1. INTRODUCTION

Cooling systems are one of the most important concerns in the industries and everywhere that heat transfer is considered. In most cases, cooling optimization of existing heat transfer systems is done by increasing their heat transfer surfaces, which increas-
Hemmat Esfe et al.

The size of these devices, which is undesirable. Conversely, conventional fluids, such as water, ethylene glycol, and mineral oils, have a rather low thermal conductivity. Heat transfer in such devices can be enhanced by utilizing the nanofluid media. Nanofluids are engineered colloids made of a pure fluid and nanoparticles. Hence the heat transfer rate can be enhanced due to the higher thermal conductivity of these particles than the pure fluid (Choi et al., 2004). A comprehensive review of the nanofluid

### NOMENCLATURE

- $c_p$: specific heat, J·kg⁻¹·K⁻¹
- $X, Y$: dimensionless Cartesian coordinates
- $Gr$: Grashof number
- $g$: gravitational acceleration, m·s⁻²
- $h$: heat transfer coefficient, W·m⁻²·K⁻¹
- $L$: enclosure length, m
- $k$: thermal conductivity, W·m⁻¹·K⁻¹
- $Nu$: Nusselt number
- $p$: pressure, N·m⁻²
- $Pr$: Prandtl number
- $Re$: Reynolds number
- $U_0$: lid velocity, m·s⁻¹
- $Ri$: Richardson number

### Greek Symbols

- $\alpha$: thermal diffusivity, m²·s⁻¹
- $\beta$: thermal expansion coefficient, K⁻¹
- $\theta$: dimensionless temperature
- $\mu$: dynamic viscosity, kg·m⁻¹·s⁻¹
- $\nu$: kinematic viscosity, m²·s⁻¹
- $\rho$: density, kg·m⁻³
- $\phi$: volume fraction of the nanoparticles
- $\gamma$: cavity inclination angle

### Subscripts

- $c$: cold
- $f$: fluid
- $h$: hot
- $nf$: nanofluid
- $s$: solid particles
- $w$: wall

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Heat Transfer Research
heat behavior can be found in Godson et al. (2010), Sarkar (2011), and Mohammed et al. (2011).

Many investigators have studied various features of nanofluids (Godson et al., 2010). Some of them have been conducted about nanofluid in the enclosure. Wen and Ding (2005) studied a numerical model to survey heat transfer in a cavity filled with water–TiO$_2$ nanofluid heated from below. They used different models to evaluate the viscosity and effective thermal conductivity. Hwang et al. (2007) discussed the improvement of heat transfer in a nano-filled rectangular enclosure heated from bottom. Numerical simulation of natural convection in a cavity filled with water–copper nanofluid has been executed by Khanafer et al. (2003). Their results illustrated that the heat transfer rate increases as increasing the volume fraction of nanoparticles in a particular Grashof number.

Mixed convection, which combines both natural and forced convection, is a significant heat transfer mechanism that occurs in many applications. The most application of the mixed convection flow with lid-driven effect is to include the cooling of the electronic devices, lubrication technologies, drying technologies, food processing, chemical processing equipment, and so on. Owing to interaction of buoyancy and shear forces, mixed convection heat transfer is a complex phenomenon. Owing to the importance of this phenomenon, some studies have been applied on the mixed convection heat transfer in cavities filled with nanofluids.

For the first time, Tiwari and Das (2007) performed a numerical study on mixed convection heat transfer in a square cavity filled with the Cu–water nanofluid with differentially heated moving sidewalls and insulated top and bottom walls. Their investigation on the effects of the various parameters, such as volume fraction of the nanoparticles and Richardson number on the cavity heat transfer, proved that with increase in the volume fraction of the nanoparticles, for Richardson number equal to unity, the average Nusselt number increases.

In another study, a numerical simulation on mixed convection flow and heat transfer of Cu–water nanofluid in a lid-driven rectangular enclosure has been performed by Muthtamilselvan et al. (2010). The enclosure’s sidewalls were insulated, while its horizontal walls were kept at constant temperatures, with the top wall moving at a constant velocity.

Guo and Sharif (2004) used the finite volume method and the SIMPLER algorithm to investigate the mixed convection in rectangular cavities at different aspect ratios with moving isothermal sidewalls and constant heat flux source on the bottom wall. They studied the impact of the heat source length, the Richardson number, and the aspect ratio of the cavity on the heat transfer. Their results showed that the average Nusselt number increased by moving the heat source toward the sidewalls.

The problem of the available classical models is their inability to evaluate the effective viscosity and thermal conductivity of the nanofluids (Morshed et al., 2008). Ho et al. (2008) distinguished four recent models for the effective dynamic viscosity
and thermal conductivity of an alumina–water nanofluid on the natural convection in a square cavity. They concluded that the model used for the viscosity and the thermal conductivity of the nanofluid is an important factor to predict that the heat transfer inside the enclosure could be either increased or decreased with respect to that of the base fluid.

The investigation of mixed convection flow and heat transfer in a cavity subjected to a Cu–water nanofluid has been executed by Talebi et al. (2010) using the finite volume method. The top and bottom walls of the cavity were adiabatic, and its vertical walls were differentially heated. They reported that for a specific Reynolds number, with an increase in the volume fraction of nanoparticles, heat transfer inside the cavity is enhanced.

Abu-Nada and Chamkha (2010) investigated the effects of variable properties on natural convection in cavities subjected to Al₂O₃–water and CuO–water nanofluids. Their results indicated that the average Nusselt number is more affected by viscosity models than by thermal conductivity models at high Rayleigh numbers.

In another study, a numerical investigation of mixed convective heat transfer inside a right triangular lid-driven cavity filled with a water–Al₂O₃ nanofluid with an insulated horizontal wall, hot inclined wall, and moving cold vertical wall was done by Ghasemi and Aminossadati (2010). In their work, the impacts of two different downward and upward movements of the cold vertical wall, Richardson number, and nanoparticles volume fraction have been considered. They concluded that for all values of Richardson number, the heat transfer rate for each direction of the sliding wall motion is enhanced by increasing the solid volume fraction.

Mahmoodi (in press) conducted a numerical simulation on mixed convection of Al₂O₃ water nanofluid in rectangular cavities with a hot moving bottom lid and cold right, left, and top walls. Also, the effect of nanofluid variable properties on mixed convection in a square cavity has been investigated by Mazrouei Sebdani et al. (2012).

Recently, a numerical study has been performed by Arefmanesh and Mahmoodi (2011) to investigate uncertainty effects of dynamic viscosity models for a Al₂O₃–water nanofluid on mixed convection. Their square enclosure consists of two cold walls (left and right), a cold horizontal top wall, and a moving hot bottom wall. They used two different viscosity models and studied the effects of the solid volume fraction and Richardson number on the fluid flow and heat transfer inside the enclosure. They found that for both of the viscosity models, with increasing volume fraction of the nanoparticles, the average Nusselt number of the hot wall also increases. Our studies are focused on the mixed convection in a square double lid-driven inclined cavity filled with a Al₂O₃–water nanofluid based on recent models.

The latest proposed models by Jang et al. (2007) and Abu-Nada et al. (2010) have been used to calculate the dynamic viscosity. Also, the model of Xu et al. (2006) is used to calculate the thermal conductivity of a nanofluid in the current study. These
models depend on parameters such as diameter of nanoparticles, diameter ratio, temperature, and volume fraction of nanoparticles.

The cavity has a nonuniform sinusoidal temperature profile on the left wall, and its right side wall is kept at constant cold temperature.

According to the best knowledge of the authors, no investigation has been done so far about the effects of variable properties on mixed convection in the double lid-driven cavity with a nonuniform temperature profile filled with nanofluid at different cavity inclination angles. The results of this study can be used in many industrial applications such as the lubrication industry, float glass production technology, and food processing.

In this article, the influences of parameters such as Reynolds number, cavity inclination angle, Richardson number, temperature, volume fraction of nanoparticles, and nanoparticle diameter on the hydrodynamics and thermal characteristics are discussed.

2. MATHEMATICAL MODELING

Figure 1 shows a square double lid-driven cavity considered for the present study. The height and the width of the cavity are denoted by $L$. The length of the cavity perpendicular to its plane is assumed to be long enough, hence the problem is considered two-dimensional.

The cavity is heated from sinusoidal temperature distribution, which exists on the left wall, and is cooled from the right wall ($T_c$). The top-moving and bottom-moving
walls move in their own plane at constant velocity $U_0$ and are supposed to be insulated. The cavity is filled with a suspension of $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ nanoparticles with different particle diameters in water such that the nanoparticles and the base fluid are in thermal equilibrium and there is no slip between them.

The thermophysical properties of nanoparticles and the water as the base fluid at $T = 25^\circ\text{C}$ are presented in Table 1.

The governing equations for a steady, two-dimensional laminar and incompressible flow are expressed as

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = 0, \quad (1)$$

$$u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = - \frac{1}{\rho_{nf}} \frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \nu_{nf} \nabla^2 u, \quad (2)$$

$$u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} = - \frac{1}{\rho_{nf}} \frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + \nu_{nf} \nabla^2 v + \frac{(\rho \beta)_{nf}}{\rho_{nf}} g \Delta T, \quad (3)$$

$$u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} = \alpha_{nf} \nabla^2 T. \quad (4)$$

The dimensionless parameters may be presented as

$$X = \frac{x}{L}, \quad Y = \frac{y}{L}, \quad V = \frac{v}{u_0}, \quad U = \frac{u}{u_0},$$

$$\Delta T = T_h - T_c, \quad \theta = \frac{T - T_c}{\Delta T}, \quad P = \frac{p}{\rho_{nf}u_0^2}. \quad (5)$$

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Physical properties</th>
<th>Fluid phase (water)</th>
<th>Solid (Al$_2$O$_3$)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$c_p \ J/kg\cdot k$</td>
<td>4179</td>
<td>765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\rho, kg/m^3$</td>
<td>997.1</td>
<td>3970</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$K, W\cdot m^{-1}\cdot K^{-1}$</td>
<td>0.6</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\beta \times 10^{-5}, 1/K$</td>
<td>21.</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mu \times 10^{-4}, kg/ms$</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>–</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$d_p, nm$</td>
<td>–</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hence
\[
\text{Re} = \frac{\rho_f u_0 L}{\mu_f}, \quad \text{Ri} = \frac{Ra}{Pr \cdot Re^2}, \quad \text{Ra} = \frac{g \beta_f \Delta T L^3}{\nu_f \alpha_f}, \quad \text{Pr} = \frac{\nu_f}{\alpha_f}.
\] (6)

The dimensionless forms of the preceding governing equations (1)–(4) become
\[
\frac{\partial U}{\partial X} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial Y} = 0,
\] (7)
\[
U \frac{\partial U}{\partial X} + V \frac{\partial U}{\partial Y} = -\frac{\partial P}{\partial X} + \frac{\nu_f}{\nu_f} \frac{1}{Re} \cdot \nabla^2 U + \frac{\nu_f}{\nu_f} \frac{1}{Re} \cdot \nabla^2 V + \frac{\nu_f}{\nu_f} \frac{1}{Re} \cdot \frac{\beta f}{\beta f} \Delta \theta,
\] (8)
\[
U \frac{\partial V}{\partial X} + V \frac{\partial V}{\partial Y} = -\frac{\partial P}{\partial Y} + \frac{\nu_f}{\nu_f} \frac{1}{Re} \cdot \nabla^2 V + \frac{\nu_f}{\nu_f} \frac{1}{Re} \cdot \frac{\beta f}{\beta f} \Delta \theta,
\] (9)
\[
U \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial X} + V \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial Y} = \frac{\alpha_f}{\alpha_f} \nabla^2 \theta.
\] (10)

2.1 Thermal Diffusivity and Effective Density

Thermal diffusivity and effective density of the nanofluid are, respectively,
\[
\alpha_{nf} = \frac{k_{nf}}{(\rho c_p)_{nf}},
\] (11)
\[
\rho_{nf} = \varphi \rho_s + (1 - \varphi) \rho_f.
\] (12)

2.2 Heat Capacity and Thermal Expansion Coefficient

Heat capacity and thermal expansion coefficient of the nanofluid are therefore, respectively,
\[
(\rho c_p)_{nf} = \varphi (\rho c_p)_{s} + (1 - \varphi) (\rho c_p)_{f},
\] (13)
\[
(\rho \beta)_{nf} = \varphi (\rho \beta)_{s} + (1 - \varphi) (\rho \beta)_{f}.
\]

2.3 Viscosity

The effective viscosity of the nanofluid was calculated by
\[
\mu_{eff} = \mu_f (1 + 2.5 \varphi) \left[1 + \eta \left(\frac{d_p}{L}\right)^{2.8} \frac{2^6}{\varphi} \left(\varepsilon + 1\right)\right].
\] (14)
This well-validated model is presented by Jang et al. (2007) for a fluid containing a dilute suspension of small rigid spherical particles, and it accounts for the slip mechanism in nanofluids. The empirical constant ε and η are −0.25 and 280 for Al2O3, respectively.

It is worth mentioning that the viscosity of the base fluid (water) is considered to vary with temperature, and the flowing equation is used to evaluate the viscosity of water:

\[ \mu_{\text{H}_2\text{O}} = (1.2723 \times Trc^{-5} - 8.736 \times Trc^{-4} + 33.708 \times Trc^{-3} - 246.6 \times Trc^{-2} + 518.78 \times Trc + 1153.9) \times 10^6, \]

where \( Trc = \log (T - 273) \).

### 2.4 Dimensionless Stagnant Thermal Conductivity

The effective thermal conductivity of the nanoparticles in the liquid as stationary is calculated by the Hamilton and Crosser (1962) (H–C model):

\[
\frac{k_{\text{stationary}}}{k_f} = \frac{k_s + 2k_f - 2\phi(k_f - k_s)}{k_s + 2k_f + \phi(k_f - k_s)}
\]

### 2.5 Total Dimensionless Thermal Conductivity of Nanofluids

The following model was proposed by Xu et al. (2006):

\[
\frac{k_{nf}}{k_f} = \frac{k_{\text{stationary}}}{k_f} + \frac{k_s}{k_f} \left( \frac{d_{\text{max}}}{d_{\text{min}}} \right)^{1-D_f} - 1 \right]^{2} \left( \frac{d_{\text{max}}}{d_{\text{min}}} \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{d_p}.
\]

It has been chosen in this study to describe the thermal conductivity of nanofluids. The first term is the H–C model, and the second term is the thermal conductivity based on heat convection due to Brownian motion; \( c \) is an empirical constant, which is relevant to the thermal boundary layer and dependent on different fluids (e.g., \( c = 85 \) for the deionized water and \( c = 280 \) for ethylene glycol) but independent of the type of nanoparticles. \( \text{Nu}_p \) is the Nusselt number for liquid flowing around a spherical particle and is equal to 2 for a single particle in this work. The fluid molecular diameter \( d_f = 4.5 \times 10^{-10} \) (m) for water in the present study. The Pr is the Prandtl number; \( \phi \) and \( d_p \) are the nanoparticle volume fraction and mean nanoparticle diameter, respectively. The fractal dimension \( D_f \) is determined by
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\[ D_f = 2 - \frac{\ln \varphi}{\ln \left( \frac{d_{p,\text{min}}}{d_{p,\text{max}}} \right)}, \]  

(18)

where \( d_{p,\text{max}} \) and \( d_{p,\text{min}} \) are the maximum and minimum diameters of nanoparticles, respectively. With the given/measured ratio of \( d_{p,\text{min}}/d_{p,\text{max}} \), the minimum and maximum diameters of nanoparticles can be obtained with mean nanoparticle diameter \( d_p \) from the statistical property of fractal media. The ratio of minimum to maximum nanoparticles \( d_{p,\text{min}}/d_{p,\text{max}} \) is:

\[ d_{p,\text{max}} = d_p \cdot \frac{D_f - 1}{D_f} \left( \frac{d_{p,\text{min}}}{d_{p,\text{max}}} \right)^{-1}, \]  

(19)

\[ d_{p,\text{min}} = d_p \cdot \frac{D_f - 1}{D_f}. \]

2.6 Nusselt Number

Nusselt number is

\[ \text{Nu} = \frac{hL}{k_f}, \]  

(20)

where the heat transfer coefficient \( h \) is defined as

\[ h = \frac{q_w}{T_h - T_c}, \]  

(21)

and the thermal conductivity may be expressed as

\[ k_{nf} = -\frac{q_w}{\frac{\partial T}{\partial X}}. \]  

(22)

By substituting Eqs. (18) and (19) into Eq. (17), the Nusselt number for the left hot wall can be written as

\[ \text{Nu} = -\left( \frac{k_{nf}}{k_f} \right) \left( \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial X} \right). \]  

(23)

The average Nusselt number calculated over the hot surface by Eq. (18) becomes

\[ \text{Nu}_m = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L \text{Nu} \, dY. \]  

(24)
2.7 Boundary Conditions

The boundary conditions as set out earlier may be mathematically presented as

Left wall:
\[
\begin{cases}
U = V = 0 \\
\theta = \sin (\pi Y)
\end{cases},
\]

Right wall:
\[
\begin{cases}
U = V = 0 \\
\theta = 0
\end{cases},
\]

Bottom wall:
\[
\begin{cases}
U = -1, V = 0 \\
\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial Y} = 0
\end{cases},
\]

Top wall:
\[
\begin{cases}
U = 1, V = 0 \\
\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial Y} = 0
\end{cases}.
\]

3. NUMERICAL METHOD

Governing equations for continuity, momentum, and energy equations associated with the boundary conditions in this investigation were calculated numerically based on the finite volume method and associated staggered grid system, using FORTRAN computer code. The SIMPLE algorithm is used to solve the coupled system of governing equations. The convection term is approximated by a hybrid scheme that is conducive to a stable solution. In addition, a second-order central differencing scheme is utilized for the diffusion terms. The algebraic system resulting from numerical discretization was calculated utilizing TDMA applied in a line going through all volumes in the computational domain. The solution procedure is repeated until the following convergence criterion is satisfied:

\[
\text{error} = \frac{\sum_{j=1}^{M} \sum_{i=1}^{N} |\lambda^{n+1} - \lambda^{n}|}{\sum_{j=1}^{M} \sum_{i=1}^{N} |\lambda^{n+1}|} < 10^{-7}.
\]

Here \(M\) and \(N\) correspond to the number of grid points in the \(x\) and \(y\) directions, respectively, \(n\) is the number of the iteration, and \(\lambda\) denotes any scalar transport quantity. To verify grid independence, a numerical procedure was carried out for nine different mesh sizes, namely, \(21 \times 21, 31 \times 31, 41 \times 41, 51 \times 51, 61 \times 61, 71 \times 71, 81 \times 81, 91 \times 91, \) and \(101 \times 101\). Average \(\text{Nu}\) of the right hot wall is obtained for each grid size, as shown in Fig. 2.
As can be observed, an 81 × 81 uniform grid size yields the required accuracy and was hence applied for all simulation exercises in this work, as presented in the following section.

The proposed numerical scheme is validated by comparing the present code results for $Gr = 10^5$, $d_p = 5$ nm, $\phi = 0.05$, and zero inclination angle for different values of $Pr$ numbers against the numerical simulation published by Lin and Violi (2010) in Fig. 3. It is clear that the present code is in good agreement with another work reported in literature, as shown in Fig. 3.

Also, to ensure the accuracy and validity of this new model, we analyze a square cavity filled with base fluid with $Pr = 0.7$ and different $Ra$ numbers. This system has been previously investigated by other researchers, such as Lin and Violi (2010), Tiwari and Das (2007), and Hadjisophocleous et al. (1998). Table 2 shows the comparison between the results obtained with the new model and the values presented in the literature. The quantitative comparisons for the average Nusselt numbers indicate an excellent agreement between them.

To check Xu’s model, Fig. 4 indicates the characteristics of the effective thermal conductivity, which is a function of the practical parameters $T$, $R = d_{p,\text{min}}/d_{p,\text{max}}$, and $d_p$. As presented in Fig. 4a, $R$ has relatively high impact for small average nanoparticle diameters. The temperature effect of nano fluids is illustrated in Fig. 4b. It is found that the existence of nanoparticles effects extensively on heat conductivity of the nano fluid at high temperatures. Thus, compared with the H–C model with the assumption of uniform nanoparticle size, Xu’s model presents a better flexibility in predicting the heat transfer characteristics.
FIG. 3: Comparison of average Nusselt numbers between Lin and Violi (2010) and the present results for Gr = 10^5, d_p = 5 nm, and φ = 0.05 for different values of Pr numbers.

FIG. 4: Dimensionless effective thermal conductivity of Al_2O_3–water nanofluid versus concentration of nanoparticles with different mean nanoparticle diameters and fractal distributions: (a) T = 300 and (b) R = 0.004.
TABLE 2: Code validation shows the comparison between the results in present study and other research

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a) $Ra = 10^3$</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>$u_{\text{max}}$</td>
<td>3.619</td>
<td>3.597</td>
<td>3.642</td>
<td>3.544</td>
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<tr>
<td>$Y$</td>
<td>0.811</td>
<td>0.819</td>
<td>0.804</td>
<td>0.814</td>
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<tr>
<td>$v_{\text{max}}$</td>
<td>3.697</td>
<td>3.690</td>
<td>3.7026</td>
<td>3.586</td>
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<td>$X$</td>
<td>0.180</td>
<td>0.181</td>
<td>0.178</td>
<td>0.186</td>
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<td>$N_u_{\text{ave}}$</td>
<td>1.114</td>
<td>1.118</td>
<td>1.0871</td>
<td>1.141</td>
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<td>(b) $Ra = 10^4$</td>
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<td>$u_{\text{max}}$</td>
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<td>$Y$</td>
<td>0.817</td>
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<td>$N_u_{\text{ave}}$</td>
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<td>(c) $Ra = 10^5$</td>
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<tr>
<td>$u_{\text{max}}$</td>
<td>36.812</td>
<td>36.732</td>
<td>34.30</td>
<td>37.144</td>
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<tr>
<td>$Y$</td>
<td>0.856</td>
<td>0.858</td>
<td>0.856</td>
<td>0.855</td>
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<tr>
<td>$v_{\text{max}}$</td>
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<td>0.05935</td>
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<td>$N_u_{\text{ave}}$</td>
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<td>$u_{\text{max}}$</td>
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<td>8.795</td>
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</table>

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this article, a numerical analysis has been conducted to investigate the effects of inclination angles, Richardson numbers, nanoparticle volume fractions, temperature, and nanoparticle diameters on a nanofluid filling a two-dimensional inclined double lid-driven cavity with sinusoidal temperature distribution on the left wall.

The contours for different volume fraction of the nanoparticles, when $d_p$ and inclination angle are kept fixed at 15 nm and 30°, respectively, and for different values
of Richardson number, are shown in Figs. 5–7. These figures demonstrate streamlines and isotherms for $T = 300$ K, $R = 0.07$ with different volume fractions of 0, 0.025, and 0.05, and Richardson numbers of 0.1, 1, and 10. For a constant Richardson number, are shown in Figs. 5–7. These figures demonstrate streamlines and isotherms for $T = 300$ K, $R = 0.07$ with different volume fractions of 0, 0.025, and 0.05, and Richardson numbers of 0.1, 1, and 10. For a constant Richardson number.

**FIG. 5:** Streamlines (on the left) and isotherms (on the right) for $d_p = 15$ nm, $T = 300$ K, $R = 0.07$, $\text{Ri} = 0.1$, and inclination angle of $30^\circ$ with different volume fractions of (a) 0.0, (b) 0.025, and (c) 0.05.
FIG. 6: Streamlines (on the left) and isotherms (on the right) for \( d_p = 15 \) nm, \( T = 300 \) K, \( R = 0.07 \), \( \text{Ri} = 1 \), and inclination angle of 30° with different volume fractions of (a) 0.0, (b) 0.025, and (c) 0.05
FIG. 7: Streamlines (on the left) and isotherms (on the right) for $d_p = 15$ nm, $T = 300$ K, $R = 0.07$, $Ri = 10$, and inclination angle of 30° with different volume fractions of (a) 0.0, (b) 0.025, and (c) 0.05
number, when the volume fraction of the nanoparticles increases, the convection heat transfer becomes more strongly limited. The contours describe the interaction between forced and natural convection. As can be found, an increase in solid concentration does not have a considerable effect on the thermal field.

As can be seen from the figures for all Richardson numbers and volume fractions of the nanoparticles, the nanofluid descends downward along the right wall, moves horizontally to the left corner of the cavity along the bottom wall, then moves upward and forms a counterrotating eddy inside the cavity. When Ri increases, the clockwise rotating vortex becomes larger due to greater absorption of energy from the wall with temperature distribution. Neither increase in Richardson number nor increase in nanoparticle volume fraction affects the flow pattern inside the cavity tremendously.

Effects of an increase in the nanoparticle concentration on flow and temperature fields are more distinguishable in Fig. 7. As can be found, the effect of nanofluid on the streamlines is more apparent for higher Ri. It is clearly seen that as the Richardson number increases to 10, the general manner of isotherms and streamlines is changed, so that in volume fraction of 0.025, the dominated central vortex is separated into two parts. Although an increase in Richardson number affects the contours in $\phi = 0.025$, for other values of $\phi$, no serious change is observed.

Figure 8 illustrates streamlines and isotherms for Ri = 10, $T = 300$ K, $R = 0.07$, and inclination angle of $60^\circ$. In this figure, the effect of diameter of nanoparticles on the mixed convection inside the cavity is investigated. The Richardson number is kept constant, and the diameter is varied from 15 to 99 nm. It is evident that an increase in nanoparticle diameter influences the flow pattern and isotherm contours inside the cavity relatively.

In this figure, conduction heat transfer is not strong, and the heat transfer occurs mainly through convection. As the diameter increases, the forced convection becomes stronger. As can be seen from the figure, with an increase in the diameter, the concentration of the isotherms in the sidewalls, especially the wall in temperature distribution, augments. It is an increase in thermal conductivity of the nanofluid that results in enhancement of diffusion of heat. Moreover, it can be seen that when the $d_p$ increases, the core of the eddy becomes gradually smaller. With enhancement of the diameter, an augmentation in the value of dimensionless stream function is observed.

Figure 9 shows the effect of the nanoparticle diameter and inclination angle, respectively, on the heat transfer characteristics. This figure represents the variation of average Nu numbers with the inclination angles ($0^\circ$, $30^\circ$, $60^\circ$, $90^\circ$) for Ri = 10, $T = 300$ K, $R = 0.07$, $\phi = 0.05$, and different $d_p$ of 15 nm, 40 nm, 70 nm, and 99 nm. It is obvious that average Nu decreases as angle of inclination increases. Inclination angle of the enclosure is proposed as a control parameter for fluid flow and heat transfer. It was found that lower heat transfer is formed for $\gamma = 90^\circ$. Also, we see a significant decrease in average Nu number with increasing $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3$ nanoparticle diameter.
FIG. 8: Streamlines (on the left) and isotherms (on the right) for Ri = 10, T = 300 K, R = 0.07, and inclination angle of 60° with different values of \( d_p \) (a) 15 nm, (b) 40 nm, (c) 70 nm, and (d) 99 nm
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The influence of the nanoparticle volume fraction and inclination angle, respectively, on the average Nu number is reported by Fig. 10. This figure demonstrates the variation of average Nu numbers with the inclination angles (0°, 30°, 60°, 90°) for Ri = 10, $T = 300$ K, $R = 0.07$, $\phi = 0.05$, and different $d_p$ of 0.0, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04, and 0.05. It can be easily found from Fig. 10 that average Nu decreases as cavity inclination angle increases. The results have clearly indicated that the addition of Al$_2$O$_3$ nanoparticles has produced a remarkable enhancement on heat transfer with respect to that of the pure fluid.

We analyze the effect of Richardson number (from 0.1 to 10) and diameter of particles (from 15 to 99) on the heat transfer characteristics in Fig. 11. This figure illustrates the variation of average Nu numbers with the nanoparticle volume fractions for inclination angle of 0°, $T = 300$ K, $R = 0.07$, and different $d_p$. As $d_p$ is increased from 15 to 99 nm, the average Nusselt number of nanofluids becomes considerably lower at each Richardson numbers of 0.1, 1, and 10. Also, the results indicate that as Ri increases, the average Nusselt number rapidly increases for different values of $d_p$.

To investigate the impact of the mean nanoparticle diameter on the velocity profiles, nanoparticle diameters are changed between 15 nm and 99 nm, while Ri, $\gamma$, and $\phi$ are fixed at 10, 60°, and 0.05, respectively. Figure 12 shows velocity profiles at the enclosure centerline for different values of $d_p$. As the mean nanoparticle diameter increases, the corresponding flow velocity decreases, and hence the heat transfer enhancement is reduced.

**FIG. 9:** Variation of average Nu numbers with the inclination angles for Ri = 10, $T = 300$ K, $R = 0.07$, $\phi = 0.05$, and different $d_p$ of (a) 15 nm, (b) 40 nm, (c) 70 nm, and (d) 99 nm
FIG. 10: Variation of average Nu numbers with the inclination angles for $\text{Ri} = 10$, $T = 300$ K, $R = 0.07$, $d_p = 15$, and different $\varphi$ of 0.0, 0.01, 0.02, 0.03, 0.04, and 0.05.

FIG. 11: Variation of average Nu numbers with the nanoparticle volume fractions for inclination angle of 0°, different $d_p$ of 15 nm and 99 nm, and different $\text{Ri}$ of 0.1, 1, and 10.
FIG: 12: Velocity profiles at enclosure centerline for different values of $d_p$ with $Ri = 10$, inclination angle of 60°, and $\phi = 0.05$
5. CONCLUSION

In this article, the influence of Al$_2$O$_3$–water nanofluid variable properties on mixed convection heat transfer in a two-dimensional inclined double lid-driven square cavity with sinusoidal temperature distribution on the left side wall was studied numerically. The developed numerical code was validated by comparing the obtained results with those available in the literature. We get the following conclusions from the obtained results:

1. When the nanoparticle volume fraction increases, while the Richardson number is kept constant, the convection heat transfer becomes more strongly limited. However, it is found that the increase in solid concentration does not have a considerable effect on the streamline contours at low Richardson numbers.

2. For all Richardson numbers and volume fractions of the nanoparticles, it is observed that the nanofluid descends downward along the right wall, moves horizontally to the left corner of the cavity along the bottom wall, then moves upward and forms a counterrotating eddy inside the cavity. When Ri increases, the clockwise rotating vortex becomes larger owing to greater absorption of energy from the wall with temperature distribution.

3. With increasing Richardson number, while the solid volume fraction is kept constant, the flow pattern inside the cavity tremendously is not affected. As can be found, the effects of an increase in the nanoparticle concentration on flow and temperature fields are more apparent at higher Richardson numbers. It is clearly seen that as the Richardson number increases to 10, the general manner of isotherms and streamlines is changed, so that in volume fraction of 0.025, the dominated central vortex is separated into two parts.

4. When the Richardson number is kept constant and the diameter is varied from 15 to 99 nm, it is evident that an increase in nanoparticle diameter influences the flow pattern and isotherm contours inside the cavity relatively. As the diameter increases, the forced convection becomes stronger, and concentration of the isotherms in the sidewalls augments.

5. It is obvious that average Nu decreases as angle of inclination increases.

6. The results have clearly indicated that the addition of Al$_2$O$_3$ nanoparticles has produced a remarkable enhancement on heat transfer with respect to that of the pure fluid.

7. As the mean nanoparticle diameter increases, the corresponding flow velocity decreases, and hence the heat transfer enhancement is reduced.

REFERENCES


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