performed. These nodes usually arise at the interface of two surfaces or curves (after MSF or MCR operations). The nodes with the distance shorter than TOL (this value can be assigned by a command, e.g. TOL=0.001) will be merged and renumbered.

# NFCR curve index, parameter name, parameter type, P1,P2,P3

specifies boundary conditions or loads at nodes situated on, or near to a specified curve. *Parameter name* is for example TEMP-temperature, PRES-pressure, etc. *Parameter type* (status) is an integer value in the range from -10 to 50: a negative value means strong boundary condition (fixed value of parameter), zero denotes a free and therefore computed parameter, while a positive value indicates a load or a source term located at the corresponding node. At the same time, this value (parameter status) is an index of a user defined function of time, coordinates or temperature, which enables specification of variable boundary conditions or variable loads – this function multiplies the parameter value specified by the NFCR command, which is exactly the same procedure used by the COSMOS/M<sup>5</sup> program. If the corresponding function is not defined, identity is assumed and the computation proceeds with the directly entered constant values *P1,P2,P3* in reference points of the curve (two ending points and the middle one). These three values define a quadratic interpolating polynomial (a constant in case of identical values *P1,P2,P3*) for the selected parameter at nodes which lie or are very close to the specified curve. Similar commands are NFPT and NFSF for setting boundary conditions in the nearest node to a point PT or to the nodes on a surface SF.

## INITIAL parameter name, index of function

specifies initial condition for a selected variable (TEMP, PRESS, CN,...) using a function. If the *index of function* is zero, zero initial condition applies.

# FUNDEF function index, f(XX, YY,ZZ, TIME, TEMP, DP, RE, DE, HE, ...)

This command defines a function as an algebraic expression (with common operators + - \* / \*\*, parenthesis () and functions, sin,cos,abs,exp,log,...). The following names are predefined as independent variables: XX,YY,ZZ – coordinates, TIME – time, TEMP – temperature, and other not so important quantities. The function index is within the same range as the status of node parameters, i.e. from –10 to 50. These functions can be used for example with commands NFCR (see above) or MPROP (see below). Sometimes the desired behaviour cannot be properly described by a single algebraic expression, then a table of values and interpolation can be used, see operation CURDEF.

# CURDEF function index, '0-time, 1-x, 2-y, 3-z, 4-temp, 5-ux, 6-uy, 7-uz, 8-II', No of points (max 8), x1,y1,x2,y2,x3,y3,x4,y4,x5,y5,x6,y6,x7,y7,x8,y8

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> If  $-10 \le status \le 10$ , a transforming function  $f_{status}(x, y, t, T)$  multiplies entered values DOF. These values are interpreted either as strong boundary conditions (*status*<0), or as a load (*status*>0). If *status*>10 the value of DOF meaning (if entered) depends on the context. For example, the value *status*>20 determines a node where the boundary condition of the third kind is prescribed for a specific DOF (and input value DOF is interpreted as the heat transfer coefficient).

# MPROP group index of material properties, element type, p1, f1, p2, f2, ...

Material properties of an element group. FEMINA considers 20 parameters, p1 to p20: thermal conductivity, specific heat capacity, density, electrical conductivity, modulus of elasticity, Poisson constant, viscosity, thermal volumetric expansion, diffusion coefficient, enthalpy of formation, frequency factor, latent heat, melting point and others. The parameter *element type* selects material properties which are relevant for the specified element type (e.g. for the element PLANE2D – plate, the viscosity is not relevant). An index of a function f1, f2, ... is assigned to each material parameter and if the index is non-zero and the function has been defined, the specified parameter value is multiplied by this function. In this way for example a temperature dependency of material properties can be defined.

# RCONST group index of real constants, element type, p1, p2,...

Real parameters of elements which cannot be derived just only from the nodal coordinates, e.g. plate width, pipe diameter, heat transfer coefficient, wall roughness and so on.

EGROUP index of element group, element type, i1,i2,...

Integer element parameters, which usually specify a computational algorithm of element matrices. For example, they specify Cartesian or cylindrical coordinate system, number of points for Gauss numerical integration<sup>6</sup> or the solution method of Navier Stokes equations for fluid elements (e.g. FLOW2D). For PIPE elements, it is possible to specify an index of function describing a hydraulic characteristic and in this way for example a pump with a prescribed flow rate dependency on pressure drop can be modelled. Using EGROUP it is also possible to determine indices of functions which describe an internal (volumetric) source of heat and sources or sinks of species in a mixture, for most element types.

- Remark: Indices of EGROUP, RCONST and MPROP are assigned to an element in the moment of the element creation (ACTSET). However, this assignment can be changed later, using commands ERMOD, ERMSF, ERMEL (for elements inside a region, on a surface, or picked by mouse).
- SOLVE *t0,number of time steps,∆t,append,iter-electric,iter-flow,iter-thermal,iter-conc,iter-stress* Start-up of the external program RUNFEM.EXE which reads the actual database and calculates electrical, flow, thermal, concentration and deformation fields (in this sequence) in every time step. Maximum number of iterations in single time step is specified for each of the mentioned analysis types – in case of zero number of iterations the corresponding analysis is omitted. Number of iterations should be greater than 1 in case of nonlinear and unsteady problems when it is necessary to iterate on each time level. If only a steady state solution is searched and accuracy in each time step is not important, then 1 can be specified as the number of iterations. Each time steps then represents one iteration step and the time step size plays the role of an underrelaxation factor – this can affects a convergence of the iteration process (the underrelaxation factor can be specified explicitly RELFAKT=..., the default value is 1)<sup>7</sup>. Results of each time step are stored in files with the suffix OUT (nodal parameters) and TEP (element parameters), and these files can be viewed by any text processor. After the RUNFEM program terminates, the control is return back to FEMINA, the database is updated and results of solution can be displayed as graphs or tables.
- DSOLVE is the same as SOLVE, however instead of RUNFEM, the RUNFEMD program solving equations in double precision is invoked.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> You can specify 1,2,3,4 Gauss points for quadrilateral or brick elements, and 1,3,4,6,7,12,or 16 for triangular elements <sup>7</sup> There are other parameters specifying methods and operational parameters of solver, use the command OPTION.

- GRAPH *parameter name, zone of parameters* Displays contours of specified parameter on the basis of actual values in the database. Parameter zones go from 1 to 4: actual solution results are in zone 2, initial conditions are in zone 3, values of previous iteration are in zone 4. Zone 1 reflects only specified boundary conditions which is not of great importance when displaying.
- GRATIM *parameter name* displays time history of a parameter in nodes selected by a mouse pointer. The file *problem.OUT* is used because results from previous time steps are not present in memory. Nodal values from all calculated time steps are transferred to the matrix of observation points for further processing or just for export into a file using command WRITE.
- LTN *time*, and LTE *time* These commands read results corresponding to *time* from files *problem.OUT* (nodal parameters) and *problem.TEP* (element parameters), respectively. The parameter *time* need not match discrete calculated times because linear interpolation of both nodal and element parameters from two time levels will be applied.
- NID Node identification by mouse, nodal parameters are reported in the status window. Similar commands are used for identification of elements, points, curves, graphs (EID, PID, CID, ...).
- IC *number of curve, function number* integral of a selected function along a curve (integration is numerical with NINT points, result is in the variable INTEGRAL). Integration is numerical and accuracy can be changed by system variable NINTG, that defines number of integration points (default value is NINTG=200).
- IS *number of surface, function number* integral of a selected function on a surface (similar operation as IC).
- IE *dof, function number,e-first,e-last,e-step* integral of selected nodal parameter multiplied by a user function over specified range of elements. The elements can be 1D lines, 2D triangles or quadrilaterals or 3D solids, hexa- or tetragons. Result is in the system variable INTEGRAL.
- EXIT Terminates FEMINA program.

Solution performed by RUNFEM.EXE and started by the command SOLVE is controlled by many parameters. Their default values can be changed either by using the command OPTION, or by system variables, e.g.

GY=-9.81	sets acceleration
OHMI=1	internal heat source terms will be respected (or suppressed if OHMI=0)
FOUL=1	selects the model of fouling
RUPW=1	sets upwind coefficient (=0 upwind suppressed)
TAUD=0	sets time constant in the model of axial dispersion (0-suppresses axial dispersion)
BL=0.3	reduces calculated thermal boundary layer in pipes to one third
HEPI=1	instead of Galerkin method, the method of enthalpy balances will be used (pipes)
BUOY=1	temperature dependent density is used for modelling buoyancy (=2 Boussinesque)
RELFAKT=.3	reduce underrelaxation factor when convergency problems are encountered

The same parameters ca be adjusted in the following dialog panel (menu bar Solution, Option):

FEMINA         Eile Edit View Properties Functions Solution Graphs State Window Help         MODEL         OPTIONS	These items control calculations of free convection (gravity source terms (ohmic heating, chemical reactions), and calculation of fouling in pipes according to the selected model. Zero values suppress corresponding terms.	),
Problem specification (gravity, heat source, fouling) Gx 000 Gy .000 Gz .000 Source 1 Fouling 0 Einite Element Method	Upwind, under-relaxation and time integration (implicit value 1 is default) are real parameters between 0 and 1.	
Upwind       1.000       Underrelaxation       1.000       Explicit (0) / implicit (1)         Frontal method (solver)       Min. pivot       Min. pivot       Most cases a 1D pipelines enthalpy bala         Min. pivot       .100E-11       Elimination treshold       15       equal         Pipes and heat exchangers       .100E+01       Solution method       0       remin of chalpy bala         Axial dispers       .100E+01       Solution method       0       remin of chalpy bala         Penalty fact       .100E+08       Residuals velocity       .100E-04       Resi         Residuals of velocity and temperature represent desired accurac of relative differences of calculated variables in subsecuent treat       and Galerkin	<sup>1.000</sup> <sup>46</sup> por fixed= 001 loaded= 000 TPHP ure solved by Petrov Galerkin method ( <i>Solution method</i> =0). F is with complicated heat exchangers it is necessary to select ance method (1). Transport equations for mass and enthalpy c ely solved by method of characteristics ( <i>Solution method</i> >1): pries ending at all nodes are calculated (backtracking for time temperatures or concentrations are evaluated assuming purely ransport. In the following half-step only diffusion is considered n method is applied with zero velocities.	or an
Iterations         Electric       0       Flow       3       Thermal       1       Concentration       1         NE = 7       Solution iterates in each time step first electric field, then flow, temperature, concentrations and stress field if the specified number of iteration is greater than zero:       Iterations can be stopped sooner, if accuracy specified in items <i>Residuals</i> , is achieved.         OpF:Temperature       Thermal       1       Concentration       1         PBE:       Iterations can be stopped sooner, if accuracy specified in items <i>Residuals</i> , is achieved.       1       1       1         OpF:Temperature       Thermal       1       1       1       1       1         Head       Iterations can be stopped sooner, if accuracy specified in items <i>Residuals</i> , is achieved.       1 </th <th>Stress 0 Stress 0 C(t) Cn(t+<math>\Delta</math>t)=? Cn(t+<math>\Delta</math>t)=? Cn(t+<math>\Delta</math>t)=? Cn(t+<math>\Delta</math>t)=? Cn(t+<math>\Delta</math>t)=? 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Hunning       Jinput pending in CONSOLE FEMINA 3.3       Juse [TAB] for editing prev.         Start       Image: Start       Image: Start       Image: Start         Image: Start       Image: Start       Image: Start       Image: Start         Image: Start       Image: Start       Image: Start       Image: Start	rious commands) NET 💭 📲 8:59	

For more details look at the chapter 4 (theory).

Besides these basic commands it is useful to become familiar with some system variables frequently used in the finite element analysis

user variables (FEMINA does not interfere them, the variable I, which is used as
a counter, is an exception)
number of nodes and number of elements. For example you can delete a mesh
by writing ND=0 and NE=0.
number of points, curves, surfaces and volumes.
these variables are usually used in definition of time varying boundary
conditions, e.g. the command FUNDEF -1,A+B*SIN(TIME*F) defines an
oscillating function number -1.
coordinates used for example for definition of initial conditions.
temperature and concentration used for material properties, production and sink
terms definition.

It is true that material and element parameters can be specified using commands MPROP, EGROUP, RCONST or from menu *Properties*, however, sometimes it is easier to use the system variables:

TRANS(i),GAUSS(i),AXIS(i), HYDR(i),HEAT(i),HSINK(i),CNSRC(i),CNSINK(i)

transient(1)/steady(0) state, no. of Gauss points, coordinate system (0-Cartesian, 1-cylindrical), indices of functions defining hydraulic characteristics, heat source, heat sink, component  $c_N$  sources and sinks.

HH(i),DD(i),ALPHA(i),AREA(i) thickness, diameter of pipe, heat transf.coef., cross-section,

KX(i),CP(i),DENS(i),KAPPA(i),VISC(i),BETA(i),DN(i) thermal conductivity, heat capacity, density, electric conductivity, dynamic viscosity, thermal expansion, and diffusion coefficient in the i-th group EGROUP, RCONST or MPROP respectively.

Vectors of nodal parameters and interpolating functions of nodal parameters are also important V1(LPU(*parameter name*)+I) value of selected parameter in the I-th node (boundary and loads) V2(LPU(*parameter name*)+I) value of selected parameter in the I-th node (actual results) V3(LPU(*parameter name*)+I) value of selected parameter in the I-th node (initial conditions) The most import *parameter name* are TEMP (temperature), PRES (pressure), VX,VY,VZ (velocities), VOLT (voltage), CN,CD,CA (concentrations) Examples: DISP V2(LPU(CN)+10) displays actual concentration  $c_N$  in 10<sup>th</sup> node.

V1(LPU(TEMP)+5)=A point heat source in the 5<sup>th</sup> node is set to the value A

Vector of element parameters makes use the function IEP(*parameter name,element index*) for calculation of a specified parameter index. Frequently used *parameter name* are ERE (Reynolds), EQ (volumetric flowrate), ETAU (shear stress, usually at wall), EPOWER (for example duty of a heat exchanger), EII (second invariant of rate of strain tensor), EFOUL (thickness of fouling layer), EDISS (dissipated power), ETX,ETY,ETZ (gradient of temperature), ETMEAN (mean temperature in an element), EMISE (von Mises stress), ELAV (Length or Area or Volume of element).

Example: DISP E1(IEP(EFOUL,5)) displays thickness of fouling in element 5

While the vectors V1(i),V2(i),V3(i) and E1(i) ensure a direct access to nodal and element parameters, the following functions DOF and EPA transfer interpolated values of nodal and element parameters at any point x,y,z (and not only at a node).

DOF(*parameter name, zone, x,y,z*) this function interpolates selected nodal parameter in specified zone (zone =1 boundary conditions and loads, zone=2 actual results, zone=3 initial conditions) at point x,y,z.

EPA(parameter name, x, y, z) this function interpolates parameter of elements, gradients, stresses and so on.

Remark: The functions DOF, EPA and also other operations which need to calculate values in a general point *x*,*y*,*z* can be effectively realised only if it is known inside which element the point *x*,*y*,*z* occurs. This relationship between a point and the corresponding element is hidden in the file \$RUNBOX.BIN which is created by the operation BOX *h*. This operation encloses a finite element mesh into a fine rectangular grid with uniform spacing  $\Delta x$ ,  $\Delta y$ ,  $\Delta z$  and this spacing is determined by the parameter *h* (*h* is ratio of the grid size  $\Delta x$ ,  $\Delta y$ ,  $\Delta z$  to the smallest element size  $h_x$ ,  $h_y$ ,  $h_z$ , default value is 0.3). Then for each grid point an enclosing element is found (if such an element exists, of course) and its index is saved to the file \$RUNBOX.BIN.

#### 2.2.1. Temperature distribution in a plate

This example demonstrates a typical procedure of the finite element modelling, using simple geometry (rectangular plate with a hole), simple equation (heat transfer) and simple triangular elements (PLANE2D - only one degree of freedom TEMP is used at every node).

Heat transfer modelled by the element PLANE2D can be rather complex, and generally the following transport equation

$$\rho c_p \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + u_x \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + u_y \frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\lambda \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\lambda \frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right) + \kappa \left[\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial y}\right)^2\right] + Q - ST , \quad (2.2.1-1)$$

or similar equation for cylindrical coordinate system, can be solved.

#### 2.2.1.1. Steady state temperature distribution, Dirichlet boundary conditions

In the case that velocities are zero, that there are no production or sink terms ( $Q=S=\kappa=0$ ), that the heat conductivity  $\lambda$  is constant and that we are looking only for a steady temperature field, the equation (1) reduces to the Laplace equation for temperature

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} = 0.$$
(2.2.1-2)

And this is just this equation we shall try to solve first:

```
C* Opening test date:27.11.02 at 11:55
ANALYS 2;
EGROUP 1,PLANE2D,0,4,0,0;
```

EGROUP Element group 1 consists of PLANE2D elements (a plate). The following values determine the calculation procedure of local matrices. 0 - steady state solution, 4 - four-points Gauss integration (permitted values are 1,3,4,6,7,12,16 for triangular elements, and 1,2,3,4 for quadrilaterals), 0 - Cartesian coordinate system.

```
MPROP 1, PLANE2D, .6, 0, 4200, 0, 998, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0;
```

MPROP Material property in group 1, necessary for elements PLANE2D: Kx=0.6 – thermal conductivity, transformation of Kx (0 - none), heat capacity cp=4200, transformation of cp, density  $\rho$ =998, transformation of  $\rho$  and so on (see dialog). In this case all functions have index zero, therefore all material properties are constant, independent of T,t,x,y,...

RCONST 1, PLANE2D, 1, 0, 0, 0;

RCONST sets real constants of group number 1 (next parameter 1 = means the plate thickness)



SF8PT 1,1,3,20,18,2,12,19, SF8PT 2,3,5,14,20,4,11,21, SF8PT 3,5,7,16,14,6,10,15, SF8PT 4,7,1,18,16,8,9,17,1	9; 12; Surface from 8 points 11; .0;
A=15 B=14	Sometimes, it is useful to specify variables or expressions instead of numerical values of command parameters and the whole problem can be parametrised (we could use it in all previous commands describing geometry). In this case we will use parameters A,B to determine number of segments, on which surface edges will be divided when generating elements using MSF commands. Some identifiers are pre-declared, e.g. single-character general purpose variables A,B,C,,Z.
MSF 1, A, B, 1, 1, 6; MSF 2, A, B, 1, 1, 6; MSF 3, A, B, 1, 1, 6;	Instead the assignments A=15 and B=15 the commands VALUE A and VALUE B could be used. In this case the variables would have been specified interactively even in the case, that the problem is processed as a batch.
MSF 4, A, B, 1, 1, 6;	Grid generation on surfaces 1 to 4, A x B, regular (1,1), triangles (6 nodes, permitted values 3,4,6,8)
NMERGE ;	Nodes with the same coordinates $x, y$ is to be merged. Coincident nodes arise on surface boundaries because each MSF does not take into account that previous MSF command, applied on the adjacent surface, has already generated nodes on the coincident edge. Coincident nodes will be merged and renumbered using operation NMERGE.

At this moment, a grid of triangular elements *PLANE2D* is created and nodes with their parameters (*DOF*) are defined – we will use only one parameter, the temperature *TEMP*. Each *DOF* has an attribute, so called status of node parameter (integer number). So far, this status is zero at all nodes, which means that all *DOF* are to be calculated. Strong boundary conditions (prescribed temperatures on the plate edge in our case) are characterised by negative status (the range from -10 to -1 corresponds up to 10 different transformation functions, defining variable strong boundary conditions).



#### SOLVE 0,1,10000,0,0,0,1,0,0;

The command SOLVE starts temperature analysis. 0 is initial time, 1=number of time steps, 10000=time step. Beacuse only steady-state analysis is demanded (see EGROUP), the value of time step is not important and results are independent of it. The following parameters specify maximum number of iterations in each time step for analysis of electrical field, flow field, temperatures, concentrations and stresses. Because our problem is linear, one iteration of temperature field calculation is sufficient. Calculated temperatures are written into a file xxxxx.OUT in alphanumeric form and they are transferred into a zone of "initial conditions" at the end of each time step.

#### GRAPH TEMP,2

The first parameter of the GRAPH command specifies a variable (here it is temperature TEMP) to be displayed as isolines. The second parameter (2) determines if the results (2) or initial conditions (3) will be presented. The GRAPH (or synonymum GD2) can be used only in 2D problems, for 1D graphs use its equivalent GD1. If you want to draw a temperature profile in a cross section use commands GCR or GFCR, see chapter 3.

The calculated results correspond to the Dirichlet boundary conditions of the first kind or to the Neumann boundary conditions of the second kind on a perfectly insulated boundary. In other words, the parts of boundary with no temperature specification are considered as insulated (note that the isotherms are perpendicular to the boundary in this case). In the following part we shall show how to include also boundary conditions of the third kind into the problem definition.

#### 2.2.1.2. Steady state temperature distribution, Newton's boundary condition

Newton's boundary conditions of the third kind (finite thermal resistance at boundary) are more complicated:

$$\lambda \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} = \alpha (T_e - T) \qquad (2.2.1-3)$$

First it is necessary to specify the part of boundary, where the heat transfer coefficient  $\alpha$  and ambient temperature  $T_e$  are to be prescribed: The nodes lying in this part of boundary are assigned with status from 21 to 50 (remind that the values of status from -10 to -1 denote strong boundary conditions, status =0 has a calculated parameter without any source or load, and status 1 to 10 characterise calculated parameters with a point source and the values of status higher than 20 indicate boundary conditions of the third kind). Thus the prescribed value of nodal parameter, having status higher than 20, does not represent neither temperature nor a point source, but the heat transfer coefficient value. Ambient temperature is an element parameter (see RCONST) and can be specified either by calling RCONST, or more simply by assignment the system vector TE(*i*), where *i* is index of group RCONST:

TE (1) = 200 
$$\checkmark$$
 Ambient temperature is assigned to elements having one or more sides on boundary, T<sub>e</sub>=200 <sup>o</sup>C.

Remark: It seems to be strange, that not only the ambient temperate  $T_e$  but also some heat transfer coefficient  $\alpha_{RC}$  appear as an RCONST parameter. However, this coefficient concerns the heat transfer at the element surface and not through the element boundary (see the heat flux  $q_2$  in the figure) – what is interesting now is the heat flux  $q_1$ .



<u>∟</u>>X\* 10

We shall specify the boundary condition of the third kind at the top of plate, which is the curve number 10.



Let us summarise:

At the part of boundary with no boundary conditions, perfect insulation is assumed, the part with prescribed status -10, -9, ..., -1 has prescribed temperatures (can be a function of x, y), the part with status 1, 2, ..., 20 is insulated but with point sources of heat, and finally the part with status of nodes 21, 22, ... is characterised by heat transfer across the boundary with the heat transfer coefficient specified as the nodal parameter TEMP at input. Looking forward: The heat transfer coefficient need not be a constant as soon as a function with the index 21, 22, ..., corresponding to the status of node, has been defined by FUNDEF or CURDEF (therefore the heat transfer coefficient can be a function of calculated temperatures). Very specific is treatment of the part of boundary with status 21, 22, ... at direct ohmic heating: In this case besides the heat transfer resistance, the part of boundary is considered also as an electric current resistance and therefore a line source of heat (this option is important when calculating effect of fouling layer to distribution of temperature as well as electrical field).

## 2.2.1.3.Transient temperatures, initial conditions defined by function

Transient temperature field is a solution of partial differential equation

$$\rho c_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \lambda \left( \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} \right). \tag{2.2.1-4}$$

There exists a parameter EGROUP S/T (steady/transient), determining algorithm applied in individual elements. Some elements can be therefore set to transient according to Eq.(4) and other to a steady solution according to Eq.(2)<sup>8</sup>. However, there is only one group of elements in this case and therefore we switch to transient using the command EGROUP. Initial condition must be defined as a function of coordinates XX,YY.



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> This can be important only in elements, which "react" much faster than others, an example is combination of materials with very different thermal capacities and conductivities (this option enables to overcome the "stiff problem").

## 2.2.1.4. Transient temperatures, boundary conditions defined by function

Boundary conditions as well as loads can be also functions of time. For example we shall show how to solve the problem when temperature at one quadrant of circle (curve number 3) oscillates with a constant frequency and amplitude:



Let us summarise:

Simple initial conditions are defined by using FUNDEF (simple expression of variables XX,YY), while the time dependent boundary conditions by FUNDEF (expression with variable TIME) or also by CURDEF (small table of points  $t_i$ , $y_i$ ). Looking forward: More complicated function, defined by a program or by large tables of experimental points, can be defined too, see the end of this chapter.

## 2.2.1.5.Non-linear problems, temperature dependent conductivity

The problem has been linear so far, and iterations were not necessary. Non-linearity can be caused by temperature dependence of boundary conditions or material properties, e.g. thermal conductivity  $\lambda$ .

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\lambda \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\lambda \frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right)$$
(2.2.1-5)

There is an index of a user defined function assigned to any material property and if such a function exists the material parameter (a constant) is multiplied by this function. Thus the material property can be defined as a function of temperature (TEMP), time (TIME), pressure (PRES), velocities (VX,VY,VZ), rate of strain (II) and others. In this example we shall substitute formerly constant thermal conductivity ( $\lambda$ =0.6 W/m/K) by the linear function of temperature  $\lambda$ =0.6 + 0.01 *T*.

EGROUP 1, PLANE2D, 0, 4, 0Reset attribute Static/Transient to static (0)FUNDEF 2, 0.6+0.01\*tempMaterial parameter Kx (=1.0) will be multiplied by function 2MPROP 1, PLANE2D, 1.0 (2) 4200, 0, 998, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0;5 iteration steps are sufficient (and result will be independent of specified time step DT=1).<br/>You can see (GRAPH) changes of contours due to nonlinearity.



#### 2.2.1.6.Internal heat sources

There are three possible ways how to define internal sources of heat: Volumetric heat source is calculated automatically if a voltage is applied and electrical conductivity is non-zero. Point sources of heat can be defined as loads in selected nodes (FND): if you define for example non-zero nodal parameter TEMP (e.g. 1.23) and positive status (within the range 1-10), the value 1.23 will not be a temperature, but intensity of heat source in the node (1.23 Watts). The third and the most frequent method is to prescribe the volumetric heat source Q (W/m<sup>3</sup>) as a function f(TIME,TEMP,XX,....) or by a table of values.

$$0 = \lambda \left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2}\right) + Q$$
(2.2.1-6)

Index of this function Q must be specified as an EGROUP parameter (heat source), see example

FUNDEF 10, 1E6\* (1-XX);  $Q = 10^{6}(1-x)$ EGROUP 1, PLANE2D, 0, 4, 0, 0, 10; Calculation of heat sources is suppressed as default. It must be switched on for example by using assignment



SOLVE .200E+05,1,.100E+05,0,0,0,1,0,0;

#### 2.2.1.7.Ohmic heating and fouling

OHMI=1, or using the command OPTION.

A special case of internal heat source is ohmic heating, where volumetric source depends upon intensity of electric field (intensity E is gradient of electric potential-voltage):

$$Q = \kappa \left[ \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial x} \right)^2 + \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial y} \right)^2 \right]$$
(2.2.1-7)

where  $\kappa$  [S/m] is specific electrical conductivity. Computation of temperature field has to be preceded by solution of differential equation describing electric field. This equation is a perfect analogy of Fourier equation with electric conductivity replacing thermal conductivity

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(\kappa\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(\kappa\frac{\partial U}{\partial y}\right) = 0.$$
(2.2.1-8)

However aim of this paragraph is something different: to explain the way how to describe the effect of a thin layer of deposits at surface to heat transfer and ohmic heating. This is a typical problem of fouling: gradually forming layer of deposits, for example minerals or denaturated proteins, represents additional thermal and electrical resistance at wall. Thickness of this layer *h* is a key parameter and its time growth is described in FEMINA by a rate equation dh/dt=f, where *f* is a user defined function of temperature, shear stress, concentrations,... Properties of this layer are characterised by 3 parameters: thickness *h*, temperature conductivity  $\lambda_f$  (system variable KXF(i)) and electrical conductivity  $\kappa_f$  (KAPPAF(i)) and these parameters enable to calculate additional thermal resistance of the fouling layer (*r*=*h*/ $\lambda_f$ ). More complicated is the case of ohmic heating, because then the fouling layer not only increases electric resistance but becomes additional line source of heat! FEMINA accounts for these effects by modification of Newton's boundary conditions for temperature and electric field. What is modified (automatically and only temporarily): external temperature (system variable TE(i)) and external voltage (UE(i)) as well as heat transfer coefficient and analogous electric current transfer coefficient.

It is obvious, that a lot of additional parameters have to be specified; it is possible to use commands MPROP, RCONST, EGROUP, but if only some parameters are to be changed the system variables assignment is more straightforward. The last approach will be used for the solution of case when outer perimeter is hold at zero temperature and voltage, while a part of the hole (curve 3) is an electrode with a layer of fouling (external voltage 220V, external heat transfer coefficient 100  $W/m^2/K$ , fouling layer of the thickness 0.01 m is generated by an auxiliary rate equation assuming a constant fouling rate):

C\* Rate of fouling defined by rate equation No.3

```
FUNDEF 3,A;
                                   List of variables, which is to be defined for ohmic heating with a layer of fouling:
A=1E-7
                                   RT – model of fouling defined by function 3 (dh/dt=A)
RT=3
                                   OHMI - flag activating inner sources calculation
OHMI=1
                                   KAPPA(1) – electric conductivity of media (in this case material of plate, group 1)
KAPPA(1) = 1
                                   KAPPAF(1) - electric conductivity [S/m] of fouling layer
KAPPAF(1) = 0.01
                                   TE(1) – external temperature [<sup>0</sup>C] for elements in group RCONST = 1
TE(1) = 0
                                   UE(1) – external voltage [V] for elements in group RCONST=1
UE(1)=220
                                   KX(1) – thermal conductivity [W/m/K] for elements in group MPROP=1
KX(1) = 0.6
                                   KXF(1)- thermal conductivity [W/m/K] of fouling layer
KXF(1) = 0.2
NFCR 5, TEMP, -1, 0, 0, 0;
NFCR 8, TEMP, -1, 0, 0, 0;
NFCR 10, TEMP, -1, 0, 0, 0;
NFCR 12, TEMP, -1, 0, 0, 0;
NFCR 5, VOLT, -1, 0, 0, 0;
NFCR 8, VOLT, -1, 0, 0, 0;
                                           Status of voltage and temperature is changed to 21 on curve 3 – it means
NFCR 10, VOLT, -1, 0, 0, 0;
                                           that at this part of boundary Newton's boundary conditions are
NFCR 12, VOLT, -1, 0, 0, 0;
                                           prescribed. Value of nodal parameter VOLT is reciprocal electric
NFCR 3, VOLT, 21, 1E10, 1E10, 1E10;
                                           resistence (10^{10} \text{ is a very high conductivity of metalic electrode}) and heat
NFCR 3, TEMP, 21, 100, 100, 100;
                                           transfer coefficient of parameter TEMP (100 - corresponds for example
INITIA TEMP,0;
                                           water cooled electrode)
TRANS (1) = 1
SOLVE 0,10,.100E+05,0,1,0,1,0,0,0,0;
```

## 2.2.1.8. How to calculate integral quantities (mean temperatures, heat flux,...)

An arbitrary function defined either by FUNDEF as an expression or by CURDEF as a table can be integrated along a curve (CR) or on a surface (SF) using commands IC (Integrate on Curve) or IS (Integrate on Surface)<sup>9</sup>. You can use a system function  $DOF(parameter_name, zone, x,y,z)$ , giving value of any selected nodal parameter DOF in an arbitrary point x,y,z as a part of the integrand definition. The command BOX should be issued before the function DOF calling because the BOX command creates the file \$RUNBOX.BIN defining correspondence between a general point x,y,z, and an element enclosing the point (this information is necessary for efficient interpolation of nodal parameters). We shall illustrate the procedure on example of calculation of the mean temperature on a selected surface.

BOX 0.3; FUNDEF 11, DOF (TEMP, 2, XX, YY, ZZ); FUNDEF 12,1; IS 1,11; S=INTEGRAL IS 1,12; DISP S/INTEGRAL BOX 0.3; Function number 12 as identity ( calculates integrate variable INTE

Function number 11 is defined as a temperate in a general point x,y,z, and function 12 as identity (we shall use it for calculation of area). The command IS 1,11 calculates integral of temperature across a surface number 1 and result is in variable INTEGRAL. We save the value into variable S and calculate area by repeated integration IS 1,12. Mean temperature is then S/INTEGRAL.

EXIT	End of FEMINA	

# 2.2.1.9. How to define more complicated functions

FUNDEF and CURDEF allow to define only simple functions. For example CURDEF enables to define a table with maximum of only 8 points. This restriction can be overcome easily by calling system function CVT(i,x), interpolating data in the i-th column of sufficiently large matrix of observation points, where the first column is independent variable x (e.g. time, temperature, coordinate,...). This approach will be explained in more details later in the RTD analysis.

In the case that a function cannot be defined as a single algebraic expression by FUNDEF, it is possible to define this function as a program in a script language used by FEMINA for interpreting commands or models. While the standard functions are referred by indices -10 up to 60 the extended functions are referred by indices -105, -104, -103, -102, -101 and 101, 102, 103, 104, 105 (negative indices for definition of Dirichlet boundary conditions, positive indices for Newton's boundary conditions, for variable material properties, or for more complicated initial conditions). The extended model definition is in fact identical with the description of models usually used for RTD models (see later) and the whole procedure will be explained on example: Functions, which we are going to use, must be written as a text into a file (for example with the name *func1.mdt*)

\\ini

if temp>100 then yv(1)=c+d\*temp+e\*temp\*\*2 else yv(1)=a+b\*tempyv(2)=f\*time\*exp(-g\*time)

This definition file has to be announced to FEMINA in the initialisation file \$FEMINA.CMD, where keywords (e.g. *F1*) are assigned to the model definition files (e.g. *func1.mdt*).

\\model *fl func1.mdt* 

The selected model must be activated using the command *RM keyword*, and for example *RM F1* reads and compiles the file *func1.mdt*. Since then two new functions having indices 101 and 102 (and at the

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> It is also possible to calculate integrals over selected finite elements using INTGEL DOF, function,... see example 2.2.1.12

same time -101, -102 for strong boundary conditions) are available and their values are elements YV(1) and YV(2) in the model definition file above.

The extended functions 101,...,105 or -101,...,-105, defined in terms of the \*.mdt script file, can be used whenever it is necessary to perform a more specific actions: for example if we need to prescribe boundary condition or a source at a node, and intensity of the source is to be calculated by integration of flowrate (element parameter). Example of a more complicated function, describing attenuation of radiation in a mixed vessel with internal baffles, will be presented later, in chapter 2.5. The extended functions can be also used as "hooks", called at the beginning of each time step of the FE solution – index of this function must be specified in the menu OPTION (in this case the script file makes use the variable I which informs us of the type of operation, I=1-voltage, I=2-flow, I=3-thermal, I=4,5,6-concentrations, I=7-stress analysis).

## 2.2.1.10. Advanced meshing

Meshing is a formation of elements and nodes (finite element entities) using information from a geometrical model. In the previous paragraphs and also in most of the following chapters the so called parametric meshing is used, based upon decomposition of complex geometrical model to simple forms, like surfaces with three or four sides (curves) or in the case of 3D into hexahedral "bricks". These simple elements are covered by a structured mesh of M x N elements. Parametric meshing results in a mesh which is quite under your control and you can draw a mesh approximately by hand or you can calculate the number of generated elements in advance. However, sometimes it is rather laborious to decompose a model into many small surfaces and volumes, and still, especially if you are working with parametrically defined geometry (for example if the radius and the position of the hole in rectangle is defined by variables), an optimum meshing need not be achived. In this case it is better to use automatic generators of triangular mesh, which fills a region defined by a contour. The contour is nothing else than the list of succesive curves, which is closed. The list of curves is created by the command CT *index of contour* and the counter-clockwise oriented list of curves is specified by mouse (left-click, right-click as usually).

The command MRG (Mesh ReGion) is capable to fill interior of only one region and therefore in the case of multiply connected regions you have to include inner boundaries into a one closed contour for example in the way shown in the following figure



Further on it is desirable to specify location of nodes along the contour, it means at curves defining this contour. This is done by the command

## CRN index of curve, number of nodes, last/first

with parameters having the same meaning as parameters of the command MSF used previously. The parameter *last/first* determines uniformity of distribution of nodes along the curve<sup>10</sup>



<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Values *last/first*=1 or -1 correspond to uniform distribution of nodes (equidistant nodes).

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The command CRN does not create nodes, it only assigns the specified parameters to selected curve and this information is used later by the command MRG

MRG index of contour, number of nodes, number of internal nodes, default number of nodes on curve, smoothing iterations, subdivision of triangles, attractivity of boundary nodes, size, near

The MRG command creates triagular elements with 3 or 6 nodes (this is a restriction with respect to the MSF command which enables generation of a more complicated elements). Parameters of MRG seems to be complicated, however in most cases default values can be accepted.

We shall demonstrate the whole procedure using previous geometry – rectangle with a hole.



## 2.2.1.11. Processing problem as a batch or by using macro

The whole rather long example is available also as the session file THOLE3.GEO which is a part of the installation package. You can run the session either as a batch (command F) or by using the command M (macro) step by step or continuously. Batch processing is necessary for solution of problems requiring repetition of commands in a loop, macro is better for interactive processing:



#### 2.2.1.12. Processing a batch with loops

This example demonstrates how to prepare a parametric model, how to repeat solution for different parameters using a loop, and how to store results. Suitable problem is evaluation of hydraulic characteristics of a duct with different cross-sections. Steady and fully developed flow of Newtonian liquid in such a duct is described by the following Poisson equation for axial velocity u(x,y)

$$\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} = -P \tag{2.2.1-9}$$

where P is an axial gradient of pressure along the duct, divided by viscosity. As soon as we are able to solve the distribution of velocity u(x,y) for an arbitrary P, we can calculate hydraulic characteristics, relationship between pressure gradient and mean velocity. This characteristic is usually expressed in terms of friction factor  $\lambda$  or f (Fanning friction factor), which is indirectly proportional to Reynolds number for laminar flows

$$\lambda = \frac{A}{\text{Re}}$$
(2.2.1-10)

where A is a constant, that depends only upon the shape of cross section (A=64 for circular crosssection of pipe, A=96 for very narrow slit). The following batch calculates A for L-profiles with different relative thickness of arms H/L=0.025, 0.05, ..., 0.975 solving temperature field which is also described by Eq.(9). This approach is an application of principle of analogy between temperature, electric of velocity fields. Value P (=1) corresponds to a constant heat source (function =1) and unit material properties (unit heat capacity, density and thermal conductivity).



```
MPROP 1, PLANE2D, 1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, .400E-01, 0, .210E+12, 0, .280E+00, 0, .120E-04,
SOLVE 0,1,1,0,0,0,1,0,0,0;
                                               Operation INTGEL integrates temperatures multiplied
INTGEL TEMP, 1, 1, NE, 1;
                                               by function number 1 (in this case it is identity) over all
C1(K)=H
                                               NE finite elements. Result is in the system variable
C2(K)=INTEGRAL
                                               INTEGRAL.
C3(K) = 2*(2*C1(K) - C1(K)*2)*3/C2(K)
H=H+.025
                                               Value A in Eq.(10) is placed into 3<sup>rd</sup> column of matrix
#LABEL LAB;
                                               of observation points with NT=39 rows. This final
NT=39
                                               result can be listed by TCL or plotted using GTC (see
GTC 1,3;
                                               the Figure above, parameters GTC 1,3 denote only one
                                               graph, and 3<sup>rd</sup> column).
```

Remark: In this example the integration over geometrical entities (over surfaces 1 and 2) was substituted by numerical integration over elements (command INTGEL instead of INTGSF). In this case it is not necessary to use the box operation (BOX) which speeds up computation substantially.

# 2.2.1.13. Debugging

A short notice at the end of this introductory example: How to debug a problem? What to do when your results are obviously wrong or even none? You should realise that the solution is described only by finite elements, nodes, EGROUP, RCONST, MPROP groups, by defined functions and by parameters of solver. Geometrical entities like points PT, curves CR and so on, are not important and need not be checked. Recommended procedure is as follows:

- 1. Check number of elements, nodes and groups looking at the status window.
- 2. Look at the LIST window (or to the \*.DBG file), where information about setting of switches (coordinate system, steady/transient, upwind, ...) and elements used in the problem are displayed.
- 3. Use commands ELIST, NDLIST, NFLIST to check elements and nodes. You should identify missing boundary conditions, coincident nodes or wrong number of nodes of specified kinds of elements (for example PIPE2D should have 2 nodes). Sometimes it is easier to use NID for checking boundary conditions (parameters in zone 1) and status of nodal parameters. In the same way EID can be used for checking elements and associated groups EGROUP, RCONST, MPROP.
- 4. Check functions using FUNLIS (RPN parameter, length of translated function, should be greater than zero for each function) or simply by GF (graph of function).
- 5. Problems with solution can be caused by improper setting of time step, maximum number of iterations, relaxation factor, number of Gauss points for numerical integration, wrong or missing material parameters (zero viscosity, thermal conductivity, diffusivity), parameters of elements (e.g. zero thickness of plate, zero diameter of tube). Use tables in menu *Properties* and *Solution* for checking.
- 6. Execute RUNFEM.EXE manually after exiting FEMINA program. In this way you can locate errors like division by zero, overflow,...
- Anyway, FEMINA is not free from errors. In doubts do not hesitate to send a message to the address Rudolf.Zitny@fs.cvut.cz.



## 2.2.2. Phase changes (melting/solidification)

Previous example analysed a steady or transient temperature field in a body (it was a solid block, however it could have been a flowing fluid as well) without phase changes. Analysis of freezing or melting is more complicated and several different methods can be used:

The simplest approach is based upon specification of temperature dependent specific heat capacity  $c_p(T)$  in the following way (the function is defined as a table using CURDEF command)



where peek of specific heat capacity

$$c_{pm} = \frac{r}{\Delta} + \frac{1}{2}(c_{p1} + c_{p2})$$

depends upon the latent heat r, selected width of the phase change temperature range  $\Delta$  and also upon specific heats of solid and liquid phases. This method cannot accurately describe an isothermal phase change, because the melting temperature range  $\Delta$  cannot be zero and in fact must be rather high or the time step must be extremely small.



- 0 this is the previously described method based upon temperature dependent  $c_p$
- 1 two nodal parameters, temperature T and specific enthalpy h, are computed simultaneously.

The following methods take into account only temperature as a computed nodal parameter, enthalpy is calculated internally at an element level and the methods differs by the way how the term dh/dT is approximated using the nodal temperatures and associated enthalpies

- 2 Lemmon's method
- 3,4 Lewis, Morgan

## 5 - Del Guidice.

As an example we shall solve a simple problem of thawing rectangular box of ice, having initial temperature  $T_0=-5^{0}$ C, left side is hold at temperature  $-5^{0}$ C and right side at temperature  $20^{0}$ C. Temperature of thawing is  $0^{0}$ C, latent heat of fusion *r* is 340 kJ/kg, specific heat of ice  $c_{p1}=2$  kJ/(kg.K), specific heat of water  $c_{p2}=4.2$  kJ/(kg.K), thermal conductivity of ice is  $\lambda_{1}=2.2$  W/(m.K) and thermal conductivity of water is  $\lambda=0.6$  W/(m.K). Density of ice is 917 kg/m<sup>3</sup> and density of water 1000 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. All these material parameters are defined as step-wise functions



Resulting temperature contours up to the time 4.4 millions of seconds (it means approximately 51 days) for method 2 (Lemmon) are shown in the following figure



Temperature profile along the bottom of the block at the last time shows, that the temperature profile at the thawed part is still nonlinear (and it seems to be suspicious because at this time the temperature profile should be steady and  $\lambda$  is a constant?)

Hint: For plotting temperature profiles in a cross section you can use a curve passing through nodes and plot selected degree of freedom by command GCR. If you want to plot it along an arbitrary curve (not passing through nodes), you should perform BOX operation first and plot an arbitrary function (e.g. FUNDEF 1,DOF(TEMP,2,XX,YY,ZZ)) by command GFCR.



## 2.2.3. Ohmic heating 3D

The following example is a 3D model of temperature and electrical field in an electrically heated block of solid material with dimensions  $8 \times 8 \text{ cm}$  (bottom) and height 10 cm. It is assumed that the block is filled by material having thermodynamic properties of water and that several rather big spherical particles with different material properties are located inside the block, see figure



The two opposite sides of block (left and right) represent cooled electrodes maintained at a constant temperature  $10^{0}$  C. The remaining sides are electrically insulated, however heat transfer to the ambient is considered, assuming constant ambient temperature and heat transfer coefficient  $\alpha$ =50 W/(m<sup>2</sup>K).

Problem is described by partial differential equations for steady state balances of heat and conservation of electrical charge

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\lambda \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\lambda \frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\lambda \frac{\partial T}{\partial z}\right) + \kappa(T) \left[\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial x}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial y}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial z}\right)^2\right]$$
(2.2.3-1)

$$0 = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\kappa \frac{\partial U}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\kappa \frac{\partial U}{\partial y}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(\kappa \frac{\partial U}{\partial z}\right), \qquad (2.2.3-2)$$

where  $\lambda$  and  $\kappa$  are thermal and electrical conductivities, *T* is temperature and *U* electric potential. While temperature as well as electrical potential are fixed at electrodes (*x*=0 and *x*=0.08 m), zero normal derivative of potential U and Robin's boundary conditions for temperature

$$\lambda \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} = -\alpha (T - T_e) \tag{2.2.3-3}$$

are to be applied at lateral faces of box.

Geometrical model is represented in this case by a hexahedron with 8 vertices which can be created directly from vertices (command VL8PT) or, as will be done in this case, by extrusion of a surface in a certain direction (command SFEXTR). To define elements with different properties of particles, several auxiliary points PT, defining centres of spheres (of particles) are located inside the box. These points and auxiliary surfaces (number 7,8,9) will be located in planes z=0.25, 0.5 and 0.75 (the surfaces have nothing to do with computation, they will be used for graphic purposes only).

```
PT 1,.000E+00,.000E+00;
PT 2,.800E-01,.000E+00;
PT 3,.800E-01,.800E-01;
PT 4,.000E+00,.800E-01;
SF4PT 1,1,2,3,4;
SFEXTR 1,1,0,0,.1;
```

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Having defined geometry, a mesh of 20 x 20 x 20 elements SOLID with 8 nodes can be created using MVL command. All the generated elements will have the attribute EGROUP=RCONST=MPROP=1 by default, however the index of material parameters should have been changed to MPROP=2 for elements having gravity centre inside the spheres with centres PT=9,10,... (MPROP=1 describes properties of liquid and MPROP=2 properties of spherical particles inside the box). This change can be accomplished by repeating use the command ERMOD (Egroup,Rconst,Mprop mODification).

```
MVL 1,20,20,20,1,1,1,8;
EGROUP 1, SOLID, 0, 2, 0, 1, 0;
MPROP 1, SOLID, .600E+00, 0, 4200, 0, 998, 0, .400E-01, 0, .100E-02, 0, .500E-03, 0, .100E-
08,0,0,0,0,0;
MPROP 2, SOLID, 1., 0, 2500, 0, 1500, 0, 0.15, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0;
ERMOD 0,9,.013,1,1,2;
ERMOD 0,10,.009,1,1,2;
                                  EGROUP specifies type of elements (SOLID), steady state solution (0) and
ERMOD 0,11,.006,1,1,2;
                                  number of Gauss points (2 x 2 x 2). Note: If only one Gauss point of integration
ERMOD 0,16,.015,1,1,2;
                                  is used, results exhibit slight oscillations.
ERMOD 0,17,.009,1,1,2;
                                  The command MPROP 1,... defines "liquid" while the command MPROP 2,...
ERMOD 0,18,.015,1,1,2;
                                  spherical "particles". Each particle is described by the command
ERMOD 0,23,.013,1,1,2;
                                  ERMOD Sphere(0)/Cube(1),center,radius,EGROUP,RCONST,MPROP.
ERMOD 0,24,.017,1,1,2;
ERMOD 0,25,.015,1,1,2;
```

3D graphic allows to rotate coordinate axis (x,y,z) by specified angles using the command VIEW 0,  $\varphi_x$ ,  $\varphi_y$ ,  $\varphi_z$ . It is also possible to select axonometric projection by specifying position of observer's eye using VIEW 1,  $x_{eye}$ ,  $y_{eye}$ ,  $z_{eye}$ . The command EPLOT for element plotting can be specified in such a way, that only the elements having index MPROP=2, e.g. elements inside "particles", will be plotted:



Boundary conditions are to be applied on the surface of cube. This is especially easy for electric potential, where strong boundary conditions are specified only on surfaces 4 and 6 (electrodes), while natural boundary conditions hold on the remaining sides (insulation). Boundary conditions of the third kind are applied on sides 1,2,3,5 for heat transfer, by setting status of nodes to 21. Then the specified nodal parameters are interpreted as the heat transfer coefficient  $\alpha$ . Ambient temperature is parameter of RCONST and can be set by assignment TE(*i*)=value, where *i* is index of the RCONST group.

```
TE(1)=100
NFSF 4,VOLT,-1,0,0,0,0;
NFSF 6,VOLT,-1,100,100,100,100;
NFSF 6,TEMP,-1,10,10,10,10;
NFSF 4,TEMP,-1,10,10,10,10;
NFSF 1,TEMP,21,50,50,50,50;
NFSF 2,TEMP,21,50,50,50,50;
NFSF 5,TEMP,21,50,50,50,50;
```

Calculation of internal heat source can be set either by command OPTION or by using system variable OHMI (volumetric heating by electric current). Because steady state and constant properties are considered, only one time step and one iteration is sufficient:

OHMI=1 SOLVE 100,1,100,0,1,0,1,0,0;

Command GFSF will be used for drawing contours of an interactively defined function on a selected surface. Because we need to plot nodal parameters TEMP and VOLT, we shall define functions number 1 and 2 as standard interpolating function DOF, calculating values of any nodal parameter in an arbitrary point x, y, z. This function DOF requires an auxiliary file, assigning finite elements to grid points, voxels, of a fine and uniform Cartesian grid (this file helps in fast search for element enclosing specified point x, y, z). This file is created by the command BOX.

#### BOX .5; FUNDEF 1,DOF(TEMP,2,XX,YY,ZZ); FUNDEF 2,DOF(VOLT,2,XX,YY,ZZ);



#### 2.2.4. Concentration of tracer in a pipe (stimulus response experiment)

In the same way as a temperature field, a concentration field  $c_N(t,x,y)$  can be calculated, because transport equations for temperature and concentration are in principle the same.

$$\frac{\partial c_N}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial c_N}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial c_N}{\partial r} = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (rD \frac{\partial c_N}{\partial r}) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (D \frac{\partial c_N}{\partial x})$$
(2.2.4-1)

If velocities u, v are known, it will be possible to predict responses to a tracer injection by solving transient concentration field  $c_N(t,x,r)$ . In the following example we shall consider seemingly trivial case: fully developed laminar flow in a straight pipe with velocity profile

$$u(r) = 2\overline{u}(1 - (\frac{2r}{d})^2)$$
(2.2.4-2)

where *r* is radial coordinate, *d* is diameter of tube, and  $\overline{u}$  is mean velocity. If a tracer will be injected at inlet uniformly, it's concentration will be a function of only two spatial coordinates *x*,*r* and the problem can be formulated as a 2D case, using the same elements PLANE2D as previously.



## 2.2.4.1. Two dimensional solution of tracer distribution by Galerkin method

The problem can be described and solved by the following program INTEGER NX, NY H=1R=0.01 User variables are used for parametric definition of geometry, mesh and U=0.1 boundary conditions: H-length of pipe, R-radius, U-mean velocity, W-W=3\*H/U maximum time, L-number of time steps, NX x NY mesh. NX=50NY=30L = 400Operation BOX is something new. This operation is necessary if we want interpolate calculated nodal PT 1,0,0; values (concentrations CN) to any point x,y,z. This operation creates direct access file assigning PT 2,H,0; corresponding element to any grid point of a rectangular box enclosing a geometric model. PT 3, H, R; PT 4,0,R; SF4PT 1,1,2,3,4; MSF 1,NX,NY,1,.5,3; Three functions are defined: function no.1 is radial BOX 0.3; velocity profile, function no.2 is used for calculation FUNDEF 1,2\*U\*(1-(YY/R)\*\*2); of mean mass concentration and function 3 will be FUNDEF 2, YY\*U\* (1-(YY/R) \*\*2) \*DOF(CN, 3, H, YY, 0) used for calculations of area mean concentration. FUNDEF 3,YY\*DOF(CN, 3, H, YY, 0) Because the command BOX has been performed, it is INITIA VX,1; possible to use the system function EGROUP sets transient solution, INITIA VY,0; DOF(*param,zone,x,y,z*) interpolating nodal values of 3 Gauss points, and cylindrical AXIS(1) = 1*param* to a point *x*,*y*,*z*. Zone=3 indicates the zone of K coordinate system for PLANE2D. UPW=1 initial conditions. EGROUP 1, PLANE2D, 1, 3, 1, 0, 0; CURDEF -1,0,4,0,0,W/L,1,2\*W/L,1,3\*W/L,0,W,0; Time course of tracer concentration at inlet is defined NFCR 4, CN, -1, 1, 1; in form of a table as the function -1. NFCR uses this INITIA CN,0; function at inlet (inlet is the curve no 4). SOLVE 0, L, W/L, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0;

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#### 2.2.4.2. How to evaluate response (mean concentration of tracer at outlet)

The calculated time history of concentration is saved in the file *problem*.OUT. Responses should have been in fact integrals of concentrations across the cross-section of pipe and these integrals can be calculated using the command IC (integral on CR) repeatedly at selected time steps. These time steps need not be necessary the same as those used in solution of transient problem, because the operation LTN *time* interpolates reloaded values from the file OUT to an arbitrary specified time. Result of integration must be transferred to the so called matrix of observation points (MOP), so that it would be possible to normalise and plot these time responses, to calculate moments and so on. Ten columns of MOP are accessible using system vectors C1(i), C2(i), ..., C10(i) and we shall use the first column C1(i) for time, the second and the third columns for responses  $c_2$  and  $c_3$ 

$$\bar{c}_{2}(t) = \int_{0}^{d/2} ru(r)c(L,r,t)dr \qquad \bar{c}_{3}(t) = \int_{0}^{d/2} rc(L,r,t)dr. \qquad (2.2.4-3.4)$$

You can see, that the integrands of  $c_2$  and  $c_3$  have been yet defined as functions 2 and 3, respectively. Because the integration must be carried out at several tenths of time step, it would be very inefficient to repeat the operation manually. This is just the case, when it is better to use a batch file with #LOOP command:



After the batch has been processed (F GTIME) it is possible to normalise responses (NORM), plot them (GTC), and calculate moments (MOM):



Results show, that the responses depend strongly upon the diffusion coefficient. If it is small (of the order  $10^{-8}$  or less, typical values for liquids), problem with numerical dispersion appears, because Peclet number of element is extremely high (of the order  $10^5$  !) and solution exhibits slight deficiencies at axis, no matter that the full upwind has been applied. Even at D= $10^{-6}$  the Peclet number is still rather high, however the solution is smoother and quite different (radial diffusion starts to be significant), which is apparent from the quite different time responses (it is remarkable that the evaluated mean residence times more or less agree with the theoretical value 10.1 s).

#### 2.2.4.3. Comparison with 1D solution – axial dispersion model

In the following chapters we shall demonstrate applications of simple 1D elements PIPE2D based upon the model of axial dispersion, with the dispersion coefficient  $D_e$  calculated according to the Taylor (1953), Aris (1958) theory

$$\frac{\partial \overline{c}_N}{\partial t} + \overline{u} \frac{\partial \overline{c}_N}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( D_e \frac{\partial \overline{c}_N}{\partial x} \right), \qquad D_e = \frac{R^2 \overline{u}^2}{48D} \quad (R-\text{radius}) \qquad (2.2.4-5,6)$$

derived for laminar and Newtonian flow (it means for the same parabolic velocity profile as in the 2D case). This model is quite good if the diffusion coefficient *D* is at least ten times larger than the ratio of volumetric flow-rate and the length of pipe. This restriction holds e.g. for  $D=10^{-5}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s and corresponding results are shown in the figure left together with responses calculated from 2D models. It seems that in this case the simple 1D model of axial dispersion using only 30 elements is more accurate and insensitive to numerical dispersion than the 2D model with 3000 elements. The figure in right looks different: Diffusion coefficient is ten times lower (but still about 3 orders greater than a typical value for liquids) and the model of axial dispersion is not able to describe the impulse response correctly, because convection dominates in the tracer transport.



What is apparent: Responses calculated from the 2D model are distorted by numerical diffusion, because results obtained using the same mesh and the same time step, but once with and once without upwind, differ considerably and it is obvious that the upwind increases the response variances .

## 2.2.4.4. Two dimensional solution using method of characteristics

An attempt how to decrease the numerical dispersion is the method of characteristics. This method decomposes the time step  $\Delta t$  into two phases. The first purely convective phase calculates trajectories starting from nodes at time  $t + \Delta t$  and ending at time t somewhere (these trajectories are characteristics of transport equation, along which the concentration remains constant). The trajectories

are calculated from velocity field by numerical integration with a finer time step  $\Delta t/M$ . If the trajectory ends inside an element, the concentration at time *t* is obtained by interpolating nodal values, otherwise it had to cross the boundary somewhere at inlet. Then the time of crossing is estimated and initial concentration is calculated from specified boundary condition at the nearest boundary node. The second phase of time step is pure diffusion, solved by a classical Galerkin method with zero velocities.



This result obtained by the method of characteristics seems promising, because responses calculated with a coarser mesh and a higher time step compare well with the previous result.

Comparison between method of characteristics, Galerkin and Galerkin Petrov methods is shown in the following figure, calculated with the same mesh (30 x 30) and the same time step. Diffusion coefficient corresponds to liquids, and therefore is much lower,  $D=10^{-9}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s.



The theoretical impulse response, given by the expression, see Thýn (2000),

$$E(t) = \frac{1}{2(t/\bar{t})^3}$$
 for  $t > \bar{t}/2$  (2.2.4-7)

describes pure convection, and can be used as a reference response. It is obvious, that in this case the method of characteristics is superior, however it is not fool proof, sometimes fails and therefore the method is still under development.

Note: If you want to plot several responses in one graph (GTC), use the command TCF for copying columns in matrix of observation points, and for creation responses defined by an analytical formula, e.g. the command TCFR 10,60,c3=1/c1\*\*3 defines values in the third column and in the rows 10,11,...,60 as a function  $1/t^3$ .

Note: You can use system variables for selection of solution methods, e.g. HEPI=3 selects method of characteristics (solution method=3), RUPW=0.5 sets Galerkin Petrov method with optimum upwind reduced by coefficient 0.5. The same effect can be accomplished by using the OPTION command or its dialog equivalent selected from the toolbar *Solution* and item *Option* :


# 2.2.5. Laminar flow (stream function)

FEMINA offers several methods for solution of two-dimensional flow field, i.e. for finding velocities and pressures of an incompressible liquid in laminar flow regime. One group of the methods (CREE, PSIN, CARE) is based upon the flow description by the stream function  $\psi$  and this approach has the advantage that the continuity equation is automatically satisfied. This is a direct consequence of the stream function definition which is tied together with velocity components by the following relations:



CREE method calculates steady-state creeping flow of Newtonian or even non-Newtonian liquids by minimizing dissipation of energy *F*, expressed in terms of stream function  $\psi$ , ( $\delta F(\psi)=0$ ),

CREE 
$$F(\psi) = \iint_{x,y} 2\mu(\vec{\Delta}:\vec{\Delta}) dx dy = \iint_{x,y} \mu[4(\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x \partial y})^2 + (\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} - \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2})] dx dy.$$
(2.2.5-5)

Only the degrees of freedom PS, PSX, PSY - values of the stream function and its first derivatives, are used in the solution, while velocities VX, VY are derived from  $\psi$  afterwards. If viscosity  $\mu$  is constant no iteration is necessary because the creeping flow is described by *linear* Stokes equation and therefore the CREE method is suitable as an initial approximation for higher Reynolds number flows solved by the method PSIN. The method PSIN is derived from Navier Stokes equations with eliminated pressure terms (shortly: momentum equation in the direction x is differentiated with respect y and subtracted from the y-equation differentiated with respect x; thus the pressure are cancelled). Remaining velocity terms in resulting equation are expressed in terms of stream function  $\psi$ :

PSIN 
$$\rho \frac{D}{Dt} \nabla^2 \psi = \mu \nabla^4 \psi. \qquad (2.2.5-6)$$

The method PSIN makes use the same degrees of freedom and the same boundary conditions as CREE, but calculates unsteady solution and the influence of inertial terms is considered (it is suitable for Re only slightly greater than 0, because "upwind" is not implemented, see later). CREE and PSIN methods are implemented for triangular elements with three nodes only<sup>11</sup> – this restriction does not apply to the CARE method which solves the stream function  $\psi$  and the vorticity  $\omega$  simultaneously, and makes use of simpler base functions (therefore quadrilateral elements can be also used). The CARE method follows from the formulation (2.2.5-6) by introducing vorticity  $\omega$ 

CARE 
$$\omega = \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial x} = \nabla^2 \psi$$
  $\rho \frac{D\omega}{Dt} = \mu \nabla^2 \omega$  (2.2.5-7)

The  $\psi$ - $\omega$  method is suitable even for higher values of Reynolds numbers due to implementation of Galerkin-Petrov upwind method.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> At least cubic polynomials having continuous first derivatives at nodes must be used for approximation of  $\psi(x,y)$  because also second derivatives (and not only first derivatives) appear in integrands of both the CREE and PSIN method.

#### 2.2.5.1. Steady laminar flow in a planar channel (CREE and PSIN)

As an example of the described methods the analysis of laminar flow in a planar channel with geometry shown in the following figure will be presented (Cartesian coordinate system, the channel is symmetrical with respect to x – axis and dimensions are designed for Reynolds numbers of around 100)



When using the stream function, values of  $\psi$  and their first derivations at the inlet section must be specified. We will assume a fully developed parabolic velocity profile at the inlet

$$u_x(y) = \frac{3}{2}\overline{u}_x[1 - (\frac{2y}{H})^2], \qquad \psi(y) = \frac{3}{2}\overline{u}[y - \frac{y^3}{3}(\frac{2}{H})^2]. \qquad (2.2.5-8.9)$$

The mean velocity at the inlet section is taken as 0.00025 m/s, and the corresponding mean velocity in the expanded outlet section is 0.00005 m/s (H<sub>inlet</sub>=0.2 m, H<sub>outlet</sub>=1 m). Hydraulic diameter D<sub>e</sub> measured at the outlet is double of the channel width, i.e. 2m. If water is used as a model liquid (viscosity 1 mPa.s), the Reynolds number at the outlet section will be Re<sub>outlet</sub>=100 which is the same as Re<sub>inlet</sub>=100 at the inlet section (product of the mean velocity and diameter is constant in a planar channel). We estimate the channel length so that the model region would contain the velocity profile evolution behind the expansion according to relation

$$\frac{L}{D_a} = 0.05 \,\mathrm{Re}$$

```
C* Opening test date:22.04.03 at 08:53
ANALYS 2;
SCALE -.500E-02,12,-.500E-02,.6;
PT 1,.000E+00,.000E+00;
PT 2,.000E+00,.100E+00;
PT 3,.100E+01,.100E+00;
PT 4,.100E+01,.000E+00;
PT 5,1.100E+01,.000E+00;
PT 6,1.100E+01,.100E+00;
PT 7,1.100E+01,.500E+00;
PT 8,.100E+01,.500E+00;
SF4PT 1,1,4,3,2;
SF4PT 2,4,5,6,3;
SF4PT 3,3,6,7,8;
EGROUP 1, FLOW2D, 0, 7, 0, CREE, 0;
MSF 1,3,5,1,1,3;
```

$$(2.2.5-10)$$

**NEW!** You can define inlet velocity profiles (parabolic, logarithmic, uniform) also using the command INLET

Elements FLOW2D. The CREE method is selected (creeping flow) and used for calculation initial conditions: only one iteration is needed in this case (if the viscosity and density are constant).



OPTION 0,0,0,1,0,15,.100E-11,.1,.100E+08,1,.100E-04,.100E-04,0,20,0,0,0;

The method PSIN solves the unsteady Navier-Stokes equation (the parameter *Steady/Transient* of the EGROUP command is ignored, the type of solution is always *Transient* if the method PSIN is selected). It is necessary to specify the time step and number of iterations even if the aim is a steady-state solution. A rough estimate about the time scale can be obtained from the ratio of the channel length (L=10 m) and the mean velocity (0.00005 m/s), i.e. 200000 s. The time step is chosen 20 times lower, i.e. 10000 s.

SOLVE 10,3,10000,0,0,20,0,0,0;

Note: The main problem in solution of the Navier-Stokes equation is a convergence which can be influenced primarily by the time step and eventually by the underrelaxation factor (see command RELFAKT=0.3). The final solution is usually obtained through a repeated sequence of computations with different time steps. The essential thing is that the procedure SOLVE updates initial conditions in every time step, so the repetition of the SOLVE command continues the results of the previous time step. If we like to repeat the whole computation from the beginning, we would have to overwrite the initial conditions explicitly (e.g. by the INI command or, in this case, by the solution of steady-state problem using the method CREE for creeping flow).

SOLVE .300E+05,3,.100E+05,2,0,20,0,0,0; VISC(1)=VISC(1)/2 Method PSIN for Re = 100. Streamlines  $\psi$ >0.000025 mark off recirculation zones.



2.2.5.2. Heat and mass transfer in planar channel (upwind)

Because the velocity field is already known, it is possible to solve the temperature field in the same way as in the previous paragraph (i.e. arbitrary boundary conditions and time and temperature dependencies of parameters can be specified, etc.). We will consider a simple case when the temperature of the inlet liquid is  $100 \, {}^{0}$ C, and each wall except the upper extended part of the channel is thermally insulated (temperature of the upper wall is  $20 \, {}^{0}$ C). We change the parameter EGROUP to the steady-state solution (thus the steady-state solution of a temperature field can be obtained in only one "time" step) and we shall try to compare two variants of the solution, one without the upwind modification ("pure" Galerkin method) and the other with upwind (Galerkin-Petrov). The upwind method is to be used when solution stability problems arise at high values of Péclet numbers in the element, i.e. at high flow velocities and a coarse grid of finite elements. The disadvantage is of course a numerical diffusion (in our case it is rather a numerical thermal diffusivity) and consequently inaccurate results. This modification together with other operational parameters can be set by the OPTION command (it is also sufficient to write UPW=1, the variable UPW means "upwind"):

```
NFCR 4,TEMP,-1,100,100;

NFCR 9,TEMP,-1,20,20;

EGROUP 1,FLOW2D,0,7,0,6,0;

SOLVE .463E+06,1,2000,2,0,0,2,0,0;

OPTION 0,0,0,0,15,.100E-11,.100E+00,.100E+08,1,.100E-04,.100E-04,0,0,2,0,0;

SOLVE .465E+06,1,2000,2,0,0,2,0,0;
```



It is evident that the temperature profile is not fully developed and the effect of the recirculation zone is self-evident. The results also show that the upwind modification is not required at all. It is surprising because the Péclet number of the element is very high (more than 100 near the channel axis).

When the direct ohmic heating is to be solved, the electric potential field must be calculated first. We shall assume that electrodes are formed by the opposite walls of the channel and the potential difference is 220 V. The potential anti-symmetry will be used to specify boundary conditions: potential is set to zero in the centre (y=0), and 110 V at electrode (at the upper wall):

```
NFCR 9,VOLT,-1,110,110;
NFCR 1,VOLT,-1,0,0;
NFCR 5,VOLT,-1,0,0;
SOLVE .467E+06,1,2000,2,1,0,1,0,0;
```

Using the calculated electric potential field, the temperature field corresponding to direct ohmic heating of transported liquid will be computed. First, a parameter which ensures calculation of volumetric heat sources must be set using the OPTION command (or by assignment OHMI=1)

OPTION 0,0,1,1,0,15,.100E-11,.100E+00,.100E+08,1,.100E-04,.100E-04,1,0,1,0,0; SOLVE .469E+06,1,2000,2,1,0,1,0,0;



Knowing the flow field, mass transport problems can be solved, for example concentration responses to a tracer, injected instantaneously into the inlet section. The injection is modelled by prescribing a time dependency of the tracer concentration  $c_N$  at each node of the inlet section with the following table (this table stands for the function number -5 applied on the curve number 4 - it is just the inlet section)

```
CURDEF -5,0,5,0,0,1000,1,5000,1,6000,0,1000000,0;
NFCR 4,CN,-5,1,1;
EGROUP 1,FLOW2D,1,7,0,6,0;
SOLVE 0,30,2000,0,0,0,0,1,0;
```





The figure on the left shows the tracer concentration field at time 60000 s. If the liquid was moving at constant velocity along the whole channel axis (0.000075 m/s in the extended part<sup>12</sup>) the tracer should reach the distance 5.3 m. However it is clear that the mass centre of the tracer goes further – approximately 7 m. It can be caused (and with no doubt it is) by the cross-section contraction behind the step, but uncertainties are evoked by the concentration field which is evidently distorted by the numerical diffusion (diffusion coefficient  $D_N=10^{-9}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s and the corresponding penetration depth for time 60000 s is approximately only 1.5 cm!).

#### 2.2.5.3. Transient laminar flow over obstacle in a channel

Precceeding example has been aimed to the steady state flow analysis even if the solution was obtained by a transient method (the method PSIN can not solve the steady state directly). However, sometimes a steady state does not exist at all, for example in the so called Karman vortex street formed by periodically detached vortices behind an obstacle in flow. We shall try to use the method PSIN for evaluation of transversal flow around a cylinder in a planar channel as an example. We shall assume fully developed parabolic velocity profile at the channel inlet



$$u(y) = \frac{6\overline{u}y}{H}(1 - \frac{y}{H}) \qquad \qquad \psi(y) = \frac{\overline{u}y^2}{H}(3 - 2\frac{y}{H}). \qquad (2.2.5 - 11, 12)$$

At the cylinder surface a constant value of stream function, corresponding to symmetric distribution of flow, is assumed. This assumption is not quite correct and generally speaking the methods, operating with stream functions, are not very suitable for modelling of flow around obstacles because values of stream function at the obstacle surface are not known in advance. The value  $\psi$  at the surface should not

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Results correspond to Re=100, mean velocity at inlet 0.00025 m/s and mean velocity in expanded part of channel 0.00005 m/s. Assuming fully developed parabolic velocity profile, the maximum velocity at axis is 1.5 times the mean velocity (it is a slit and not a pipe!), that is the stabilised velocity at axis equals 0.000075 m/s.

be fixed by a strong boundary condition and its constant value should follow from the condition that the both first derivatives of stream function are zero. However tests which have been performed by FEMINA shown that it does not work – maybe due to unsuitable formulation of problem (see theoretical part) and improper natural boundary conditions for stream function.



These results (see the session file *fkarman.geo*) correponds to Re=320 (related to the hydraulic diameter of channel) and do not describe generation and detachment of isolated vortices, only a periodical oscilation of flow behind cylinder at frequency around 50000 s. Corresponding value of Strouhal number is

$$S = \frac{D}{\overline{u}T} = \frac{0.14}{0.0002 \cdot 50000} = 0.014 \qquad (2.2.5-13)$$

### 2.2.5.4. Campion Renson method (stream function and vorticity)

In this paragraph we shall illustrate the method, suggested by Campion-Renson and this is why it is called CARE in FEMINA. This method solves a pair of partial differential equations of the second order for stream function  $\psi$ , and vorticity  $\omega$ , and these equations substitute the biharmonic equation of the fourth order for the stream function. Therefore much simpler base functions may be used in the CARE on contrary to the PSIN method, and any kind of elements, i.e. not only 3-nodal triangles, can be used. The only difference from point of view of user are boundary conditions, which have to be prescribed for stream function at inlet, axis and wall, while for vorticity only at inlet and at axis - not at the wall! This is because the boundary conditions for normal derivative of the stream function at wall are replaced by *natural* boundary conditions for vorticity. Boundary conditions at inlet and axis must be derived from the vorticity definition

$$\omega = \frac{\partial u_x}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial u_y}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2}$$
(2.2.5-14)







#### 2.2.6. Navier Stokes equations in primitive variables, velocities and pressure

The methods UVP,UVPP,PENS calculating velocities and pressure (so called primitive variables) directly, are more frequently used than the stream function methods, because they can be easily extended to 3D. FEMINA implements the methods in Cartesian or cylindrical 2D coordinate system.

UVP: 
$$\rho \frac{D\vec{u}}{Dt} = -\nabla p + \nabla \cdot \mu \nabla \vec{u} + \rho \vec{g} (1 - \beta T), \qquad \nabla \cdot \vec{u} = 0$$
 (2.2.6-1)

Dū

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\text{UVPP:} & \rho \frac{1}{Dt} = -\nabla p + \nabla \cdot \mu \nabla u + \rho g (1 - \beta I), & \nabla \cdot u = -\frac{1}{\lambda} \frac{1}{\partial t} \\
\text{PENS:} & \rho \frac{D \vec{u}}{Dt} = \lambda \nabla (\nabla \cdot \vec{u}) + \nabla \cdot \mu \nabla \vec{u} + \rho \vec{g} (1 - \beta T) \\
\end{array}$$
(2.2.6-2)
$$(2.2.6-3)$$

 $1 \partial p$ 

Remarks: All the methods consider buoyancy term, with  $\beta$  - coefficient of thermal volumetric expansion. UVPP is pseudocompressibility method approximating continuity equation  $\nabla \cdot \vec{u} = 0$  by Eq. (2) with very high value of user defined parameter  $\lambda$ . In principle the same parameter is used in the penalty method PENS for elimination of pressure from Navier Stokes equations.

All these methods are implemented for triangular elements with 6 nodes (velocities, approximated by quadratic functions, are identified by 6 nodes, vertices and midpoints of sides, while pressures, approximated only by linear polynomials are defined by 3 nodes in the triangular element vertices). Another option represents triangular elements with 3 nodes for linear approximation of velocities and one internal node for discontinuous pressure. The 3 nodes, allocated for velocities, can be either vertices (seems to be natural, but in fact not a very good idea) or midpoints of sides (much better elements). In a similar way quadrilateral finite elements with 5, 8 or 9 nodes are designed. All the methods make use upwind for improvement of convergence at higher Reynolds number flows.

#### 2.2.6.1.Planar channel – UVP and UVPP method

The same problem, which has been solved in the preceding chapter, i.e. flow in symmetric planar channel with sudden expansion, will be used as an example of solution. Geometry and boundary conditions (parabolic velocity profile at inlet, Re=100) as well as number of triangular elements will be preserved.



FEM3AI2.DOC Last update 21.3.2005

ANALYS 1;	FUNDEF -4,0.000375*(1-100*YY**2);
SCALE500E-02,12,500E-02,.6;	FUNDEF -3,0.75E-4*(1-(YY/.5)**2);
PT 1,.000E+00,.000E+00;	NFCR 4, VX, -4, 1, 1;
PT 2,.000E+00,.100E+00;	NFCR 4, VY, -1, 0, 0;
PT 3,.100E+01,.100E+00;	NFCR 1, VY, -1, 0, 0;
PT 4,.100E+01,.000E+00;	NFCR 5,VY,-1,0,0;
PT 5,1.100E+01,.000E+00;	NFCR 3, VY, -1, 0, 0;
PT 6,1.100E+01,.100E+00;	NFCR 10, VY, -1, 0, 0;
PT 7,1.100E+01,.500E+00;	NFCR 9,VY,-1,0,0;
PT 8,.100E+01,.500E+00;	NFCR 3,VX,-1,0,0;
SF4PT 1,1,4,3,2;	NFCR 10,VX,-1,0,0;
SF4PT 2,4,5,6,3;	NFCR 9,VX,-1,0,0;
SF4PT 3,3,6,7,8;	NFCR 8,VX,-3,1,1;
EGROUP 1,FLOW2D,0,7,0,UVP,0;	tol=tol*5
MSF 1,3,5,1,1,6;	NFCR 6,VX,-3,1,1;
MSF 2,30,5,1.5,1,6;	NFCR 6,VX,-3,1,1;
MSF 3,30,20,1.5,-1.5,6;	NFCR 6, VY, -1, 0, 0;
NMERGE ;	

Note: There is no strong boundary condition for pressures!

Note: Boundary conditions for velocities VX and VY were prescribed by commands NFCR. The command looks for nodes having distance from a selected curve less than TOL, where boundary conditions are applied (there is no direct connectivity between nodes and curves). Some nodes on the curve could be sometimes skipped due to round off errors and then the tolerance TOL should be enlarged (see the command TOL=5\*TOL). However, the fact, that there is no connectivity between nodes and curves, can be utilised for definition of auxiliary curves and for plotting graphs based upon nodes being near the curves (graphs in arbitrary cross sections) using GCR command.

```
      OPTION 0,0,0,1,0,15,.100E-11,1,.100E+08,1,.100E-04,.100E-04,0,3,0,0,0;

      SOLVE .604E+06,20,.300E+05,0,0,3,0,0,0;

      PT 9,2.1074,0;

      PT 10,2.1074,.5;

      CR2PT 11,9,10;

      GCR 11
```



When using UVP and UVPP methods it is possible to select several different elements, and it is sufficient to change only the parameter in the MSF command. Available options are



The following figure corresponds to results obtained by using triangular elements with mid side nodes (3 velocities and constant pressure inside element):



### 2.2.6.2. Planar channel – penalty method PENS

The penalty method PENS differs substantially from the previous methods UVP and UVPP. First of all by the fact that pressure is not a calculated nodal parameter and therefore any elements with arbitrary number of nodes can be used. The principle of the penalty method is as follows: The pressure is assumed to be proportional to the divergence of velocities (residuum of continuity equation), and this divergence, multiplied by a penalty factor  $\lambda$ , is substituted into the Navier Stokes equations instead of pressure. Thus the pressure is eliminated from the equations solved. A cost of this simplification is considerable – results depend upon value of penalty factor  $\lambda$  - if it is too small the continuity equation will be violated and if it is too large the Navier Stokes equations reduce in fact to the continuity equation having no unique solution. This is illustrated by results calculated for different values of  $\lambda$ from zero up to 10<sup>8</sup> (in all cases 6-node elements, upwind and natural boundary conditions at outlet have been used,)





## 2.2.6.3. Y channel - comparison of elements

In this example we compare behaviour of different trinagular and quadrilateral elements when using UVP method. The problem is formulated as laminar flow in a branched duct (planar channels are considered). A uniform velocity profile is prescribed at inlet  $v_x=1.25$  m/s, channel width is 0.8 m (therefore the theoretical flowrate is 1 m<sup>3</sup>/s, for unit depth of channel). For viscosity 10 Pa.s and density 1000 kg/m<sup>3</sup>, the Reynolds number at inlet is 200.



Solution based upon UVP method is described by the following session file, which allows interactive specification of mesh, elements (in terms of number of nodes) and number of Gauss integration points.

C* FYPSIL.GEO	MSF 1,M,N,1,1,J,I;
ANALYS 2;	MSF 2,K,N,3,1,J,I;
FUNDEF 1, DOF (VX, 2, XX, YY, ZZ)	MSF 3,M,N,1,1,J,I;
VALUE M	MSF 4,K,N,3,1,J,I;
VALUE N	CR2PT 14,1,8;
VALUE K	NMERGE ;
PT 1,.100E+00,.100E+00;	NFCR 14,VX,-1,1.25,1.25,1.25;
PT 2,.800E+00,.100E+00;	NFCR 14, VY, -1, 0, 0, 0;
PT 3,.500E+01,.000E+00;	NFCR 1,VX,-1,0,0,0;
PT 4,.100E+00,.500E+00;	NFCR 1,VY,-1,0,0,0;
PT 5,.800E+00,.400E+00;	NFCR 5,VY,-1,0,0,0;
PT 6,.500E+01,.300E+00;	NFCR 5,VX,-1,0,0,0;
PT 7,.500E+01,.600E+00;	NFCR 7,VX,-1,0,0,0;
PT 8,.100E+00,.900E+00;	NFCR 7,VY,-1,0,0,0;
PT 9,.800E+00,.900E+00;	NFCR 11, VY, -1, 0, 0, 0;
PT 10,.500E+01,.100E+01;	NFCR 11,VX,-1,0,0,0;
SF4PT 1,1,2,5,4;	NFCR 13,VX,-1,0,0,0;
SF4PT 2,2,3,6,5;	NFCR 13, VY, -1, 0, 0, 0;
SF4PT 3,4,5,9,8;	NFCR 9,VY,-1,0,0,0;
SF4PT 4,5,7,10,9;	NFCR 9,VX,-1,0,0,0;
C* Gauss points	VISC(1)=10
VALUE G	BOX 0.3;
EGROUP 1, FLOW2D, 0, G, 0, UVP, 0;	SOLVE 0,2,20,0,0,10,0,0,0,0;
C* Kind of elements J (outer), I (inner)	INTGCR 12,1;
VALUE J	INTGCR 6,1;
VALUE I	INTGCR 14,1;

Results shown in the following table look similar, flowrates (V1,V2 at outlet, Vin at inlet) indicate that the continuity equation is satisfied, however the calculated powers P differ substantially.

UVP	T6+T3 3 Gauss p.	T3+1 3 Gauss p.	Q4+1 4x4 Gauss.p.	Q9+Q4 4x4 Gauss p.
Grid 15, 15, 30	Criteratury 15 Criteratury 15		C (c) raiding 1 (d) (c) raiding 1 (d) (c) (c) (d) (c) (c) (c) (d) (c) (c) (c) (c) (c) (c) (c) (c) (c) (c	Crick radius " 10 Crick radius
<b>V</b> 1	0.693	0.621	0.668	0.736
V2	0.293	0.267	0.279	0.290
Vin	0.982 (2.365 : 1)	0.963 (2.326:1)	0.949 (2.394 : 1)	1.020 (2.538:1)
P [W]	4756	4186	4422	6183

## 2.2.7. Pipeline networks

The FEMINA program calculates pressure and flow rate distribution in a pipeline network using two-node elements PIPE2D, PUMP, CSTR (continuously stirred tank reactor) and four node elements HEXC (heat exchangers). The laminar and turbulent flow regimes together with buoyancy effects are considered, and the solution can include even rheologically more complicated liquids (only the dynamics of compressible fluids – hydraulic shocks cannot be solved). Besides the hydraulics, the distribution of temperatures and tracer concentration in liquid can be calculated at steady and unsteady state. Not only the straight pipe sections but also heat exchangers, ideal mixers or devices with user-defined hydraulic characteristics can be used (e.g. pumps, elbows, valves). On the basis of the computed pressures and temperatures, structural analysis and stresses evaluation can be carried out.

The basic element used for modelling pipelines is PIPE2D. The pipe need not have a circular cross section and only a part of its surface transfers a heat generally. And this is the role of RCONST parameters to complete description of geometry as well as some boundary conditions



AREA – cross section (mean velocity is calculated as flowrate/AREA) D - equivalent diameter used in Re and Nu numbers definition H - thickness of wall is used only in stress analysis. PERIMETER - is in fact a part of the whole perimeter where heat transfer (defined by heat transfer coefficient ALPHA and external temperature TE), takes place. If specified as zero, substituded by  $\pi$ D. dU/dy – transversal component of electric field. Axial profiles of pressure, temperature, concentration, elect. potential and thermal boundary layer thickness as well as fouling layer are calculated.

### **2.2.7.1.** Pressure and flowrates in laminar/turbulent flows

The introductory example will demonstrate a computation of pressure losses and flowrates in a simple piping system which consists of three sections with flow splitting. Inner diameters of all pipes are identical (d=5 mm, roughness k=0) and water is used as a working liquid ( $\mu=0.001$  Pa.s). Pressures are specified at each boundary node of the system (zero at the outlet, the inlet pressure is going to be changed).



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NFPT 1, PRES, -1, 1000; SOLVE 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 10, 0, 0, 0;

Display results with commands GE1 (parameters EQ-flow rate, ERE-Reynolds number, ETAU-shear stress on wall) and GD1 (nodal parameter PRES – pressure distribution).



Results of computation are pressures in nodes and flow rates stored as parameters of individual elements (for a quick inspection of results, NID and EID can be used – parameter identification by a mouse pointer). Three different pressures  $10^2$ ,  $10^3$ ,  $10^5$  Pa at the inlet correspond to different flow regimes: laminar, mixed and turbulent – the following table presents the results which agree at all valid decimal positions with the accurate analytical solution.

p1 [Pa]	p <sub>2</sub> [Pa]	$\dot{V_1}$ [ml/s]	$\dot{V}_2$ [ml/s]	$\dot{V}_3$ [ml/s]
100	28.78	2.185 (Re=555)	0.6243 (Re=159)	1.561 (Re=397)
1000	161.4	12.25 (Re=3110)	3.50 (Re=890)	8.75 (Re=3170)
100000	20000	169.7(Re=43100)	63.1 (Re=16000)	106.6 (Re=2700)

If it is not a pressure but a flow rate which is to be specified at the inlet (for example if a positive displacement pump instead of a radial-flow pump or a pressure accumulator is used), the intensity of source, i.e. the mass flow rate (kg/s), must be given as the node parameter,

p1 [Pa]	p <sub>2</sub> [Pa]	$\dot{V_1}$ [ml/s]	$\dot{V}_2$ [ml/s]	$\dot{V}_3$ [ml/s]
11850	2413	50	18.4	31.6

Remark: You can specify inlet or outlet flowrate at any, even internal, node (in this way for example a leakage can be described). The point source/sink is indicated by the status of nodal parameter PRES within the range 1,2,...,10. Prescribed positive value of parameter PRES represents in this case the inflow in units kg/s or if you set the system variable VOLFLOW=1 in units m<sup>3</sup>/s! <sup>13</sup> It is possible to define also time variable flowrate by user defined function with an index 1,2,...,10 (time is represented by system variable TIME). If a function with the index of status PRES exists, prescribed value of nodal parameter (nominal flowrate) is multiplied by this function. In the same way a time dependent pressure can be prescribed using a function with an index -10,...,-1 (strong boundary condition). The rule is simple: Any specified nodal parameter is multiplied by a user defined function with the index of status. If such a function has not be defined, identity is assumed, it means that the prescribed value is multiplied by one.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> This is not only a problem of units: VOLFLOW=0 means, that method of mass balancing will be applied, while at VOLFLOW=1 distribution of pressures will be solved from equations representing volumetric flowrate balances.

#### 2.2.7.2. Non-Newtonian Power-law liquids

Computation with non-Newtonian liquids is more complicated because the Rabinowitsch, Mooney Weissenberg equation, see Steffe 1996, must be integrated numerically in each finite element connecting nodes *i*,*j* (radius  $R_{ij}$ , length  $L_{ij}$ , friction pressure drop  $\Delta p_{ij}$ , shear stress  $\tau$ ):

$$\dot{m}_{ij} = 8\pi\rho (\frac{L_{ij}}{\Delta p_{ij}})^3 \int_0^{R_{ij}} \frac{\tau^3}{\mu_{apparent}(\tau)} d\tau .$$
(2.2.7-1)

Rheological model characterising properties of a non-Newtonian liquid are usually specified as a function  $\gamma(\tau)$ , where  $\gamma$  is the deformation rate (1/s) and  $\tau$  is the corresponding shear stress (Pa). The constitutive equation is specified in FEMINA in form of apparent viscosity  $\mu_{apparent}$  as a function of shear stress TAU and temperature TEMP. Example: for probably the most often used power-law model (sometimes called Ostwald de Vaele model) the following constitutive equation holds

$$\gamma = \left(\frac{\tau}{K}\right)^{1/n} \qquad \mu_{apparent}(\tau) = \left(\frac{K}{\tau^{1-n}}\right)^{1/n}$$
 (2.2.7-2)

where K is the consistency coefficient and n is the flow behaviour index. The model parameters can be constants, but it is usually more convenient to use variables (for example, we will use the variable A as the consistency coefficient and the variable B as the flow behaviour index):

```
FUNDEF 1, (A/MAX(1E-10,TAU)**(1-B))**(1/B);
MPROP 1,PIPE2D,.600E+00,0,4200,0,998,0,.400E-01,0,.210E+12,0,.280E+00,0,.100E-02,
1, .500E-03,0,0,0,0,0,0,0;
A=1
B=.8
SOLVE 0,1,0,0,0,20,0,0,0;
```

This definition of the function number 1 should replace the Newtonian liquid rheological model, which is done by specifying a non-zero function number of the viscosity material parameter: Computations can be repeated for different values of flow indices n (K=1 Pa.s<sup>n</sup>, p<sub>1</sub>=1000 Pa) and the following table shows perfect agreement with the analytical solution (in laminar regime)

$\dot{V} = \pi R^3 \frac{n}{3n+1} (\frac{\tau_w}{K})^{1/n}$	where $\tau_w = \frac{R\Delta p}{2L}$	(2.2.7-3)
$J_{II} + I_{II}$	<b>4L</b>	

n (flow index)	p <sub>2</sub> [Pa]	$\dot{V}_1$ [ml/s]	$\dot{V}_2$ [ml/s]	$\dot{V}_3$ [ml/s]
0.8	312	0.0227	0.00549	0.0173
0.6	335	0.0246	0.00438	0.0202
0.4	352	0.0298	0.00273	0.0270
0.2	361	0.0639	0.000648	0.0633

It should be noticed, that the strong nonlinearity of the rheological model at low values of the flow behaviour index *n* causes problems. For the values of the flow index n<0.5 the iterations do not converge and it is necessary to reduce the relaxation factor (system variable RELFAKT, e.g. RELFAKT=0.2).<sup>14</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> If the sum of flow rates in branching points of pipes is not zero, something is wrong. In our case the flow rate in the first pipe (it should be same in all elements from 1 to 10) should equal to the sum of flow rates in pipes 2 and 3. If this does not hold true the number iterations must be increased or eventually the RELFAKT must be decreased.

#### 2.2.7.3.Non-Newtonian Bingham, Herschel Bulkley and Casson's liquids

Serious convergence problems have been encountered when calculating Bingham liquids (or generally liquids with significant yield stress) at turbulent flows. The Bingham liquid can be described

$$\mu_{apparent}(\tau) = \frac{\tau \mu_p}{\tau - \tau_0} = \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{\tau \mu_p}{\tau - \tau_0 \frac{t}{N + t}}$$
(2.2.7-4)

where  $\mu_p$  [Pa.s] is plastic viscosity and  $\tau_0$  [Pa] is yield stress. In this case improvement has been achieved by selective under-relaxation of the yield stress, more specifically by using the constitutive equation in the following form

### FUNDEF 1,A\*TAU/MAX(1E-10,TAU-B\*TIME/(N+TIME))

where the user variable A is plastic viscosity  $\mu_p$  and the variable B is the yield stress  $\tau_0$ . TIME and TAU are system variables (simulation time and wall shear stress). If the variable N is much greater than TIME, that is at the beginning of calculation, the model reduces to the Newtonian liquid with apparent viscosity  $\mu_p$ , and only with the increasing time (if TIME>>N) the computational yield stress is approaching to the correct value  $\tau_0$ .

Resulting pressure and flowrate for  $p_1=100$  Pa at inlet and  $\mu_p=1$  Pa.s, calculated for different values  $\tau_0$ , are summarised in the following table

$\tau_0$ (yield stress)	p <sub>2</sub> [Pa]	$\dot{V}_1$ [ml/s]	$\dot{V}_2$ [ml/s]	$\dot{V}_3$ [ml/s]
0	17.51	0.09979	0.003866	0.06113
0.01	30.31	0.001975	0.000494	0.00148
0.03	33.21	0.001561	0.000246	0.001313

Accuracy of results can be ascertained by comparison with flowrates, calculated from the Buckingham equation (expressed in terms of  $\tau_w$  - wall shear stress)

$$\dot{m} = \frac{\rho \Delta p R^2}{8\mu_p L} \left[ 1 - \frac{4\tau_0}{3\tau_w} + \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{\tau_0}{\tau_w} \right)^4 \right]. \qquad \tau_w = \frac{R \Delta p}{2L}$$
(2.2.7-5)

A more general Herschel Bulkley model is a combination of the power law and the Bingham models (the HB model has three parameters, yield stress  $\tau_0$ , flow behaviour index *n* and consistency K)

$$\mu_{apparent}(\tau) = \frac{\tau K^{1/n}}{(\tau - \tau_0)^{1/n}} = \lim_{t \to \infty} \frac{\tau K^{1/n}}{(\tau - \tau_0 \frac{t}{N+t})^{1/n}}.$$
(2.2.7-6)

The HB model can be specified as the function (variables A-consistency, B-yield stress, C-flow index)

# FUNDEF 1,TAU\*(A/MAX(1E-10,TAU-B\*TIME/(N+TIME)))\*\*(1/C)

Results obtained by Herschel Bulkley model can be verified in laminar regime by comparing with the analytical solution

$$\dot{m} = \pi R^{3} \rho \left(\frac{\tau_{w}}{K}\right)^{1/n} \left(1 - \frac{\tau_{0}}{\tau_{w}}\right)^{(n+1)/n} \frac{\left[2n^{2} + 3n + 1 + 2n(n+1)\frac{\tau_{0}}{\tau_{w}} + 2(n\frac{\tau_{0}}{\tau_{w}})^{2}\right]n}{(3n+1)(2n+1)(n+1)} \qquad \tau_{w} = \frac{R\Delta p}{2L} \qquad (2.2.7-7)$$

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It can be easily verified, that this equation reduces to the Buckingham equation for n=1 and K= $\mu_p$ .

Casson's model is another example of a generalised Newtonian liquid, applied first of all for modelling of blood flow. This model has only two parameters: yield stress  $\tau_0$  and viscosity coefficient K<sub>e</sub>. In the case that the yield stress vanish, the model reduces to the Newtonian liquid, just like the Bingham model, however unlike the Bingham model the shear stress is not a linear function of shear rate. Apparent viscosity can be expressed as follows

$$\mu_{apparent}(\tau) = \frac{\tau K_e^2}{(\sqrt{\tau} - \sqrt{\tau_0})^2}$$
(2.2.7-8)

Using variables A for Ke and B for the yield stress, the Casson's model (8) can be defined as

### FUNDEF 1,TAU\*A\*\*2/MAX(1E-10,SQR(TAU)-SQR(B))\*\*2

Results can be tested again using analytical solution for mass flowrate of Casson's liquid

$$\dot{m} = \pi R^3 \rho \frac{\tau_w}{K_e^2} \left[ \frac{1}{4} \left( 1 - \left(\frac{\tau_0}{\tau_w}\right)^4 \right) + \frac{4}{7} \sqrt{\frac{\tau_0}{\tau_w}} \left( 1 - \left(\frac{\tau_0}{\tau_w}\right)^{7/2} \right) + \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{\tau_0}{\tau_w}\right) \left( 1 - \left(\frac{\tau_0}{\tau_w}\right)^3 \right) \right]$$
(2.2.7-9)

### 2.2.7.4. Non-Newtonian thixotropic liquids

Thixotropic liquids are characterised by viscosity, that depends not only upon the actual rate of deformation, but also upon the whole deformation history of a material element. Memory of liquid is hidden in a structural parameter  $\lambda$  characterising state of structure:  $\lambda=0$  – structure is completely destroyed and viscosity is low,  $\lambda=1$  – structure is perfectly build and viscosity is high. It is assumed that the structural parameter is a transport property. Probably the simplest and still realistic constitutive equation can be written in the following form, which is a generalisation of the power-law liquid

$$\tau = (K + \Delta K\lambda)\dot{\gamma}^n, \qquad \qquad \frac{D\lambda}{Dt} = a(1-\lambda) - b\lambda\dot{\gamma}^m, \qquad (2.2.7-10,11)$$

where  $K + \Delta K \lambda$  is effective consistency coefficient, *n* is power-law index, *a* is a measure of structure build-up, while *b* is a coefficient of structure decay. The equation (11) is in fact a rate equation This equation can be rewritten to the form with apparent viscosity expressed as a function of shear stress

$$\mu_{apparent} = \frac{\tau}{\dot{\gamma}} = ((K + \Delta K\lambda)\tau^{n-1})^{1/n} \qquad \qquad \frac{D\lambda}{Dt} = a \bigwedge [a + b(\frac{\tau}{K + \Delta K\lambda})^{m/n}]. \quad (2.2.7-12,13)$$

We shall use concentration  $c_N$  in the role of structural parameter  $\lambda$  described by Eq.(8) with source term (red circle) defined by function 10 with user variable A as the build up parameter *a* 

FUNDEF 10,A;

Sink term (blue circle) is the function 11 with user variables A=a, B=b, C=K, D= $\Delta K$ , E=m, F=n

Apparent viscosity is defined by function 1

FUNDEF 1, ((C+D\*CN)/MAX(1E-10,TAU)\*\*(1-F))\*\*(1/F);

Sources and sink term functions are referenced in EGROUP, while the viscosity function 1 is referenced in MPROP.

We shall use the model of thixotropy for description of flow in the same Y-system of pipes as previously for the following values of rheological parameters characterising plaster NEOPONIT, see Šesták et al (1990): K=115 [Pa.s<sup>n</sup>],  $\Delta K=94$  [Pa.s<sup>n</sup>], n=0.42, m=0.4, a=0.0001 [1/s], b=0.003955 [s<sup>m-1</sup>]. The Eq.(8) assumes only convective transport, however some diffusion coefficient must be specified when using weighted residual method, for example by accepting very small default value ( $D_N=10^{-8}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s) and suppressing axial dispersion (TAUD=0). The solution is than described by the following batch



It follows from results in table, that at higher flowrates the structure is not so much destroyed!

<i>ṁ<sub>inlet</sub></i> [kg∕s]	$\lambda_2$	$\lambda_3$	$\lambda_4$	p1 [Pa]	p <sub>2</sub> [Pa]
0.001	0.118	0.064	0.0575	3458	1048
0.01	0.62	0.074	0.461	11540	3648
0.05	0.845	0.3551	0.7611	24780	8300

#### 2.2.7.5. Heat transfer in pipes

It is possible to evaluate not only pressures and flowrates, but also concentration and temperature changes in pipes due to either internal sources (for example ohmic heating) or heat transfer between the pipe surface and surrounding. Heat transfer is determined by specified ambient temperature (as the RCONST parameter  $T_e$ ) and by the overall heat transfer coefficient enclosing thermal resistance of wall and outer heat transfer (this is specified as the RCONST parameter ALPHA), thermal resistance of fouling (this is calculated by selected model of fouling) and first of all by inner thermal resistance of liquid flowing inside the pipe. This last item is calculated separately at laminar and turbulent flow using correlations for thermal boundary layer thickness  $\delta$ 

$$\alpha = \frac{\lambda}{\delta}.$$
 (2.2.7-14)

Methods calculating axial profile of the thickness  $\delta$  are described in the theoretical part of this manual, and from user's point of view it is important only to know, that the thermal boundary layer thickness calculation works automatically for Newtonian and nonnewtonian liquids as well as for temperature dependent viscosity<sup>15</sup>. Only in non-circular tubes a manual correction is needed (parameter OPTION, BL-correction) and experience shows that this correction (usually BL<1, which means reduction of the thickness  $\delta$ ) is necessary if there exist factors increasing heat transfer, for example by buoyancy induced macroinstabilities, vortex generators,...

## 2.2.7.6. Heat transfer coefficient – effect of axial dispersion

Temperature profiles along pipes are obtained as a solution of enthalpy balance – Fourier Kirchhoff equation integrated across the cross section of pipe

$$A\rho c_{p}\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \overline{u}\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(A\rho c_{p}a_{e}\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right) + kO(T_{e} - T) + A(Q - ST)$$
(2.2.7-15)

where T(t,x) is a mean calorimetric temperature,  $a_e$  is axial dispersion, k is overall heat transfer coefficient, O is perimeter of pipe, A cross section, and  $T_e$  is ambient temperature. The coefficient  $a_e$ describes axial thermal dispersion – a mechanism of smoothing temperature nonuniformities along a pipe. This dispersion is caused not only by the molecular diffusion in the axial direction (characterised by thermal diffusivity a) but also by a combined effect of radial diffusion and radial velocity profile. The axial dispersion coefficient  $a_e$  has been theoretically derived for slow laminar flows by Taylor (1953) and for turbulent flow also by Taylor one year later (1954)<sup>16</sup>. In both cases the predicted axial dispersion  $a_e$  is much higher than the molecular diffusivity a, typically hundred times or more and cannot be ignored. However, the axial dispersion model in the form implemented in FEMINA (according to Taylor's results) is correct only if the pipe is insulated<sup>17</sup>. This restriction can be sometimes accepted, for example when modelling dispersion of temperature disturbances in an almost insulated pipe, nevertheless probably the most important problem – stationary heat transfer with a constant wall temperature is distorted significantly at very high values of axial dispersion coefficient  $a_e$ . And this is subject of the following example:

We shall consider a straight pipe (d=0.02 m, L=1 m, hydraulically smooth) with nearly negligible external thermal resistance ( $\alpha_e=10^6$  W.m<sup>-2</sup>.K<sup>-1</sup>), it means with approximately constant temperature of wall  $T_e=T_w=100$  °C. Inlet temperature is constant  $T_0=0$  °C and we shall calculate outlet

is questionable.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> This is accomplished by numerical integration of RMW equation in individual elements, which is activated if the viscosity function is defined as a function of shear stress or if the index of viscosity function is greater than 10 (this is necessary if we need to take into account the influence of variable viscosity of Newtonian liquids to heat transfer). <sup>16</sup> See also the model of axial dispersion of mass discussed in the paragraph 2.2.4.3.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> Not only insulated: Taylor's model of axial dispersion assumes either slow laminar flow or on the other hand turbulent flow. There is a rather wide gap of flowrates (fast, but still laminar flows) when applicability of the axial dispersion model

temperatures (mean calorimetric temperatures at distance L=1 m from inlet) for different mass flowrates of water starting with the slow laminar flow at 0.0005 kg/s (Re=32) up to turbulent flow at 0.146 kg/s (Re=9300). There are several parameters in the OPTION dialog panel and corresponding system variables affecting the solution method: weighted residual/enthalpy balance method (variable HEPI), internal heating (OHMI), buoyancy (BUOY), effect of fouling (RF), correction of thermal boundary layer thickness (BL) and modification of axial dispersion model (system variable TAUD). This variable is the time constant  $\tau$  in the emergency model

$$a_e = a + \frac{u^2 \tau}{\pi}$$
(2.2.7-16)

and FEMINA applies the smallest value of dispersion coefficients calculated according to Eq.(11) or according to Taylor's model for laminar/turbulent flows (with the aim to avoid excessively large dispersion  $a_e$ ). It means that if we select TAUD=0 axial dispersion will be suppressed (reduced to thermal diffusivity), while very large value, e.g. TAUD=10<sup>6</sup>, ensures, that the dispersion will be evaluated according to Taylor. We shall calculate temperature profile for TAUD=0 and 10<sup>6</sup> respectively, and save results (outlet temperatures for different mass flowrates) into second and third column of matrix of observation points. The whole procedure is described by the following command file, where the control command #LOOP is used for repeating solutions for increasing flowrates

```
PT 1,.000E+00,.000E+00;
PT 2,.100E+01,.000E+00;
CR2PT 1,1,2;
RCONST 1, PIPE2D, .200E-01, 0, 0, .100E-02, 1E8, 100;
EGROUP 1, PIPE2D, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0;
MPROP 1, PIPE2D, .6, 0, 4200, 0, 998, 0, .04, 0, .21E+12, 0, .28, 0, .001;
VALUE N
MCR 1, N, 1, 2, 0, 0, 1;
NF ND, PRES, -1, 0;
NF 1, TEMP, -1, 0;
A=0.0005
J=0
NT=15
#LOOP L,NT
J=J+1
C1(J)=A
NF 1, PRES, 1, A
TAUD=0
SOLVE 0,1,1,0,0,10,1,0,0,0,0;
C2(J) = V2(LPU(TEMP) + ND)
TAUD=1E6
SOLVE 0,1,1,0,0,10,1,0,0,0,0;
C3(J) = V2(LPU(TEMP) + ND)
A=A*1.5
#LABEL L
```

Results in MOP (first column C1 is mass flowrates, second column C2 are outlet temperatures with reduced dispersion and third column C3 temperatures according to axial dispersion model) can be completed by column of results calculated according to the most common correlations for Nusselt number at laminar (Leveque) and turbulent (Colburn) flow regime

Laminar:

$$\frac{T(x) - T_e}{T_0 - T_e} = \exp(-1.615\pi \frac{\lambda}{\dot{m}c_p} \sqrt[3]{\frac{ud^2 x^2}{a}})$$
(2.2.7-17)

Turbulent

at 
$$\frac{T(x) - T_e}{T_0 - T_e} = \exp(-\pi \frac{\lambda x}{\dot{m}c_p} Nu), \qquad Nu = 0.023 \,\mathrm{Re}^{0.8} \,\mathrm{Pr}^{0.333}.$$
 (2.2.7-18)

Use for example Excel to evaluate Eqs.(17-18), the command TCI to transfer results into matrix of observation points and the command GTD to plot the calculated temperatures as a function of mass flowrate in the log-log graph:



m[kg / s]	Re	$a_{\rm e} [{\rm m}^2/{\rm s}]$	$T - \tau = 10^{6}$	$T - \tau = 0$	T – Eqs.(8-9)
0.0005	32	0.000037	95.4	96.7	90.8
0.00253	161	0.00095	46.8	56.0	55.5
0.02883	1836	0.0087	12.3	14.7	23.05
0.146	9294	0.0053	20.3	20.6	17.3

Discussion: Axial dispersion predicts always lower temperatures at outlet and apparently lower heat transfer coefficient. This is caused by the increased axial conductivity (thermal diffusivity  $a=1.4.10^{-7}$  is more than ten thousand times lower than dispersion  $a_e$ ) and by fixed temperature at inlet – heat flux is therefore against the flow direction. Therefore it is better to suppress the axial dispersion (e.g. by TAUD=0) if a steady state heat transfer is to be calculated.

## 2.2.7.7.Heat transfer coefficient – temperature dependent viscosity

Temperature dependent viscosity influences not only the pressure drop, but also the heat transfer coefficient as soon as temperature depends upon radius and deforms the radial velocity profile. A problem is that the 1D solution contains only one piece of information about the radial temperature profile – nodal temperature (this is mean calorimetric temperature). Nevertheless, another piece of information is in the estimate of thermal boundary layer thickness  $\delta$ . Assuming linear temperature profile within this layer and a uniform temperature in core the wall temperature  $T_w$  and the wall shear rate  $\Gamma$  can be estimated

$$\Gamma = \frac{\tau_w}{\mu_w(\tau_w, T_w)}.$$
(2.2.7-19)

In terms of Eq.(20) the boundary layer thickness and therefore the heat transfer coefficient is corrected

$$\delta^3 = \delta_0^3 + \varphi \frac{\pi a L}{\Gamma} \,. \tag{2.2.7-20}$$

where  $\delta_0$  is boundary layer thickness in previous element (previous from point of view of flow direction), *L* is length of element and  $\varphi$  is coefficient determined from experiments ( $\varphi$ =1.845 is used in FEMINA).

Example: Heating of liquid characterized by viscosity  $\mu(T) = \mu_0 e^{-k(T-T_0)}$ , in a pipe with the constant wall temperature  $T_w=100$  °C, when the inlet temperature is  $T_0=0$  °C. Dimension of pipe D=0.02 m, L=1 m (the same formulation as in the previous example). Mean velocity u=0.1 m/s. Thermodynamic

parameters of liquid  $\lambda$ =0.6 W/(m.K),  $c_p$ =4200 J/(kg.K),  $\rho$ =1000 kg/m<sup>3</sup>. The problem can be solved by the following simple program

```
PT 1,.000E+00,.000E+00;
PT 2,.100E+01,.000E+00;
CR2PT 1,1,2;
RCONST 1,PIPE2D,0.02,0,0,0.001,1E5,100,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0;
MPROP 1,PIPE2D,.600E+00,0,4200,0,998,0,.400E-01,0,.210E+12,0,.280E+00,0,.100E-
02,11,.500E-03,0,.100E-08,0,0,0,0,0,.120E-04,0;
MCR 1,50,1,2,0,0,1;
NFPT 1,TEMP,-1,0;
NFPT 1,TEMP,-1,0;
NFPT 1,PRES,1,0.0314;
NFPT 2,PRES,-1,0;
OPTION 0,0,0,0,1,0,0,15,.1E-11,1,.1E+08,1,.1E-8,1,0,0,0,.1E-04,.1E-
04,0,3,1,0,0,0,0,
FUNDEF 11,EXP(-0.001*TEMP)
SOLVE 0,10,1,0,0,3,1,0,0,0,0;
```

Results, temperatures at outlet, corresponding to different values of k (in previous program k=0.001 in the function number 11) can be compared with the analytical solution, based upon Leveque correlation and Sieder Tate correction

$$Nu_{\rm ln} = 1.618\sqrt[3]{Gz} \left(\frac{\mu}{\mu_w}\right)^{0.14}.$$
 (2.2.7-21)

The graphs demonstrate relative temperature increase with the increasing k for the case of heating due to decrease of viscosity at hot wall and therefore increased velocity gradient and decreased thickness of thermal boundary layer. For the case of cooling, when the temperature of wall is less than the inlet temperature, the trends are opposite.



# 2.2.7.8. Heat transfer and fouling in pipes

Gradually increasing thermal resistance  $r [m^2.K/W]$  of fouling layer, caused by degradation of oil, proteins or crystallisation, depends first of all upon temperature *T*, but also upon wall shear stress  $\tau$  and composition. Time changes of thermal resistance *r* are described by a model with the rate function  $f(T, \tau, c_N, c_D, c_A)$ 

$$\frac{dr}{dt} = f \,. \tag{2.2.7-22}$$

The function f (its index) is specified as a parameter OPTION, usually using menu SOLVE-OPTION as a model of fouling (1- is reserved for the predefined Ebert Panchal model, while 2,3,... are assessed for user defined fouling models).

Let us consider as an example the model for milk fouling described by de Jong, Toyoda and others. The model assumes that the rate of fouling as proportional to the concentration of agglomerated proteins  $c_A$ . Let us define this model as the function 6, with the proportionality coefficient A (predefined user variable)

# FUNDEF 6,A\*CA

The concentration of agglomerated proteins CA is determined by biochemical reactions between native proteins  $c_N$ , denatured proteins  $c_D$  and agglomerates  $c_A$  (see chapter 4 – theory) and these concentrations have to be solved from appropriate transport equations with user defined source and sink terms, see the following table:

Component	Source term	Sink term
c <sub>N</sub> native protein	0	KN*exp(-EN/(R*TEMP))
c <sub>D</sub> denatured protein	KN*exp(-EN/(R*TEMP))*CN	CD*KD*exp(-ED/(R*TEMP))
c <sub>A</sub> aggregated protein	CD**2*KD*exp(-ED/(R*TEMP))	0

All these source and sink terms must be defined as user functions and their indices should be specified as EGROUP parameters. Let us show this approach on a simple case: straight pipe, laminar flow, ohmic heating (insulated tube)

```
C* Toyoda mode - fouling in a pipe
PT 1,.000E+00,.500E+00;
PT 2,.100E+01,.500E+00;
CR2PT 1,1,2;
EGROUP 1, PIPE2D, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0, 2, 3, 4, 0, 0;
REAL KN, EN, KD, ED
C* The following parameters (activation energies) are not realistics
KN=1
EN=300
KD=1
ED=200
EGROUP 1, PIPE2D, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 2, 3, 4, 5, 0,
FUNDEF 2, KN*EXP(-EN/(TEMP+273));
FUNDEF 3, KN*EXP(-EN/(TEMP+273))*CN;
FUNDEF 4, CD*KD*EXP(-ED/(TEMP+273));
FUNDEF 5, CD**2*KD*EXP(-ED/(TEMP+273));
FUNDEF 6, A*CA;
FUNDEF 7,1;
MCR 1,10,1,2,0,0,1;
NF 1, PRES, 1, .100E-02;
NF 11, PRES, -1, 0;
INITIA CN,7;
INITIA CD,0;
INITIA CA,0;
NF 1, CA, -1, 0;
NF 1, CD, -1, 0;
NF 1, CN, -1, 1;
NF 1, TEMP, -1, 20;
A=0.0001
OPTION 0,0,0,1,1,6,0,15,.1E-11,1,.1E+08,1,.1E+01,1,0,0,0,.1E-04,.1E-
04,0,5,1,2,2,2,0,
SOLVE 0,5,100,0,0,5,1,2,2,2,0;
```

The following graphs show results – concentrations of native, denaturated and agglomerated proteins along the pipe.



Graphical representation of calculated thermal resistance of the fouled layer can be obtained by using GE1 command.

## 2.2.7.9. Buoyancy and heat transfer between pipes

In the case that the flow is induced by buoyancy, it is necessary to specify the gravity acceleration  $(g_y=-9.81 \text{ m/s}^2)$  and temperature dependent density of liquid– there are two possibilities how to do it: The first possibility is to prescribe density as a function of temperature (e.g. for water within the temperature range 20-80 °C correct the reference density  $\rho_0=1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$  by the function FUNDEF 1,1-0.000121\*TEMP-3.2e-6\*TEMP\*\*2 where temperature TEMP is in degree of Celsius). The second possibility is to set a constant density (for example  $\rho_0=1000 \text{ kg/m}^3$ ), specify nonzero thermal expansion coefficient in MPROP (for example  $\beta=0.0005 [1/^{0}C]$ ) and select Boussinesque method in the menu OPTION.



The problems with buoyancy driven flows are usually rather difficult and results must be interpreted carefully. It will be demonstrated in the following example: Buoyancy driven circulation of water in a closed loop with some pipes heated and other cooled (similar arrangement is for example a system for domestic heating).



Mutual heat transfer between two PIPE2D elements can be realised by 4-node HEXC finite element (this connection represents the simplest form of a tubular or plate heat exchangers in parallel or counter-parallel flow arrangement). The arrangement when one vertical pipe is heated and the other vertical section is cooled (configuration A) seems to be similar to the arrangement when the loop is heated from below (B). This is not so, the arrangement shown left is nearly impossible to solve, because in this case the driving force depends only upon small differences in temperature profiles in vertical sections. It should be realised that the heat, transferred in both vertical sections, is the same, the flowrates are constant, and therefore the mean calorimetric temperature differences (temperature approaches) are identical. It is true that the mean temperature is not exactly the same as the mean calorimetric temperature, however the difference is small and therefore the mean densities are nearly identical in vertical channels and driving force – buoyancy is very small. It reveals as a strong sensitivity of flowrates upon model parameter (for example coefficient of axial dispersion). The model A is described by the following batch file

А GY=-9.81 BETA(1)=0.00012 BUOY=2 BL=0 PT 1,.100E+00,.000E+00; PT 2,.900E+00,.000E+00; CR2PT 1,1,2; PT 3,.900E+00,.100E+01; CR2PT 2,2,3; PT 4,.100E+00,.100E+01; CR2PT 3,3,4; PT 5,.100E+00,.000E+00; CR2PT 4,4,5; PT 6,.000E+00,.000E+00; PT 7,.000E+00,.100E+01; CR2PT 5,6,7; PT 8,.100E+01,.000E+00;

PT 9,.100E+01,.100E+01; CR2PT 6,8,9; MCR2 5,4,5,1,1,1,1,2,1,2; MCR2 2,6,5,1,1,1,1,2,1,2; MCR 1,5,1,2,1,3,2; NMERGE ; NFPT 1, PRES, -1, 0; NFPT 6, PRES, -1, 10; NFPT 7, PRES, -1, 0; NFPT 8, PRES, -1, 10; NFPT 9, PRES, -1, 0; NFPT 6, TEMP, -1, 0; NFPT 8, TEMP, -1, 100; RCHEX 2,0.1,200; EGROUP 2, HEXC, 0, 0; SOLVE 0,50,10,1,0,35,1,0,0,0,0;

Older versions of FEMINA were not able to achieve a convergent solution of this problem. Since October 2004 additional procedure, improving mass conservation, is available and a convergent and at a first glance acceptable result can be obtained. However, when repeating the solution for different values of TAUD (axial dispersion), BL (boundary layer), heat transfer coefficient (see RCHEX), quite different results will be predicted.

**B** Much more stable and realistic solution exists for the problem, where the loop is heated from bottom - in this case hot water is in the left ascending pipe, while the descending pipe is cooled – driving force is significantly greater than in the case A and the problem is well determined.



# Its formulation is in the following batch file

```
PT 1,.000E+00,.100E+00;
                                             MCR 6,10,1,2,0,0,1;
PT 2,.900E+00,.100E+00;
                                             MCR 8,10,1,2,0,0,1;
CR2PT 1,1,2;
                                             EGROUP 2, HEXC, 0, 0;
PT 3,.900E+00,.100E+01;
                                             RCONST 2, HEXC, 2000, 0.1;
CR2PT 2,2,3;
                                             MCR4 1,6,2,2;
PT 4,.000E+00,.100E+01;
                                             MCR4 2,8,2,2;
CR2PT 3,3,4;
                                             NMERGE ;
CR2PT 4,4,1;
                                             NFPT 6, PRES, 1, 1;
PT 6,.000E+00,.000E+00;
                                             NFPT 6, TEMP, -1, 100;
                                             NFPT 8, TEMP, -1, 0;
PT 7,.900E+00,.000E+00;
CR2PT 6,6,7;
                                             NFPT 8, PRES, 1, 1;
PT 8,.100E+01,.100E+00;
                                             NFPT 7, PRES, -1, 0;
PT 9,.100E+01,.100E+01;
                                             NFPT 9, PRES, -1, 0;
CR2PT 8,8,9;
                                             BUOY=2
EGROUP 1, PIPE2D;
                                             GY=-9.81
RCONST 1, PIPE2D, .05, .100E-03, 0, 0.001;
                                             TAUD=0
FUNDEF 10,1-0.000121*TEMP-3.2E-6*TEMP**2 BETA(1)=0.0005
                                             SOLVE 0,10,1,1,0,20,1,0,0,0,0;
MCR 1,10,1,2,0,4,1;
```

In this case we compare results obtained with two different methods of solution: The first (BUOY=1) makes use temperature dependent density defined by function number 10, and the second method is a Boussinesque approximation (BUOY=2) with thermal expansion coefficient  $\beta$ =0.0005 [1/K]. This value corresponds to the mean temperature of water 50 °C, which is mean temperature of water in the circulation loop (hot stream is 100 °C, cold to  $\gamma^*$  100

stream 0  $^{\circ}$ C, and heat transfer coefficients equal in both heat exchangers).



The most important result of calculation is mean velocity of water in the circulation loop, see the following table

Temperature dependence of density		TAUD [s]	u [m/s]
BUOY		(dispersion)	
1	$\rho = 998(1 - 0.000121T - 3.2 \cdot 10^{-6}T^2)$	0	0.0574
1	$\rho = 998(1 - 0.000121T - 3.2 \cdot 10^{-6}T^2)$	1	0.0575
1	$\rho = 998(1 - 0.000121T - 3.2 \cdot 10^{-6}T^2)$	10 <sup>6</sup>	0.0602
2	β=0.0005	0	0.06
2	β=0.0005	1	0.061
2	β=0.0005	10 <sup>6</sup>	0.0634

Discussion of results: Velocity (which is rather sensitive parameter) calculated by Boussinesque method agrees acceptably with the method defining temperature dependent density. What is surprising: velocity slightly increases with dispersion-according to common sense it should have been reversaly.

# 2.2.8. Heat exchangers (enthalpy balance method)

The heat exchange between parallel channels has been modelled as a classical counter-current heat exchanger and using a classical weighted residual method in the previous example. This method cannot be applied in the case that more complicated heat exchangers (e.g. plate, shell and tube or cross-flow heat exchangers) form a part of analysed pipeline network. Then the enthalpy balance method is to be used, selected by the parameter *Solution method* in the OPTION command or menu bar *Solution*. The enthalpy balance method has been implemented also for PIPE2D and CSTR elements, therefore it can be considered as a more general than the weighted residual method from the point of view of range of applications.

### 2.2.8.1. Chevron plate heat exchanger

In the following example the enthalpy balance method will be applied for modelling the chevron plate heat exchanger using elements HEXC with connected piping modelled by elements PIPE2D. The elements HEXC have 4 nodes, the nodes 1 and 2 are endpoints of the first stream while the nodes 3 and 4 belong to the second stream. The nodes arrangement should correspond to the schematic figure right, however orientation of flows is arbitrary (it is in fact result of calculations, depending upon pressures at nodes 1,2,3,4).



PT 1,.100E+00,.200E+00; PT 2,.800E+00,.200E+00; PT 3,.800E+00,.700E+00; PT 4,.100E+00,.700E+00; PT 5,.1,0; PT 6,.8,0; PT 7,.8,1; PT 8,.1,1; CR2PT 1,1,5; CR2PT 2,2,6; CR2PT 3,4,5; CR2PT 3,4,8; CR2PT 4,3,7; ND .100E+00, .200E+00; ND .800E+00,.200E+00; ND .800E+00,.700E+00; ND .100E+00,.700E+00; E 4,1,2,4,3; EGROUP 1, HEXC, 0, 11; RCHEV 1,1,1,1,3,0.001,0.005,45,15,1,0.5,1; EGROUP 2, PIPE2D, 0, 0, 0; RCONST 2, PIPE2D, 0.02, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0; MCR 1,1,1,2,2,4,1; Four pipes are connected to NMERGE ; the inlet and outlet nozzles NF 5, PRES, -1, 1000; of heat exchanger. NF 6, PRES, -1, 0; NF 7, PRES, -1, 2000; NF 8, PRES, -1, 0; NF 5, TEMP, -1, 100; NF 7, TEMP, -1, 20; NF 6, TEMP (21) 0;



ND-new node (index is automatically incremented) E-new element with 4 nodes 1,2,3,4. Associated EGROUP=RCONST=MPROP=1

Element HEXC can be any kind of heat exchangers. The following parameter of EGROUP command Method=11 selects chevron type plate heat exchanger and RCHEV defines RCONST parameters for this specific type (3 parallel streams, plate thickness 0.001m, plate distance 0.005m, chevron angle 45<sup>0</sup>, thermal conductivity of plate 15 W.m<sup>-1</sup>.K<sup>-1</sup>, heat transfer surface of a plate 1 m<sup>2</sup>, dimensions of plate (width and height)

 $W_1$ 

Pressures are specified at inlet and outlet, however temperatures at inlets only  $(100^{\circ}C)$  and  $20^{\circ}C$ ). Nothing would need to be prescribed at outlet if the weighted residual method is used, because then natural boundary conditions apply. However, when using the enthalpy balance method the outlet points have to be explicitly marked by assigning status of temperature higher than 20 and zero thermal load!

NF 8, TEMP, 21, 0;

It is important from practical point of view to design an optimal heat exchanger – to find out for example optimum chevron angle, number of plates, or distance of plates, satisfying prescribed heat exchanger duty and minimising pumping power. This is subject of optimisation which will be described later (methods OPTIMA and SOMA). However, it is usually sufficient to observe just only influence of a single key-parameter, for example chevron angle, upon heat exchanger performance. This is demonstrated in the following example, which generates a table (MOP – matrix of observation points) with four columns: chevron angle (1<sup>st</sup> column), corresponding heating power-duty (2<sup>nd</sup> column), temperature increase (3<sup>rd</sup> column) and pressure drop in the 1<sup>st</sup> stream (4<sup>th</sup> column). The commands are continuation of the previous case – it means that all design parameters are preserved, with the exception of chevron angle, which is changing from 15 to 85 degrees. Because repetition is ensured by the #LOOP command, it is necessary to process the sequence of commands as a batch (it is necessary to prepare the commands in a file and use F)

J=0 A=10 NT=15 #LOOP L,NT J=J+1 A=A+5 RCHEV 1,1,1,1,3,0.001,0.005,A,15,1,0.5,1; SOLVE 0,1,1,0,0,10,1; C1 (J) =A C2 (J) =E1 (IEP (EPOWER,1)) C3 (J) =V2 (LPU (TEMP)+3) -V2 (LPU (TEMP)+4) C4 (J) =V2 (LPU (PRES)+3) -V2 (LPU (PRES)+4) #LABEL L

A new feature in this example is the element parameters processing. All the parameters of all finite elements are in the array E1(ind) and the index *ind* is calculated by the system function IEP(*name,index of element*), in our case the name is EPOWER (heat exchanger duty) and the heat exchanger is element number 1.

Results located in the matrix of observation points can be listed by using the command TCL, exported to an ASCII file by using command WRITE or shown in form of graphs using GTC, see for example the following figure. The figure left shows relationship between heat exchanger duty and chevron angle at a constant pressure drop. The figure right was created by a modified batch for constant chevron angle 45<sup>0</sup>, but for different number of plates (parallel streams):



Results of solution can be inspected also by using mouse and the EID (Element IDentification) command. The EID suggests several options and for example the option 6 enables not only inspection of results but also modification of some parameters, e.g. chevron angle, dimension of plates, see the following dialog panel which appears when the element is picked by mouse (left click as usually). The most important item in the field RESULTS is the heat exchanger duty [W], besides calculated pressure drops and heat capacities of both streams W1,W2 [W/K]. Effectiveness of heat exchanger is the ratio of temperature range in the weak stream (stream having lower heat capacity) and the difference of inlet temperatures.

Remark: Similar information are accesible also for other kinds of heat exchangers, tubular and shell & tube heat exchangers. However, the actions performed in dialog panels are not recorded in the session file!

## 2.2.8.3. Shell and tube heat exchanger

Shell&tube heat exchangers are defined in a similar way as plate heat exchangers. The only difference is the fact that streams 1 and 2 are not exchangable: The first stream connecting nodes 1 and 2 is always shell stream, while the second stream connecting nodes 3 and 4 is the tube stream.

The shell and tube heat exchanger considered in this example has 1 pass in the tube section, 600 tubes, and 5 baffles. Tube outer diameter is 0.05 m, thickness of wall is 0.001 m, tube length is 5 m, tube bundle diameter is 1.9 m, shell inner diameter is 2 m, baffle distance is 1 m, baffle thickness is 0.0025 m, baffle height is 1.75 m, clearance between tube and baffle is 0.001 m, clearance between shell and baffle is 0.002 m, layout angle of tubes is 45°, tube spacing is 0.056, wall roughness is 0.001 m and heat conductivity of tube material (carbon steel) is 50 W.m<sup>-1</sup>.K<sup>-1</sup>.

Heat exchanger is designed for oil cooling by water. The first stream is oil with inlet temperature  $90^{0}$ C, and the cooling water enters the exchanger at  $5^{0}$ C. Instead of volumetric flowrate in both streams (which is a more common case) the pressure drop is specified by fixing pressures at inlet and outlet nozzles.





#### RCSTUB 1,1,2,1,600,5,0.05,0.001,5,1.9,2,1,0.0025,1.75,0.001,0.002,45,0.055678,0.001,50;

RCSTUB defines RCONST parameters for this specific type (1 passes in tube section, 600 tubes, 5 baffles, tube outer diameter 0.05 m, tube thickness 0.001 m, tube length 5 m, tube bundle diameter 1.9 m, shell inner diameter 2 m, baffle distance 1 m, baffle thickness 0.0025 m, baffle height 1.75 m, clearance between tube and baffle 0.001 m, clearance between shell and baffle 0.002 m, layout angle of tubes 45°, tube spacing 0.056, wall roughness 0.001 m and heat conductivity of tube 50 W.m<sup>-1</sup>.K<sup>-1</sup>).



```
EGROUP 2,PIPE2D,0,0,0;
RCONST 2,PIPE2D,0.02,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0;
```

```
Four pipes are connected to the inlet and outlet nozzles of heat exchanger.
MCR 1,1,1,2,2,4,1;
MPROP 1, PIPE2D, .598E+00, 0, 4180, 0, 998, 0, .400E-01, 0, .210E+12, 0, .280E+00, 0, .100E-
02,0,.500E-03,0,.100E-08;
MPROP 2, PIPE2D, .4E+00, 0, 1890, 0, 866, 0, .400E-01, 0, .210E+12, 0, .280E+00, 0, .4E-
01,0,.500E-03,0,.100E-08;
ERMEL 4,2,2,2;
ERMEL 5,2,2,2;
NMERGE ;
                               Pressures are specified at inlet and outlet, however temperatures at inlets only (90^{\circ}C)
NF 5, PRES, 1, 0.01;
                               and 5^{\circ}C). Nothing would need to be prescribed at outlet if the weighted residual
NF 6, PRES, -1, 0;
                              method is used, because then natural boundary conditions apply. However, when
NF 8, PRES, 1, 0.1;
                               using the enthalpy balance method the outlet points have to be explicitly marked by
NF 7, PRES, -1, 0;
                               assigning status of temperature higher than 20 and zero thermal load!
NF 5, TEMP, -1, 5;
NF 8, TEMP, -1, 90;
NF 6, TEMP, 21, 0;
NF 7, TEMP, 21, 0;
HEPI=1
OPTION 0,0,0,0,1,0,1,15,.1E-11,1,.1E+08,1,.1E+01,1,0,0,1,.1E-04,.1E-04,
0,10,10,0,0,0,0,0,
SOLVE 0,1,1,0,0,10,10,0,0,0,0;
```

Purpose of rating is to calculate outlet temperatures in both streams and heat exchanger duty. These values can be best observed by using EID (picking element by mouse, use the option 6 if you want to modify design parameters interactively).

Remark: There are several restrictions which must be respected: Only one pass in the shell and maximum four passes in tube section can be applied. Only the most frequently "E" shape of the heat exchanger shell (according to the TEMA classification) can be selected and only single-phase flows in heat exchanger can be considered.

# 2.2.9. Pumps

When using elements PIPE2D it is possible to define your own hydraulic characteristics of pipe  $\varphi = \dot{V} / \Delta p$  as a function (index of the function is the parameter *hydraulic characteristics* of EGROUP); this is useful for example when modelling valves with a prescribed time sequence of closing, and this option could be used in principle also for pumps. However practical experience with this procedure is not very good, first of all due to problems with convergence. Therefore a special element PUMP has been designed replacing hydraulic characteristics  $\varphi = \dot{V} / \Delta p$  by the hydraulic characteristics of pump in the form  $\dot{V}(\Delta p)$ . This approach is suitable for modelling centrifugal pumps with "soft" characteristics, and also for positive displacement pumps (piston or screw pumps) with "hard" characteristics independent of  $\Delta p$ . These options are selected using parameter *Method* of EGROUP:

Method <=0 volumetric flow-rate is defined as a function (hydraulic characteristic). Example: Commands EGROUP 1,PUMP,1,-1,5; and FUNDEF 5,F define EGROUP number 1 for positive displacement pumps with flow-rate prescribed by the function number 5 (flow-rate specified by variable F is constant in this case, but could have been for example a function of time).<sup>18</sup> In a similar way a centrifugal pump with user defined characteristics can be defined, when volumetric flow-rate is a function of discharge pressure.

This approach will be demonstrated in the following example with two straight pipes (suction and discharge pipes) and a pump having linear hydraulic characteristics



 $\dot{V} = 2 \cdot 10^{-7} (1 - \min(0.9, \frac{|\Delta p|}{2000}))$ 

Method > 0 centrifugal pump selected from a database (file \$PUMPS.TXT), where basic characteristics of several tenths of commercial pumps (most of them produced by SIGMA GROUP a.s.) are recorded: pump type, range of applications, bitmap image, performance characteristics, and nozzle dimensions. The parameter *Method* is in fact the order of selected pump in the database. In the case that also the parameter *Hydraulic characteristic* in EGROUP is not zero, it is an index of function and the hydraulic characteristic of pump from database is multiplied by this function (this correction can be a function of time, temperature or  $\Delta p$ ).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> Volumetric flowrate [m<sup>3</sup>/s] and not mass flowrate [kg/s] is to be specified for pumps, which corresponds to custom practice, however flowrates or leakage specified in nodal points in previous chapters are mass flowrates!!

To simplify the pump selection and because the meaning of RCONST parameters differs from other kind of elements, the commands RCPUMP or RCEPUM is to be used instead of the command RCONST. In these commands general specifications of pump are prescribed and the best matching pump is selected. Procedure will be explained in the following example



The simplest tool for results inspection is the command EID (Element IDentification by mouse) used with default values of parameters. First of all you should check calculated volumetric flow-rates, because it is the simplest test of convergence and accuracy (flow-rates should be the same in all elements in this example).

Be careful when defining a pump – solution works only if the required displacement height is within the range of selected pump. For example in the previous example the selected pump is capable do deliver maximum height of 50m of water column, however the vertical pipe is 150 m long! Therefore the solution doesn't converge and it is necessary to reduce the gravity coefficient GY, giving

$g[m/s^2]$	Q [1/s]
0	3.381
-1	2.917
-2	2.231
-3	1.535
-4	0.399
-5	diverge

#### Another type of pumps can be easily added to the file \$PUMPS.TXT:

```
2 'che.bmp' '65-cve-200-10' 2 0.065 0.065 5E-3 9E-3 7E-3 22 28 27
2
  'che.bmp' '80-cve-230-12' 10 0.08 0.08 9E-3 14.4E-3 12E-3 132 170 153
3
 'chn.bmp' '100-CHN' 2 0.1 0.1 16E-3 25E-3 20E-3 130 155 150
  'chn.bmp' '100-CHN' 10 0.1 0.1 16E-3 25E-3 20E-3 705 760 750
З
  'cvx1.bmp' '32-CVX-100-6-1' 1 0.04 0.032 1.13E-3 2.3E-3 1.75E-3 8 12 10
4
  'cvx1.bmp' '32-CVX-100-6-12' 12 0.04 0.032 1.13E-3 2.3E-3 1.75E-3 95 142
4
  '50npb.bmp' '50-NPB-150-12.5' 1 0.05 0.05 2.7E-3 6.5E-3 5E-3 16 26 22.4
1
  '50npb.bmp' '65-NPB-160-16' 1 0.065 0.065 5E-3 10E-3 8E-3 24 29.5 28
1
  'spb a.BMP' '50-SPB' 1 0.05 0.05 3.2E-3 5.4E-3 4E-3 11.9 29.3 24.2
1
4 '25ove.bmp' '25-ove-01' 1 0.025 0.025 0.1e-3 0.8e-3 0.5e-3 25 45 33
4 '32cvi2.bmp' '32-cvi' 1 0.032 0.032 1.13e-3 2.3e-3 1.75e-3 8 12 10
4
  '32cvi2.bmp' '32-cvi' 5 0.032 0.032 1.13e-3 2.3e-3 1.75e-3 40 59 51
  'slvd.bmp' 'S-LVN-4-D' 3 0.1 0.125 9.1E-3 16.5E-3 13.3E-3 33 45 39
4
  'slvd.bmp' 'S-LVN-4-D' 7 0.1 0.125 9.1E-3 16.5E-3 13.3E-3 77 105 91
4
  '80SVA.BMP' '80-SVA' 1 0.08 0.08 4E-3 13E-3 8E-3 10 40 29
4
  '80SVA.BMP' '80-SVA' 3 0.08 0.08 4E-3 13E-3 8E-3 29 110 84
4
  'HILGE.BMP'
               'HILGE'
                            0.02 0.02 0.1E-3
                                                5.55E-3
                                                          2.777E-3 12
                                                                        53
                                                                           38
4
                          1
               No.of stages
                             Diameters of
                             inlet outlet
                                         V<sub>min</sub> min.
                                                           Vopt
                             nozzles
                                                 V<sub>max</sub> max.
                                        flowrate
                                                 flowrate
                                                           optimal
                                        m^3/s
                                                 m^3/s
                                                           flowrate
Purpose
1-milk,foods
2-waterworks
3-feeding pump
                                                 H<sub>min</sub> min.discharge
                                                                 H<sub>max</sub> max. discharge
4-water pump
                                                 height [m]
                                                                  height [m]
5-chemistry
6-screw pump
                                                                         H<sub>opt</sub> optimal
                                                                         discharge height
                                                                         [m]
```

So far the pumps has been used only for calculation of flowrates and pressures, however, elements PUMP are also implemented for heat and mass transfer in a similar way like ideally mixed tanks (see next paragraph). It means that a pump is assumed to be a finite element characterised by a

finite volume and inside the volume the enthalpy (temperature) and concentration of species is constant (may be dependent on time, nevertheless the same inside the pump and therefore also at outlet). As a consequence of this assumption is that the nodal parameter (temperature or concentration) corresponding to the outlet node depends only upon the state of inlet node and upon the time accumulation of enthalpy of matter inside the pump. This nodal parameter characterises only the state of pump and is independent of streams connected to this node. Therefore it is not possible to join e.g. outlets of two pumps in the same node; what has to be done is to insert a pipe (maybe very short pipe) behind the outlets of pumps and even then the end points can be merged:

### 2.2.10. Ideally mixed tanks

Mixed tanks can be modelled using two node element CSTR (Continuous Stirred Tank Reactor) characterised by a uniform temperature and concentration inside the vessel and these values correspond to the outlet node (which of the two nodes represents outlet is not known in advance of course).

It is assumed, that the vessel has a form of a big tube with cross section and inner volume given by the RCONST parameters (AREA and VOLUME). The cross section and flowrate determine mean axial velocity used for calculation of friction losses. However this part of pressure losses is usually small compared with the losses of kinetic energy at inlet nozzle, and this more significant part of pressure loss is calculated



according to specified coefficient of local losses  $\zeta$  (zeta) and diameter of nozzle *d* in the RCONST group (please do not confuse the meaning of *d* which is *not* the diameter of vessel). If the parameter AREA is not specified (=0) it will be calculated from the volume and the length of vessel, which equals the distance of nodes. The CSTR element can be used also for calculation of a chemical reaction, i.e. concentration of a component and also for heat balancing. In the later case the heat transfer coefficient and external temperature are specified in RCONST group, and heat transfer surface is calculated as the product of perimeter (in RCONST) and the length of vessel.

As an example of CSTR elements application we shall analyse a system with two parallel branches shown in the following figures. Geometry is selected in such a way that the role of CSTR dominates: the inner volume of all seven tanks together is  $12 \text{ m}^3$ , while the volume of pipes is nearly negligible, 0.00314 m<sup>3</sup>. We shall calculate flowrates (given pressures at inlet and outlet) and also concentration response to a short injection of a tracer to the inlet.

Remark: Problems with convergence can be encountered if elements having very different flow resistance are mixed together, and for example if we neglect local pressure losses at inlets to vessels their resistance will be many orders lower than the resistance of pipes. Even thought we specified  $\zeta=1$  an underrelaxation was necessary in this case.




Results can be inspected using e.g. EID (flowrates, pressures) and GTIME (response of concentration CN at outlet): Overall flowrate 6.371 l/s, relative flowrate in the branch with 5 tanks f=0.4046, mean residence time 1884 s and residence times 3879 s and 527.3 s in the first and in the second branch respectively. Because the response calculated using GTIME has been recorded into the second column of MOP (matrix of observation points), it is possible to normalise it to unit area

NORM 2,2,0;

and plot it using GTC command.

It will be shown in the following chapter, that nearly the same system can be modelled in a different way, as a system of ordinary differential equations (the only difference is that the pipes are infinitely small and the stimulus function need not be approximated by a pulse of a finite duration). Prediction of this model (the Bishoff's model of two parallel series SS00) can be compared with the prediction obtained by the finite element model and you can see that the match is excellent.



Combination of CSTR and PUMP elements enables modelling of systems with recycles, stagnant regions or backmixing between CSTR. In the following example we want to show, how useful are macros for definition of basic building blocks. Such a building block is for example mutually connected pair of CSTR with a low level of material exchange forming a basis for modelling stagnant regions. Lets us assume that we want to define a system consisting of four such a units connected in series, see figure



Each building block consists of two CSTR, one positive displacement PUMP (the pump determines intensity of material exchange) and two PIPE2D element with axial dispersion. The elements are localised in space as shown in the figure above (position of point 1 is X,Y, total length is 2H). Let us assume that properties of pipes are described by EGROUP=RCONST=1, properties of CSTR (e.g. volumes) by EGROUP=2 and RCONST=2, 3 for the first and the second CSTR respectively, and PUMP is characterised by EGROUP=3 and RCONST=4. Then the procedure, generating one building block at position X,Y and which automatically increments coordinate X, can be described by the following macro with the name e.g. PSTAS (the macro file can be created interactively)

```
RECORD PSTAS
K=NPT
PT NPT+1, X, Y;
PT NPT+1, X+H, Y;
PT NPT+1, X+2*H, Y;
PT NPT+1, X+2*H, Y+H;
PT NPT+1, X+H, Y+H;
J=NCR
C2P NCR+1, K+1, K+2
C2P NCR+1, K+2, K+3
C2P NCR+1, K+3, K+4
C2P NCR+1, K+4, K+5
C2P NCR+1, K+5, K+2
C* EG=RC=1 PIPES
                                                 X=X+2*H
ACTSET 1,1
ENDREC
```

ACTSET 3,1 MCR J+1,1,1,2; MCR J+5,1,1,2; C\* EG=RC=2 CSTR1 ACTSET 1,2 ACTSET 3,2 MCR J+2,1,1,2; ACTSET 3,3 MCR J+4,1,1,2; C\* EG=3 RC=4 PUMP ACTSET 1,3 ACTSET 1,3 ACTSET 3,4 MCR J+3,1,1,2;

Using the macro PSTAS it is easy to describe systems with arbitrary number of stagnant region units, for example

```
RCONST 1, PIPE2D, .500E-01, .100E-03, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0;EGROUP 1, PIPE2D, 1, 0, 0;EGROUP 2, CSTR, 1, 0, 0;EGROUP 3, PUMP, 1, -1, 1, 0;RCONST 2, CSTR, 0.05, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0;RCONST 3, CSTR, 0.05, 1, 0, 0, 1, 0, 0, 0;RCONST 4, PUMP, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0;FUNDEF 1, F;
```

```
F=0.001
CURDEF -2,0,5,0,0,1,1,30,1,31,0,100,0;
                                                     Stimulus function (tracer injection) defined by table
X=0
Y=0
H=0.1
PSTAS
               Just write PSTAS and enter – new building block will be immediately attached at the end of
PSTAS
               series. This action has to be done interactively, because you cannot call a macro from a batch file.
PSTAS
PSTAS
NMERGE ;
NFPT 1, PRES, 2, 5E-3;
NFPT 18, PRES, -1, 0;
NFPT 1, CN, -2, 1;
SOLVE 0,1,1,0,0,40,0,0,0;
INITIA CN,0;
SOLVE 0,400,20,1,0,0,0,1,0;
```

Calculated response can be displayed as a graph using GT command. During execution of this command you can observe evolution of the injected tracer distribution



FEMINA automatically calculates inner volume of apparatuses as the sum of volumes of pipes, pumps and tanks, and using this overall volume and the flow-rate at inlet the theoretical mean residence time is calculated and displayed in the LIST window. You can compare this value with the first moment calculated from response (NORM or MOM commands). Even if the tail is very long (which is typical for systems with stagnant regions) the calculated mean residence time is accurate within 1% tolerance, however, comparison with the "exact" solution using the RTD model D00.mdt reveals the effect of numerical dispersion (the response peek is lower than it should be).

Next example is similar and very frequent: series of ideally mixed vessels with backmixing,



This model seems to be simple, however, when modelling the backmixing stream using a positive



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displacement pump it is necessary to include PIPE2D elements behind the pump and also behind each CSTR. Not doing this, pressure distribution and flowrates would be calculated correctly, however the impulse response would be quite wrong (even not decreasing to zero, but approaching a positive value). The following program shows also the way how convergence problems can be avoided: calculate flowrates first by adjusting zero backmixing f (this always works) and even then continue iterations with desired level of backmixing, or gradually increasing f.

```
H=0.1
N=4
G=0.005
V=1
F=0.001
C* backmixing using FEM
C* F-flowrate backmixing,
C* V-volume of 1 vessel
C* G-flowrate (inlet)
C* N-number of units (vessels)
T=N*V/G*3
L=300
W=T/L
INIFEM
EGROUP 3, PIPE2D, 1, 0, 0;
RCONST 3, PIPE2D, 0.01;
ND 0,0
ND H, O
E 2,1,2
EGROUP 2, PUMP, 1, -1, 1, 0;
RCONST 2, PUMP, 0, 0, 0, .001, .0001, 0;
EGROUP 1, CSTR, 1, 0, 0;
RCONST 1,CSTR,0.01,V,0,0,1,0,0,0;
X = H
#LOOP LAB, N
K=ND
ND X+H,0;
ACTSET 1,1
ACTSET 3,1
E 2,K,K+1
X=X+2*H
ND X,0
ACTSET 1,3
ACTSET 3,3
E 2,K+1,K+2
#LABEL LAB
```

Calculated response of 4 units, f=0.2, mean residence time 800 s, and 300 time steps, shown in the figure right, is compared with the solution of system of ordinary differential equations (model B00.mdt, which will be discussed in the next chapter). As you see agreement is quite good.

X = HK=1 #LOOP LABK, N-1 ND X,H ACTSET 1,3 ACTSET 3,3 E 2,2\*N+K+2,2\*K ACTSET 1,2 ACTSET 3,2 E 2,2\*K+3,2\*N+K+2 K=K+1X=X+2\*H #LABEL LABK FUNDEF 1, F CURDEF -2,0,5,0,1,W,1,2\*W,1,3\*W,0,T,0 K = 2 \* N + 2FND 1, PRES, 2, G FND K, PRES, -1, 0 FND 1, CN, -2, 1 C\* start calculation with zero F A = FF=0 SOLVE 0,1,1,0,0,30,0,0,0 F=A SOLVE 0,1,1,1,0,30,0,0,0 SOLVE 0, L, W, 1, 0, 0, 0, 1, 0 TSTEP L,W J=0 #LOOP L1,L J=J+1  $C1(J) = W^{*}(J-1)$ LTN C1(J) C2(J)=V3(LPU(CN)+K) #LABEL L1 NORM 2,2,0



## 2.2.11. Case study - direct ohmic heater

The one dimensional elements (for example PIPE2D) can be used also for modelling of a more complicated systems consisting not only from pipes. In this case the mathematical model is only an approximation of a real system with uncertainties in element characterisation, for example equivalent diameter of pipes, local pressure loss coefficients or even the lengths of pipes. These uncertainties can be reduced by experiments, comparing measured pressures or flow rates with the model prediction. It is also possible to make use of stimulus response experiments for identification of unknown model parameters, because FEMINA allows solution of thermal and concentration fields and therefore to calculate responses to a tracer injection. Both the energy and mass transport analysis is based upon the models of axial dispersion, where the dispersion coefficients are calculated according to the Taylor Aris theory in laminar flows and empirical correlations are used in turbulent flow.

Important points

This approach will be demonstrated upon analysis of a direct continuous electric heater (see figure), with the aim to simulate stimulus response experiment. The following model calculates steady state distribution of pressure, flowrates and temperature, when the liquid in the central channel is heated ohmically (it will be demonstrated how to model volumetric heat source and heat transfer between parallel channels). Transient distribution of tracer inside the heater and the response to a simulated trace injection will be calculated as well.



**∠**)X"100



SCALE 0,.3,-.1,1;

PT 1,.100E+00,.100E+01;

```
CR2PT 1,1,2;
CR2PT 2,2,3;
CR2PT 3,3,4;
CR2PT 4,5,4;
CR2PT 5,5,6;
CR2PT 6,6,7;
CR2PT 7,7,11;
CR2PT 8,11,12;
CR2PT 9,12,13;
CR2PT 10,13,14;
CR2PT 11,14,2;
CR2PT 12,7,8;
CR2PT 13,8,9;
CR2PT 14,9,10;
C* MCRC CR-first, nelements, last/first, no of.nodes, RC-group, CR-last, CR-step
MCRC
         1,2,1,2,1,1;
ACTSET 3,2;
MCRC
         2,2,1,2,2;
                                     MCRC - generation of elements on a curve (or curves). Only two-node
MCRC
         3,2,1,2,3;
                                     elements PIPE2D are used here, which differs in various groups RC-Real
MCRC
         4,10,1,2,3;
                                     Constants (the fifth parameter), i.e. in various channel equivalent diameters,
MCRC
         5,2,1,2,3;
                                     heat transfer coefficients and also transversal component of electric field
         6,2,1,2,4,7;
MCRC
                                     intensity, determining intensity of volumetric heating in the central channel.
         8,2,1,2,3;
MCRC
MCRC
         9,10,1,2,3;
         10,2,1,2,3;
MCRC
         11,2,1,2,2;
                               MCR4 - generation of four-node elements HEXC which represent heat exchangers -
MCRC
                               they model heat transfer between pairs of PIPE2D elements already defined on a pair
MCRC
         12,2,1,2,5;
MCRC
         13,10,1,2,6;
                               of curves by command MCRC.
MCRC
         14,2,1,2,5;
NMERGE ;
                                                     RCONST defines tube diameter (e.g. 0.02 m), heat transfer
EGROUP 1, PIPE2D, 1, 0;
                                                     coefficient (e.g. 10 W.m<sup>-2</sup>.K<sup>-1</sup>) and ambient temperature (e.g.
EGROUP 2, HEXC, 1;
                                                     20°C) corresponding to heat losses from lateral channels.
MCR4 4,13,7,2;
MCR4 13,9,7,2;
                                                     RCONST defines also transversal intensity of electric field in
RCONST 1, PIPE2D, 0.02, 0, 0, 0, 10, 20;
                                                     the central channel (E_v = 10^5 \text{ V/m}).
RCONST 2, PIPE2D, 0.02, 0, 0, 0, 10, 20;
RCONST 3, PIPE2D, 0.02, 0, 0, 0, 10, 20;
                                                     RCHEX defines heat transfer surface (related to the unit
RCONST 4, PIPE2D, 0.03, 0, 0, 0, 10, 20;
                                                     length of heat exchanger) and heat transfer coefficient
RCONST 5, PIPE2D, 0.04;
                                                     between central and lateral channels.
RCONST 6, PIPE2D, .04, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1E5;
RCHEX 7, .1, 5000;
                                                     Pressure is fixed at inlet (120 kPa) and outlet (100 kPa),
NFPT 1, PRES, -1, 1.2E5;
                                                     constant temperature is specified only at inlet (20^{\circ}C). At inlet
NFPT 10,12,-1,1E5;
                                                     a time course of concentration simulates injection of tracer.
NFPT 1, TEMP, -1, 20;
                                                     This time course is defined by table number -2.
NFPT 1, CN, -2, 1;
CURDEF -2,0,4,0,0,1,1,2,0,3,0;
                                                     OHMI sets calculation of internal sources, in this case
OHMI=1
                                                     volumetric heat source. VISC and DN define viscosity and
VISC(1) = 1
                                                     diffusion coefficient in material group 1. INITIA sets initial
DN(1) = 1E - 8
                                                     concentration zero. SOLVE performs 100 time steps, with
INITIA CN,0;
                                                     \Delta t=0.25 s, 3 iterations for velocity field and 1 iteration for
SOLVE 0,100,0.25,0,0,3,1,1,0;
                                                     temperature and concentration in each time step.
```

Currently only results, corresponding to the time 25 seconds (100 steps x 0.25 seconds), are available in memory. You can pick nodes or elements (NID, EID) to look at the current values of pressures, flow-rates, temperatures and concentration in selected nodes and elements, you can use command GD1 to display contours of pressure, temperature and concentration, but all these values hold for time 25 s. The whole time history is available only in files \*.OUT and \*.TEP for nodal and element parameters respectively. Command GT reads the OUT-file and plots the time courses of nodal parameters selected by mouse. This procedure was used in the previous example (2D flow in a channel) and could have been used here as well. However, we shall use more complicated, but also a

more general approach, based upon the command LTN *time* which reloads all nodal parameters from a specified time, using linear interpolation of data in the OUT-file (see also 2.2.2 where the same method has been applied). Using this, the procedure which transfers nodal values of concentrations for t=0,0.5,1.,1.5,...,25 into 50 rows of the observation matrix can be prepared in the following way



The batch file GTIME is processed using command

#### F GTIME

and resulting response in the 3<sup>rd</sup> column of MOP can be processed in a standard way (i.e. moments can be calculated, and time course plotted).

Before presenting and discussing results of stimulus-response experiments, we shall point out some problems related to the axial dispersion of enthalpy and concentration in the 1D flow in a pipe. In the analysed example a narrow triangular pulse of concentration has been defined at inlet as a stimulus function. At turbulent flow this concentration pulse is transferred in the flow direction by mean velocity of flow and at the same time is dispersed first of all by turbulent eddies. This situation can be described quite accurately by the model of axial dispersion, where dispersion coefficient is expressed as a function of Reynolds number. This is not so easy in laminar flows, because then at least two different regions must be analysed separately: region of a very slow flow, when the radial diffusion is sufficient to smooth out radial concentration profiles, and the region when diffusion can be completely neglected and dispersion is caused by convection only (by a non-uniform radial velocity profile). The slow flow region is characterised by inequality

$$D > k \frac{V}{L} \tag{2.2.11-1}$$

where D is diffusion coefficient, L is a characteristic length of pipe, V is volumetric flowrate and the constant k is 0.044 according to Taylor (1953), or 0.08 according to Hunt (1977). Example: Blood flow is almost always laminar and can be modelled by axial dispersion in most cases (in arteries or capillaries), however the flow in an aorta does not fulfil the inequality (1) – convection dominates and in the case of zero hematocrit even the turbulent flow could be expected (Re  $\cong$  2500).

In fact only the regions of turbulent or a very slow flow can be described using the model of axial dispersion correctly, because a pure convection at medium velocities is qualitatively different: convection disperses an initial short pulse into a broader pulse (but still a discontinuous pulse) and the speed of the pulse dispersion is constant and equals mean velocity of flow assuming parabolic velocity profile. On the other hand the diffusive dispersion is characterised by a continuous concentration profile and first of all by a decreasing rate of the peek expansion with time. In another words: while the initial peek is extended to the distance *u.t* in the convection dominated dispersion, the width is only  $\sqrt{\pi D_e t}$  if a dispersion  $D_e$  is used in the axial dispersion model. Therefore if we want at least to match velocities of broadening a pulse, the dispersion coefficient should be proportional to time ( $D_e \approx t$ ) !

Let us return back to the ohmic heater. The calculated flow is laminar in all elements for specified parameters (volumetric flowrate 0.129 l/s) and theoretical mean residence time calculated by FEMINA is 13.1 s. The following figure presents calculated responses corresponding to the model of Taylor Aris dispersion for three different values of diffusion coefficient:



It is obvious, that the responses calculated for small (realistic) diffusion coefficients are quite wrong, tracer appears too soon at the outlet and the predicted mean residence time is too short.

The reason why the results are wrong is obvious: Taylor Aris model of axial dispersion cannot be applied because the flow is too fast and the radial concentration is not smoothed out by diffusion sufficiently. This is the worst case, having no satisfying solution so far. The following figure presents result corresponding to the axial dispersion model with modified dispersion coefficient  $D_e$ 

$$u\tau = \sqrt{\pi D_e \tau} \rightarrow D_e = D + \frac{u^2 \tau}{\pi}$$
 (2.2.11-2)

which stems from comparison between the width of pulse at pure convection and the characteristic diffusion depth at time  $\tau$ .



This is quite empirical approach, and the time  $\tau$  is only a model parameter (system variable TAUD) which is to be identified either from real or from numerical experiments, as will be shown in the following chapter "Optimisation".

In a similar way like in a 2D problem it is possible to solve the transport equations using method of characteristics, i.e. as a pure convection assuming piston flow and dispersion superposed in the following step. This option is activated from menu *Solution-Option* 



It is difficult to come to the conclusion, that the method of characteristics decreases numerical dispersion, from a single numerical experiment, however in this case the method of characteristic predicts response having significantly smaller variance in comparison with the Petrov Galerkin and even pure Galerkin methods.

### 2.3. Finite elements for stress analysis

Capability of FEMINA for stress analysis is rather restricted. Only static and linear analysis is available for some elements, it means that calculation of dynamics, large deformations or plastic behaviour of materials is not implemented. However, the most frequently encountered problems, for example static analysis of pipelines (where inner pressure and temperature have been calculated by the previous methods) or static analysis of rotationally symmetric pressure vessels can be performed.

#### 2.3.1. Trusses – nonlinear static analysis

The simplest static element is TRUSS2D – 1D element connected by a joint for example with elements BEAM, PLANE,.... So far this is the only element applicable also for *nonlinear* static, i.e. for large deformations and displacements, as will be demonstrated on the example of a strut frame formed by two trusses with relatively large angle of span. In this case the stiffness changes significantly with load and loss of stability can be expected if the load exceeds a critical limit.



Stability can be examined by gradual loading and monitoring the joint 2 displacement. The problem can be considered as a quasi-stationary, when force is a function of time, however the time plays no role from point of view of the system dynamics. We shall consider linear time increase of the force  $F_y$  (defined as function number 1) varying from 0 up to 8500 N at 85 increments. Predicted relationship between a load and displacement is compared with the analytical solution

$$F_{y} = \frac{EA}{L^{3}}u_{y}(H - u_{y})(2H - u_{y})$$

where A is cross-section of truss, L is length and H is an initial elevation of joint. Solution converges only up to the critical load when the trusses click. Up to this load the solution by FEMINA is remarkably accurate.

```
FUNDEF 1,TIME;
NFPT 2,UY,1,-1;
SOLVE 0,100,85,0,0,0,0,0,5;
```



### 2.3.2. Beams and pipes

Pipeline network, where pressures, flowrates and temperatures have been calculated, can be analysed also from point of view of stresses and it is possible to calculate forces and moments caused by internal pressure, dilatation and external loads. That is because the element PIPE2D is calculated as a beam with second moment of cross section

$$J_{z} = \frac{\pi D_{e}^{4}}{64} \left[1 - \left(\frac{D_{i}}{D_{e}}\right)^{4}\right] \quad \text{, according to } D_{i} \text{ and } h \text{ parameters in group RCONST}$$

It also possible to calculate beams with arbitrary cross section, and in this case it is necessary to specify both the cross section area A and the moment of inertia  $J_z$  explicitly (using the command RCONST). Beam elements (PIPE2D, BEAM2D) can be loaded by four possible ways

- 1) Forces  $F_x$ ,  $F_y$  (N) or moments  $M_z$  (N.m) in arbitrary nodes.
- 2) Continuous load, specified as a pressure p in parameters RCONST. However, this is not an inner pressure, but a force acting on a unit length of pipe or beam perpendicularly to the element axis.
- 3) Dilatation forces, caused by different temperature of wall (it is assumed that the wall temperature is the same as the temperature of liquid inside the pipe) and a reference mounting temperature T<sub>e</sub>, which is also specified as a RCONST parameter.
- 4) The element PIPE2D, i.e. a pipe loaded by inner pressure (nodal parameter), exhibits a contraction, having a similar effect as the thermal dilatation.

Results of solution are nodal parameters – displacements and rotations at nodes, and inner forces are calculated during postprocessing. These forces are located in the zone of element parameters: axial force (N) under name ENA ( $N_{\alpha}$ ), transversal force ENB ( $N_{\beta}$ ), and bending moment EMA ( $M_{\alpha}$ ).

The following example is a clamped beam loaded by a singular force at the end. In fact there are two identical beams in the example, demonstrating that results are independent of number of elements used (2 and 5 elements):



$$u_y = \frac{F_y L^3}{3EJ_z} = 0.003233 \, m, \qquad \varphi_z = -\frac{F_y L^2}{2EJ_z} = 0.00485.$$

#### 2.3.3. Rotationally symmetric vessels (shells)

Shell elements SHELLAX calculate deformations and distribution of internal forces and moments in rotationally symmetric and symmetrically loaded shells with the symmetry axis x (the coordinate y is radius). Shell can be loaded by inner pressure (specified as a parameter of RCONST) or by singular forces and moments. Finite elements having 3 degree of freedom in each node (displacements UX,UY and rotation RZ) are used.

First we introduce examples, where analytical solution exists: We shall analyse a horizontal pipe loaded by inner pressure with one end clamped and the other end free (radius R=1m, thickness of wall h=0.01m, overpressure p=1 MPa, material steel E=2.1E11 Pa,  $\mu$ =0.3).

The following figures show graphs of circumferential stresses  $N_{\beta}$  (positive, because radius is increased), bending moments  $M_{\alpha}$  (sign is changing, there is a big positive moment near the clamp, causing inner filament elongation) and also radial displacement.



Continuous graphs correspond to the analytical solution (Křupka 1986), points have been obtained by the following program



The commands GD1,GE1,GC plot graphs of calculated nodal and element parameters.

Almost the same program can be used for the pipe loaded by lateral moment and radial force (related to unit circumference).

RCONST 1, SHELLAX, 0.01, 0;	Status of rotation RZ in node 1 (originally clamped) is changed to a
NFPT 1,RZ,1,1;	positive value (within the range 1 up to 20). Specified value of DOF will
SOLVE 0,1,0,0,0,1,1,0,1;	has in this case interpreted as a corresponding load (moment M.). The same
NFPT 1,UY,1,1;	be in this case interpreted as a corresponding road (moment $M_{\alpha}$ ). The same
SOLVE 0,1,0,0,0,1,1,0,1;	procedure will be applied to force (parameter correponding to a force
	acting in the direction y is $\cup$ y).

The following figures present results of numerical solution with 20 elements and analytical solution (continuous graphs).



Note: The calculated quantities are displacements UX,UY, rotations RZ (in radians) and unit forces, evaluated from deformation of individual elements (they are parameters of elements, named by ENA-N<sub> $\alpha$ </sub>, ENB-N<sub> $\beta$ </sub>, EMA-M<sub> $\alpha$ </sub>, EMB-M<sub> $\beta$ </sub>, EQ-Q). All these unit forces are related to the unit length of the shell section: N<sub> $\alpha$ </sub>, N<sub> $\beta$ </sub> (unit N/m) are normal forces acting in the meridian or in the circumferential direction respectively, M<sub> $\alpha$ </sub>, M<sub> $\beta$ </sub> (unit N) are bending moments invoking bending stresses in the meridian and circumferential direction and Q (N/m) is a force normal to the shell surface. Sign conventions differ when setting and interpreting these forces (because forces are specified in a global coordinate system *x*,*r*, while results are in the coordinate system of element): Positive *calculated* values N<sub> $\alpha$ </sub>, N<sub> $\beta$ </sub> indicate normal *tensile* stresses, and positive moments M<sub> $\alpha$ </sub>, M<sub> $\beta$ </sub> correspond to *tensile* stresses at *inner* surface (simply speaking positive calculated moments then to "open" the shell). On the other hand a positive *specified* value of the bending moment M<sub>z</sub> corresponds to the loading moment always oriented counter clockwise (therefore the positive value M<sub>z</sub>=1 prescribed at the left edge of pipe would cause the edge shrinking, while the same positive moment at the right edge would cause the pipe opening).

The following example is a model of connection of two pipes with different thickness of wall (radius is the same R=0.5 m, but one pipe has thickness 0.02 m and the second only 0.01m). Membrane stresses are perturbed and waves of bending stresses  $M_{\alpha}$  appear when the pipe is loaded by inner pressure p=1 MPa. The range of disturbance depends upon the thickness of wall  $\cong 3.12\sqrt{Rh}$  as you can observe in the following figure

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The most important applications of elements SHELLAX are calculations of symmetrical and symmetrically loaded pressure vessels, tanks, bellows and so on. As an example a cylindrical vessel with spherical bottom will be calculated (material steel, wall thickness 0.01 m, inner pressure 1 MPa). The transition between the cylindrical and the spherical part of vessel is not smooth, because assumed angle of meridian at the edge of spherical bottom is  $45^{\circ}$ . Therefore waves of bending stresses  $M_{\alpha}$  and circumferential stresses  $N_{\beta}$  appear as shown in the following figure (use the command GE1):



Actual membrane and bending stresses can be calculated from unit forces using expressions

$$\sigma_{membrane} = \frac{N}{h}$$
  $\sigma_{bending} = \frac{6M}{h^2}$ 

#### 2.3.4. Plane stress, plane strain

Programs for plane stress and strain analysis are more or less standard, models can be designed using triangular or quadrilateral elements. Results of post-processing are stresses  $\sigma_{xx}$ ,  $\sigma_{yy}$ ,  $\tau_{xy}$ ,  $\sigma_{Mises}$  (mean element values).



### 2.3.5. Case study: pipeline design

In this example we shall consider basic design of a simple pipeline with a pump and heater, comprising fluid flow analysis (flowrates), heat transfer analysis (temperature profiles at a steady state) and finally stress analysis taking into account dilatations and pressure load of pipes. First step is always definition of problem, shown in the following schematic figure



Next step is a decision which kinds of finite elements should be used: Obvious choice is selection the PIPE2D elements for pipes and PUMP elements for pump. Heater is a heat exchanger and there are several possibilities, depending first of all upon the type of heat exchanger (plate, shell&tube, hairpin,...). In our case we select instead of the HEXC four nodal elements again a PIPE2D element with appropriate modification of boundary conditions, corresponding to the heat transfer from the condensing steam.

Solution of the problem starts with definition of geometrical model, in fact only a polyline consisting of curves 1 (inlet pipe), 2 (pump), 3 (pipe), 4 (heated section), and 5-7 (insulated pipes). This can be created by a single command CRS using mouse (it is useful to set a grid using GON to simplify positioning of keypoints).

Then the curves are meshed by selected finite elements using commands RC (definition of parameters – diameter, wall thickness and roughness for pipes), EG (definition of the element type, in our case PIPE2D or PUMP) and MCR (mesh curve). This is probably the most important and difficult part of our solution, because some parameters must be estimated, for example the heat transfer coefficient at the outer surface of pipes in the heater section and coefficients of local friction losses (you can use auxiliary tools accessed from menu bar Calculation or in dialog panels for setting parameters). Special attention should be devoted to pump: there are several options depending upon the type of pump (positive displacement pump, pump with a used defined hydraulic characteristics or selection a pump from database). We choose the last option: In this case the optimal pump is selected from the SIGMA catalogue, according to the specified requirements (kind of pump, diameter of nozzles, estimated flowrate and estimated pressure height). Meshing must be completed by the command NMERGE which connects the elements on adjoined curves.

Because we are going to carry out three kinds of analysis (flow, heat and stress), three kind of boundary conditions must be specified for PRESS (pressure), TEMP (temperature), UX,UY,RZ (displacements and rotations). Assuming that there are no external supports, it is sufficient to specify these parameters only at inlet and outlet (red circles) using commands FPT (Fix PoinTs).

From now on it is possible to start finite element analysis by the command SOLVE, where it is sufficient to specify only 1 time step (we consider only steady state analysis – magnitude of time step is unimportant) and number of iterations for flow (due to nonlinear characteristic of pump the number should be rather large, for example 20), heat transfer (1 iteration is sufficient because we consider temperature independent properties) and stress analysis (1 iteration – small deformation and linear elasticity is assumed). The three kinds of analysis can be performed together, using one command SOLVE, however in the following session file the analysis were performed separately – we believe that it is a good practice to start with the flow analysis, check results (pressure profiles and first of all flowrates – in this case flowrates should be the same in all elements!) and even than start the thermal and stress analysis.

```
C* PIPELINE with a centrifugal pump
C* FLOW, THERMAL, and STRESS analysis
C*
PT 1,.000E+00,.200E+02;
PT 2,.200E+02,.200E+02;
CR2PT 1,1,2;
PT 3,.300E+02,.200E+02;
CR2PT 2,2,3;
PT 4,.500E+02,.200E+02;
CR2PT 3,3,4;
PT 5,.500E+02,.300E+02;
                                  GEOMETRY (points PT and curves CR). This is accomplished by single
CR2PT 4,4,5;
                                  command CRS
PT 6,.500E+02,.600E+02;
CR2PT 5,5,6;
PT 7,.700E+02,.800E+02;
CR2PT 6,6,7;
PT 8,.900E+02,.800E+02;
CR2PT 7,7,8;
RCONST 1, PIPE2D, .5E-01, .1E-03, 0, .1E+01, 0, 0, .196E-02, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, .12E-04, 0,
MCR 1,3,1,2,0,0,1;
MCR 3,3,1,2,0,0,1;
                                    Meshing pipes (use dialog menu bar Properties, RCONST)
MCR 6,3,1,2,0,7,1;
MCR 4,2,1,2,0,0,1;
RCONST 2, PIPE2D, .5E-01, .1E-03, 0, 0, .1E+05, 100, .196E-02, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, .120E-04, 0;
MCR 5,5,1,2,0,0,1;
                                    Meshing heat exchanger
EGROUP 2, PUMP, 0, -2, 0, 0;
RCONST 3, PUMP, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, .100E-02;
RCEPUM 20,0,0.05,0.001,10;
                                      Create element PUMP
MCR 2,1,1,2,0,0,1;
NMERGE ;
NFPT 1, PRES, -1, 1E5;
                                       Fixed (constant) pressure at inlet and outlet
NFPT 8, PRES, -1, 2E5;
RELFAKT=.1
SOLVE 0,1,1,0,0,20,0,0,0,0,0;
                                       Fixed (constant) temperature at inlet (outlet temperature is calculated)
NFPT 1, TEMP, -1, 50;
SOLVE 25,20,1,1,0,0,1,0,0,0,0;
NFPT 1, UX, -1, 0;
NFPT 1,UY,-1,0;
                                       Fixed support (displacement UX,UY and rotation RZ) at inlet,
NFPT 1,RZ,-1,0;
                                       Fixed displacements at outlet. You can fix also for example the pump
NFPT 8,UX,-1,0;
                                       or heat exchanger. Remark: PUMP is considered as a rigid body.
NFPT 8,UY,-1,0;
SOLVE 65,1,1,1,0,0,0,0,0,0,1;
```

To see results use the commands NID (node identification), EID (element identification) or plot temperature and pressure profiles by commands GD1 (graphs of Degree of freedoms), moments, forces, flowrates by GE1 (graph of Element parameters)<sup>19</sup>. The following screens show dialog panels displayed when picking a pump and a pipe by mouse (command EID):

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> All results are of course in output files \*.OUT, \*.TEP as usually, journal of processing in \*.SES and \*.DBG files.



Remark: The previous example assumed that the heater is formed by single vertical jacketed pipe (steam condenses in a duplicator). However it is also possible to substitute the pipe with the bundle of pipes just only by changing a proper parameter in EGROUP (N-number of parallel pipes) – in this case any specified and any calculated parameter (diameter, cross section, roughness of wall, as well as wall shear stress, flowrate etc) concerns only one pipe of the bundle.

Remark: Previous figures demonstrate some auxiliary tools for engineering estimates of pressure drop in pipes, for evaluation of stresses in pipes, for calculation of heat transfer coefficient at outer surface of pipes and for estimation of local friction loss coefficient  $\zeta$ . These tools are accessible from menu bar *Calculator* and also from dialog panels activated during inspection of elements by command EID-modify.

### 2.4.RTD models and response processing

RTD modelling and response processing has nothing to do with finite element data structures and geometrical models (entities PR,CR,SF,VL,ND,EL), the only important data structure is the matrix of observation points (MOP) consisting of time responses stored as columns of MOP. The first column of MOP matrix is time and the following columns (2,3,...,10) are corresponding functions. Therefore the observation matrix can contain up to 9 different time functions represented by a table of values with a common time base. By the way, the MOP has been used in the previous examples for storing temperature and concentration time courses predicted by FEM and further on it will be used in regression and lumped parameter model analysis for storing inputs and predicted outputs of a system, as well as for the measured responses.

The basic tasks concern the problem how to read data into MOP from an ASCII file, and how to modify, display and plot the data.

Basic commands ensuring these operations are

- ROM reads selected columns of MOP from a file with postfix TXT or DAT, which can be created by any text processor, Excel or a data logger. Data can be in a free format with numbers or text items separated by one or more spaces (e.g. -1.2 -1.2 -1.2e+3 are valid formats of numbers), and in the rows describing the observation points only numerical items are expected. The data file is selected from menu and the selection is enhanced by continuous displaying the content of browsed files. After a file is selected it is necessary to specify the row containing column labels (used for headers) and first of all the rows with data which are to be transported into MOP. Further on a correspondence between columns in the data file and columns in MOP must be established (it is possible to select up to 10 columns in data and assign them arbitrary columns of MOP). The operation ROM is sufficient for most cases and only if it is necessary to import time courses having a different time base, the general command READ has to be used (in this case the data are transformed to a different time base using quadratic interpolation<sup>20</sup>).
- T  $n, \Delta t$  Creation of an empty matrix having *n* rows (*n*-observation points) and a time base (first column of MOP) with a constant time step. NT (number of points) and DT (time step) are system variables.

TCEDIT (TCE) <sup>21</sup>	graphic editing of a selected time curve using mouse.
TCINPUT (TCI)	manual input of MOP entries from keyboard.
TCLIST (TCL)	list of all 10 columns of MOP in the window MODEL (TCS command can be
	used for naming selected columns)
GTC n	plot several selected time curves (new window with automatic scale)
TCP index	plot a selected time curve (add the curve to the existing graph)

ZI,ZO,SCALE,CLS,MA Zoom-in, zoom-out, new scale, clear screen, magnify (the same commands as in FEM)

TID identify a time curve and a point of the curve using mouse (Left-Click picks, Right-Click ends the inspection routine); information on a picked curve and point is immediately displayed (coordinates of point, number of points, mean residence time, variance and even the third moment of the picked curve). This is a similar operation like NID,EID,PID, CID, SID,... in FEM.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> This is option TC of the command READ. Quadratic interpolation (in fact quadratic regression splines) is used if there is only a few data points, while in the opposite case, if there is a huge amount of data, much greater than the number of available rows in the matrix MOP, the data are integrated and only average values are placed into MOP.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> Any command in FEMINA has several synonyms and for example the keywords TCEDIT, TCE and TED have the same meaning.

- TCF assignment in this way it is possible to define the whole column as an algebraic expression. Columns are variables C1,C2,...,C10 and the variable I is the row index. For example the command TCF C1=0.1\*I defines equidistant times (the first column will be 0.1, 0.2, 0.3,...), and the command TCF C3=C2\*EXP(-0.05\*C1) represents in fact a half life decay correction of a response in the second column. In the case that only selected range of rows should be calculated use the TCFR command instead of TCF.
- SMOOTH *i*<sub>source</sub>,*i*<sub>smoothed</sub>,*method* smoothing a part of the time curve *i*<sub>source</sub> using regression splines or medians (smoothing method is selected by the parameter *method*). The smoothed part is localised by mouse.
- TAIL *i*<sub>source</sub>, *i*<sub>smoothed</sub>, *method* tail approximation either by the exponential functions  $A+B \exp(-Ct)$  (*method*=1), A+B t  $\exp(-Ct)$  (*method*=2), or by the convective model  $A+B/t^3$  (*method*=3). The coefficients A,B,C are evaluated by nonlinear regression method. The parameter A is an asymptotic value of curve for a very long times, interpreted as a value of background, which is automatically subtracted. It is possible to suppress the background calculation and subtraction by specifying negative values of parameter *method*=-1,-2,-3.

TCREG  $i_{source}, i_{corrected}, model, i1, i2$ regression of time curve using specified range of points i1, i2.TCBGR  $i_{source}, i_{corrected}$ background raise correction is performed automatically (see chapter 4).NORM  $i_{source}, i_{normalised}, type$ normalise a time curve either to unit area or even to a unit mean timeTCINTG  $i_{source}, i_F$ time curve integration (calculation of integral distributions, e.g. F(t))

TCRND *i*<sub>source</sub>, *i*<sub>corrected</sub>, *absolute\_relative*, *sigma* Noise superposition.

CS <i>i</i> source, <i>i</i> corrected, <i>shift</i> <sup>22</sup> TS <i>i</i> source, <i>i</i> corrected, <i>shift</i>	vertical shift of a selected curve (for example background subtraction) time shift of a selected curve (new time origin)
TCS <i>i</i> <sub>source</sub> , <i>i</i> <sub>corrected</sub> , <i>st</i> , <i>sc</i>	horizontal and vertical shift of a selected curve
TCZ <i>i</i> source, <i>i</i> corrected	fill zeroes into a part, usually an initial part, of a selected curve (the part is specified by mouse).
TCLIP <i>i</i>	suppress negative values of a selected curve (replacement by zeroes)
TCEND $t_{min}, t_{max}$	set new common time range for all curves (by mouse)
TCDT n <sub>steps</sub> ,∆t	recalculate all time curves to a constant time step. It is assumed, that the first data point corresponds to the time zero, it means that the original time curve is shifted and only then transformed to the new time basis 0, $\Delta t$ , $2\Delta t$ ,( $n_{step}$ -1) $\Delta t$ by linear interpolation.
CTO <i>i</i> source, <i>i</i> copy	copy a time curve

MOMENT *i* calculates moments (area, mean time and variance of the time curve *i*)

There are several operations for the time curve processing making use FFT (Fast Fourier Transform), summarised in a single command FFT. Because the implemented FFT method expects that the number of transformed points is a power of two, the processed curves are automatically extended by zero points to the nearest higher power of two (if you want to reduce the number of the processed points just change the number of observation points in MOP using assignment NT=...). Power spectral densities of resulting functions (PSD) as well as integrals of PSD are always calculated and represented in graphs as a function of frequency. Then it is possible to select a threshold frequency using mouse and Fourier coefficients corresponding to higher frequencies will be suppressed.

- □ FFT 1,*stimulus function, response, calculated impulse response, freq. cuttoff, reference model, weight of model* Deconvolution (given response and stimulus function the impulse response is calculated)
- **□** FFT 2,*stimulus function, impulse response, calculated response, freq. cuttoff*

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> If a zero *shift* is specied (default value of the parameter) new zero level is located by mouse. The same holds for TS, TCS.

Convolution (response is calculated as a convolution of a stimulus function and impulse response)

- □ FFT 3, *function X, function Y, calculated correlation of X,Y, freq. cuttoff* Cross-correlation of two time courses (auto correlation is a special case)
- □ FFT 4, noised function, filtered function, method Time course filtering (Wiener filter or simply a higher frequencies cutoff).

Theoretical impulse responses for simple systems can be generated using commands

- SERIE  $i_{response}, n_{mixers}, t_{mean}$  generalised model of an ideal mixer series; the word generalised means that the number of mixers need not be an integer number, because gamma functions are used instead of factorials in the model definition.
- PASERI  $i_{response}, n_{mix1}, n_{mix2}, f, \alpha, t_{mean}$  generalised Bishoff's model of  $n_{mix1}$  and  $n_{mix2}$  units in two parallel series, where *f* is the relative flowrate in the first stream and  $\alpha$  is the relative volume of the vessels in this stream.

The main tool for the RTD modelling are of course lumped parameter models, described by a system of ordinary differential equations of the first order:

$$\frac{dc_i}{dt} = f_i(t, x, c_1, ..., c_N),$$
 i=1,2,...,N

where  $c_i(t)$  are concentrations in basic flow units, ideally mixed tanks, *t* is time and *x*(*t*) represents one or more stimulus functions. This system of equations is described by the same simple language, that is used in FEMINA's command interpreter. For example the series of *N* ideal mixers

$$t_{1} \frac{dc_{1}}{dt} = x(t) - c_{1}(t),$$
  
$$t_{1} \frac{dc_{i}}{dt} = c_{i-1}(t) - c_{i}(t), ... i = 2, ..., N$$

is described by the following commands

dcm(1)=(xv(1)-cm(1))/t1for i=2,n do dcm(i)=(cm(i-1)-cm(i))/t1 yv(1)=cm(n) yv(2)=yvt(1,time-delay)

where dcm(i), cm(i) are first derivative and concentration in the *i*-th unit, while xv(1) is the first stimulus function, and yv(1) is the first response, concentration in the last mixed tank. The last command defines the second output response yv(2), calculated as a time delay of the first response, it means that yv(2) is a response of the series plus a piston flow unit. While the vectors cm(i) and dcm(i) are internal, the time courses xv(i), yv(i) are represented by selected columns of MOP, therefore a model can have maximum 9 stimulus functions and responses.

The description of differential equations is not sufficient – it is also necessary to define initial conditions (important if we want to calculate *impulse* responses) and first of all relationships between model parameters and auxiliary variables, for example  $t_1$ , n, delay. Let us assume that our model has 3 parameters: mean residence time, ratio of piston flow volume and total volume, and of course number of units n. The first two parameters are real, while the third is an integer. You can use *any* predefined system variable as a parameter, however for simplicity we shall use two vectors RP(i) and IP(i) for real and integer parameters of RTD models. Now we can write the initialisation section as

```
real t1, delay integer i, n
delay=rp(2)*rp(1) n=ip(3) t1=(rp(1)-delay)/n
cm(1)=1/t1
```

where the last command describes initial concentration in the first unit, corresponding to the impulse injection of tracer (this command is ignored if the response to a general stimulus function is required).

The text of several typical models is prepared in files with postfix MDT (the same convention as in the previous versions of RTD programs) and these models can be activated by command RMODEL, which enables selection, import and modification of prepared models.

A part of model definition file is also information about model parameters (names, default values, lower and upper bounds, ...), specification of solution method (either Euler or Runge Kutta with fixed or variable integration steps) and also directing stimulus and response functions to columns of MOP. All these parameters can be updated either during operation RMODEL in a dialog panel, or later, using commands

- INPUTNumber of stimulus functions  $x_i$ , column of  $x_1$ , column of  $x_2, ...$ Number of stimulus functions and their position in MOP
- OUTPUT Number of response functions y, column of  $y_1$ , column of  $y_2$ ,... Number of response functions and their position in MOP
- PARDEF *No.of parameters,p*<sub>1</sub>*-name,p*<sub>2</sub>*-name,...*definition of model parameters. You can use any system variable, for example simple variables (A,B,...), however in predefined models vectors RP(i) and IP(i) are used for real and integer parameters exclusively.
- PARSET  $p_1, p_2, \dots$  set actual values of parameters
- METHOD *M:* 0-Euler,>0-RK fixed  $\Delta t$ ,<0-variable step, No.of equations, No. of basic steps, Basic time step

Method of integration: Euler method of the first kind (M=0) is recommended only for algebraic models, while for differential equations the 4-point Runge Kutta (M $\neq$ 0) is always better. You can select either a fixed time step of integration (M>0) which is M-times less than the basic time step (the time step in MOP), or variable integration time step (M<0), adjusted so that the relative accuracy 10\*\*M will be achieved.

The model calculates impulse response (stimulus functions suppressed, initial cond. respected) IMPULS *method, no of equations, no of basic steps, basic time step* 

or calculates responses to specified stimulus functions (with zero initial conditions) CONVOL *method*, *no of equations*, *no of basic steps*, *basic time step* 

or integrates the model without zeroing initial condition and with stimulus functions INTEGR *method, no of equations, no of basic steps, basic time step.* 

System variables and functions important for RTD analysis and lumped parameter models:

A,B,,Z	user variables (I,J,K,L,M,N are integers)
C1(i),,C10(i)	columns of MOP (C1(i) is always interpreted as time)
NT,DT	number of points (rows of MOP) and time step
METH	method of integration (=0 Euler, >0 RK fixed step, <0 RK variable integ.step)
RP(i),IP(i),NP	model parameters (real/integer) and number of parameters
Remark: Ve	ectors RP(i), IP(i) are duplicated by equivalence, therefore you cannot define for
example a r	nodel with two parameters, the first real and the second integer, as RP(1) and
IP(1), but R	P(1) and IP(2).
PMIN(i),PMAX(i)	prescribed minimum and maximum values of model parameters
REGR(i)	zero values suppresses identification (see later) of i-th model parameter
CM(i),DCM(i)	values of concentrations and their derivatives in the i-th flow unit at current time
XV(i),YV(i)	actual values of stimulus functions and responses.
NINP,VINP(i)	number of stimulus functions and corresponding columns in MOP
NOUT,VOUT(i)	number of responses and corresponding columns of MOP.
CVT(i,time)	is an interpolating function, passing value of a function in the i-th MOP column.

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## 2.4.1. Response processing

Let us assume, that 512 time points of four measured responses are in the following file RTDROM.TXT (the format can be more or less arbitrary, with or without header rows):

row	time	data1	data2	data3	data4
1	.000	.039	.076	.039	.076
2	.010	.039	.076	.039	.076
 511	5.100	.011	.024	.304	.254
512	5.110	.026	.074	.122	.135

This file can be transferred to the matrix of observation points using command REOMAT (ROM is a synonym which can be used as well)

REOMAT rtdrom.txt,1,2,3,2,1,5,2,6,3;

FEMINA			
<u>File Edit View Properties Functions Solution Graphs State Window H</u> elp			
READ observation matrix	🗙 💶 🔀 LIST DBG-file (use U,D,PU,PD)		
OK Header row 1 First data row 2 Cancel	You should check if the row index of header		
Assign columns of data to columns 1,10 of observation matrix rtdrom.txt col.MOP 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 28111443.txt col.DATA 2 5 6 4 7 9 col.DATA 2 5 6 7 8 9	<sup>10</sup> and row index of the first data point are selected correctly.		
command txt         Row1         row         time         data1         data2         data3         data4         S           data4.txt         Row1         row         time         data1         data2         data3         data4.txt         S           femina.bxt         Row2         1         .000         .039         .076         .039         .076         th           femrep.txt         Row3         2         .010         .039         .076         .039         .076         .011           identif.txt         Row4         3         .020         .060         .042         .061         .011           mod4.txt         Row5         4         .030         .027         .061         .077           nl2.txt         Row6         5         .040         .040         .077         .040         .077	belect the columns in data file which are to be ransferred. The first column (row index) is not mportant and therefore is skipped. Only the last two esponses will be transferred into columns 2 and 3.		
psd txt regdat.txt         Row7         6         .050         .027         .061         .027         .061           regdat.txt         Row8         7         .060         .048         .086         .049         .087           tdcmr.txt         Row9         9         .080         .007         .067         .051         .067         .050           tc.txt         Row10         9         .080         .002         .022         .027         .061           type bt         Row11         10         .090         .002         .026         .002         .027           vetev2.txt         Row11         10         .090         .007         .026         .007         .027           vetev3.txt         Row12         11         .100         .042         .014         .013           vetev3.txt         Row13         12         .110         .074         .029         .074         .028           Row15         14         .130         .035         .085         .035         .086	25 ↔ Y 10 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 20 2		
-5 -5			
Step= 512 Dt= .100E-01 2[data]:Rtdrom.txt 3[data]:Rtdrom.txt Empty: 4 5 6 7 8 9 10			
Image: Session file TEST.SES       exists. If you want to OPEN it as an old problem press [Y].         >ROM       AVAILABLE COMMANDS:         Reading 512 points done       NEWPROB[clear database] FILE[read and interpret ses]         >GTC;       control: #LABEL xxxx; #GOT0 xxxx; #LOOP xxxx N [reg         Time curves - automatic scale according to selected curves for plotting i=2,10       2[data]:Rtdrom.txt         2[data]:Rtdrom.txt       Siglata]:Rtdrom.txt       Empty: 4 5 6 7 8 910			
Running State State Frikazový řádek	N En 🖽 📕 1242		

The data can be visualised either in form of graphs (command GTC) or as a table (command TCL).

We have extracted only the last two measured responses, and it is obvious, see figure, that both these curves are characterised by a rising background which is to be eliminated. This can be achieved by the following commands TCBGR, processing columns 2 and 3, and results, iteratively corrected responses, will be placed into columns 4 and 5, respectively.

TCBGR 2,4; TCBGR 3,5;

The corrected response in the column 5 is shown in the following figure (use TCP 5 for plotting):



Using command SMOOTH a local smoothing can be performed either by local regression or by median method. The smoothing is controlled by one parameter M. For M=0 a linear and for M>0 a quadratic approximation is identified by regression of 2M+1 points, taking into account M points before and M points behind the processed point (the case M=0 is an exception, the linear smoothing is always identified from 4 points). A negative M would activate the median smoothing, again with 2|M|+1 points.

SMOOTH 5,6,0,1,511; SMOOTH 5,10,10,1,511; Smoothing response 5, results are in columns 6 (linear smoothing M=0) and 10 (quadratic smoothing M=10) respectively. The range of smoothed points 1 to 511 has been identified by mouse.



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## 2.4.2. Lumped parameter models of RTD – series of CSTR with backmixing





#### 2.4.3. FFT convolution, deconvolution, correlations

FFT will be used for identification of a system formed by two parallel series of mixed tanks (3+9), having the mean residence time 1. As a stimulus function the impulse response of 3-tanks having mean time 3 will be used (it should be noted that it is a rather difficult problem, because the stimulus function is 3-times longer than the identified impulse response resulting to a bad conditionality of the solution). The "theoretical" response will be calculated by convolution using FFT, and a noise will be superposed to stimulus and also to the response function. Using these noised signals the impulse response will be identified using FFT with regularization.



## 2.5. Detectors

FEM models created by FEMINA can be always considered as 3D models describing spatial distribution of tracer c(t,x,y,z) even if only 1D elements (for example pipes) or 2D elements (FLOW2D) are used. For example the model of continuous ohmic heater formed from 1D elements PIPE2D (elements are abscissas) has its 3D extensions, depending upon the specified cross section of pipes (parameters D and AREA in RCONST) and upon the parameter AXIS of EGROUP.



Geometry of spatial extension is defined by nodal coordinates (2 nodes of element PIPE2D) and by two RCONST parameters, D (hydraulic diameter) and AREA (of cross section). If the element is a circular pipe the EGROUP parameter AXIS=1 and diameter is D. In the case that the cross section of pipe is rectangular AXIS>1, and the parameters D, AREA define dimensions of sides according to

$$b = \frac{AREA}{D} (1 + \sqrt{1 - \frac{D^2}{AREA}}) \quad \text{and} \quad a = \frac{AREA}{b}$$
  
as follows from the definition of hydraulic diameter  $D = \frac{4AREA}{D}$ 

Therefore the element PIPE2D looks in the local coordinate system  $\xi,\eta,\zeta$  like a prismatic bar as soon as AXIS>1



Remark: In fact there are two roots  $a_1,b_1, a_2,b_2$  satisfying the area and the hydraulic diameter constraints. To avoid the ambiguity, the sign of parameter AREA is used. If AREA>0 then the dimension *a* is the smallest of the roots  $a_1,a_2$  and reversely, if AREA<0 the side *a* is the greatest of  $a_1,a_2$ . Seems to be complicated? You need not worry about this, because dimension are specified by the command RCROSS and the sign encoding and decoding is carried out automatically. Therefore you can specify dimensions a,b always according to the fig.left.

The axis  $\xi$  is always the element axis fully determined by Cartesian coordinates of nodal points X,Y,Z, and axis  $\eta$  and  $\zeta$  are located in the plane which is perpendicular to the element axis. FEMINA considers only three possible rotations of cross section around the axis  $\xi$ : AXIS=2 – axis  $\eta$  lies in the plane XY, AXIS=3 – axis  $\eta$  lies in the plane YZ, and AXIS=4 – axis  $\eta$  lies in the plane XZ.

3D extension of 2D finite elements (e.g. PLANE2D or FLOW2D) is straightforward. For AXIS=1 (cylindrical coordinate system) elements defined in XY plane are represented by rings with axis X, while for AXIS=0 the region in the XY plane is extruded in the Z direction by a value given by RCONST parameter (height).

The 3D extension is a region, where a distribution of concentration (for example DOF(CN,3,XX,YY,ZZ)) or generally any function can be defined. In the same way, that is as a user function, the media attenuation is defined (more specifically attenuation is prescribed as a constant multiplied by a function of X,Y,Z).

This concentration field can be observed by one or more collimated detectors of radiation, characterised by position, dimensions and attenuation of a cylindrical collimator (see command DETDEF).

Define detector View angle range Aperture Front x,y,z Back x,y,z

Responses of detectors can be evaluated by several different algorithms (view factor, single and triple ray methods, see theoretical manual of FEMINA) in the following steps:

- 1. Results of finite element analysis corresponding to time t=0,  $\Delta t$ ,  $2\Delta t$ ,... are read from the file OUT into the zone of initial conditions (this transfer corresponds to the command LTC). It is also possible to skip reading from the OUT-file and process only the tracer distribution in the current time step – this option is useful for processing imported data for example from FLUENT.
- 2. Loop across all elements. Contribution of element to the detector response is calculated by numerical integration of selected DOF, usually concentration CN,CD, or CA (response to a unit concentration in integration points is evaluated by selected algorithm).



If you specify the last parameter Row=0 all time steps from OUT file will be processed, Row>0 processes only current distribution.

3. Evaluated responses of selected detectors are placed into specified columns of MOP (matrix of observation points).

This run time consuming operation is carried out in the independent program RUNDET.EXE, called by the command DETDOF.

There exists also a different way of processing, where it is not a DOF, but a user defined function which describes the tracer distribution. Processing differs first of all by the integration method. Instead of integration over elements, the integration proceeds in regions defined by view angles and view ranges of specified detectors, and integrands can be any spatial functions. In the case that the functions require evaluation of concentrations, the Cartesian boxing has to be performed (see operation BOX). This second approach activated by the command DETFUN is more effective than the previous one as soon as the view range of detectors is relatively small.

Attenuation of media is also defined by a function, however this approach is not so straightforward, first of all because it would not be very effective to integrate attenuation of a radiation

ray numerically along the whole ray (from a general point x,y,z to the detector), especially if there are thin but strongly absorbing metallic plates, walls of vessels, baffles and so on. It is in principle necessary to integrate

$$\int_{0}^{L} a(x)dx = a_{m}L \tag{1}$$

where  $a_m$  is the mean attenuation which depends on the mutual position of detector and the source of radiation at *x*,*y*,*z*, therefore  $a_m$  is not generally a constant but a function of *x*,*y*,*z*. And this is just this function which must be defined by user. Let us consider as an example a single metallic sheet between detector and the source of radiation



Therefore the function describing media attenuation should be written as if x<H then am=aw else am=((x-d)\*aw+d\*as)/x

How to define this function in FEMINA? User defined functions are denoted by numbers (indices), and indices in the range -10 to 60 are reserved for simple functions defined either by a table (CURDEF) or by a single arithmetic expression (FUNDEF). Both these ways are not suitable for more complicated algorithms of attenuation and specific functions (with indices 101,102,...,105) must be defined using the script language in the same way as RTD models described in previous chapter 3. Besides standard RTD models there exists also a model F1 (use command RM and select F1 from list of models). Script, calculating mean attenuation as a function of coordinates XX,YY,ZZ, must be written into the <u>\\INI</u> section, section <u>\\MOD</u> and <u>\\PAR</u> can be omitted, see the following figure.



System variable yv(1) is used as the result returned by function 101 (variable yv(2) is function 102 ...), H, D,W, S are user variables: distance, thickness, attenuation of water and steel. Use e.g. commands H=0.2 D=0.002 W=5.7 S=100 to assign proper values.

From now on the user function 101 is defined and can be referred in the commands DETDOF or DETFUN as an attenuation function.

This example was simple, however programming of more complicated arrangements is a more difficult task. To make the programming of attenuation easier the user function

ALEN(detector,x,y,z, xc,yc,zc, a,b,h, ityp)

returning thickness of a layer of material through which a ray is passing has been designed. Geometry of obstacle is selected by the parameter *ityp*: ityp 1-3 is a rectangular plate (centre xc,yc,zc, dimension  $a \ge b$  and thickness h), ityp=4-6 is a cylindrical shell (centre xc,yc,zc, radius a, length b and thickness h) and ityp=7-9 is a full cylinder.



The function ALEN enables to calculate for any ray (and for any collimated detector) the distance corresponding to the passage through metal, through water, air etc. and to calculate mean value of attenuation coefficient as a weighted average of attenuation coefficients (taken from tables) with weights given by calculated distances. Thickness of material is related to the length of ray calculated as a distance from the front face of detector to the point x, y, z, returned by function

RLEN(detector,x,y,z).

We shall try to demonstrate the whole procedure on example of mixer – cylindrical vessel filled by water with baffles, shaft and impeller, made from steel. We design the RTD model F1 in such a way that it can be used not only for one detector, but for multiple detectors in arbitrary positions (this is easy, because FEMINA sets the value of variable I to the index of currently processed detector<sup>23</sup>).

First step is to prepare a list of obstacles having significant influence upon attenuation of radiation.

1. water (cylinder height H, radius R<sub>1</sub>-h<sub>1</sub>)

- 2. cylindrical shell (height R, radius R<sub>1</sub>, wall h<sub>1</sub>)
- 3. bottom (cylinder height  $h_3$ , radius  $R_1$ )
- 4. impeller (cylinder height  $h_3$ , radius  $R_3$ )

 $<sup>^{23}</sup>$  One letter system variables (A,B,...,Z) are reserved for user as auxiliary variables and FEMINA never changes their values. Variable I is an exception, we have seen that for example in the command TCF value I is row index, and now during processing DETDOF or DETFUN the value I denotes processed detector.

- 5. shaft (cylinder height h<sub>4</sub>, radius R<sub>2</sub>)
- 6. baffle (plate Hxb, thickness h<sub>2</sub>)
- 7. baffle (plate Hxb, thickness h<sub>2</sub>)
- 8. baffle (plate Hxb, thickness h<sub>2</sub>)
- 9. baffle (plate Hxb, thickness h<sub>2</sub>)

It is assumed that the remaining length of rays (with the exception of items 1-9) is air and its attenuation can be neglected.



Using the list of obstacles it is possible to prepare a new RTD model, for example a model with the name F2

OK	RTD model
UK	Attenuation of radiation in a mixed vessel
Cancel	dimensions of vessel, impeller and baffles are specified in INI section.
	Attenuation of water W=5.9, steel S=100.
Save model	Mean attenuation for i-th detector is YV(1).
lodify param.	Wini
	real r1,r2,r3,h1,h2,h3,h4,d1,d2,d3,d4,d5,d6,d7,d8,d9,rc
1	r1=0.3 r2=0.008 r3=0.1 h1=0.005 h2=0.005 h3=0.006 h4=0.006
10	h=0.3 w=5.9 s=100
SOO SOA	d1=alen(i,xx,yy,zz,0,h3+h/2,0,r1-h1,h3,0,8)
OL	d2=alen(i,xx,yy,zz,0,h3+h/2,0,r1,h,h1,5)
SP0 SPA	d3=alen(i,xx,yy,zz,0,h3/2,0,r1,h3,0,8)
PB W0	d4=alen(i,xx,yy,zz,0,h3+h/3,0,r3,h4,0,8)
WA WB	d5=alen(i,xx,yy,zz,0,h3+2*h/3,0,r2,2*h/3,0,8)
WL S00	a=(r1-h1)*0.2 rc=r1-h1-a/2
SQA	d6=alen(i,xx,yy,zz,0,h3+h/2,-rc,a,h,h2,1)
SOL	d7=alen(i,xx,yy,zz,-rc,h3+h/2,0,a,h,h2,3)
WA	d8=alen(i,xx,yy,zz,0,h3+h/2,rc,a,h,h2,1)
WB WL	d9=alen(i,xx,yy,zz,rc,h3+h/2,0,a,h,h2,3)
00	yv(1)=(s*(d2+d3+d4+d5+d6+d7+d8+d9)+w*d1)/rlen(i.xx.yy.zz)

Again, reading this model (RM F2) the function number 101 describing attenuation will be defined. Remark: The functions ALEN and RLEN are useful not only for evaluation of CFD results, but also for calculation spatial distribution of density using methods of transmission tomography, see chapter 5. Coefficient of attenuation a [1/m] is usually calculated from the mass attenuation coefficient  $a/\rho$  [m<sup>2</sup>/kg] which is independent of material density. The mass attenuation is derived from the total cross section for an interaction by the photon taking into account atomic photoeffect, Rayleigh and Compton scattering and electron-positron production. Data which are freely available for most elements as well as for mixtures are available at Webb page of NIST

http://physics.nist.gov/PhysRefData/XrayMassCoef/ComTab/pmma.html The relationship between energy of radiation and the mass attenuation coefficient (symbol  $\mu$  is used instead of *a*) and mass energy absorption coefficients ( $\mu_{en}$ ) are summarised in tables and graphs. Examples for attenuation coefficients of water and iron are shown in the following figure:



#### Important commands

DETDEF (DD) Detector number, x-front,x-back, y-front,y-back, z-front,z-back, aperture, view angle, range, attenuation

definition of detector position using x,y,z coordinates of centreline points at the front and back of collimator hole. View angle and the range define a conical region, where integration is performed if the method DETFUN is chosen. Attenuation concerns material of collimator and this parameter is used only if the 1-ray or 3-rays algorithms of collimation are selected.

DETPLOT Number of detectors plots detectors

DETDOF (DETD) dof (CN,CD,CA), method (1-view factor, 2-view factor with near distance correction, 3,4-single ray without and with correction, 5,6-triple ray without and with correction, 7-spherical detector), media attenuation, attenuation function, no.of detectors, detector 1, column of response 1, detector 2, column of response 2,...

Responses of selected detectors for previously defined time steps (command T) calculated by RUNDET.EXE by integration of specified DOF at all elements. Parameter *media attenuation* is a constant multiplied by a *attenuation function* as soon as this function is defined.

DETFUN (DETF) index of function, method (1-view factor, 2-view factor with near distance correction, 3,4-single ray without and with correction, 5,6-triple ray without and with correction, 7-spherical detector), media attenuation, attenuation function, no.of detectors, detector 1, column of response 1, detector 2, column of response 2,...

Responses of selected detectors are calculated by integration of specified function within the detector view angles.

# 2.6. Optimisation and identification of a mathematical model

Previous examples have dealt with the solution of mathematical models. All these models are parameterised in the sense that the model predictions depend upon system variables and in the case that the model prediction can be compared with experimental data it is possible to optimise selected model parameters using operations OPTIMA or SOMA.

Examples of flow models:

- Identification of a RTD model described as a regression function with a set of unknown coefficients. These regression functions could represent impulse responses which can be identified by comparing with reference data in MOP (matrix of observation points). In this case the standard Levenberg Marquardt method is used and the range of available models is fixed.
- Identification of a lumped parameter model described by a system of ordinary differential equations. Model parameters are in this case flowrates, volumes of tanks, numbers of flow units and coefficients describing characteristics of detectors. Model predictions are responses to a simulated tracer injection, and these responses are automatically stored in MOP (matrix of observation points).
- Optimisation of 1D finite element models of pipelines or 2D models of simple flow systems, where optimised parameters are usually diameters of pipes and volumes of tanks (parameters RCONST) in 1D models, or geometry, for example diameters of nozzles, in 2D models. The model responses are in these cases time courses of tracer concentrations evaluated either at a nodal point or as an integral across a region. These time courses must be transferred into the MOP using operations LOADT or GTIME.

As a reference data the experimentally obtained responses are usually used, however, a numerical experiment can be used as well. So, the possible sources of reference data for a model identification are:

- Experiments time responses of detectors, read by the command ROM into the matrix of observation points.
- Responses calculated by FEMINA using a 1D or 2D finite element model. The model simulates stimulus response experiment, starting from a steady solution of velocities, followed by a transient solution of mass transfer (concentration of tracer).
- Responses calculated by a CFD program, e.g. by Fluent or Cosmos. Time courses of concentrations must be transformed to a file which can be read to the matrix of observation points by the command ROM.
- CFD programs can be used only for calculation of a steady state flow field, i.e. velocities. These results can be imported into FEMINA, that simulates only the stimulus response experiment (FEMINA solves the transient concentration field and performs postprocessing using e.g. algorithms of collimated detectors).

The optimisation routines can be used also for the computerised tomography. The simplest applications will be demonstrated on examples, where the goal is identification of a *steady* distribution of matter (density) in a cross section or inside a vessel. The density distribution will be described by a simple function (e.g. as a polynomial of x,y,z) and the identification of its coefficients will be based upon comparison with steady signals from multiple detectors (transmission  $\gamma$ -tomography with several collimated detectors and electro-tomography based upon evaluation of signals from conductivity probes).

The two optimisation methods implemented in FEMINA, OPTIMA and SOMA, are the same from user's point of view. Both the methods accept models, defined either as a lumped parameter

model activated by the command RMODEL, or models defined as batch files, which are activated by the command

OPEN *unit,file* the batch *file* will be opened on a *unit*. The unit cannot be 1, 2, 9,10,11,20 because these numbers are used for working files or opened windows. It is for example quite safe to use *unit=*7.

The batch file can describe for example a finite element model whose results are transferred to the matrix of observation points, or it can be only a function, e.g. quadratic polynomial with 3 unknown parameters, system variables A,B,C

TCF C2=A+B\*C1+C\*C1\*\*2

The model parameters (e.g. A,B,C in the previous example) have to be defined in the same way as it was done at the lumped parameter models

PARDEF *No.of parameters*, *p*<sub>1</sub>*-name*, *p*<sub>2</sub>*-name*, ... definition of model parameters, identified by names of arbitrary system variables or even by a vector element (e.g. RP(10), XPT(NPT-1),...). The parameters can be real or integer and their type will be identified automatically.

PARSET  $p_1, p_2, \dots$  set actual values of parameters.

PARLIM  $p_{1min}$ ,  $p_{1max}$ ,  $p_{2min}$ ,  $p_{2max}$ , ... defines allowed range of parameters. This range is important first of all for efficiency of the SOMA method.

PARFIT  $p_1$ , '0-supressed, 1-linear, 2-nonlin, 3-search',  $\omega_{p1}$ ,  $p_2$ , '0-supressed, ...',  $\omega_{p2}$ ,...

For each model parameter the three values are specified: initial value, then an integer value determining optimisation (0-parameter is not optimised, 1-model is linear or nearly linear with respect to this parameter, 2-highly nonlinear parameter, 3-golden section search) and the last value  $\omega_p$  is an underrelaxation factor (0,1) with the default value 1. The values  $\omega_p <1$  should be used only when problems with convergence are encountered.

Both the model prediction and the reference data must be in some columns of the observation point matrix MOP. It is necessary to specify L columns which are to be compared and used for calculation of a target function (for example the weighted sum of squares of differences):

$$s^{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{L} \sum_{i=i_{1}}^{i_{2}} (y_{i,e_{j}} - y_{i,m_{j}})^{2} y_{i,w_{j}}$$

**CRITER** criterion

It is possible to select another criterion for comparison than the sum of squares (it is only default). *Criterion*=0 sum of absolute values of differences, =1 sum of absolute values of relative differences, =2 sum of squares of differences (default), =3 sum of squares of relative differences, =4 integral of absolute values, =5 integral of absolute values of relative differences, =6 integral of squares, =7 integral of squares of relative differences.

COMPAR Number of pairs, first row, last row, prediction<sub>1</sub>, data<sub>1</sub>, weight<sub>1</sub>, prediction<sub>2</sub>, ...

Number of pairs equals the number of responses L which are used for optimisation (maximum is usually 4, because then you need 8 columns of MOP for measured data and model predictions and one column for weights), *first row*  $i_1$  and *last row*  $i_2$  define the range of MOP rows and therefore the number of points used for optimisation (the same for all responses). For each pair of responses the three parameters define columns of prediction, reference data and weighting coefficients, respectively. When *weight*<sub>1</sub>=0, unit weights are assumed.

TCDEV calculates and displays deviation for actual settings (COMPAR and CRITER); result is in system variable SCOMP.

If the model is prepared and parameters are specified it is possible to start optimisation

OPTIMA 'MODEL 0,1 dif.eq., >1 file',Number of iterations, scaling,  $\lambda$ -increase,  $\lambda$ -decrease Deterministic algorithm of Levenberg Marquardt type modified also for integer parameters. The first parameter selects the optimised model: MODEL=0 is the active lumped parameter model calculating *impulse* responses (stimulus functions, inlets, are suppressed), MODEL=1 is also the lumped parameter model, calculating responses to inlet functions with zero initial conditions, MODEL=2 preserves initial condition as well as inlets. MODEL>2 is the unit, where a session file (model definition file) is prepared and opened by the command OPEN. The last three parameters concern the Levenberg Marquardt method and default values are optimal in most cases: *scaling*=1 (default) activates the so called scaling of normal equations system performed in each iteration,  $\lambda$ -increase (default 10) defines how many times the  $\lambda$  factor is increased in case that results of iteration worsens and on the other hand  $\lambda$ -decrease (default 0.5) determines speed of  $\lambda$  factor diminishing in case of success ( $\lambda = 0$  is an ideal case when the algorithm reduces to the fast Gauss method, while very large value of  $\lambda$  pushes the solution towards the steepest descent method, which is slower but more straightforward).

## SOMA 'MODEL 0,1 dif.eq., >1 file',Number of iteration,Specimen,PRT,step,mass

This method belongs to the group of stochastic algorithms (similar to genetic or evolutionary algorithms, random walk, Monte Carlo, simulated annealing and so on). The first two parameters are the same as in the command OPTIMA. The parameter *Specimen* defines number of randomly distributed trials (specimen) which are moving towards the best solution in each iteration, PRT is the perturbation of the search direction (PRT=1 no perturbation, in fact deterministic approach), *Step* and *mass* determine the length of specimen paths. For more details look at the chapter 4, but from practical point of view it is usually sufficient to accept default values of parameters.

The OPTIMA and SOMA are main tools for optimisation, while the regression algorithms (fit of parameters of several predefined models LINREG, NELREG, NLR2) are of only limited use. In fact any task which can be solved by regression can be also solved by OPTIMA or SOMA, but not so quickly, and so easily. On the other hand OPTIMA/SOMA cannot be processed as a batch only as a part of a macro. This procedure will be demonstrated in the following paragraphs.

System variables frequently used in optimisation procedures are:

KCOMP	criterion of optimisation, see command CRITER
SCOMP	calculated norm of deviations
NCOMP	number of compared pairs of MOP columns (experiment-prediction)
ICOMP(i)	compared pairs of columns and weights in MOP, see

ICOMP(1)	column of 1 <sup>st</sup> prediction
ICOMP(2)	column of 1 <sup>st</sup> experiment
ICOMP(3)	column of weights for 1 <sup>st</sup> pair
ICOMP(4)	column of 2 <sup>nd</sup> prediction
ICOMP(5)	column of 2 <sup>nd</sup> experiment
ICOMP(6)	column of weights for 2 <sup>nd</sup> pair
# 2.6.1. Model identification by regression analysis

We shall assume, that the impulse response of a system is known and represented by a table of points stored in the observation matrix. These data can be read from a data file (command ROM), or created artificially, for example by the following sequence of commands

TSTEP 200,0.03 PASERI 3,1.5,6,.500E+00,.5,1 TCRND 3,3,1,.100E+00 TCRND 3,3,0,.05 TCFUN C4=1 200 points (rows of the observation matrix) with equidistant time step 0.03. The first column is time, the second column will be later used for model prediction, the third column represents measured concentration (formed as an impulse response of Bishoff 's model of two parallel series with noise superposed) and the fourth column is set to 1 (estimated standard deviation of measured points).

# Regression analysis is activated by command

```
NELREG 0,1,3,2,4;
```

The first parameter (0) is an index of selected model (today 13 models are implemented). We usually do not know which model is the best, and in this case we specify 0, which means that all models will be tested and the best one selected automatically. The following parameters identify columns in MOP, independent variable (time) in the 1<sup>st</sup> column, experimental data in 3<sup>rd</sup> column, model prediction in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and weights in the 4<sup>th</sup> column.



The regression can be repeated for specified models, e.g. for model 6 (series) and 8 (axial dispersion).

NELREG 6,1,3,2,4; NELREG 8,1,3,2,4;

Important statistics are summarised in the following table

Model	$\chi^2$	R	S	identified parameters
13 - Parallel series	0.7468	0.9754	0.06204	N <sub>1</sub> =2.48 N <sub>2</sub> =5.78
8 – Axial dispersion	1.071	0.9646	0.07373	
6 - Series	1.106	0.9634	0.07492	N=2.56

## 2.6.2. RTD model identification

In this example we shall demonstrate several methods, how to identify parameters of a general RTD model using the same data as previously

```
TSTEP 200,0.03
PASERI 3,1.5,6,.500E+00,.5,1
TCRND 3,3,1,.100E+00
TCRND 3,3,0,.05
TCFUN C4=1
```

RTD model could be defined as a sequence of commands in a session file, calculating in this example values of model response in the second column of the observation matrix. We can use the Bishoff's model, because its impulse response can be directly calculated by the command PASERI. Therefore the model file can be formed from the single command and saved under name e.g. PASERI

```
RECORD PASERI
PASERI 2,a,b,c,d,e;
ENDREC
```

This model has 5 parameters, A,B,C,D,E which must be described by the following commands



We could also try the SOMA method and test results obtained with different values of operating parameters (specimen, PRT, step and mass). To make the testing easier it is suitable to prepare a macro for initial assignment of model parameters, with the name for example ASSGN

RECORD ASSGN A=0.5 B=4 C=0.8 D=0.8 E=1.5 ENDREC

FEM3AI2.DOC Last update 21.3.2005

Now it is possible to repeat the sequence

ASSGN

SOMA 7,100,5,0.5,0.3,1.6

and check resulting standard deviations at different choices of operating parameters. You will probably confirm our experience, that the stochastic method SOMA is much less effective than the deterministic algorithm OPTIMA, and even one hundred of iterations with different values of operating parameters was not sufficient to achieve comparable accuracy as OPTIMA in only ten iterations. However SOMA should be fail-proof because it is non-derivative and very simple method.

The previous example is not a typical one and such a straightforward approach can be used only with two standard models: series and parallel series of ideally mixed tanks. Generally it is necessary to use RTD lumped parameter models defined in text files \*.MDT activated by the command RMODEL. This procedure is even simpler, because the sequence of commands ROM, RMODEL, COMPAR and OPTIMA is usually enough. We shall illustrate this procedure using the same data (in the 3<sup>rd</sup> column of MOP) and the model SS0.mdt – two parallel series, however the number of flow units cannot be real, but an integer parameter. In this case it is necessary to use the command PARFIT to select type of parameters (all 5 parameters are marked by 2 as strongly nonlinear) and rather small under-relaxation parameters  $\omega_p=0.1$  had to be set for integer parameters, number of flow units. The command OUTPUT is used for redirecting model prediction to the 2<sup>nd</sup> column of MOP (the default value 3 would rewrite the experimental data).

```
RMODEL SS00;
PARFIT .500E+00,2,1,.500E+00,2,1,1,2,1,3,2,.1,7,2,.1;
OUTPUT 1,2;
COMPAR 1,1,200,2,3,4;
OPTIMA 0,10;
```



Comment: Comparing results obtained by using different methods with the same data reveals that the regression model seems to be less accurate than the model PASERI and even than the model SS00. Maybe an error in the regression analysis?

#### 2.6.3. ODE model identification

It is possible to define and optimise an arbitrary system of ordinary differential equations, and it need not be RTD models. However, the procedure is similar as will be demonstrated on the problem of fouling described by the rate equation

$$\frac{dC}{dt} = Ae^{-E/(RT)} - B$$
(2.6.3-1)

where C represents the rate of fouling  $[kg/(m^2.s)]$  on a wall, A,B,E are model parameters and T is known temperature, which might be a function of time. Let us assume that the experimental data are represented by two sets of measurements at two different temperatures  $T_1(t)$  and  $T_2(t)$ . The both experiments were carried out in such a way that the temperature of material rose linearly until the time  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , and afterwards temperature remained constant,  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ , respectively. Two experimentally determined time courses  $C_1(t)$  and  $C_2(t)$  (deposited mass of fouled material) are in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and 3<sup>rd</sup> columns of data file FOUL.DAT. Model can be created for example as the following file FOUL.MDT



Next it is necessary to add the name of our new model FOUL.MDT into the list of existing models \$FEMINA.CMD and even then it is possible to solve the problem

R 6,FOUL.DAT RM FOUL COMPARE 2,1,200,4,2,0,5,3,0; OPTIMA 0,20 GTC;

Data and prediction are shown in the figure right. Evaluation of experiments with arbitrary temperature courses T(t) is nearly the same- in this case these courses will be defined as stimulus functions (using system variables x(t)).



The following example is a case study, experimental determination of heat transfer coefficient at a surface of warm packed food inserted into a cooling box (cooling cabinet). Heat transfer coefficient at natural convection is usually assumed in the form of a general correlation, written in terms of Nusselt number and Rayleigh number

$$Nu = kRa^{m}, \quad Nu = \frac{\alpha H}{\lambda}, \qquad Ra = \frac{g\rho c_{p}H^{3}(T - T_{e})}{\nu\lambda}, \qquad (2.6.3-2,3,4)$$

where  $\alpha$  [W.m<sup>-2</sup>.K<sup>-1</sup>] is heat transfer coefficient, *H* is height of sample,  $\lambda$  [W.m<sup>-1</sup>.K<sup>-1</sup>] is thermal conductivity, g=9.81 acceleration,  $c_p$  [J.kg<sup>-1</sup>.K<sup>-1</sup>] heat capacity,  $\nu$  [m<sup>2</sup>.s<sup>-1</sup>] kinematic viscosity. *T*(*t*)- is surface temperature and  $T_e(t)$  is ambient temperature of air. However, it is not possible to describe changes of Nu by this single (and simple) relationship in the whole range of Rayleigh number Ra and therefore a more general model is to be used

$$Nu = k_1 Ra^{m_1}$$
 for Racrit, and  $Nu = k_2 Ra^{m_2}$ . (2.6.3-5)

Experimental determination of parameters  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$ , exponents  $m_1$ ,  $m_2$  and  $\operatorname{Ra}_{crit}$  is based upon recording time course of temperature T(t) of a metallic model and the temperature of air  $T_e(t)$  inside the cooling box. The model predicting temperature of metallic sample is based upon single ordinary differential equation

$$Mc_p \frac{dT}{dt} = -\alpha S(T - T_e)$$
 or using Nusselt number  $\frac{dT}{dt} = -\frac{\lambda N u S}{H M c_p} (T - T_e)$ , (2.6.3-6)

where M [kg] is mass, and S [m<sup>2</sup>] surface of sample. Solution of this equation cannot be obtained in an analytical form first because  $T_{e}(t)$  is not a constant and also because  $\lambda$ , Nu,  $c_{p}$  are temperature dependent parameters. This is why the equation is defined in FEMINA as the following model (F4)

```
COOLING CABINET
Determination of heat transfer coefficient
from measured temperature of environment (xv(1))
assuming metalic sample. Model parameters
RP(1) - k1
           (from Nu=k1.Ra^m1)
RP(2) - m1
RP(3) - m2 (from Nu=k2.Ra^m2)
RP(4) - Rac critical Rayleigh number.
\\ini
real ra, lambda, ro, gama, ny, smcp, t1, t2, t3, nu
                                                                      T_{e}(t)
real k1, k2, m1, m2, rcrit
                                                                             T(t)
h=0.03 smcp=0.000063234
k1=rp(1) m1=rm(2) m2=rp(3) rcrit=rp(4)
k2=k1*rcrit**(m1-m2)
cm(1) = c2(1)
\\mod
                                                                                  Η
t1=xv(1)
lambda=.0241+0.000075*t1
c=1005
ro=1.276-0.004365*t1
gama = 1/(t1+273)
ny=1.3e-5+9e-8*t1
ra=9.81*qama*h**3*abs(cm(1)-t1)*ro*c/(ny*lambda)
if ra<rcrit then nu=k1*ra**m1 else nu=k2*ra**m2
dcm(1) = lambda * nu/h * smcp * (t1-cm(1))
yy(1) = cm(1)
\\par
IDENUM=
              0 METHOD=-2 NEQ= 1 NPAR= 4 INP=1 OUT=1
X1=3 Y1=4
k1:RP(1) DEFAULT=1 MIN=0 MAX=50 RELFAKT=1 REGRES=2
m1:RP(2) DEFAULT=.2 MIN=.1 MAX=1 RELFAKT=1 REGRES=2
m2:RP(3) DEFAULT=1 MIN=.1 MAX=3 RELFAKT=1 REGRES=2
Ra crit:RP(4) DEFAULT=1e4 MIN=100 MAX=1E8 RELFAKT=1 REGRES=3
```

Data are in the file mer01.txt – first column is time, second column temperature Te, third column measured temperature of sample. Use the command ROM to read the data, then activate model F4 (using command RM) and calculate theoretical prediction by command INTEGR. Optimised values of  $k_1$ ,  $k_2$ , exponents  $m_1$ ,  $m_2$  and Ra<sub>crit</sub> can be found by OPTIMA. Comparison of column 3-experimental data and column 4-calculated temperature, is specified by the command COMPAR.

The following figure demonstrates, that majority of important values can be specified in a dialog panel after issuing the command OPTIMA, for example: criterion of optimisation (least sum of absolute values, least sum of squares, least integral deviation,...), range of MOP rows (matrix of observation points) and columns of MOP which are used for comparison between model prediction and measured temperature of sample. Further on an optimisation method can be selected for each parameter separately (0-fixed value, 1-linear parameter, 2-nonlinear regression, 3-golden section method), underrelaxation parameter and prescribed minima and maxima of searched parameters.



## 2.6.4. FEM model optimisation

We have found in previous chapters that the 1D model of axial dispersion is not suitable for description of responses in laminar flows if the diffusion coefficient is very small. In this case an empirical formula for the coefficient of axial dispersion

$$D_e = D + \frac{u^2 \tau}{\pi}$$

has been suggested, where  $\tau$  is an unknown model parameter. This parameter can be identified by comparison with a correct response obtained either from experiment or numerically. As a theoretical response we are going to use results of 2D model of fully developed laminar flow in a straight pipe analysed in chapter 2.2.2. – the following figure (contours of tracer concentration in five time steps up to the mean residence time) illustrates significant influence of diffusion coefficient.



Let us assume that the responses calculated by the 2D program is saved in the last  $(10^{th})$  column of MOP and the matrix is in file PIPEOPT.DAT. Then we can write program calculating response from a 1D model of axial dispersion with parameter  $\tau$  (TAUD) and this value will be optimised.



The model definition file PIPEOPT2.GEO should solve transient concentration field in L time steps, evaluate results in such a way, that the response, concentrations in the last node of pipe, will be placed into the 3<sup>rd</sup> column and afterward normalised to unit area.

RECORD PIPEOPT2.GEO Initial condition for concentration is zero. INI CN,0 Finite element solution in L-time steps. SOLVE 0,1,w/1 1, 0,0,0,1,0 I=0т=0 This parameter 1 ensures preservation of element parameters NT=60 (flowrates calculated previously). Therefore it is not necessary #LOOP LAB, NT; to repeat calculation of flow, and only one iteration for I=I+1concentration is sufficient in each time step. LOADT T; C1(I) = TC3(I)=V3(LPU(CN)+ND) Value of concentration in node ND in time T. T=T+0.5 #LABEL LAB; NORM 3,3,0 ENDREC Optimisation of TAUD. Because the direct search option (3) has been OPTIMA 7,10

selected 10 iterations means in fact 10 initial trials inside the specified range of TAUD, followed by several steps of golden section method. This is sufficient for 1% accuracy of calculated optimal value TAUD.



## 2.6.5. Transmission tomography

Optimisation methods can be applied also for the transmission tomography, aiming to identify distribution of density in a cross-section of an apparatus. The simplest arrangement consists in using several shielded  $\gamma$ -emitters and collimated detectors, monitoring attenuation of rays due to absorption in material. Such a situation is shown in the following figure (circular cross-section, surrounded by 7 emitters and 5 detectors).



Let us assume, that the measured signal of an arbitrary pair emitter-detector can be expressed as a mean value of unknown density  $\rho(x,y)$  along the ray (e.g. along the abscissa 1-2 in the figure),

$$\rho_m = \frac{1}{L_{12}} \int_{1}^{2} \rho(x, y) dl$$
(2.6.5-1)

Experimental data are therefore represented by *M* values  $\rho_{m1}$ ,  $\rho_{m2}$ , ...,  $\rho_{mM}$ , which enable to identify a model of density distribution  $\rho(x,y)$ , for example in the form of a quadratic polynomial

$$\rho(x, y) = A + B((x - 0.5)^2 + (y - 0.5)^2) + C(x - 0.4)(y - 0.4)$$
(2.6.5-2)

The function (2) has been selected accidentally and has only 3 parameters which are to be identified.

Solution proceeds in the following steps:

First the measured abscissas are generated: We start with definition of outline (a circle in this case) and then we locate emitters and detectors as points PT using mouse (or by using the command READ 5, if you have prepared the coordinates in an ASCII file with the postfix PCS). The connecting lines emitter-detector are defined using CR2PT, and points of intersection with the cross-section perimeter are calculated using PTCR2. These new points define abscissas (use the command CR2PT again), along which integrals of function  $\rho(x,y)$  will be calculated.

```
PT 1,.428E+00,.489E+00;
                             PT 7,.813E+00,.598E+00;
                                                           PT 19,.471E+00,.572E-01;
PT 2,.690E+00,.502E+00;
                             PT 8,.824E+00,.381E+00;
                                                           PT 20,.137E+00,.713E+00;
PT 3,.170E+00,.287E+00;
                             PT 9,.772E+00,.181E+00;
                                                           PT 21,.273E+00,.897E+00;
PT 4,.446E+00,.949E+00;
                             PT 10,.686E+00,.360E-01;
                                                           CR2PT 5,3,21;
PT 5,.618E+00,.879E+00;
                             CIRCLE 1,1,2,4;
                                                           CR2PT 6,3,4;
PT 6,.716E+00,.764E+00;
                             PT 18,.271E+00,.133E+00;
                                                           CR2PT 7,3,5;
```

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-------------	-----------------------

CR2PT	8,3,6;	PTCR2	2,6;	PTCR2	3,6;
CR2PT	9,3,7;	PTCR2	2,16;	PTCR2	3,7;
CR2PT	10,3,8;	PTCR2	2,19;	PTCR2	4,14;
CR2PT	11,10,20;	PTCR2	2,21;	PTCR2	34,3;
CR2PT	12,10,21;	PTCR2	2,15;	CR2PT	23,32,35;
CR2PT	13,10,4;	PTCR2	2,12;	CR2PT	24,49,38;
CR2PT	14,10,5;	PTCR2	3,8;	CR2PT	25,31,44;
CR2PT	15,18,20;	PTCR2	3,9;	CR2PT	26,50,41;
CR2PT	16,18,4;	PTCR2	3,10;	CR2PT	27,13,48;
CR2PT	17,18,7;	PTCR2	3,16;	CR2PT	28,30,39;
CR2PT	18,19,20;	PTCR2	3,18;	CR2PT	29,33,42;
CR2PT	19,19,21;	PTCR2	3,19;	CR2PT	30,51,28;
CR2PT	20,19,5;	PTCR2	4,20;	CR2PT	31,52,45;
CR2PT	21,9,20;	PTCR2	4,11;	CR2PT	32,29,37;
CR2PT	22,9,21;	PTCR2	4,12;	CR2PT	33,23,43;
PTCR2	1,22;	PTCR2	4,13;	CR2PT	34,22,40;
PTCR2	1,20;	PTCR2	4,21;	CR2PT	35,27,53;
PTCR2	1,21;	PTCR2	4,22;	CR2PT	36,54,24;
PTCR2	1,19;	PTCR2	4,10;	CR2PT	37,36,46;
PTCR2	1,13;	PTCR2	4,17;	CR2PT	38,35,26;
PTCR2	1,7;	PTCR2	3,5;	CR2PT	39,24,53;
PTCR2	1,8;	PTCR2	2,18;	CR2PT	40,51,46;
PTCR2	1,9;	PTCR2	2,11;	CR2PT	41,28,52;
PTCR2	1,14;	PTCR2	2,22;	CR2PT	42,27,54;

Next step is the definition of function  $\rho(x,y)$  with parameters A,B,C, according to Eq. (2)

FUNDEF 1, A+B\*((XX-.5)\*\*2+(YY-.5)\*\*2)+C\*(XX-.4)\*(YY-.4);

The length of abscissa, which is used for normalisation of integral (1), can be calculated from coordinates of end-points, or (and this is only a self-indulgence) as a line integral of a function which is identically equal one

FUNDEF 2,1;

The "measured" abscissas are curves CR starting from the index 23 in this specific case. As a mathematical model we suggest procedure, calculating integrals (1) along eighteen curves 23,24,...40 and storing these 18 values into the 2<sup>nd</sup> column of MOP (in the 3<sup>rd</sup> column will be measured values). A line integrals can be calculated using command INTGCR and so that we would not have to mechanically retype this command 18-times, we make use the command #LOOP. The sequence of commands will be recorded into the file tomof.geo

```
RECORD TOMOF.GEO
      I=22
      #LOOP Lab1,18;
      I=I+1
      INTGCR I,1;
      R=INTEGRAL
      INTGCR I,2
      C2(I-22)=R/INTEGRAL
      #LABEL Lab1;
```

ENDREC

Simulated experimental data will be prepared just by using this model for selected values of parameters A,B,C and results will be transferred to the 3<sup>rd</sup> column of MOP. In a real case the experimentaly obtained values (mean densities

```
A=0.01
B=.5
C = .5
TSTEP 18,1;
```

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F tomof.geo TCFUN C3=C2;

Further on it is necessary to describe optimised parameters (PARDEF, PARFIT, PARLIM), to identify compared columns of MOP (COMPAR) and activate the mathematical model *tomof.geo* (opening the file on unit 7)

```
PARDEF 3,A,B,C;
PARFIT .02,1,1,.45,1,1,.6,1,1;
PARLIM 0,1,0,1,0,1;
COMPAR 1,1,20,2,3,0;
OPEN 7,Tomof.geo;
```

From now on it is possible to start up OPTIMA or SOMA optimisation. When using OPTIMA it is sufficient to specify model number (this is number of unit 7) and number of iterations (e.g. 3)

OPTIMA 7,3;

Graphical presentation of results, for example contours of density  $\rho(x,y)$  (this is function number 1 with evaluated parameters *A*,*B*,*C*) is not so easy. It is necessary to mesh the cross section by finite elements – the cross-section must be defined as a surface (using SFCR) and meshed by the command MSF. The actual values of the function number 1 are transferred to the zone of initial conditions as an arbitrary nodal parameter (for example temperature) using command INI, and even then the contours can be plotted using GD2.





⊨¦>X (or axis)\* 10

This example describes only a principle of the method, however, real applications differ only in details. First of all processing of experimental data and evaluation of measured mean density  $\rho_{mi}$  along a specific ray must be performed: Assuming linear relationship between density and linear attenuation coefficient the detected intensity of radiation along the *i*-th ray can be expressed by

$$I(\rho_m, L_i) = I_{i0} e^{-a\rho_m L_i}$$
(2.6.5-3)

where the coefficient *a* is determined from independent experiments or theoretically from tabulated absorption coefficients and densities of individual components of e.g. solid-liquid mixtures<sup>24</sup>. The incident intensity  $I_{i0}$  is a parameter, which is to be calculated for each ray independently using results of calibration measurement when material density  $\rho_{ref}$  is uniform and constant (for example measurement with empty apparatus or with apparatus completely filled by a liquid) – this calibration experiment yields values  $I_{refi}$ . Using these values the mean density along the i-th ray can be evaluated from the detected signal  $I_i$  as follows

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> This is the simplest formula, but in exactly the same way general functions of the type  $I_i \exp(-f(\rho)L_i)$ , with more independently determined parameters, can be used.

$$\rho_{mi} = \rho_{ref} - \frac{1}{aL_i} \ln \frac{I_i}{I_{refi}}$$
(2.6.5-4)

Now the whole procedure is easy; it is convenient to prepare experimental data in form of a text file (free format can be used)

I<sub>ref1</sub>  $I_1$ I<sub>ref2</sub>  $I_2$ . . .

 $I_{\rm N}$ *I*<sub>refN</sub>

and import them into (for example) the  $4^{th}$  ( $I_{refi}$ ) and  $5^{th}$  ( $I_i$ ) columns of MOP by using the command ROM. Let us assume, that the rays are curves CR starting from 1. The mean densities are then calculated from the values recorded by detectors  $I_i$  and  $I_{refi}$  according to Eq.(4) as follows (assuming for example  $\rho_{ref}$ =1000 kg/m<sup>3</sup> and a=0.01 m<sup>2</sup>/kg)

TCF C3=1000-LOG(C5/C4)/(0.01\*CLEN(I))

Another difference concerns the model, describing distribution of density (function number 1 in the previous example). Only very simple functions can be defined by single expression, usually it is necessary to use the more general functions 101,102,.. defined by scripts (see previous examples). In this case it is possible to define even discontinuous functions, for example 6-parametric model (optimised parameters a,b,c,d,e,f) suitable for evaluation of radial density distribution in a draft tube mixer. Remark: number of parameters can be reduced, if the radius of draft tube is known. ↔ Y-or radius\* 100



parameters a,b,c,d,e,f)



if yy < a then yy(1)=b+c\*yy+d\*exp(-e\*yy) else yy(1)=f

While this approach can be applied for quite arbitrary shape of cross section or even for an 3D case, the most frequently encountered geometries, i.e. circular and rectangular cross sections can be processed more easily using the dialog panel accessed from the menu bar Tomography -> Circular cross section, shown in the following figure. In this panel we fill the X,Y positions of emitters and detectors (assuming that the origin of the cartesian coordinate system is in the center of cross section), radius of circle or lengths of sides. At the same time measured values  $I_i$  and  $I_{iref}$  are specified for each ray (the dialog panel is restricted to 18 rays) together with the reference density  $\rho_{ref}$  and parameter *a* in Eq.(2.6.5-4). This operation calculates intersections of rays with perimeter of cross-section, effective lengths  $L_i$  of rays and mean densities  $\rho_{mi}$  calculated from Eq.(2.6.5-4) are placed into the 3<sup>rd</sup> column of MOP.



From now on the solution proceeds as previously, it means by the model selection and optimisation of its parameters.

Remark: The dialog box defines new keypoints (PT 1,2,...) and new curves (CR 1,2,...,N), beams, restricted to the interior of cross-section. Besides this the circle or the rectangular boundary is defined using several subsequent points and curves. Be aware of the fact that the old points and curves are deleted! Matrix of observation points is also created with N-row (N-beams) and the old content is rewritten. To save the data for a following session, use for example the command WB (Write dataBase).

#### 2.6.6. Electrotomography

Much more complicated is electro-tomography, based upon measurement of effective electrical conductivity of a volume of material which is in a contact with measuring electrodes. Results are information about spatial distribution of electrical conductivity and inferred density distribution. There exist many different arrangements of electrodes, but in this example we shall analyse configuration with only one submerged moving electrode and the second electrode fixed at the bottom of vessel.



Solution is based upon computation of electric potential distribution for a specific geometry (position of the moving probe) and calculating electrical current flowing through electrodes. For each observation point it is therefore necessary to use finite element method with different mesh, afterwards integrate electrical current and save it to MOP. Instead the integration the current density it is more suitable (and more accurate) to calculate the total electric power dissipated in the measured volume

$$P = U \cdot I = \int_{\Omega} \kappa (\nabla U)^2 \, d\Omega \tag{2.6.6-1}$$

where  $\kappa$  is specific electric conductivity in a point *x*,*y*,*z*.

We shall approximate the distribution of electrical conductivity as a bilinear polynomial of coordinates x,y

$$\kappa(x, y) = A + Bx + Cy + Dxy.$$
(2.6.6-2)

Let us assume that for identification of four unknown coefficients A,B,C,D it will be sufficient to measure electric current at 9 different positions of the moving cylindrical probe



These graphs illustrate asymmetric distribution of electric potential due to asymmetry of electric conductivity. The numbers are calculated electric currents – proportional to measured signals.

Mathematical model will be represented by a command-file (named for example TOMODEL.GEO), describing geometrical model, mesh generation, boundary conditions (zero potential at bottom and unit potential at cylindrical probe) and solution of electric potential by finite element method for variable material parameter  $\kappa(x,y)$  defined by Eq.(2). The operation SOLVE ensures not only solution but also post-processing, whose result, total dissipated power (1) is transferred from the system variable POWERE into appropriate row of MOP. The session file must include solutions for all nine positions of measuring probe and this repetition will be again ensured using command #LOOP:



This model definition file can be used for identification of optimal parameters A,B,C,D. As a reference data we shall use results of simulation for A=1, B=0.5, C=0.3, D=-1.5, transferred to the  $3^{rd}$  column of MOP and optimisation will be performed with different initial values of A,B,C,D.



### 2.6.7. Heat transfer identification

This example represents a different kind of applications: Identification of unknown heat transfer coefficients on basis of measured time courses of temperature in points inside a body. Procedure will be demonstrated upon a model of a "two dimensional" chicken which is heated or cooled. So that the model would be as realistic as possible, also its inner structure, bones with different thermophysical properties will be considered. The model of chicken is shown in the following figure



Geometrical and finite element model of chicken will be created by the following sequence of commands (file *tkure.geo*). Notice some specific features not used previously: combination of different kinds of elements, two dimensional "PLANE2D" and one-dimensional "TRUSS2D" (for modelling the chicken's claws). Further on it is a surface SF having triangular topology (chicken's beak) and associated meshing, and finally the way haw intestines of chicken are modelled (operation ERMSF).

```
EGROUP 1, PLANE2D, 1, 1, 0, 0, 0;
PT 1,.876E-01,.384E+00;
PT 2,.143E+00,.438E+00;
PT 3,.191E+00,.486E+00;
PT 4,.152E+00,.541E+00;
PT 5,.112E+00,.598E+00;
PT 6,.876E-01,.505E+00;
PT 7,.979E-01,.725E+00;
PT 8,.114E+00,.867E+00;
PT 9,.261E+00,.704E+00;
PT 10,.354E+00,.535E+00;
PT 11,.265E+00,.502E+00;
PT 12,.188E+00,.103E+01;
PT 13,.313E+00,.113E+01;
PT 14,.470E+00,.106E+01;
PT 15,.504E+00,.761E+00;
PT 16,.444E+00,.638E+00;
PT 17,.209E+00,.136E+00;
PT 18,.335E+00,-.728E-01;
PT 19,.540E+00,-.909E-01;
PT 20,.726E+00,-.547E-01;
PT 21,.527E+00,.296E+00;
PT 22,.679E+00,.922E+00;
```

```
PT 23,.936E+00,.103E+01;
PT 24,.104E+01,.734E+00;
PT 25,.109E+01,.242E+00;
PT 26,.943E+00,.904E-01;
PT 27,.819E+00,.574E+00;
PT 28,.520E+00,-.359E+00;
PT 29,.450E+00,-.399E+00;
PT 30,.488E+00,-.450E+00;
PT 31,.531E+00,-.475E+00;
SF6PT 1,1,3,5,2,4,6;
SF8PT 2,3,10,8,5,11,9,7,4;
SF8PT 3,10,15,13,8,16,14,12,9;
SF8PT 4,3,18,20,10,17,19,21,11;
SF8PT 5,10,20,25,15,21,26,27,16;
PT 32,.168E+00,.801E+00;
\mathbf{PT}
   33,.261E+00,.619E+00;
PT 34,.422E+00,.831E+00;
   35,.316E+00,.104E+01;
РТ
   36,.185E+00,.689E+00;
РТ
   37,.362E+00,.692E+00;
РТ
PT 38,.395E+00,.970E+00;
PT 39,.236E+00,.943E+00;
PT 40,.789E+00,.211E+00;
```

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PT 41,.840E+00,.293E+00;	CR2PT 16,28,29;
PT 42,.613E+00,.378E+00;	CR2PT 17,28,30;
PT 43,.370E+00,.641E+00;	CR2PT 18,28,31;
PT 44,.921E+00,.263E+00;	MCR 15,3,1,2;
MSF 1,20,1,3;	MCR 16,1,1,2;
MSF 2,20,20,1,1,3;	MCR 17,1,1,2;
MSF 3,20,20,1,1,3;	MCR 18,1,1,2;
MSF 4,20,20,1,1,3;	MPROP 3, PLANE2D,
MSF 5,20,20,1,1,3;	10,0,2000,0,800,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0;
EGROUP 2,TRUSS2D,1,0;	SF8PT 6,33,34,35,32,37,38,39,36;
RCONST 2,TRUSS2D,0,0,.1,.1;	SF8PT 7,10,40,41,16,21,44,42,43;
MPROP 2,TRUSS2D,	ERMSF 6,1,1,3;
2,0,2000,0,1500,0,0,0,0,0,0,0,0;	ERMSF 7,1,1,3;
CR2PT 15,19,28;	NMERGE ;

Mathematical model consists in solution of transient heating of chicken from an initial constant temperature, while the ambient temperature is maintained constant (but different). Let us assume that there are different values of heat transfer coefficients  $\alpha$  on the chicken surface - in our example only two different and unknown values  $\alpha_1$ =A,  $\alpha_2$ =B will be considered on curves 10 and 8, respectively. Results of solution, temperatures at all nodes and in all times are saved in the OUT-file and can be later on retrieved to the zone of initial conditions (zone 3), processed, and finally transferred to the matrix of observation points as a model prediction. The sequence of commands, defining the mathematical model for the case when two thermocouples located at coordinates (0.4,0.9) and (0.4,0.5) record 20 time steps with  $\Delta t$ =10000 s, and for values of heat transfer coefficients in variables A,B, can be written into the file *kurmodel.geo* 

```
RECORD KURMODEL.GEO
      NFCR 10, TEMP, 21, A, A, A;
      NFCR 8, TEMP, 21, B, B, B;
      INITIA TEMP,0;
      SOLVE 0,20,.100E+05,0,0,0,1,0,0;
      T=0
      I=0
       #LOOP T,20;
      I=I+1
      T=T+10000
      LOADT T
      C1(T) = T
      C2(I) = DOF(TEMP, 3, .4, .9, 0.)
      C3(I) = DOF(TEMP, 3, .4, .5, 0.)
       #LABEL T;
ENDREC
```

It is necessary to issue the command BOX so that the function DOF could be used for evaluation of predicted temperatures in a general point x, y (which is not coincident with any node generally). Simulated experimental data will be located in columns 4 and 5, while the model prediction will be in columns 2 and 3 (column 1 is time).

TE(1)=200 BOX .5 TSTEP 20,.100E+05; PARDEF 2,A,B; PARLIM 100,3000,100,3000; PARFIT 1000,2,1,1500,2,1; COMPAR 2,1,20,2,4,0,3,5,0; OPEN 7,KURMODEL.GEO OPTIMA 7,3

#### 2.6.8. Wall permeability identification

We shall consider a pipeline network with a section, consisting of several parallel capillaries with permeable walls. Permeability of wall  $\mu$  and the local loss coefficient  $\zeta$  are unknown parameters that are to be identified from experiment, where the flowrate before and behind the section of parallel capillaries is measured.



Model corresponding to the previous scheme is defined by the following batch (session file)

```
A=1E-12
                                       Variable A will be permeability \mu, while Z is \zeta
z=1
PT 1,.000E+00,.500E+00;
                                       The commands PT, CR2PT can be substituted by the single
PT 2,.500E+00,.500E+00;
                                       command CRS (simultaneous generation of points and curves
CR2PT 1,1,2;
                                       using mouse - record of this operation is transformed to the
PT 3,.600E+00,.800E+00;
                                       following sequence PT, PT, CR2PT, PT....)
CR2PT 2,2,3;
PT 4,.900E+00,.800E+00;
CR2PT 3,3,4;
PT 5,.100E+01,.800E+00;
CR2PT 4,4,5;
PT 6,.500E+00,.500E+00;
PT 7,.100E+01,.000E+00;
CR2PT 5,6,7;
                                       EGROUP number 2 will be associated with parallel pipes (the last
RCONST 1, PIPE2D, .03;
                                       parameter defines number of pipes in the bundle, n=10000).
MCR 1,3,1,2,0,0,1;
MCR 2,3,1,2,0,0,1;
                                       RCONST number 3 concerns also the parallel pipes - the last
MCR 4,2,1,2,0,0,1;
                                       parameter A is permeability of wall (thickness of wall h=0.01 must
RCONST 2, PIPE2D, .03;
                                       be specified, because overall permeability is proportional to \mu/h)
MCR 5,5,1,2,0,0,1;
EGROUP 2, PIPE2D, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 10000;
RCONST 3, PIPE2D, .100E-02, 0, 0, .01, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, A;
MCR 3,5,1,2,0,0,1;
NMERGE ;
                                       ERMEL command (Egroup, Rconst, Material for an ELement) changes
ERMEL 9,1,4,1;
                                       Rconst group number 4 of the element where \zeta is to be specified.
RCONST 4, PIPE2D, .03, 0, Z;
NFPT 1, PRES, -1, 17E3;
                                       NFPT - prescribed pressures at endpoints.
NFPT 7, PRES, -1, 0;
NFPT 5, PRES, -1, 0;
SOLVE 0,1,1,1,0,20;
```

This batch performs computation for specified parameters A and Z. Calculated flowrates corresponding to experimental data from flowmeters are parameters of elements 14 and 19 (first and last element in the parallel pipes section) and in the element 9 (flowrate in the second branch). These predicted flowrates should be compared with the experimental data in the matrix of observation points (MOP), where the model prediction is in the second and experiment is in the third column (for example). So that the model parameters A and Z could be optimised automatically by OPTIMA, it is necessary to prepare the following model (file name is for example perm0.geo)

```
RECORD PERM0.GEO
PERM(3) =A
ZETA(4) =Z
NT=2
SOLVE 1,1,1,1,0,20;
C2(1) = (E1(IEP(EQ,14)) -E1(IEP(EQ,19)))*10000
C2(2) =E1(IEP(EQ,9))
ENDREC
```

This model sets the parameters PERM and ZETA of the RCONST group number 3 (bundle of pipes) and 4 (pipe behind branching) and performs solution (20 iterations of flow). Difference of flowrates along the bundle is placed into 1<sup>st</sup> row, and flowrate in the element 9 to the second row of second column.

You can check the model by F PERM0.GEO and TCL (look at MOP – there should be two rows (NT=2) and two calculated flowrates in the second column. Experimental data can be typed into the 3-rd column by TCI. Even than the optimisation can be carried out by 4 commands in a similar way as previously (remark: MOP is simplified version of OPEN)

```
MOP perm0.geo
PARDEF 2,A,Z;
COMPAR 1,1,2,2,3,0;
OPTIMA
```