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# 3D Computational Fluid Dynamics Study of a Drying Process in a Can Making Industry

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## Abstract

In a drying process of a can making industry, a drying efficiency of a thermal drying oven can be improved by adjusting the air volumetric flow rate of a blower. To maximize the drying efficiency, an optimal flow rate is needed. Consequently, a three-dimensional computational fluid dynamics (CFD) is used to provide simulation according to the response of air velocity, air temperature and evaporated solvent concentration with respect to changes in air volumetric flow rate the drying oven. The experimental study has been carried out to determine evaporation rate of the solvent. To validate the model, the process data obtained from the CFD is compared with those obtained from actual data. With the accurate model, the simulation results demonstrate that the decrease in air volumetric flow rate gives no major discrepancy of the air velocity pattern in all dimensions, decreases the maximum temperature in the oven, and rapidly increases the evaporated solvent concentration in the beginning and then gradually decreases over the length of the oven. In addition, further reduction of the flow rate gives lower heat loss of the oven up to 83.67%.

23 **Keyword:** CFD, Velocity pattern, Temperature distribution, Concentration distribution, Heat  
24 loss, Can making process

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## 27 **1. Introduction**

28 In a can making industry, a food-grade lacquer used for preventing corrosion and  
29 chemical reaction inside metal cans [1], is coated on inner surface of metal can in order to  
30 preserve food quality and prevent contaminants [2]. Normally, a can making process consists of  
31 three sections: coating, drying, and curing. The process starts with coating the food-grade lacquer  
32 solution on both sides of metal sheets which then sent to a thermal drying oven. Both drying and  
33 curing sections are operated inside the oven. In the drying section, air temperature and operating  
34 time must be high enough to completely dry the solvent on the surface of metal sheets. Then, the  
35 lacquer is changed from liquid phase to solid phase by forming chemical bonds between the  
36 lacquer and the metal sheet surface in the curing section [3].

37 Generally, parameters relating to the drying efficiency are air velocity, air temperature [4]  
38 and evaporated solvent concentration [5]. To increase the drying efficiency, air volumetric flow  
39 rate of a blower on the parameters is studied. However, varying the air flow rate in the real  
40 process is rarely allowed considering to the product's quality.

41 Computational fluid dynamics (CFD) has been widely applied to provide the dynamic  
42 behavior such as concentration distributions [6], velocity profiles [7], velocity patterns [8] and  
43 temperature distributions [9] of several processes with great success. Furthermore, many  
44 researchers have reported the modelling and studied the fluid dynamic behavior in several types  
45 of ovens such as a convective drying oven [10], a heating oven with natural air circulation [11], a

46 microwave oven [12], a bakery pilot oven [13], a small scale bread-baking oven [14], a paint  
 47 curing oven [15] and an infrared oven [16].

48 In this work, the CFD simulation based on a three-dimensional time-dependent model  
 49 with non-isothermal and transport of diluted species has been used to give the responses of air  
 50 velocity pattern, air temperature, evaporated solvent concentration and heat loss of the thermal  
 51 drying oven with respect to air volumetric flow rate. In addition, an evaporation rate of the solvent  
 52 in the developed model is obtained from experiment and the obtained model used in the CFD is  
 53 validated with actual data gathering from the real process.

## 54 **2. Experimental Study**

### 55 2.1 *Experiment to determine evaporation rate*

56 The evaporation rate of the specific solvent is obtained based on the weight loss of metal  
 57 sheets coated with solvent; the experiment is carried out with the condition of constant hot air  
 58 pass through the surface at constant temperature [17]. The effect of air velocity is assumed to be  
 59 negligible. An 8-centimeters circle shape of metal sheet is used in the experiment. This  
 60 experiment starts with heating up the oven temperature to 175 °C and then the metal sheet is  
 61 coated with  $0.85 \pm 0.05$  g of the food-grade lacquer. After that, the coated metal sheet is weighted  
 62 and placed in the oven. Its weight is recorded at 30, 60, 90, 120, 180, 240, and 300 seconds,  
 63 respectively. The velocity of the metal sheet moving through the oven is 2.5 m/min and the  
 64 evaporation rate is calculated using Eq. (1).

$$65 \quad \Phi_e = \frac{1}{A_s} \left( \frac{\partial W_e}{\partial t_e} \right) \quad (1)$$

### 66 2.2 *Configuration of the thermal drying oven*

67 This work focuses on a continuous indirect-fired oven that uses in a real industry. The  
68 CFD geometry of this oven is illustrated in Fig. 1. The dimensions of the oven are 1.2975 m  
69 width, 2.095 m height, and 5.1 m length [18]. Because of its symmetrical dimensions, either left  
70 or right half of the oven has identical behavior. Therefore, only half of the oven is considered in  
71 order to reduce the computational time. The definitions of the oven surface are given in Table 1.  
72 The solvent used in this work is ethylene glycol mono butyl ether ( $C_6H_{14}O_2$ ) or called Butyl  
73 Cellosolve and its properties are obtained from the literature [19].

### 74 2.3 *Modelling and simulation*

75 To develop the models of this process, assumptions are made as follows.

- 76 • Air humidity in the oven is ignored.
- 77 • Metal sheets in the oven are located and moving along the oven.
- 78 • Butyl Cellosolve concentration is only observed in the mixing air in the oven.
- 79 • Evaporation is not occurred at an inlet air surface.
- 80 • Evaporation rate is assumed to be identical throughout the metal sheets surface but  
81 varying along the length of the oven.

82 Models are derived from conservative equations in Cartesian coordinate with time  
83 dependent and based on the turbulent Reynolds Averaged Navier-Stokes equation (RANS) [20].  
84 The standard  $k$ - $\epsilon$  turbulence flow model, consisting of a turbulence kinetic energy ( $\kappa$ ) and a  
85 viscous dissipation ( $\epsilon$ ) equation, is used for providing the dynamic behavior of fluid flow in  
86 complex geometries [12]. The non-isothermal model is generated from the combination of mass  
87 and heat transfer models coupled with the transport of diluted species. Equations derived are  
88 written as follows.

#### 89 *Mass conservation equation*

$$90 \quad \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla(\rho u) = 0 \quad (2)$$

91 *Momentum conservation equation*

$$92 \quad \rho \frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + \rho(u \cdot \nabla)u = -\nabla p - [\nabla \cdot \tau] + F \quad (3)$$

93 *Energy conservation equation*

$$94 \quad \rho C_p \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \rho C_p u \cdot \nabla T = \nabla \cdot (k \nabla T) + Q + Q_{vh} + W_p \quad (4)$$

95 From Eq. 3, the viscous force ( $\tau$ ) can be presented by

$$96 \quad \tau = -\mu(\nabla u + (\nabla u)^t) + \left(\frac{2}{3}\mu - \mu_T\right)(\nabla \cdot u)\delta \quad (5)$$

97 *Turbulence kinetic energy equation*

$$98 \quad \frac{\partial(\rho\kappa)}{\partial t} + \rho(u \cdot \nabla)\kappa = \nabla \cdot \left[\left(\mu + \frac{\mu_T}{\sigma_\kappa}\right)\nabla\kappa\right] + P_\kappa - \rho\varepsilon \quad (6)$$

99 *Viscous dissipation equation*

$$100 \quad \frac{\partial(\rho\varepsilon)}{\partial t} + \rho(u \cdot \nabla)\varepsilon = \nabla \cdot \left[\left(\mu + \frac{\mu_T}{\sigma_\varepsilon}\right)\nabla\varepsilon\right] + C_{\varepsilon 1} \frac{\varepsilon}{\kappa} P_\kappa - C_{\varepsilon 2} \rho \frac{\varepsilon^2}{\kappa} \quad (7)$$

$$101 \quad \text{Where, } \mu_T = \rho C_\mu \frac{\kappa^2}{\varepsilon} \quad (8)$$

$$102 \quad P_\kappa = -\mu_T \left[ \nabla u : (\nabla u + (\nabla u)^t) - \frac{2}{3}(\nabla \cdot u)^2 \right] - \frac{2}{3} \rho k \nabla \cdot u \quad (9)$$

103 The boundary conditions of this simulation are listed in Table 2 and the values of

104 adjustable constants i.e.  $C_\mu$ ,  $\sigma_\kappa$ ,  $\sigma_\varepsilon$ ,  $C_{\varepsilon 1}$  and  $C_{\varepsilon 2}$  are 0.09, 1.00, 1.30, 1.44 and 1.92, respectively

105 [21]. The concentration of the evaporated solvent (Butyl Cellosolve) in the oven is calculated  
 106 from Eq. (10) and Eq. (11) [22]. In addition, the heat loss from the oven can be calculated using  
 107 Eq. (12).

$$108 \quad \frac{\partial c_i}{\partial t} + u \cdot \nabla c_i = \nabla \cdot -(D_{AB} \nabla c_i) + \nabla \cdot N_i \quad (10)$$

$$109 \quad D_{AB} = \frac{4.14 \times 10^{-4} T^{1.9} \sqrt{1/MW_A + 1/MW_B} MW_A^{-0.33}}{p} \quad (11)$$

$$110 \quad H_V = q_V \times \rho \times (C_{pa} \times T_a - C_{po} \times T_o) \quad (12)$$

111 In this work, COMSOL multiphysics software with written models developed is used to  
 112 give the simulation of the process. The grid geometries are generated in free tetrahedral. The grid  
 113 refinement has been tested with three different grid geometries, i.e. coarse, normal and fine grid,  
 114 in order to select simulation results with low computational time and high accuracy. From the  
 115 grid refinement test, simulations with normal and fine grids give the best simulation results  
 116 compared with the actual data but simulation with normal grid consumes lower computational  
 117 time of about 20 % than that with fine grid. Accordingly, the normal grid geometries with  
 118 777,270 domain elements, 57,043 boundary elements, and 5,713 edge elements are selected for  
 119 this simulation. To validate the models, the oven temperature is simulated and compared with the  
 120 actual data at three points. Point 1, 2 and 3 are located at 0.08 m from the top, the middle and the  
 121 bottom of the metal sheet, respectively. The air volumetric flow rates used in the CFD  
 122 simulation are divided into 10 cases: case (A) to (J). The flow rate of the case (A) or the  
 123 conventional case is 1.67 m<sup>3</sup>/s, and is reduced by about 10% interval for next cases. Therefore,  
 124 the flow rates used in case (B) to (J) are 1.50, 1.33, 1.17, 1.00, 0.83, 0.67, 0.50, 0.33 and 0.17

125  $\text{m}^3/\text{s}$ , respectively. Simulation results for all cases are compared to evaluate the effects of the  
126 flow rate on the parameters.

### 127 **3. Results**

#### 128 3.1 *Determination of evaporation flux rate*

129 The experimental results illustrated in Fig 2 show that evaporation flux rate of Butyl  
130 Cellosolve changes along the oven length in the range of 0.947 to  $0.017 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/m}^2 \cdot \text{s}$ . The  
131 highest evaporation rate occurs at the entrance of the oven because of the high amount of solvent  
132 on the surface of the metal sheet and no accumulation of evaporated solvent in the air around this  
133 area [5]. Subsequently, the rate rapidly decreases along the length of the oven to almost zero due  
134 to the increasing of evaporated solvent in the air and low amount of solvent remaining on the  
135 surface.

#### 136 3.2 *Validation of the models used in the CFD*

137 The simulation results, obtained from the developed model, of air temperature profiles at  
138 three selected points are validated with the actual data gathered from the industry and illustrated  
139 in Fig. 3. These results show that the developed models can represent the actual process and can  
140 be used in CFD simulation; the accuracies evaluated between the simulation and actual data at  
141 point 1, 2, and 3 are very high with the errors of 5.19%, 4.49%, and 4.73%, respectively.

#### 142 3.3 *Effect of air volumetric flow rate on air velocity pattern*

143 The air velocity patterns with the colored contour of the air velocity magnitude at the  
144 steady state are shown in Fig. 4. The air initially flows into the oven from the top at the surface  
145 (b) and circulates inside the oven. Then the air is pulled out through the air outlet duct by the  
146 blower. The air direction in some area at the bottom can be changed by the obstruction of the

147 metal sheets in the oven. The results from all cases demonstrate that the change in air volumetric  
148 flow rate gives no major discrepancy of the air velocity pattern in all dimensions and the  
149 maximum velocity is corresponding to the air flow rate.

150 In addition, the study of the air velocity field in 3 directions: x-direction (length of the  
151 oven), y-direction (width of the oven) and z-direction (height of the oven) are given in a contour  
152 of two-dimensional (x-z plane) and can be used for describing the dynamic behavior in the oven.

### 153 3.3.1 *Air velocity field in x-direction*

154 The default direction of the air velocity in the x-direction is left-to-right. Fig. 5 shows that  
155 all cases have similar velocity field but different in the ranges of velocity. The air velocity field  
156 at the top of the oven is higher than that at the bottom because of the blockage of the air flow by  
157 the metal sheets which leads to very little air flow movement at the bottom. Fig. 6 shows the  
158 average air velocity along the length of the oven with different air volumetric flow rates.

159 The air velocity continuously rises from the entrance and then starts to decrease at the  
160 distance around 1.1 to 2.3 m from the entrance. In these distances, the air velocity rapidly  
161 changes from the positive to negative values because of the ventilation force from the blower in  
162 the z-direction. The air velocity decreases to zero at around 1.7 m from the entrance so the  
163 change in air velocity direction takes place at this point.

### 164 3.3.2 *Air velocity field in y-direction*

165 Due to the symmetry in the width of the oven, the air velocity patterns in both left and  
166 right sides of the oven are mirror symmetry. Accordingly, the air velocity field across the  
167 symmetry boundary is equal to zero.

### 168 3.3.3 *Air velocity field in z-direction*

169 In Fig. 8, the positive and maximum values of air velocity are observed at the area about  
170 0.9 to 2.2 m from the entrance due to the fact that the air is forced to flow up to the top by the  
171 ventilation from the blower. After that, the air velocity begins to decrease until its values become  
172 negative again because the ventilation force from the blower has no effect.

173 The upward direction of air velocity is specified as the positive value. Fig. 7 demonstrates  
174 that although the velocity fields are slightly different in each case but the magnitudes of the air  
175 velocity are rather different according to the air flow rates. The velocity field in some areas at the  
176 top has negative values because of the inlet air flows downward into the oven at the surface (b).  
177 From Fig. 8, the decrease in the air flow rate causes low ventilation force by the blower and  
178 reduce the magnitude of the velocity in the oven. The positive and maximum values of air  
179 velocity are observed at the area about 0.9 to 2.2 m from the entrance due to the fact that the air  
180 is forced to flow up to the top by the ventilation. Afterward, the air velocity begins to decrease  
181 until its values become negative again because the ventilation force by the blower has no effect.

#### 182 3.4 *Effect of air volumetric flow rate on temperature distribution*

183 Air temperature distribution affected by different air volumetric flow rates is simulated  
184 by giving the initial air temperature  $27^{\circ}\text{C}$  at the entrance and the oven temperature is controlled  
185 at  $175^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The CFD simulation results of air temperature in the oven at the steady state in three  
186 dimensions are illustrated in Fig. 9. The air temperature distributions in all cases are rarely  
187 different because the inlet air temperatures are almost identical. The air temperature is  $27^{\circ}\text{C}$  at  
188 the entrance and then is raised to the controlled temperature at around 2 m from the entrance. It  
189 can be seen that the air temperature is raised to the controlled temperature in quicker time when  
190 the air flow rate is lower due to longer contact time between air and metal sheets.

#### 191 3.5 *Effect of air volumetric flow rate on evaporated solvent concentration*

192 Since the concentration of the evaporated solvent has negative association with the  
193 evaporation rate, so the highest evaporated solvent concentration takes place at the entrance area  
194 due to no accumulation of the evaporated solvent. Fig. 10 demonstrates that the concentration  
195 distributions in all cases have the same patterns and the maximum concentration of the  
196 evaporated solvent increases when the air volumetric flow rate decreases. This is because when  
197 the air volumetric flow rate is low, the evaporated solvent cannot be vented out and therefore the  
198 evaporated solvent accumulates inside the oven. As shown in Fig. 11, simulation results are in  
199 good agreement with the experiment. The maximum concentration occurs at 0.3 m from the  
200 entrance and then gradually decreases due to less of ventilation force from the blower and  
201 evaporation flux rate in that area.

### 202 3.6 *Effect of air volumetric flow rate of heat loss*

203 The air flow rate and air temperature at the outlet are directly affected by the heat loss of  
204 the oven. The heat loss from the oven can be decreased by lowering the air volumetric flow rates.  
205 In addition, the percentages of the heat loss saving are determined based on the conventional  
206 case ( $1.67 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ ) and summarized in Table 3. The results show that the heat loss can be saved by  
207 reducing the air flow rate. The heat loss saving is up to 83.67% by decreasing the flow rate to  
208  $0.17 \text{ m}^3/\text{s}$ .

## 209 **4. Conclusion**

210 Three-dimensional computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) with non-isothermal coupled  
211 with the transport of diluted species of a thermal drying oven in a can making process have been  
212 developed to study the dynamic behavior of fluids in a drying zone inside the thermal oven. In  
213 this study, an unknown parameter needed in the model, evaporation flux rate of solvent (Butyl  
214 Cellosolve), has been determined based on experimental data. Effects of air volumetric flow rate

215 on process variables: air velocity pattern, air temperature, evaporated solvent concentration and  
216 heat loss of the thermal drying oven, have been investigated.

217 Experiments have been carried out to obtain the value of evaporation flux rate in the  
218 models. It was found that the flux rate is varied along the oven and has the values in the range of  
219  $0.947$  to  $0.017 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg/m}^2 \cdot \text{s}$ . The evaporation flux rate is the highest at the beginning point and  
220 gradually decreases along the distance of the oven. With this obtained flux rate, the developed  
221 models can acceptably represent the real process with good accuracy; the air temperature  
222 obtained from the models are corresponding to the measurement data with the average error of  
223 less than 12 %. Air velocity patterns for all cases are almost identical but the velocity magnitude  
224 is varied according to air volumetric flow rate. In addition, the air temperature in the oven in all  
225 cases starts from an ambient temperature and is raised to the controlled temperature of  $175^\circ\text{C}$ .  
226 For the concentration of evaporated solvent, the concentration is rapidly increased and then  
227 gradually decreased due to the decreasing of evaporation flux rate and the ventilation force of the  
228 blower. The study of the effects of air volumetric flow rate on the evaporated solvent  
229 concentration represent that the reducing of the air volumetric flow rate causes the increasing of  
230 the evaporated solvent concentration. Furthermore, every 10% reducing in air volumetric flow  
231 rate from the conventional case increases the heat loss saving by 10.40 %, 19.81 %, 30.30 %,  
232 39.61 %, 48.23 %, 59.68 %, 68.60 %, 71.13 % and 83.67 %, respectively.

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238 **Nomenclature**

239	$A_s$	Surface area of a metal sheet ( $m^2$ )
240	$C_{\epsilon 1}, C_{\epsilon 2}$	Proportionality constants in the standard k- $\epsilon$ turbulence model
241	$C_p$	Specific heat capacity ( $J/kg \cdot K$ )
242	$C_{pa}$	Specific heat capacity of mixture in the oven ( $J/kg \cdot K$ )
243	$C_{po}$	Specific heat capacity of mixture at outlet surface ( $J/kg \cdot K$ )
244	$C_\mu$	Adjustable constant of eddy viscosity in the standard k- $\epsilon$ turbulence model
245	$c_i$	Concentration gradient of species i ( $mol/m^3 \cdot m$ )
246	$D_{AB}$	Mass diffusion coefficient of vapor A through a gas B ( $m^2/s$ )
247	$F$	Volume force ( $kg/m^2 \cdot s^2$ )
248	$H_v$	Ventilation heat loss (W)
249	$k$	Thermal conductivity ( $W/m \cdot K$ )
250	$l$	Turbulent velocity scale (m)
251	$MW_A$	Molecular weight of substance A (g/mol)
252	$MW_B$	Molecular weight of substance B (g/mol)
253	$N_i$	Molar mass of species i ( $kg/m^2 \cdot s$ )
254	$P_\kappa$	Production rate of turbulence kinetic energy ( $J/m^3 \cdot s$ )
255	$p$	Pressure ( $kg/m \cdot s^2$ )
256	$Q$	Heat sources ( $W/m^3$ )

257	$Q_{vh}$	Viscous heating ( $W/m^3$ )
258	$q_v$	Air volumetric flowrate ( $m^3/s$ )
259	$T$	Absolute temperature (K)
260	$T_a$	Oven temperature (K)
261	$T_o$	Outlet air temperature (K)
262	$t$	Time (s)
263	$t_e$	Evaporated time (s)
264	$u$	Velocity vector (m/s)
265	$V_p$	Velocity of the metal sheet (m/min)
266	$\nu_t$	Kinetic turbulent viscosity ( $m^2/s$ )
267	$W_e$	Weight of evaporated solvent (kg)
268	$W_p$	Pressure work ( $W/m^3$ )
269	Greek Letter	
270	$\varepsilon$	Turbulence dissipation (J/kg)
271	$\kappa$	Turbulence kinetic energy (J/kg)
272	$\mu$	Viscosity (kg/m·s)
273	$\mu_T$	Eddy viscosity (kg/m·s)
274	$\rho$	Density ( $kg/m^3$ )
275	$\sigma_\varepsilon, \sigma_\kappa$	Prandtl number in the standard k- $\varepsilon$ turbulence model

276	$\tau$	Viscous stress (kg/m·s <sup>2</sup> )
277	$\Phi_e$	Evaporation rate (kg/m <sup>2</sup> ·s)
278	Mathematic operations	
279	$\delta$	Unit tensor
280	$\nabla$	Del operator

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