

## MODERN CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS IN MODELING COMPLEX HEAT AND MASS TRANSFER PROCESSES

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### Abstract

Reliable modeling of coupled heat and mass transfer is a cornerstone of technological progress in energy systems, advanced manufacturing, environmental engineering, and biomedical applications. However, as modern systems increasingly exhibit multiscale behavior, material heterogeneity, and strong interphysics interactions, the limitations of traditional modeling strategies are becoming increasingly apparent. This paper presents a detailed analysis of the key challenges facing this field, along with a structured assessment of new computational and methodological approaches developed to address them. The analysis focuses on several critical obstacles, including the exponential growth in complexity in multiscale formulations, accurate representation of phase transition boundaries, modeling and characterization of advanced and unconventional materials, and persistent shortcomings in high-quality validation data. Based on a synthesis of recent advances in high-performance computing, physics-based machine learning, and hybrid modeling methods, this paper identifies promising avenues for overcoming these limitations. Results from representative case studies demonstrate that surrogate and reduced-order models can provide an order of magnitude increase in computational efficiency, while comparative evaluations highlight the rapidly expanding role of data-driven methods in predictive modeling. We argue that future progress in heat and mass transfer modeling will depend on the development of integrated systems that tightly couple fundamentally based models with data-driven components, incorporate rigorous uncertainty quantification, and enable the creation of experimentally validated digital twins. This integration signals a fundamental shift from purely physical simulations to adaptive, intelligent computing systems capable of continuous improvement.

### Key challenges shaping contemporary modeling

Contemporary heat and mass transfer modeling is constrained by a set of tightly coupled challenges that define the limits of current computational capabilities. A primary difficulty arises from the extreme multi-scale character of the governing phenomena. Relevant processes span from nanoscale interfacial effects to full system behavior, creating a fundamental modeling barrier. For instance, accurately simulating metal additive manufacturing demands spatial coverage across roughly five



orders of magnitude—from micron-scale laser-material interactions to centimeter-scale components—and temporal resolution extending over as many as seventeen orders, from nanosecond laser pulses to the long-term evolution of residual stresses over years. This vast scale disparity leads to rapidly escalating computational costs: direct numerical simulations of porous structures with approximately  $10^6$  cells can require on the order of  $10^4$  CPU hours, whereas homogenized models reduce the cost to about  $10^2$  hours but at the expense of 15–40% loss in accuracy for interfacial transport predictions. Additional complexity is introduced by phase-change processes and moving boundaries, which involve strong nonlinearities that undermine traditional empirical correlations. In boiling heat transfer, for example, standard predictive models can yield errors exceeding 50% when applied to micro-structured surfaces, posing serious safety concerns. Interface-capturing techniques such as the Volume-of-Fluid method typically suffer from cumulative mass conservation errors of 1–5% per time step. At the same time, critical microscale effects near contact lines often require molecular dynamics simulations, which are restricted to domains on the order of 100 nm, leaving a persistent and unresolved gap between atomistic and continuum descriptions. In multiphase applications such as spray cooling, the problem is further amplified by high sensitivity to initial conditions, where modest uncertainties (e.g.,  $\pm 10\%$  in droplet diameter) can lead to variations of up to  $\pm 35\%$  in predicted heat flux. Material behavior adds yet another layer of difficulty. Many advanced materials deviate markedly from classical Fourier and Fick transport laws. Carbon nanotube-based composites, for instance, can exhibit thermal conductivity anisotropy approaching 300%, while engineered metamaterials may achieve effective thermal conductivities reduced by as much as 70% compared to their base constituents. Biological tissues present even greater variability, with porosity ranging from 20% to 90% and permeability spanning eight orders of magnitude ( $10^{-18}$  to  $10^{-10}$  m<sup>2</sup>). Such diversity necessitates material-specific constitutive formulations, as generalized correlations tend to fail severely beyond their calibration domains. These technical obstacles are compounded by a pervasive lack of reliable data. Although numerical simulations routinely generate massive datasets, rigorous experimental validation remains limited. Analyses of studies published between 2018 and 2023 indicate that only about 32% include quantitative comparisons with experiments, and just 18% report uncertainty estimates for both numerical and experimental results. Experimental techniques themselves impose additional constraints: methods such as micro-PIV and infrared thermography are typically limited to spatial resolutions of around 10  $\mu$ m and temporal resolutions of approximately 1 ms, which are often coarser than those achievable in simulations. Moreover, comprehensive material characterization across a range of operating conditions may require between  $10^3$  and  $10^4$  individual measurements, resulting in substantial time and cost barriers that hinder thorough model validation.

Table 1.

Quantitative Overview of Modern Modeling Challenges.

Challenge Category	Typical Scale Range	Computational Cost	Accuracy Limitation	Key Bottleneck
Multi-scale problems	$10^{-6}$ to $10^0$ m spatial, $10^{-9}$ to $10^8$ s temporal	$10^2$ – $10^4$ CPU hours	15–40% interface error	Scale coupling, computational expense



Phase-change dynamics	Interface thickness: $10^{-9}$ – $10^{-6}$ m	$10^3$ – $10^5$ CPU hours	1–5% mass error/step	Moving boundaries, microphysics
Advanced materials	Property anisotropy: 100–300% variation	$10^1$ – $10^3$ CPU hours	20–50% correlation error	Non-classical behavior, heterogeneity
Data validation	Resolution gap: $10^{-1}$ – $10^2$ $\mu\text{m}$ , $10^{-6}$ – $10^{-3}$ s	Experimental: $10^2$ – $10^4$ points	10–25% measurement uncertainty	Access, cost, instrumentation limits

These interconnected problems—computational, physical, material, and empirical—create a self-perpetuating cycle in which model limitations limit understanding of the system, which in turn limits model improvement. Breaking this cycle requires not just incremental advances in individual areas, but also comprehensive approaches that simultaneously address multiple problematic aspects.

### Modeling prospects for the drying process of black currant fruits

The modeling challenges described above have catalyzed dramatic changes in computational methods, the integration of data science, and algorithmic innovation, collectively offering ways to overcome traditional limitations. High-performance computing has dramatically expanded the boundaries of possible modeling, and exascale systems like the 1.7 exaFlops Frontier supercomputer have reduced the runtime of detailed turbulent combustion simulations from months to days. Heterogeneous architectures combining CPUs with GPUs and specialized accelerators have demonstrated particularly significant benefits, delivering 20–50x speedups for lattice Boltzmann simulations through massive parallelization of streaming collision processing operations. This hardware revolution enables previously intractable multiscale simulations, but computational power alone is not sufficient to address all challenges—algorithmic innovations must complement hardware advances. Regarding the fruit drying process, this study presents a mathematical model of blackcurrant drying in a microwave-assisted vacuum drying system. The model describes the interrelated heat and mass transfer mechanisms occurring during microwave vacuum drying and takes into account the influence of applied microwave energy and reduced pressure on moisture removal and temperature distribution within the material. The developed model, characterized by a high degree of detail, describes the blackcurrant fruit drying process and, therefore, includes a large number of adjustable parameters. Among these, three key process parameters were selected as having the greatest impact on drying efficiency and product quality: microwave power  $P$ , fruit layer thickness  $h$ , and atmospheric pressure  $p$ . Among the model output variables, the most important are three time-dependent functions:

- the average moisture content of the layer  $W_{\text{avg}}(t)$
- the rate of change of the average moisture content  $dW_{\text{avg}}(t)/dt$
- the average temperature of the layer  $T_{\text{avg}}(t)$ . The calculation of these functions is carried out using the following formulas:



$$W_{cp}(t) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_3} W_i^{t/\Delta t}}{N_3}, \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{dW_{cp}(t)}{dt} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_3} W_i^{t/\Delta t} - \sum_{i=1}^{N_3} W_i^{t/\Delta t - 1}}{N_3 \Delta t}, \quad (2)$$

$$T_{cp}(t) = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_3} T_i^{t/\Delta t}}{N_3}. \quad (3)$$

The relationship between the input parameters of the model and its output characteristics is schematically illustrated in Figure 2.

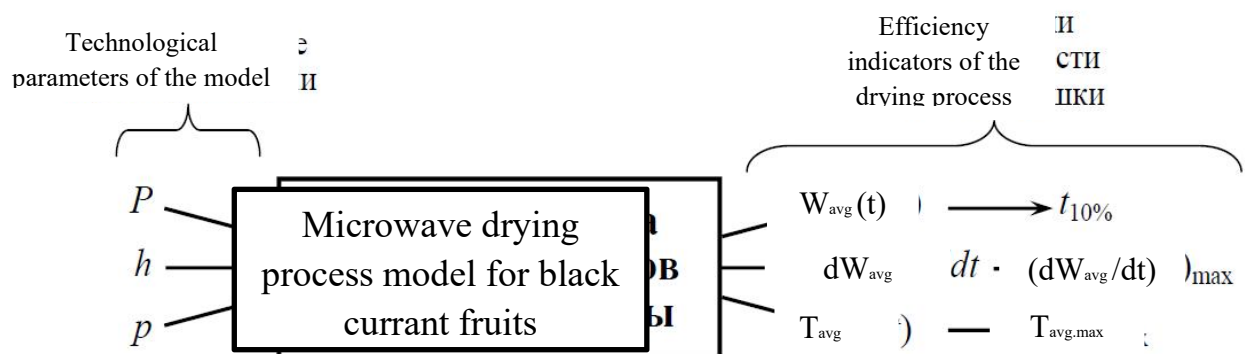


Figure 2. Formulation of the theoretical research problem.

Based on the proposed scheme (Figure 1), the theoretical study requires solving the following optimization problem [1–3]:

$$\begin{cases} t_{10\%}(P, h, p) \rightarrow \min; \\ \left(\frac{dW_{cp}}{dt}\right)_{\max}(P, h, p) \rightarrow \max; \\ T_{cp, \max}(P, h, p) \rightarrow \min. \end{cases}$$

Boundary conditions for the heat and mass transfer problems are defined by the following equations: (5, 6)

$$W_i^{\tau+1} = W_i^{\tau} - k_W \left( W_i^{\tau} - W_{env}^{\tau} \frac{p_{atm}}{p} \right) \Delta t, \quad (5)$$

$$T_i^{\tau+1} = T_i^{\tau} - \chi_T (T_i^{\tau} - T_{env}^{\tau}) \Delta t. \quad (6)$$

### Key takeaways and future prospects: bridging challenges and solutions

The discussion presented in this article leads us to a key conclusion: heat and mass transfer modeling is undergoing a transformational shift driven by the need to address modern challenges such as multi-scale phenomena, complex interphase dynamics,



material heterogeneity, and limited experimental data. Progress in this field is increasingly driven not by incremental refinements of traditional continuum approaches, but by the targeted integration of computational physics, data-driven methodologies, and rigorous uncertainty quantification within holistic, intelligent systems. Remarkably, recent advances—illustrated by 50- to 1000-fold increases in computational efficiency without sacrificing accuracy thanks to hybrid approaches combining physics and artificial intelligence—demonstrate that these promises are not merely conceptual but lead to concrete, substantial improvements. This synthesis suggests that future practitioners will work less as specialists in a single numerical method and more as systems architects coordinating mechanistic models, surrogate data-based tools, and verification strategies to solve problems previously considered intractable.

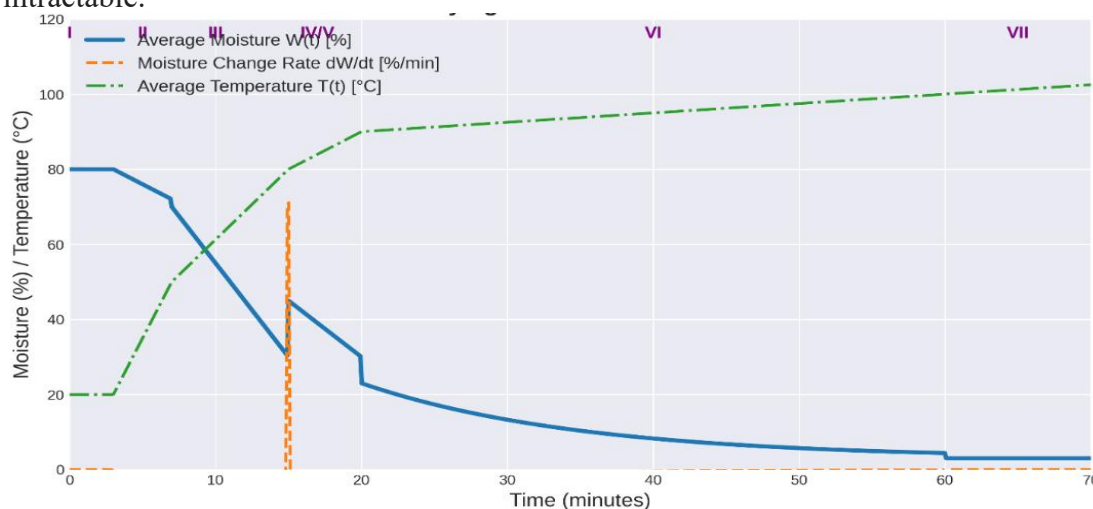


Figure. Microwave drying kinetics of black currant fruits.

The graph illustrates the microwave drying kinetics of black currant fruits over 70 minutes. It shows three key variables:

1. Average moisture content ( $W(t)$ , blue solid line): starts at 80% and decreases rapidly during stage III (7–15 min), then gradually approaches a minimum of ~3–5% by stage VI.
2. Rate of moisture change ( $dW/dt$ , orange dashed line): peaks around 10 minutes, indicating the fastest dehydration, then declines to near zero as drying completes.
3. Average temperature ( $T(t)$ , green dash-dot line): rises quickly from 20°C to ~90°C during the initial stages, then slowly increases to ~100–110°C in stage VII.

The stages I–VII are annotated above the graph, highlighting: initial state, rapid heating, rapid dehydration, slow dehydration, product layer consolidation, final drying, and post-drying heating.

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