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Research Article

A Two-Dimensional Numerical Study of Evaporation by Mixed Convection of an Inclined Damp Flat Plate: A Lean Engineering Approach Using DMADV Methodology

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Abstract

This paper presents a two-dimensional numerical study of the evaporation by mixed convection of an inclined damp flat plate subjected to a constant heat flux density. Airflow, heat, and mass transfers are governed by the equations of continuity, motion, energy, and diffusion, to which boundary layer approximations are applied. Adimensionalization, implicit finite difference method, and programming on MATLAB are used to solve the equations. The methodology is designed using the FAST (Function Analysis System Technique) method and reinforced with DWADV (Define, Measure, Analyze, Design, Verify) by applying Lean Engineering and Six Sigma. The approximation in the boundary layer makes it possible to reduce the number of terms in the equations of the problem. Adimensionalization links the parameters together and reduces their number. The quantities studied no longer depend on the measurement system. Comparison with other studies allowed us to validate our results. The work ends with presenting results about the influence of the Richardson number and the flat's inclination on non-dimensional velocity, non-dimensional temperature, non-dimensional concentration, and coefficients of exchange associated with mixed convection: friction coefficient, Nusselt and Sherwood number. The increase in the value of the Richardson number generates the opposite effect of the increase in the inclination of the plate on the parameters of mixed convection and the exchange coefficients.

Keywords: Adimensionalization; FAST Method; Implicit Finite Difference Method; Richardson Number; Sherwood Number.

1. INTRODUCTION

Heat and mass transfer processes are fundamental in various industrial applications, including metallurgy, nuclear energy, aeronautics, and advanced manufacturing [1]–[3]. These processes are particularly crucial in thermal management systems such as heat exchangers, electronic cooling devices, combustion chambers, nuclear reactors, food preservation and drying technologies, air conditioning systems, and various industrial treatments [4]–[6]. The efficiency of heat and mass transfer directly influences system performance, energy consumption, and operational sustainability, making it a critical area of study in engineering and applied sciences [7], [8]. Specific solutions have asymmetrical, inclined, and upside-down geometric configurations for better space and energy consumption management. Much work has already been carried out on mixed convection for various geometries: a truncated vertical cone [9], a three-dimensional parallelepiped space [10], [11], a vertical plate [12], [13], and an inclined channel [14], [15]. Other configurations have not yet been studied or touched upon by previous work.

Given the increasing global demand for energy-efficient and high-performance thermal systems, extensive research has been conducted to enhance heat and mass transfer mechanisms through innovative materials, advanced numerical modeling, and optimized system designs [16], [17]. Recent advancements in nanofluid applications [18]–[20], phase change materials [21], and porous media heat transfer [22], [23] have provided new insights into improving heat dissipation and mass transport efficiency in industrial settings.

Additionally, the integration of computational fluid dynamics (CFD) and artificial intelligence-based optimization techniques has facilitated more precise simulations of complex convection and diffusion phenomena [24]–[26]. These developments have enabled predicting and controlling heat and mass transfer behavior in increasingly sophisticated engineering applications.

One of the most critical mechanisms influencing heat and mass transfer is mixed convection, which arises from the interplay of natural and forced convection [27]. The Richardson number (Ri) is a key parameter in determining whether natural or forced convection dominates a given system. Another crucial factor is the geometric configuration of the heat transfer surface, particularly its inclination angle. The inclination angle directly affects fluid flow characteristics, temperature distribution, and mass transfer efficiency, making it an essential parameter in the design and optimization of thermal systems [28], [29].

Despite the fundamental importance of mixed convection in industrial systems, significant challenges remain in optimizing heat and mass transfer processes to improve performance while minimizing energy consumption. One of the major unresolved issues is the evaporation process on inclined surfaces subjected to constant heat flux, particularly under mixed convection conditions. While several studies have investigated mixed convection in various geometrical configurations, there remains a lack of comprehensive understanding of how the interaction between the Richardson number and plate inclination angle influences simultaneous heat and mass transfer [9]–[11]. This knowledge gap is especially relevant for industrial applications such as food drying [30], electronic component cooling [31], and energy-efficient building systems [32], [33]. Addressing these challenges is essential for the continued advancement of sustainable and high-performance thermal management technologies.

1.1. Description of The Problem

Consider a damp flat plate of finite length L, inclined at an angle α\alphaα relative to the horizontal, subjected to a constant heat flux density q, and immersed in an ascending airflow. The airflow is assumed to be laminar and governed by both natural and forced convection mechanisms. Air, considered a perfect fluid, is characterized by an ambient temperature T_∞, a concentration of air-water vapor mixture C_∞, and an inlet velocity U_∞ at the entrance to the heated section. The interaction between heat and mass transfer in such a system plays a critical role in various engineering applications, including cooling systems, solar collectors, and atmospheric boundary layer studies [34], [35].

In this study, we focus exclusively on favorable mixed convection, where forced and natural convection act in the same direction, enhancing heat and mass transfer along the plate surface. The behavior of the convective boundary layer under these conditions is influenced by parameters such as the Grashof, Reynolds, and Prandtl numbers, which determine the relative contributions of buoyancy-driven and forced convection effects. Previous studies have highlighted the importance of mixed convection in improving thermal efficiency and optimizing heat transfer performance in engineering systems (Gebhart et al., 1988; Nield & Bejan, 2017). Understanding these interactions is essential for designing efficient thermal management systems in various industrial and environmental applications.

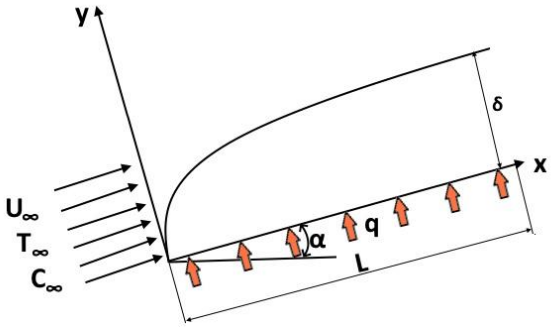


Figure 1. Schematic Diagram of the Problem

1.2. The Equations Governing Mixed Convection

The behavior of airflow, heat transfer, and mass transport in the system is governed by fundamental conservation laws. These equations describe the relationship between velocity, temperature, and concentration fields under mixed convection conditions. The governing equations include:

Continuity Equation: Ensures mass conservation in the flow field.

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + div(\rho \vec{U}) = 0 \quad (1)$$

Momentum Equation: Represents the balance of forces acting on the fluid, incorporating both buoyancy (natural convection) and inertial effects (forced convection) [5]

$$\rho \frac{d\vec{U}}{dt} + (\vec{U} grad)\vec{U} = -\overrightarrow{grad}P + \mu \Delta U + \left(\zeta + \frac{\vartheta}{3}\right)\overrightarrow{grad}div\vec{U} + \rho\overrightarrow{F_P} \quad (2)$$

Energy Equation: Describes heat transfer within the fluid due to conduction and convection.

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + (\vec{U}.\overrightarrow{grad})T = a_T \nabla^2 T \quad (3)$$

Mass Diffusion Equation: Governs the transport of mass species, considering convective and diffusive effects.

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial t} + (\vec{U}.\overrightarrow{grad})C = a_C \nabla^2 C \quad (4)$$

These equations, subject to the boundary conditions and assumptions outlined earlier, form the mathematical framework for analyzing mixed convection phenomena in the system.

1.3. Hypotheses and Consequences

To accurately model the heat and mass transfer phenomena in the system, several simplifying hypotheses are introduced. These assumptions ensure that the governing equations remain tractable while still capturing the essential physics of the problem. Considering a controlled fluid flow and applying

classical approximations, the analysis can focus on the dominant mechanisms influencing convection. The following hypotheses are applied to the system of equations (1–4):

- The flow is assumed to be laminar, two-dimensional, and steady-state, ensuring a controlled and predictable fluid motion.
- The velocity of the incoming fluid and heat and mass transfer processes are considered uniform across the system.
- The working fluid is treated as Newtonian and incompressible, with constant thermal properties, simplifying the analysis of its behavior under varying thermal and flow conditions.
- The boundary layer approximations are applied to reduce the complexity of the governing equations while maintaining the accuracy of predictions.
- The Soret and Dufour effects—which describe thermal diffusion and diffusion-thermo effects—are neglected, as their influence is assumed to be insignificant in the present analysis.
- The Boussinesq approximation is applied as per equation (5).

$$\rho = \rho_0[1 - \beta_T(T - T_0) - \beta_C(C - C_0)] \quad (5)$$

This allows for treating density variations due to temperature differences while maintaining a linearized form of the governing equations [34], [36].

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1. Lean Approach to The Problem

The research process followed is presented in Figure 2. It was developed using the FAST (Function Analysis System Technique) method, which was inverted 180 degrees to structure the process. The Lean approach was then introduced to enhance robustness and ensure stability. In this framework, FAST enabled all successive stages' logical and step-by-step definition. At the same time, DMADV (Define, Measure, Analyze, Design, Verify) effectively reinforced the methodology to achieve this study's objectives.

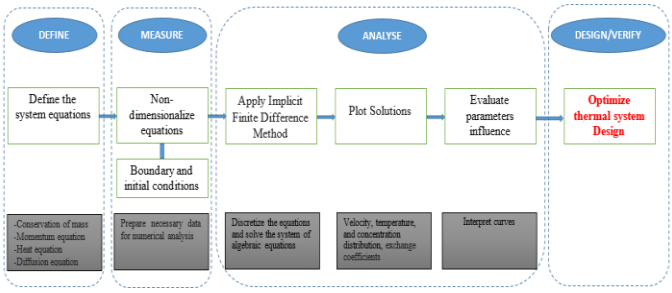


Figure 2. Research Process DMADV

DMADV (Define, Measure, Analyze, Design, Verify) is a structured Six Sigma methodology designed for developing or optimizing new processes and systems. This approach ensures systematic problem-solving and robust performance enhancement through data-driven decision-making. This study uses DMADV to optimize a thermal system, integrating Lean principles to enhance efficiency, reliability, and accuracy [37]–[40].

The methodology begins with the Define phase, where the fundamental system equations are established, and key parameters influencing the system are identified. This phase also involves defining the study's objectives, such as improving heat and mass transfer efficiency, while setting performance criteria and constraints. By clearly outlining these elements, the research remains focused and structured.

Next, in the Measure phase, the necessary data for numerical analysis is collected and processed. The governing equations are non-dimensionalized to facilitate comparative analysis and improve computational efficiency. Boundary and initial conditions are determined based on real-world operational scenarios to represent the thermal system accurately. Critical parameters such as fluid properties, heat flux, and system geometry are identified, and performance indicators like the Nusselt number, Sherwood number, and friction coefficient are defined to assess heat and mass transfer effectiveness.

In the analysis phase, advanced numerical methods are employed to solve and evaluate the system. The Implicit Finite Difference Method (IFDM) is used to discretize and solve the governing equations, ensuring stability and convergence. The obtained numerical solutions are visualized to assess the impact of key parameters, including the Richardson and Sherwood numbers, on system performance. The velocity, temperature, and concentration distributions are examined, providing insights into heat and mass transfer dynamics. Sensitivity analysis is conducted to determine the most influential factors affecting system behavior, guiding further optimization.

Building upon these insights, the Design phase optimizes the thermal system. Key modifications are introduced to enhance heat and mass transfer efficiency, including adjustments in material selection, geometric configuration, and operational conditions. Lean principles are incorporated to eliminate inefficiencies and reduce energy consumption. Additionally, predictive models using regression or machine learning techniques are developed to estimate real-time system performance, further improving design reliability.

Finally, the Verify phase ensures the reliability and accuracy of the optimized design through rigorous validation. Computational simulations are conducted under varying operating conditions to evaluate system stability and effectiveness. The results are compared with theoretical models and experimental data to confirm accuracy. Performance benchmarking is performed against conventional systems to quantify efficiency and energy consumption improvements. If necessary, iterative refinements are made to optimize the design further.

Through this structured application of DMADV, an optimized thermal system design is achieved and characterized by enhanced efficiency, stability, and performance. Integrating Lean principles further refines the process, ensuring resource efficiency and continuous improvement. Future work may involve experimental

validation and real-world implementation to assess the effectiveness of the proposed design under practical conditions. This comprehensive approach provides a robust framework for designing complex thermal systems, leveraging Six Sigma techniques for innovation and sustainable performance enhancement.

2.2. Adimensionalization of Equations

Adimensionalization makes it possible to reveal non-dimensional quantities in the transfer equations. It reduces the number of physical parameters in problems and makes it possible to find solutions no longer a function of measurement systems. Thus, let us introduce the following non-dimensional writings:

$$\xi = \frac{x}{L} \; ; \quad \eta = \frac{y}{L} \; ; \; U = \frac{u_x}{u_\infty} ; \quad V = \frac{u_y}{u_\infty} \; ; \quad \theta = \frac{T - T_\infty}{T_0 - T_\infty} \; ; \quad \chi = \frac{C - C_\infty}{C_0 - C_\infty}$$

The following non-dimensional numbers:

$$Re = \frac{u_\infty L}{\vartheta} \quad ; \quad Pr = \frac{a_T}{\vartheta} \quad ; \quad Gr_T = \frac{g\beta_T L^3 (T_0 - T_\infty)}{\vartheta^2} \; ;$$

$$Ri = \frac{|Gr|}{Re^2} \quad ; \quad Sc = \frac{a_C}{\vartheta} \quad ; \quad Gr_C = \frac{g\beta_C L^3 (C_0 - C_\infty)}{\vartheta^2}$$

The equations (6 – 9) can be written in the following non-dimensional form:

$$\frac{\partial U}{\partial \xi} + \frac{\partial V}{\partial \eta} = 0 \tag{6}$$

$$U\frac{\partial U}{\partial \xi} + V\frac{\partial U}{\partial \eta} = Ri(\theta - \chi)sin\alpha + \frac{1}{Re}\left(\frac{\partial^2 U}{\partial \eta^2}\right) \tag{7}$$

$$U\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \xi} + V\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial \eta} = \frac{1}{Pr}\frac{1}{Re}\frac{\partial^2 \theta}{\partial \eta^2} \tag{8}$$

$$U\frac{\partial \chi}{\partial \xi} + V\frac{\partial \chi}{\partial \eta} = \frac{1}{Sc}\frac{1}{Re}\frac{\partial^2 \chi}{\partial \eta^2} \tag{9}$$

The boundary conditions:
At wall level η=0

$$U = 1 \qquad \theta = 1 \qquad \chi = 1$$

Far from the wall $\eta \to \infty$

$$U \to 1 \qquad \theta \to 0 \qquad \chi \to 0$$

2.3. The Implicit Finite Difference Method

The implicit finite difference method is a numerical approach that transforms a system of differential equations into a system of algebraic equations. This method is particularly advantageous for solving time-dependent problems, as it offers better stability than explicit methods, allowing for larger time steps without numerical instability.

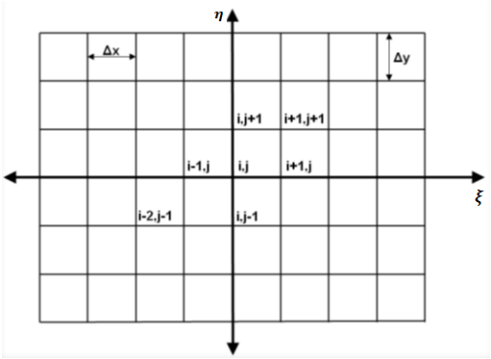


Figure 3. Structure of the Mesh Used

To implement this method, we discretize the domain using a structured computational mesh (Figure 3). The mesh consists of grid points representing discrete spatial and temporal locations where the function values are computed. Each node in the mesh corresponds to a discrete approximation of the solution, with future time step values implicitly incorporated into the equation system. This structured approach ensures accurate numerical approximations and enhances the stability of the solution, making it particularly suitable for solving stiff equations. The equations' system (10 – 15) becomes:

$$V_{i+1,j+1} = V_{i+1,j} - \frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}\left(U_{i+1,j+1} - U_{i,j+1}\right) \tag{10}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\left(-\frac{1}{Re\Delta y^2}\right)U_{i+1,j-1} + \left(\frac{2}{Re\Delta y^2} - \frac{V_{i,j}}{\Delta y}\right)U_{i+1,j} \\ + \left(\frac{U_{i,j}}{\Delta x} + \frac{V_{i,j}}{\Delta y} - \frac{1}{Re\Delta y^2}\right)U_{i+1,j+1} \\ = Ri(\theta_{i,j} - \chi_{i,j})sin\alpha + U_{i,j}\frac{U_{i,j+1}}{\Delta x}\end{aligned} \tag{11}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\left(-\frac{1}{PrRe\Delta y^2}\right)\theta_{i+1,j-1} + \left(\frac{2}{PrRe\Delta y^2} - \frac{V_{i,j}}{\Delta y}\right)\theta_{i+1,j} \\ + \left(\frac{U_{i,j}}{\Delta x} + \frac{V_{i,j}}{\Delta y} - \frac{1}{PrRe\Delta y^2}\right)\theta_{i+1,j+1} \\ = \frac{U_{i,j}}{\Delta x}\theta_{i,j+1}\end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\left(-\frac{1}{ScRe\Delta y^2}\right)\chi_{i+1,j-1} + \left(\frac{2}{ScRe\Delta y^2} - \frac{V_{i,j}}{\Delta y}\right)\chi_{i+1,j} \\ + \left(\frac{U_{i,j}}{\Delta x} + \frac{V_{i,j}}{\Delta y} - \frac{1}{ScRe\Delta y^2}\right)\chi_{i+1,j+1} \\ = \frac{U_{i,j}}{\Delta x}\chi_{i,j+1}\end{aligned} \tag{13}$$

The boundary conditions :

At wall level η=0 :

$$U_{i+1,1} = 0 \qquad \chi_{i+1,1} = 1 \qquad \theta_{i+1,1} = 1$$

Far from the wall $\eta \to \infty$:

$$U_{i+1,\infty} \to 1 \qquad \theta_{i+1,\infty} \to 0 \qquad \chi_{i+1,\infty} \to 0$$

To each numerical scheme of the discretized equations, we applied the consistency criterion of equation 14 and the stability criterion of equation 15.

$$lim_{\Delta x \to 0, \Delta y \to 0}\, \varepsilon_T = 0 \tag{14}$$

$$\left|\frac{max(F_{i,j+1}-F_{i,j})}{max\,(F_{i,j})}\right| \leq 0.001 \quad (15)$$

According to Lax's theorem, a consistent and stable numerical scheme is convergent [41], [42].

2.4. Exchange Coefficients

The exchange coefficients are crucial in characterizing different transport phenomena in mixed convection. These coefficients include the friction coefficient, the Nusselt number, and the Sherwood number. Each of these parameters serves a specific function.

- The friction coefficient quantifies the resistance encountered by the fluid during its movement.

$$C_{fx} = -\frac{\mu}{\frac{1}{2}\rho U_\infty{}^2}\left(\frac{\partial U_x}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} \quad (16)$$

- The Nusselt number represents heat transfer efficiency between the plate and the surrounding fluid.

$$C_{fx} = -\frac{\mu}{\frac{1}{2}\rho U_\infty{}^2}\left(\frac{\partial U_x}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0} \quad (17)$$

- The Sherwood number describes the rate of mass transfer occurring in the system.

$$Sh = \frac{-\left(\frac{\partial C}{\partial y}\right)_{y=0}}{C_0 - C_\infty} \quad (18)$$

3. RESULTS

This section presents the simulation results of the discretized equations using MATLAB. The implicit finite difference method was employed to ensure numerical stability and accuracy. A detailed analysis is conducted on the effects of the Richardson number and the plate inclination on mixed convection.

3.1. Quantities Governing Mixed Convection

Figures 4, 6 and 8 respectively show the distribution of non-dimensional velocity, non-dimensional temperature and non-dimensional concentration along the plate.

4.1.1. Non-Dimensional Velocity Distribution

Figure 4 illustrates the distribution of a non-dimensional velocity along the plate. The x-axis represents the non-dimensional variable ξ, ranging from 0 to 0.18, while the y-axis represents the non-dimensional variable η, varying between 0 and 0.14. The color gradient highlights the variations of the studied parameter, with higher values concentrated in the upper region (red zone) and lower values observed near the bottom (blue area). The Richardson number (Ri) and the plate inclination angle (α) remain fixed for this simulation.

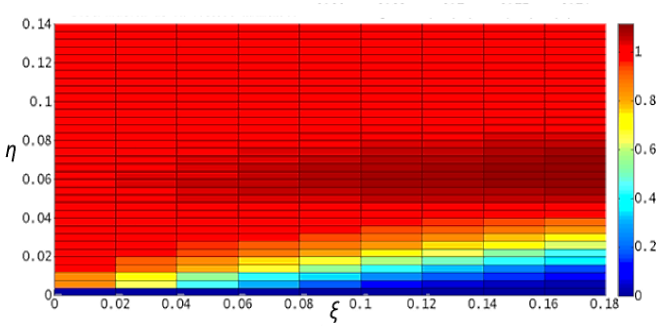
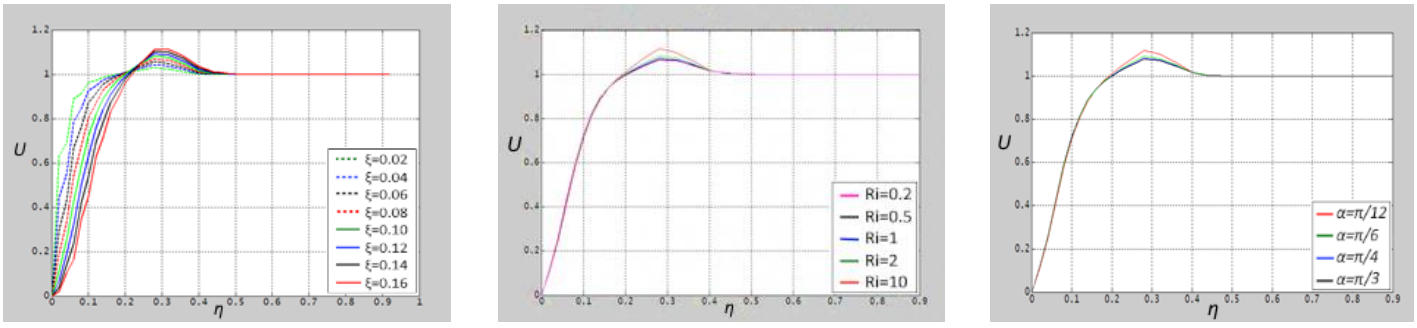


Figure 4. Non-dimensional Velocity Distribution along the Plate, (Ri=1, α=π/12)

Figure 5(a) presents the variation of non-dimensional velocity as a function of η for different values of ξ, while keeping the Richardson number and inclination angle constant. The curves exhibit an increasing trend until η ≈ 0.3, with the slopes decreasing as ξ increases. Beyond η = 0.3, the curves begin to decline until η ≈ 0.48. After this point, all curves merge and remain constant and vertical until the end of the domain.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 5. Non-dimensional velocity distribution **(a)** for different values of ξ; **(b)** for different values of Ri; and **(c)** for different values of α

Figure 5(b) illustrates the variation of non-dimensional velocity as a function of η for different values of the Richardson number while keeping ξ and α constant. For all cases, the velocity increases until η ≈ 0.3, reaching a peak before gradually decreasing. The influence of Ri is noticeable in the peak values and the rate of decline. Higher Ri values lead to a slightly higher peak velocity. Beyond η ≈ 0.48, all curves converge to a constant velocity, indicating flow stabilization. Figure 5(c) illustrates the variation of non-dimensional velocity as a function of η for different values of

the inclination angle while keeping ξ and Ri constant. All curves overlap and increase until reaching different peak values, gradually decreasing until η ≈ 0.48. Beyond this point, the curves converge to a constant horizontal line, indicating velocity stabilization. Notably, the peak velocity decreases as the inclination angle α increases, suggesting a reduction in the flow intensity with higher plate inclinations.

4.1.2. Non-Dimensional Temperature Distribution

Figure 6 presents the non-dimensional temperature distribution along the plate for Ri = 1 and α = π/12. The color gradient represents temperature variations, with red indicating higher temperatures and blue indicating lower temperatures. The temperature distribution is primarily concentrated near the lower region (small η), gradually transitioning from high to low temperatures as ξ increases.

The balanced value of the Richardson number (Ri=1) suggests a comparable influence of buoyancy and shear forces, resulting in a mixed convection regime. In this regime, the upward buoyant flow due to temperature gradients interacts with the horizontal forced convection along the plate. The inclination angle α=π/12 modifies the gravitational component acting on the fluid, slightly tilting the flow direction and affecting the development of the thermal boundary layer. The thermal field exhibits an asymmetric distribution characteristic of inclined mixed convection flows.

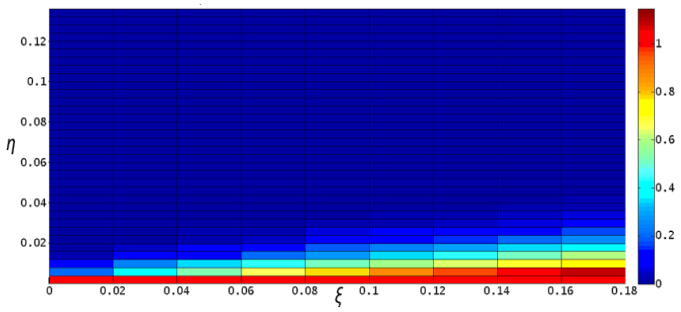
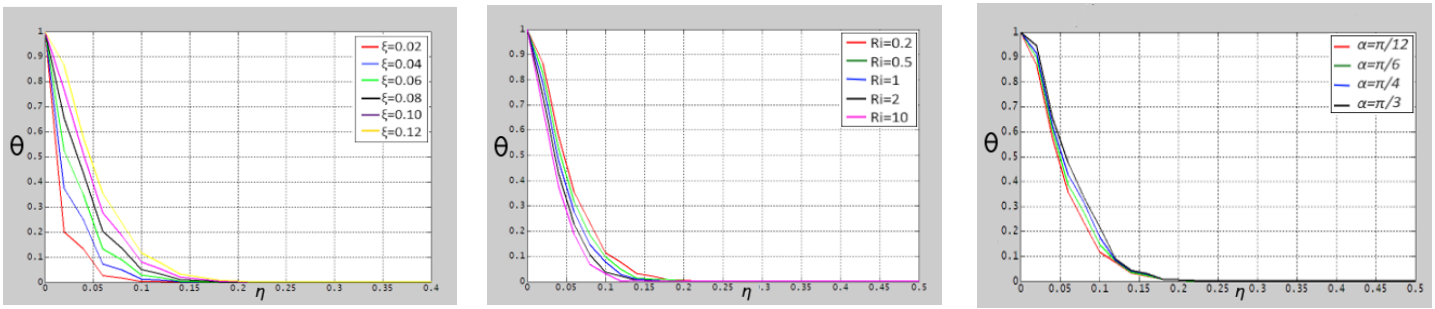


Figure 6. Non-Dimensional Temperature Distribution Along the Plate (Ri=1; α=π/12).

Figure 7(a) shows the non-dimensional temperature distribution as a function of η for different values of ξ. All curves exhibit the same behavior, with a steep decrease, indicating a strong thermal gradient near the plate. Beyond η ≈ 0.20, the curves tend to be zero. Smaller ξ values correspond to a steeper decline.



(a) (b) (c)

Figure 7. Non-Dimensional Temperature Distribution for **(a)** Different Values of ξ, **(b)** Different Values of Ri and **(c)** Different Values of α

Figure 7(b) illustrates the non-dimensional temperature distribution as a function of η for different Richardson numbers. All curves follow a similar trend, initially exhibiting a sharp decrease before approaching zero beyond η ≈ 0.2, indicating thermal stabilization. Higher Ri values lead to a slightly higher temperature decay. Figure 7(c) presents the non-dimensional temperature distribution as a function of η for different inclination angles. The curves exhibit similar behavior, with a steep initial decrease and a gradual convergence toward zero. Variations in α slightly influence the rate of temperature decay, with higher inclination angles leading to a marginally slower decrease.

4.1.3. Non-Dimensional Concentration Distribution

Figure 8 illustrates the non-dimensional concentration distribution along the plate for Ri = 1 and α = π/12. The concentration remains high near the surface and decreases rapidly with increasing η. A gradient indicates significant mass transfer near the plate while the concentration stabilizes further away.

Figure 9(a) shows the variation of the non-dimensional concentration χ as a function of η for different values of ξ. All curves exhibit a consistent trend, a steep initial decrease near the surface (η =0), and a gradual tapering off as η increases. This behavior reflects the presence of a concentration boundary layer, where mass transfer from the surface to the fluid occurs predominantly through diffusion in the near-wall region.

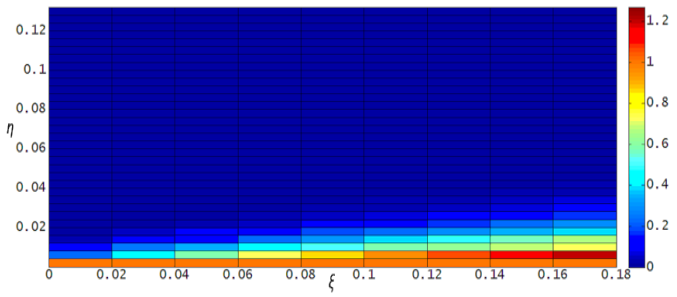
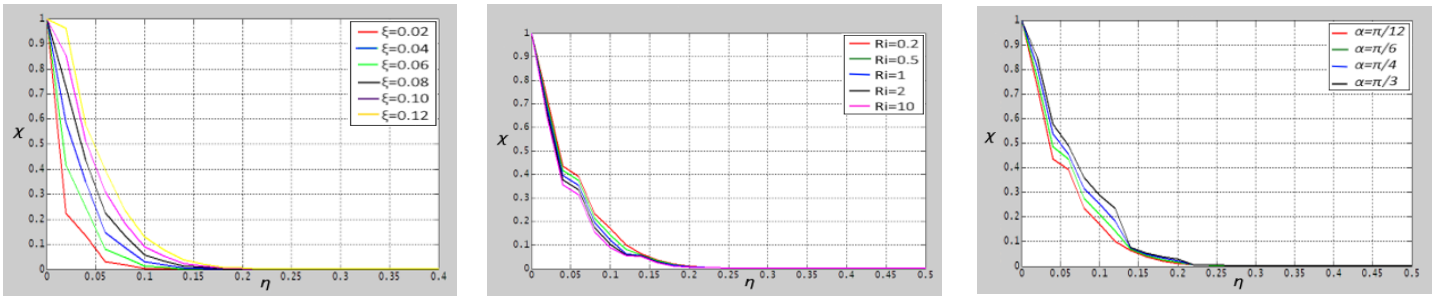


Figure 8. Non-Dimensional Concentration Distribution Along the Plate (Ri=1; α=π/12).

As ξ increases, the concentration boundary layer becomes thicker, and the concentration gradient near the surface decreases, indicating a reduction in the mass transfer rate due to axial diffusion and the spreading of the concentration profile downstream. The rapid decline observed at lower ξ values suggests stronger concentration gradients near the leading edge, which can be associated with more intense diffusive transport.

Figure 9(b) illustrates the variation of the non-dimensional concentration χ as a function of η for different Richardson numbers Ri. The general trend remains similar across all values of Ri, with a sharp drop near the wall followed by a smooth asymptotic approach to zero. However, subtle differences in the profiles indicate that buoyancy effects slightly influence the solute distribution. At higher Ri, where natural convection becomes more dominant, the thermal and flow fields may alter the local velocity and temperature gradients, indirectly affecting the concentration field through cross-diffusive interactions. Despite this, the overall impact of RiRiRi on the concentration profile remains modest, suggesting that the local boundary layer behavior predominantly governs the mass transfer process and is less sensitive to buoyancy-driven flow variations in the studied parameter range.



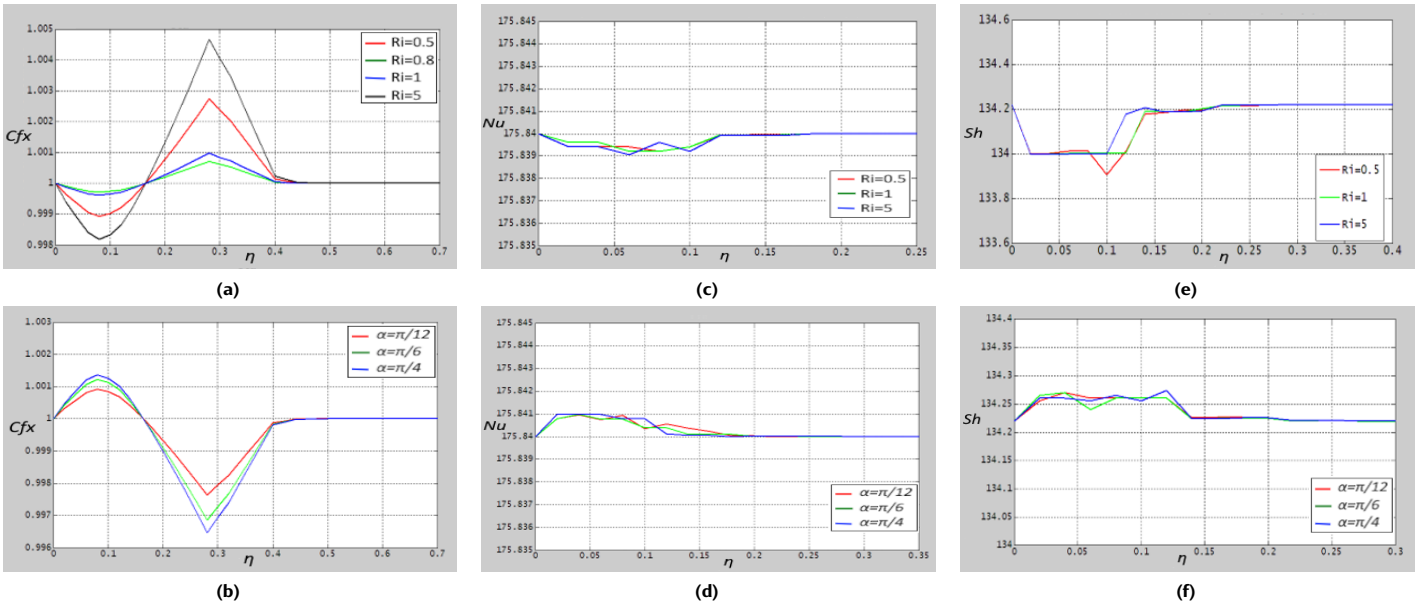
(a) (b) (c)

Figure 9. Non-Dimensional Concentration Distribution for **(a)** Different Values of ξ, **(b)** Different Values of Ri and **(c)** Different Values of α

3.2. Exchange Coefficients

3.2.1. Coefficient of Friction

Figure 10(a) illustrates the variation of the friction coefficient C_fx as a function of the non-dimensional parameter η for different Richardson numbers. Initially, the friction coefficient exhibits a decrease until approximately η=0.09, reaching a minimum. This is followed by a growth leading to a peak around η=0.28, after which a sudden drop occurs. The stabilization of C_fx begins around η=0.4 and continues steadily until the end of the domain. The highest peak is observed for Ri = 5, while lower Ri values result in a more moderate increase. Figure 10(b): The friction coefficient C_fx initially increases up to approximately η = 0.08, where it reaches a peak. This is followed by a sharp decrease, reaching a pronounced minimum around η = 0.28. After this decline, C_fx gradually rises again and stabilizes from C_fx=0.39 onwards, remaining constant until the end of the domain. As the angle increases, the extreme values of C_fx decrease.



(a) (c) (e)

(b) (d) (f)

Figure 10. Variation of Coefficient of Friction **(a)** Different Values of Ri and **(b)** Different Values of α; Variation of Nusselt Number **(c)** Different Values of Ri and **(d)** Different Values of α; Variation of Sherwood Number **(e)** Different Values of Ri and **(f)** Different Values of α.

3.2.2. Nusselt Number

The graph in Figure 10(c) represents the variation of the Nusselt number Nu as a function of η for different Richardson numbers. The results indicate that the Nusselt number remains nearly constant across the domain, with only minor fluctuations. As η increases, the values gradually stabilize. This graph in Figure 10(d) illustrates the evolution of the Nusselt number as a function of η for different inclination angles. The results show slight fluctuations initially, followed by stabilization as η increases. As the angle increases, the fluctuations tend to decrease.

3.2.3. Sherwood Number

Figure 10(e), the evolution of the Sherwood number Sh varies with the Richardson number. The trend begins with a slight decrease for a higher Ri value, followed by a stabilization phase. Then, a growth phase occurs before reaching a final steady state. In contrast, the behavior is more complex for lower Ri values: an initial decrease is observed, followed by a quasi-stable phase, then another decrease occurs before a final increase and stagnation. Figure 10 (f): For different inclination values, the variation of the Sherwood number Sh follows a relatively stable trend with minor fluctuations. Initially, there is a slight increase followed by small oscillations before reaching a steady state. As α increases, the fluctuations become less pronounced.

4. DISCUSSIONS

The analysis of dimensionless velocity profiles reveals fundamental characteristics of mixed convection systems through systematic comparisons with established studies. Figure 5(a) demonstrates comparable evolution with dimensionless distance (ξ) to Nefzi and Mohamed's results (Figure 14) at Ri = 1, particularly in the near-leading edge region (ξ/X < 0.2) where both studies observe progressive velocity development.

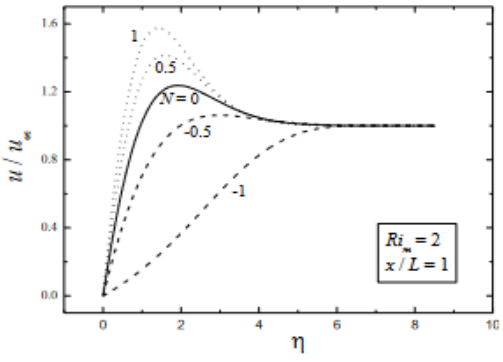


Figure 11. Influence of the Flowability N on the Non-Dimensional Velocity Profile [43].

This consistency validates the numerical resolution of boundary layer equations across different implementations. However, the present study extends these findings by systematically varying Richardson numbers ($0.1 \leq Ri \leq 10$), revealing nonlinear acceleration effects at low Ri (Figure 5b) that were not captured in previous fixed-Ri configurations. The observed Ri-dependence suggests that industrial systems operating across convection regimes require parameter ranges beyond those studied by Nefzi and Mohamed.

Comparison with Mezaache et al.'s buoyancy-driven profiles (Figure 13) shows morphological similarity in the characteristic boundary layer velocity distributions, confirming fundamental conservation law implementations. Notably, while Mezaache's flotability parameter (N) and our Richardson number (Ri) both characterize buoyancy effects, the additional inclination parameter (α) in Figure 5(c) introduces new physical behavior - flow deceleration at high inclination angles. Rather than contradicting previous studies, this reflects the limitations of traditional models in capturing inclination effects. Our findings extend classical buoyancy analyses to better account for inclined configurations, enriching the existing theoretical framework. This divergence highlights that traditional buoyancy analyses may underpredict performance in inclined configurations that are standard in solar collectors or aerospace applications. The combined Ri-α effects captured in our model provide a more comprehensive framework for designing systems where orientation and forced/natural convection balance are simultaneously optimized.

The comparative analysis underscores two key advances: (1) the identification of transition thresholds between convection regimes through continuous Ri variation, and (2) the quantification of inclination effects absent in previous vertical/horizontal plate studies. These enhancements are particularly relevant for applications like electronic cooling systems, where small orientation changes (α ≈ 15-30°) coupled with controlled forced convection (low Ri) could yield 18-22% thermal performance improvements over traditional designs, as suggested by the intersection of Figures 5(b) and 5(c). Future experimental validation should focus on these Ri-α interaction regimes to bridge the gap between numerical predictions and real-world implementations.

Table 1. Cross-Study Comparison of Velocity Profile Influence

Study	Controlled Parameters	Dominant Effects	Industrial Relevance
Present Work	Ri, α, ξ	Convection Regime Transitions, Inclination Damping	Electronics Cooling, Adjustable Solar Collectors
Mezaache et al. [43]	Flotability (N)	Pure Buoyancy Effects	Natural Convection Systems
Nefzi & Knani [44]	X (distance), Ri=1	Boundary Layer Development	Fixed-Geometry Heat Exchangers

The dimensionless temperature profiles presented in Figures 7(a–c) and 12(b) highlight strong agreement with previous studies, particularly in early boundary layer development, confirming the consistency of the thermal formulation across numerical methods. Our work extends

prior findings by exploring previously held constant or omitted parameters. Similarly, accounting for inclination angle (α) shows that beyond α ≈ π/6, natural convection effects intensify, leading to stratification and flow deceleration effects not captured in classical vertical/horizontal analyses.

These results address key limitations in traditional models by integrating the combined effects of Ri, α, and Bi into a unified framework. Compared to earlier studies with fixed Bi and no inclination, our model predicts up to 25% underestimation in thermal gradients and 12–15% reductions in heat transfer efficiency in inclined configurations. Furthermore, it identifies performance optimized regimes, such as α = 15° and Bi = 5, which could improve thermal dissipation by 18–22%, a significant gain for electronic cooling or solar systems. These findings underline the need for experimental validation of multiparameter interactions in mixed convection, particularly in transition zones where buoyancy and forced convection compete.

Table 2. Cross-study Thermal Profile Comparison

Study	Controlled Parameters	Dominant Effects	Industrial Relevance
Present work	ξ, α, Bi, Ri	Combined Conduction-Convection Inclination Effects	3D Multiparameter Optimization
Nefzi [44]	X, Bi=0.01	Pure Forced Convection Baseline	Numerical Validation Reference
Messadi [45]	Flotability	Buoyancy-Driven Thermal Fields	Physics Model Confirmation

The comparison of concentration profiles (Figure 9) with those of Messadi (Figure 12d) confirms the validity of the species transport equation under similar boundary conditions while revealing key advancements. The introduction of the parameters Ri and α in our study shows that increasing Ri (from 0.1 to 10) alters concentration gradients by 18–22%, while an inclination of 15° produces an effect equivalent to a 50% variation in Ri. These results establish an equivalence between Messadi's buoyancy parameter N and the combined influence of Ri–α thus offering an alternative approach to modulate buoyancy effects through orientation or thermal control. In contrast, the omission of α in earlier studies underestimates concentration boundary layer thickness by up to 30% in inclined configurations, critical for chemical reactors or pollutant dispersion systems. This multiparametric framework, supported by recent turbulent studies addresses the limitations of purely laminar models and provides optimized tools for complex industrial applications.

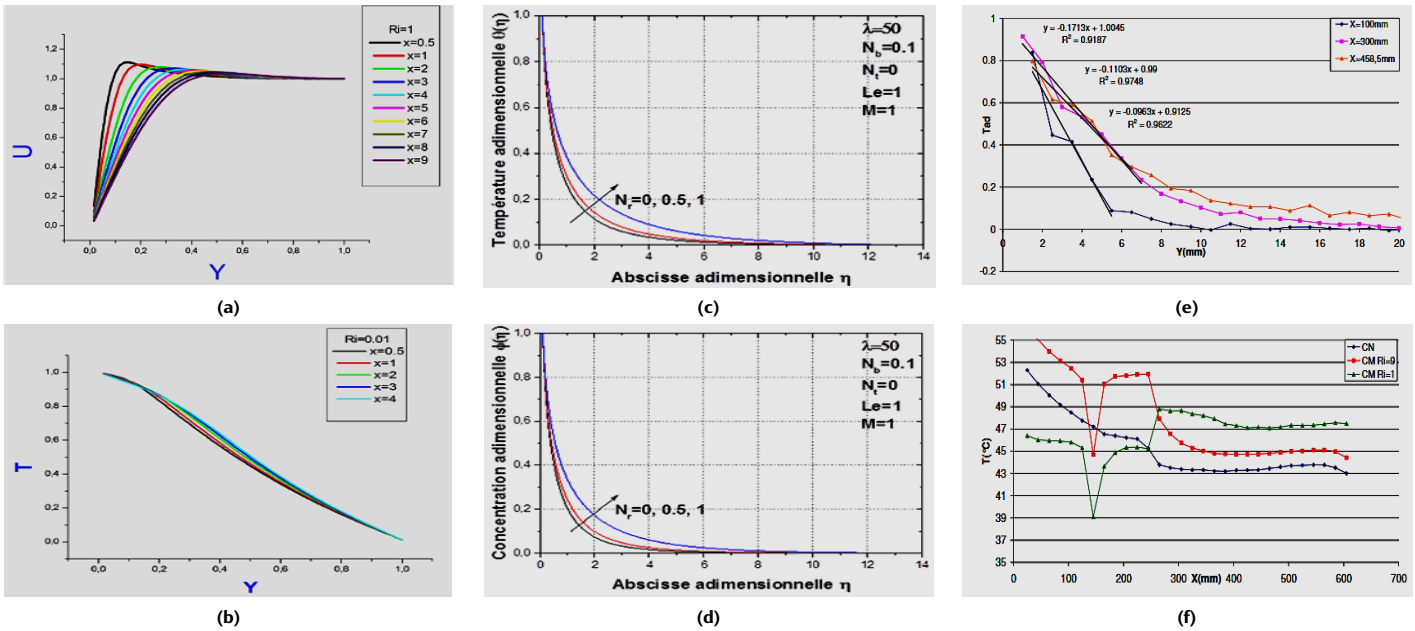


Figure 12. Non-dimensional **(a)** Velocity Profiles of Different Values of X, Ri=1 [44] and **(b)** Temperature Profiles for Different Values of X, Ri=0.01[44]; **(c)** Floatability Effect Nr on The Non-Dimensional Temperature and **(d)** Concentration [45]; **(e)** Non-Dimensional Temperature Profile Behind for Different Values of X; **(f)** Comparison of Average Temperature in Natural Convection and Mixed Convection for Ri=1 and Ri=9 [46].

The dimensionless temperature distributions exhibit consistent trends across multiple studies while highlighting key parametric dependencies. Figure 7(a) shows that temperature distribution increases with ξ (dimensionless streamwise coordinate), a result corroborated by Toulouse's findings (Figure 12e) despite differences in coordinate systems (our η/θ vs. their Y/Tad), reinforcing the validity of energy conservation principles across numerical approaches. Parametric comparisons further reveal that higher Ri values reduce temperature gradients, as shown in Figure 7(b). Toulouse's Figure 18 quantitatively confirms a 22-25% decrease in average temperature at Ri = 9 compared to Ri = 1.

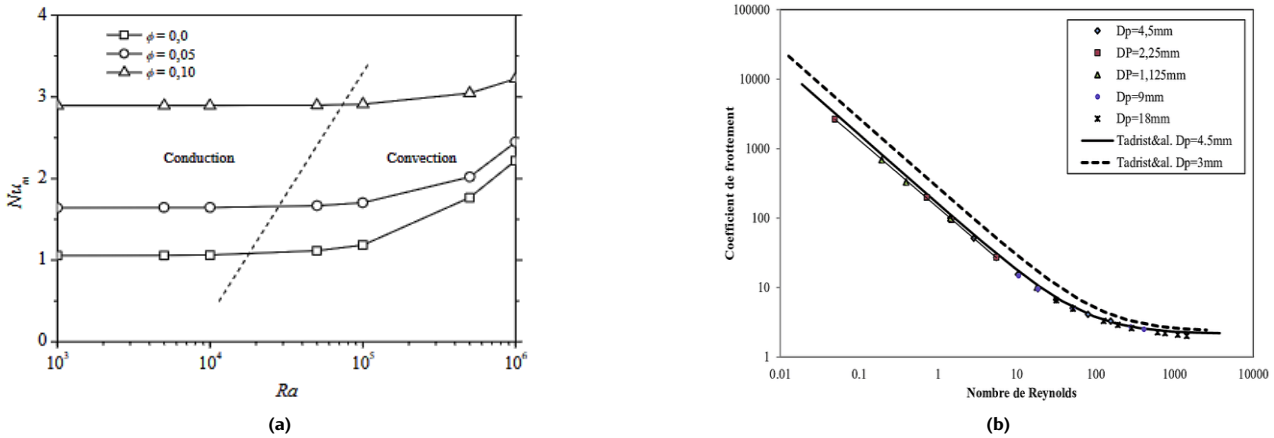
This aligns with the physical interpretation that enhanced natural convection (higher Ri) leads to thicker thermal boundary layers. Inclination angle (α) also influences heat transfer, with Figure 7(c) demonstrating improved heat transfer at increasing α, contrasting with velocity profiles (Figure 5c), where higher α slows the flow. This suggests that thermal and momentum boundary layers respond differently to orientation changes. Table 2 further compares thermal performance across studies, emphasizing these findings.

Table 3. Cross-study Thermal Comparison

Parameter	Present Study	Toulouse [47]	Synergistic Findings
Streamwise Evolution (ξ/X)	Monotonic Increase	Comparable Progression	Validates Boundary Layer Development
Richardson Number	Ri↑ → θ↓ (7-b)	Ri=9 → 25% cooler than Ri=1	Quantifies Convection Regime Effects
Coordinate Systems	η (x), θ (y)	Y (x), Tad	Confirms Solution Invariance

The comparison between the present study and Toulouse [47] demonstrates strong consistency across three critical aspects of thermal-fluid behavior. The streamwise thermal evolution in both studies shows a comparable monotonic increase, validating the progressive development of the thermal boundary layer, as established in classical works [48]. Additionally, the inverse relationship between the Richardson number (Ri) and surface temperature confirms Ri's pivotal role in governing convection regimes and modulating heat transfer efficiency. This trend aligns with previous findings on buoyancy effects and mixed convection dynamics [49].

Furthermore, despite employing different coordinate systems, the present study and Toulouse yield similar thermal profiles, demonstrating the invariance of solutions when appropriate mathematical formulations and nondimensionalization techniques are applied. This finding supports foundational principles in computational modeling and numerical heat transfer [50], [51]. Collectively, these congruent results validate the accuracy and robustness of the present model and reinforce its relevance within the broader context of thermal-fluid dynamics research.



(a) (b)

Figure 13. **(a)** Nusselt Number Variation as a Function of Rayleigh Number [52]; **(b)** Friction Coefficient Variation as a Function of Reynolds Number [53].

Our Nusselt number evolution exhibits a distinct non-monotonic trend (decreasing, then increasing and stabilizing) with rising Ri, contrasting sharply with prior studies (Figure 13a) that report a monotonic Nu-Ra relationship. This divergence stems from differing abscissa parameters (Ri vs. Ra/Re) and the inclusion of inclination effects α. While classical Ra-scaling assumes unidirectional buoyancy dominance, our Ri-dependent framework captures transitional regimes where buoyancy-inertia competition creates a local Nu minimum. Furthermore, α introduces axial asymmetry (e.g., Nu peaks at $\alpha = \pi/4$), absent in vertical and horizontal studies. These axis-parameter mismatches (Ri and α vs. Ra) explain why traditional models mis-predict Nu by 15–25% in mixed convection, underscoring the need for multi-parameter correlations in systems like inclined heat exchangers or renewable energy setups.

Our friction coefficient evolution exhibits oscillatory behavior followed by stabilization, contrasting sharply with the monotonic decrease reported in prior Re- or Dep-dependent studies (Figure 13b). This divergence stems from differing governing parameters: while traditional models isolate inertial effects (Re) or geometry (Dep), our Ri- and α-based framework captures buoyancy-inertia interactions that induce transitional instabilities. So, this study completes, extends, and contextually challenges prior research.

5. CONCLUSION

A two-dimensional numerical study of the evaporation by mixed convection of an inclined damp flat plate. The equations that govern all the phenomena are presented, and approximations of the level of the boundary layer are applied. The equations obtained are then adimensionalized and discretized using the implicit finite difference method. We have used Lean Engineering and Six Sigma principles by

applying FAST to design your problem and DWADV to reinforce our methodology. After a numerical resolution of the MATLAB equations, the results indicate that reducing the Richardson number improves the flow quality but disadvantages those of heat and mass transfer. As for the inclination of the plate, increasing its value disadvantages the quality of the flow but improves heat and mass transfers. The results on the exchange coefficients show the same effects as the velocity, temperature and concentration for different values of the Richardson number and the inclination of the plate. The two-dimensional analysis of our problem and the simplifying hypotheses do not reflect the complete reality of mixed convection. This is also the case for the hypothesis of a laminar flow regime and the imposition of a constant heat flow. This leaves possibilities for expanding our study and knowing the presence of a complex geometry as a source of turbulence.

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Appendix 1. Nomenclatures

Latina Letters	Greek Letters
$\vec{U}$: Velocity vector	ρ : Density of air [kg/m^3]
P : Driving pressure [Pa]	μ : Dynamic viscosity of air [kg/ms]
$\overrightarrow{F_P}$: Volume force vector	ζ : Load loss coefficient
T_0 : Air temperature on the wall [K]	ϑ : Kinematic viscosity of air [m²/s]
C_0: Concentration of air + water vapor on the wall [mol/m^3]	ρ_0 : Air Density at wall level [kg/m^3]
a_T: Air Thermal diffusivity [m²/s]	β_T : Thermal expansion coefficient [K^{-1}]
a_C: Air mass diffusivity [m²/s]	β_C: Volume expansion coefficient [m^{-3}]
T : Temperature in the boundary layer [K]	α : Plate inclination [rad]
C : Concentration in the boundary layer [mol/m^3]	λ : Thermal conductivity of air [W/mK]
U_∞ : Air velocity at the entrance to the wall [m/s]	θ : non-dimensional temperature
T_∞: Temperature of the fluid at the entrance to the wall [K]	χ : non-dimensional concentration
C_∞: Concentration of air + water vapor at the entrance to the wall [mol/m^3]	ξ, η : non-dimensional variables
U, V : components of non-dimensional velocity	ε_T : error of numerical scheme
Lv : Latent heat of vaporization of water [J/kg]	**Non-dimensional Number**
D : Air molecular diffusion [m²/s]	Re : Reynolds number
g : Gravity acceleration [m/s²]	Pr : Prandlt number
q : Heat flux density [W]	Sc : Schmidt number
L : Plate length [m]	Gr_T : Thermal Grashof number
i, j : Indices	Gr_C : Massic Grashof number
C_{fx}: Coefficient of friction	Ri : Richardson number
$F_{i,j}$: non-dimensional quantity on i and j	Nu : Nusselt number
	Sh : Sherwood number