

## VIENNA UNIVERSITY OF TECHNOLOGY

#### Institute of Applied Physics

SURFACE SCIENCE

# **Bachelors Thesis**

Title

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## 1 Theory

#### 1.1 Formulary

#### 1.1.1 Thermodynamics

#### 1.1.2 Continuous one-dimensional flow

Thermal equation of state:

$$\frac{p}{\rho} = RT$$
 [term perf] (1)

Dynamic equation:

$$\frac{1}{\rho}dp + VdV = 0$$

Speed of Sound:

$$a = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial \rho}\right)_s} = \sqrt{\gamma \left(\frac{\partial p}{\partial \rho}\right)_T}$$

$$a = \sqrt{\gamma \frac{p}{\rho}} = \sqrt{\gamma RT}$$
 [term perf] (36)

Mach Number:

$$M = \frac{V}{a} \tag{4}$$

Dynamic Pressure:

$$q = \frac{1}{2}\rho V^2 \tag{}$$

$$q = \frac{\gamma}{2} p M^2$$

From the dynamic equation and the speed of sound relation:

$$\frac{p}{\rho^{\gamma}} = \text{constant} = \frac{p_t}{\rho_t^{\gamma}} \quad [\text{isen, perf}]$$
 (34)

From which:

(2) 
$$\frac{p}{p_t} = \left(\frac{\rho}{\rho_t}\right)^{\gamma} = \left(\frac{T}{T_t}\right)^{\frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1}} = \left(\frac{a}{a_t}\right)^{\frac{2\gamma}{\gamma - 1}} \quad [\text{isen, perf}]$$

Combining the above equations gives Bernoulli's equation for compressible flow:

(3) 
$$\frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1} \left(\frac{p_t}{\rho_t}\right)^{\frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma}} \left(\frac{p}{p_t}\right)^{\frac{1}{\gamma}} + \frac{V^2}{2} = \frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1} \frac{p_t}{\rho_t} \quad [\text{isen, perf}]$$
(36)

**Usefull Ratios** 

$$\frac{T}{T_t} = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2}M^2\right)^{-1} \quad \text{[adiab, perf]} \quad (43)$$

$$\frac{p}{p_t} = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2}M^2\right)^{-\frac{\gamma}{\gamma - 1}} \quad \text{[isen, perf]} \quad (44)$$

(5) 
$$\frac{\rho}{\rho_t} = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2}M^2\right)^{-\frac{1}{\gamma - 1}} \quad \text{[isen, perf]} \quad (45)$$

(6) 
$$\frac{a}{a_t} = \left(1 + \frac{\gamma - 1}{2}M^2\right)^{-\frac{1}{2}}$$
 [adiab, perf] (46)

#### 1.2 Foundational principles

#### 1.2.1 Idealized flow regimes

There are different idealized flow regimes which can be distinguished by the value of their Knudsen number (Kn).

Continuum regime ( $Kn \leq 0.001$ ) In this regime, the interactions of particles in the medium are much more frequent than the interactions of particles with the boundaries of the duct. This makes it possible to describe the fluid itself as a continuous medium. The Navier-Stokes equations govern the calculations in this regime.

Slip regime ( $0.001 \le Kn \le 0.1$ ) Increasing Knudsen numbers mean the mean free path becomes comparable to the characteristic length scale. In this regime, the assumptions for continuum flow still hold, but there are deviations, especially near the boundaries. While continuum mechanics assumes no-slip conditions on the boundary, in this regime, slip on the boundary must be factored in

**Transition regime**  $(0.1 \le Kn \le 10)$  This regime is a middle ground between continuum and fully molecular flow. Neither the continuum assumptions of fluid dynamics nor the free molecular flow assumptions hold completely. The interactions between the gas molecules and the boundaries are significant, and the flow characteristics may vary widely.

Molecular regime ( $Kn \ge 10$ ) In this regime, the mean free path is much larger than the dimensions of boundaries. This leads to particle interactions themselves becoming negligible in comparison to the interaction of particles with the boundary.

#### 1.2.2 Turbulence

$$Re = \frac{\rho v L_c}{\mu} = \frac{v L_c}{\nu}$$

This dimensionless number can be used to predict if it is probable to encounter turbulent flow or laminar flow in some region of the flow studied.

**Laminar Flow (** $Re \leq 2300$ **)** Laminar flow, means higher chance of encountering boundary layers. Velocity changes significantly along the radius of ducts. Low Mixing, mostly diffusion mediated.

**Turbulent Flow** (Re > 2300) Having high Reynolds numbers means viscous forces are dominated by inertial forces. In this situation eddies and vortices begin to form. More evenly distributed velocity profile. Better for mixing.

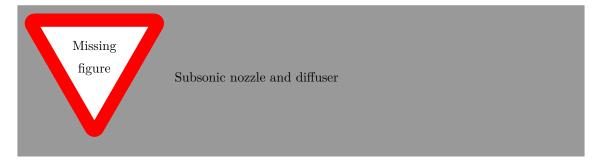
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#### 1.2.3 Mach regimes

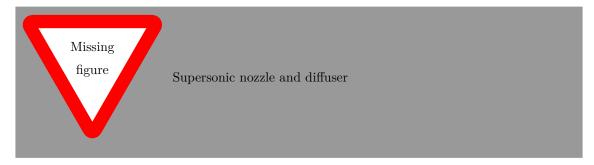
Low subsonic regime (Ma < 0.3)

Subsonic regime (0.3 < Ma < 1.0) In this regime, the flow throughout the duct, except at the throat, remains subsonic. The velocity increases as the gas flows through the duct.



**Sonic regime** (Ma = 1) Sonic flow occurs at the throat of a converging-diverging duct. It is a limiting phenomenon in converging ducts, achievable only if a diverging section follows, creating a minimum cross-sectional area referred to as the throat.

Supersonic regime (Ma > 1) Supersonic flow cannot occur inside a purely converging duct. In subsonic conditions, the velocity increases while the cross-sectional area decreases. Once sonic speed is reached, the behavior reverses, and the velocity decreases, limiting the flow to subsonic or sonic speeds within converging ducts.



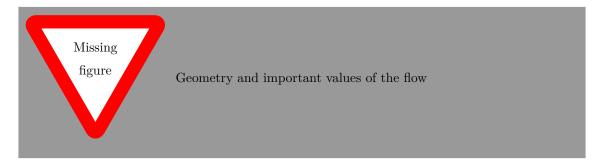
1.2.4 Dimensionality of the flow

### 2 Analytical work

#### 2.1 Scope and objectives

#### 2.1.1 Geometry and components

The geometry can be explained in three simple sections: gas from a reservoir (1) flows over a duct into the reactor (2) where it leaves through another duct into a vacuum (3). This is a stark simplification, but for a great part of this thesis, this is how we will imagine our flow path. This is because the only thing we left out is any kind of leak in the system. Those leaks will be the most influential around the reactor, since this is the only part that is not held at a constant pressure by any external part of the system.



Inlet Reservoir (1) It is kept at constant pressure  $P_0$  and constant temperature  $T_0$  and contains only one gas which is defined by its specific heat ratio  $\gamma$  and by its molar mass  $M_m$ . These are all parameters which are set in advance and will not change after being set, which constrains us to a steady flow.

**Inlet Nozzle** The duct connecting the inlet reservoir with the reactor will actually be a slightly converging duct, due to production constraints. Therefore, it will act like a Nozzle, accelerating the gas until it expands into the reactor.

Reactor (2) The reactor resembles a very small but broad cylinder shape which is opened at the bottom. The sample will be pressed into the opening, which will lead to some leakage out of the system, this will actually force us to decouple the system at the chamber (more about that later). The gas itself reaches the chamber at some velocity and will decelerate rapidly while expanding into the chamber. Therefore, a great part of the chamber will have very slow-moving gas inside. Very close to the outlet nozzle the gas will start to accelerate again and will enter it at very high speeds.

Outlet Nozzle With the same geometry as the inlet, but the gas flowing in opposite directions, one would suspect the outlet to act as a subsonic nozzle, which could logically be the case, since without a converging section in front it would be impossible to reach sonic velocities and therefore will choke the flow and keep them at subsonic velocities. However, it is actually possible for the flow to create a converging section by itself, which will force the flow to be sonic at the beginning of the outlet and will further accelerate into the supersonic regimes, creating a supersonic nozzle. Which of these two possibilities is most likely will be discussed at a later point.

Vacuum (3) After leaving the outlet, the gas will first expand into a small cylindrical section after which it will expand freely into the vacuum. The exact pressure left in the vacuum will be very low, and small changes will not have great influence onto the flow itself. Therefore,

#### 2.1.2 Motivation and goals

The general goal of this thesis is to create a relatively simple analytical framework to be able to make predictions about the behavior of the flow through the system and approximate values at different positions in the flow to later be used as initial values for more complex numerical simulations. The following section will state specific questions we will then try to answer in the following sections.

Type of Flow:

Impact of the leak:

Flow in the reactor and around the sample:

Velocity distribution at the outlet:

## 2.2 Framework for Analysis

#### 2.2.1 Important assumptions

Dimension of the Flow

 $\mathbf{Gas}$ 

Idealized flow regime

#### 2.2.2 Limits of the theory

It is important to state for which situations the assumptions made earlier are applicable and for which they are not. In the leading section we already made clear which assumptions we made and on which values they rely on. The goal is now to provide a range of state variables, in which using the following framework makes sense. Also, to show a way to calculate important dimensionless numbers like the Knudsen Number without relying on the continuum model.

Knudsen Number The whole Theory relies heavily on the continuum model. For every location of the flow, but the vacuum, it will suffice to approximate the state variables at certain locations using a simple continuum model like the one described in section 2.3.1 and use these state variables to calculate the Knudsen number.

link

A sensible question to ask at this point is: Where in the flow we will most probably encounter the highest Knudsen number and if it will be just one location. Because this will reduce the locations to check for high Knudsen numbers and therefore will simplify the process. To find such most probable Location, given the Definition of the Knudsen number:

$$Kn(p,T) = \frac{\lambda}{L_c} = \frac{\mu(T)R}{pL_c} \sqrt{\frac{\pi mT}{2k_B}}$$

 $L_c$  can be assumed constant since the height of the reactor and the smallest diameter of the ducts match. And by assuming  $\mu$  to be close to constant the Knudsen number becomes a simple proportionality relation.

$$Kn(p,T) \approx \frac{\mu R}{L_c} \sqrt{\frac{\pi m}{2k_B}} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{T}}{p} = \alpha \cdot \frac{\sqrt{T}}{p} \quad \rightarrow \quad Kn \propto \frac{\sqrt{T}}{p}$$

This makes it obvious that areas with low pressure will lead to higher Knudsen numbers and will come closest to the limit of Kn = 0.1 where continuum regime formulations stop to yield sensible solutions. Therefore, calculating the Knudsen number where the gas leaves the outlet nozzle will be useful to identify the flow regime that governs the gas flow inside the whole assembly.

Knudsen Number in low pressure Zones When the gas is leaving the outlet the pressure will steadily drop until the method of determining Pressure and Temperature themselves will fail and force us to rely on numerical calculations. Therefore, it makes sense to identify a much more elegant way of calculating the Knudsen number which will be much more applicable in this situation.

$$Kn_L = \frac{\lambda}{\phi} \left| \frac{d\phi}{dx} \right|$$

#### Reynolds Number

## 2.3 Analytical Descriptions

### 2.3.1 Fully isentropic flow

leads to supersonic flow in the reactor.

2.3.2 The reactor as a reservoir

2.3.3 Full Continuum description with leak

2.3.4 Approximating outlet distribution

## 3 Discussion

# 4 Conclusion

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