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**Natural convective flow and heat transfer of Nano-Encapsulated Phase Change
Materials (NEPCMs) in a cavity**

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Abstract

Free convective flow and heat transfer of a suspension of Nano Encapsulated Phase Change Materials (NEPCMs) in an enclosure is studied. NEPCM particles are core-shell structured with Phase Change Material (PCM) as the core. The enclosure is a square cavity with top and bottom insulated walls, and differentially-heated isothermal vertical walls. The NEPCM particles circulate under natural convection inside the cavity. The PCM cores undergo phase change from solid to liquid and absorb some of the surrounding's heat in the form of latent heat in the hot region, and release the absorbed heat in the cold region by solidification. The governing equations representing the conservation of mass, flow and heat of NEPCM suspension are introduced in the form of partial differential equations. The governing equations are transformed

into non-dimensional form and solved by the finite element method. A grid check and validation test are performed to ensure the accuracy of the results. The outcomes show that the fusion temperature of NEPCM particles is the key factor affecting the heat transfer enhancement of NEPCMs in the natural convection flow. The enhancement of heat transfer is highly dependent on the non-dimensional fusion temperature, θ_f , and very good performance can be achieved in the range of $\frac{1}{4} < \theta_f < \frac{3}{4}$. In a regular case, using the non-dimensional fusion temperature of $\frac{1}{4}$, a relative enhancement about 10% can be achieved compared to the base fluid.

Keywords: Nano Encapsulated Phase Change Materials (NEPCMs); Free convection heat transfer; Heat transfer enhancement.

Nomenclature

Latin letters	
c_p	specific heat in constant pressure (J/kg.°K)
Cr	the heat capacity ratio
f	the non-dimensional fusion function defied by Eq. (23)
g	gravitational acceleration (m/s ²)
H	cavity size
h	thermal convective coefficient (W/m ² K)
k	Thermal conductivity coefficient (W/m K)
Nc	conductivity parameter
Nu	Nusselt number
Nur	reduced Nusselt number
Nv	viscosity parameter
p	pressure (Pa)
P	non-dimensional pressure

Pr	Prandtl number
Ra	Rayleigh number
S	dimensionless stream function
Ste	Stefan number
T	temperature (°C)
T_{Mr}	phase-change temperature range $T_{Mr} = T_2 - T_1$ (°C)
u	velocity component in x-direction (m/s)
U	non-dimensional velocity component in x-direction
v	velocity component in y-direction (m/s)
V	non-dimensional velocity component in y-direction
x	Cartesian coordinate in horizontal direction (m)
X	non-dimensional Cartesian coordinate in horizontal direction
y	Cartesian coordinate in vertical direction (m)
Y	non-dimensional Cartesian coordinate in vertical direction
ι	core-shell weight ratio

Greek symbols

μ	thermal viscosity (kg s/m)
α	thermal diffusivity (m ² /s)
β	thermal expansion coefficient (1/K)
δ	non-dimensional parameter of fusion range
θ	non-dimensional temperature
λ	ratio of the heat capacity of the NEPCM nanoparticles to the base fluid
ρ	density (kg/m ³)
ϕ	volume fraction of NEPCM nanoparticles
ψ	stream function

Subscript

b	bulk properties of the suspension
c	cold wall

c	core of NEPCM particle
f	base fluid, fusion property
h	hot wall
l	liquid phase of NEPCM cores
p	NEPCM nanoparticles
s	shell of NEPCM particle
y	local property

1. Introduction

Nano-Encapsulated Phase Change Materials (NEPCMs) can be considered as a new type of nanofluids, in which the nanoparticle consists of a core and a shell. The core part is made of a Phase Change Material (PCM) which can undergo solid-liquid phase change at a certain fusion temperature, and absorb/release a significant amount of energy due to latent heat of the phase change ([1], [2]). Literature review shows that there are various types of NEPCM suspensions. For example, Fang et al. [3] synthesized n-tetradecane as a core and formaldehyde as a polymer shell. Qiu et al. [4] prepared a sample of NEPCM with n-octadecane as the core and methylmethacrylate (MMA)-based polymer as the shell. Recently, Jamekhorshid et al. [5] and Su et al. [2] performed excellent reviews on nano/micro capsulation of phase change materials.

From a thermal-application point of view, there are various devices that are sensitive to non-uniform temperature gradients or temperature rises, such as laser optical alignment systems [6], computer chipsets [7], and detectors [8] that demand accurate temperature control within a limited temperature range. Indeed, the temperature difference across a device may result in internal thermal stress in the sensitive structures of the device due to the mismatch of the

coefficient of thermal expansion among different constructive materials. Therefore, NEPCMs are promising in terms of their potential to improve the performance of working fluids, maintaining the device at a certain cooling temperature.

PCMs and nano-enhanced PCMs have been the subject of various engineering applications, particularly for thermal management systems and thermal energy storage applications [9], [10]. For instance, PCMs have been utilized for thermal management of buildings as a part of walls and roofs [11], windows as transparent building elements [9], domestic heat pump and air-conditioning systems [12], and other applications including space instruments, electronic cooling devices, and the food industry [10]. Although PCMs are capable of storing/releasing a tremendous amount of energy on phase change, they are inherently very weak in terms of heat transfer. Thus, many researchers have tried to enhance the heat transfer characteristics of PCM by using fins [13]–[15] or porous media [16]–[18]. There are also number of studies that have utilized nanoparticles to enhance the heat transfer and phase change of PCMs [19]–[23]. Sometimes, nanoparticles used for enhancing the heat transfer of PCMs is abbreviated as Nano-Enhanced Phase Change Materials (NEPCMs) [19]–[23]. In such studies, the solid nanoparticles are added to PCM as additives to enhance the heat transfer characteristics of the medium. In contrast, in nano-encapsulation of phase change materials, the PCMs are encapsulated in a nanometer-size capsule shell, and later these particles are dispersed into a working fluid.

Many studies have modeled and simulated the natural convection of a suspension of nanoparticles in a base fluid (nanofluids) in enclosures. Sheremet and Pop [24], Hashim et al. [25] and Asabery [26] analyzed the flow and heat transfer of nanofluids in a wavy wall cavity.

Sivaraj and Sheremet [27] studied the natural convection of nanofluids in a cavity with a hot plate obstacle. Dogonchi et al. [28] addressed the free convection of nanofluids in a semi-cylinder enclosure. Ghalambaz et al. [29] and Tahmasebi et al. [30] investigated the effect of the presence of a layer of porous media and a layer of solid wall on the flow and natural convection heat transfer of nanofluids. The effect of using hybrid nanofluids [31], [32], the magnetic field effect [33], and conjugate heat transfer effects [34], [35] on natural convection heat transfer in enclosures were also examined in recent studies. In all of these studies, the nanoparticles were uniform solid particles without phase-change cores.

When we consider the phase-change heat transfer of nano-encapsulated PCMs, most of the available studies are limited to forced convection heat transfer in tubes, ducts or microchannels. For instance, Seyf et al. [36] theoretically addressed the heat transfer of a slurry of 100 nm NEPCM particles-water in a channel over a square cylinder. The core of nanoparticles was made of n-octadecane. In another study, Seyf et al. [37] numerically studied the flow and heat transfer of NEPCMs in a microtube heat sink. The NEPCM was made of octadecane as core and polyalphaolefin (PAO) as shell. They reported that the presence of nanoparticles notably improves the cooling power of the working fluid, with the cost of a tremendous pressure drop across the tube. In an experimental study, Ho et al. [38] examined the pressure drop and heat transfer enhancement resulting from using encapsulated phase-change particles in a microchannel. The results indicated that the heat transfer enhancement depended on various parameters. In some special cases, heat transfer can be boosted up to 52%, and in some cases, however, a decrease of heat transfer may be observed. Ho et al. [39], [40] performed an experiment to compare the heat transfer enhancement of using either simple alumina nanoparticles or a slurry of phase-change particles in minichannels [40] and tubes [39]. It was

found that various parameters, such as flow rate and the location of heating, can change the performance of heat transfer, and no general conclusion can be made. Wang et al. [41] studied the heat transfer enhancement of using a dilute suspension of micro-encapsulated phase change materials in microchannels. They reported that using a very low fraction of particles (2%) enhances the heat transfer up to 1.36 compared to the pure base fluid.

The literature review shows that there have been some experimental and theoretical studies on forced convection of NEPCMs. However, to the best of the author's knowledge, there is no existing study on the natural convection of nano-encapsulated phase change materials, an area of high importance to future thermal control systems. The present study is the first study on modeling and simulating the natural convective behavior of NEPCMs in a cavity.

2. Mathematical model

2.1 Physical model

A square cavity of size H is filled with a suspension of nano-encapsulated phase change particles, well dispersed in the base liquid. A schematic view of the physical model and the coordinate system is depicted in Fig. 1. As seen, the left wall of the cavity is hot at the isothermal temperature of T_h , and the right wall is cold at the isothermal temperature of T_c . The top and bottom walls are well insulated. Due to the temperature difference, there is a clockwise natural convection flow in the cavity. The nano-encapsulated PCM are made of a phase-change material as the core and a shell as the encapsulation material. The core undergoes phase change at the

fusion temperature of T_f where $T_h < T_f < T_c$. The core of NEPCM nanoparticles can phase change to liquid within its fusion temperature, and absorb/release its energy in the form of latent heat.

In order to model the heat transfer behavior of NEPCMs in natural convection, some assumptions are required. Here, it is assumed that the mixture of NEPCMs and a base fluid is uniform and stable. The temperature differences in the cavity are small, and thermophysical properties are independent of temperature, except for density, which is modeled by the Boussinesq approximation. It is also assumed that the nanoparticles and the base fluid are in local thermal equilibrium, and that the flow is steady and incompressible.

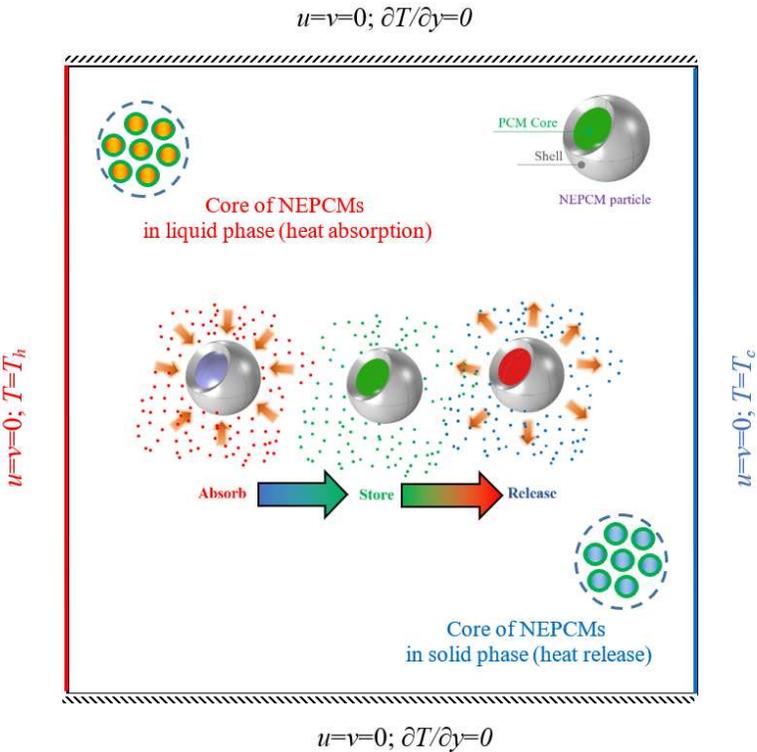


Fig. 1: Schematic view of the physical model and coordinate system

Following [42], [43] and applying some modification, the governing equations for continuity of the mixture, momentum in x and y directions and the heat conservation of the mixture by some modifications can be written as:

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

$$\rho_b \left(u \frac{\partial u}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} \right) = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial x} + \mu_b \left(\frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \right) + g \rho_b \beta_b (T - T_\infty) \quad (2a)$$

$$\rho_b \left(u \frac{\partial v}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial v}{\partial y} \right) = -\frac{\partial p}{\partial y} + \mu_b \left(\frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 v}{\partial y^2} \right) \quad (2b)$$

$$(\rho C_p)_b \left(u \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} + v \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right) = k_p \left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial y^2} \right) \quad (3)$$

where u and v are the velocities in x and y directions. Here, P is the mixture pressure, and T is the mixture temperature. The symbols of β , ρ , C_p , μ , and k here denote the volume thermal expansion, the density, the specific thermal capacity, the dynamic viscosity and the thermal conductivity of the mixture, respectively. The subscript of b denotes the bulk properties of the suspension. Finally, g indicates the gravitational constant. Based on the model description and the schematic model of Fig. 1, the boundary conditions for heat and flow are introduced as:

$$\text{At the hot wall} \quad x=0, \quad u=0, \quad v=0, \quad T=T_h \quad (4a)$$

$$\text{At the cooled wall} \quad x=H, \quad u=0, \quad v=0, \quad T=T_c \quad (4b)$$

$$\text{At the bottom wall} \quad y=0, \quad u=0, \quad v=0, \quad \partial T / \partial y = 0 \quad (4c)$$

At the top wall $y=H$, $u=0$, $v=0$, $\partial T/\partial y = 0$ (4d)

The top left corner of the cavity was selected as the pressure reference point, with zero relative pressure.

2.2 Bulk properties of suspension

Based on the governing equations of Eqs. (1)-(3), the required mixture thermophysical properties are the density, the heat capacity of the mixture, the thermal volume expansion, the thermal conductivity and the dynamic viscosity. The density of the mixture can be evaluated using the density of the NEPCM particles and the base fluid, as [44]:

$$\rho_b = (1 - \phi) \rho_f + \phi \rho_p \quad (5)$$

where ϕ denotes the volume fraction of NEPCM particles, and ρ indicates the density. The subscripts of p and f represent the NEPCM nanoparticles and the base fluid.

As the nano-encapsulated phase-change particles are synthesized as a core and a shell [44], [45], the effective density of these particles can be evaluated as [44], [46]:

$$\rho_p = \frac{(1 + \iota) \rho_c \rho_s}{\rho_s + \iota \rho_c} \quad (6)$$

where the subscript of s and c denote the shell and the core, respectively. ι is the core-shell weight ratio. It is worth noticing that the density of the liquid core PCM and the solid core PCM can be different. Here, the density of the core is approximated as the average density of the liquid and the solid phase of PCM.

Based on the energy equation and considering the thermal equilibrium between the nanoparticles and the base fluid, Khanafer and Vafai [47] proposed the following relation for calculating the specific heat capacity of a mixture:

$$Cp_b = \frac{(1-\phi)\rho_f Cp_f + \phi\rho_p Cp_p}{\rho_b} \quad (7)$$

The overall specific heat capacity of an encapsulated nanoparticle, consisting of a core and a shell with no change phase, can be evaluated as [46]:

$$Cp_p = \frac{(Cp_{c,l} + \iota Cp_s)\rho_c\rho_s}{(\rho_s + \iota\rho_c)\rho_p} \quad (8)$$

Here, it should be noticed that the specific heat capacity of the core in liquid phase can be different to that of the solid phase. Hence, the specific heat capacity of the core PCM is approximated as the average of the liquid and solid heat capacity of the PCM, which is indicated by the subscript of c,l. In the present study, the core PCM undergoes phase change, and hence, the latent heat of change phase should be taken into account as a part of the specific heat of the NEPCM particles. A rectangular, triangle, or sine profile can be used to model the latent heat of phase change as a part of the specific heat of the core PCM when it undergoes a phase change [37], [44], [48], [49]:

$$Cp_c = Cp_{c,l} + \frac{h_{sf}}{T_{Mr}} \quad (9a)$$

$$Cp_c = Cp_{c,l} + \left\{ \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{h_{sf}}{T_{Mr}} - Cp_{c,l} \right) \cdot \sin \left(\pi \frac{T - T_l}{T_{Mr}} \right) \right\} \quad (9b)$$

$$Cp_c = Cp_{c,l} + 2 \left(\frac{h_{fs}}{T_{Mr}^2} - \frac{Cp_{c,l}}{T_{Mr}} \right) (T - T_l) \quad (9c)$$

In fact, instead of a fixed fusion temperature of T_f , which results in a discontinuity in the heat equation, it is assumed that the phase change occurs in a small temperature interval (T_{Mr}) with the fusion temperature of T_f in its middle to avoid the discontinuity in the heat equation. If T_{Mr} tends to zero, the exact fusion temperature of T_f can be recovered. When the core temperature is lower than the melting range, $T < (T_f - T_{Mr}/2)$, the core is in solid phase. For temperatures higher than the melting range, $T > (T_f + T_{Mr}/2)$, the core is in liquid phase. When the core temperature is within the melting range, it is partially molten, and its specific heat capacity including the latent heat can be evaluated using each one of Eqs. (9a)-(9c).

Alisetti and Roy [49] addressed the effect of using different phase change heat capacity profiles on the heat transfer of a slurry of micro phase change particles in a circular pipe. They reported that the difference is less than 4%. We selected the sine profile to represent the heat capacity of the NEPCM core due to its numerical advantages. Indeed, using the sine profile significantly enhances the numerical convergence by smoothing the changes in the specific heat capacity of the NEPCM core. By taking into account the sensible and latent heat of the phase change, the total specific heat capacity of the PCM core can be written as:

$$Cp_c = Cp_{c,l} + \left\{ \frac{\pi}{2} \cdot \left(\frac{h_{sf}}{T_{Mr}} - Cp_{c,l} \right) \cdot \sin \left(\pi \frac{T - T_l}{T_{Mr}} \right) \right\} \begin{cases} 0 & T < T_f - T_{Mr}/2 \\ 1 & T_f - T_{Mr}/2 < T < T_f + T_{Mr}/2 \\ 0 & T > T_f + T_{Mr}/2 \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

Now, by substituting Eq. (10) in Eq. (8), the overall specific heat capacity of the NEPCM particle including the shell and the core can be obtained. The thermal volume expansion of the

mixture of nanoparticles and base fluid can be modeled as a superposition of the thermal expansion of the fluid and the nanoparticles. Following the study of Khanafer and Vafai [47], the thermal volume expansion of the mixture of nanoparticles and a base fluid, β_b , can be evaluated as:

$$\beta_b = (1 - \phi)\beta_f + \phi\beta_p \quad (11)$$

In the case of micro-encapsulated PCMs, the literature review shows that the shear rate induces a significant effect on the apparent thermal conductivity of the slurry of microparticles and base fluid. Hence, for micro PCMs, the thermal conductivity was divided into two parts, static thermal conductivity and dynamic thermal conductivity [44], [51]. The static thermal conductivity part is usually evaluated by the well-known Maxwell model [47], [50]. The dynamic part of the thermal conductivity is a function of shear rate, as discussed in [37], [43], [44], [51]. Indeed, the micro particles are large enough to be affected by the velocity difference along the particle. In contrast, at the nanoscale, the particles are too fine to be affected by regular shear rates in the fluid flow [52]. Thus, the thermal conductivity relations for the mixture of MEPCMs are inadequate for NEPCMs.

Buongiorno [53] and Venerus et al. [54] have performed two important benchmark studies on the thermal conductivity and dynamic viscosity of nanofluids. The experiments on the synthesis and measurement of the thermal conductivity and dynamic viscosity of a suspension of nanoparticles and a base fluid were carried out by different scientists in different laboratories. The results of these benchmark experiments reveal that there is a linear relation between the thermal conductivity of the suspension of nanoparticles and the volume fraction of the nanoparticles. In the case of dynamic viscosity, as well, a linear relation between the dynamic

viscosity and the volume fraction of the nanoparticles was confirmed. Thus, Zaraki et al. [55] and Ghalambaz et al. [21] employed the following linear relations to model the thermal conductivity and dynamic viscosity of a suspension of nanoparticles and a base fluid:

$$\frac{k_b}{k_f} = 1 + N_c\phi \quad (12a)$$

$$\frac{\mu_b}{\mu_f} = 1 + N_v\phi \quad (12b)$$

where N_c denotes the number of thermal conductivity, and N_v denotes the number of dynamic viscosity. As seen, the larger the values of N_c and N_v , the larger the increase in the thermal conductivity and dynamic viscosity of the suspension by the presence of nanoparticles.

Indeed, the number of thermal conductivity (N_c) and the number of dynamic viscosity (N_v) can be changed by altering various parameters, such as the size of the nanoparticles, the shape of the nanoparticles, the type of the nanoparticles, and the type of the base fluid. They can also be a function of the preparation method, the temperature of the suspension, the type and volume fraction of additives, ultrasonication time or other parameters. However, N_c and N_v are constant for a synthesized nanofluid, and they represent the sensitivity of the suspension to a change in the volume fraction of the nanoparticles. The values of N_c and N_v for some nanofluids and hybrid nanofluids have been evaluated and reported in [21], [55].

The relations of Eq. (12) are only applicable for low volume fractions of nanoparticles ($\phi < 5\%$), and they cannot be employed for a slurry of nanoparticles. By assuming a dilute suspension of NEPCMs, Eqs. (12a) and (12b) are employed to evaluate the thermal conductivity and dynamic viscosity of the mixture.

2.3 Non-dimensional form of governing equations

Invoking the following dimensionless parameters, the governing Eqs. (1)-(3) and the corresponding boundary conditions Eq. (4) can be written into a non-dimensional form:

$$X = \frac{x}{H}, \quad Y = \frac{y}{H}, \quad U = \frac{uH}{\alpha_f}, \quad V = \frac{vH}{\alpha_f}, \quad P = \frac{pH^2}{\rho_f \alpha_f^2}, \quad \theta = \frac{T - T_c}{T_h - T_c} \quad (13)$$

Accordingly, the non-dimensional parameters can be introduced in the following form:

$$Ra = \frac{g \rho_f \beta_f (T_h - T_c) H_3}{\alpha_f \mu_f}, \quad Pr = \frac{\mu_f}{\rho_f \alpha_f} \quad (14)$$

where Ra and Pr represent the Rayleigh and Prandtl numbers, respectively. Upon substituting Eqs. (13) into Eqs. (1)–(3), the governing equations can be rewritten in dimensionless form as follows:

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial X} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial Y} = 0, \quad (14)$$

$$\left(\frac{\rho_b}{\rho_f} \right) \left(U \frac{\partial U}{\partial X} + V \frac{\partial U}{\partial Y} \right) = - \frac{\partial P}{\partial X} + Pr \left(\frac{\mu_b}{\mu_f} \right) \left(\frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial X^2} + \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial Y^2} \right) \quad (15a)$$

$$\left(\frac{\rho_b}{\rho_f} \right) \left(U \frac{\partial V}{\partial X} + V \frac{\partial V}{\partial Y} \right) = - \frac{\partial P}{\partial Y} + Pr \left(\frac{\mu_b}{\mu_f} \right) \left(\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial X^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial Y^2} \right) + Ra Pr \left(\frac{\beta_b}{\beta_f} \right) \theta \quad (15b)$$

$$\frac{(\rho Cp)_b}{(\rho Cp)_f} \left(U \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial X} + V \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial Y} \right) = \left(\frac{k_b}{k_f} \right) \left(\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial X^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial Y^2} \right) \quad (16)$$

Here, the term of $(C_{pb}\rho_b)/(C_{pf}\rho_f)$ shows the heat capacity ratio (Cr). The parameter Cr represents the heat capacity of the mixture (sensible and latent heat of phase change) to the sensible heat capacity of the base fluid.

2.4 Non-dimensional form of boundary conditions

The non-dimensional boundary conditions are as follows:

$$\text{At the hot wall} \quad X=0, \quad U=0, \quad V=0, \quad \theta=1 \quad (17a)$$

$$\text{At the cooled wall} \quad X=1, \quad U=0, \quad V=0, \quad \theta=0 \quad (17b)$$

$$\text{At the bottom wall} \quad Y=0, \quad U=0, \quad V=0, \quad \partial\theta/\partial Y=0 \quad (17c)$$

$$\text{At the top wall} \quad y=H, \quad u=0, \quad v=0, \quad \partial\theta/\partial Y=0 \quad (17d)$$

By substituting the thermophysical properties models of Eqs. (5)-(11), the non-dimensional governing equations of (14)-(16) can be simplified and rewritten as:

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial X} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial Y} = 0, \quad (18)$$

$$\left((1-\phi) + \phi \frac{\rho_p}{\rho_f} \right) \left(U \frac{\partial U}{\partial X} + V \frac{\partial U}{\partial Y} \right) = -\frac{\partial P}{\partial X} + \text{Pr} (1 + \text{Nv}\phi) \left(\frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial X^2} + \frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial Y^2} \right) \quad (19a)$$

$$\left((1-\phi) + \phi \frac{\rho_p}{\rho_f} \right) \left(U \frac{\partial V}{\partial X} + V \frac{\partial V}{\partial Y} \right) = -\frac{\partial P}{\partial Y} + \text{Pr} (1 + \text{Nv}\phi) \left(\frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial X^2} + \frac{\partial^2 V}{\partial Y^2} \right) + \text{Ra Pr} \left((1-\phi) + \phi \frac{\beta_p}{\beta_f} \right) \theta \quad (19b)$$

$$\text{Cr} \times \left(\text{U} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \text{X}} + \text{V} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \text{Y}} \right) = (1 + \text{Nc}\phi) \left(\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial \text{X}^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial \text{Y}^2} \right) \quad (20)$$

where θ_f is the non-dimensional fusion temperature, λ is the sensible heat capacity ratio, and δ is the non-dimensional melting interval. These non-dimensional parameters are defined as:

$$\theta_f = \frac{\text{T}_f - \text{T}_c}{\text{T}_w - \text{T}_c}, \quad \delta = \frac{\text{T}_{\text{Mr}}}{\text{T}_w - \text{T}_c}, \quad \lambda = \frac{(\text{Cp}_{c,l} + \iota \text{Cp}_s) \rho_c \rho_s}{(\rho \text{Cp})_f (\rho_s + \iota \rho_c)} \quad (21)$$

Using Eqs. (7)-(10), the term of the heat capacity ratio, Cr, can be written as:

$$\frac{\text{Cp}_b \rho_b}{\text{Cp}_f \rho_f} = (1 - \phi) + \phi \frac{(\text{Cp}_{c,l} + \iota \text{Cp}_s) \rho_c \rho_s}{\text{Cp}_f (\rho_s + \iota \rho_c) \rho_f} + \phi \frac{(\text{T}_w - \text{T}_c)}{\text{T}_{\text{Mr}}} \left\{ \frac{\pi \rho_c \rho_s}{2 \text{Cp}_f (\rho_s + \iota \rho_c) \rho_f} \left(\frac{h_{\text{sf}} - \text{Cp}_{c,l} \text{T}_{\text{Mr}}}{(\text{T}_w - \text{T}_c)} \right) \right\} f \quad (22)$$

where f is the non-dimensional fusion function defined as

$$f = \frac{\pi}{2} \sin \left(\frac{\pi}{\delta} \left(\theta - \theta_f + \frac{\delta}{2} \right) \right) \times \begin{cases} 0 & \theta < \theta_f - \frac{\delta}{2} \\ 1 & \theta_f - \frac{\delta}{2} < \theta < \theta_f + \frac{\delta}{2} \\ 0 & \theta > \theta_f + \frac{\delta}{2} \end{cases} \quad (23)$$

In Eq. (22), the term $\left[(\rho_c \rho_s) (h_{\text{sf}} - \text{Cp}_{c,l} \text{T}_{\text{Mr}}) \right] / \left[(\text{T}_w - \text{T}_c) (\text{Cp}_f (\rho_s + \iota \rho_c) \rho_f) \right]$ represents the combination of latent heat and sensible heat. T_{Mr} indicates the interval temperature of the phase change, which is a very small interval. Moreover, it should be noted that the sensible heat, $\text{Cp}_{c,l}$, is very small compared to the latent heat. Hence, the term of $\text{Cp}_{c,l} \times \text{T}_{\text{Mr}}$ can be neglected, and hence, the Stefan number can be introduced in the usual way as:

$$\text{Ste} = \frac{(\rho C_p)_f (T_w - T_c)(\rho_s + \nu \rho_c)}{(h_{sf} \rho_c \rho_s)} \quad (24)$$

Consequently, Cr can be introduced in the form of non-dimensional parameters as:

$$C_r = \frac{C_{p_b} \rho_b}{C_{p_f} \rho_f} = (1 - \phi) + \phi \lambda + \frac{\phi}{\delta \text{Ste}} f \quad (25)$$

Using Eq. (25), Eq. (20) can be re-written as:

$$\left((1 - \phi) + \phi \lambda + \frac{\phi}{\delta \text{Ste}} f \right) \left(U \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial X} + V \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial Y} \right) = (1 + \text{Nc} \phi) \left(\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial X^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial Y^2} \right) \quad (26)$$

The characteristic parameter of heat transfer in the present study is the Nusselt number. This parameter indicates the rate of heat transfer in the cavity. The balance of thermal conduction and convection at the hot/cold wall of the cavity can be written as:

$$\text{Hot wall: } -k_b \left. \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right|_{x=0} = h(T_w - T_c), \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Cold wall: } -k_b \left. \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right|_{x=1} = h(T_w - T_c) \quad (27)$$

By employing the non-dimensional variables of Eq. (13), Eq. (27) is re-written as:

$$\text{Hot wall: } \text{Nu}_y = - \left. \frac{k_b}{k_f} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial X} \right|_{x=0}, \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Cold wall: } \text{Nu}_y = - \left. \frac{k_b}{k_f} \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial X} \right|_{x=1} \quad (28)$$

where $\text{Nu}_y = h_y H / k$. Substituting the thermal conductivity ratio from Eq. (12a), the local Nusselt number is achieved as:

$$\text{Hot wall: } \text{Nu}_y = - (1 + \text{Nc} \phi) \left. \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial X} \right|_{x=0}, \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Cold wall: } \text{Nu}_y = - (1 + \text{Nc} \phi) \left. \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial X} \right|_{x=1} \quad (29)$$

Finally, the average Nusselt number is introduced at the hot wall as:

$$\text{Nu} = -\left(1 + \text{Nc}\phi\right) \int_0^1 \left. \frac{\partial \theta}{\partial X} \right)_{X=0} dY \quad (30)$$

It should be noted that in the case of steady state flow and heat transfer, the average Nusselt number at the hot wall is identical with the average Nusselt number at the cold wall. Hence, here only the average Nusselt number at the hot wall is introduced and adopted as the average Nusselt number.

3. Numerical method and code validation

The finite element method is utilized to numerically solve the non-dimensional governing equations of Eqs. (28), (19), (26) associated with the boundary conditions Eq. (17). The governing equations are written in the weak form, and discretized over a non-uniform structure grid to be solved using the Galerkin finite element method. The governing equations for the fluid flow and the heat transfer are fully coupled by applying the damped Newton method. Then, the Parallel Sparse Direct Solver is employed to solve the algebraic set of equations. The iterations are repeated until the residuals reach below 10^{-5} . The details of this method are discussed in [56].

The grid of this study is a structured non-uniform grid. A schematic view of the utilized grid is depicted in Fig. 2. As seen, the grid points near the walls are denser to accurately capture high gradients of the velocity and temperature next to the walls. The number of grids in the horizontal (m) and vertical directions (n) are equal, where the grid size is denoted by $m \times n$. In order to ensure the accuracy of the results, the effect of the grid size on the calculations is studied by repeating the calculations for various grid sizes. The default value of the non-dimensional

parameters is adopted as $Ste=0.313$, $\lambda=0.4$, $Pr=6.2$, $\rho_p/\rho_f=0.9$, of $\phi \times \beta_p/\beta_f=0$ and $Nc=Nv=3.0$, which will be discussed later in more detail in the results section.

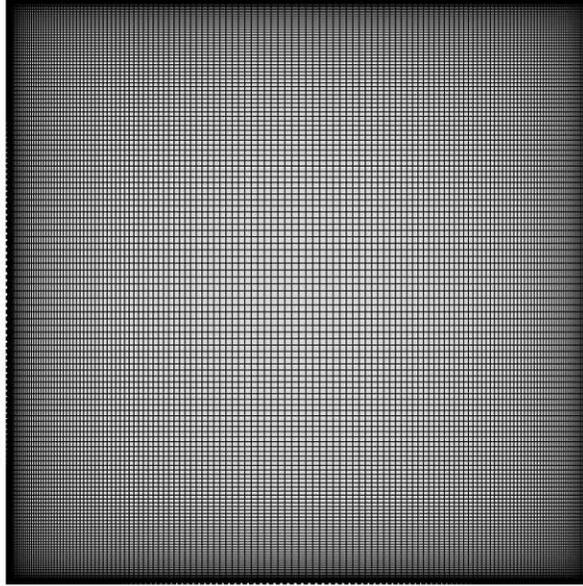


Fig. 2: View of the utilized grid with size of 150×150 and stretching ratio of 10

The selection of an adequate value of the non-dimensional melting range δ is an important step in performing the numerical calculations. A large value of δ may result in non-realistic solutions as the phase change of tiny NEPCM particles occurs in a temperature near the fusion temperature. Selecting a very small value of δ would result in numerical convergence problems by inducing a large sudden variation in the heat capacity of the mixture. In order to find an adequate value of δ , the case of a high Rayleigh number of $Ra=10^6$ is adopted. The calculations were performed with various values of δ in the range of 0.015-0.1, and the average Nusselt number was monitored. Based on the outcomes, only a 0.04% change in the average Nusselt number was observed by variation of δ in the mentioned range. Furthermore, the case of a low

Rayleigh value of 10^4 was checked and the average Nusselt number was monitored for the same range of δ . The outcomes show that the variation of δ only changes the average Nusselt number by 0.07%.

The computational time for small values of δ increases dramatically due to the pulse behavior of the thermal capacity of the mixture. It should be noted that selecting a too-small value of δ requires a very fine mesh in order to be captured. Hence, $\delta=0.05$ is adopted for the sake of accuracy and computational costs.

It is worth mentioning that the heat equation was discretized using quadrature elements, which significantly increases the accuracy of the results. The quadrature discretization was adopted due to the phase change inherent in NEPCMs in a small range. The largest Rayleigh number of this study, $Ra=10^6$, is selected for the purpose of checking the grid. Increasing the Rayleigh number boosts the buoyancy effects, and as a result, the temperature and velocity gradients next to the walls increase. Hence, the grid check analysis is performed for a large Rayleigh number to ensure the accuracy of all of the results. Table 1 shows the average Nusselt number and maximum velocity of the fluid inside the cavity for various grid sizes. As seen, the grid size of 150×150 shows good accuracy up to two significant digits for the average Nusselt number. Using the grid size of 150×150 corresponds to about 0.01% relative error in average Nusselt number and about 0.08% relative error in maximum velocity compared to the very fine grid of 400×400 . A relative error below 1% is excellent for most engineering applications and graphical demonstration of the results. Hence, in order to maintain sufficient accuracy and reasonable computational costs, the grid size of 150×150 is adopted for all the calculations in the present study.

Table 1: The effect of grid size on the average Nusselt number when $Ra=10^6$ and $\delta=0.05$

Grid size	100×100	150×150	200×200	250×250	300×300	400×400
Average Nu	10.124	10.128	10.127	10.126	10.127	10.127
Maximum velocity	222.82	222.71	222.87	222.92	222.91	222.90

In order to check the robustness of the utilized code and the correctness of the results, the outcomes are compared with the available literature results in some possible cases. In the first comparison, the results are compared with the results of Turan et al. [57] for a square cavity with differentially-heated side walls and insulated top and bottom walls which was filled with a non-Newtonian power-law fluid. Considering the power law index as unity in the study of Turan et al. [57] and assuming zero volume fraction of nanoparticles in the present study, the governing equations for both studies are identical, and the results can be compared. The comparison between the non-dimensional temperature profiles of [57] and the present study is depicted in Fig. 3 when $Ra=10^5$ and $Pr=1000$. The average Nusselt number in [57] was reported as 9.20; here it is calculated as 9.23. The maximum vertical velocity in a horizontal line at the center of the cavity was reported as 235.96 in [57]. In the present study, it is calculated as 236.08. As seen, there is a very good agreement between the results of the two studies for the temperature profiles, maximum vertical velocity and calculated average Nusselt number.

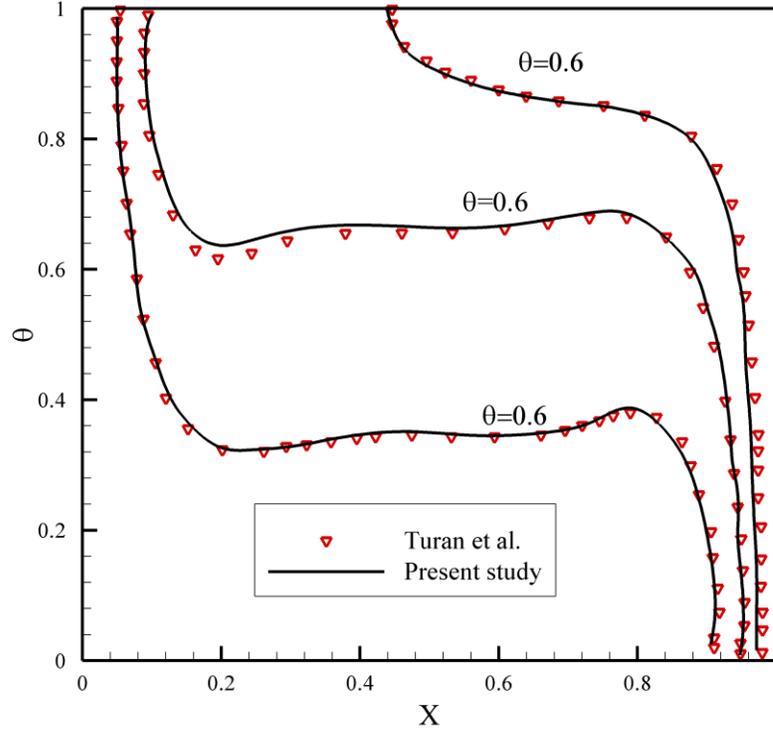


Fig. 3: Comparison between the temperature profiles of Turan et al. [57] (Newton fluid index=1) and the results of the present study when $Ra=10^5$ and $Pr=1000$ (the right wall is hot and left wall is cold)

In the second comparison, the study of Kahveci [58] is selected. Kahveci [58] addressed the natural convection heat transfer of nanofluids in a tilted cavity. Assuming zero tilted angle in [58] and neglecting the phase change effects in the present study (simple solid nanoparticles with no phase change), the physics of the two studies are almost the same. However, in [58] the Maxwell model for thermal conductivity and the Brinkman model for viscosity were utilized. Using curve-fitting on the Maxwell and Brinkman models, the number of thermal conductivity and number of dynamic viscosity can be approximated as $N_c = 3.3$ and $N_v = 2.88$ for water- Al_2O_3 . Following the thermophysical values of [58], the comparison between the Nusselt numbers evaluated here

and reported in [58] is depicted in Fig. 4. This figure depicts very good agreement between the results of these two studies.

Finally, the evaluated average Nusselt number in the present study is compared with the literature studies when $Pr=0.7$ and $\phi=0$ in Table 2. This table confirms a very good agreement between the present results and those reported in the literature.

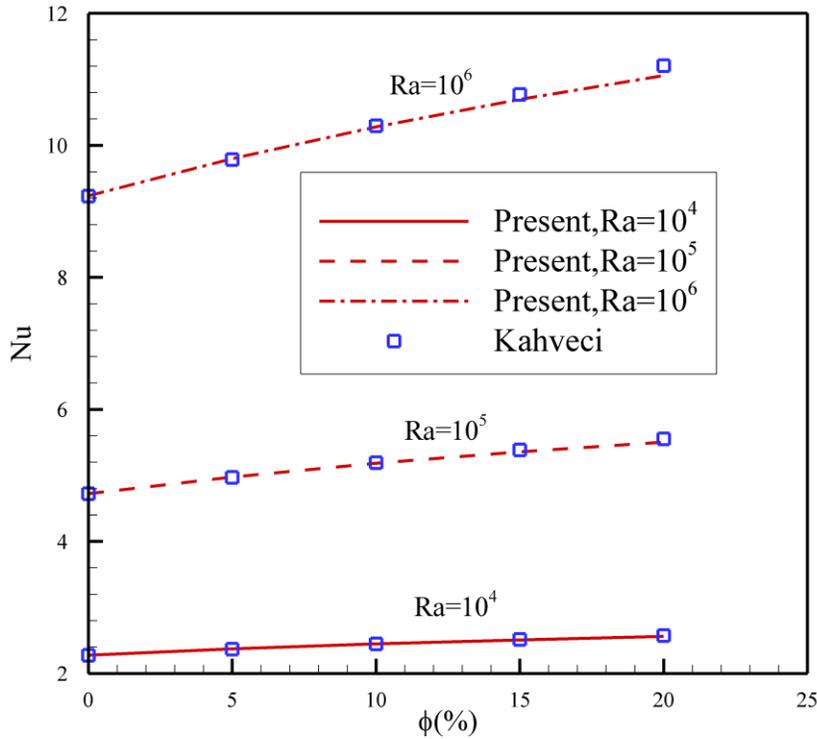


Fig. 4: Comparison between the results of Nu evaluated in the present study and those reported in the study of Kahveci [58] for the case of Al_2O_3 -water nanofluid and $Pr=6.2$

Table 2: Comparison of average Nusselt number at the hot wall evaluated in the present study and those reported in the literature when $\phi=0$ and $Pr=0.7$

Ra	10^3	10^4	10^5	10^6
Deng and Tang [59]	1.1180	2.2540	4.5570	-
Anandalakshmi and Tanmay [60]	1.1179	2.2482	4.5640	-

Sathiyamoorthy and Chamkha[61]	-	2.2530	4.5840	8.9210
Jamesahar et al. [62]	1.1178	2.2450	4.5237	8.8663
Present study	1.1174	2.2441	4.5174	8.8167

4. Results and discussion

The non-dimensional parameters in this study are the volume fraction of nanoparticles (ϕ), the Stefan number (Ste), the heat capacity ratio (λ), the fusion temperature of the NEPCM core (θ_f), the density ratio (ρ_P/ρ_f), the number of thermal conductivity (Nc), the number of dynamic viscosity (Nv), the Rayleigh number (Ra), and the Prandtl number (Pr).

The suspension of NEPCM particles and the base fluid is assumed as a dilute suspension, and hence, the volume fraction is adopted as $0 < \phi < 0.05$. Taking PMMA as the shell for the NEPCM particles [63], [64], n-octadecane as the core PCM [65], water as the base fluid [65], and considering the core-shell weight ratio as $\nu \sim 0.7$, the Stefan number and heat capacity ratio are about 0.313 and 0.4, respectively. The non-dimensional fusion temperature can be varied in the range of cold wall temperature to the hot wall temperature as $0 < \theta_f < 1$. Following [21], [66], the number of thermal conductivity and number of dynamic viscosity are selected as $0 < Nc < 6$ and $0 < Nv < 6$. It should be noted that the zero values of Nc and Nv are not applicable for nanofluids, and that large values of Nc and Nv (> 6) are also possible for nanofluids. As the PCM core is lighter than water [67], [68], and PMMA is heavier than water, the density ratio is adopted as $0.7 < \rho_P/\rho_f < 0.9$. The thermal expansion coefficient of the solid particles is much lower than that of the liquid base fluids, and the volume fraction of NEPCM particles is also low. Hence, the term $\phi \times \beta_p/\beta_f$ is negligible and assumed to be zero.

The Prandtl number for liquids is higher than unity, and here, the regular Prandtl number of water as $Pr=6.2$ is selected. The Rayleigh number is in the range of 10^4 - 10^6 , where the low values of Rayleigh number represent the conduction-dominant heat transfer regime and high Rayleigh numbers represent the convection-dominant heat transfer regime. Based on the grid check results, the value of the non-dimensional fusion interval, δ , was fixed as $\delta=0.05$. Finally, the default values of the non-dimensional parameters are adopted as: (ϕ) , $Ste = 0.313$, $\lambda=0.4$, $\theta_f=0.3$, $\rho_P/\rho_f=0.9$, $Nc=3.0$, $Nv=3.0$, $Ra=10^5$, and $Pr=6.2$. The results of the present study are reported for these values; otherwise, the value of the non-dimensional parameter will be stated. As all of the results and parameters are in non-dimensional form, the prefix of “non-dimensional” may be omitted in some parts of the text for the sake of abbreviation.

Fig. 5 shows the effect of fusion temperature on the isotherm contours, streamlines and heat capacity ratio of the mixture to the base fluid (Cr) in the cavity for two fusion temperatures of $\theta_f=0.3$ and $\theta_f=0.5$. Fig. 6 depicts the local Nusselt number at the hot and cold walls of the cavity. Figs. 7(a) and (b) illustrate the average Nusselt number as a function of the fusion temperature for various values of Stefan number when $Ra=10^5$ and $Ra=10^6$. Indeed, Fig. 7 summarizes the heat transfer effect of fusion temperature and Stefan number on the convective heat transfer rate in the cavity.

Fig. 5 reveal that changing the fusion temperature from $\theta_f=0.3$ and $\theta_f=0.5$ affects the distribution of temperature at the center of the cavity. The heat capacity ratio in Fig. 5 shows a ribbon shape around the constant temperature line of fusion. The capacity ratio parameter outside the fusion region is constant as 0.97, and inside the fusion temperature it is variable. The red region illustrated in the Cr contours of Fig. 5 (a) depicts the region of phase change. The ribbon

shape of the phase change area is very thin next to the wall, due to the large temperature gradients. The ribbon shape gets wider in central areas of the cavity, where the temperature gradients are smooth. The streamlines are also affected by the change of fusion temperature.

Fig. 6 (a) shows that most of the differences between the local heat Nusselt numbers occur at the bottom of the wall. At the bottom of the hot wall, the local Nusselt number increases by the increase of fusion temperature from $\theta_f=0.1$ to $\theta_f=0.5$. Attention to isotherm patterns (depicted in Figs. 5 (a) and (b)) reveals that the isotherm of $\theta=0.1$ is a line close to the cold wall with a small extension at the bottom of the cavity, then $\theta=0.3$ is a line next to the cold wall but with a larger extension at the bottom of the cavity. The isotherm of $\theta=0.5$ starts from top of the cold wall and moves down vertically until $y=0.5$, then it moves toward the hot wall horizontally, and then again it follows the hot wall toward its bottom vertically. As mentioned, the phase change of the NEPCM particles takes place around the isotherm identical with their fusion temperature. Moreover, comparison between the isotherms of Fig. 5 reveals that the change of fusion temperature only slightly changes the pattern of isotherms in the cavity. Thus, it can be concluded that the increase of fusion temperature moves the phase-change phenomenon toward the bottom of the hot wall. This is where the heat flux shows a significant change by the change of the fusion temperature θ_f . In all of the three cases of $\theta_f=0.1, 0.3$ and 0.5 , the isotherms are far away from the top section of the hot wall, and hence, the local heat flux curves (local Nusselt number) at the top of the hot wall are almost identical and independent of the variation of θ_f . In the case of $\theta_f=0.5$, a small but notable change of heat flux in the middle of the hot wall (about $y=0.5$) can be seen. This is due to the behavior of isotherm departure from the cold wall. Similarly, the local Nusselt numbers follow the behavior of the isotherms identical to the fusion temperature of the NEPCMs. As seen, the differences between the local Nusselt numbers at the

top of the cold wall are notable. As mentioned, the isotherms of $\theta=0.1-0.5$ start from the top of the cold wall. This is the location of change phase for NEPCMs with the fusion temperature in this range.

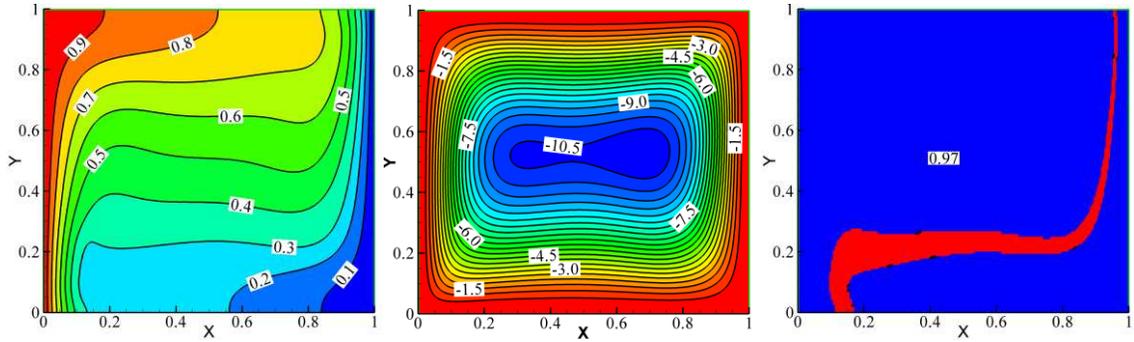
From Fig. 7, it is clear that decreasing the Stefan number increases the average Nusselt number. Indeed, as the latent heat of the PCM cores rises, the Stefan number decreases. Hence, the smaller the Stefan number, the larger the latent heat of the PCM cores. By the increase of the latent heat of the PCM cores, the heat storage capacity of the NEPCM particles increases, which as a result leads to a higher heat transfer rate in the cavity. The results of Fig. 7(b) demonstrate that the average Nusselt number as a function of non-dimensional fusion temperature, θ_f , shows a symmetrical behavior for $\theta_f=0.5$. This behavior was expected, due to the symmetry of the geometry and boundary conditions. When the fusion temperature is low, the increase of the fusion temperature increases the average Nusselt number. For fusion temperatures in the range of 0.25-0.75 there is a maximum peak for average Nusselt number when the Rayleigh number is 10^6 . In contrast, when the Rayleigh number is 10^5 , there is a local minimum in the fusion range of 0.25-0.75. In the case of $Ra=10^6$, the maximum average Nusselt number can be observed at the fusion temperature of 0.5. As seen in Fig. 5, when the fusion temperature is about 0.5, the middle of the cavity acts as the phase change region. The phase change region is close to both the hot and cold regions. Hence, the heat transfer is maximum. In the case of $Ra=10^6$ and $Ste=0.313$, the maximum Nusselt number is about 10.15, while the average Nusselt number for pure liquid is about 9.22. Hence, by using 5% of NEPCM particles and with the optimum fusion temperature of 0.5, the heat transfer can be enhanced up to 10% compared to the base fluid. This enhancement in the case of $Ste=0.2$ can be increased up to 12.7%.

As mentioned, when the Rayleigh number is low, $Ra=10^5$, there is a local minimum in the range of $0.25 < \theta_f < 0.75$, and the maximum heat transfer occurs at the fusion temperature about 0.25 and 0.75. In the case of $Ra=10^5$, the average Nusselt number of the pure fluid is 4.72. Considering the case of $Ste=0.313$, and $\theta_f=0.25$, the average Nusselt number can be enhanced up to 10% when $Ra=10^5$ is in the presence of a 5% volume fraction of NEPCM particles. The analysis of the boundary layer heat transfer of nanofluids over a flat plate indicates the maximum heat transfer enhancement for the non-dimensional fusion temperature of $\theta_f=0.25$ [69], which is in good agreement with the results of the cavity study.

It is worth mentioning that the average Nusselt numbers for the cold and hot walls are monitored, and it is found that they are identical. Identically the average Nusselt numbers at hot and cold walls is expected, due to the heat conservation law. However, from a numerical point of view, the identical average Nusselt numbers confirm that the utilized grid and the numerical technique were adequate to deal with the heat equation and the phase change non-linearities. Moreover, for a pure fluid with the Prandtl number of $Pr=6.2$, the average Nusselt numbers are $Nu=4.7206$ (when $Ra=10^5$) and $Nu=9.2197$ (when $Ra=10^6$). Comparison of the average Nusselt number of a pure fluid with the magnitude of the plotted average Nusselt numbers in Figs. 7 (a) and (b) demonstrates the enhancement of heat transfer (Nu) regardless of the magnitude of the non-dimensional fusion temperatures. However, using the non-dimensional fusion temperature in the range of $0.25 < \theta_f < 0.75$ would further enhance the heat transfer. Considering the default case of $Ste=0.313$, using NEPCMs with the appropriate non-dimensional fusion temperature of $\theta_f=0.25$ results in $Nu=5.1687$ ($Ra=10^5$) and $Nu=10.112$ ($Ra=10^6$). Thus, a relative heat transfer enhancement of about 10% can be achieved compared to the base fluid for both the cases of

$Ra=10^5$ and $Ra=10^6$. By using an inappropriate fusion temperature of $\theta_f=0.05$, this enhancement would be reduced to only about 4%.

(a): $\theta_f=0.3$



(b): $\theta_f=0.5$

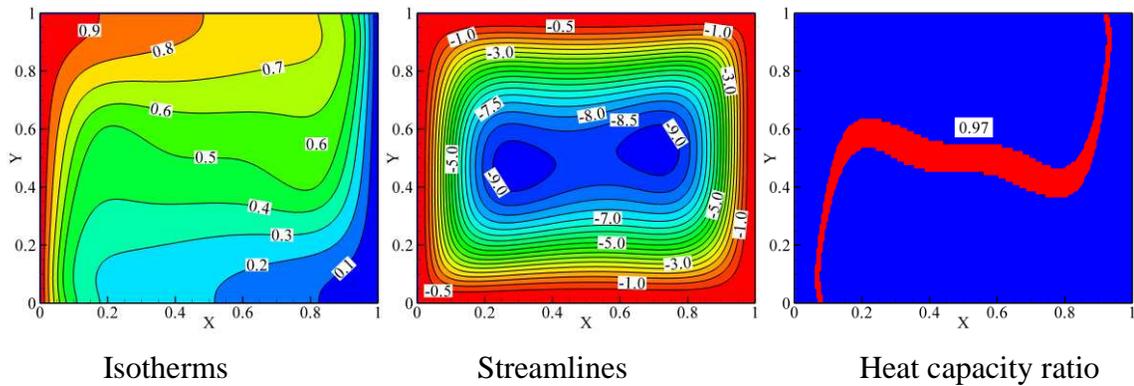
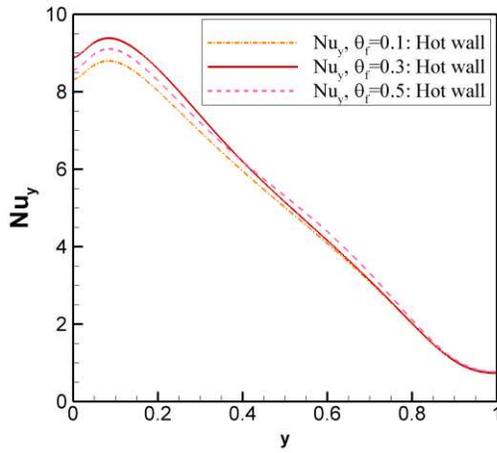
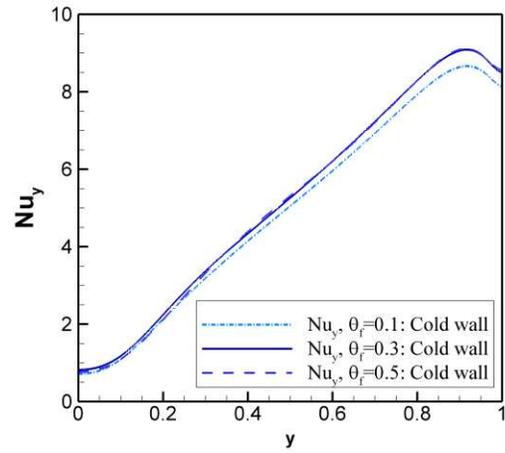


Fig 5: The isotherm contours, streamlines and Cr contours for two non-dimensional fusion temperatures of $\theta_f=0.3$ and $\theta_f=0.5$

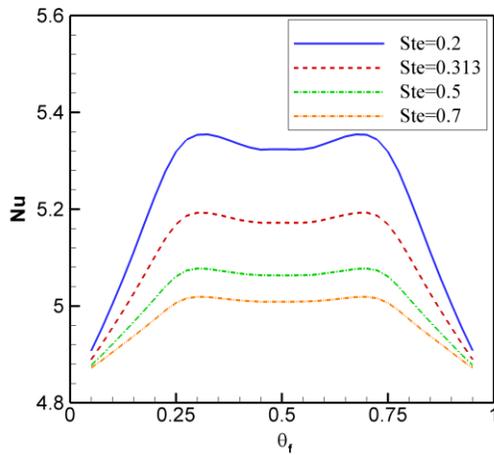


(a): Hot wall

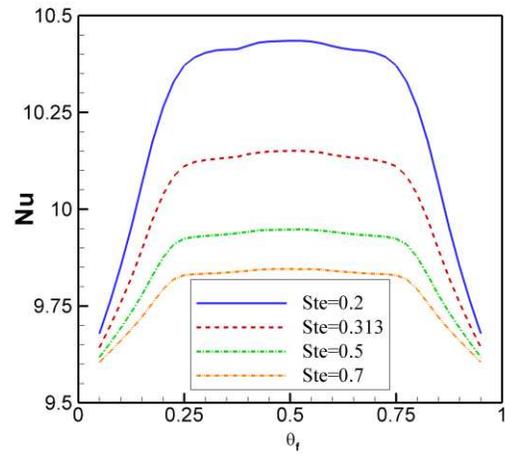


(b): Cold wall

Fig. 6: Local Nusselt number at the hot wall and the cold wall for two non-dimensional fusion temperatures of $\theta_f=0.3$ and $\theta_f=0.5$



(a): $Ra=10^5$



(b): $Ra=10^6$

Fig. 7: The average Nusselt number as a function of non-dimensional fusion temperature (θ_f) for various values of Stefan number; (a): $Ra=10^5$; (b): $Ra=10^6$.

Table 3 shows the effect of various nondimensional parameters of Ste , θ_f , λ , ρ_p/ρ_f , Nc and Nv on the average Nusselt number in the cavity. The effect of these parameters on the average Nusselt number can be non-linear. However, here as a rough simulation of the behavior of these parameters, the effect of the variation of these parameters around their default values is studied. The increases of Nc and λ increase the average Nusselt number, and the increases of Nv and Ste decrease the average Nusselt number. The change of density ratio (ρ_p/ρ_f) does not show a noteworthy effect on the average Nusselt number. The increase of θ_f enhances the average Nusselt number. However, it should be noted that the effect of variation of θ_f was studied in Fig. 7 (a) and a non-linear behavior was observed. The results of this table are in agreement with the graphical results of Fig. 7(a) for Nu as a function of θ_f , but the trend of the behavior of θ_f will be changed for θ_f higher than 0.5.

Comparing the Nusselt number results of this table with the Nusselt number of a pure fluid ($Nu=4.7206$) shows that the presence of NEPCMs enhanced the heat transfer in the cavity for all of the cases.

Table 3: The effect of various non-dimensional parameters on the average Nusselt number for the default case with $Ra=10^5$

Ste	θ_f	λ	ρ_p/ρ_f	Nc	Nv	Nu
0.313	0.3	0.4	0.9	3.0	3.0	5.1932
0.313	0.3	0.4	0.9	3.0	6.0	5.0030
0.313	0.3	0.4	0.9	6.0	3.0	5.6533
0.313	0.3	0.4	0.9	6.0	6.0	5.4477

0.313	0.3	0.4	0.7	3.0	3.0	5.1933
0.313	0.3	0.3	0.9	3.0	3.0	5.1864
0.313	0.2	0.4	0.9	3.0	3.0	5.1022
0.313	0.1	0.4	0.9	3.0	3.0	4.9550
0.2	0.3	0.4	0.9	3.0	3.0	5.3541

5. Conclusion

The natural convection flow of a dilute suspension of a base fluid and NEPCM nanoparticles was addressed in this study. There was a free convection flow in the cavity, due to buoyancy effects. The NEPCM particles, as a part of the mixture, circulate in the cavity with the free convection flow. The contribution of the latent heat energy release and absorption of the NEPCM nanoparticles due to phase change was taken into account. The governing equations for the conservation of mass, momentum and energy were introduced and transformed into a non-dimensional form. Then, the finite element method was employed to solve the governing equations associated with the boundary conditions. A grid check and validations were performed to ensure the accuracy and correctness of the solutions. The main outcomes can be summarized as follows:

- 1- The presence of NEPCMs contributes to heat transfer enhancement by improving the thermal conductivity and increasing the heat capacity of the suspension at the fusion temperature of the NEPCM particles. However the presence of the NEPCM nanoparticles also has some drawbacks, such as an increase of dynamic viscosity, a decrease of sensible heat capacity,

and a decrease of buoyancy forces, which lead to a decrease of heat transfer. The general trend of the results demonstrates a heat transfer enhancement by using NEPCM particles.

- 2- The non-dimensional fusion temperature is a key parameter in enhancing the heat transfer in the cavity. When the fusion temperature of the PCM cores is close to the hot or cold wall temperatures, the heat transfer enhancement due to phase change is low. Deviation of the fusion temperature from the wall temperatures increases the effectiveness of the NEPCM particles in terms of heat transfer enhancement. The best heat transfer performance can be obtained with a non-dimensional fusion temperature in the range of $\theta_f=0.25$ - $\theta_f=0.75$.
- 3- An increase of the latent heat of the PCM cores (i.e., decrease of Ste) increases the average Nusselt number in the cavity. Thus, using phase change materials with higher latent heat of phase change can further enhance heat transfer.

Considering the strong non-linearity to the governing equations due to the addition of NEPCM particles, adds a further studies are needed to consider the effect of location of the phase change, the geometry of the cavity, and different boundary conditions.

Hence, predicting the effect of the change on the heat transfer behavior of the natural convection flow is complicated. Thus, future numerical tests and investigations are required. In the present study, it was found that the location of the phase change of the NEPCM particles is the key parameter affecting the enhancement of heat transfer. Indeed, the phase change phenomenon occurs around the isotherm of the fusion temperature. Hence, implicitly the location of phase change can be manipulated by changing the fusion temperature. One of the important factors which can affect the temperature distribution, and consequently, the location of the phase

change of the NEPCM particles, Thus, analysis of the effect of cavity geometry, and further discussion about the non-linear relation between the phase change of NEPCM particles and the heat transfer in enclosures, can be the subject of future studies.

Finally, one of the advantages of using phase change materials is control of the surface temperature and its uniformity with a specific fusion temperature. Hence, the study of natural convection in a cavity with boundaries subject to heat flux and analysis of the temperature uniformity of the wall surface can be another direction for future studies.

Acknowledgements

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