

1 Bridging the gap across scales: coupling CFD and MD/GCMC in polyurethane foam 2 simulation

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11 **Abstract:**

12 This work presents a multi-scale approach to reacting and expanding polyurethane (PU) foams modeling
13 and simulation. The modeling strategy relies on two pillars: an atomistic model (molecular dynamics
14 (MD)/Grand Canonical Monte Carlo (GCMC)) that provides liquid mixture density and reactant solubility
15 and a continuum model (CFD) in which the expansion characteristics of the foam is modeled exploiting
16 the results of the atomistic simulations. The resulting coupled model is validated for two different PU
17 systems applied in four batches with chemical and physical blowing agents. The results demonstrate the
18 efficacy and reliability of the developed model in the simulation of different PU foam properties such as
19 apparent density and temperature evolutions.

20 **Keywords:** Multi-scale Modeling; Polyurethane; Computational Fluid Dynamics; Molecular
21 Dynamics/Grand Canonical Monte Carlo; Surrogate Model

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22 **1. Introduction**

23 Polyurethane (PU) foams are interesting materials employed in furniture, construction and automotive
24 industries, just to cite a few, and represent an important share of the global polymer materials market
25 (Mills, 1993; Princen and Kiss, 1986; Woods, 1990). PU are manufactured by mixing the two main PU
26 components (i.e., a mixture of polyols and isocyanates) with additives. These include catalysts (to tune
27 polymerization rate) and emulsifiers (to improve reactant compatibility). To generate gas bubbles
28 leading to foam, physical and chemical blowing agents are employed. Physical blowing agents (PBAs) are
29 volatile hydrocarbons that evaporate by virtue of the exothermicity of the polymerization reaction. On
30 the other hand, the mechanism of action of chemical blowing agents (CBAs) is based on their reaction
31 with the polymerization mixture, and ultimately results in gas production. One of the most popular CBAs
32 is water, which reacts with isocyanates to produce carbon dioxide leading to the foam expansion.

33 Modeling and simulation of a PU foam expansion process is particularly interesting because, being a
34 rapidly time-evolving system, it is very difficult to characterize experimentally. A model describing PU
35 foam expansion, especially for mold filling applications, could be profitably used in the design and
36 optimization of such processes. On the other hand, the scientific modeling community faces a complex
37 multiphase-reacting system in which various physical phenomena encompassing a wide range of length
38 scales take place. This deters scientists to face the problem as a unified challenge, while the current,
39 practical approach is tackling the problem at each single scale (e.g., nano-, meso-, and macro-scale
40 models). Additionally, the final properties of the manufactured PU foam highly depend on the adopted
41 chemical recipe (i.e., polyol, isocyanate, and blowing agents structure and concentrations) and the flow
42 history of the foam when it is applied for mold filling applications. This, in turn, requires the knowledge
43 of fundamental thermophysical properties of different components (e.g., the density of polymerizing
44 mixture) prior and during foam expansion for large-scale applications. Accordingly, the problem is
45 inherently multiscale and, as such, a multi-model approach must be devised and applied.

46 A review of the current literature on the bubble-scale modeling tools for PU shows that one crucial
47 point consists in correctly describing how an individual spherical bubble grows within a shell of the
48 reacting mixture. Mass and momentum balances are routinely solved to assess the evolution of bubble
49 radius while the mass transfer coefficient is considered as a model parameter (Feng and Bertelo, 2004;
50 G. Harikrishnan et al., 2006; Harikrishnan and Khakhar, 2009; Kim and Youn, 2000). Furthermore, the
51 macro-scale characteristics of PU foams are generally modeled by solving either ordinary differential
52 equations (ODEs) or partial differential equations (PDEs). The former approach describes the foam
53 apparent density, temperature, and polymerization progress (i.e., the gelling and blowing reactions)
54 with respect to reaction kinetics (S. A. Baser and Khakhar, 1994; S A Baser and Khakhar, 1994; Gupta and
55 Khakhar, 1999). Along the alternative line, Computational Fluid Dynamics (CFD) is applied to account for
56 spatial and temporal variation of the foam properties. This last method has proven to be more attractive
57 for mold filling applications, as the foam mobile interface can be monitored using the Volume-of-Fluid
58 (VOF) approach (Bikard et al., 2005; Geier et al., 2009; Samkhaniani et al., 2013; Seo et al., 2003; Seo
59 and Youn, 2005).

60 From a general perspective, to model PU-based systems we recently developed NANOTOOLS, an
61 integrated, multiscale molecular modeling software for the prediction of major structural and
62 thermophysical properties of this class of polymers and their nanocomposites (Ferkl et al., 2017; Laurini
63 et al., 2016). Specifically, a hierarchical approach was implemented, which involves running separate
64 models with a parametric coupling, with the ultimate goal of predicting the system under consideration
65 from first principles, i.e. starting from the quantum scale and passing information to molecular scales
66 and eventually to process scales. According to this sequential (aka message-passing) methodology,
67 information is computed at a smaller (finer) scale and passed to a model at a larger (coarser) scale by
68 leaving out (i.e. coarse graining) degrees of freedom (P Cosoli et al., 2008a; Fermeglia and Pricl, 2007;
69 Laurini et al., 2016; Scocchi et al., 2009, 2007a, 2007b; Toth et al., 2012). On the macro-scale level, we

70 presented a base line model that corroborates the lack of population balance modeling for a reactive-
71 expanding PU foam (Karimi and Marchisio, 2015). This has paved our way to implement a population
72 balance equation (PBE) into a CFD solver and introduce a new VOF-based solver, coupled with PBE, for
73 modeling and simulation of PU foams (Karimi et al., 2016). The results we obtained from the validation
74 tests showed that by solving a PBE, one can extract practical information about the foam apparent
75 density and its morphological structure. This, however, comes with the cost of compromising some
76 physical phenomena occurring during the foam expansion, e.g., empirically driven correlations or
77 constant values represent the characteristics of the system under investigation. For instance, we applied
78 a simplified diffusion controlled model for the bubble growth rates. However, later we addressed this by
79 coupling a detailed bubble-scale model with the macro-scale CFD code and showed the benefits of
80 applying a multiscale approach on the accuracy of the numerical predictions (Ferkl et al., 2016).

81 The present work also follows the same philosophy outlined above. Yet, for the first time in the
82 investigation of PU foams expansion, a macro-scale CFD model is coupled with nano-scale atomistic
83 models. The macro-scale CFD model requires in fact three pieces of information: the density of the
84 liquid mixture undergoing polymerization (prior to foaming), the solubility of chemical blowing agents
85 (in the liquid mixture undergoing polymerization) and the solubility of PBA varying with temperature
86 and degree of polymerization (or cross-linking). Accordingly, instead of using empirical and unreliable
87 expressions for the estimation of these quantities, here the nano-scale model is employed. In particular,
88 molecular dynamics (MD) simulations are run to calculate the density of the networking polymer (Ferkl
89 et al., 2017; Laurini et al., 2016; Maly et al., 2008) while Grand Canonical Monte Carlo (GCMC) are
90 carried out to predict the different gases solubility as a function of temperature and degree of cross-
91 linking (P Cosoli et al., 2008a, 2008b; Paolo Cosoli et al., 2008; Pricl and Fermeglia, 2003). The final
92 macro-scale CFD model predictions, calculated in turn by using results from the underpinning nano-scale
93 models, are validated against experimental data for density and temperature time evolutions for

94 different test cases. The comparison shows that multiscale modeling is an extremely interesting
95 technique for the simulation of PU foams, as it allows to describe them without the need of performing
96 costly experiments. In fact, the most important properties affecting the final behavior of the PU foam
97 are here calculated rather than measured. This is particularly important since not only some properties
98 are difficult to measure, but some others are impossible to obtain experimentally in a rapidly evolving
99 reacting system such as this one.

100 **2. Mathematical Models**

101 In what follows the nano- and macro-scale models will be presented. Details concerning the specific
102 chemical systems investigated will also be summarized in this section, as they are required to lay down
103 the nano-scale models. In the next two sections the models employed to describe a generic PU foam will
104 be outlined. This generic PU foam is prepared by mixing polyols and isocyanates with water, producing
105 carbon dioxide (i.e. chemical blowing agent), and a physical blowing agent. In this work, simulations are
106 performed for two different PU recipes (labelled as Recipe 1 and Recipe 2) applied in four different PU
107 foam batches (a to d). Recipe 1 includes a polyether polyol with an OH value = 365 mg KOH/g polyol, and
108 polymethylene polyphenyl isocyanate with an equivalent molecular weight of 135 (Baser, 1994). Recipe
109 2 includes a mixture of different polyols with OH value = 370 mg KOH/g polyol and a mixture of MDI
110 (4,4'-methylene diphenyl diisocyanate) and TDI (toluene-2,4-diisocyanate)(Geier et al., 2009). Water is
111 used in Recipe 1 as the CBA, whereas n-pentane acts as PBA in Recipe 2. The nano-scale model
112 calculates the density of the liquid mixture undergoing polymerization and the solubility of the physical
113 and chemical blowing agents at different degrees of polymerization or cross-linking and different
114 temperatures. These pieces of information are then fed to surrogate models that fit the MD/GCMC
115 generated data into algebraic expressions, and eventually passed to the macro-scale model that
116 simulates the PU foam.

117 The rationale behind this strategy is that the direct and dynamic coupling between the macro-scale and
118 nano-scale models is not viable due to the final application of the CFD model that is simulating a three-
119 dimensional mold geometry. In other words, calling the detailed nano-scale models for all the cells of
120 the CFD domain under different state variables (e.g., temperature and conversion of reactants)
121 extensively increases the computational load. Hence, one must design a communication bridge between
122 the two scales, where not only passing the data from lower-scale to the higher-scale is appreciably fast,
123 but it also supplies accurate approximations of the macro-scale requirements. With the adoption of
124 surrogate models, the macro-scale inputs are wrapped into different surrogate models with parameters
125 being statically fitted to the detailed simulations and the form of surrogate models are limited to explicit
126 algebraic expressions.

127 **2.1. Nano-scale MD/GCMC models**

128 To mimic the composition of Recipe 1, the polymethylene polyphenyl isocyanate was modeled as a
129 trimer of formula $[-C_6H_3(NCO)CH_2-]_n$ with $n = 3$ while, for the polyol, a glycerin/polypropylene oxide-
130 based polyol model with ideal functionality of 3 and molecular weight of 614 was prepared. For Recipe
131 2, while the same polyol was adopted, the two models of 4, 4'-methylene diphenyl diisocyanate (MDI)
132 and toluene-2, 4-diisocyanate (TDI) were prepared. The geometry of each molecular model was
133 optimized by energy minimization using the COMPASS force field (Sun, 1998), which proved to be
134 extremely accurate in the prediction of thermophysical properties of both condensed and gas phase
135 systems (P Cosoli et al., 2008a, 2008b, Fermeglia and Pricl, 1999a, 1999b, 1999c; Laurini et al., 2016;
136 Mensitieri et al., 2008; Milocco et al., 2002; Pricl and Fermeglia, 2003; Toth et al., 2012). Carbon dioxide
137 and n-pentane optimized molecules were taken from our previous work. For both recipes, the initial
138 liquid mixture was created by placing the suitable amount of each reagent in a 3D cubic box under
139 periodic boundary conditions. Each resulting simulation box was relaxed and equilibrated at the
140 corresponding initial density value at 300 K by 1 ns of MD simulations in the NVT ensemble. For the

141 calculation of polymer density as a function of temperature and degree of cross-linking, an adapted
142 version of our original methodology to generate atomistic models of cross-linked networks based on
143 molecular mechanics/dynamics schemes was adopted (Maly et al., 2008). The calculation of polymer
144 density at each condition was performed by applying the compression-decompression MD scheme
145 proposed by Larsen (Larsen et al., 2011). For the calculation of gas solubility, the following methodology
146 was applied. For each temperature/degree of cross-linking couple, an equilibrated frame from the
147 corresponding MD simulation was extracted. Next, the appropriate gas molecules were added to the
148 simulation box and the resulting system was relaxed from major molecular overlaps. Next, GCMC
149 simulations were performed at 1 bar following the computational recipe reported in details in our
150 previous work (P Cosoli et al., 2008a, 2008b; Paolo Cosoli et al., 2008; Pricl and Fermeiglia, 2003).

151 **2.2. Macro-scale CFD model**

152 The macro-scale CFD model assumes that the polyurethane foam is a perfectly homogenous mixture of
153 initial reactants. Moreover, within the VOF method the PU foam is treated, as a pseudo-fluid interacting
154 with surrounding air. Actually, the real three-phase system (i.e., the surrounding air, the polymerizing
155 liquid, and the gas bubbles within the liquid) is represented as a two-phase system, i.e., the surrounding
156 air as the primary phase and liquid mixture plus air bubbles as the secondary phase. The interface
157 capturing method applies an indicator function to differentiate the foam phase from the surrounding
158 air. The interface is basically a transition region and in reality this region is a discontinuous step where
159 its value is unity in the foam phase and zero for the surrounding air. The indicator function is the volume
160 fraction of the foam, α_f , and it obeys the continuity equation with the following form:

$$\frac{\partial \alpha_f}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\alpha_f \mathbf{U}) = 0 \quad \text{Eq. 1}$$

161 where \mathbf{U} is the mixture velocity shared between the phases and the summation of volume fractions in
 162 each computational cell is unity (i.e., $\alpha_f + \alpha_g = 1$). Using such an approach results in the local density of
 163 the mixture to be $\rho = \alpha_f \rho_f + (1 - \alpha_f) \rho_a$. An explicit scheme is applied for the discretization of volume
 164 fraction equation in conjunction with the CICSAM (Compressive Interface Capturing Scheme for
 165 Arbitrary Meshes) scheme to produce a sharp interface. Further details on the derivation of CICSAM
 166 interface capturing scheme is reported elsewhere (Ubbink, 1997). The model is completed by a
 167 momentum balance equation, which is omitted here for the sake of brevity, but is formulated following
 168 the standard VOF model structure.

169 The kinetics of polymerization is accounted for by using two additional transport equations. The first one
 170 considers the gelling reaction (i.e., the reaction between isocyanates and polyols) by evaluating the
 171 conversion of the hydroxyl group, X_{OH} :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\alpha_f \rho_f X_{OH}) + \nabla \cdot (\alpha_f \rho_f X_{OH} \mathbf{U}) = \alpha_f \rho_f S_{OH} \quad \text{Eq. 2}$$

172 The source term for Eq. 2 reads as:

173

$$S_{OH} = A_{OH} \exp\left(-\frac{E_{OH}}{RT}\right) c_{OH,0} (1 - X_{OH}) \left(\frac{c_{NCO,0}}{c_{OH,0}} - 2 \frac{c_{W,0}}{c_{OH,0}} X_W - X_{OH}\right) \quad \text{Eq. 3}$$

174 where A_{OH} and E_{OH} are the pre-exponential factor and the activation energy for the gelling reaction,
 175 respectively. The initial molar concentration of the polyol reactive groups is defined as $c_{OH,0}$, the initial
 176 molar concentration of isocyanate groups is $c_{NCO,0}$ and finally the initial molar concentration of water is
 177 $c_{W,0}$. R is the universal gas constant and T is the absolute temperature of the system.

178 The progress of the reaction between isocyanate and water to produce CO_2 (i.e., the blowing reaction),
 179 is monitored by the conversion of water, X_W :

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\alpha_f \rho_f X_W) + \nabla \cdot (\alpha_f \rho_f X_W \mathbf{U}) = \alpha_f \rho_f S_W \quad \text{Eq. 4}$$

180 The source term for the blowing reaction is written in Eq. 5 where, in analogy with Eq. 3, A_W , and E_W
 181 are the pre-exponential factor and the activation energy for the blowing reaction, respectively.

$$S_W = A_W \exp\left(-\frac{E_W}{RT}\right)(1 - X_W) \quad \text{Eq. 5}$$

182 Additionally, the macro-scale CFD model should account for the amount of gas, L_{gas} , generated by the
 183 evaporation of the physical blowing agent. The variable L_{gas} represents the mass fraction of physical
 184 blowing agent with respect to the reacting liquid of the foam and it is obtained by solving Eq. 6,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}(\alpha_f \rho_f L_{gas}) + \nabla \cdot (\alpha_f \rho_f L_{gas} \mathbf{U}) = \alpha_f \rho_f S_{BA} \quad \text{Eq. 6}$$

185 where the source term is expressed as:

$$S_{BA} = \begin{cases} \frac{dL_{gas}}{dt} = \frac{dL_{gas}}{dT} \frac{dT}{dt} + \frac{dL_{gas}}{dp} \frac{dp}{dt} & \text{if } L_0 \geq L_{max}(p, T) \\ \frac{dL_{gas}}{dt} = 0 & \text{if } L_0 < L_{max}(p, T) \end{cases} \quad \text{Eq. 7}$$

186 where L_0 is the mass fraction of physical blowing agent in the liquid of foam before foaming. It is worth
 187 noting that the pressure changes with time is insignificant. Also, another simplifying assumption is that
 188 the process is controlled by kinetics and the bubble scale phenomena such as nucleation and species
 189 diffusion are not included in the modeling framework. In other words, the initial amount of blowing
 190 agent is soluble in the reacting mixture and it immediately evaporates once it reaches the
 191 supersaturated concentration in the mixture. This could be remedied by integrating a meso-scale model
 192 for bubbles growth due to evaporation of blowing agents into this modeling platform, an example of
 193 such an approach is presented elsewhere (Ferkl et al., 2016).

194 In order to close Eq. 6 and Eq. 7, the functional form of the solubility of the physical blowing agent in
 195 the liquid mixture should be clarified (i.e., $L_{max} = f(p, T)$). In our previous works (Ferkl et al., 2016;
 196 Karimi and Marchisio, 2015), we applied empirical correlations to relate the solubility to the absolute
 197 temperature of the system. However, in the current work surrogate models obtained from molecular
 198 dynamics data replace this assumption.

199 Moreover, the temperature evolution of the foam due to the endothermic and exothermic reactions is
 200 calculated by solving the following equation:

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (T\mathbf{U}) - \nabla^2(\bar{\alpha}T) \\ & = \frac{\alpha_f}{\rho_{PU}c_f} \left[-\Delta H_W c_{W,0} \frac{DX_W}{Dt} - \Delta H_{OH} c_{OH,0} \frac{DX_{OH}}{Dt} + \rho_{PU} \Lambda \frac{DL_{gas}}{Dt} \right] \end{aligned} \quad \text{Eq. 8}$$

201 In Eq. 8, $\bar{\alpha}$ is the thermal diffusivity adopted from (Geier et al., 2009). ΔH_W and ΔH_{OH} are the heat of
 202 reactions for the gelling and blowing reactions, Λ is the latent heat of the evaporation of physical
 203 blowing agent, c_f is the specific heat of the PU foam, and ρ_{PU} is the density of reaction mixture.

204 Knowing the kinetics of reactions and the absolute temperature, the PU foam density evolution can be
 205 formulated depending on the amount of different gases being produced due to the blowing reaction
 206 and evaporation of the physical blowing agent:

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_f & = (1 + x_{W,0} + L_0) \\ & \times \left[\left(\frac{x_{W,0} X_W M_{CO_2}}{\rho_{PU}} - X_{eq}^{CO_2} \right) \frac{RT}{p M_{CO_2}} + \frac{(1 - X_W) x_{W,0}}{\rho_W} + \frac{L_{gas} RT}{p M_{BA}} \right. \\ & \left. + \frac{(L_0 - L_{gas})}{\rho_{BA}} + \frac{1}{\rho_{PU}} \right]^{-1} \end{aligned} \quad \text{Eq. 9}$$

207 Initial weight fractions of water and PBA in Eq. 9 are denoted as $x_{W,0}$, and L_0 , whereas their molecular
 208 weights are M_{H_2O} and M_{BA} , respectively and M_{CO_2} is the molecular weight of carbon dioxide. The term
 209 p is the system pressure and ρ_{BA} defines the density of the physical blowing agent in the liquid. Finally,
 210 $X_{eq}^{CO_2}$ indicates the equilibrium weight fraction of carbon dioxide in the liquid mixture. Eq. 9 contains
 211 two properties that can be accurately estimated by using MD data. Specifically, the equilibrium weight
 212 fraction of carbon dioxide in the liquid mixture ($X_{eq}^{CO_2}$) and the density of the reacting mixture (ρ_{PU}),
 213 which were previously assumed to be constant, can be estimated by molecular simulations. However, as
 214 already mentioned above, in this work we adopt a more sophisticated approach by further deriving the
 215 dependence of these two quantities on temperature and degree of cross-linking via computational
 216 chemistry.

217 The macro-scale model is also equipped with a non-Newtonian rheology model based on the Bird-
 218 Carreau equation (Byron Bird and Carreau, 1968). In the present formulation, the dependency of the
 219 foam apparent viscosity on temperature, conversion of hydroxyl group, and shear rate ($\dot{\gamma}$) is accounted
 220 for as:

$$\mu_{app} = \mu_{\infty} + (\mu_0 - \mu_{\infty}) [1 + (\lambda \dot{\gamma})^2]^{\frac{n-1}{2}} \quad \text{Eq. 10}$$

221 The zero-shear (μ_0) and the infinite-shear (μ_{∞}) foam viscosities are represented as:

$$\mu_0 = \left[\ln(d + X_{OH}) - \ln(d) + \left(\frac{X_{OH,gel}}{X_{OH,gel} - X_{OH}} \right)^{a+bX_{OH}+cX_{OH}^2} \right] \mu_{0,L} \quad \text{Eq. 11}$$

$$\mu_{\infty} = \left[\ln(d + X_{OH}) - \ln(d) + \left(\frac{X_{OH,gel}}{X_{OH,gel} - X_{OH}} \right)^{a+bX_{OH}+cX_{OH}^2} \right] \mu_{\infty,L} \quad \text{Eq. 12}$$

222 where $X_{OH,gel}$ is the gelling point and the model parameter values are: $a = 1.5$, $b = 1.0$, $c = 0.0$, $d =$
 223 0.001 , $\lambda = 11.35$, $n = 0.2$, $\mu_{0,L} = 0.195$, and $\mu_{\infty,L} = 0.266$, respectively. These model constants are
 224 here taken from previous empirical works in this area (Winkler, 2009). Also for the calculation of these
 225 parameters a multiscale modeling approach could be formulated. This is the focus of our current work
 226 and will be reported in future communications.

227 3. Scale coupling, test cases and operating conditions

228 Figure 1 and Figure 2 together with Table 1 and Table 2 summarize the MD data, the surrogate models
 229 and the relevant parameter values obtained for the first chemical recipe.

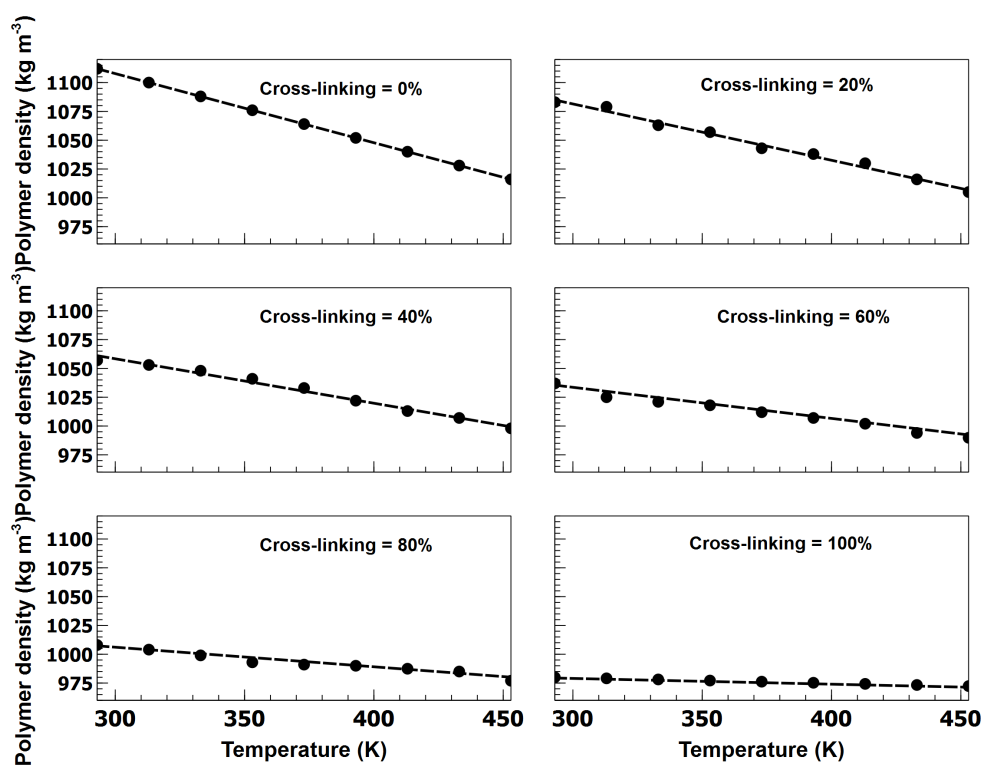


Figure 1. Molecular dynamics data (symbols) and relevant surrogate models implemented in the CDF code (dotted lines) for polymer density based on molecular dynamics data under different degree of PU cross-linking.

Cross linking (%)	Surrogate model	Model constants
0	$\rho_{PU} = a \times T + b$	$a = -0.6, \quad b = 1287.8$
20		$a = -0.5, \quad b = 1228.1$
40		$a = -0.4, \quad b = 1174.1$
60		$a = -0.3, \quad b = 1114.6$
80		$a = -0.2, \quad b = 1057.1$
100		$a = -0.05, \quad b = 994.0$

Table 1. Surrogate model and relevant parameters for polymer density at different degree of PU cross-linking.

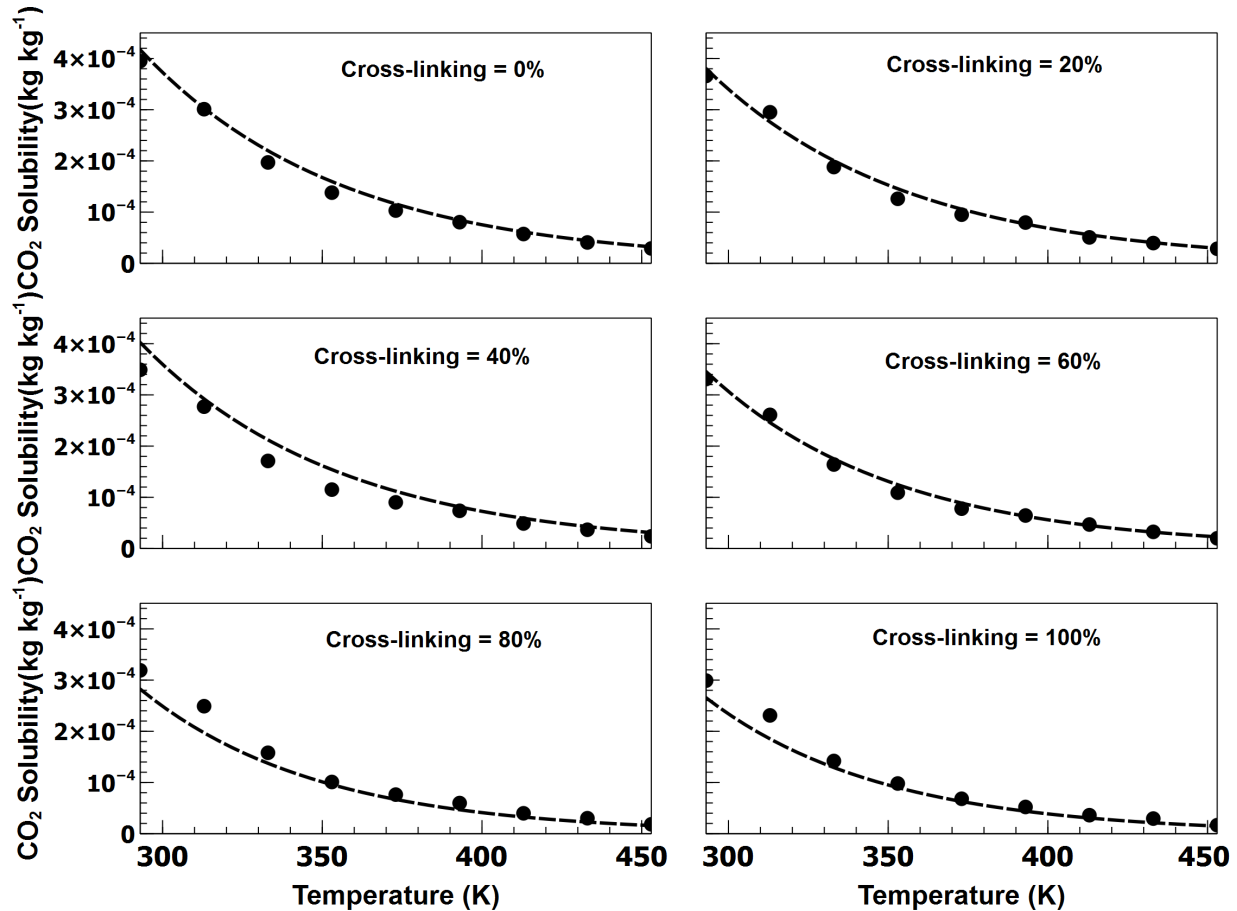


Figure 2. Molecular dynamics data (symbols) and relevant surrogate models (dotted lines) implemented in the CFD code for solubility of carbon dioxide based on molecular dynamics data under different degree of PU cross-linking.

Cross linking (%)	Surrogate model	Model constants
0	$X_{eq}^{CO_2} = a \times \exp(-bT)$	$a = 0.0453, \quad b = 0.016$
20		$a = 0.0413, \quad b = 0.016$
40		$a = 0.0437, \quad b = 0.016$
60		$a = 0.0503, \quad b = 0.017$
80		$a = 0.0551, \quad b = 0.018$
100		$a = 0.0518, \quad b = 0.018$

Table 2. Surrogate model and relevant parameters for solubility of carbon dioxide at different degree of PU cross-linking.

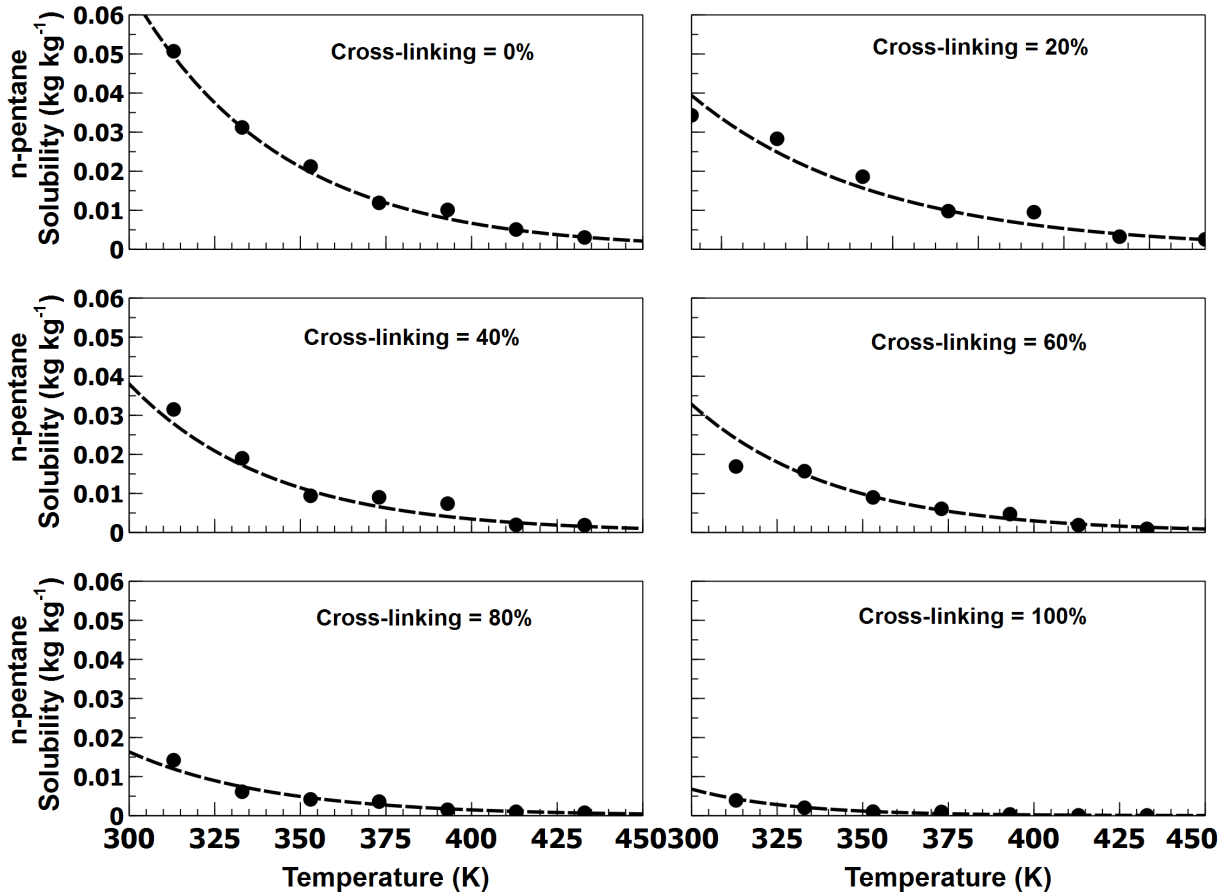
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231 As can be seen from Figures 1 and 2, MD simulations predict that both the density of the polymerizing
232 mixture and the solubility of carbon dioxide in the reacting mixture decrease with increasing
233 temperature and degree of cross-linking, as somewhat expected.

234 The second recipe includes both CBA and PBA. In this case, water and n-pentane cause the foam to
235 expand due to the concomitant generation of carbon dioxide and the evaporation of physical blowing
236 agent. Therefore, besides the solubility of CO₂, the solubility of n-pentane (L_{max} in Eq. 7), calculated
237 from the MD simulations for different temperatures and cross-linking levels, should be fed into the CFD
238 code via the relevant surrogate models. Figure 3 and Table 3 show the MD results, their fitting by
239 surrogate models, and the relevant model parameters for n-pentane at different degrees of PU
240 polymerization. Also in this case MD predictions are sensible and yield the expected qualitative
241 behavior. The paramount importance of these predictions, however, is that they provide quantitative
242 estimates whose accuracy will be discussed later when the comparison with experiment is presented.

243

244



245
 246 Figure 3. Molecular dynamics data and surrogate models for solubility of n-pentane based on molecular dynamics
 247 data under different degree of PU cross-linking. Symbols: MD data; dotted line: corresponding surrogate model
 248 implemented in the CFD code.

Cross linking (%)	Surrogate model	Model constants
0	$L_{max} = a \times \exp(-bT)$	$a = 66.089, \quad b = 0.023$
20		$a = 52.710, \quad b = 0.023$
40		$a = 50.942, \quad b = 0.024$
60		$a = 43.963, \quad b = 0.024$
80		$a = 21.878, \quad b = 0.024$
100		$a = 246.51, \quad b = 0.035$

249 Table 3. Surrogate model and relevant parameters for solubility of n-pentane at different degree of PU cross-
 250 linking.

251 The initial concentrations of different reactants and the kinetic properties for the different PU foam
 252 batches simulated in this work are described in Table 4 and 5.

Recipe	Batch	$c_{OH,0}$ (mol m ⁻³)	$c_{NCO,0}$ (mol m ⁻³)	$c_{W,0}$ (mol m ⁻³)	L_0 (kg kg ⁻¹)
1	a	4400	4400	305	-
	b	4400	4400	610	-
	c	4400	4400	915	-
2	d	5140	4455	671	0.057

Table 4. Summary of the initial conditions adopted for the 4 PU foam batches investigated.

Batch	A_{OH} (m ³ mol ⁻¹ s ⁻¹)	E_{OH} (J mol ⁻¹)	$-\Delta H_{OH}$ (J mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹)	A_W (s ⁻¹)	E_W (J mol ⁻¹)	$-\Delta H_W$ (J mol ⁻¹ K ⁻¹)
a - c	1.735	4.04×10 ⁴	7.07×10 ⁴	1390	3.37×10 ⁴	8.60×10 ⁴
d	1.0	3.15×10 ⁴	6.85×10 ⁴	1050	2.70×10 ⁴	8.15×10 ⁴

253 Table 5. Summary of the kinetics parameters for the 4 PU batches in Table 4.

254

255 The transient CFD simulations are carried out for the classical “mixing cup” experiment using ANSYS
 256 Fluent 15.0 VOF approach to handle the interface between the two phases. The cup is represented as a
 257 two-dimensional (2D) planar test case with structured meshes. The first 10% of computational domain is
 258 filled by the liquid mixture with the initial amount of gases (i.e., CO₂ and evaporated blowing agent) set
 259 to zero. These settings have been selected with a two-fold purpose: to mimic the experimental
 260 conditions adopted by Baser and Khakhar (S. A. Baser and Khakhar, 1994; S A Baser and Khakhar, 1994)
 261 and validate the foam density and temperature evolutions against their measurements. The pressure-
 262 outlet boundary condition is prescribed for the top part of the domain, while the other sides are
 263 assumed to be walls. Further, four additional User Defined Scalars (UDSs) are defined to evaluate the
 264 polymerization progress (i.e., Eq. 2, Eq. 4, and Eq. 6) and the temperature evolution (i.e., Eq. 8) of the
 265 foam phase. The corresponding source terms (i.e., Eq. 3, Eq. 5, Eq. 7, and Eq. 8) are also coded as User
 266 Defined Functions (UDFs). Moreover, the PU foam material properties such as density and apparent
 267 viscosity are calculated using the `DEFINE_PROPERTY` macro available in ANSYS Fluent. It is worth
 268 pointing out that the different surrogate models are incorporated into the UDF to evaluate the CFD
 269 requirements (i.e., density of reacting mixture, solubility of CO₂, and solubility of n-pentane) for

270 different temperature and cross-linking. A linear relationship between the degree of cross-linking and
271 conversion of the hydroxyl group, X_{OH} is assumed. In particular, we assume that when X_{OH} is equal to
272 zero also the degree of cross-linking is equal to 0%. When X_{OH} is instead equal to the maximum value,
273 corresponding to the gelling point (i.e. $X_{OH} = 0.6$), the degree of cross-linking is taken equal to 100%.
274 The surrogate model is therefore linearly interpolating between these minimum and maximum values.
275 The governing equations are discretized by using the first-order upwind discretization scheme, while
276 CICSAM is applied for the reconstruction of the interface between the foam and the surrounding air. The
277 convergence is determined by monitoring the residuals of continuity, velocities, and UDSs equations. A
278 converged solution is achieved when all the residuals fall below 1×10^{-3} .

279 **4. Results and discussion**

280 The final application of the multiscale simulation suite developed in this work was to monitor the PU
281 foam expansion during mold filling. Thus, the preliminary observation focused on how the model
282 handles foam expansion. Figure 4 displays the volume fraction of surrounding air at four different time
283 instants. The simulation represents batch d in Table 4, including n-pentane as PBA and water as CBA. As
284 explained in the previous section, the first 10% of beaker is filled with the foam phase at the beginning
285 of simulation (see Figure 4 at time = 1s). At the second time instance, when the blowing reaction results
286 in the production of carbon dioxide, foam expansion begins. By increasing temperature, n-pentane
287 reaches its equilibrium value and contributes to foam expansion by evaporation. This phenomenon can
288 be seen in the last two snapshots, where foam expansion accelerates due to the large presence of
289 evaporated PBA.

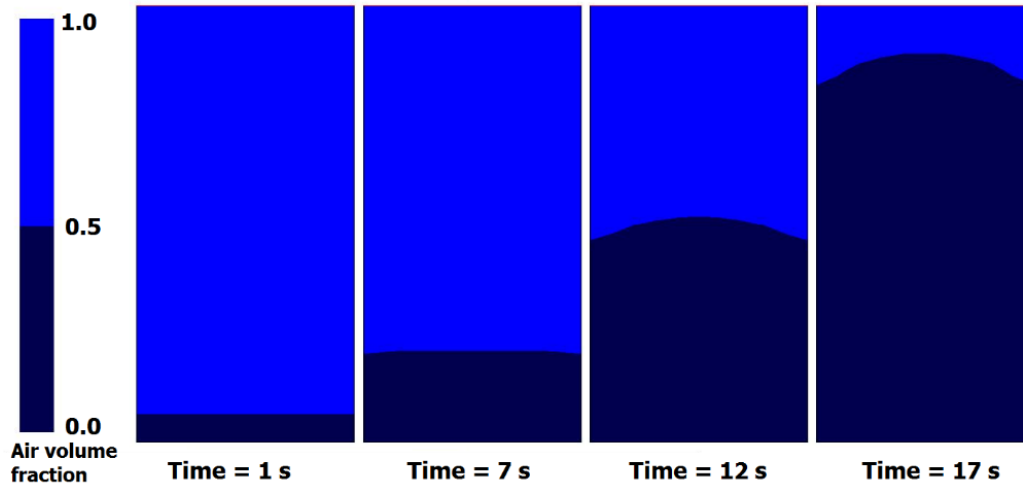


Figure 4. PU foam expansion profile for batch d.

290 Figure 5 shows the time evolution of foam apparent density for the four batches investigated. As seen
 291 from all panels in Figure 5, for all test cases the time profile of the density has been captured correctly,
 292 in that the density decreases from its initial values corresponding to that of the liquid mixture and
 293 eventually levels off to its final value. For batch d, due to the presence of physical blowing agent the
 294 density evolution occurs faster compared to the other batches. As seen in the corresponding panel of
 295 Figure 5, the system density reaches its final value just after 30 seconds of polymerization while, for the
 296 other cases in which only the chemical blowing agent is present, the same condition is reached after
 297 approximately 250 seconds. This trend is also confirmed by the data in Figure 4, for which the fast
 298 expansion of batch d is observed. It is noteworthy to highlight the influence of water content in Recipe
 299 1. This is directly reflected on the final density of the foam which, in turn, determines the final
 300 properties of the product. For example, at 250 seconds of simulation, the foam apparent density for
 301 batch a with $c_{W,0} = 305 \text{ mol m}^{-3}$ is 138 kg m^{-3} , whereas increasing the amount of water for batch b and c
 302 to $c_{W,0} = 610 \text{ mol m}^{-3}$ and $c_{W,0} = 915 \text{ mol m}^{-3}$ respectively, results in the final densities of 51 kg m^{-3} and
 303 34 kg m^{-3} . The pattern observed implies that the modeling tool converges the amount of gas being
 304 produced during the polymerization into the foam density. In other words, higher amount of water in
 305 the recipe yields more CO_2 in the system and this ultimately results in lower-density PU foams.

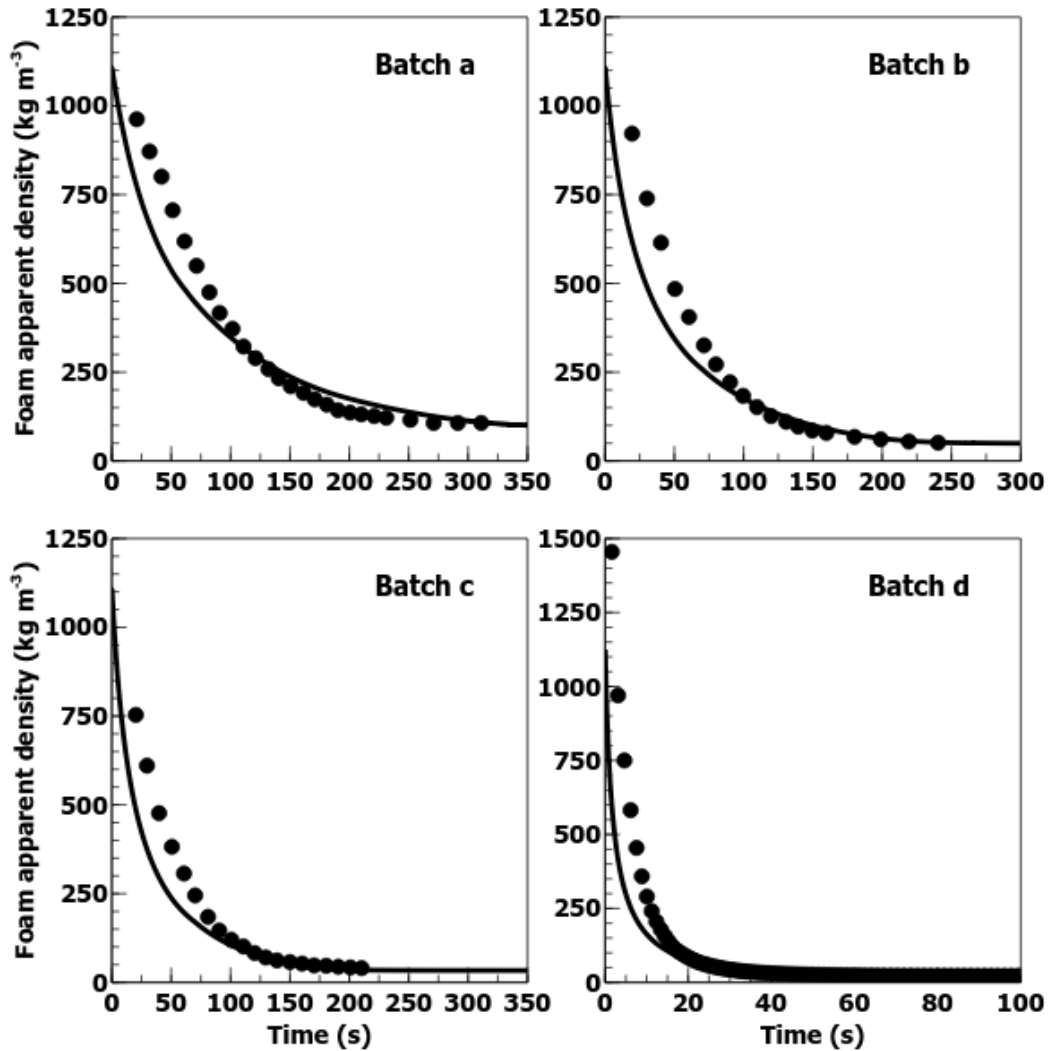


Figure 5. Numerical predictions of PU foam density for batches a-d as a function of time (solid-line) compared with experimental data (symbols).

306 Figure 6 shows the comparison between numerical predictions and experimental data for the foam
 307 temperature as a function of time: the nice qualitative agreement between the two data sets further
 308 supports the ability of the proposed multiscale model in correctly predicting the PU-based foaming
 309 process. Besides the fast expansion for batch d, comparison of the temperature trend between this
 310 batch and the chemically blown batches show that at invariant times the temperature is lower for the
 311 physically blown foam. This is attributed to the consumption of heat during the evaporation of physical
 312 blowing agent. The amount of water in Recipe 1 also affects the temperature. In that, increasing the

313 concentration of water in the mixture increases the temperature. As a case in point, after 250 seconds
314 of foaming for batches a, b, and c the absolute temperatures of the foam phase are 366 K, 417 K, and
315 426 K, respectively. Basically, this indicates the intensity of the exothermic blowing reaction and the
316 higher production of heat in the presence of more water. Overall the comparison leads to reasonable
317 agreement, that could be improved if more detailed thermal conductivity and heat capacity models for
318 the PU foam were used (Geier et al., 2009).

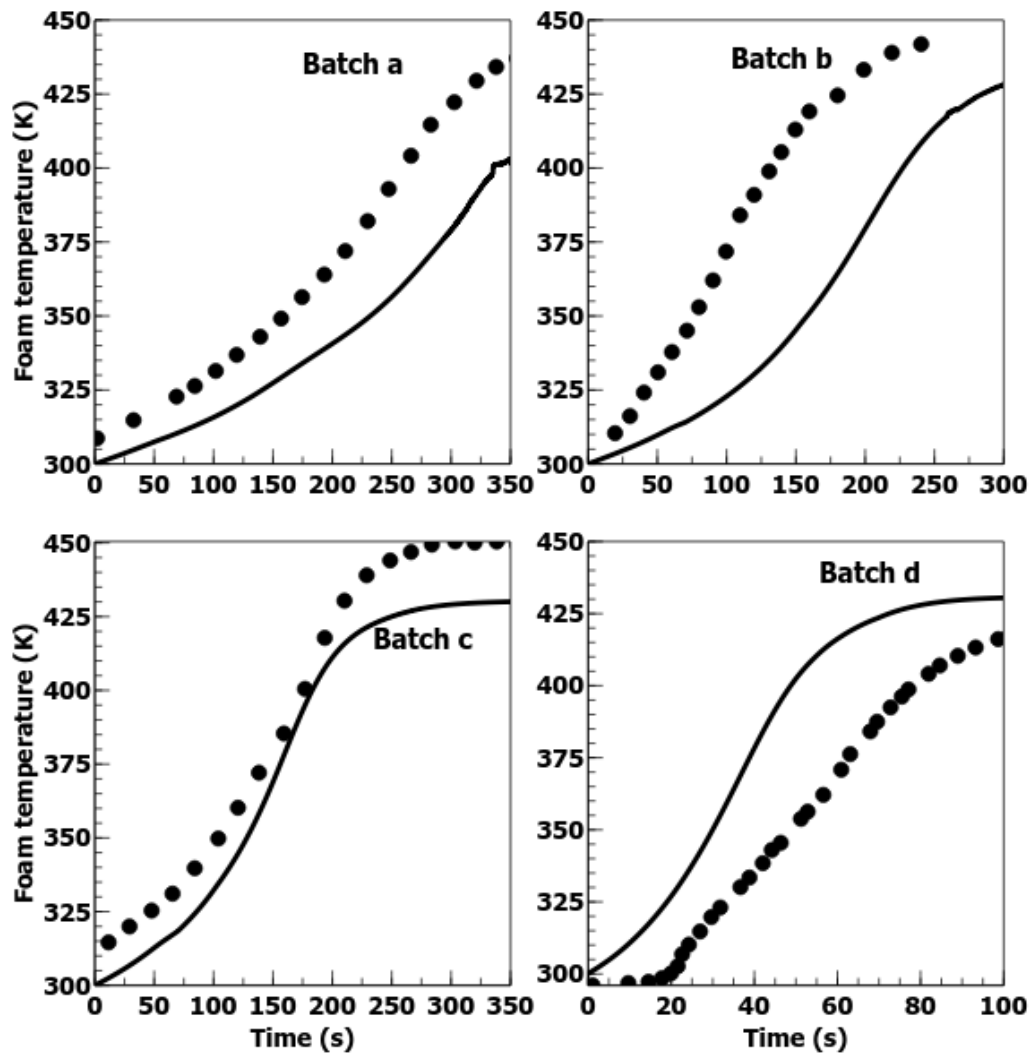


Figure 6. Numerical predictions of foam temperature as a function of time (solid-line) with experimental data (symbols).

319 **5. Conclusions**

320 A multi-scale modeling approach is introduced in this work for the simulation of the expansion of PU
321 foams. The model is formulated by coupling a nano-scale model, based on MD, with a macro-scale
322 model, based on VOF and CFD. The lower scale model provides the inputs of the CFD code including the
323 density of polymerizing liquid mixture and the solubility of blowing agents (chemical and physical). The
324 functionality of the CFD inputs on temperature and cross linking are also accounted for using the
325 surrogate model concept. The multi-scale modeling strategy is tested and validated for two PU recipes in
326 which water and n-pentane are used as chemical and physical blowing agents. The reasonable level of
327 agreement achieved in both cases shows that not only the developed approach offers an efficient
328 method of linking between the two modeling tools, but it also provides accurate numerical predictions
329 of PU foam properties. This work will continue to incorporate detailed models for the kinetics of
330 reactions as well foam rheology.

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339 **7. References**

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