國立交通大學

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博士論文

全速域平行化氣體流動程式之發展及其在低溫電漿之應用



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全速域平行化氣體流動程式之發展及其在低溫電漿之應用 Development of a Parallelized All-Speed Gas Flow Model and Its Application in Low-Temperature Plasma

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摘要

本論文研究目的主為發展與驗證一個平行化二維/二維軸對稱氣體流動模型 程式,應用於全速域可壓縮、黏滯性流體,及具有處理流體與固體間之共軛熱傳 遞與適用於稀薄氣體問題之研究。數值方法主要是使用有限體積法(FVM, Finite Volume Method)之結構性同位網絡(collocated grid)來離散統御方程式求解。 Extended SIMPLE演算法運用1972年 Patankar與 Spalding所發展之SIMPLE (Semi-Implicit Method for Pressure-Linked Equation)演算法為基礎,透過猜測-修正 的方法得到壓力場,求解流體之壓力、速度、溫度與氣體組成成份之分布等流體 性質。此程式可以廣泛的應用於模擬各種不同的氣壓、不同的氣體流速與不同氣 體組成成份之全速域流場。模擬結果並與研究文獻相互驗證比對。

研究主體主要分為三個部份。在論文第一部份,主要為建立並且驗證一個平 行化二維/二維軸對稱氣體流動模型程式。程式中所使用的統御方程式包含流體 的質量,動量,能量與組成成份之守恆方程式,運用有限體積法之結構性同位網 格加以離散求解。模擬結果已與研究文獻結果互相驗證比較。程式平行化方面使 用ASM (Additive Schwarz Method)作為矩陣預處理法(preconditioner),搭配 GMRES或BiCGS方法解析線性方程式矩陣。程式平行化效率的測試則是使用國 立中央大學的V'ger cluster system (Xeon 3GHz dual-core dual-CPU)作為測試平 台。針對微尺度超音速流體問題使用800,000個結構性網格操作在64個處理器的 狀況下, 測試結果顯示平行化效率仍能維持在70%。

論文的第二部份:主要利用所發展之全速域平行化二維/二維軸對稱氣體流 動模型程式結合實驗室成員洪捷粲博士[2010]與林昆模博士[2012]所發展之平行 化二維/二維軸對稱低溫非熱平衡電漿流體模型程式研究(1)混合氫氣與矽烷的 電漿輔助化學氣相沈積電漿源在600 mTorr操作氣壓下的流體特性。(2) 常壓微 尺度氫氣電漿之流場與熱傳分析,(3)氫氣介電質放電電漿(DBD, Dielectric Barrier Discharge)在頻率25 kHz,760 Torr操作氣壓下之研究。

論文的第三部分,由於電漿相關參數不易量測,故透過氣體流動模型針對氫 氟介電質放電電漿在不同電極長度(5 mm及25 mm),不同氣體流量(10 ~ 30 slm),以及改變基材至電漿噴流出口的距離加以模擬,以探討電漿對流場與熱傳 特性之影響。

論文最後除了總結研究的成果,並針對未來的研究方向提出建議。

Π

Development of a Parallelized All-Speed Gas Flow Model and Its Application in Low-Temperature Plasma

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Submitted to Department of Mechanical Engineering

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Abstract

A parallelized 2D/2D-axisymmetric pressure-based, finite-volume gas flow model has been developed for simulating compressible, viscous, heat conductive and rarefied gas flows at all speeds with conjugate heat transfer. The governing equations are solved on the structured, collocated grid using a finite volume method. An extended SIMPLE algorithm for compressible flow simulation is proposed which is based on the SIMPLE scheme developed by Patankar and Spalidinf [1972]. The flow properties are solved by a prediction/correction algorithm. Applications with wide range of pressures, flow speeds, and various species concentrations are demonstrated by comparing with previous simulations wherever possible. Research in this thesis is divided into three major phases, which are briefly described in the following in turn.

In the first phase, a parallelized 2D/2D-axisymmetric gas flow model was developed and verified. The discretized equations, including continuity equation, momentum equation, energy equation and species equation are solved by the parallel

ASM (Additive Schwarz Method) and GMRES or BCGS schemes, which are used as the preconditioner and linear matrix equation solver, respectively. The developed code was validated by comparing with previous published simulations wherever available for both low- and high-speed gas flows. Parallel performance for a micro-scale supersonic flow problem (800,000 computational cells) is tested on the V'ger cluster system (Xeon 3GHz dual-core dual-CPU) at National Central University up to 64 processors. Parallel efficiency of the developed gas flow model using 64 processors is about 70%.

In the second phase, (1) A chamber-scale gas discharge of plasma enhanced chemical vapor deposition (PECVD) with silane/hydrogen as the precursors, which was used for depositing hydrogenated amorphous silicon thin film, (2) A helium micro-cell plasma and (3) A two-dimensional helium DBD (Dielectric-barrier discharge) driven by 25 kHz distorted sinusoidal voltages were simulated using the developed gas flow model coupling with parallelized 2D fluid modeling codes developed by Hung [2010] and Lin [2012]. The simulation results show that there are significant differences between the cases with and without considering neutral flow and thermal field.

In the third part, a parametric study was performed to determine the influences of the system configurations, and the flow conditions on the flow and heat transfer characteristics of a helium dielectric-barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure plasma jet.

Recommendations of future research are also outlined at the end of this thesis.

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V

Table of Contents

摘要	I
Abstract	III
致 謝	V
Table of Contents	VI
List of Tables	VIII
List of Figures	IX
Nomenclature	XVI
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
 1.1 Background and Motivation	1 2 2 3 4
Chapter 2 Numerical Methods	0
 2.1 Governing Equations 2.1.1. Continuity Equation 2.1.2. Momentum Conservation Equation 2.1.3. Energy Equation 2.1.4. Species Equation 2.2.1. Nondimensionalization 2.2.1.3. Continuity Equation 2.2.1.4. Momentum Equation 2.2.1.5. Energy Equation 2.2.1.6. Species Equation 2.2.2. Spatial Discretization 2.2.3. Upwind Scheme 2.2.4. Pressure Smoothing 2.2.5. Velocity-Slip and Temperature-Jump Boundary Conditions 	$\begin{array}{c} & & & & 6 \\ & & & & 7 \\ & & & 8 \\ & & & 10 \\ & & & 12 \\ & & & 14 \\ & & & 15 \\ & & & 16 \\ & & & & 17 \\ & & & 17 \\ & & & 18 \end{array}$
Chapter 3 Verifications and Parallel Performance of the Gas Flow Model	
 3.1. Lid-driven Cavity Flow	21 21 22 22 22 22
 3.2.2. Validation with Previous Simulations	
3.4.1. Test Conditions	

3.4.2. Results and Discussion	26
3.5. Summary	20
Chapter 4 Applications in Low-Temperature Plasma Discharge	28
4.1. Simulation of Silane/Hydrogen Gas Discharge in a Plasma Enhanced Chemical	
Vapor Deposition (PECVD) Chamber	28
4.1.1. Simulation Conditions	28
4.1.2. Results and Discussion	29
4.2. Simulation of a Helium Micro-Cell Plasma	30
4.2.1. Simulation Conditions	30
4.2.2. Results and Discussion	31
4.3. Simulation of a Helium Dielectric Barrier Discharge Atmospheric-Pressure	
Plasma Jet	31
4.3.1. Simulation Conditions	32
4.3.2. Results and Discussion	33
Chapter 5 Parametric Study of a Helium Dielectric Barrier Discharge	
Atmospheric-Pressure Plasma Jet	37
5.1 The Effect of Electrode Length	
5.1.1 Simulation Conditions	
5.1.2 Results and Discussion	38
5.2 The Effect of Jet-to-Substrate Spacing Rate	38
5.2.1 Simulation Conditions	38
5.2.2 Results and Discussion	39
5.3 The Effect of Gas Flow Rate ES	40
5.3.1 Simulation Conditions	40
5.3.2 Results and Discussion	40
5.4 Summary	41
Chapter 6 Conclusion and Recommendations for Future Study	42
6.1 Summaries of This Thesis	42
6.2 Recommendations for Future Work	- 2
References	τ-5 ΔΛ
	++

List of Tables

ble 1. Lennard-Jones potential parameters. [Bird et al., 2002]
ble 2. Constant-pressure specific heats and heat of formation of various ideal gases.
[Borgnakke & Sonntag, 2008]48
ble 3. Scaling parameters used in gas flow model
ble 4. Substance parameters in helium micro-cell plasma
ble 5. Test cases and results of a helium dielectric barrier discharge
atmospheric-pressure plasma jet for various H/d for $d = 1 \text{ mm}$, and gas
flow rate of 20slm
ble 6. The approximated Reynolds numbers and bulk temperatures for various gas
flow rates



List of Figures

Figure 2-1: Two-dimensional control volume
Figure 2-2: Flowchart of the extended SIMPLE algorithm
Figure 3-1: Schematic of the computational grid a in two-dimensional lid-driven cavity.
Figure 3-2: Streamlines for driven cavity flow with Reynolds numbers of 100, 400 and
1,000 (top to bottom). Note: Ghia et al. [1982] (left); present (right)54
Figure 3-3: Streamlines for driven cavity flow with Reynolds numbers of 3200, 5000,
and 10000 (top to bottom). Note: Ghia et al. [1982] (left); present (right)55
Figure 3-4: Schematic of the flow in a square cavity with a square block
Figure 3-5: Streamlines for Different Locations of Cylinder at Ri = 0. Note: Rahman et
al. [2008] (left); present (right)
Figure 3-6: Isotherms for Different Locations of Cylinder at Ri = 0. Note: Rahman et al.
[2008] (left); present (right). <u>1896</u>
Figure 3-7: Streamlines for Different Locations of Cylinder at Ri = 1. Note: Rahman et
al. [2008] (left); present (right)
Figure 3-8: Isotherms for Different Locations of Cylinder at Ri = 1. Note: Rahman et al.
[2008] (left); present (right)60
Figure 3-9: Streamlines for Different Locations of Cylinder at Ri = 5. Note: Rahman et
al. [2008] (left); present (right)61
Figure 3-10: Isotherms for Different Locations of Cylinder at Ri = 5. Note: Rahman et
al. [2008] (left); present (right)62
Figure 3-11: Distributions of (a) streamlines and (b) isotherms at $Ri = 5$, $Lx=0.25$ and
Ly=0.5. Note: ΔT =50 K (top), 100 K (middle), and 200 K (bottom)63
Figure 3-12: Distributions of (a) streamlines and (b) isotherms at $Ri = 5$, $Lx=0.75$ and

Ly=0.5. Note: ΔT=50 K (top), 100 K (middle), and 200 K (bottom)64
Figure 3-13: Schematic of the two-dimensional micro-scale channel flow
Figure 3-14: Normalization Distributions of Pressure, Density, Temperature, Velocity
in x- and y-direction in the channel at Ma=2.4261 and Kn=0.0566
Figure 3-15: Normalization Distribution of horizontal velocity. Note: Shterev and
Stefanov [2010] (upper); present (lower)
Figure 3-16: Normalization Distribution of temperature. Note: Shterev and Stefanov
[2010] (upper); present (lower)67
Figure 3-17: Profiles of the horizontal velocity along the center line of the channel
$(y=H_{ch}/2)$ for different spatial steps in front of the square
Figure 3-18: Profiles of the horizontal velocity along the center line of the channel
$(y=H_{ch}/2)$ for different spatial steps behind of the square
Figure 3-19: Temperature profiles along the center line of the channel $(y=H_{ch}/2)$ for
different spatial steps in front of the square
Figure 3-20: Temperature profiles along the center line of the channel ($y=H_{ch}/2$) for
different spatial steps behind of the square
Figure 3-21: Parallel Performance and runtime per time step of a 2D micro-scale
supersonic flow with 2000x400 computational cells70
Figure 4-1: Simulated cycle average of electron number density (a) with and (b)
without heating flow field71
Figure 4-2: Simulated cycle averaged distributions of electron temperature (a) with and
(b) without heating flow field
Figure 4-3: Simulated cycle averaged distributions of N4+ (a) with and (b) without
considering neutral flow field73
Figure 4-4: Simulated cycle averaged distributions of electron He _{meta} (a) with and (b)

without heating flow field74
Figure 4-5: Sketch of a H2/SiF4 PECVD chamber75
Figure 4-6: Schematic of the computational grid in the H_2/SiF_4 PECVD chamber76
Figure 4-7: Distribution of (a) pressure, (b) density (c) and gas temperature in a PECVD
chamber77
Figure 4-8: Distribution of (a) total enthalpy, (b) density of H2 and (c) SiH4 in a
PECVD chamber
Figure 4-9: Distribution of (a) velocity in x-direction, (b) Velocity in y-direction, (c)
Mean velocity and (d) streamline in a PECVD chamber79
Figure 4-10: Sketch of helium micro-cell plasma80
Figure 4-11: Distribution of plasma u-momentum source in the He micro-cell plasma.
Figure 4-13: Distribution of plasma energy source in the He micro-cell plasma82
Figure 4-14: Temperature distribution of a He micro-cell plasma without considering
plasma momentum source
Figure 4-15: Mean speed distribution of a He micro-cell plasma without considering
plasma momentum source
Figure 4-16: Mean speed distribution of a He micro-cell plasma with considering
plasma momentum source
Figure 4-17: Force field distribution of a He micro-cell plasma
Figure 4-18: Temperature distribution of a He micro-cell plasma with considering
plasma momentum source

Figure 4-19: Schematic sketch of a planar dielectric barrier discharge

atmospheric-pressure pl	asma jet	.85
-------------------------	----------	-----

- Figure 4-20. Sketch of two-dimensional dielectric barrier discharge
- Figure 4-21. Schematic of the computational grid in the two-dimensional dielectric
- Figure 4-22. Time history of velocity and temperature profiles at the export of helium DBD APPJ for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of

Figure 4-23: Steady-steady distribution of (a) pressure and (b) density of helium DBD

- APPJ for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm ... 89
- Figure 4-24: Spatial distribution of temperature with (a) a adiabatic substrate surface; (b)
- Figure 4-25: Spatial distribution of velocity (a) in x-direction and (b) in y-direction of helium DBD APPJ for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm ______91
- Figure 4-26: Steady-steady distributions of (a) mean speed, (b) streamlines and velocity vector of helium DBD APPJ for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas

Figure 4-27: streamlines and velocity vector patterns of helium DBD APPJ for

Figure 4-28: Time history of streamlines and velocity vector patterns of helium DBD

APPJ for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm ... 94 Figure 4-29. Horizontal velocity profiles in the helium DBD APPJ channel at different

x positions for $d = 1 \text{ mm}$, $H/d = 10$, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm.
Figure 4-30. Temperature profiles in the helium DBD APPJ channel at different x
positions for $d = 1 \text{ mm}$, $H/d = 10$, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm.
Figure 4-31. Horizontal velocity and temperature profiles along the center line of the
helium DBD APPJ channel for $d = 1 \text{ mm}$, $H/d = 10$, Re = 60 and gas
flow rate of 20 slm
Figure 4-32. Vertical velocity profiles between helium DBD APPJ and substrate at
different y positions for $d = 1 \text{ mm}$, $H/d = 10$, Re = 60 and gas flow rate
of 20 slm
Figure 4-33. Temperature profiles between helium DBD APPJ and substrate at different
y positions for $d = 1$ mm, $H/d = 10$, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm. 1896
Figure 4-34. Local Nusselt number along a isothermal substrate surface for $d = 1 \text{ mm}$,
H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm
Figure 5-1. Comparison of the distributions of (a, e) pressure, (b, f) over-all density, (c,
g) temperature for an adiabatic wall, and (d, h) temperature for an adiabatic
wall for electrode lengths of 5 mm and 25 mm, respectively
Figure 5-2. Comparison of the distributions of velocity components for electrode
lengths of (a-d) 5 mm and of (e-h) 25 mm, respectively102
Figure 5-3. Comparison of the distributions of species mole fraction for electrode
lengths of (a-d) 5 mm and of (e-h) 25 mm, respectively103
Figure 5-4. Comparison of the temperature distributions for an adiabatic substrate for

H/d = (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c) 10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively104
Figure 5-5. Comparison of the temperature distributions of an isothermal substrate for
H/d = (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c) 10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively
Figure 5-6. Comparison of the mean speed distributions for $H/d =$ (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c)
10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively106
Figure 5-7. Comparison of the streamline profiles for $H/d =$ (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c) 10, (d)
12.5, (e) and 15, respectively
Figure 5-8. Comparison of the distributions of X_{He} for various $H/d = (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c)$
10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively108
Figure 5-9. Comparison of the distributions of X_{N2} for various $H/d = (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c)$
10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively
Figure 5-10. Comparison of the distributions of XO2 for various $H/d =$ (a) 5, (b) 7.5,
(c) 10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively
Figure 5-11. Local Nusselt number along a isothermal substrate surface for various
H/d111
Figure 5-12. Comparison of the temperature distributions for an adiabatic substrate for
various gas flow rates of (a) 10 slm, (b) 15 slm, (c) 20 slm, (d) 25 slm, (e)
and 30 <i>slm</i> , respectively
Figure 5-13. Comparison of the temperature distributions for an isothermal wall for
various gas flow rates of (a) 10 slm, (b) 15 slm, (c) 20 slm, (d) 25 slm, (e)
and 30 <i>slm</i> , respectively
Figure 5-14. Comparison of the mean speed distributions for gas flow rates of (a)
10 slm, (b) 15 slm, (c) 20 slm, (d) 25 slm, (e) and 30 slm, respectively.

Figure 5-15. Comparison of the streamline profiles for various gas flow rates of (a)
10 slm, (b) 15 slm, (c) 20 slm, (d) 25 slm, (e) and 30 slm, respectively.
Figure 5-16. Comparison of the distributions of X_{He} for various gas flow rates of (a)
10 slm, (b) 15 slm, (c) 20 slm, (d) 25 slm, (e) and 30 slm, respectively.
Figure 5-17. Comparison of the distributions of X_{N2} for various gas flow rates of (a)
10 slm, (b) 15 slm, (c) 20 slm, (d) 25 slm, (e) and 30 slm, respectively.
Figure 5-18. Comparison of the distributions of X_{02} for various gas flow rates of (a)
10 <i>slm</i> , (b) 15 <i>slm</i> , (c) 20 <i>slm</i> , (d) 25 <i>slm</i> , (e) and 30 <i>slm</i> , respectively.
Figure 5-19. Horizontal velocity profiles at export of helium DBD APPJ as a function
of times for various gas flow rates
Figure 5-20. Temperature profiles at export of helium DBD APPJ as a function of times
for various gas flow rates120
Figure 5-21. Horizontal velocity profiles along the center line of the helium DBD APPJ
for various gas flow rates
Figure 5-22. Temperature profiles along the center line of the helium DBD APPJ for
various gas flow rates
Figure 5-23. Local Nusselt number profiles along the substrate surface for various gas
flow rates

Nomenclature

- *a* Combined convection and diffusion coefficient
- *A* Control volume interface area
- *b* Partial source term
- C_p Constant-pressure specific heat,
- C_{v} Constant-volume specific heat
- *d* Velocity-correction coefficient of SIMPLE
- *dt* Time step size
- *Ma* Mach number
- *p* Pressure
- Pr Prandtl number
- *R* Gas constant
- Re Reynolds number
- *S* Full source term
- t Time
- T Temperature
- *u* X-direction velocity
- *v* Y-direction velocity
- ϕ General dependent variable
- Γ General exchange coefficient
- μ Viscosity
- ρ Density
- å Summation

<u>Superscripts</u>

n Time step number



- * Latest current estimate of field variable
- ' Correction value to *

<u>Subscripts</u>

е	Control volume's east interface
Ε	Main cell east of control volume
j	Summation index
n	Control volume's north interface
nb	Neighboring main cell
N	Main cell north of control volume
S	Control volume's south interface
S	Main cell south of control volume
Р	Main cell of control volume
W	Control volume's west interface
W	Main cell west of control volume 🖇
ϕ	General dependent variable ¹⁸⁹⁶

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Background and Motivation

In order to investigate the flow physics under realistic conditions, a numerical method for compressible, viscous flows with conjugate heat transfer for all-speed regimes is necessary. There are many numerical methods that used density as one of the primary variables and extract the static pressure from the equation of state. Such methods failed in incompressible or low Mach number compressible flows without special treatment, since in low compressibility limit, the density changes are very small and the pressure-density coupling becomes very weak. Other methods, such as pressure correction methods, use pressure as the primary variable for solving the continuity equation, are mostly suitable for incompressible flow.

In addition, heat transfer problems involving buoyancy effect were usually simulated treating the fluid as an incompressible flow by employing Boussinesq approximation, which assumes small density difference between hot fluid (or surface) and cold surface (or fluid). However, this assumption is obviously invalid as the temperature difference becomes large, or equivalently when the buoyancy effect is strong, especially if gases, rather than liquids, are involved. Nevertheless, most of the studies published in the literature in the past still applied this assumption even with very large buoyancy effect present in the flow. That can induce large errors in predicted heat transfer by adhering to this assumption without considering the compressibility effect of the gas.

This study represents a parallel compressible pressure-based, cell-centered finite

volume method applicable for all-speed of flows, in which the primary variables are the Cartesian velocity components, pressure, total enthalpy, and mole fraction of the species.

1.2 Literature Survey

Numerical methods, which are applicable to flows for all-speed regimes are of special interest in the present research. Gosman et al. [1969] calculated vorticity and stream function to substitute for pressure form governing equation. However, this method is difficult in specifying the vorticity boundary conditions at the wall. Harlow et al. [1965] presented semi-implicit Marker-and-Cell method (MAC) and Simplified MAC (SMAC) [1970] applying pressure, density, velocity components, and temperature as the primitive variables.

In General, primitive variable solvers can be classified into two schemes: density-based schemes and pressure-based schemes.

1.2.1. Density-based Schemes

The original mass conservation equation is utilized in the density-based scheme. Briley and McDonald [1980], Jameson et al. [1981], and Sahu et al. [1985] treat density as a main dependent variable, and the pressure is calculated by the equation of state. However, this method is limited in low-speed flow due to weakly linkage between pressure and density.

Chorin [1967] developed the artificial compressibility method for the incompressible Euler equations. A scaled pressure time derivative in the continuity equation is presented. Turkel [1987] extended Chorin's method to compressible governing equation. A preconditioning scheme is devised for the Euler equations for

all Mach number.

An improved preconditioning method derived by Merkel and Choi [1988] can solve problems with Mach number as small as 10⁻⁶. Hosangadi et al. [1990] presented a time-accurate density-based method, which used the second-order three-point backwards method for the physical-time derivative and the first-order implicit Euler method for the pseudo-time derivative. Choi and Merkel [1991, 1993] derived a preconditioning method for inviscid and viscous steady flows at all speeds. Shuen et al. [1992, 1993] extended this preconditioning method to include non-equilibrium chemistry and applied a dual time-stepping technique to obtain time-accurate solutions.

1.2.2. Pressure-based Schemes

The pressure-based schemes, or the pressure-velocity coupling schemes specify pressure as a primary dependent variable, which are valid for incompressible/compressible flow.

Chorin [1968] developed the pressure-correction method for the incompressible Navier-Stokes equations. The velocity correction is based on pressure gradients alone. Parankar and Spalding [1972] developed the SIMPLE (Semi-Implicit Method for Pressure-Linked Equations) method. The velocity correction equation came from the full governing equation. In 1971, Harlow and Amsden extend the pressure-correction method to an all-speed compressible pressure-based scheme. Density was calculated by the equation of state. A staggered grid is utilized in this method. Issa et al. [1986] developed the PISO (Pressure-Implicit with Splitting of Operators) method. The applied an implicit flux-splitting semi-iterative discretization to solve time-ecoling compressible and incompressible flows. In 1989, Karki and Patankar developed a fully iterative discretization SIMPLEC method. Rhie [1989] extended this approach to general fluid flow. The pressure in this scheme depended on the internal energy. Multigrid techniques were utilized to accelerated the iteration procedure. Shyy and Chen [1992] also employed the multigrid techniques. They used the second-order upwind method for the convective terms and the first-order upwind method for the density gradients at high Mach numbers. Karki and Patankar [1989] and Demirdzic et al [1993] presented an extended SIMPLE method. A collocated grid and second-order central-difference/first-order upwind scheme were utilized for the numerical simulations.

Issa and Javareshkian [1998] implemented total variation diminishing (TVD) upwind schemes into all-speed pressure-based method. They utilized the PISO scheme for the time-dependent problems and SIMPLE scheme for the steady-state problems.

Rossow [2003] presented a blended pressure/density-based method with a collocated grid. The pressure and density time-derivatives were added to the pressure equation for high Mach numbers. Hou and Mahesh [2005] presented a scheme for all-speed compressible flows.

1.3 Objectives and Organization of this Thesis

The specific objectives of this study are

- To develop a parallelized 2D/2D axisymmetric gas flow model for all-speed gas flow using finite volume method.
- To validate the developed gas flow model under low- and high-speed gas flow by comparing with previous simulations wherever possible;
- 3. To investigate the flow and thermal characteristics in a silane/hydrogen

discharge inside a typical PECVD chamber by coupling with plasma fluid modeling.

4. To simulate the flow and heat transfer characteristics in helium dielectric barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure jet

The thesis is organized as follows:

Chapter 2 describes the governing equations including the continuity, momentum, energy equation and species equations, and the numerical methods developed by using the finite volume method.

Chapter 3 presents the validation of the developed gas flow model by several benchmark problems. The parallel performance is tested by applying GMRES or BiCGS as the KSP solver and ILU as the sub-domain solver on the V'ger cluster system (Xeon 3GHz dual-core dual-CPU) at National Central University.

Chapter 4 presents several applications of gas flow model in low-temperature plasma by couple with plasma fluid modeling.

Chapter 5 discusses some parameters influence on helium dielectric barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure plasma jet.

Chapter 6 is the summary of this thesis and some recommendations for the future work.

Chapter 2

Numerical Methods

2.1 Governing Equations

The governing equations for mass, momentum, energy and species conservation equations in two-dimensional Cartesian coordinates can be written in a differential equation of general form:

$$\frac{\partial(\rho\phi)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\rho V_j \phi\right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \left(\Gamma_{\phi} \frac{\partial\phi}{\partial x_j}\right) + S_{\phi}$$
(2-1)

where ρ is the fluid density and $\phi = (1, u, v, h_i, Y_{\alpha})$ is the dependent variable for the mass, momentum, total enthalpy and mass fraction of α_{ih} species, respectively. *t* is the time, *x* is the coordinate, *V* is the velocity, and the subscript *j* can take the value 1 and 2, denoting the two space coordinates. The effective diffusion coefficient Γ_{ϕ} and the source term S_{ϕ} will be described below. The total Enthalpy h_i is a function of the static enthalpy h_s and the flow kinetic energy.

2.1.1. Continuity Equation

The continuity equation is based on the law of conservation of mass, which can be written in a differential form

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial (\rho u)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial (\rho v)}{\partial y} = 0$$
(2-2)

For any control volume, the conservation of mass means that the net mass flow out of the control volume must be equal to the time rate of decrease of mass inside the control volume.

2.1.2. Momentum Conservation Equation

The momentum equation in the direction of x-axis is as follows:

$$\frac{\partial(\rho u)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial(\rho u u)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial(\rho v u)}{\partial y} = -\frac{\partial P}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{xx}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \tau_{yx}}{\partial y} + \rho g_x$$
(2-3)

where g_x is the gravitational acceleration in x-direction, and *P* is the pressure, respectively. The relationship between the pressure, density and temperature of a fluid is linked through an equation of state. The ideal gas law, an example of an equation of state, is applied in this study

$$P = \rho RT \tag{2-4}$$

where R is the gas constant.

Stokes in 1845 obtained the stress acting on the surface for Newtonian fluids

$$\tau_{xx} = \lambda (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{V}) + 2\mu \frac{\partial u}{\partial x}$$
(2-5.a)

$$\tau_{yy} = \lambda (\nabla \cdot \nabla) + 2\mu \frac{\partial v}{\partial y}$$
(2-5.b)

$$\tau_{xy} = \tau_{yx} = \mu \left[\frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right]$$
(2-5.c)

where μ is the molecular viscosity coefficient. The viscosity of a pure monatomic gas can be written in terms of the Lennard-Jones parameters as

$$\mu = \frac{5}{16} \frac{\sqrt{\pi m k_B T}}{\pi \sigma^2 \Omega_{\mu}} = 2.6693 \times 10^{-6} \frac{\sqrt{MT}}{\sigma^2 \Omega_{\mu}}$$
(2-6)

in which *m* is mass, k_B is the Boltzmann constant, *T* is the absolute temperature, and *M* is molecular weight [Bird et al., 2002]. The characteristic diameter of the molecular σ used in this study is given in Table 1. The collision integral for viscosity Ω_{μ} is curve-fitted as follows [Neufeld et al., 1972]:

$$\Omega_{\mu} = \frac{1.16145}{T^{*0.14874}} + \frac{0.52487}{\exp(0.77320T^{*})} + \frac{2.16178}{\exp(2.43787T^{*})}$$
(2-7)

where $T^* = k_B T / \varepsilon$ is a dimensionless temperature, and ε is the characteristic energy listed in Table 1.

$$\nabla = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\mathbf{i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\mathbf{j}\right)$$
 is the differential-operator, where $\mathbf{i} = (1,0)$ and $\mathbf{j} = (0,1)$ are

unit vectors in the direction of the x-axis and y-axis respectively. λ , the second viscosity coefficient, is frequently assumed to be equal to $-\frac{2}{3}\mu$.

By organizing Eq.(2) to a general form, the momentum equation in the direction of the x-axis is adapted as

$$\frac{\partial(\rho u)}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial(\rho u u)}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial(\rho v u)}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\mu \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\mu \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) + S_u$$
(2-8)
where the source term S_u is expressed as
 $S_u = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\frac{1}{3} \mu \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + 2 \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\mu \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} \right) + \rho g_x$ (2-9)

The momentum equation in the direction of y-axis has the same form as that in x-direction.

2.1.3. Energy Equation

The energy equation is as follows:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[\rho \left(e + \frac{V^2}{2} \right) \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\rho u \left(e + \frac{V^2}{2} \right) \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[\rho v \left(e + \frac{V^2}{2} \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(k \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(k \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (up)$$

$$- \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (vp) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(u\tau_{xx} + v\tau_{xy} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(u\tau_{yx} + v\tau_{yy} \right)$$

$$+ \rho ug_x + \rho vg_y$$
(2-10)

in which *e* is the internal energy due to random molecular motion, $\frac{V^2}{2}$ is the kinetic energy, and *k* is the thermal conductivity. The thermal conductivity of a monatomic gas is

$$k = \frac{25}{32} \frac{\sqrt{\pi m k_B T}}{\pi \sigma^2 \Omega_k} C_v = 8.3144 \times 10^{-2} \frac{\sqrt{MT}}{\sigma^2 \Omega_k}$$
(2-11)

where C_{ν} is the heat capacity at constant volume, and the collision integral for thermal conductivity, Ω_k , is identical to that for viscosity, Ω_{μ} .

The total enthalpy h_t is the sum of the static enthalpy h_s and the kinetic energy,

$$h_{t} = h_{s} + \frac{V^{2}}{2}$$
(2-12)
in which the static enthalpy is
$$h_{s} = \Delta h_{f}^{0} + \int_{T^{0}}^{T} C_{p}(T) dT$$
(2-13)

Here Δh_f^0 is the standard enthalpy of formation at the standard state (298.15 K and 1 atmosphere), and $C_p(T)$ is the specific heat capacity at constant pressure listed in Table 2.

In this study, the energy equation is rewritten in terms of the total enthalpy as follows:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho h_t) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\rho u h_t) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\rho v h_t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\left(k\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\left(k\frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\right) + S_{h_t}$$
(2-14)

For the $k \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}$ terms in the energy equation, since $C_p(T) = \frac{dh_s}{dT}$ is still true even if polynomials are used to describe h_s . Therefore, the following derivation can still be applied.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(k \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{k}{C_p} \frac{\partial h_s}{\partial x} \right)$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\frac{k}{C_p} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(h_s + \frac{V^2}{2} \right) \right] - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\frac{k}{C_p} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{V^2}{2} \right) \right]$$

$$= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\frac{k}{C_p} \frac{\partial h_t}{\partial x} \right] - \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\frac{k}{C_p} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{V^2}{2} \right) \right]$$
(2-15)

Hence, the Eq.(2) can be written as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\rho h_t) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x}(\rho u h_t) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y}(\rho v h_t) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{k}{C_p}\frac{\partial h_t}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{k}{C_p}\frac{\partial h_t}{\partial y}\right) + S_{h_t}$$
(2-16)

and the energy source term S_{h_t} is expressed as

$$S_{h_{t}} = -\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left[\frac{k}{Cp} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{V^{2}}{2} \right) \right] \xrightarrow{\partial} \left[\frac{k}{Cp} \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{V^{2}}{2} \right) \right] \\ + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(u\tau_{xx} + v\tau_{xy} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(u\tau_{yx} + v\tau_{yy} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(u\tau_{yx} + v\tau_{yy} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$$
(2-17)

2.1.4. Species Equation

The conservation of mass species equation is

$$\frac{\partial(\rho Y_{\alpha})}{\partial t} + \frac{\partial(\rho u Y_{\alpha})}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial(\rho v Y_{\alpha})}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\rho D_{\alpha, eff} \frac{\partial Y_{\alpha}}{\partial x}\right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\rho D_{\alpha, eff} \frac{\partial Y_{\alpha}}{\partial y}\right) + R_{\alpha}$$
(2-18)

Where the mass fraction of α_{th} species (Y_{α}) is defined as the ratio of the mass of the α_{th} species to the total mass of the mixture [Patankar, 1980]. R_{α} , the rate of formation of Y_{α} through chemical reactions, is neglected in this modeling. The effective diffusion coefficient of α_{th} species in multicomponent gas mixtures [Fairbanks and Wilke, 1950] is estimated

$$D_{\alpha,eff} = \frac{1 - X_{\alpha}}{\frac{X_{\beta}}{D_{\alpha\beta}} + \frac{X_{\gamma}}{D_{\alpha\gamma}} + \cdots}$$
(2-19)

where $X_{\alpha} = Y_{\alpha} \frac{M_{mix}}{M_{\alpha}}$ is the mole fraction of α_{th} species. $D_{\alpha\beta}$, $D_{\alpha\gamma}$, etc., are the

respective binary diffusion coefficients, which is defined by

$$D_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{1.86 \times 10^{-7} \times T^{3/2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{M_{\alpha}} + \frac{1}{M_{\beta}}}}{P \sigma_{\alpha\beta}^2 \Omega_{D,\alpha\beta}}$$
(2-20)

Here $\sigma_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{1}{2} (\sigma_{\alpha} + \sigma_{\beta})$ is the average collision diameter, $\Omega_{D,\alpha\beta}$ is a

temperature-dependent collision integral

$$\Omega_{D,\alpha\beta} = \frac{1.06306}{T^{*0.15610}} + \frac{0.19300}{\exp(0.47635T^*)} + \frac{1.03587}{\exp(1.52996T^*)} + \frac{1.76474}{\exp(3.89411T^*)}$$
(2-21)
For multicomponent gas, the viscosity is estimated by the following formula:
$$\mu_{mix} = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N} \frac{X_{\alpha}^{1} \mu_{\alpha}^{9.6}}{\sum_{\beta} X_{\beta} \Phi_{\alpha\beta}}$$
(2-22)

Here the dimensionless quantity $\Phi_{\alpha\beta}$ is

$$\Phi_{\alpha\beta} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \left(1 + \frac{M_{\alpha}}{M_{\beta}} \right)^{-1/2} \left[1 + \left(\frac{\mu_{\alpha}}{\mu_{\beta}} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{M_{\beta}}{M_{\alpha}} \right)^{1/4} \right]^2$$
(2-23)

, N is the number of species in the mixture, x_{α} is the mole fraction of species α , μ_{α} is the viscosity of pure species α , and M_{α} is the molecular weight of species α . The thermal conductivity of gas mixture is analogous to the viscosity, which is estimated by

$$k_{mix} = \sum_{\alpha=1}^{N} \frac{X_{\alpha} k_{\alpha}}{\sum_{\beta} X_{\beta} \Phi_{\alpha\beta}}$$
(2-24)

The k_{α} is the thermal conductivity of pure species, and $\Phi_{\alpha\beta}$ is identical to that using in the viscosity equation.

2.2. Numerical Schemes

2.2.1. Nondimensionalization

Before solving the above equations, a dimensionless process is applied to simplify and parameterize problems where measured units are involved. The scaling parameters, utilized in nondimensionalizing the governing equations, are listed in Table 3. The relevant nondimensional quantities denoted by a symbol (*) are defined as follows:

$$x^{*} = \frac{x}{L_{\infty}} ; y^{*} = \frac{y}{L_{\infty}} ; u^{*} = \frac{u}{U_{\infty}} ; v^{*} = \frac{v}{U_{\infty}} ; t^{*} = \frac{tU_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}} ; \rho^{*} = \frac{\rho}{\rho_{\infty}} ;$$

$$p^{*} = \frac{p}{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}^{2}} ; T^{*} = \frac{T}{T_{\infty}} ; \mu^{*} = \frac{\mu}{\mu_{\infty}} ; k^{*} = \frac{k}{k_{\infty}} ; \tau^{*}_{i,j} = \frac{\tau_{i,j}}{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}^{2}} ;$$

$$D^{*} = \frac{D}{D_{\infty}} ; R^{*} = \frac{R}{R_{\infty}} ; C_{p}^{*} = \frac{C_{p}}{C_{p,\infty}} ; h^{*}_{BBB} = \frac{\mu}{U_{\infty}^{2}} ; U_{\infty}^{2} ;$$
(2-25)

Then, the transport equations given above are nondimensionalized using the above dimensionless quantities.

2.2.1.3. Continuity Equation

Substitute the above dimensionless variables into the continuity equation

$$\frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial\rho^{*}}{\partial t^{*}} + \frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial(\rho^{*}u^{*})}{\partial x^{*}} + \frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial(\rho^{*}v^{*})}{\partial y^{*}} = 0$$
(2-26)

Multiplying both sides by $\frac{
ho_{\infty}U_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}}$ gives

$$\frac{\partial \rho^*}{\partial t^*} + \frac{\partial \left(\rho^* u^*\right)}{\partial x^*} + \frac{\partial \left(\rho^* v^*\right)}{\partial y^*} = 0$$
(2-27)

2.2.1.4. Momentum Equation

The momentum equation in the direction of x-axis is used the similar analysis,

$$\frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}^{2}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial(\rho^{*}u^{*})}{\partial t^{*}} + \frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}^{2}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial(\rho^{*}u^{*}u^{*})}{\partial x^{*}} + \frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}^{2}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial(\rho^{*}v^{*}u^{*})}{\partial y^{*}}$$

$$= \frac{\mu_{\infty}U_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}^{2}}\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{*}}\left(\mu^{*}\frac{\partial u^{*}}{\partial x^{*}}\right) + \frac{\mu_{\omega}U_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}^{2}}\frac{\partial}{\partial y^{*}}\left(\mu^{*}\frac{\partial u^{*}}{\partial y^{*}}\right)$$

$$- \frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}^{2}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial p^{*}}{\partial x^{*}} + \frac{\mu_{\infty}U_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}^{2}}\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{*}}\left[\frac{1}{3}\mu^{*}\left(\frac{\partial u^{*}}{\partial x^{*}} - 2\frac{\partial v^{*}}{\partial y^{*}}\right)\right]$$

$$+ \frac{\mu_{\omega}U_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}^{2}}\frac{\partial}{\partial y^{*}}\left(\mu^{*}\frac{\partial v^{*}}{\partial x^{*}}\right) + \rho_{\infty}g_{\infty}\rho^{*}g_{x}^{*}$$
(2-28)

After some rearrangement,

$$\frac{\partial(\rho^*u^*)}{\partial t^*} + \frac{\partial(\rho^*u^*u^*)}{\partial x^*} + \frac{\partial(\rho^*v^*u^*)}{\partial y^*} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^*} \left[\Gamma_u^* \frac{\partial u^*}{\partial x^*} \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial y^*} \left[\Gamma_u^* \frac{\partial u^*}{\partial y^*} \right] + b_u^*$$
(2-29)

where the dimensionless diffusion coefficient $\Gamma_u^* \overset{\circ}{}_u$ is expressed as $\frac{\mu}{\text{Re}}$. The Reynolds

number, the ratio of inertial forces to viscous forces, is defined as

$$\operatorname{Re} = \frac{\rho_{\infty} U_{\infty} L_{\infty}}{\mu_{\infty}}$$
(2-30)

The dimensionless source term is expressed as

$$b_{u}^{*} = -\frac{\partial p^{*}}{\partial x^{*}} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^{*}} \left[\frac{1}{3} \Gamma_{u}^{*} \left(\frac{\partial u^{*}}{\partial x^{*}} - 2 \frac{\partial v^{*}}{\partial y^{*}} \right) \right] + \frac{\partial}{\partial y^{*}} \left(\Gamma_{u}^{*} \frac{\partial v^{*}}{\partial x^{*}} \right) + \frac{1}{Fr} \rho^{*} g_{x}^{*}$$
(2-31)

where a dimensionless parameter known as the Froude number

$$Fr = \frac{U_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}g_{\infty}}$$
(2-32)

is interpreted as the ratio of the inertial to gravity forces in the flow.

2.2.1.5. Energy Equation

The energy equation nondimensionalized by the dimensionless variables

$$\frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}^{3}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial}{\partial t^{*}}(\rho^{*}h_{t}^{*}) + \frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}^{3}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{*}}(\rho^{*}u^{*}h_{t}^{*}) + \frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}^{3}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial}{\partial y^{*}}(\rho^{*}v^{*}h_{t}^{*})$$

$$= \frac{k_{\omega}U_{\infty}^{2}}{L_{\infty}^{2}C_{p,\infty}}\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{*}}\left(\frac{k^{*}}{C_{p}}\frac{\partial h_{t}^{*}}{\partial x^{*}}\right) + \frac{k_{\omega}U_{\infty}^{2}}{L_{\infty}^{2}C_{p,\infty}}\frac{\partial}{\partial y^{*}}\left(\frac{k^{*}}{C_{p}}\frac{\partial h_{t}^{*}}{\partial y^{*}}\right) + S_{h_{t}}$$
(2-33)

can be put into the dimensionless form.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t^*} \left(\rho^* h_t^* \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial x^*} \left(\rho^* u^* h_t^* \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y^*} \left(\rho^* v^* h_t^* \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^*} \left(\Gamma_{h_t}^* \frac{\partial h_t^*}{\partial x^*} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y^*} \left(\Gamma_{h_t}^* \frac{\partial h_t^*}{\partial y^*} \right) + b_{h_t}^* \quad (2-34)$$

Here the dimensionless diffusion coefficient of energy equation is defined as

$$\Gamma_{h_t}^* = \frac{1}{\operatorname{Re}\operatorname{Pr}} \frac{k^*}{Cp^*}$$
(2-35)

in which the Prandtl number $\Pr = \frac{\mu_{\infty}C_{p,\infty}}{k_{\infty}}$ is a dimensionless number interpreted as

the ratio of momentum diffusivity to thermal diffusivity. The dimensionless source term of energy equation $S_{h_i}^*$ is

$$S_{h_{t}}^{*} = -\frac{1}{\operatorname{Re}_{\infty}\operatorname{Pr}_{\infty}}\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{*}}\left[\frac{k^{*}}{C_{p}^{*}}\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{*}}\left(\frac{V^{*2}}{2}\right)\right] - \frac{1}{\operatorname{Re}_{\infty}\operatorname{Pr}_{\infty}}\frac{\partial}{\partial y^{*}}\left[\frac{k^{*}}{C_{p}^{*}}\frac{\partial}{\partial y^{*}}\left(\frac{V^{*2}}{2}\right)\right] + \frac{1}{\operatorname{Re}_{\infty}}\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{*}}\left(u^{*}\tau_{xx}^{*} + v^{*}\tau_{xy}^{*}\right) + \frac{1}{\operatorname{Re}_{\infty}}\frac{\partial}{\partial y^{*}}\left(u^{*}\tau_{yx}^{*} + v^{*}\tau_{yy}^{*}\right) + \frac{1}{F_{r}}\rho^{*}u^{*}g_{x}^{*} + \frac{1}{F_{r}}\rho^{*}v^{*}g_{y}^{*} + \frac{\partial p^{*}}{\partial t^{*}}$$
(2-36)

2.2.1.6. Species Equation

The dimensionless variables are substituted into the species equation,

$$\frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial\left(\rho^{*}Y_{\alpha}\right)}{\partial t^{*}} + \frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial(\rho uY_{\alpha})}{\partial x} + \frac{\rho_{\infty}U_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}}\frac{\partial(\rho vY_{\alpha})}{\partial y}$$

$$= \frac{\rho_{\infty}D_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}^{2}}\frac{\partial}{\partial x^{*}}\left(\rho^{*}D_{\alpha,eff}^{*}\frac{\partial Y_{\alpha}}{\partial x^{*}}\right) + \frac{\rho_{\infty}D_{\infty}}{L_{\infty}^{2}}\frac{\partial}{\partial y^{*}}\left(\rho^{*}D_{\alpha,eff}^{*}\frac{\partial Y_{\alpha}}{\partial y^{*}}\right)$$
(2-37)

then the dimensionless species equation can be obtained.

$$\frac{\partial(\rho^* Y_{\alpha})}{\partial t^*} + \frac{\partial(\rho^* u^* Y_{\alpha})}{\partial x^*} + \frac{\partial(\rho^* v^* Y_{\alpha})}{\partial y^*} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x^*} \left(\Gamma_{Y_{\alpha}}^* \frac{\partial Y_{\alpha}}{\partial x^*} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial y^*} \left(\Gamma_{Y_{\alpha}}^* \frac{\partial Y_{\alpha}}{\partial y^*} \right)$$
(2-38)

The dimensionless diffusion coefficient for species equation is defined as

$$\Gamma_{Y_{\alpha}}^{*} = \frac{\rho^{*} D_{\alpha,eff}^{*}}{\text{Pe}}$$
(2-39)

where the dimensionless parameter Pe is a measure of the relative magnitude of the diffusion term in the mass transfer equations as compared to the convection term.



2.2.2. Spatial Discretization

The transport equations using the cell-centered finite-volume scheme can be written generally in integral form as

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{\Omega} \rho \phi d\Omega + \int_{\Gamma} \vec{f} \cdot \vec{f}$$

where Ω is the domain of interest, Γ is the surrounding surface, and \vec{z} is the unit normal in outward direction. The time derivative is calculated using the first-order forward difference scheme, and the source term is treated using last time step value. The flux function \vec{F} consists of the inviscid and the viscous parts:

$$\vec{F} = \rho \vec{r} \, \psi = \mu_{\phi} \, \mathbf{v} \, \psi \tag{2-42}$$

The finite volume formulation of flux integral can be evaluated by the summation of the

flux vectors over each face,

$$\int_{\Gamma} \vec{F} \cdot \vec{F}_{i,j} \Delta \Gamma_j \qquad (2-43)$$

where k(i) is a list of faces of cell *i*, $F_{i,j}$ represents convection and diffusion fluxes through the interface between cell *i* and *j*, $\Delta \Gamma_j$ is the cell-face area. The viscous flux for the face *e* between control volumes *P* an *E* as shown in Figure 1 can be approximated as:

$$\nabla \phi_e = \frac{\varphi_e}{\left| \begin{array}{ccc} \phi_e & \phi_P \\ \phi_e & \phi_P \end{array} \right|} \qquad (2-44)$$

2.2.3. Upwind Scheme

The inviscid flux is evaluated through the values at the upwind cell and a linear reconstruction procedure to achieve second order accuracy as

$$\phi_e = \phi_u + \Psi_e \nabla \phi_u \quad (\vec{\cdot}_e - \vec{\cdot}_u)$$
1896
(2-45)

where the subscript *e* and *u* represents interface and the upwind cell, respectively, and Ψ_e is a flux limiter used to prevent from local extrema introduced by the data reconstruction. Defining $\phi_{\max} = \max(\phi_u, \phi_j)$ and $\phi_{\min} = \min(\phi_u, \phi_j)$, where ϕ_j is the neighbor cell of upwind cell, the Ψ_e associated with the gradient at cell *u* due to edge *e* is

$$\Psi_{e} = \begin{cases} \min\left(1, \frac{\phi_{\max} - \phi_{u}}{\phi_{e}^{0} - \phi_{u}}\right), & \text{if } \phi_{e}^{0} - \phi_{u} > 0\\ \min\left(1, \frac{\phi_{\min} - \phi_{u}}{\phi_{e}^{0} - \phi_{u}}\right), & \text{if } \phi_{e}^{0} - \phi_{u} < 0\\ 1 & , & \text{if } \phi_{e}^{0} - \phi_{u} = 0 \end{cases}$$
(2-46)

where ϕ_e^0 is computed without the limiting condition (i.e. $\Psi_e = 1$)

2.2.4. Pressure Smoothing

The cell face velocity u_e is usually obtained by linear interpolation as

$$u_{e} = \frac{1}{2} \left(u_{E} + u_{P} \right) \tag{2-47}$$

In order to avoid the pressure oscillations due to simulation on a collocated grid, the face velocity can be modified as

$$u_{e} = \frac{1}{2} \left(u_{E} + u_{P} \right) + \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial x} \frac{\partial \Omega}{A} \right)_{e1} - \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial x} \frac{\partial \Omega}{A} \right)_{e2}$$
(2-48)

where A is the coefficient in the discretized momentum equation.

The first pressure gradient term is calculated as the mean value of cell P and E,

$$\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial x}\frac{\partial\Omega}{A}\right)_{e1} = \frac{1}{2}\left(\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial x}\right)_{E} + \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial x}\right)_{P}\right)\left(\frac{\partial\Omega}{A}\right)_{e}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}\left(\left(\frac{P_{EE} - P_{P}}{\delta x_{P,EE}} + \frac{P_{E} - P_{W}}{\delta x_{W,E}}\right)\left(\frac{\partial\Omega}{A}\right)_{e}$$
(2-49)

The second one is calculated on the edge,

$$-\left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial x}\frac{\partial\Omega}{A}\right)_{e2} = -\left(\frac{P_E - P_P}{\delta x_{P,E}}\right)\left(\frac{\partial\Omega}{A}\right)_e$$
(2-50)

Set $\delta x_{P,EE} = \delta x_{W,E} = 2\delta x_{P,E}$ and

$$u_{e} = \frac{1}{2} \left(u_{E} + u_{P} \right) + \frac{1}{4\delta x_{P,E}} \left(\frac{\partial \Omega}{A} \right)_{e} \left[P_{EE} - 3P_{E} + 3P_{P} - P_{W} \right]$$
(2-51)

which is used to calculate the convection flux through the control volume faces. The first term is treated as a weighted average, and the second one is kept as it is to deal with non-equidistant grids.

2.2.5. Velocity-Slip and Temperature-Jump Boundary Conditions

The velocity-slip boundary condition [Cercignani, 1988] is given as:
$$v_s - v_w = \zeta \left. \frac{\partial v}{\partial n} \right|_s \tag{2-52}$$

where v_s is the velocity of gas at the solid wall surface, v_w is the velocity of wall, $\zeta = \frac{1 - \sigma_v}{\sigma_v} Kn, \ \sigma_v$ is the tangential momentum accommodation coefficient, Kn is

the Knudsen number, and $\frac{\partial v}{\partial n}\Big|_{s}$ is the derivative of velocity normal to the wall surface.

The temperature-jump is treated in a similar way:

$$T_s - T_w = \tau \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} \bigg|_s$$
(2-53)

where T_s is the temperature of gas at the solid wall surface, T_w is the temperature of wall, $\tau = \frac{2 - \sigma_T}{\sigma_T} Kn$, σ_T is the thermal accommodation coefficient, and $\frac{\partial T}{\partial n}\Big|_s$ is the derivative of temperature normal to the wall surface.

A general implicit discretized time-marching scheme for the transport equations is employed to solve the discretized equations. It can be written as:

$$\left(\frac{\rho^n}{\Delta t} + A_p\right)\phi_p^{n+1} = \sum A_{NB}\phi_{NB}^{n+1} + \frac{\left(\rho\phi_p\right)^n}{\Delta t} + S_\phi^n$$
(2-54)

where the superscripts n and n+1 mean old value (at time t) and new value (at time t+dt) of the variables, respectively. The high order differencing terms and cross diffusion terms are treated using known quantities and retained in the source term and updated explicitly.

In an extended SIMPLE [Chen (1989), Shang et al. (1995), Shang and Chen (1997), and Zhang et al. (2001)] family pressure-correction algorithm, the pressure correction equation for all-speed flows is formulated using the perturbed equation of state, momentum and continuity equations. The simplified formulations can be written as

$$\rho' = \frac{p'}{RT} \tag{2-55.a}$$

$$u'_m = -D_u \nabla p' \tag{2-55.b}$$

$$u^{k+1} = u^k + u' \tag{2-55.c}$$

$$p^{k+1} = p^k + p' \tag{2-55d}$$

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \left(u_m \rho' \right) + \nabla \left(\rho u_m' \right) = -\nabla \left(\rho u_m \right)^k$$
(2-55.e)

where *R* is the ideal gas constant, u_m is the *m*th Cartesian component of the velocity, and D_u is the pressure-velocity coupling coefficient. Cconsidering $\Delta \rho = \rho^{k+1} - \rho^n = (\rho^{k+1} - \rho^k) + (\rho^k - \rho^n) = \rho' + (\rho^k - \rho^n)$, the following all-speed pressure correction equation is obtained, $\frac{1}{RT} \frac{p'}{\Delta t} + \nabla \left(\frac{u_m}{RT} p'\right) - \nabla \left(\rho D_u \nabla p'\right) = - \left(\frac{\rho^k - \rho^n}{\Delta t}\right) - \nabla \left(\rho u_m\right)^k \qquad (2-56)$

where the superscript k represents the last iterative value.

The numerical algorithm for solving unsteady, compressible, viscous and heat-conducting gas flows consists the following steps:

- 1. Initialize the u, v, P, T and other parameters. Set time step Δt .
- 2. Set the initial conditions for the calculated time step.
- 3. Extended SIMPLE algorithm
 - 3.1 Solve the momentum equations at the predictor step.
 - 3.2 Solve the pressure-correction equation.
 - 3.3 Update the velocity, and pressure.
 - 3.4 Solve the secondary pressure-correction equation.

- 3.5 Update the velocity, and pressure again.
- 3.6 Solve the energy and species conservation equations.
- 3.7 Check for convergence of the iteration process. Repeat step 3 until a converged solution is obtained.
- 4. March to next time step and return to step 2 until a steady-state solution is obtain.

A basic description of the simulation processes is available in Figure 2-2. In addition, parallel computing is implemented and tested on distributed-memory machines using spatial domain decomposition.



Chapter 3

Verifications and Parallel Performance of the Gas Flow Model

In order to validate the feasibility of the developed gas flow model, several simulations from incompressible, low-speed to compressible, high-speed flow and problems with considering conjugate heat transfer were compared with previous simulations wherever possible. The weakly compressible lid-driven cavity flow has been frequently used as the benchmark problem for validation. It was chosen to test the capability of gas flow model in solving the incompressible flow problems. A two-dimensional square cavity with a heat conducting square cylinder at different locations is considered for validating that the gas flow model is suitable for flow model applied in a supersonic gas flow past a confined square in a micro-channel is to demonstrate the ability of the gas flow model in solving high-speed flow problems.

3.1. Lid-driven Cavity Flow

3.1.1. Simulation Conditions

The problem considers the fluid in a two-dimensional square cavity with an upper wall moving in the x-direction at a velocity u as shown in Figure 3-1. The other walls are stationary with the no-slip boundary condition. The pressure and temperature at the boundary are given a neumann boundary condition, meaning that the normal gradients of pressure and temperature are zero. A wide range of Reynolds numbers has been studied. Solutions are obtained for configurations with non-uniform meshes consisting of 128 by 128 cells.

3.1.2. Validation with Previous Simulations

The streamlines for the driven cavity flow with increasing Reynolds number from 100 to 10,000 along with those by Ghia et al. [1982] are shown in Figure 3-2 and 3-3. As is well known, the center of primary vortex is offset near the top right corner at Re =100. It moves towards the geometric center of the cavity with increasing Re. The simulation results are good agreement with those published in the literature. It is clearly that the current gas flow model is capable of reproducing the flow fields as Ghia et al. [1982] at near-incompressible flow limit in the wide range of Reynolds numbers.

3.2. Low-Speed Gas Flow with Conjugate Heat Transfer

3.2.1. Simulation Conditions

To demonstrate the capability of the solver to simulate gas flow with considering the conjugate heat transfer, we have chosen the conjugate heat transfer problem simulated by Rahman et al. [2008], as shown in Figure 3-4.

The Richardson number ($Ri = g\beta(T_h - T_i)L/u_i^2$), a dimensionless parameter represents the importance of natural convection relative to the forced convection, for this investigation is set as 0 to 5, where g is the gravitational acceleration, β is the thermal expansion coefficient, L is the length of the square cavity, u_i is the inlet velocity, and T_h and T_i are the temperature of heated wall and inlet, respectively. L and are assumed as the characteristic length, and velocity, and the corresponding Reynolds number is keeping equal to 100. The inlet width and the square block width are equal to 0.1L and 0.2L, respectively. The solid fluid thermal conductivity ratio $\frac{k_s}{k_f}$ is equal to 5, where k_s and k_f are the heat conductivities of the solid and gas,

respectively.

The boundary conditions are given as follows:

At the inlet (\overline{BC}) :

$$u = u_i, v = 0, T = T_i, P = \text{extrapolation}$$
 (3-1)

At the outlet (\overline{FE}) :

$$\frac{\partial \left[\phi(=u,v,T)\right]}{\partial n} = 0, \ P = \text{fixed}$$
(3-2)

At the wall boundaries:

$$\overline{AB}$$
, \overline{CD} , and \overline{FA} : $u = 0$, $v = 0$, $\frac{\partial \left\lfloor \phi(=P,T) \right\rfloor}{\partial n}$ (3-3)

$$\overline{DE}: u = 0, v = 0, T = T_h, \frac{\partial P}{\partial n} = 0$$
 ES (3-4)

At the solid-fluid interfaces of the block.

$$u = 0, v = 0, \left(k_f \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} \bigg|_f = k_s \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} \bigg|_s \right), \frac{\partial P}{\partial n}$$
(3-5)

3.2.2. Validation with Previous Simulations

Flow over a solid cylinder in a square cavity is considered. Air is used as the working fluid in the cavity. 100×100 uniform computational cells are used for simulations throughout the study. Conjugate heat transfer is considered by solving a steady-state heat conduction equation within the square block and by enforcing the heat flux continuity at the interfaces between gas and solid.

Figure 3-5 to 3-10 show the stream lines and isotherms at Ri = 0, Ri = 1, and Ri = 5 for four configurations of the blocks in the cavity along with the data of Rahman et al. [2008]. The comparisons show good agreement between the two

simulations while the temperature difference $(T_h - T_i)$ is small.

At smaller temperature gradient, the stream lines and isotherms are almost the same as those obtained by Rahman et al.; however, as the temperature difference becomes large, the flow and thermal patterns shown in Figure 3-11 and 3-12 deviate greatly from those by Rahman et al. [2008]. The results indicate that the Boussinesq approximation as often assumed by most of the simulations for mixed convection problems; especially at high Richardson number is highly questionable. For this type of flow, a compressible viscous gas flow model is necessary.

3.3. Micro-scale High-Speed Gas Flow with Slip Boundary

Conditions

3.3.1. Simulation Conditions

A 2D compressible laminar flow around a square cylinder with size a ($a=1.4 \ \mu m$) confined in a micro-channel (height $H_{ch} = 10a$, length $L_{ch} = 50a$) is simulated to demonstrate the capability of handling supersonic flow with slip boundary conditions as shown in Figure 3-13.

The reference parameters based on the inlet state for this problem are: $P_0 = P_{in}$, $T_0 = T_{in}$, $\rho_0 = \frac{P_0}{RT_0}$, and $V_0 = \sqrt{2RT_0}$, where the subscript *in* represents the inlet state.

The square size *a* is chosen as the characteristic length, the corresponding Mach number and Knudsen number in the study are 2.4261 and 0.05, respectively. Velocity-slip and temperature-jump boundary conditions are implemented in the study. The blockage ratio a/H_{ch} is equal to 0.1 and the distance between square and the channel inlet (L_a) is equal to 5.5a.

The boundary conditions applied in this problem are as follows:

At the inlet:

$$u = u_i, v = 0, T = T_i, P = P_i$$
 (3-6)

At the outlet:

$$\frac{\partial \left[\phi(=u,v,T,P)\right]}{\partial n} = 0$$
(3-7)

At the wall boundaries:

$$u = u_i, v = 0, \quad \frac{\partial \left[\phi(=P,T)\right]}{\partial n}$$
(3-8)

At the solid-fluid interfaces of the square:

$$u = 0, v = 0, \left(k_f \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} \bigg|_f = k_s \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} \bigg|_s \right), \frac{\partial P}{\partial n}$$
 (3-9)

3.3.2. Validation with Previous Simulations

The distribution of flow properties in the channel is shown in Figure 3-14. The results show that there is a strong bow shock, also called a detached shock, forming in front of the square. Downstream of the bow shock, the pressure, density, and temperature of the flow rise rapidly; the velocity of the fluid drops from "supersonic" to "subsonic".

The comparison of the normalization distribution of horizontal velocity and temperature obtained by Shterev and Stefanov [2010] (steps $\Delta = 0.00625$, 8000 × 1600 cells), and the present (2000 × 400 cells) are shown in Figure 3-15 and 3-16. The results obtained that the agreement between gas flow model and SIMPLE-TS data is very good.

Figures 3-17 to 3-20 show the comparisons of horizontal velocity and temperature along the center line of the channel ($y = H_{ch}/2$) with the simulation data [Shterev and Stefanov, 2010] for different spatial steps. The obtained by the gas flow model with

much lower resolution ($500 \times 100 - 2000 \times 400$ cells) is in a good agreement with those calculated by the SIMPLE-TS method using much higher resolution ($2000 \times 400 - 8000 \times 1600$ cells). It clearly shows that to obtain a receivable result by SIMPLE-TS method needs to carry out very long calculations compared to those of gas flow model.

3.4. Parallel Performance Study

3.4.1. Test Conditions

The two-dimensional micro-scale supersonic gas flow as shown earlier is used for parallel performance study. 2,000 by 400 uniform computation cells are considered in the study. The parallel performance of gas flow model is investigated by using two type of Krylov subspace method, GMRES and BiCGStab, where the subdomain problems were solved by ILU. The test is operated on the V'ger cluster system (Xeon 3GHz dual-core, dual-CPU) at the Center for Computation Geophysics, National Central University, Taiwan.

3.4.2. Results and Discussion

Figure 3-21 shows the variation of the parallel performance and computation times per time step as a function of the number of processors. The parallel performance is tested by applying GMRES or BiCGStab as the KSP solver and ILU as the sub-domain solver. Result shows speedup is about 46 times as 64 processors are used for the test case with GMRES as the KSP solver. The parallel speedup using GMRES-ILU is slightly better than using BiCGStab-ILU, and the absolute runtime of case using GMRES-ILU is relatively short.

3.5. Summary

In this chapter, the validations of the gas flow model and parallel performance were presented. The validation is found to be very good agreement with previous simulations. Parallel efficiency is reasonably good up to 64 processors with parallel efficiency of \sim 70%.



Chapter 4

Applications in Low-Temperature Plasma Discharge

This chapter presents the gas flow model coupling with the plasma fluid modeling applied in low-temperature plasma discharge. Figure 4-1 to 4-4 exhibit the plasma properties include electron number density, electron temperature, and ion number densities in an atmospheric-pressure plasma jet w/ and w/o considering the neutral gas flow model. These results demonstrate that influence of gas flow model in the low-temperature plasma discharge should not be underestimated.

This phase demonstrates a large-scale realistic PECVD using the mixture Silane/Hydrogen gas. In order to get a uniform thickness of coating, optimization of the flow streamlines with respect to the influence of deposition parameters by using numerical simulation is necessary. Figure 4-5 show the schematic diagram of the PECVD chamber. Due to the symmetry of the plasma chamber, only half domain is considered in this simulation.

4.1.1. Simulation Conditions

Simulation conditions in this study include: (1) chamber pressure (600 *mtorr*); (2) a square glass plate ($20 \text{ Å} \sim 20 \text{ cm}$); (3) substrate temperature (250 C); (4) gap distance between shower-head and substrate (14 *mm*) and (5) inflow rate ratio of silane to hydrogen (50 : 80 sccm).

The boundary conditions used in the gas flow model are defined as

At the gas inlet:

$$u = 0, v = v_i, T = T_i, P = \text{extrapolation}, Y = Y_i$$

$$(4-1)$$

where v_i is calculated depending on the gas flow rate, the cross section of the shower head, and background pressure using a temperature of 300 K.

At the outlet:

$$\frac{\partial \left[\phi\left(=u,v,T,Y\right)\right]}{\partial n} = 0, \ P = P_{fixed}$$
(4-2)

At the substrate surface:

$$u = 0, v = 0, T = T_s, \frac{\partial \left[\phi(=P,Y)\right]}{\partial n}$$
(4-3)

At the solid-fluid interfaces:

$$u = 0, v = 0, \left(k_f \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} \Big|_f = k_s \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} \Big|_s \right), \frac{\partial P}{\partial n}$$
(4-4)

The schematic of the computational cells used in this simulation is shown in Figure 4-6.

4.1.2. **Results and Discussion**

The steady-state neutral flow field including the distributions of species number density, temperature and mass-averaged velocities are simulated by using the developed gas flow model. The applied frequency was 25 kHz and the total gas pressure was 600 mTorr. These properties were then used in the plasma fluid modeling as the background gas properties. Figure 4-7 to 4-8 show the distributions of H_2 and SiH_4 , and gas temperature. In this case, the Reynolds number is small with inflow velocity of silane/hydrogen and gap distance as the characteristic velocity and length, respectively. A small Reynolds number leads to a small Peclet number (Pe = Re·Pr), which means that the conduction is dominated. This phenomenon is clearly seen in Figure 4-7, where the temperature distribution between the electrode and subtract is almost linear. In addition, the density near the substrate surface decreases greatly because of the heated substrate at elevated temperature ($250 \,^{\circ}$). Non-uniform background density is important in determining the ionization rate during the simulation. The detailed flow structure is given by the streamlines in Figure 4-9.

4.2. Simulation of a Helium Micro-Cell Plasma

4.2.1. Simulation Conditions

Figure 4-10 shows the schematic diagram of a micro-cell plasma investigated in this study. The micro-cell consists of two ring-shaped electrodes made of aluminum separated by an insulator. The powered electrode is connected to an RF power source (f=13.56 MHz) with amplitude of 300 Volt, and the other one is grounded. Helium gas is applied as the working gas under the atmospheric-pressure condition. This study is numerically solved in a cylindrical coordinate in the right region in Figure 4-10. 40×60 uniform computational cells is used in x- and y-direction, respectively. Table 4 lists the substance properties used in this study. A gravitational field $\frac{1}{5}$ is considered in the negative y-direction.

The boundary conditions for helium micro-cell plasma include:

At domain boundaries:

$$T=T_{\infty} \tag{4-5}$$

At the solid-fluid interfaces:

$$u = 0, \ v = 0, \ \left(k_f \left. \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} \right|_f = k_s \left. \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} \right|_s \right), \ \frac{\partial P}{\partial n}$$
(4-6)

4.2.2. Results and Discussion

The present study numerically investigates the characteristics of flow field and heat transfer in a helium micro-cell plasma at atmospheric pressure. Figure 4-11 and 4-12 show the force due to ion-molecule collisions generated by the plasma fluid model for x- and y-momentum equations, respectively. And the energy source duo to ion Joule heating and electron elastic collision is shown in Figure 4-13.

Figure 4-14 shows the temperature distribution without considering the plasma momentum sources. The helium gas is heated and the maximum temperature in the plasma region is about 307 K. The increasing temperature produces an increase in the flow field due to the buoyancy effect. As expected, the buoyancy effect leads a weak clockwise flow field shown in Figure 4-15. However, the situation is totally different when the plasma momentum sources are considered. The clockwise flow field is reversed into a counter-clockwise field shown in Figure 4-16. There is a large component of the force ($F_{plasma} = \begin{bmatrix} S_{11} + S_1^2 \end{bmatrix}^{1/2}$ and the powered electrode shown in Figure 4-17. The intensity of the force per unit volume is extremely larger than the buoyancy force, which leads an opposite flow field. The flow is accelerated to a speed of 0.8 m/s. Figure 4-18 shows the distributions of temperature with considering the plasma momentum sources.

4.3. Simulation of a Helium Dielectric Barrier Discharge Atmospheric-Pressure Plasma Jet

In the present study, a helium planar dielectric barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure plasma jet (APPJ) designed by our group members shown in Figure 4-19 is simulated using the developed gas flow model coupling with a two-dimensional parallelized plasma fluid modeling code developed by another group member [Lin, 2010]. The converged steady-state results of flow field, temperature, and other neutral gas properties are present.

4.3.1. Simulation Conditions

The schematic of the helium dielectric barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure plasma jet used in this study is illustrated in Figure 4-20. This system consists of two parallel electrodes made of copper and each of the electrodes is cuboid of $25 \times 50 \times 8$ mm³. The lower electrode is connected to an AC power source (f=25 kHz) with amplitude of 250 Volt, and the upper one is grounded. Each electrode is covered with a $35 \times 70 \times 1$ mm³ ceramic plate as the dielectric. The gap spacing between the two dielectric plates is kept at 1 mm throughout the study. Helium gas with nitrogen impurity (100ppm) is applied under the atmospheric-pressure condition. The total gas flow rate passing with a cross section of 1×50 mm² is fixed at 20 slm.

In addition, the initial background gas temperature is assumed to be 300 K, and the surroundings are filled with air (78% N_2 and 22% O_2). The substrate surface is specified under two kinds of boundary conditions: a) an adiabatic wall (Neumann boundary) and b) an isothermal wall (dirichlet boundary).

The boundary conditions for the helium dielectric barrier atmospheric-pressure plasma jet include:

At the gas inlet:

$$u = u_i, v = 0, T = T_i, P = \text{extrapolation}, Y = Y_i$$

$$(4-7)$$

where u_i is calculated depending on the gas flow rate, the cross section of inlet, and background pressure using a temperature of 300 K.

At the outlet:

If the gas flows out of the domain,

$$\frac{\partial \left[\phi(=u,v,T,Y)\right]}{\partial n} = 0, \ P = P_{fixed}$$
(4-8)

Otherwise,

$$\frac{\partial \left[\phi(=u,v,)\right]}{\partial n} = 0, \ T = T_{amb}, \ P = f\left(P_t\right), \ Y = Y_{amb}$$
(4-9)

where the subscript "amb" means the state of the surrounding environment.

At the substrate surface:

Isothermal wall:

$$u = 0, v = 0, T = T_s, \frac{\partial \left[\phi(=P,Y)\right]}{\partial n}$$
(4-10)

Adiabatic wall:

$$u = 0, v = 0, \frac{\partial \left[\phi(=T, P, Y)\right]}{\partial n}$$
(4-11)

At the solid-fluid interfaces:

$$u = 0, v = 0, \left(k_f \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} \Big|_f = k_s \frac{\partial T}{\partial n} \Big|_s \right), \frac{\partial P}{\partial n} \overset{\otimes}{\operatorname{896}}$$
(4-12)

4.3.2. Results and Discussion

A two-dimensional helium dielectric barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure plasma jet is investigated by solving the governing conservation equations with the boundary conditions. According to the gap between the two dielectric layers, the Reynolds number is estimated to be about 60. The gas flow is assumed to be laminar. The Knudsen number related to the Mach number and the Reynolds number is less than 0.001, and the gas is treated as continuum. For this reason, the no-slip condition is imposed at the boundary. The 160×160 non-uniform computational cells shown in the Figure 4-21 are employed in the simulation. The parallelized neutral gas flow model uses 8 processors in x-direction and 5 processors in y-direction, respectively. Figure 4-22 shows the time-history of the velocity and temperature profiles at the export of helium dielectric barrier discharge at atmospheric-pressure with gas flow rate of 20 slm under two kinds of boundary conditions of substrate surface. The computations are continued until it is obtained that the fluid properties have reached a statistically stationary state. It is seen the gas velocity at the exit of the plasma jet increase achieved a maximum velocity of about 14 m/s. The result in an adiabatic substrate surface is quite similar to that in an isothermal substrate surface. The steady-state solutions of the maximum temperatures at the exit of the plasma jet are 321 K and 322.5 K for the adiabatic and isothermal substrate surfaces, respectively.

The two-dimensional spatial distributions of pressure and over-all density are shown in Figure 4-23. The inlet pressure is approximately 760.5 torrs. In Figure 4-24, the spatial distributions of temperature for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm are shown for two different thermal boundaries. The gas is heating due to ion Joule heating and electron-neutral elastic collision. The maximum shown temperature in the plasma channel is about 323 K.

The velocity components in x- and y-direction are presented in Figure 4-25. Figure 4-26 shows the spatial distributions of the mean-speed, stream lines, and velocity vector. In the stagnation region, the fluid velocity is zero and the surrounding flow is turning into the wall direction. Results illustrate that there are several pairs of vortices formed in the region between the jet exit and substrate and shown almost symmetric pattern. Figure 1 shows the steady-state velocity vectors and streamlines at Re = 60, H/d = 10, and gas flow rate of 20 slm. The locations of primary and secondary vortexes are depicted in Figure 4-27. A counter-clockwise primary vortex is formed near to the jet exit owing to low-pressure formation near the jet exit. When the momentum of the jet is unable to overcome retarding effect of the primary vortex and

the opposing frictional force of the impingement plate, the clockwise secondary vortex is formed. Figure 4-28 show the numerical simulated stream lines at different time level for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm. The results denote that the primary and secondary vortices glow and move toward the outlet as time increases. Finally, the flow converges to its steady state.

Figure 4-29 shows the horizontal velocity profiles in the plasma channel at different x position. The entrance length, a length in the channel until the flow velocity profile is fully developed, correlation with the Reynolds Number for laminar flow can be expressed as 0.06 Re. It is clear that the flow is nearly fully developed with a parabolic velocity profile. The temperature profile in the plasma channel at various x positions is illustrated in Figure 4-30. The temperature difference between an adiabatic and an isothermal substrate surface is about 3 K.

Figure 4-31 shows the horizontal velocity and temperature profiles along the center line of the plasma jet. The gas flow, velocity increases with increasing the distance from the inlet, and reaches a nearly constant value about 11.8 m/s in the plasma channel. A pronounced reduction in the velocity of the helium gas can be observed out of the plasma channel. The gas temperature in the plasma region is continuously increasing due to the electron-neutral elastic collision and ion Joule heating. The maximum values in the plasma channel, respectively, are about 324.5 K and 322.8 K for adiabatic and for isothermal boundaries. The gas temperature outside the plasma region decreases with the distance, as expected. Vertical velocity and temperature profiles between helium DBD APPJ and substrate at different y positions for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm are shown in Figure 4-32 and 4-33.

The local Nusselt number distribution along the isothermal substrate surface for

d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm is obtained in Figure. 4-34. The local Nusselt number, a ratio of convective to conductive heat transfer normal to the surface, is defined as:

$$Nu = \frac{hd}{k} = -\frac{d}{\left(T_{bulk} - T_i\right)} \left(\frac{dT}{dx}\right)_s$$
(4-13)

where *h* is local heat transfer coefficient, and T_{bulk} is the bulk temperature. The bulk temperature T_{bulk} in this study is defined as follows:

$$\vec{\mu} = Q_{FM} \tag{4-14}$$

where i is the helium mass flow rate, and Q_{FM} is the heat source generated from the plasma fluid modeling. The local Nusselt number would not change significantly if the substrate surface treated as an adiabatic wall. A typical bell-shaped profile is obtained near the stagnation point while the substrate surface is kept at 300 K. The local Nusselt number variation in the substrate surface presents a peak of 2.37 at the stationary point for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm. Thereafter, the Nu decreases monotonically.

Chapter 5

Parametric Study of a Helium Dielectric Barrier Discharge Atmospheric-Pressure Plasma Jet

The purpose of this parameter study is to determine the influences of the system configurations, and the flow conditions on the flow and heat transfer characteristics of a helium dielectric-barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure plasma jet. The parameters varied in this study are the electrode lengths (5 mm and 25 mm), gas flow rates(10 - 30 slm), and dimensionless jet-to-substrate spacing rates, H/d (5, 7.5, 10, 12.5, and 15). The simulations are performed using helium with nitrogen impurity (100ppm) as the working gas. The neutral flow properties including velocity, pressure, total enthalpy, and species concentrations et al., are calculated by using the co-located cell finite volume method. The results are presented in the following sections.

5.1 The Effect of Electrode Length

5.1.1 Simulation Conditions

The two systems consist of two parallel electrodes made of copper. The electrodes of two systems are cuboid of $25 \times 50 \times 8 \text{ mm}^3$ and of $5 \times 50 \times 8 \text{ mm}^3$, respectively. The powered electrode is connected to an AC power source (f=25 kHz) with amplitude of 250 Volt. The electrodes of two systems are respectively covered with $35 \times 70 \times 1 \text{ mm}^3$ and $15 \times 70 \times 1 \text{ mm}^3$ ceramic plates. The gap spacing between the two dielectric plates is kept at 1 mm throughout the two systems. Helium gas with nitrogen impurity (100ppm) is applied under the atmospheric-pressure

condition. The total gas flow rate is fixed at 20 slm.

For studying the influence of electrode length on the heat transfer and flow characteristics, the electrode length varies from 5 mm to 25 mm and the other parameters remain the same as in Chapter 4. 140×160 and 160×160 non-uniform, computational cells are used for the electrode lengths of 5 mm and 25 mm, respectively.

5.1.2 Results and Discussion

In this study, the value of velocity, pressure, total enthalpy, and species concentration are calculated numerically for two different electrode lengths. Figure 5-1 to 5-3 show the steady-state solutions of flow properties including pressure, over-all density, temperature, and velocity components. The heating source generated by plasma will decrease due to reduce the electrode length. Short electrode length leads to small plasma region, which results in decreased power source generated by plasma. The temperature in short electrode length rises from 300 K to 305.5 K. However, the flow field and the distributions of species mole fraction are no significant different between two different electrode lengths.

5.2 The Effect of Jet-to-Substrate Spacing Rate

5.2.1 Simulation Conditions

In order to determinate the effect of the dimensionless jet-to-substrate spacing rats on the flow and temperature fields in a simulation of helium dielectric barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure plasma jet, the numerical simulations are performed for five different H/d = (5, 7.5, 10, 12.5, and 15).

The number of computational cells used in the present calculations for various

jet-to-substrate spacing rates is list Table 5. The simulations are advanced in time until the flow properties reach to the steady-state solutions.

5.2.2 Results and Discussion

The influence of the jet-to-substrate spacing rate on the flow and temperature is determined. Simulations of flow properties are done by setting the dimensionless jet-to-substrate spacing rates H/d from 5 to 15.

The temperature distributions, respectively, for an adiabatic boundary and for an isothermal boundary for the effect of various jet-to-substrate spacing rates are plotted in Figure 5-4 and 5-5. It can be seen that the jet-to-substrate spacing rate has an important effect on the heat transfer performances. The temperature distribution for an adiabatic boundary is relatively high to that for an isothermal boundary. Figure 5-6 shows the comparison of the mean speed distributions for various jet-to-substrate spacing rates. streamlines for the solet-to-substrate predicted The spacing rates of H/d = (5, 7.5, 10, 12.5, and 15) at the plasma jet exit region are shown in Figure 5-7. It is observed that the size of the primary vortex increases with increasing the jet-to-substrate spacing ratio. With increasing jet-to-substrate spacing rate, the turning acceleration and the velocity in the flow transverse direction will decrease. Figure 5-8 to 5-10 show the distributions of species mole fraction.

Variation in the local Nusselt number distribution with dimensionless jet-to-substrate spacing (H/d) can be seen in Figure 5-11. It is clear that the relative decrease in the local Nusselt number with increasing the dimensionless jet-to-substrate spacing. This is due to the convection effect. The local Nusselt number at the stationary point decreases from 3.7 to 1.8 with the dimensionless jet-to-substrate spacing increasing from 5 to 15. The smallest dimensionless jet-to-substrate spacing rate

(H/d = 5) yielded the largest Nusselt number at the stagnation point for gas flow rate of 20slm.

5.3 The Effect of Gas Flow Rate

5.3.1 Simulation Conditions

The influence on the flow and heat transfer characteristics of a helium dielectric-barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure plasma jet is investigated for various gas flow rates. The parameters used in this study are the same as the Chapter 4, except the gas flow rate.

5.3.2 Results and Discussion

The fluid flow and heat transfer for a helfum dielectric barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure jet tested for different helfum gas flow rates are presented. Figure 5-12 shows the comparisons of the temperature distributions for an adiabatic substrate for gas flow rates between 10 and 30 slm. It is observed that a higher gas flow rate brings a lower temperature distribution. This phenomenon can also been discovered at the temperature distributions for an isothermal substrate shown in Figure 5-13. A higher gas flow rate is corresponding to a higher gas velocity shown in Figure 5-14. A constant thermal source provided by the plasma fluid model resisting a higher gas velocity leads a lower temperature distribution. The predicted streamlines for various gas flow rates with H/d = 10 are presented in Figure 5-15. It is observed that there is a slight change in position and size of the vortexes as the gas flow rate changes. Figure 5-16 to 5-18 show the comparison of the distributions of species mole fraction for various gas flow rates.

Figure 5-19 shows the time-histories of velocity at the export of the helium

dielectric barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure jet for various helium gas flow rates and for different thermal boundaries. The jet exit velocity increases from 6 to 17 m/s with increasing the helium gas flow rate from 10 slm to 30 slm for d = 1 mm and H/d = 10. The jet exit temperature as a function of time for different helium gas flow rates for two different thermal boundaries is shown in Figure 5-20. At the plasma jet exit, the temperatures decrease, respectively, from 342 to 317 K for an adiabatic boundary and from 329 to 314 K for an isothermal boundary with increasing the gas flow rate from 10 to 30 slm. Figure 5-21 and 5-22 show the horizontal velocity and temperature profiles along the center line of the helium DBD APPJ for various gas flow rates.

The approximated Reynolds numbers based on plasma jet gap distance and inflow conditions increase from 30 to 90 with increasing the helium gas flow rate from 10 slm to 30slm. The bulk temperatures for various gas flow rates are list in Table 6. The bulk temperature decreases significantly with increasing the gas flow rate. A strong dependence of heat transfer on gas flow rate is shown. Figure 5-23 shows the local Nusselt number distributions along the substrate surface for various gas flow rates. The local Nusselt numbers at the stationary point show a maximum value of 38.4 for gas flow rate of 30 slm, and a minimum value of 10.2 for gas flow rate of 10slm. Higher gas flow rate generates strong convection effects, which results in higher Nu.

5.4 Summary

Numerical simulations to investigate the flow and heat transfer characteristics in a helium dielectric barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure jet are carried out for different electrode lengths, jet-to-substrate spacing rates, and helium gas flow rates.

Chapter 6

Conclusion and Recommendations for Future Study

6.1 Summaries of This Thesis

In this thesis, a parallelized 2D/2D-axisymmetric pressure-based, finite-volume gas flow model has been reported. Implementation and validations against earlier simulations data are described in detail. Developed code is then applied to simulate two-dimensional silane/hydrogen gas discharge in a PECVD chamber, helium micro-cell plasma and helium dielectric barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure plasma jet.

The main conclusions of this study can be briefly summarized as follows:

- 1. Parallelized 2D gas flow model using finite-volume method for simulating compressible, viscous, heat conductive and rarefied gas flows at all speeds with conjugate heat transfer was developed and validated against previous simulations.
- 2. Parallel efficiency of a micro-scale supersonic channel gas flow simulation with 800,000 computational cells using 64 processors maintained about 70%.
- 3. In the silane/hydrogen gas discharge in a low-pressure PECVD chamber driven by a RF power source (27.12 MHz), the conduction is dominated.
- Helium micro-cell plasma is simulation coupling with a parallelized fluid modeling code, and a reverse flow field is found with considering the plasma momentum source.
- 5. A non-equilibrium atmospheric-pressure helium dielectric barrier discharge driven by a realistic distorted-sinusoidal voltage power source (25 kHz) is investigated by using the developed gas flow model coupling with a parallelized fluid modeling code. Electrode lengths, jet-to-substrate spacing rates, and gas flow

rates have a remarkable influence on the flow and heat transfer characteristics.

6.2 **Recommendations for Future Work**

There are several recommendations for further work:

- 1. To further reduce the computational time in large-scale gas flow problem.
- 2. To solve the gas flow model in the curvilinear coordinate frame for complex geometry problem.
- 3. To involve the turbulent model for complex flows.
- 4. To add chemical reaction and electrochemistry module
- 5. To extend the gas flow model into three-dimensional version for realistic applications



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Substance	Molecular weight	σ	$\varepsilon / k_{\scriptscriptstyle B}$
	(M)	(Å)	(K)
Не	4.003	2.576	38
Ar	39.948	3.432	122.4
N_2	28.013	3.667	99.8
O ₂	31.999	3.433	113
Air	28.964	3.617	97

Table 1. Lennard-Jones potential parameters. [Bird et al., 2002]



 Table 2. Constant-pressure specific heats and heat of formation of various ideal gases.

 [Borgnakke & Sonntag, 2008]

	$C_{p0} = C_0 + C_1 T +$	$C_2T^2 + C_3T^3$			$(J/kg \cdot K)$
Gas	$\Delta h_{f}^{0}\left(kJ/mol ight)^{\dagger}$	C_0	C_1	<i>C</i> ₂	<i>C</i> ₃
Не	0	5193	0	0	0
Ar	0	520	0	0	0
N_2	0	1110	-4.8E-04	9.6E-07	-4.2E-10
O ₂	0	880	-1.0E-07	5.4E-07	-3.3E-10
Air	0	1050	-3.65E-04	8.5E-07	-3.9E-10
H_2	0	13460	4.6E-03	-6.85E-06	3.79E-09
SiH ₄	34.3	1308	-	-	-

[†] Chase, M. W. et al., JANAF Thermochemical Tables, Third Edition, J. Phys. Chem. Ref. Data, Vol. 14, Suppl.1, 1985

Scaling Parameter	Description	Unit
L_{∞}	Characteristic length	т
U_{∞}	Characteristic speed	m/s
$ ho_{\scriptscriptstyle\infty}$	Characteristic density	kg/m^3
T_{∞}	Characteristic temperature	Κ
μ_{∞}	Characteristic viscosity	$kg/m \cdot s$
k_{∞}	Characteristic conductivity	$W/m \cdot s$
$R_{_{\infty}}$	Characteristic gas constant	$J/mol \cdot K$
$C_{p,\infty}$	Characteristic specific heat capacity	$J/kg \cdot K$

Table 3. Scaling parameters u	used in gas	flow model.
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Table 4. Substance parameters in helium micro-cell plasma.

	Material	$\rho [kg/m^3]$	$C_p \left[J/kg \cdot K \right]$	$k [W/m \cdot K]$		
Electrode	Al	2750	900	228		
Insulator	SiO ₂	2200	703	1.4		
Plasma	He	0.16	5194	0.15		

Table 5. Test cases and results of a helium dielectric barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure plasma jet for various H/d for d = 1 mm, and gas flow rate of 20slm.

Case	H/d	N _x	Ny	P _{stag} [Torr]	Nu _{stag}
a	5	140	160	760.033	3.5
b	7.5	150	160	760.027	2.8
с	10	160	160	750.023	2.4
d	12.5	170	160	760.02	2.1
e	15	180	160	760.018	1.8

Table 6. The approximated Reynolds numbers and bulk temperatures for various gas flow rates.							
Gas flow rate [slm]	10	1896	20	25	30		
Re	30	45	60	75	90		
T_{bulk} (K)	346.3	330.9	323.2	318.5	315.4		



Figure 2-1: Two-dimensional control volume.



Figure 2-2: Flowchart of the extended SIMPLE algorithm.



Figure 3-1: Schematic of the computational grid a in two-dimensional lid-driven

cavity.


Figure 3-2: Streamlines for driven cavity flow with Reynolds numbers of 100, 400 and 1,000 (top to bottom). Note: Ghia et al. [1982] (left); present (right).



Figure 3-3: Streamlines for driven cavity flow with Reynolds numbers of 3200, 5000, and 10000 (top to bottom). Note: Ghia et al. [1982] (left); present (right).



Figure 3-4: Schematic of the flow in a square cavity with a square block.



Figure 3-5: Streamlines for Different Locations of Cylinder at Ri = 0. Note: Rahman et al. [2008] (left); present (right).



Figure 3-6: Isotherms for Different Locations of Cylinder at Ri = 0. Note: Rahman et

al. [2008] (left); present (right).



Figure 3-7: Streamlines for Different Locations of Cylinder at Ri = 1. Note: Rahman et al. [2008] (left); present (right).



Figure 3-8: Isotherms for Different Locations of Cylinder at Ri = 1. Note: Rahman et al. [2008] (left); present (right).



Figure 3-9: Streamlines for Different Locations of Cylinder at Ri = 5. Note: Rahman et al. [2008] (left); present (right).



Figure 3-10: Isotherms for Different Locations of Cylinder at Ri = 5. Note: Rahman et al. [2008] (left); present (right).



Figure 3-11: Distributions of (a) streamlines and (b) isotherms at Ri = 5, Lx=0.25 and Ly=0.5. Note: ΔT =50 K (top), 100 K (middle), and 200 K (bottom).



Figure 3-12: Distributions of (a) streamlines and (b) isotherms at Ri = 5, Lx=0.75 and Ly=0.5. Note: ΔT =50 K (top), 100 K (middle), and 200 K (bottom).



Figure 3-13: Schematic of the two-dimensional micro-scale channel flow



Figure 3-14: Normalization Distributions of Pressure, Density, Temperature, Velocity in x- and y-direction in the channel at Ma=2.4261 and Kn=0.05.



Figure 3-15: Normalization Distribution of horizontal velocity. Note: Shterev and



Figure 3-16: Normalization Distribution of temperature. Note: Shterev and Stefanov

[2010] (upper); present (lower).



Figure 3-17: Profiles of the horizontal velocity along the center line of the channel



Figure 3-18: Profiles of the horizontal velocity along the center line of the channel $(y=H_{ch}/2)$ for different spatial steps behind of the square.



Figure 3-19: Temperature profiles along the center line of the channel ($y=H_{ch}/2$) for



Figure 3-20: Temperature profiles along the center line of the channel ($y=H_{ch}/2$) for different spatial steps behind of the square.



Figure 3-21: Parallel Performance and runtime per time step of a 2D micro-scale supersonic flow with 2000x400 computational cells.



Figure 4-1: Simulated cycle average of electron number density (a) with and (b) without heating flow field.



Figure 4-2: Simulated cycle averaged distributions of electron temperature (a) with and (b) without heating flow field.



Figure 4-3: Simulated cycle averaged distributions of N4+ (a) with and (b) without considering neutral flow field.



Figure 4-4: Simulated cycle averaged distributions of electron He_{meta} (a) with and (b) without heating flow field.



Figure 4-5: Sketch of a H2/SiF4 PECVD chamber.



Figure 4-6: Schematic of the computational grid in the H_2/SiF_4 PECVD chamber.



Figure 4-7: Distribution of (a) pressure, (b) density (c) and gas temperature in a PECVD chamber.



Figure 4-8: Distribution of (a) total enthalpy, (b) density of H2 and (c) SiH4 in a PECVD chamber.



Figure 4-9: Distribution of (a) velocity in x-direction, (b) Velocity in y-direction, (c) Mean velocity and (d) streamline in a PECVD chamber.



Figure 4-10: Sketch of helium micro-cell plasma.



Figure 4-11: Distribution of plasma u-momentum source in the He micro-cell plasma.



Figure 4-12: Distribution of plasma v-momentum source in the He micro-cell plasma



Figure 4-13: Distribution of plasma energy source in the He micro-cell plasma.



Figure 4-14: Temperature distribution of a He micro-cell plasma without considering plasma momentum source.



Figure 4-15: Mean speed distribution of a He micro-cell plasma without considering plasma momentum source.



Figure 4-16: Mean speed distribution of a He micro-cell plasma with considering plasma momentum source.



Figure 4-18: Temperature distribution of a He micro-cell plasma with considering plasma momentum source.



Figure 4-19: Schematic sketch of a planar dielectric barrier discharge

atmospheric-pressure plasma jet.



Figure 4-20. Sketch of two-dimensional dielectric barrier discharge

atmospheric-pressure plasma jet.



Figure 4-21. Schematic of the computational grid in the two-dimensional dielectric barrier discharge atmospheric-pressure plasma jet.



Figure 4-22. Time history of velocity and temperature profiles at the export of helium DBD APPJ for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm.



Figure 4-23: Steady-steady distribution of (a) pressure and (b) density of helium DBD APPJ for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm.


Figure 4-24: Spatial distribution of temperature with (a) a adiabatic substrate surface; (b) an isothermal substrate surface of a helium DBD APPJ for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm.



Figure 4-25: Spatial distribution of velocity (a) in x-direction and (b) in y-direction of helium DBD APPJ for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm



Figure 4-26: Steady-steady distributions of (a) mean speed, (b) streamlines and velocity vector of helium DBD APPJ for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm.



Figure 4-27: streamlines and velocity vector patterns of helium DBD APPJ for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm.



Figure 4-28: Time history of streamlines and velocity vector patterns of helium DBD APPJ for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow

rate of 20 slm.



Figure 4-29. Horizontal velocity profiles in the helium DBD APPJ channel at different x positions for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm.



Figure 4-30. Temperature profiles in the helium DBD APPJ channel at different x positions for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm.



Figure 4-31. Horizontal velocity and temperature profiles along the center line of the helium DBD APPJ channel for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of

20 slm.



Figure 4-32. Vertical velocity profiles between helium DBD APPJ and substrate at different y positions for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of

20 slm.



Figure 4-33. Temperature profiles between helium DBD APPJ and substrate at different y positions for d = 1 mm, H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm.



Figure 4-34. Local Nusselt number along a isothermal substrate surface for d = 1 mm,

H/d = 10, Re = 60 and gas flow rate of 20 slm.



Figure 5-1. Comparison of the distributions of (a, e) pressure, (b, f) over-all density, (c, g) temperature for an adiabatic wall, and (d, h) temperature for an adiabatic wall for electrode lengths of 5 mm and 25 mm, respectively.



Figure 5-2. Comparison of the distributions of velocity components for electrode lengths of (a-d) 5 mm and of (e-h) 25 mm, respectively.



Figure 5-3. Comparison of the distributions of species mole fraction for electrode lengths of (a-d) 5 mm and of (e-h) 25 mm, respectively.



Figure 5-4. Comparison of the temperature distributions for an adiabatic substrate for H/d = (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c) 10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively.



Figure 5-5. Comparison of the temperature distributions of an isothermal substrate for H/d = (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c) 10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively.



Figure 5-6. Comparison of the mean speed distributions for H/d = (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c) 10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively.



Figure 5-7. Comparison of the streamline profiles for H/d = (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c) 10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively.



Figure 5-8. Comparison of the distributions of X_{He} for various H/d = (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c) 10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively.



Figure 5-9. Comparison of the distributions of X_{N2} for various H/d = (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c) 10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively.



Figure 5-10. Comparison of the distributions of XO2 for various H/d = (a) 5, (b) 7.5, (c) 10, (d) 12.5, (e) and 15, respectively.



Figure 5-11. Local Nusselt number along a isothermal substrate surface for various

H/d .



Figure 5-12. Comparison of the temperature distributions for an adiabatic substrate for various gas flow rates of (a) $10 \ slm$, (b) $15 \ slm$, (c) $20 \ slm$, (d) $25 \ slm$, (e) and $30 \ slm$, respectively.



Figure 5-13. Comparison of the temperature distributions for an isothermal wall for various gas flow rates of (a) $10 \ slm$, (b) $15 \ slm$, (c) $20 \ slm$, (d) $25 \ slm$, (e) and $30 \ slm$, respectively.



Figure 5-14. Comparison of the mean speed distributions for gas flow rates of (a) 10 *slm*, (b) 15 *slm*, (c) 20 *slm*, (d) 25 *slm*, (e) and 30 *slm*, respectively.



Figure 5-15. Comparison of the streamline profiles for various gas flow rates of (a) $10 \ slm$, (b) $15 \ slm$, (c) $20 \ slm$, (d) $25 \ slm$, (e) and $30 \ slm$, respectively.



Figure 5-16. Comparison of the distributions of X_{He} for various gas flow rates of (a) 10 *slm*, (b) 15 *slm*, (c) 20 *slm*, (d) 25 *slm*, (e) and 30 *slm*, respectively.



Figure 5-17. Comparison of the distributions of X_{N2} for various gas flow rates of (a) $10 \ slm$, (b) $15 \ slm$, (c) $20 \ slm$, (d) $25 \ slm$, (e) and $30 \ slm$, respectively.



Figure 5-18. Comparison of the distributions of X_{O2} for various gas flow rates of (a) $10 \ slm$, (b) $15 \ slm$, (c) $20 \ slm$, (d) $25 \ slm$, (e) and $30 \ slm$, respectively.



Figure 5-19. Horizontal velocity profiles at export of helium DBD APPJ as a function of times for various gas flow rates.



Figure 5-20. Temperature profiles at export of helium DBD APPJ as a function of times for various gas flow rates.



Figure 5-21. Horizontal velocity profiles along the center line of the helium DBD APPJ for various gas flow rates.



Figure 5-22. Temperature profiles along the center line of the helium DBD APPJ for various gas flow rates.



Figure 5-23. Local Nusselt number profiles along the substrate surface for various gas

flow rates.

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