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A Study of Binary Mixture Boiline,
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TZE-ON Hui

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# A STUDY OF BINARY MIXTURE BOILING: BOILING SITE DENSITY AND SUBCOOLING BOILING

By

Tze On Hui

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#### ABSTRACT

# A STUDY OF BINARY MIXTURE BOILING: BOILING SITE DENSITY AND SUBGOOLING BOILING

By

#### Tze On Hui

Boiling site densities have been measured for ethanol-water and ethanol-benzene mixtures at 1.01 bar. Site densities were obtained photographically for a vertically oriented heated test surface. The effects of composition, heat flux, and subcooling on the boiling site density were studied.

For ethanol-water mixtures the boiling site density increased about two orders of magnitude from pure water (relatively large bubbles) to the azeotrope composition (relatively small bubbles). This dramatic increase was noted to be caused by the nature of activation of the boiling surface; inception of individual boiling sites at low ethanol compositions and inception of boiling of the whole surface upon the activation of the first boiling site at medium and high ethanol compositions.

For ethanol-benzene mixtures the boiling site density formed an unexpected maximum to the left of the azeotrope point while forming a minimum to the right. This phenomenon was postulated to be caused by condensation or evaporation of the more volatile component during the waiting period of the bubble growth cycle. Activation of the first boiling site caused rapid activation of the entire boiling surface at all compositions.

The effect of subcooling (0 to 20°C) on the boiling site density was observed to behave in three ways: (1) monotomically decreasing, (2) displaying a maximum, or (3) displaying a minimum. The boiling site density was found to increase with increasing heat flux as expected from previous single component studies.

Pool boiling curves were obtained for subcoolings ranging from 0 to 20 °C for heat fluxes up to 100 kW/m². The heat transfer coefficient, based on  $(T_{wall}-T_{bulk})$ , was found to decrease with increasing subcoolings. The decrease in the heat transfer coefficient in the mixtures for a given level of subcooling was less than that for the single components and azeotropic mixtures.

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# NOMENCLATURE

Αz	azeotrope or azeotropic composition
B.S.D. exp	experimental boiling site density (sites/cm <sup>2</sup> )
B.S.D.	ideal boiling site density (sites/cm <sup>2</sup> )
cp	liquid specific heat (kJ/kg $\cdot$ $\mathring{\text{C}}$ )
D	liquid mass diffusivity (m <sup>2</sup> /s)
D <sub>d</sub>	bubble departure diameter
f	bubble departure frequency
F <sub>b</sub>	buoyancy force
F <sub>d</sub>	drag force
F <sub>i</sub>	inertia force
F <sub>p</sub>	excess pressure force on base area of bubble
F <sub>o</sub>	surface tension force
h	heat transfer coefficient (w/m²°C)
h <sub>exp</sub>	experimental heat transfer coefficient (w/m²°C)
h <b>f</b> g	latent heat of evaporation
hI	ideal heat transfer coefficient (w/m²°C)
N sn	Scriven number
dP <sub>sat</sub> /dT	slope of saturation curve
q	heat flux (w/m <sup>2</sup> )
R	vapor bubble radius
ΔT	wall superheat, $T_w - T_{sat}$
$^{\mathtt{T}}\mathtt{b}$	bulk temperature of liquid



$^{\Delta}$ Teff	effective wall superheat
$\Delta$ T <sub>inc</sub>	incipient superheat, T - T sat
Ts	wall surface temperature
Tsat	saturation temperature
$\mathbf{T}_{\mathbf{W}}$	wall temperature
T <sub>1</sub> , T <sub>2</sub> , T <sub>3</sub>	temperature measurements underneath heating surface
tg	binary mixture bubble growth time
$^{t}g_{\mathtt{I}}$	ideal binary mixture bubble growth time
t <sub>w</sub>	waiting period
x	mass fraction of volatile component at bubble interface
x	mole fraction of volatile component in liquid phase
$\mathbf{x}^{p}$	mass fraction of volatile component in bulk liquid
У	mass fraction of volatile component in the vapor bubble
ъ́у	mole fraction of volatile component in vapor bubble

# GREEK SYMBOLS

$pprox_{ t L}$	liquid thermal diffusivity (m <sup>2</sup> /s)
δ	extrapolated superheated-layer thickness
$S_{\mathbf{m}}$	mass diffusion shell thickness
Δθ	rise in local saturation temperature
₽ <sub>L</sub>	liquid density (kg/ m <sup>3</sup> )
	vapor density $(kg/m^3)$
€v ©	surface tension $(N/m)$
	average bubble growth time



## Chapter 1

### Introduction

Boiling is a physical process of great practical significance and has been the subject of intensive research for many years. Many of these research projects were motivated by the need for nuclear power vapor generator design and safety and the sharp rise in energy cost. Most of the research efforts have been directed on the boiling characteristics of single component liquids. But mixture boiling research is important in the design of two-phase heat exchange equipment in the chemical and petrochemical processing industries, the refrigeration industry, the air separation industry, and the liquid natural gas industry as examples.

The boiling of binary and multicomponent liquid mixtures is quite different from single component boiling. The thermodynamics of vapor-liquid phase equilibria of mixtures allow the vapor and liquid phase to be of differing compositions. Thus, the boiling of a liquid mixture is distinct from single component boiling in that the driving force for heat transfer is in turn linked to mass transfer. The evaporation rate can be severely retarded in the mixture because the rate of mass diffusion is usually much slower than that of heat diffusion in the liquid phase.



A working knowledge of the elementary principles of vapor-liquid phase equilibria is required for an understanding of mixture boiling. Phase equilibrium diagrams are used to describe the relationship between temperature, pressure, and the compositions in the two phases at saturation. Figure 1.1 shows the phase equilibrium diagram for an ideal binary system at constant pressure. Saturation temperature is plotted on the vertical axis. Mole fractions of the more volatile component in the liquid and vapor phases are plotted on the horizontal axis. The more volatile component is that with the lower boiling point at the pressure of interest. The dew point line denotes the variation in equilibrium vapor mole fraction with saturation temperature. The bubble point line depicts the functional dependency of the liquid mole fraction on the saturation temperature. It is evident that  $\tilde{y} > \tilde{x}$  for the more volatile component and  $\tilde{y} < \tilde{x}$  for the less volatile component. This is expected intuitively since the more volatile component is above its normal boiling point while the reverse is true for the less volatile component.

Figure 1.2 illustrates a temperature-composition phase diagram for a binary mixture system forming an azeotrope at  $\widetilde{x}_{az}$ . At the azeotrope, the compositions of the liquid and vapor phase are identical. To the left side of the azeotrope,  $\widetilde{y} \geqslant \widetilde{x}$ , and to the right  $\widetilde{y} \leqslant \widetilde{x}$ . The slope of the bubble point line changes from negative to positive as the azeotrope is passed from left to right. However, the product  $(\widetilde{y}-\widetilde{x})(dT/d\widetilde{x})$  is always positive as a consequence. The



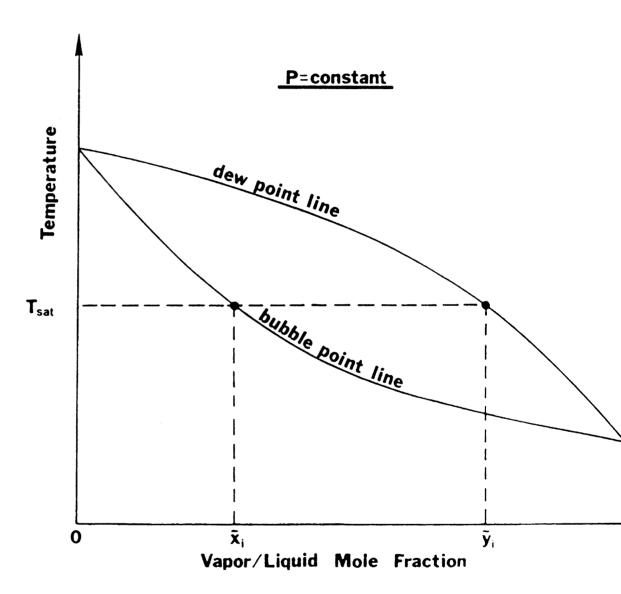
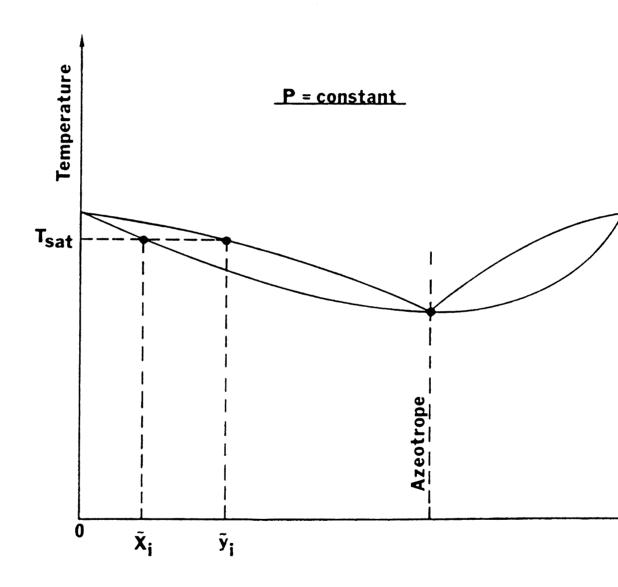


Figure 1.1
Phase equilibrium diagram for an ideal binary mixture system





VAPOR / LIQUID MOLE FRACTION

Figure 1.2
Phase equilibrium for an azeotropic mixture system



azeotrope behaves like a single component liquid since the compositions in both phases are the same.

The boiling heat transfer coefficient of binary mixtures can be drastically smaller than that predicted by using an ideal linear mixing law on single component boiling heat Thus, the fundamental mechanisms transfer coefficients. causing this variation need to be studied and ultimately, a method is needed to predict the boiling heat transfer coefficient for binary mixtures. An objective of the present experimental program is to determine the effects of composition and subcooling on the boiling site density. Boiling site density is defined as the number of active boiling sites per unit area. The boiling heat transfer coefficient also will be measured in order to ascertain the dependence of the heat transfer coefficient on the boiling site density. The boiling site density is an important parameter because it affects the rate of total vapor generation and thermal boundary layer removal. Consequently, it plays a significant role in the overall enhancement of the heat transfer rate in nucleate pool boiling compared to single phase natural convection.

No analytical information is available at the present time to predict the site density as a function of composition and the degree of subcooling. The only previous experimental work on site density in binary liquid mixtures as a function of composition was performed by Van Stralen (1). However, his results seem impractical since his study was performed on a very thin wire (0.2 mm in diameter) which is much smaller

than the diameter of the bubbles themselves. His tests covered a number of aqueous systems. Figure 1.3 depicts the results for water, methyl ethyl ketone (MEK), and a mixture of 4.1% wt. MEK. At a constant heat flux of 0.3 MW/m $^2$ , for instance, the number of boiling sites per cm $^2$  in pure water is 30 and in MEK over 200, but for the 4.1% mixture only one site per unit area is active. Thus, the variation in the boiling site density at constant heat flux shows a marked minimum.

Several parameters are important in any model for predicting the site density: the boiling incipience criteria, the dynamic contact angle, and the thickness and the temperature profile of the thermal boundary layer. These parameters will be elaborated in Chapter 2.

The experimental program involves performing boiling heat transfer experiments in which composition, heat flux, and the degree of bulk subcooling are varied. Two binary mixture systems were chosen for the study: ethanol-water and ethanol-benzene. In the aqueous binary mixtures of ethanol and water, the dynamic contact angle and surface tension vary substantially as the composition changes. Therefore, a large variation in the boiling site density with composition is expected for this mixture system. On the other hand, the variation of boiling site density for ethanol and benzene mixtures is expected to be smaller since the surface tension does not change as much for this non-aqueous binary system. Also, the contact angle is thought

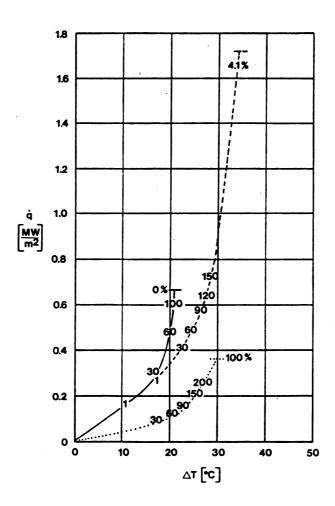


Figure 1.3
Pool boiling curves with boiling site densities (sites/cm²) for the water-MEK system at 1.0 bar by Van Stralen (1)

to be fairly constant. For each experimental condition, photographs of the boiling surface are taken at a shutter speed of 1000 HZ. The boiling site density is obtained from the photographs. The heat transfer coefficient is obtained by calculating the wall temperature of the boiling test surface and the heat flux through a prescribed area.

Chapter 2 is a state-of-the-art review on the areas of importance in the present study. Chapter 3 describes the experimental design and procedure. Experimental results and a discussion of these results will be presented in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 presents the conclusions of the study.

## Chapter 2

### Review of boiling

It has been well established from experimental studies that the boiling heat transfer coefficient of binary mixtures is much lower than that predicted by using an ideal linear mixing law on their single component values. In the following sections, fundamental phenomenological topics such as bubble growth rate, bubble departure diameter, bubble departure frequency, bubble incipience, and boiling site density are presented in the context to explain the lower heat transfer coefficient for binary mixtures. A section will be devoted to discussing the effects of subcooling on the boiling heat transfer process and its effect on the different parameters will be examined.

### 2.1 Bubble growth rates

The bubble growth rate of a single component liquid is limited by the rate of heat transfer to the bubble interface to provide for the latent heat of evaporation. In binary mixtures, however, the growth rate depends upon the rate of mass diffusion of the more volatile component as well as upon the diffusion of heat. During the growth of the bubble,

the more volatile component is evaporated preferentially since its mole fraction in the vapor phase,  $\widetilde{y}$ , is greater than its mole fraction in the liquid phase,  $\widetilde{x}$  (Figure 2.1). Due to this preferential evaporation, the volatile component is depleted near the bubble interface and must be replenished by mass diffusion through the depleted layer. Consequently, the bubble growth rate is slowed down. The local saturation temperature rises also, due to the higher composition of the less volatile component. Thus the effective driving force for heat conduction to the evaporating interface,  $\Delta T_{\text{eff}}$ , is lowered.

### 2.1.1 Van Stralen's derivation of bubble growth rate equation for binary mixture

In the next two sections, derivations for bubble growth rates for binary mixtures will be presented. The first derivation will be the pioneer work of Van Stralen (2) who extended the theory for spherically symmetric bubble growth in a uniformly superheated liquid for single component liquids to include binary mixtures. Next, Thome's model (3) is presented. Thome's model extends Van Stralen's model by considering a further rise in the local saturation temperature due to the evaporation of neighboring sites and a previously departed bubble.

Van Stralen starts his derivation by using a mass balance equation at the bubble interface. The rate of

preferential evaporation of the more volatile component is equated to its rate of mass diffusion through the interface,

$${\binom{0}{v}(y-x)dR/dt} = {\binom{0}{L}} D(\frac{\partial x}{\partial r})_{r=R}$$
 (2.1)

The mass fraction of the more volatile component drops from a value of  $x_b$  to x across a spherical diffusion shell of thickness  $\delta_m$  (see Figure 2.1). Assuming the mass concentration gradient across the diffusion shell to be linear, one gets

$$(\partial x/\partial r)_{r=R} = \frac{x_b - x}{S_m}$$
 (2.2)

Substitution of equation 2.2 into equation 2.1 gives

$$dR/dt = (\binom{c}{L}/\binom{c}{v})(x_b - x/y - x)(D/S_m)$$
 (2.3)

To approximate the value of  $S_m$ , Van Stralen uses a model for one-dimensional transient mass diffusion through a spherical shell, i.e.

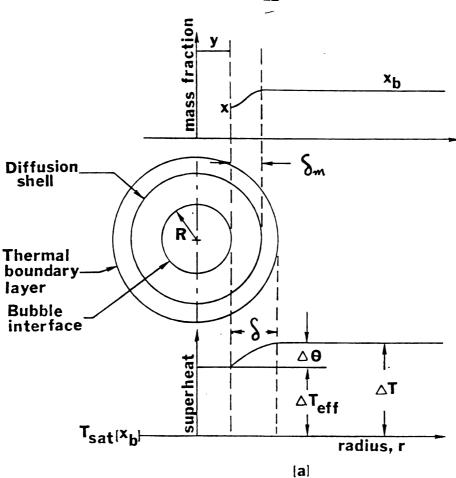
$$S_{m} = (\pi \, Dt/3)^{1/3} \tag{2.4}$$

The bubble growth rate is then given as

$$dR/dt = ( {}^{\circ}_{V}/{}^{\circ}_{L})(x_{b}-x/y-x) \underline{\qquad \qquad }$$

$$(2.5)$$

$$(\% Dt/3)$$



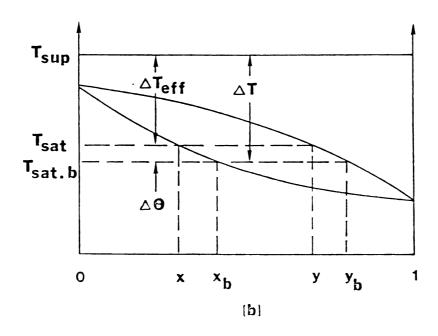


Figure 2.1 Bubble growth model of Van Stralen (2) for a spherical vapor bubble growing in a superheated binary mixture. (a) temperature and composition profiles; (b) process illustrated on phase diagram.

Van Stralen next examines the bubble growth rate in light of the Plesset and Zwick (4) bubble growth equation based on a heat balance:

$$R = (12/\tilde{n})^{1/2} \frac{\ell_L c_p}{\ell_v h_{fg}} \Delta T(\propto_L t)^{1/2}$$
(2.6)

or differentiating equation (2.6),

$$dR/dt = (\binom{c_{L}}{\binom{c_{v}}{\binom{c_{p}}{h_{fg}}}} \Delta T \propto_{L}$$

$$(2.7)$$

$$(7) \propto_{T} t/3)^{1/2}$$

As pointed out earlier, the effective superheat,  $\Delta T_{\rm eff}$ , will be reduced by an increase in the local saturation temperature,  $\Delta\theta$ , at the bubble interface (Figure 2.1) such that

$$\Delta T_{\text{eff}} = \Delta T - \Delta \Theta$$
 (2.8)

Substitution of  $\Delta T_{\text{eff}}$  into equation 2.7 gives

Combining equations 2.5 and 2.9, Van Stralen's equation for bubble growth for binary mixtures becomes

$$R = (12 \, \alpha_{\text{I}} / \pi)^{1/2} (\, {^{\circ}_{\text{L}}} c_{\text{p}} \, \Delta \, T / {^{\circ}_{\text{v}}} h_{\text{fg}}) \frac{t^{1/2}}{1 - (y - x) (\, \alpha_{\text{I}} / D) \, (c_{\text{p}} / h_{\text{fg}}) (dT / dx)}$$

(2.10)



Note that in the above equation, the value for  $\Delta \theta$  is approximated by

$$\Delta\Theta = (x_b - x/y - x) x_b \left[ 1 - K(x_b) \right] (dT/dx)_{x=x_b}$$
 (2.10a)

where  $K(x_b)$  is the equilibrium constant at  $x_b$ . This is in the same form as the Plesset and Zwick equation for single component liquids except that it is multiplied by the term

$$\frac{1}{1-(y-x)(\alpha_{L}/D)^{1/2}(c_{p}/h_{fg})(dT/dx)}$$

Since the value of this term is less than or equal to one, a smaller growth rate is predicted for binary mixtures.

2.1.2 Thome's equation for bubble growth rate in binary mixtures

Thome's equation is an extension of Van Stralen's equation. By comparing equation 2.9 and equation 2.10, one gets

$$\Delta T_{eff} = \Delta T - \Delta \theta = \Delta TN_{sn}$$
 (2.11)

where

$$N_{sn} = \left[1 - (y-x)(\alpha_I/D)^{1/2}(C_p/h_{fg})(dT/dx)\right]^{-1}$$
 (2.12)



Thome argues that equation 2.11 is an appropriate modification for the effective superheat for a single bubble growing in a liquid that was initially at the bulk saturation temperature. Application of Konovalov's rule dictates that (y-x) and (dT/dx) are always of opposite sign such that  $N_{sn} \leqslant 1$ .

On a boiling surface, bubbles are growing next to each other and even for a given site, the liquid is depleted of the more volatile component to some extent due to the preferential evaporation by a previously departed bubble. Therefore, the local liquid at the start of the growth stage is no longer at the bulk saturation temperature. The effective superheat is thus further reduced and Thome postulates that this rise in the local boiling point is similar in magnitude to  $\Delta \Theta$ . Therefore, the modified effective superheat is given as

$$\Delta T_{eff} = \Delta T - \Delta \theta_1 - \Delta \theta_2 \qquad (2.13)$$

where

$$\Delta \theta_{2} = (1-N_{sn})(\Delta T - \Delta \theta_{1}) \qquad (2.14)$$

Consequently, the effective wall superheat for bubble growth is given as

$$\Delta_{\text{Teff}} = N_{\text{sn}}^2 \quad \Delta_{\text{T}} \tag{2.15}$$

and Thome's equation for bubble growth becomes



## 2.2 Bubble departure diameter and frequency

## 2.2.1 Bubble departure diameter

The general trend of experimental results shows that bubble departure diameters in binary mixtures are significantly smaller than those for the two single component liquids. Figure 2.2 is an example of the experimental results by Tolubinskiy, Ostroviskiy, and coworker (5). Both binary systems of ethanol-water and methanol-water demonstrated a minimum in the bubble departure diameter at the maximum in  $|\tilde{y}-\tilde{x}|$ . Thome (6) carried out similar experiments for the argon-nitrogen system and found a similar trend in the bubble departure diameter and frequency. (see Figures 2.3 and 2.4)

To investigate the physical reason for the smaller bubble departure diameter in binary mixtures, the forces acting on a bubble growing on a heated surface are given by Kreshock and Siegel's equation (7) as

$$F_b + F_p = F_i + F_\sigma + F_d$$
 (2.16b)

where F<sub>h</sub> = buoyancy force

 $F_{\rm p}$  = excess pressure force on base area of bubble

F; = inertia force

F = surface tension force

F, = drag force



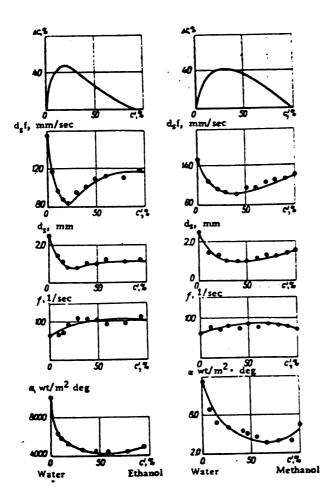


Figure 2.2 Dependence of bubble departure and heat transfer coefficient on composition  $(q = 116 \text{ kW/m}^2)$  obtained by Tolubinskiy and Ostrovskiy (5)

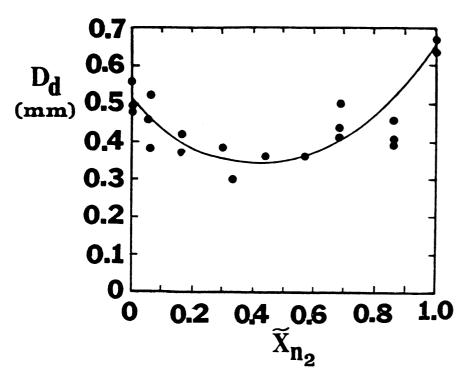


Figure 2.3 Bubble departure diameter at q = 2.1 kW/m<sup>2</sup> for nitrogen-argon mixtures by Thome (6)



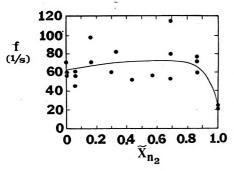


Figure 2.4
Bubble departure
frequency at
q = 2.1 kW/ m² for
nitrogen-argon
mixture by Thome (6)

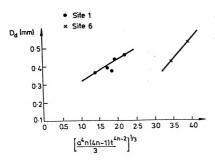


Figure 2.5
Bubble departure diameter
in nitrogen-argon mixtures
vs. bubble inertia force
term. Thome and Davey (7).
Site #1 is an artificial
site of 52 µm dia. and
site #6 is a naturally
occuring site.



Using this model, Thome (8) noted that aneffect of the slower bubble growth rate in binary mixtures is to decrease the inertia and drag force terms. If the drag force is considered insignificant in comparision to the inertia force, and applying the usual bubble growth law of

$$R = at^{n} (2.16c)$$

where a and n are empirical constants, then the bubble departure diameter,  $\mathbf{D}_{d}$ , is found to be proportional to the inertia term as

$$D_d \sim (a^{4}n(4n-1)t^{4n-2})^{-1/3}$$
 (2.16d)

Using the experimental values of a and n obtained for the nitrogen-argon system (9), Thome was able to demonstrate that the reduced inertia force term does correlate the smaller bubble departure diameters in the binary mixtures (Figure 2.5).

## 2.2.2 Bubble departure frequency

The bubble departure frequency, f, is defined as

$$f = 1/(t_g + t_w)$$
 (2.17a)

The bubble growth time, t<sub>g</sub>, is determined by the bubble growth rate and the bubble departure diameter, which in turn is governed by forces acting on the bubble. Thome showed that the ratio of the bubble growth time in a binary mixture to that in an ideal mixture is

$$\frac{t_g = (N_{sn})^{2/5}}{t_{g_I}}$$
 (2.17b)

Since  $N_{sn} \leqslant$  1, a shorter bubble growth time is predicted for binary mixtures.

During the departure of a bubble from a heated surface, the surrounding thermal boundary layer is stripped and must be reformed in order that the vapor embryo in the cavity can begin to grow again. This time interval is called the waiting time,  $t_{\rm w}$ . Several physical parameters that can affect the waiting time are the bubble nucleation superheat required, the thermal diffusivity of the liquid mixture, and the wall superheat.

Experimental data of Thome (9) and Tolubinskiy and Ostrovskiy (5) showed that the combined effect of bubble departure diameter and frequency is to yield a lower vaporization rate and thus can partially explain the lower heat transfer rate for binary mixtures.

## 2.3 Bubble nucleation

In this section, the nucleation criteria for a vapor embryo trapped in a cavity on a heated wall will be discussed. Observations show that bubbles growing on a heated surface originate as minute vapor nuclei trapped in pits and cracks



on the surface. The nucleation criteria are important for two reasons. First, it is important to know the superheat temperature required for boiling to initiate. It is also important for predicting the number of boiling sites per unit area on the boiling surface.

The incipient superheat required for thermal and mechanical equilibrium for a vapor nucleus of radius r trapped in the micro-structure of a heated surface is given as

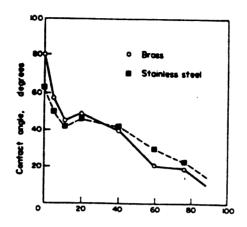
$$\Delta T_{\text{inc}} = T_{\text{sup}} - T_{\text{sat}} = 2\sigma / (r \, dp_{\text{sat}})$$

$$\frac{1}{dT}$$
(2.18)

Shock (10) has evaluated  $\Delta T_{\rm inc}$  for the binary system of ethanol-water based on equation 2.18. Comparing the calculated values with those obtained experimentally, he concluded that the wetting characteristics can be a principal parameter controlling  $\Delta T_{\rm inc}$ . The dynamic contact angle for water is about 70° but drops off toward 0° as the mole fraction of ethanol is increased (Figure 2.6). Using the model of Singh et al (11) shown in Figure 2.7, the effect of a small contact angle,  $\Theta$ , is to decrease the size, i.e. the radius, of the vapor nucleus trapped and hence the nucleation superheat is increased.

Recently, experiments (12) were performed with the binary systems of nitrogen-argon and ethanol-water and the results supported Shock's claim concerning the importance of the wetting characteristic on boiling incipience. Both





Ethanol, % mass

Figure 2.6 Variation in the advancing contact angle with composition for ethanol-water mixtures measured by Eddington and Kenning at 20°C against nitrogen gas. Reference 26

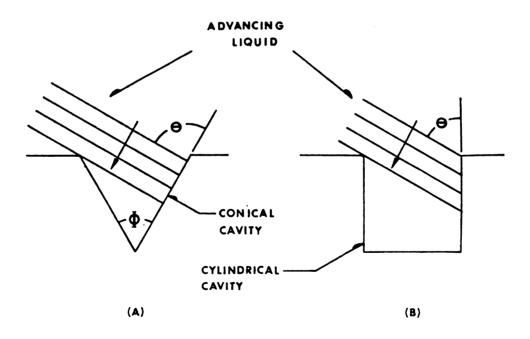


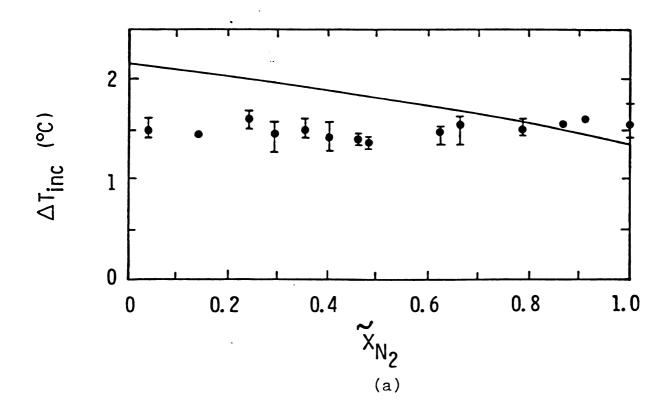
Figure 2.7 Vapor trapping model of Singh et al. (11) for (a) a conical cavity (b) a cylindrical cavity.



experiments were carried out to determine the effect of composition on boiling incipience and boiling site deactivation. In the experiments with liquid nitrogen-argon mixtures, no change was observed in the incipient superheat as a function of composition. Furthermore, the deactivation superheat coincided in value with the incipient superheat. In choosing the nitrogen-argon system, it was known a priori that no large variation in  $\mathcal O$ ,  $\mathrm{dp_{sat}}/\mathrm{dT}$ , or contact angle occurred. Therefore no significant variation in the incipient superheat was expected. The solid line in Figure 2.8 depicted theoretical value from equation 2.18 for  $\Delta T_{\mathrm{inc}}$  based on values of  $\mathcal O$ ,  $\mathrm{dp_{sat}}/\mathrm{dT}$ , and a vapor radius value of 1.0  $\mathcal M_{\mathrm{m}}$ . The deviation of the experimental value from the theoretical value might be due to a smaller contact angle for nitrogen.

A large variation in  $\Delta$  T<sub>inc</sub> was obtained for the ethanolwater binary system. This was expected since large variations in the values for  $\mathcal O$  and contact angle exist for this system. The results are shown in Figure 2.9. A maximum value of 44°C was found for the mixture at a mole fraction of about 0.5. Again, the solid line gives the value of  $\Delta$  T<sub>inc</sub> calculated by using equation 2.18 and a vapor nucleus radius of r. A large discrepancy is noted.

By substituting their experimental values of  $\Delta T_{\rm inc}$  into equation 2.18, Thome et al (12) obtained the calculated values of the vapor nucleus radii (Figure 2.10). The large decrease in the radius can be explained by the rapidly decreasing value of the contact angle as the mole fraction



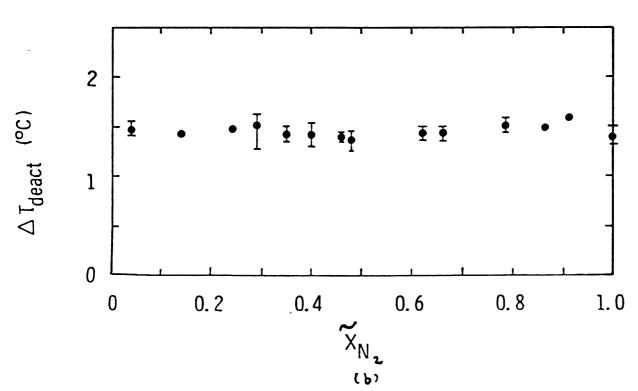


Figure 2.8 Liquid nitrogen-argon mixtures. (a) Incipient superheats; (b) Deactivation superheats.

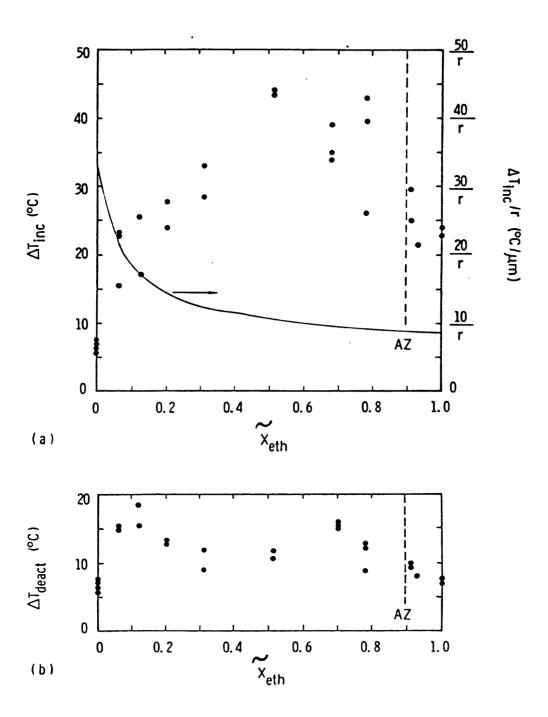


Figure 2.9 Ethanol-water mixtures (a) Incipient superheats; (b) Deactivation superheats.



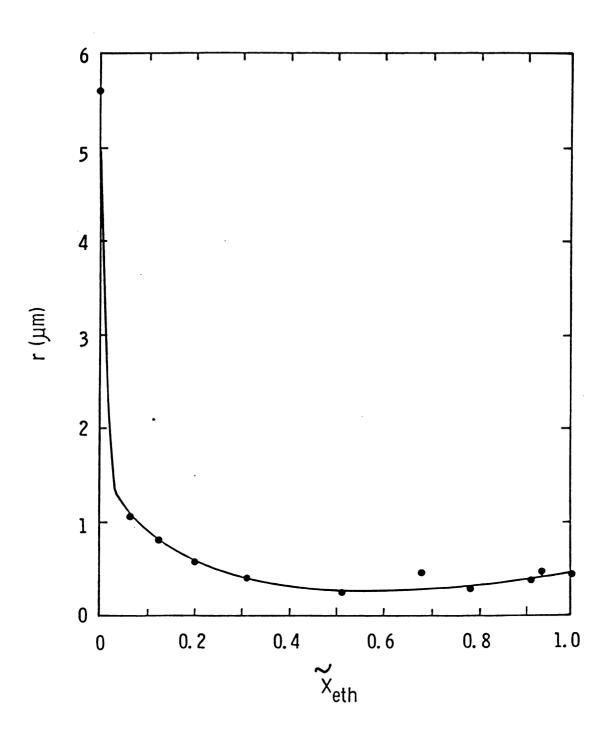


Figure 2.10 Calculated vapor nucleus radius vs. mole fraction ethanol.

of ethanol in the mixture is increased.

Equation 2.18 was derived for the case of a vapor nucleus surrounded by superheat liquid of constant temperature. For a vapor nucleus growing on a heated surface, it is surrounded by a thermal boundary layer with a temperature gradient. Recognizing the significance of the temperature gradient in the thermal boundary layer when the height of the vapor nucleus is comparable to the thickness of the thermal layer led several investigations (13,14,15,16) to develop more detailed corrections for  $\Delta T_{\rm inc.}$ 

The analysis of Hsu (14) can be divided into two parts. First, it is important to know the temperature profile within the thermal boundary layer. Secondly, a new criterion for nucleation must be defined. Hsu approximates the problem of the thermal boundary layer as one of one-dimensional transient conduction of heat into a slab. The thickness of the slab is a parameter called  $\delta$ . Beyond the slab, the turbulent agitation is so strong that the temperature is essentially at the bulk temperature,  $T_{\rm b}$ . At steady state, the temperature profile within  $\delta$  is linear.

To establish the criterion for the initiation of bubble growth, Hsu argues that it is necessary for the thermal layer surrounding the bubble nucleus to be at a temperature equal to or greater than the temperature of the bubble nucleus in order to give an inward flow of heat through the bubble interface to provide the latent heat of vaporization. But the temperature of the vapor bubble is



defined previously as  $T_{\sup}$  and given by equation 2.18 as

$$\Delta T_{\text{inc}} = T_{\text{sup}} - T_{\text{sat}} = 2 \, \mathcal{O} / (r \, dp_{\text{sat}})$$
 (2.18)

The temperature of the thermal layer at the top of the bubble must be equal to or greater than  $T_{\sup}$ . The results of Hsu's analysis can be summarized as follows:

- 1. Given a wall temperature, there are an upper limit and a lower limit for the vapor nucleus radii for nucleation to occur. Equation 2.18, on the other hand, has a lower limit only.
- 2. For a given vapor nucleus of radius r, Hsu's value for  $\Delta \, T_{\text{inc}}$  is higher than that given by equation 2.18.
- 3. Hsu's analysis points to the importance of the thermal boundary layer in understanding incipience. It is important to know the temperature profile as well as its thickness.
- 2.4 Temperature profile of the thermal boundary layer adjacent to a heated surface during nucleate pool boiling

The thickness of the superheated boundary layer adjacent to the heating surface and the temperature profile within it have long been recognized as significant parameters in nucleate boiling. It is this highly superheated region which is responsible for the origin and growth of a vapor



bubble. To a large degree, the thickness of this region and its temperature distribution control the growth rate of a vapor bubble as well as its departure size. In addition, these parameters play a significant role in determining the size range of active cavities on a given surface.

Several experiments were carried out to measure the temperature profiles within the thermal boundary layer (17, 18, 19). Marcus and Dropkin (17) used thermocouple junctions with a diameter of less than .002 in. (.0051 cm) in their experiments with water. Their results showed that the temperature profile is linear very near the heating surface. The linear region of the temperature profile exhibited similarity with respect to the "extrapolated superheat-layer thickness",  $\delta$ , regardless of the heat flux applied. That is, for all of their data, the temperature profile from the wall to about 0.57  $\delta$  is given as

$$\frac{T - T_b}{T_w - T_b} = 1 - \frac{y}{\$}, \qquad 0 \le y \le 0.57$$
 (2.19)

For the region above 0.57  $\S$  , the temperature profile is expressed in the form of

$$\frac{T - T_b}{T_w - T_b} = C(y/s)^{-n}$$
(2.20)

where n and C are functions of the heat flux applied. The



"extrapolated superheat-layer thickness",  $\delta$ , is defined as the height of the intersection between the tangent to the temperature profile at the surface and the constant liquid bulk temperature line. Figure 2.11 is an example of their result.

The value of  $\delta$  , which is a measure of the super-heated region adjacent to the surface, appears to be primarily a function of the heat transfer coefficient. The experimental results of Marcus and Dropkin were satisfactorily correlated in the form

$$\delta = C_i h^d \tag{2.21}$$

where C<sub>i</sub> and d are functions of the liquid and the surface used. It should be noted that the instantaneous temperature at any point in the superheated boundary layer is a widely and rapidly fluctuating variable. The amplitude of these fluctuations varies with the height above the boiling surface. It reaches a maximum value a small distance from the surface and decreases to a very small value as it approaches the surface. Thus the surface appears to act as a smoothing agent inhibiting the agitation in the liquid. Similar results were obtained for water, Freon-113, and methyl alcohol in the experiments performed by lippert and Dougall (18).

Wiebe and Judd (19) carried these experiments one step further by considering the effect of subcooling on the thermal boundary layer. Their result showed that the wall

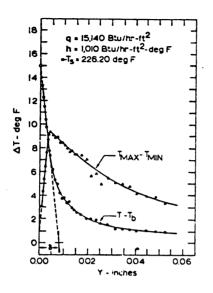


Figure 2.11 Amplitude of temperature fluctuations versus height above surface; high heat flux. Curve also shows average temperature profile and definition of extrapolated superheated layer thickness.

T <sub>L</sub>	$\Delta T_2$	$(T_{\bullet} - T_L), \deg F$	Rmax, in.	$(T_{\bullet}^{R_{\max}^3}, T_L) \times 10^3$	1 cycles sec	$(T_{\omega}^{R_{\max}^2} - T_L)$ $\frac{1}{\tau}$
177	35	80	0.022	0.85	909	0.77
140	72	117	0.019	0.80	1100	0.88
100	112	157	0.016	0.64	1430	0.92
62	1 <b>50</b>	195	0.013	0.43	2000	0.86

Table 2.1 The influence of subcooling on the heat transferred by one bubble.

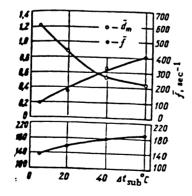


Figure 2.12 Average diameter  $\overline{d}_m$ , nucleation frequency  $\overline{f}$  and growth rate  $\overline{d}_m f$  for vapor bubbles at p= 1 bar as a function of the subcooling.

temperature is relatively insensitive to the degree of subcooling,  $T_{\rm sat}$  - $T_{\rm b}$ . At a heat flux of 20,000 BTU/Hr-ft<sup>2</sup> (63.08 kW/m<sup>2</sup>), the wall superheat dropped from approximately 20 °F to 10 °F (11.1 °C to 5.6 °C) while the subcooling was increased to 50 °F (27.8 °C). When the heat flux was increased to 100,000 BTU/Hr-ft<sup>2</sup> (315.40 kW/m<sup>2</sup>), the wall superheat remained relatively constant at 40 °F (22.2 °C) while the subcooling was increased from 0 °F to 90 °F (0 to 50 °C). One might then conclude that the wall superheat is **relatively** insensitive to subcooling in the well established boiling region. The effect of less subcooling is to decrease the thickness of the extrapolated superheated-layer thickness,  $\delta$ . Thus, similar boiling conditions can be brought about by independent changes in heat flux or subcooling.

2.5 The influence of subcooling on pool boiling heat transfer

It was stated earlier that given a fixed heat flux, the wall superheat,  $T_w$  -  $T_{\rm sat}$ , remains essentially unchanged while subcooling may be changed by a large factor (by as much as 100°F or 150°F). Engelberg-Forster and Greif (20) have proposed an explanation for the apparent insensitivity of the heat transfer rate to subcooling based upon a "vapor-liquid exchange" mechanism. They postulated that the primary mechanism of nucleate boiling heat transfer is the stripping or displacement of the superheat thermal boundary layer by

the departing vapor bubble. This process may be visualized as a kind of pumping action in which a layer of hot liquid is displaced and replaced by cold liquid from the bulk.

When a bubble grows to a maximum size of  $R_{\text{max}}$ , it causes the exchange of a liquid volume proportional to  $(R_{\text{max}})^3$ . The rate of heat energy transferred per boiling site is then given as

$$q \sim C_p (T_{L}(R_{max})^3 (T_w - T_b)/\tau$$
 (2.22)

where T is the average time between each growth cycle. insensitivity of heat flux to subcooling can be explained by combining the effects of subcooling on each of the parameters in equation 2.22. Tolubinskiy and Konstanchuk (21) and Ellion (22) performed experiments with water to study the effects of subcooling on  $\mathbf{R}_{\text{max}}$  and  $\mathbf{T}$  . Ellion's experimental data are shown in Table 2.1 and those of Tolubinskiy and Konstanchuk are shown in Figure 2.12. Both data sets point to the fact that  $R_{max}$  decreases while 1/7 increases as subcooling is increased. Column 5 of Table 2.1 shows that the product  $R_{\text{max}}^3 \cdot (T_{\text{w}} - T_{\text{b}})$  decreases as subcooling increases, despite the fact that higher subcooling increases the total temperature difference between the heating surface and the bulk liquid. Column 7 depicts the heat transfer rate per boiling site. By comparing column 7 with column 2, it is seen that while subcooling was changed by more than 400 percent, the product appearing in equation 2.22 changed only by about 15%, an insignificant variation in view of experimental accuracy.



The analysis of Engelberg-Forster and Greif (20) has some drawbacks. The volume of the hot liquid displaced is more accurately described as being proportional to  $(KR_{max})^2 \delta$ , where  $\delta$  is the thickness of the thermal boundary layer. K is a factor multiplying  $R_{max}$  to give the area of influence in the liquid by the bubble. K, intuitively, will depend upon factors such as the viscosity of the liquid, the bubble growth rate, the velocity at the moment of departure, and the boiling site density on the heating surface. They failed also to consider that the boiling site density might be affected by the change in subcooling.

Fand and Deswani (23) performed a detailed study on the effect of subcooling on the wall temperature of a heating surface. Their results are shown in Figure 2.13. Figure 2.13 is a plot of the surface temperature,  $T_s$ , as a function of the bulk temperature of the liquid,  $T_b$ . At a given heat flux,  $T_s$  possesses a maximum, which occurs at progressively higher degrees of subcooling with increasing heat flux. Table 2.2 gives the calculated values for the heat transfer coefficient as a function of subcooling (note that  $T_s = T_w$ ). The heat transfer coefficient, h, is defined as

$$h = q/(T_w - T_b)$$
 (2.22a)

Sultan and Judd's (24) experimental results on the effect of subcooling on the wall temperature, boiling site density, and average bubble frequency are shown in Figures 2.14, 2.15, and 2.16. Figures 2.14 and 2.15 suggest a



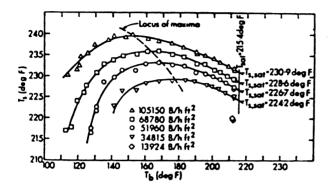


Figure 2.13 Experimental boiling heat transfer data for a horizontal stainless steel cylinder (Dia. = 0.4555 in.) immersed in water.

Table 2.2 Effect of subcooling on heat transfer coefficient (Calculated from figure 3 of Fand and Keswani (22))

1	2	3	4	5	
q (BTU/ Hr-ft <sup>2</sup> )	w (F)	T <sub>b</sub> (F)	T <sub>sat</sub> - T <sub>b</sub> (F)	h (279/ Hr-ft <sup>2</sup> -F	
51960	226.7	212	0	35 <b>35</b>	
51960	228.6	204	8	2112	
51960	230.9(max)	190	22	1 <b>27</b> 0	
51960	230.9	142	<b>7</b> 0	584	
51965	223.5	1 36	<b>7</b> 6	56 <b>1</b>	
51 as -	226.7	132	80	548	
51.160	224.2(min)	1 29	83	545	



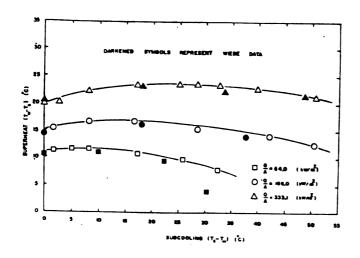


Figure 2.14 Variation of surface-heat with bulk subcooling.

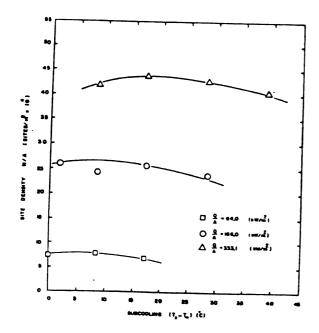


Figure 2.15 Variation of active site with bulk subcooling.

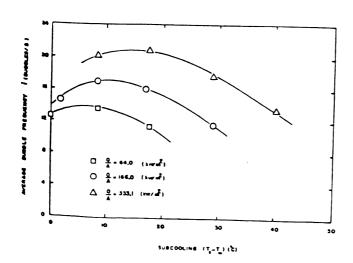


Figure 2.16 Variation of average bubble frequency with bulk subcooling.

direct dependence of site density upon the wall temperature. Contrary to the results of Tolubinskiy and Konstanchuk (21) and Ellion (22), Sultan and Judd's data showed a maximum in the average bubble frequency when plotted against subcooling.

### Chapter 3

### Experimental Design and Procedures

## 3.1 Experimental Design

All experiments were performed at the Boiling Heat Transfer Laboratory at Michigan State University. This section describes the experimental design and set up.

## 3.1.1 Heating surfaces

Two different heating test surfaces made of brass were used in performing the boiling experiments for the two binary systems. At the beginning of each trial, the test surface was prepared by rubbing the heating test section with a fine emery paper (silicon carbide 320) and then finished with a crocus cloth. It should be noted also that a circle with a diameter of 19.1 cm is inscribed on the test section. In the counting of the site density, only bubbles inside this circle are considered. Surface no. 1 (see Figure 3.1) was used for mixtures of ethanol and water. The outer section of the test surface was made very thin (0.4 mm) to minimize the conduction heat loss in the radial direction. Therefore, the major portion of thermal energy is transferred through



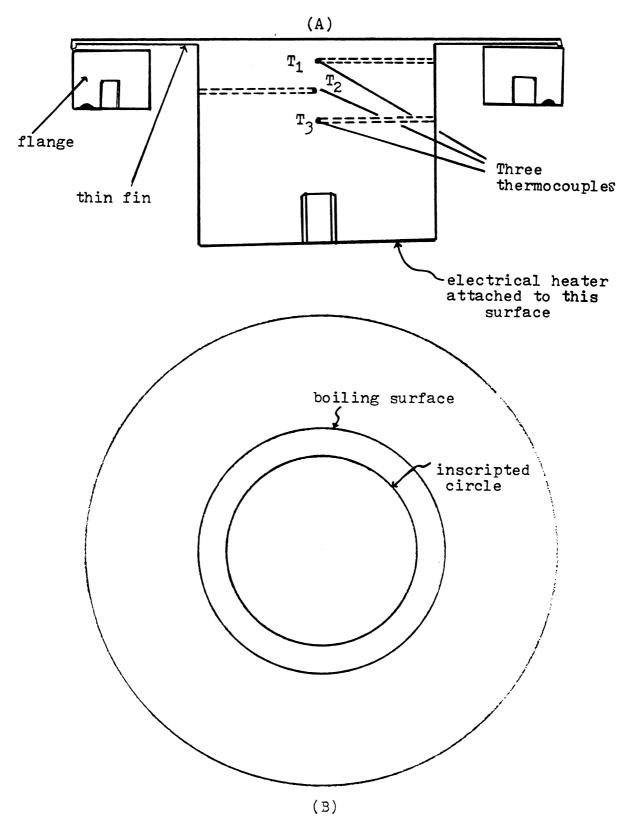


Figure 3.1 Test surface no. 1; (A) SIDE VIEW, (B) TOP VIEW



the midsection since the boiling heat transfer rate on the inner section is much higher than the heat transfer rate by natural convection on the outer section. An adhesive with high temperature resistance and low thermal conductivity was used to attach a circular ring to the bottom of the thin section of the test surface. The ring is in turn screwed to a cylindrical shell (see Figure 3.2).

When surface no. 1 was used for ethanol-benzene mixtures, it was discovered that the mixtures chemically attack the adhesive used, thus creating a leakage problem. For the mixtures of ethanol-benzene, surface no. 2 (Figure 3.3) was used instead. The surface is screwed directly to the cylindrical shell.

The bottom of the test surface, as shown in Figure 3.2, is fastened to anelectrical heater by means of a screw. A high thermal conductivity grease is used to lower the thermal contact resistance between the bottom of the test surface and the heater. The heater was specially designed and built with a nichrome heating filament. Its resistance is about 1.4 ohms. The maximum current used in the experiments is about 12 amperes.

## 3.1.2 Electrical circuit for surface heater

To measure the total heat flux passing through the test surface, it is necessary to know the current and voltage across the heater filament. Section 3.2.3 presents a more



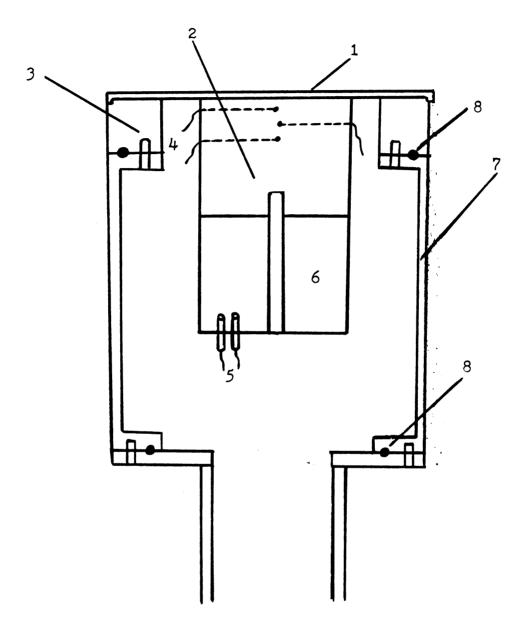


Figure 3.2 Boiling surface set-up (legend; 1-test surface, 2-test surface base, 3-circular ring attached to the test surface using low conductivity adhesive, 4-thermocouple wire, 5-power lead for electric heater, 6-electric heater, 7-cylindrical shell, 8-o-rings)



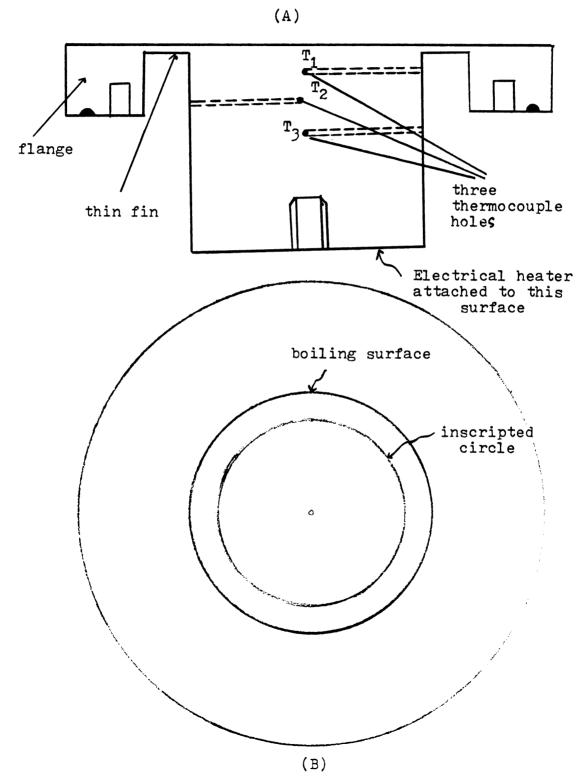


Figure 3.3 Test surface no. 2; (A) side view, (B) top view



detailed description on the conversion of the power of the heater into heat flux for the heating surface. Figure 3.4 is a schematic diagram of the circuitry for the surface heater.

Two voltage measurements are made by a digital multimeter. The first measurement gives the voltage across the heater itself. A shunt with a known resistance of 1 m  $\pm$  1% is used to indirectly measure the current passing through the heater. By measuring the voltage across the shunt, one can obtain a value for the current by dividing the voltage by the known resistance of 1 m  $\Omega$ . The power is then given as:

Power = (Voltage across heater) X (current) (3.1)

## 3.1.3 Description of experimental rig and overall set up

A schematic diagram of the boiling rig is shown in Figure 3.5. The vessel is a 1/4 inch (6.4 mm) thick stainless steel cylinder cross (4 inches in internal diameter) with flanged ends. To maintain the desired temperature and pressure inside the vessel, a proportional temperature controller connected to an immersion heater and a condenser using water as coolant are used. The test surface is mounted vertically, facing a sight glass window.

For all of the test trials, it is desired to maintain the pressure inside the vessel at 14.7 p.s.i.a. (1.01 bar). In cases where subcooling is maintained in the bulk liquid,

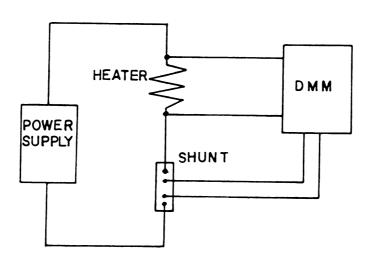


Figure 3.4 Power supply circuit



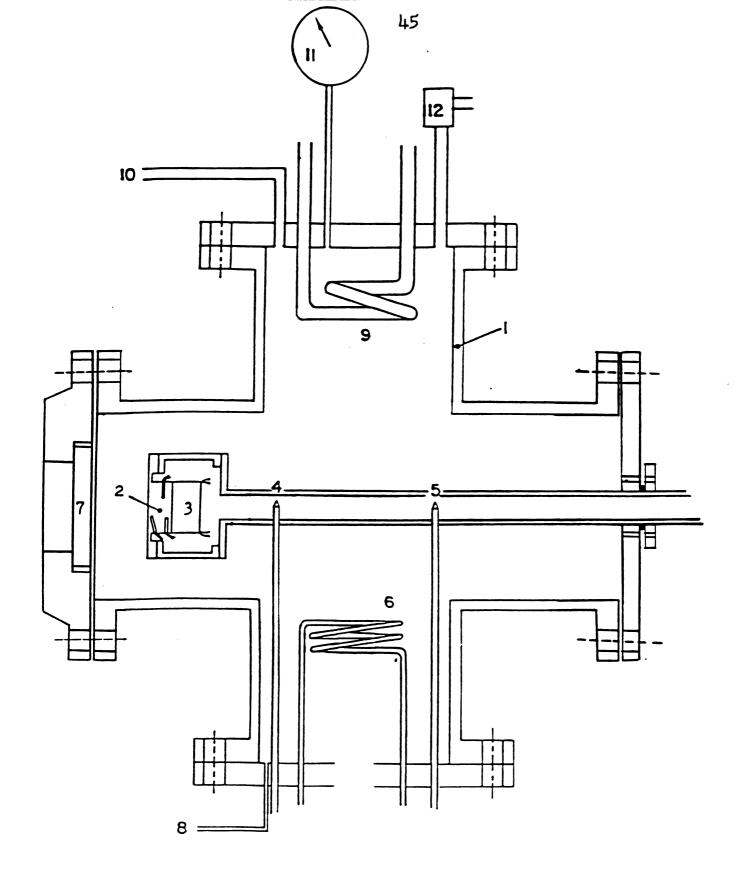


Figure 3.5 Nucleate pool boiling rig (1-stainless steel vessel, 2-test surface, 3-electric heater, 4-bulk liquid thermocouple, 5-temperature controller thermocouple, 6-immersion heater, 7-sight glass windows, 8-liquid fill line, 9-condenser, 10-valve to vacuum pump/atmosphere, 11-pressure gauge, 12-safety relief valve.



nitrogen gas is fed into the vessel at the valve located at position 10 of Figure 3.5. A system of pressure regulators is used so that the pressure is maintained at  $14.7 \pm .3$  p.s.i.a.  $(1.01 \pm 0.02 \text{ bar})$ . Figure 3.6 shows the overall set up for the experiments.

## 3.1.4 Temperature measurement

Copper-constantan thermocouples and digital temperature indicators are used for temperature measurements. The estimated maximum error for each measurements is  $\pm$  0.2 °C. Two thermocouples (at positions 4 and 5 in Figure 3.5) are used to measure the bulk temperature of the liquid. One of these measurements is interfaced with the temperature controller and the other with a digital temperature indicator. Three thermocouples are embedded at three different locations of the heating surface and their temperatures are read from another digital temperature indicator. The two digital temperature indicators are calibrated to agree with each other. The temperatures of the test section are used to extrapolate the wall temperature (see section 3.2.3) of the heating surface.

## 3.2 Experimental procedure and calculations

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of heat flux, composition, and degree of subcooling on the



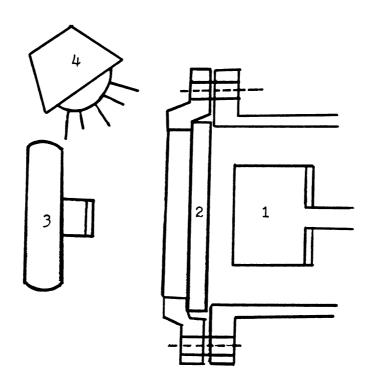


Figure 3.6 Experimental set-up (legend; 1-boiling surface, 2-viewing window, 3-camera, 4-lighting)



boiling site density and the boiling heat transfer coefficient of binary mixtures. Also, qualitatively at least, a fundamental relationship between the boiling site density and the boiling heat transfer coefficient is being sought. binary mixture systems were chosen : ethanol-water and ethanol-benzene. As mentioned in Chapter 1, it is known a priori that a large variation in the dynamic contact angle existed for the ethanol-water binary system. This variation is thought to Ъe less significant for the ethanol-benzene Therefore, it is hoped that the experimental results of system. density from the mixtures will help us to understand the importance of the dynamic contact angle on the site density.

Table 3.1 lists the compositions, heat fluxes, and subcoolings used in the experiments. Appendix A gives a summary of the procedure used to prepare a mixture of the desired composition. The following is an outline of the steps used in the experiment.

## 3.2.1 Experimental procedure

- (1) The prepared mixture is fed into the vessel gradually (to minimize air bubble formation) until the level of the liquid is about 14 cm above the heating surface.
- (2) The temperature controller for the bulk liquid is set to the saturation temperature corresponding to 14.7 p.s.i.a. (1.01 bar). The system is closed to the



Table 3.1 Experimental conditions; mixture composition, heat fluxes, and subcooling.

(A)
Mixture composition: Mole fraction of ethanol

Ethanol-water	Ethanol-benzene	
0%	0%	
15.00%	15.00%	
28.67%	30.00%	
49.04%	45.00%	
60.00%	65.00%	
70.00%	80.00%	
80.00%	100.00%	
89.40%		

(B)

Heat fluxes tested (kW/m²)

97.39

74.62

55.48

38.54

24.41

13.74

(C)

# Degree of subcooling, °C

0 C

5 C

10 C

15 C

20 C



- atmosphere, but the excess pressure caused by the degassing process is released periodically.
- (3) The experiment is ready to start when the saturation condition is reached. At this point, the liquid has been degassed.
- (4) The power to the surface heater is turned on and increased gradually to give a heat flux of about 150 kW/m<sup>2</sup> in the inner section of the heating surface. This ensures that boiling is taking place and that all the possible boiling sites are activated. Boiling continues for approximately 5 minutes to achieve steady state condition.
- (5) The power to the surface heater is then lowered to the desired level. A period of time is allowed for the system to reach a steady state condition. The temperatures (T<sub>b</sub>, T<sub>1</sub>, T<sub>2</sub>, T<sub>3</sub>) are then recorded and photographs of the boiling surface taken.
- (6) Step 5 is repeated for the five other heat fluxes. (See Table 3.1 for a list of heat fluxes tested)
- (7) The bulk temperature setting on the temperature controller is then lowered to the degree of subcooling desired. The system is allowed to reach the desired bulk temperature. At this point, the pressure is lower than 1.01 bar. Nitrogen gas is then fed into the system to make up for the pressure difference.
- (9) Steps 4,5, and 6 are repeated for each subcooling condition. (See Table 3.1 for the different degrees

-

of subcooling tested.

(9) At the end of each experiment a sample of the mixture is taken from the vessel and its density measured at ~20°C to ensure that its composition remained the same. The heating surface is cleaned with crocus cloth to eliminate surface aging as a factor in the experiment.

#### 3.2.2 Determining the boiling site density

Three photographs are obtained for each set of experimental conditions, i.e., mixture composition, heat flux, and degree of subcooling. For each active boiling site on the heating surface, the boiling cycle can be divided into the bubble growth time and the waiting time. During the waiting time, the thermal layer above the surface is being heated by transient heat conduction until it reaches a temperature high enough to reactivate the boiling site as defined by the nucleation criteria. Since the vapor nucleus is too small to be seen in the photograph, a counting of the boiling site density from any single photograph would underestimate the actual number of active sites. Therefore, a scheme is used to reduce this error in the counting procedure.

During the counting of each photograph, a piece of paper is placed directly underneath the photograph. The counting is done by punching a tiny hole in the center of the bubble. Thus the location of the boiling site is also recorded on



the piece of paper. This procedure is repeated for the two other photographs and in this manner the boiling sites of the three photographs are superimposed on the paper. The boiling site density is then obtained by counting the holes on the paper, which gives a better estimate of the actual boiling site density.

### 3.2.3 Calculation for heat transfer coefficient

The heat transfer coefficient is defined as:

$$h = q/(T_w - T_b)$$

(Note that several previous experimental studies have used  $T_{\rm sat}$  instead of  $T_{\rm b}$  in the definition of h). In the next two sections, calculation procedures for determining the heat flux through the boiling surface area, q, and the wall temperature will be discussed.

## Heat flux through the boiling surface area

As mentioned earlier in Section 3.1.1, the heating surface has a total diameter of 2 inches (5.08 cm). The total area of this surface can be thought of as being two separate regions: a boiling heat transfer region and a natural convective heat transfer region. For our calculations, all the heat energy generated by the surface heater is assumed to pass through the heating surface. In order to obtain the heat flux through the boiling area (inner region with a diameter of 2.54 cm), heat loss by natural convection in the



outer region must be subtracted from the total heat transfer rate. It should be noted that the distinction of the two heat transfer mechanisms on the two regions is justified by experimental observations made on the heating surface.

The heat loss to the outer region is calculated by assuming it to be a case of heat transfer by conduction through a circumferential fin of rectangular profile. The heat which is conducted through the circumferential fin is removed by natural convection to the bulk liquid. For detailed discussion of this calculation, see Appendix B.

Heat losses through the fin ranged from 8% to about 65% depending upon the experimental conditions, i.e., this heat loss is more significant at low heat flux and high subcooling. The actual heat flux through the boiling test section is then adjusted appropriately in the calculation for the heat transfer coefficient.

Other designs incorporating an insulating material rather than the metallic fin could have been used to reduce heat losses but bubbles formed at the joint would have adversely affected the boiling site density measurements.

# Wall temperature

Three thermocouples were placed at different distances underneath the heating surface. The heat energy generated by the electric heater is conducted to the test surface through a circular base located at its bottom (see Figures 3.1 and 3.3). Inside the cylindrical shell (Figure 3.2), it is assumed that the energy loss by natural convection to



air is insignificant. Thus the temperature profile along the length of the circular base is assumed to be linear and the wall temperature can be extrapolated by measurement of  $T_1, T_2$ , and  $T_3$ . However, two problems were encountered: (1) the temperature profile in the region between  $T_2$  and  $T_3$  is not quite linear due to the shape effect of the electric heater bolt hole, and (2) occasionally, a loose contact exists between the junction of the thermocouple and the point of temperature measurement in the cylindrical rod. The first problem is eliminated by using only  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  in extrapolating the wall temperature,  $T_w$ . The temperature profile of  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$ , and  $T_3$  is checked qualitatively to ensure that the junctions are in good contact with the wall of the drilled holes in the circular base.



## Chapter 4

#### Pesults and Discussion

Experimental results are presented and discussed in this chapter. Seventeen experimental runs were performed: experiments for ethanol-water mixtures and 7 experiments for ethanol-benzene mixtures. Experiments for two compositions of ethanol-water mixtures (at 70% and 80% mole fraction ethanol) were repeated and the results were consistent with each other. A tabulated form of all experimental data is presented in Appendix C. In the following sections, different aspects of the results are organized by presenting them in graphical form. Specifically, the effects of compositions, subcooling, heat flux, and wall temperature on boiling site density are examined. Presented also are plots of the heat transfer coefficient as a function of composition and the heat transfer coefficient as a function of subcooling. Finally, ratios of  $(h_{exp}/h_{I})$  and (experimental boiling site density/ ideal boiling site density) at constant heat flux are plotted against mixture composition. The ideal quantities are defined by an ideal linear mixing law. An example showing the value of h and h for ethanol-benzene mixtures is shown in Figure 4.0. Note that  $h_{\mathsf{T}}$  is the ideal heat transfer coefficient calculated by using an ideal linear mixing law,



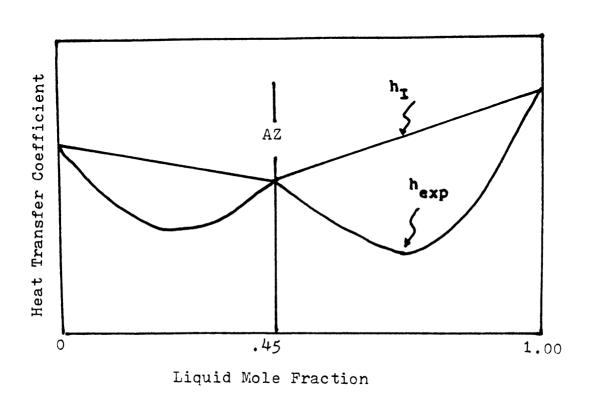


Figure 4.0 Definition of a linear mixing law for the azeotropic ethanol-benzene system



i.e. for 
$$0 \le \tilde{x} \le \tilde{x}_{az}$$

$$h_{I} = \frac{\widetilde{x}}{\widetilde{x}_{az}} \quad h_{exp} | \widetilde{x} = \widetilde{x}_{az} \quad \frac{\widetilde{x}_{az} - \widetilde{x}}{\widetilde{x}_{az}} \quad h_{exp} | \widetilde{x} = 0$$
 (4.1)

and  $\tilde{x}_{az} \leq \tilde{x} \leq 1$ 

$$h_{I} = \frac{\widetilde{x} - \widetilde{x}_{az}}{1 - \widetilde{x}_{az}} \quad h_{exp} | \widetilde{x} = 1 \qquad \frac{1 - \widetilde{x}}{1 - \widetilde{x}_{az}} \quad h_{exp} | \widetilde{x} = \widetilde{x}_{az}$$
 (4.2)

4.1 Heat transfer coefficient vs. mixture composition

### 4.1.1 Ethanol-water mixtures

Figures 4.1, 4.2, 4.3, and 4.4 are graphs of the experimental heat transfer coefficient plotted against mixture composition for the ethanol-water system. For each heat flux used, five different levels of subcooling were maintained in the bulk liquid. The negative deviation of the actual heat transfer coefficient from that calculated by a linear mixing law is conclusive for high heat fluxes and low subcoolings. The minimum point for most of the curves occurs in the vicinity of about 30% mole fraction of ethanol. For the mixture composition of 30% ethanol at a heat flux of 97.39 kg/m² and 0°C of subcooling, the predicted heat coefficient from a linear mixing law is calculated to be about 8.0 kg/m² °C. The experimental value is 3.9 kg/m² °C, a 51%



Figure 4.1

HEAT TRANS COEFF VS PERCENT ETHANOL ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE HEAT FLUX IS 97.39 KW/M²-

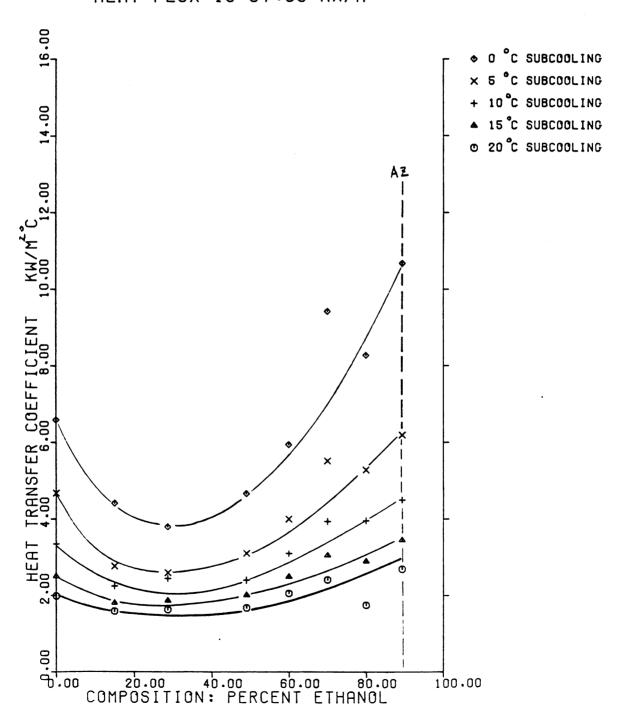




Figure 4.2

HEAT TRANS COEFF VS PERCENT ETHANOL

ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE

HEAT FLUX IS 74.62 KW/M<sup>2</sup>

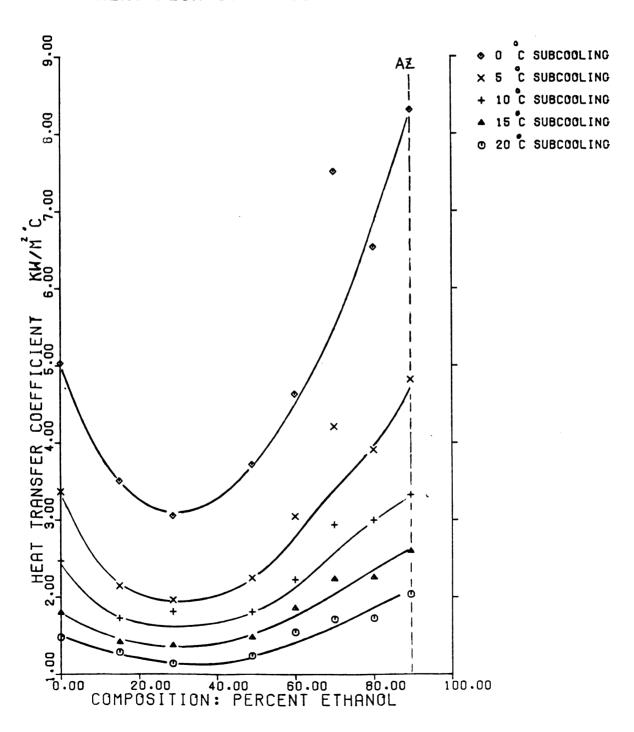




Figure 4.3
HEAT TRANS COEFF VS PERCENT ETHANOL
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 38.54 KW/M<sup>2</sup>

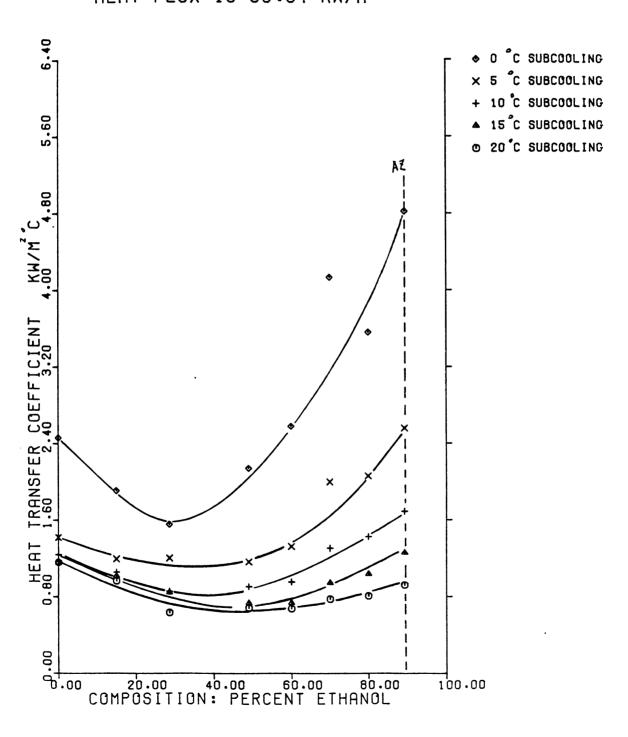


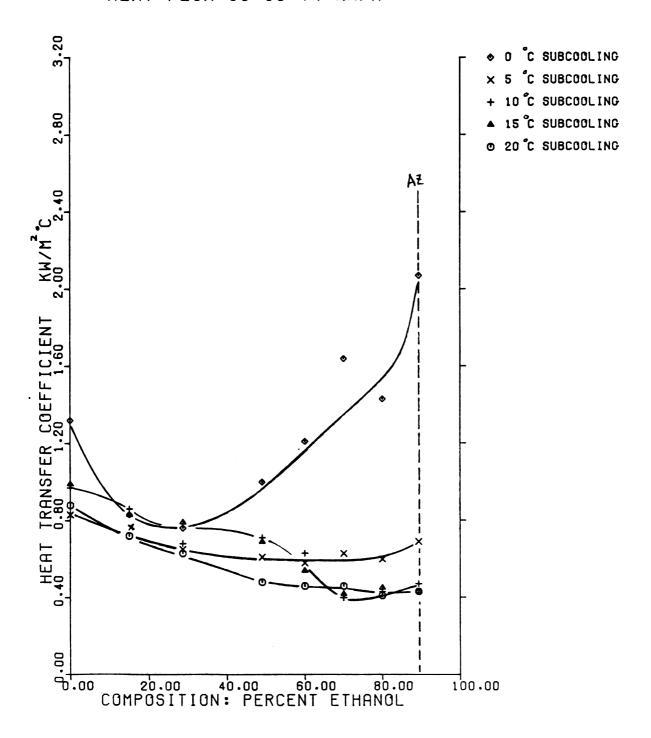


Figure 4.4

HEAT TRANS COEFF VS PERCENT ETHANOL

ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE

HEAT FLUX IS 13.74 KW/M<sup>2</sup>



reduction from the predicted value. The deviations from the predicted values become smaller for lower heat fluxes and higher degrees of subcooling. This can be explained by the fact that at these conditions, natural convection becomes more significant in the heat transfer process and the heat transfer coefficient is less affected by the preferential evaporation of the more volatile component (i.e. ethanol). This is illustrated by Figure 4.4 where for subcoolings of 5, 10, 15, and 20 °C, the heat transfer coefficient can be accurately predicted by using a linear mixing law.

#### 4.1.2 Ethanol-benzene mixtures

Some results for heat transfer coefficient as a function of mixture composition for ethanol-benzene mixtures are shown in Figures 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, and 4.8. The negative deviation from the ideal values is again obvious. Two minima are observed for this system: one at each side of the azeotropic mixture composition (45% mole fraction of ethanol). The azeotropic mixture thus seems to behave like a pure liquid. As in the case of the ethanol-water system, the deviation is more significant at high heat flux and low subcooling. The deviation from the ideal values, however, is smaller for this system than the ethanol-water system. For the minimum point at the composition of about 80%, at a heat flux of 97.39 kW/m² and 0°C subcooling, a 27% reduction from the ideal value is obtained for the experimental heat transfer coefficient.



Figure 4.5
HEAT TRANS COEFF VS PERCENT ETHANOL
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 97.39 KW/M

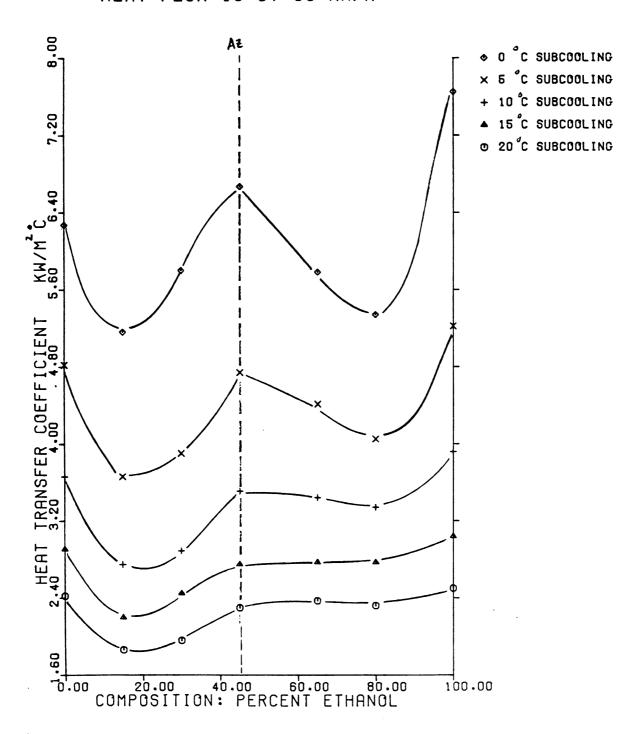
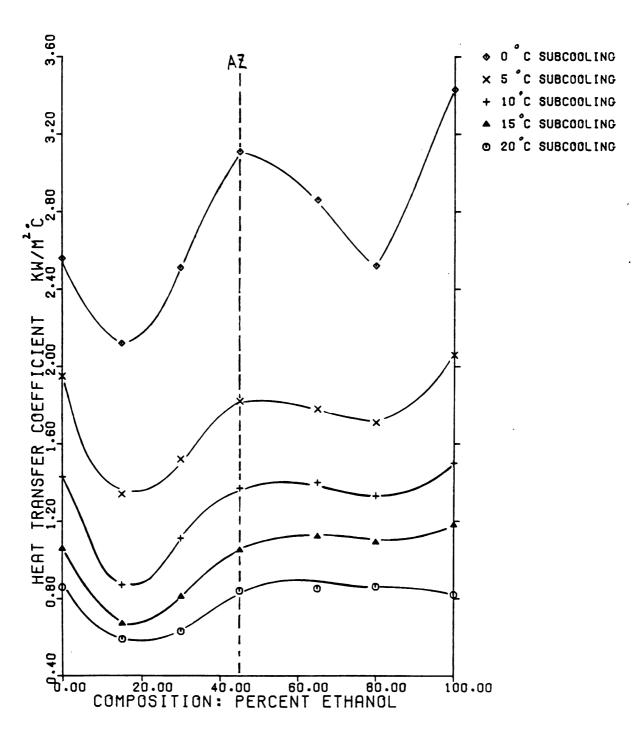




Figure 4.6
HEAT TRANS COEFF VS PERCENT ETHANOL
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 38.54 KW/M<sup>2</sup>





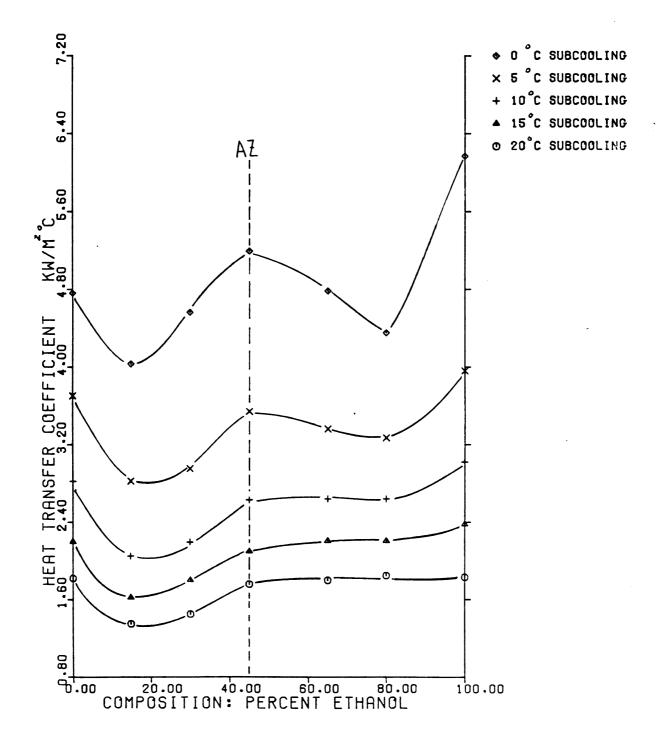
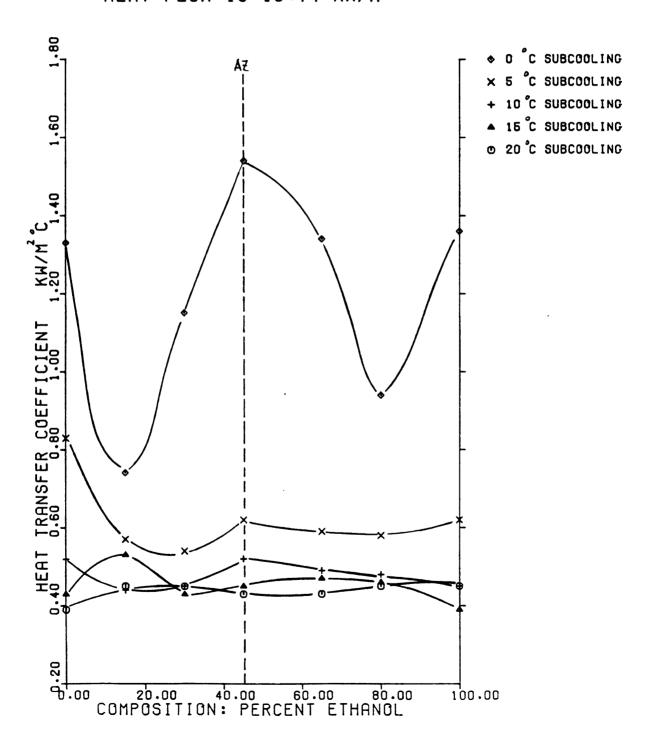


Figure 4.8
HEAT TRANS COEFF VS PERCENT ETHANOL
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 13.74 KW/M²



### 4.2 Heat transfer coefficient vs. subcooling

Figures 4.9, 4.10, 4.11, and 4.12 show the effect of subcooling on the heat transfer coefficient. Note that each figure is for one particular composition. The heat transfer coefficient is seen to decrease as the subcooling increases. This is due to the fact that  $T_{\rm w}$  drops at a less extent than  $T_{\rm b}$ , i.e.  $T_{\rm w}$  is relatively insensitive to changes in subcooling. Also evident is the fact that the decreasing value of h is more significant at higher fluxes. This suggests that  $T_{\rm w}$  is relatively insensitive to subcooling in the well established boiling region. On the other hand, since natural convection is the more dominant mode of heat transfer at lower heat fluxes, h is relatively insensitive to subcooling. It should be pointed out also that the results here show a similar trend to those obtained by Sterman, Vilamos, and Abramov (25).

4.3 Non-dimensional heat transfer coefficient,  $h_{exp}/h_{I}$ , vs. mixture composition

#### 4.3.1 Ethanol-water mixtures

The value of the non-dimensional heat transfer coefficient, defined here as  $h_{\rm exp}/h_{\rm I}$ , indicates the extent of the negative deviation of the experimental value of h from that predicted by an ideal linear mixing law. In Figures 4.13 and 4.14 (at constant heat fluxes of 97.39 kV/m² and 74.62

Figure 4.9
HEAT TRANS COEFF VS SUBCOOLING
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 60.00 PERCENT ETHANOL

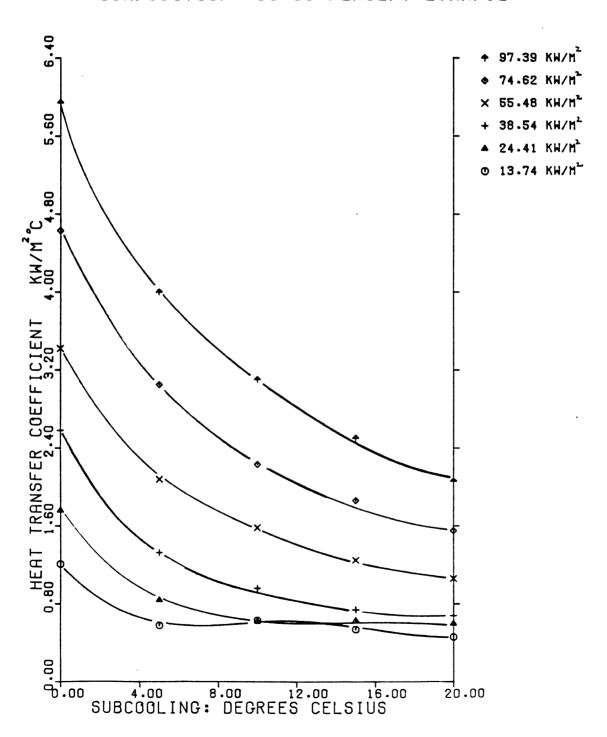


Figure 4.10
HEAT TRANS COEFF VS SUBCOOLING
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 100.00 PERCENT ETHANOL

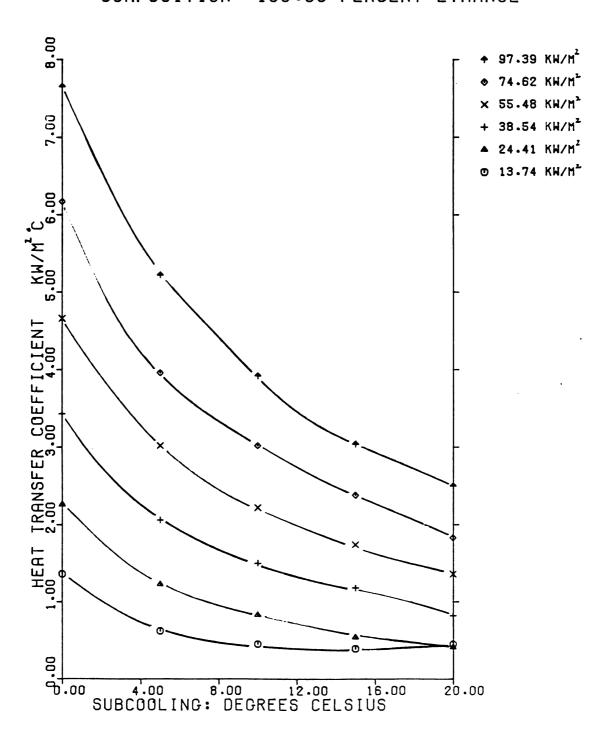


Figure 4.11
HEAT TRANS COEFF VS SUBCOOLING
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 80.00 PERCENT ETHANOL

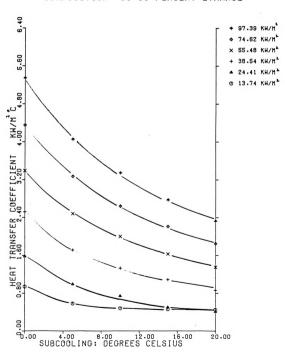


Figure 4.12
HEAT TRANS COEFF VS SUBCOOLING
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 0.00 PERCENT ETHANOL

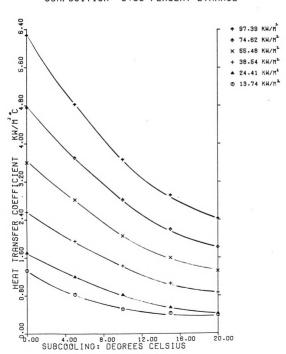


Figure 4.13
H(EXP)/H(I) VS. COMPOSITION
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 97.39 KW/M<sup>2</sup>

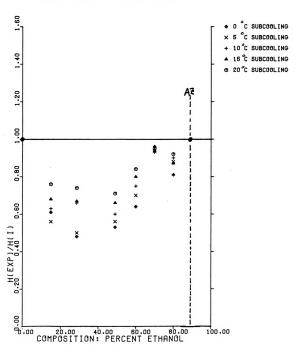
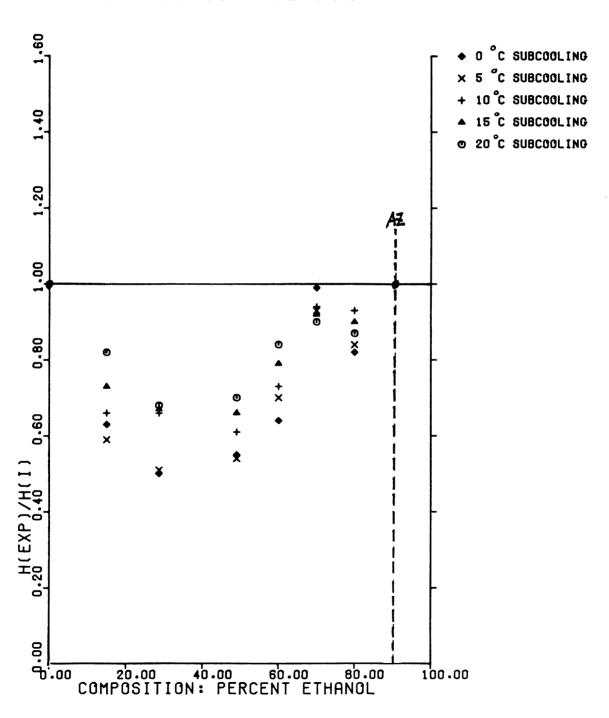


Figure 4.14
H(EXP)/H(I) VS. COMPOSITION
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 74.62 KW/M<sup>2</sup>



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kW/m²), the minimum values of  $h_{\rm exp}/h_{\rm I}$  occur in the neighborhood of 30% ethanol composition; the values being about 0.5 in both cases. For the composition region between 0% to 60%, the values of  $h_{\rm exp}/h_{\rm I}$  incresed when subcooling is increased. Again, natural convection begins to be more significant at higher subcooling and the degradation in the boiling heat transfer process becomes less dominant. This trend is not as obvious for the data at the compositions of 70% and 80%.

### 4.3.2 Ethanol-benzene mixtures

Some values of  $h_{exp}/h_{I}$  for the ethanol-benzene mixtures are shown in Figures 4.15 and 4.16. As pointed out earlier, two mimima are obtained: one on each side of the azeotrope. The mimima of  $h_{exp}/h_{I}$  are in general less profound for this system compared to the ethanol-water system. In the region from 45% to 100% ethanol,  $h_{exp}/h_{I}$  increases as subcooling is increased. However,  $h_{exp}/h_{I}$  has its maximum values at 0°C subcooling in the region from 0% to 45% ethanol. This is true at both heat fluxes: 97.39 kW/m² and 74.62 kW/m². No plausible explanation is available at the present time.

4.4 Boiling site density vs. mixture composition

### 4.4.1 Ethanol-water mixture

Figures 4.17, 4.18, 4.19, and 4.20 are experimental

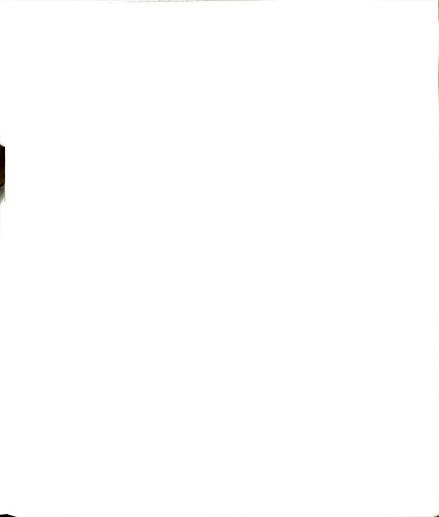


Figure 4.15
H(EXP)/H(I) VS. COMPOSITION
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 97.39 KW/M

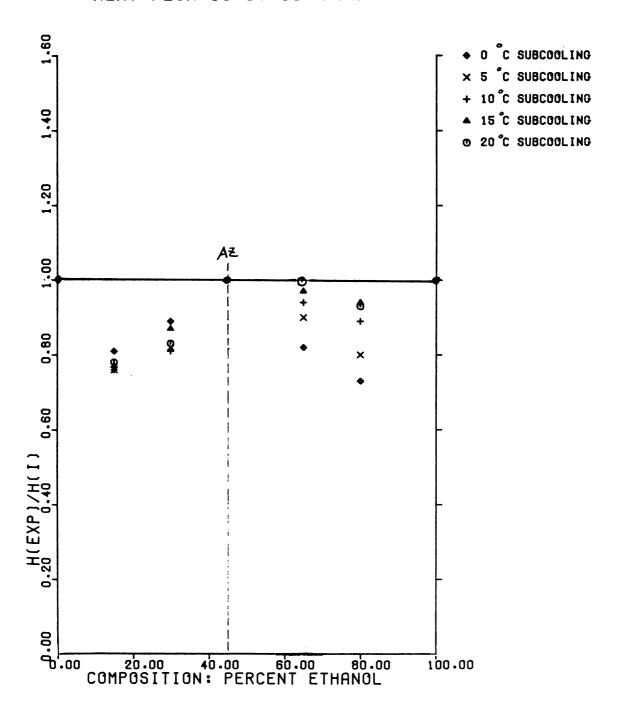




Figure 4.16
H(EXP)/H(I) VS. COMPOSITION
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 74.62 KW/M<sup>2</sup>

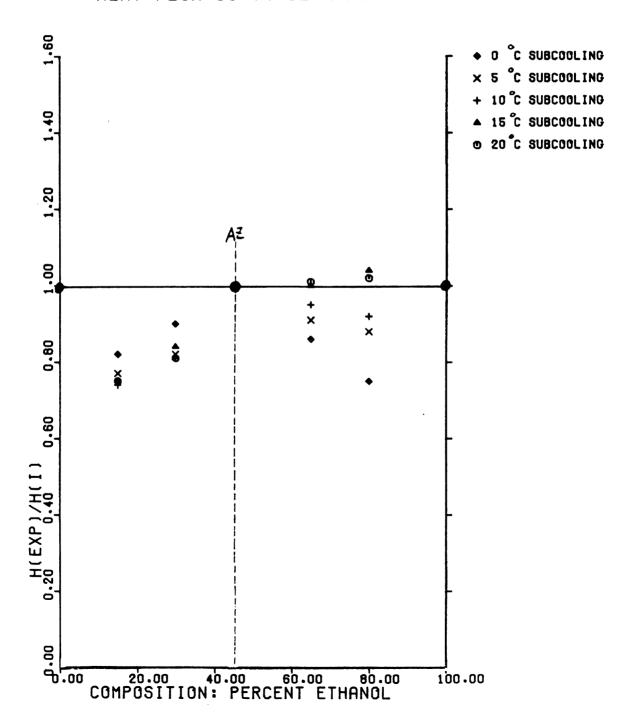


Figure 4.17
SITE DENSITY VS PERCENT ETHANOL
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 97.39 KW/M²

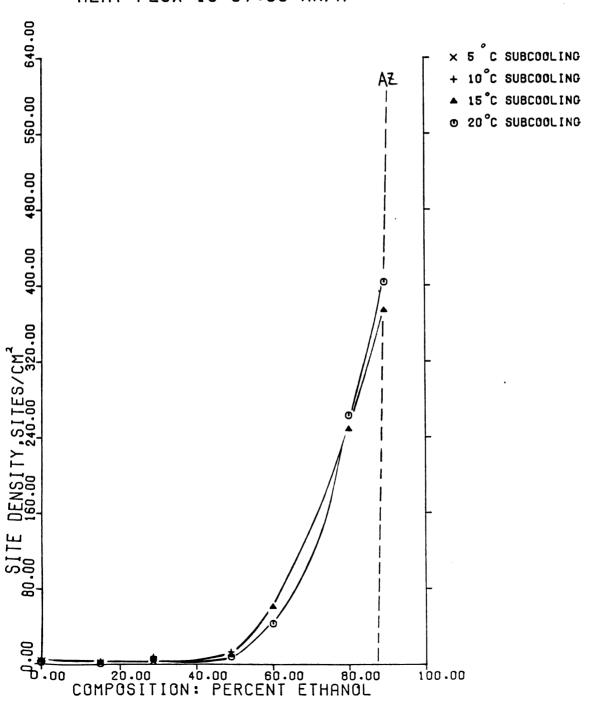
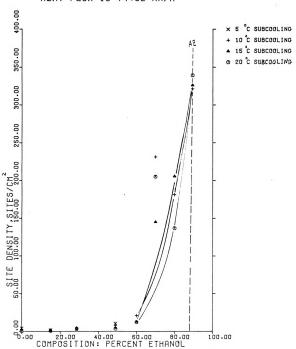


Figure 4.18
SITE DENSITY VS PERCENT ETHANOL
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 74.62 KW/M²



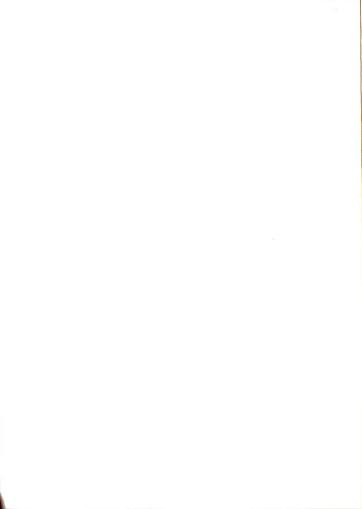


Figure 4.19
SITE DENSITY VS PERCENT ETHANOL
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 38.54 KW/M²

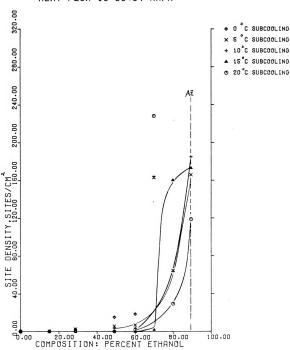
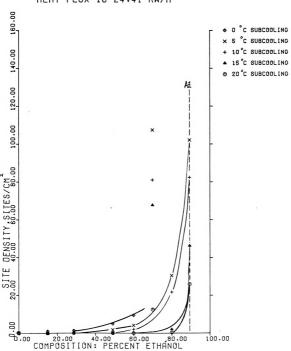


Figure 4.20
SITE DENSITY VS PERCENT ETHANOL
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 24.41 KW/M<sup>2</sup>



results for the boiling site density as a function of composition at different heat fluxes. Based on the results of Thome, Shakir, and Mercier (12) on the incipient superheats for ethanol-water system (Figure 2.9), a minimum value for the boiling site density is expected in the vicinity of 50% mole fraction of ethanol. The results of the deactivation superheats showed a smaller variation as a function of composition. For the experiments performed in the present study, the deactivation superheat would be more reliable in predicting the boiling site density since all possible sites were activated by using a very high heat flux at the beginning of each trial.

For each of the heat fluxes studied, the boiling site density is relatively small in the composition region from 0% to about 60% mole fraction of ethanol. Beyond this point the boiling site density increases very rapidly, until an increase of two orders of magnitude is reached at the azeotrope. A vapor spreading phenomenon is observed to be responsible for this huge increase in the boiling site density. For mixtures with a relatively large percentage of ethanol, the following observation was noted. When the heat flux through the heating surface is increased gradually to about 200 kW/m², the wall temperature can be about 30 to 45°C above the saturation temperature before boiling takes place. A single site would be activated first and it is surmized that its vapor in turn "seeds" neighboring sites, causing them to be activated also. A "chain reaction



phenomenon" thus occurs, causing the entire heating surface to be activated and hence, a high boiling site density to result.

This aqueous system shows a large negative deviation of the boiling site density from that predicted by an ideal linear mixing law. It is noted, however, that the bubble departure diameter of water is about 3 to 4 times that of the azeotropic mixture. It should be pointed out also that some site density results were not obtainable because the sites were too crowded to be counted. This usually occurs at high heat flux and low subcooling.

## 4.4.2 Ethanol-benzene mixtures

Figures 4.21, 4.22, 4.23, and 4.24a are results for the site density as a function of composition for ethanol-benzene mixtures. The variation here is much smaller than that found in the ethanol-water system. The results demonstrate a maximum to the left of the azeotrope but a minimum to the right. It is noted that the vapor spreading phenomenon occurred over the entire composition range from pure benzene to pure ethanol while activating the boiling surface.

The following offers a plausible explanation for the observed site density variation. After a bubble departed from the heating surface, a vapor nucleus is left behind in the micro-structure. At the same time, liquid from the bulk rushes in to take up the space that the departed



Figure 4.21
SITE DENSITY VS PERCENT ETHANOL
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 97.39 KW/M³

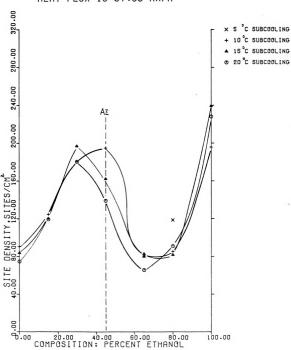




Figure 4.22
SITE DENSITY VS PERCENT ETHANOL
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 74.62 KW/M\*

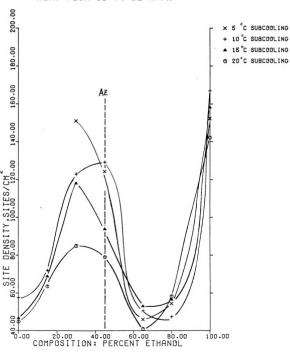


Figure 4.23
SITE DENSITY VS PERCENT ETHANOL
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 55.48 KW/M²

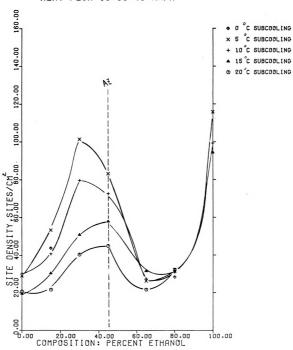
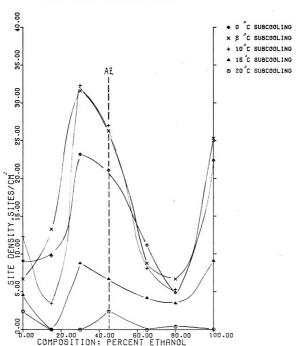


Figure 4.24a
SITE DENSITY VS PERCENT ETHANOL
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 24.41 KW/M²





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bubble left behind. The composition of the vapor nucleus is likely to have a lower concentration of the more volatile component than the vapor composition corresponding to the bulk liquid due to the preferential evaporation of the more volatile component. Therefore, the vapor nucleus will not be in chemical equilibrium with the bulk liquid.

For  $0 \le \widetilde{x}_b \le \widetilde{x}_{az}$  (see Figure 4.24b for a phase equilibrium diagram for the ethanol-benzene system)

Suppose that the bulk liquid is of composition  $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{b_a}$  with its corresponding vapor composition equal to  $\widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_a$ . The vapor nucleus has a vapor composition that is of a value somewhere between  $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{b_a}$  and  $\widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_a$ . Therefore the composition of the vapor nucleus has a lower mole fraction of ethanol than the vapor composition,  $\widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_a$ , corresponding to the bulk liquid composition,  $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{b_a}$ . It is postulated that in order for the vapor nucleus to attain a vapor composition of  $\widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_a$ , ethanol is preferentially evaporated at the vapor and liquid interface. Thus the radius of this vapor nucleus is increased and the incipient superheat required is lowered. This would lead to a higher boiling site density. It is also postulated that the maximum in the boiling site density is strongly influenced by the maximum value of  $|\widetilde{\mathbf{y}}-\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}|$ .

For  $\widetilde{x}_{az} \leqslant \widetilde{x}_{b} \leqslant 1$ 

For this composition range, the vapor composition of the vapor nucleus has a higher composition of ethanol than the

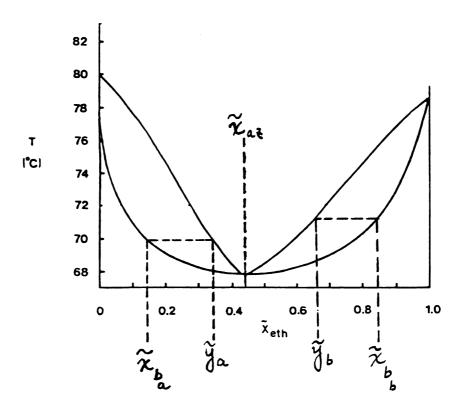


Figure 4.24b Phase equilibrium diagram for ethanol-benzene system.

vapor composition corresponding to the bulk liquid. Therefore, it is postulated that the ethanol component in the vapor nucleus is preferentially condensed so that the vapor nucleus will be in chemical equilibrium with the bulk liquid. Thus the radius of the nucleus is decreased and a higher incipient superheat is required for the nucleus to begin to grow . The resulting effect is a lower boiling site density. Again, the minimum value of the boiling site density is in the vicinity of the maximum value of  $|\tilde{y} - \tilde{x}|$ . Finally, this non-aqueous mixture system is shown also to have a very nonlinear variation in the boiling site density with composition.

## 4.5 Boiling site density vs. subcooling

It is seen from Figures 4.25, 4.26, 4.27, 4.28, 4.29, and 4.30 that the site density as a function of subcooling can behave in three different ways (1) monotonically decreasing with subcooling, (2) displaying a maximum, or (3) displaying a minimum value. As discussed in Chapter 2, the wall temperature is a relatively weak function of subcooling and the data from the present study further supports this idea, i.e. Two drops at a slower rate than that of the decrease in the temperature of the bulk liquid. But at the same time, the heat transfer coefficient is smaller for a higher degree of subcooling used. Since the thickness of the thermal boundary layer is related to the heat transfer coefficient in the form

 $S = ch^{d} \tag{2.21}$ 

Figure 4.25
SITE DENSITY VS SUBCOOLING
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 89.40 PERCENT ETHANOL

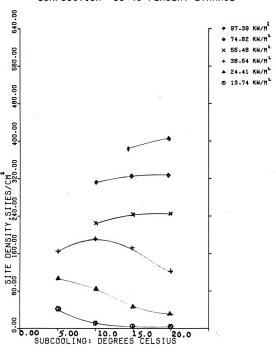


Figure 4.26
SITE DENSITY VS SUBCOOLING
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 60.00 PERCENT ETHANOL

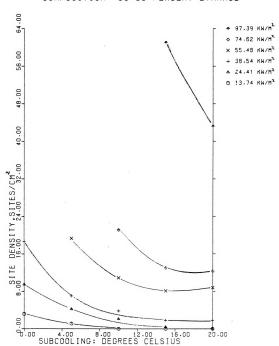




Figure 4.27
SITE DENSITY VS SUBCOOLING
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 28.67 PERCENT ETHANOL

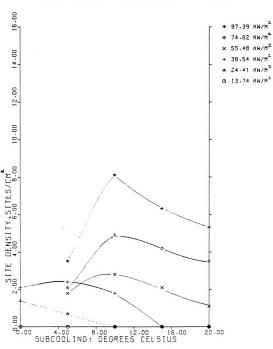




Figure 4.28
SITE DENSITY VS SUBCOOLING
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 100.00 PERCENT ETHANOL

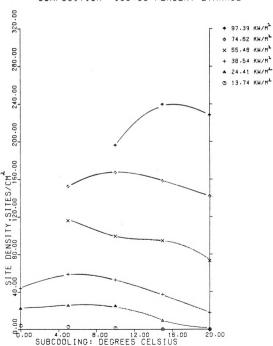




Figure 4.29
SITE DENSITY VS SUBCOOLING
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 80.00 PERCENT ETHANOL

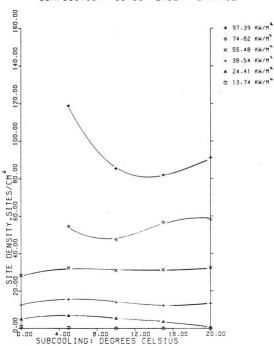
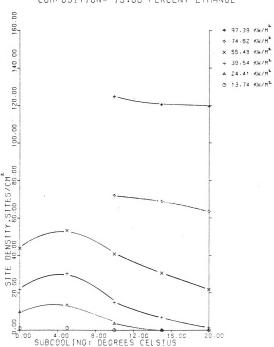




Figure 4.30
SITE DENSITY VS SUBCOOLING
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 15.00 PERCENT ETHANOL





where d is a negative number, the thickness of the thermal boundary layer is expected to increase when a higher degree of subcooling is used. Also, the bubble departure diameter decreases with subcooling as observed here qualitatively and quantitatively in Figure 2.12. Thus, as subcooling increases, there is a possibility of packing boiling sites closer together. Thus three general trends can be caused by an increases in the subcooling: (1) a decrease in the wall temperature, (2) an increase in the thickness of the thermal boundary layer adjacent to the heating surface, and (3) D, is smaller as subcooling is increased. It can be assumed that a decrease in wall temperature would cause a lower boiling site density to occur. On the other hand, an increase in the thickness of the thermal boundary layer may increase the boiling site density, an idea suggested by Hsu's analysis in Chapter 2. Thus, these three phenomena should be considered in the analysis of the boiling density as a function of subcooling.

## 4.6 Boiling site density vs. heat flux

As expected, the boiling site density increases as the heat flux is increased as shown in Figures 4.31, 4.32, and 4.33. Note that the slope of the curves gets steeper as the heat flux is increased. An energy balance can be written in the form

Energy = (Boiling site density) (average energy

(Area)(time) removed per bubble) (Average frequency of bubble cycle) (4.1)



Figure 4.31
SITE DENSITY VS HEAT FLUX
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 80.00 PERCENT ETHANOL

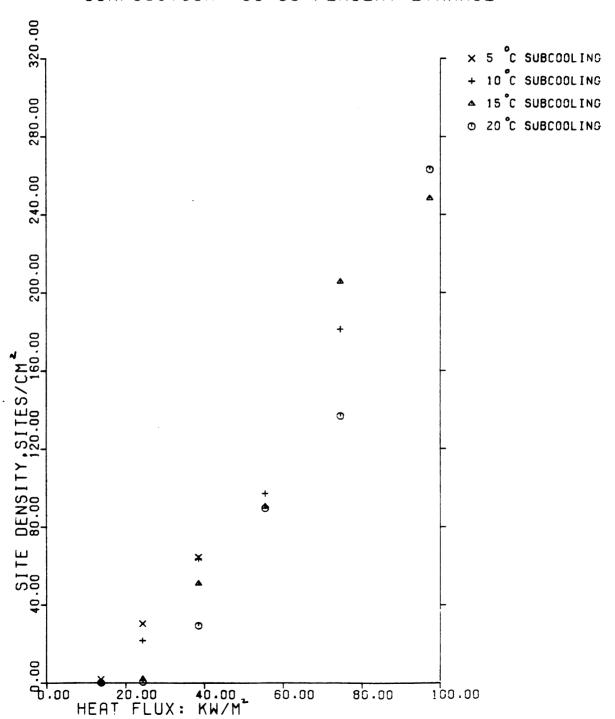




Figure 4.32
SITE DENSITY VS HEAT FLUX
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 100.00 PERCENT ETHANOL

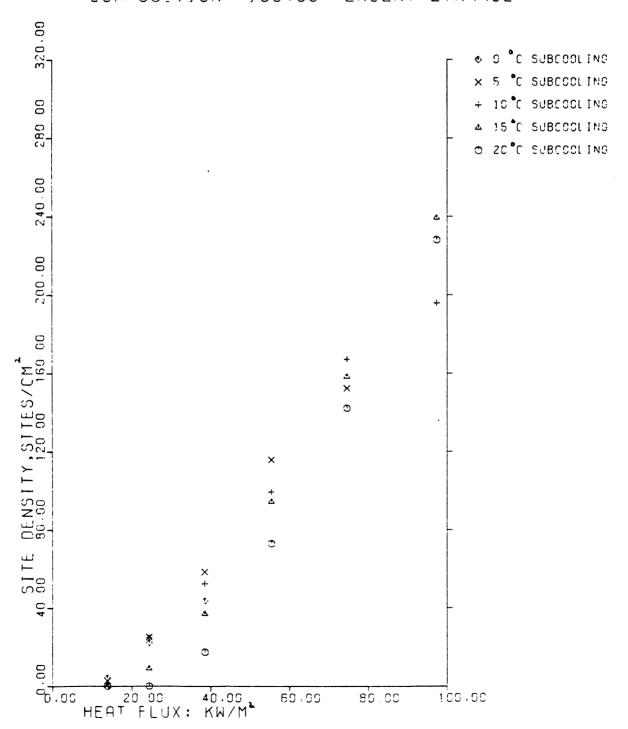
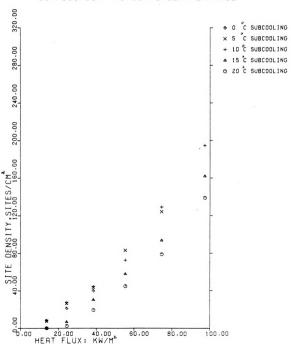




Figure 4.33
SITE DENSITY VS HEAT FLUX
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 45.00 PERCENT ETHANOL





or

Heat flux = (Average energy removed per bubble)

Boiling site density 
$$X (1/7)$$
 (4.2)

Since the experimental data point to the fact that the ratio of (heat flux/boiling site density) is decreasing as heat flux is increased, this shows that the product of (av. energy removed per bubble) X ( $1/\tau$ ) is therefore also decreasing as the heat flux is increased. Since it is well known that  $\tau$  decreases as heat flux is increased, this suggests that the average energy removed per bubble decreases at higher heat flux.

#### 4.7 Boiling site density vs. wall temperature

The boiling site density is plotted as a function of wall temperature in Figures 4.34, 4.35, and 4.36. The following observations are noted:

- (1) The deactivation superheats can be extrapolated from each curve. Note that the data seem to suggest a higher deactivation superheat for lower subcooling, pointing to the importance of the thickness of the thermal boundary layer suggested earlier.
- (2) Within the range of conditions tested, i.e. a heat flux up to about 100kW/m<sup>2</sup>, the rate of increase in the boiling site density increase rapidly as the wall termperature is raised.

Figure 4.34
SITE DENSITY VS. WALL TEMPERATURE
ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 80.00 PERCENT ETHANOL

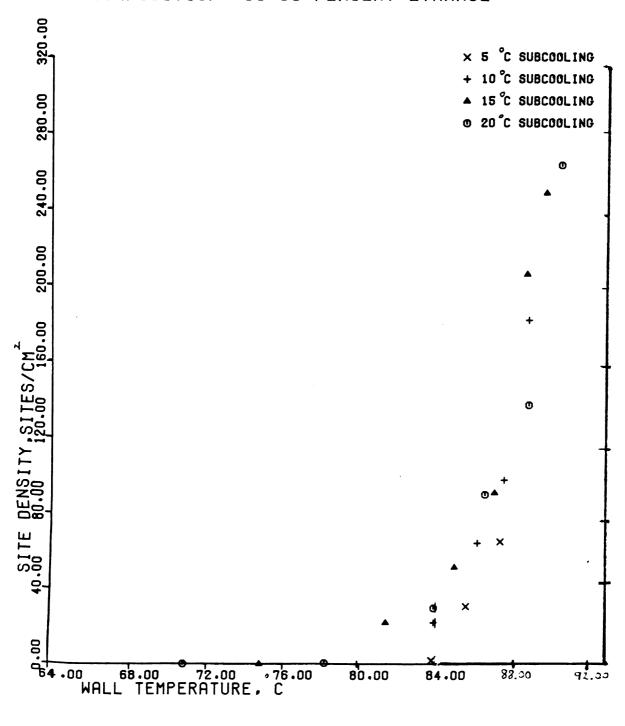
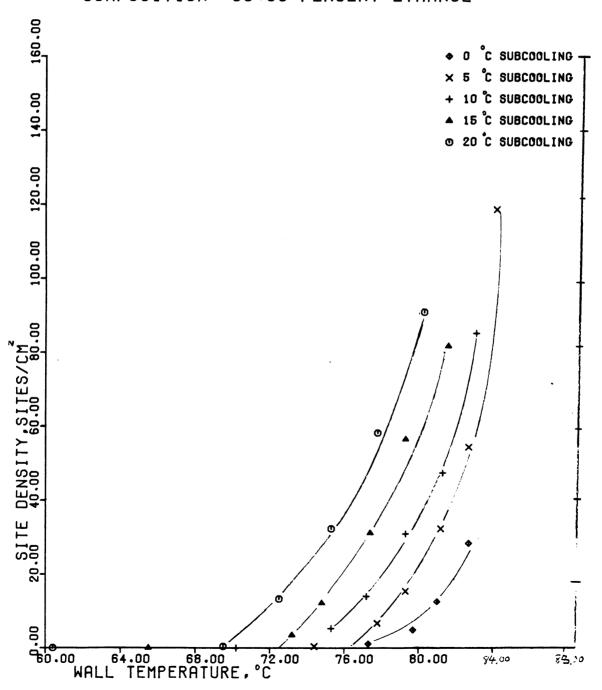




Figure 4.35
SITE DENSITY VS. WALL TEMPERATURE
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 80.00 PERCENT ETHANOL



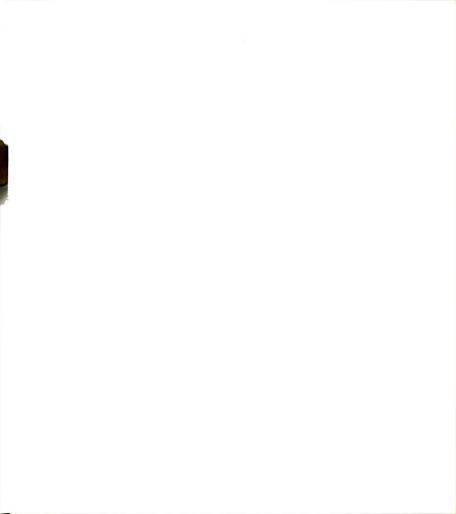
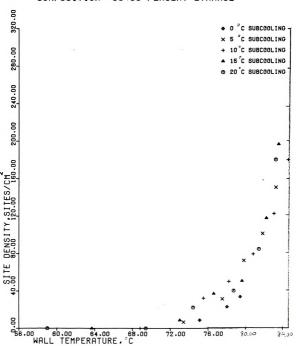


Figure 4.36
SITE DENSITY VS. WALL TEMPERATURE
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
COMPOSITION- 30.00 PERCENT ETHANOL



- (3) Note that given the same wall temperature, the general trend is for the boiling site density to be larger for higher subcooling. Again, this can be due to a thicker thermal boundary layer at higher subcooling.
- 4.8 (Experimental boiling site density)/(Ideal linear boiling site density) vs. mixture composition

Figures 4.38, 4.39, and 4.40 show the variation of (B.S.D. exp/B.S.D.<sub>I</sub>) versus the mixture composition; where (B.S.D. exp/B.S.D.<sub>I</sub>) is the ratio of the experimental boiling site density to that predicted by an ideal linear mixing law. Note the inadequacy of trying to predict the boiling site density from the linear mixing law. This is especially true for the ethanol-water mixtures at the mole fractions of 15%, 28.67%, 49.04%, and 60.0% ethanol where the experimental boiling site densities for these mixtures are less than 10% of the predicted ideal values. For the ethanol-benzene mixture system, the value of B.S.D.<sub>exp</sub>/B.S.D.<sub>I</sub> is greater that one to the left of the azeotrope and is less than one to the right. For this system, it would also be very inadequate to try to predict the boiling site density based on a linear mixing law.

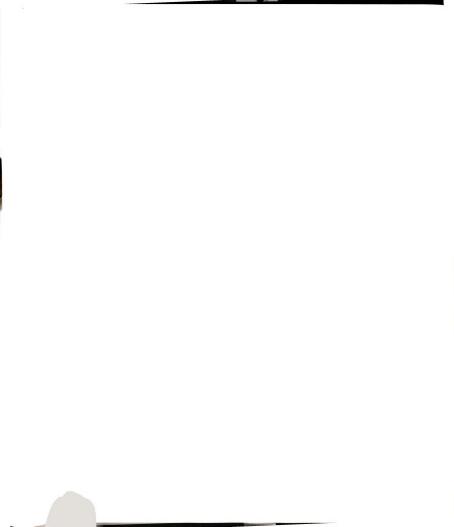


Figure 4.38

B.S.D.(EXP)/B.S.D.(I) VS. COMPOSITI ETHANOL AND WATER MIXTURE HEAT FLUX IS 74.62 KW/M²

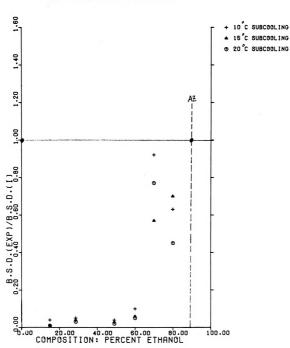




Figure 4.39
B.S.D.(EXP)/B.S.D.(I) VS. COMPOSITI
ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE
HEAT FLUX IS 97.39 KW/M²

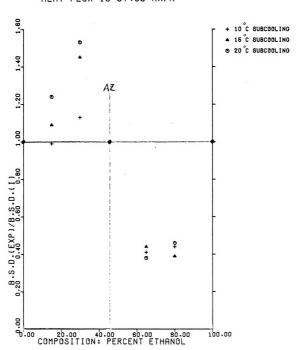
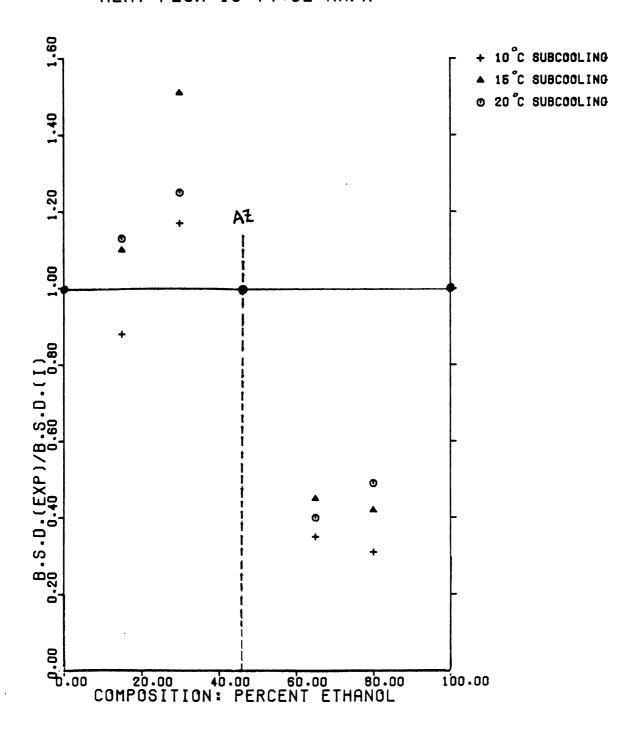




Figure 4.40
B.S.D.(EXP)/B.S.D.(I) VS. COMPOSITI ETHANOL AND BENZENE MIXTURE HEAT FLUX IS 74.62 KW/M\*





## Chapter 5

### Conclusions

The following conclusions are made on the effects of subcooling and composition on the boiling heat transfer coefficient and boiling site density for the binary systems tested:

- (1) The boiling heat transfer coefficient decreases as the degree of subcooling in the bulk liquid increases.
- (2) The ideal linear mixing law is found to be very inadequate in the prediction of the boiling site density of both the aqueous and non-aqueous binary mixture systems studied.
  - (a) For the ethanol-water mixture system, the boiling site density can increase by two orders of magnitude from pure water to mixtures close to the azeotrope.

    A vapor spreading mechanism is proposed as an explanation. The decrease in the actual boiling site density compared to the ideal value is suggested to be due to mass diffusion effects.
  - (b) The ethanol-benzene mixture results demonstrate a maximum in the boiling site density to the left of the azeotrope but a minimum to the right. This phenomenon is explained by postulating that during the waiting period of a bubble growth cycle, condensation or evaporation can take place at the surface



of the vapor nucleus so that the vapor nucleus can reach chemical equilibrium with the bulk liquid. Thus the size of the vapor nucleus can be changed and therefore changing the incipient superheat required.

- (3) The boiling site density with heat flux and mixture composition being held constant can (1) decrease monotonically, (2) display a maximum value, or (3) display a minimum value when plotted as a function of subcooling. This suggests that the thickness of the thermal boundary layer is a significant parameter in determining the boiling site density.
- (4) When the boiling site density is plotted as a function of the wall temperature, it was found that for a given wall temperature the boiling site density is generally greater at a higher degree of subcooling.



#### Appendix A

## Preparation of a mixture of known composition- a sample

#### illustration

To prepare an ethanol-benzene mixture of 15% mole fraction ethanol (at 23 C).

- 1. A) Mass of 1 mole of ethanol = 46.06952 gram
  - B) Density of ethanol at 23 C = 0.7903 gram/ml
  - C) Molar volume of ethanol at 23 C =

molar mass of ethanol/density of ethanol at 23 C =

- 2. A) Mass of 1 mole of benzene = 78.11472 gram
  - B) Density of benzene at 23°C = 0.875 gram/ml
  - C) Molar volume of benzene at 23 °C = molar mass of benzene/density of benzene at 23 °C =

3. A) Volume of 15 moles of ethanol =

58.29 ml X 15 moles of ethanol = 874.35 ml mole of ethanol

- B) Volume of 85 moles of benzene =
  - 89.24 ml X 85 moles of benzene = 7585.40 ml moles of benzene
- C) To prepare a mixture of a total volume of approximately 4400 ml (capacity of boiling vessel):

Volume of ethanol = (874.35 ml X 4400 ml)/(874.35 ml + 7585.40 ml)

Volume of benzene \* (7585.40 X 4400 ml)/(874.35 ml + 7585.40 ml)

= 3945.26 ml



# Appendix B Calculation for heat loss

The purpose of this section is to outline the method used in obtaining the experimental heat transfer coefficients. To start, we have an energy balance equation: (also see Figure 3.1)

Power generated by = Total heat flux from inner section electrical heater of heating surface

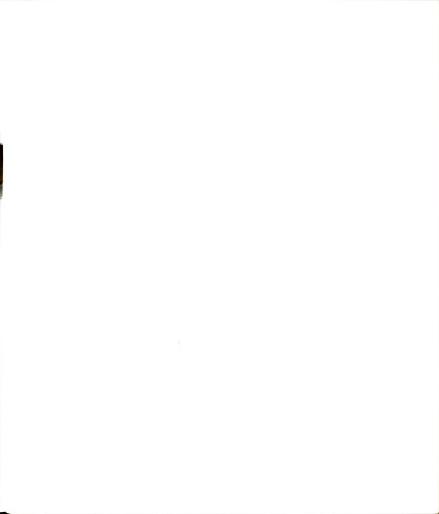
+

Total heat flux from outer section of heating surface

(A-1)

It is observed experimentally that the mode of heat transfer at the outer section is always by natural convection. Specifically, the outer section of the heating surface is modeled here as that of a case of heat transfer by natural convection through a circumferential fin of rectangular profile.

Let us further assume that for a particular mixture, the heat transfer coefficient for natural convection does not change significantly for different conditions of heat flux and subcooling. This assumption is supported by the experimental data in the present study (Figures 4.9, 4.10, 4.11, 4.12). The heat transfer coefficient approaches an



asymptotic value as the degree of subcooling is increased and this value is relatively the same for different heat fluxes (represented by different curves) used. This suggests that the natural convection heat transfer coefficient is basically a function of the fluid properties only. Applying equation A-1 to situations where natural convection is taking place on the entire heating surface, inner and outer sections:

Power generated by = P = 
$$\int_{f}^{h} h_{n.c.} A_f(T_w - T_b) + h_{n.c.} A_c(T_w - T_b)$$
  
electrical heater (A-1a)

where  $\gamma_f$  = fin efficiency

h = natural convection heat transfer coefficient

 $T_w =$ wall temperature at center of heating surface

T<sub>h</sub> = bulk temperature of liquid

 $A_f$  = surface area of circumferential fin

 $A_c$  = surface area of inner section

Inorder to obtain a value of  $N_f$ , it is necessary to have a value for  $h_{n.c.}$  in equation A-1. Starting with an equation to get an approximated value for  $h_{n.c.}$ :

$$h_{\text{n.e.}} = \frac{P}{(A_f + A_c)(T_w - T_b)}$$
 (A-2)

Another form of equation A-1 can be rewritten as;

$$h_{\text{n.c.}} = \frac{P}{(N_{f}A_{f} + A_{c})(T_{w}-T_{b})}$$
 (A-3)

To summarize the steps that follows:

- (1) Equation A-2 is used to get a starting value for hn.c.
- (2) Using the value of  $h_{n.c.}$  from equation A-2, a value of  $N_f$  is obtained from Figure 2.11 of reference (27) and is reproduced here as Figure A-1.
- (3) The value of  $N_f$  is substituted into equation A-3 and a new value of  $h_{n,c}$  is obtained.
- (4) Iteration is used on equation A-3 until the value of  $h_{\text{n.c.}}$  stabilizes.

The method outlined above is applied to a heating condition of lowest heat flux and highest degree of subcooling. Thus it is a situation where the whole surface is in the natural convection region. To obtain the boiling heat transfer coefficient when boiling is occurring in the inner section and natural convection in the outer region, we have, applying equation A-1:

Power generated by = Total boiling heat flux from inner electrical heater section of heating surface

Total heat flux by natural convection from outer section of heating surface

(A-4)

~ n

$$P = h_b A_c (T_w - T_b) + \gamma_{f} h_{n.c.} A_f (T_w - T_b)$$
 (A-5)

where  $h_b$  is the boiling heat transfer coefficient. Note that in order to solve for  $h_b$  from equation A-5, we use values of  $\mathcal{N}_f$  and  $h_{n.c.}$  obtained by equation A-3.



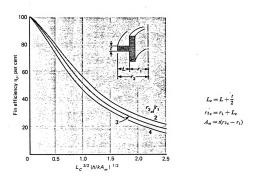
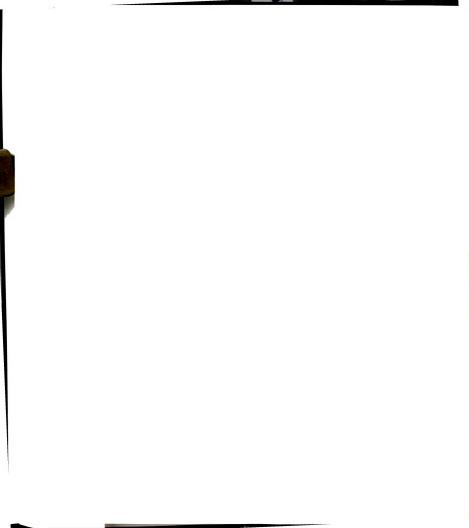


Figure A-1 Efficiencies of circumferential fins of rectangular profile



#### Appendix C

#### Experimental data

#### List of symbols used

HFLUX Power generated by electrical heater

BTEMP Bulk temperature

 $\mathbf{T}_2$ ,  $\mathbf{T}_h$  Temperature readings used to extrapo-

late the wall temperature

T<sub>w</sub> Wall temperature

QFIN Heat flux loss at fin

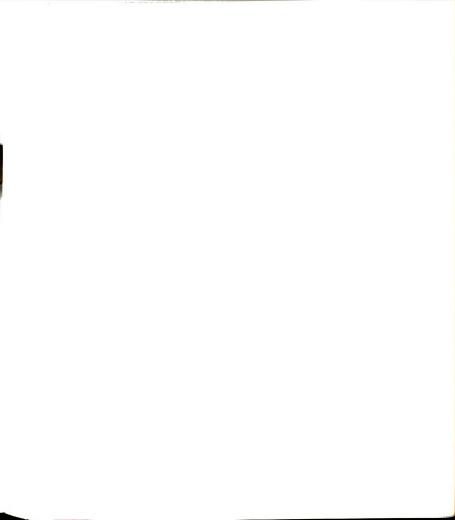
QNET Heat flux at inner section of heating

surface

HEXP Experimental heat transfer coefficient

HNC Natural heat transfer coefficient

EFCO Fin efficiency coefficient



HEXP					1388.556 1157.881 1027.082 991.371 1986.541 1481.181 1350.476 1157.881 1157.881	
QNET	40000		- 6	0 0 10 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	14,529 9,123 5,465 3,014 20,152 14,015 9,1059 5,1123	:
NIFO	112	222247	77	6 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	13.581 10.227 6.905 3.946 19.50 17.658 14.041 16.227 6.971	
2	150	111 90 11	11.55 10.40	005.05 00.60 00.60 96.05 09.30	105.650 100.650 95.700 91.00 109.650 106.750 101.250 95.550 86.300	
<b>*</b>	44400	4 4 4 10 10	W 4 00 0	o 10 4 10 co o	107.750 102.150 96.900 91.700 112.950 103.350 97.050 91.603	
12	9 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	90000	200	00000	106.700 101.490 96.300 91.490 111.340 108.250 102.300 96.300 86.500	
BTEMP	000000	9 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6 6	(n 0 0 0	200000	8 8 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	•
HFLUX		351	7.81	2 3 3 4 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	28.110 12.350 12.350 6.950 49.350 37.810 119.350 6.950 6.950	

064.

EFC0 =

883.

HNC =

Ethanol-water system - 0% mole fraction of ethanol



HFLUX	BTEMP	12	4	2	QFIN	QNET	HEXP
35	4.45	9	T.	25	59	9.75	
37.810	84.450	101.800	102.850	100.750	8.783	29.027	3514.393
11	4.45	9.6	'n	.20	•94	0.16	
35	4.45	980	M	.30	•92	2.42	
37	4.45	6.60	T.	.25	.81	6.55	
96	4.45	200	-	270	96•	.25	
35	9.45	69	2	85	3.68	5.66	770.
81	9.45	10	10	27.	.52	•28	145.
11	9.45	100	-	. 85	1.10	7.01	629
35	9.45	23	_	.35	9.16	0.24	
37	9.45	70	a	.20	•25	11:	440.
96	9.45	040	<b>P</b> -3	10	• 0 •	.91	367.
35	4.45	05.50	m	03.85	5.84	3.50	249.
81	4.45	50	m	.15	4.38	•42	731.
111	4.45	98.38	4	.15	•23	5.87	380
35	4.45	.20	0	46	9.67	67	064.
37	4.45	30	Ð	.70	.60	•76	
96	4.45	96	O.	99	.85	10	
35	9.45	20	C	.35	8.26	1.08	809
81	9.45	00.	10	550	• 19	61	
11	9.45	.50	The same	.05	2.71	5.39	287
35	9.45	30	m	.80	.88	•46	017.
37	9.45	.20	_	•65	•57	•79	
96	9.45	00	m	.70	96	.05	
35	4.45	00.	æ	10	9.74	9.60	
81	4.45	98	æ	.20	7.10	0.70	
11	4.45	30.	-	85	•68	•42	
35	4.45	10	m	.25	0.13	9.22	
37	4.45	.80	M	• 25	•89	47	
S	4.45	50	72.850	72.150	•14	2.811	

Ethanol-water system - 15% mole fraction of ethanol



HFLUX	BTEMP	12	<b>\$</b>	2	NIJO	QNET	HEXP
IC		0.3.4	04.9		10.646	- 00	790.65
-		7	'n		9.616	ထ	057.18
28.110	81.700	99.000	99.800	98.200	8.718	19,392	2319.424
in		9	9		7.767	~	555.06
ř		7	u;		6.340	6.030	
VO.		9	5		4.015	2.945	
iO		0.49	06.3	63	4	ഗ	598.12
-		ō.			13,103	4	966.08
-		m	70.7		-	16,381	
IO		ıÜ	۳,		8.956	0	210.23
۴.		7			6.842	5.526	
S		7	4		4.280	2.683	
iO		4	4		4		448.05
-		7	90		m		
н		₩.	4		12,416	15.694	317,93
iO		4	٠,		0		
-		40	7		7.053	5.317	
S		6	7		4.200	2.760	
ıO		8	4		~		868.87
-		٦.	e,		15.247	21,563	
-		4	r,		4		046.75
iO		6	۳,		_	8.704	
-		5	7		7.080	5.290	
S		ů	8		3.963	2.997	
ıΩ		ďη	4		19,258	0	
-		5	ė.		18.096	19.714	
-		ເບື	9		15,164	a	
10		ď	6		12.020	7.330	
7			ະຕຸ		7.291	5.079	
'n		ď	ເນ		4.332	2.628	

EFC0 =

632.

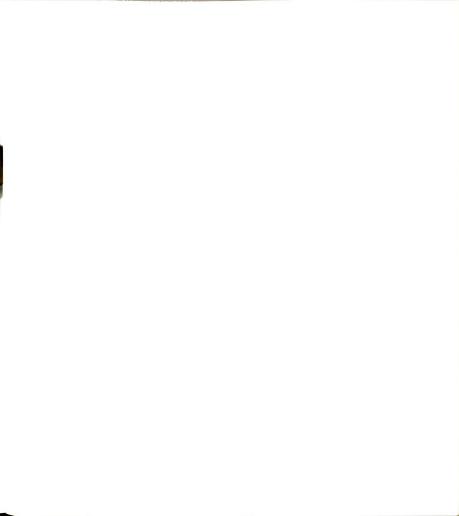
Ethanol-water system - 28.67% mole fraction of ethanol



.590

HEXP	4662.890 2877.128 2877.128 2877.128 1436.103 14436.103 3104.434 2253.705 1155.893 745.943 745.943 745.943 1695.237 1909.531 1979.156 1979.156 690.100 1682.117 1682.117 1682.117 1683.117 1683.117 1683.117	475
QNET	941.584 211.584 7.745 7.745 7.745 7.745 7.745 7.852 7.	2.459
OFIN	9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9 9	4.502
2	97.600 94.820 94.820 90.830 90.830 90.830 90.830 90.830 90.830 90.830 90.830 90.830 90.830 90.830 90.830 90.830 90.830 90.830	20
4	101.200 96.800 96.8100 91.4100 91.4100 91.450 100.200 100.200 100.200 94.650 96.100 99.750 99	9
12	995.400 955.400 91.400 91.400 91.400 94.200 94.200 96.200 96.200 96.200 96.200 96.200 96.200 96.200 96.200 96.200 96.200 96.200 96.200 96.200 96.200 96.200	40
BTEMP	88 900 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00 00	000.09
HFLUX	0.00	096.9

Ethanol-water system - 49.04% mole fraction of ethanol



52

Ħ

EFC0

05

11

HNC

Ethanol-water system - 60% mole fraction of ethanol



1300.547 629.707

7.546 2.999 40.755 29.467

20,189 11.850

3942-606 2937-065 2119-280 1313-827 758-349 394-867 3064-167

5.902 2.241 38.816 27.571

18.187 10.333

1524.108 952.927 551.605 280.669 2414.885 1723.890 1230.748

4.933 1.756 36.710

25.507 6.776 9.364

498.842

4.638

9420-291 7505-688 5694-958 4127-857 2953-314 1643-353

34.039 24.529 16.106

45.34 DNET

9.652 42.882

HEXP

5513.248 4210.237

3145.186 1997.161

22.232 13.662

	OFIN	9	.17	.58	•24	.71	• 33	•46	.23	.87	•68	.82	•96	•59	•34	•92	.50	.46	.71	0.53	•23	•92	.01	.43	•20	2.64	2.30	.33	98	7.732	•46
	3	8.60	7.95	7.50	9.60	5.35	4.35	9.15	8.70	8.05	7.30	5.55	3.30	9.60	8.96	7.80	6.80	4.25	0.18	9.20	8.40	7.55	5.40	1.65	6.25	9.20	8.40	6.10	2.80	77.450	9.40
	4 T	2.20	0.65	9.30	7.80	6.05	4.65	2.65	1,30	9.95	8.30	6.25	3.70	3.28	1.50	9.80	8.00	5.15	0.50	2.80	1.20	9.25	6.83	2 • 55	6.75	2.80	1.00	8.70	# • 6 B	78.950	0.20
.600	12	0.40	9.30	B.40	7.20	5.73	4.50	0.93	B.08	9.00	7.89	5.90	3.50	1.40	0.50	8.50	0 + · L	4.73	0.30	1.00	9.80	8.40	6.10	2.10	9.50	1.00	9.70	7.40	3.70	78.203	9.80
• EFC0 =	BTEMP	9.10	9.10	9.10	9.10	9.10	9.10	3.90	3.90	3.90	3.96	3.90	3.90	9.00	9.00	9.00	9.00	9.00	9.00	4.60	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	4.00	9.10	9.10	9.10	9.10	59.100	9.10
= 462	HFLUX	9.35	7.81	11	9.35	2.37	96.9	9.35	.81	8.11	9.35	2.37	96.9	9.35	.81	8.11	9.35	2.37	96.9	9.35	.81	8.11	9.35	2.37	96.9	9.35	7.81	113	9.35	12,370	• 96
HNC																															

- 70% mole fraction of ethanol Ethanol-water system

4296.865 3387.115 2273.130 1408.129 669.632 4267.547 3191.013

5793,799

801-400 422-867 3087-682 2239-179 1569-996

1363.146

2420.305 1737.085 1193.116 749.729 463.554 327.597

587.791 417.165

7844.993 5892.730 4472.259 3105.928 1760.093

9529,353

HEXP

	QNET	5.38	•18	4.63	6.31	9.75	.72	3.15	•67	2.56	4.16	.1	5	1,30	66.6	•48	2.01	•07	2.34	8.88	•57	8.37	0.48	.12	•32	6.73	5.57	•56	6	•42	96•
	QFIN	• 96	•62	• 47	.03	•61	•23	•19	•13	•54	•18	•59	.85	•04	.81	•62	•33	•29	•61	•47	0.23	• 73	• 86	•24	•63	2.61	2.24	•54	10.175	•94	99
	2	8.30	7.50	6.95	6.10	5.00	4.10	8.50	8.05	7.25	6.40	4.90	3.05	8.70	8.05	7.10	6.30	3.95	0.15	8.75	8.10	96.9	4.95	1.00	4.40	8.75	7.85	9.60	83.050	8.05	0.75
	4	1.70	0.10	8.65	7.30	5.60	4.30	1.96	0.35	8.95	7.40	5.50	3 . 35	1.90	0.35	8.90	7.50	4.65	0.65	2.05	0.50	8.70	6.05	1.90	4.80	2.05	0.15	B.20	84.150	8.95	1.25
• 600	12	0.00	8.80	7.80	6.70	5.30	4.20	0.20	9.20	8.10	96.9	5.20	3.20	0.30	9.20	8.00	6.90	4.30	0.40	0.40	9.30	7.80	5.50	1.40	4.50	0.40	9.00	7.40	83.600	8.50	1.00
• EFC0 =	BTEMP	8.9	9.9	8.9	9.9	8.9	9.0	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	3.5	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.0	9.6	9.0	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	3.9	9.2	9.2	9.2	59.200	9.2	9.2
HNC = 462	HFLUX	9.35	.81	8.11	9.35	2.37	• 96	9.35	7.81	8.11	.35	2.37	96.9	9.35	7.81	111	9.35	2.37	96.9	9.35	.81	8.11	9.35	2.37	96.	9.35	7.81	8.11	19.350	2.37	• 96

Ethanol-water system - 70% mole fraction of ethanol



HFLUX	BTEMP	12	4	7	QFIN	QNET	HEXP
35	8.41	2.20	85	55	•	.13	7272.914
31	8.41	1.30	4.0	.20	•	.33	5579 • 416
=	B.41	00.0	85	.15	٠	.03	4415.768
35	8.41	9.70	.26	20	•	•63	3151.125
37	8.41	7.20	.50	9.0	•	.14	2125.896
96	8.4	5.5	.75	.45	•	28	1201.564
35	3.40	2.40	96	990	•	2.	4815.760
31	3.40	1.20	•25	.15	•	44	3705.298
28.110	4	89.300	90.650	88.950	5.906		2818,020
35	3.40	8.20	.75	.65	•	.93	1930.295
37	3.40	6.10	.40	.80	•	999	1219,215
96	3.40	3.90	.20	.80	•	•39	711.720
35	68.400	2.0	•65	35	•	10.	3687.493
81	8.40	0.50	•65	35	•	85	2812.210
11	8.40	8.80	.70	90	•	.70	2095,366
35	8.40	6.70	•22	.15	•	99	1401,883
37	8.40	4.00	330	.70	•	55	846.058
96	8.40	0.10	35	.85	•	61	450.102
35	3.40	1.7	•25	.15	10.159	•19	2891,321
31	3.40	0.10	•20	8	•	908	2165,257
=	3.40	B.00	.80	.20	•	•01	1581,376
35	3.46	5.40	• 95	85	.14	-20	1030.780
37	3.40	2.00	• 55	45	.85	51	602,966
96	3.40	4.70	90	.50	•21	74	487,928
35	8.40	0.83	.35	• 25	1.71	•63	2407.450
81	8.40	8.93	000	.80	16	•64	1788.518
11	8.40	6.39	.15	45	0.27	83	32
35	8.40	3.80	.35	- 52	.43	.91	19
37	40	7.13	999	99.	6.912	.45	591.819
96	8.40	8.0	90.	99	m	.32	35

.620

EFC0 =

463.

Ethanol-water system - 80% mole fraction of ethanol

89.500	100 91 100 89
88.050 86.500 84.750 83.500	100 88 800 86 400 84 300 83
89.400 87.900 86.200 84.350	000 87 000 87 400 86
91.400 89.300 87.400 85.100 82.550	900 89 300 87 500 87 100 82
90.050 88.100 85.850 83.500 80.550	300 96 500 88 900 83 200 80
89.700 87.250 79.750 81.750 78.100	900 89. 900 87. 900 79. 200 81.

EFC0 =

426.

Ethanol-water system - 89.4% mole fraction of ethanol

.630
EFC0 =
416.
11
HNC

HFLUX	BTEMP	12	4	2	OFIN	QNET	HEXP
9.35	6	5.50	45	55	99	4	11
37.810	80.000	94.700	96.850	92.550	666.4	32.811	5159 • 494
8.11	9	3.49	.05	.75	•76	m	110
9.35	9	2.10	30	.90	434	5	24
2.37	6	0.20	85	555	.80	e,	90
96	0	5.80	15	45	.53	•	91
9.35	ď	4.50	.30	70	45	å	69
.81	ď	3.10	30	96	•25	•	57
8.11	N	1.50	110	96	85	å	64
9.35	N	9.60	07.	50	.37	'n	51
2.37	ď	7.90	65	.15	•76	ŀ	69
96	N	3.90	.25	.55	.32	•	81
9.35	9	3.90	65	.15	•26	÷	43
7.81	9	2.25	35	.05	86	•	96
8.11	6	0.40	95	85	.50	ċ	80
35	9	7.90	.05	.75	.67	å	99
2.37	9	5.50	113	96	93	•	23
96.9	9	0.70	90	40	.14	•	56
9.35	4	3.40	95	.85	• 05		95
7.81	4	1.50	45	.55	62	e	99
.11	4	9.60	60.	20	• 04	•	67
9.35	4	5.60	69	999	40.	:	29
2.37	4	3.90	40	40	.17	•	90
96.9	4	5.83	15	45	44	•	72
9.35	ď	2.40	95	85	1.65		48
7.81	ď	0.20	25	13	.05	•	7
8.11	ď	7.50	95	25	0.25	·	20
35	Ñ	4.00	9.0	110	908	÷	71
2.37	ď	0.50	9	.20	96		44
•96	ď	2.10	45	.15	9.60	•	95

Ethanol-benzene system - 0% mole fraction of ethanol

mole fraction of ethanol

15%

thanol-benzene system -

HNC = 446. EFC0 =

9

HFLUX	BTEMP	12	4	2	OFIN	QNET	HEXP	
35	8.10	2	9	980		m	291.	
31	8.10	æ	-	85		$\sim$		
=	8.1	6	'n	45	•	22.872	568	
5	8.10	000		96	•	4		
12,370	68.100	78.400	79.150	77.650	4.078	8.292	1661.272	
96	8.10	30		96	•	4.144	202	
35	5	4		.20	•	_	126.	
31	3.4	200	85.900	50	٠	29.902	3089.580	
Ξ	63.400	5.0		.25	•	0	2256.286	
33	3.4	30		35	•	N	1577.060	
37	3.4	90		.15		6.677	958.309	
96	3.4	50		36		2.82U	556.432	
35	8.5	.70		55		αı	3024.779	
31	58.500	9		330	٠	27.831	2279.060	
7	8.5	50		.20	•	σ	1739.332	
35	8.5	7.0		85	•	н	1146,230	
37	8.5	6		.25	٠	5.352	623.124	
96	8.5	00		.75	•	2.509	460.603	
49.350	3.1	-		9.60	÷		2552 . 849	
31	3.1	7		550	÷	26.299	1866.978	
Ξ	3.1	4		.05	ċ		1345.648	
35	3.1	10		30	•	9.744	828.877	
37	3.1	5		85	•	4.234	425.22T	
96	3.1	99		99		2.447	443.019	
35	8.4	43		35	;	വ	2026.445	
31	4	40		.15		4		
7	4	40		25	ď	5.8	053.87	
35	4	9.0		9	ċ	ď	9.79	
37	å	•		25		3.737	353.725	
• 96	4	13	9,3	85	•	ū	7.60	

EFC0 =

454.

Ethanol-benzene system - 30% mole fraction of ethanol



HFLUX	BTEMP	12	4	2	QFIN	QNET	HEXP
ຫ		2		2	4.793	55	٠.
37.810	67.700	81.200	83.150	79.250	4.654	33,156	5616.655
œ		30		5	4.254	85	•
σ		Ö		15	3.735	.61	
w		30		8	3.276	•09	÷
œ		9		55	2.297	•66	:
ຫ		0		55	6.611	.73	
37.810		2		5	6.591	-21	3733,979
œ		0		5	6.251	85	
ຫ		2		35	5.732	.61	
CA		2		50	4.933	443	*
w		9		20	3.875	•08	:
சு		9		2	8.668	•68	·
37.810		3		9	8.429	.38	2748.073
Q,		0.0		35	7.809	330	÷.
g,		20		2	6.911	43	1419.028
$\alpha$		00		33	6.012	.35	833.746
096.9		30		5	4.134	.82	
ம		20		89	0	.72	2873.035
		Ö		30	10.026	.78	2184.504
28.110		20		35	9.287	•	1597.699
ຫ		2		55	8.209	41.	
CA		0.5		5	7.130	•24	
6.960		3		<b>£</b> 5	4.374	58	ů
g,		90		8	12,223	.12	
-		9		8	11.424	38	å
28,110		9		23	10.446	999	
g,		9		5	9.207	14	
$\alpha$		0		30	7.989	38	
996.9		2		33	4-454	56	

.600

EFC0 =

438.

HNC =

Ethanol-benzene system - 45% mole fraction of ethanol

6193.195 5064.068 4014.011 3030.396 1728.395 1409.363 1409.363 2512.425 277.425 277.425 1845.275 1845.275 2123.752 1457.981 861.146 507.481 2286.852 2295.063 1693.780 1160.001 549.328 483.485 3598.711 2748.073 2452.679 361.871 875.605 447.734 606.147 4EXP 21.898 13.558 7.377 3.025 20.500 12.559 6.458 2.726 23.496 8.495 42.200 19.182 11.521 5.080 2.646 7.804 2.506 32.717 40.482 29.381 38.764 28.143 37.346 26.565 3.778 NET 5572 5672 5772 7.610 6.791 5.912 4.234 10.586 9.667 8.928 7.829 7.2290 11.2004 11.245 11.245 9.168 7.889 PLIN 82.150 79.150 78.000 75.900 80.400 77.550 75.400 73.200 79.800 77.800 73.000 71.550 71.550 78.350 76.150 76.150 71.050 79.950 B1.400 68.700 77.900 30.7E 86.250 84.150 82.450 77.300 75.550 85.400 83.650 81.650 77.500 77.300 84.400 82.300 80.050 77.400 74.803 83.80 81.000 778.250 772.000 64.700 82.050 76.250 76.500 76.500 4 Ē 84.200 82.600 81.200 79.500 77.600 83.400 82.200 8.803 76.690 73.590 82.400 80.800 778.900 74.000 9.000 81.800 79.400 77.600 74.600 4.480 77.700 77.700 77.300 72.000 69.300 C/I F 68.200 68.200 58.200 68.200 68.200 000000 8.16 BTEMP 287.810 287.811 12.3.75 6.966 8.756 **FLUX** 

999

11

EFC(

138

Ethanol-benzene system - 65% mole fraction of ethanol

3558.193 2630.366

5682.891 4616.842

HEXP

1643.563 973.915

4262.587 3417.726

2583.047 1779.040 2743.315

1384.744

598.851 3489.953

1025.579

2872.201 2299.160

775.283 498.224 1683.338 1128.513

516.825 473.773 1918.340 1395.844

887.286

2464.340

426.136 461.887

	QNET	3.19	32.167	2.89	4.79	8.28	3.80	1.47	0.56	1.40	3.29	6.91	.95	0.05	9.19	0.21	2.20	6.05	2.65	8.49	7.96	8.97	1.26	4.81	•56	6.91	.58	7.78	0-11	4.26	•52
	OFIN	.15	5.643	•21	.55	• C8	•16	.88	•24	•71	.05	•45	• 00	•29	.61	06.	•14	.32	.30	•85	9.85	•13	• 08	• 55	•39	2.43	.22	0.32	9.23	.10	• 43
	3	4.40	83.150	2.20	0.60	9.45	7.10	3.40	2.05	0.75	8.95	7.50	4.25	2.25	0.70	8.75	6.80	5.00	0.10	0.85	8.60	6.95	4.40	3.00	5.40	9.50	7.15	4.75	2.10	9.35	0.30
	4	8.40	86.450	4.60	2.40	0.75	1.90	7.40	5.15	3.05	0.85	8.50	4.95	6.15	3.70	1.25	8.83	6.60	0.70	4.55	1.80	9.25	6.40	4.00	00 • 9	3.38	0.45	7.25	3.90	0.25	06.0
009•	12	6.40	84 • BOG	3.40	1.58	0.10	7.50	5.40	3.60	1.90	06.6	8.20	4.50	4.20	2.20	00.0	7.80	5.80	04.0	2.70	G.20	8.10	5.40	3.50	5.70	1.40	8.90	6.00	3.00	9.80	0 • 5 0
EFC0 =	BTEMP	9.4	40	9.40	9.40	9.40	64.6	4.40	4.40	4.40	4.40	4.40	4.40	9.50	9.50	9.50	9.50	9.50	9.50	4.70	4.70	4.70	4.70	4.70	4.70	9.60	9.60	9.60	9.60	9.60	9.60
HNC = 450	HFLUX	9.35	37.810	8.11	9.35	2.37	96.9	9.35	7.81	.11	9.35	2.37	96.9	9.35	.81	8.11	9.35	2.37	96.9	9.35	.81	8.11	9.35	2.37	96.9	9.35	.81	8.11	9.35	2.37	• 96

80% mole fraction of ethanol Ethanol-benzene system -

HNC = 454. EFC0 = .500

HFLUX	BTEMP	12	<b>4</b>	2	OFIN	QNET	HEXP
49.350		~	93.965	8.70	4.306	5	
37.810		m	92.050	8.15	4.078	٦.	
28.116		-	90.550	7.85	3.954	4.1	
19.350		~	88.950	6.85	3.540	5.8	
12,370			87.600	6.00	3.147	3	
096.9			85.250	4.55	2.546	4	
49.350		-	93,350	88.250	6.231	43,119	
37.810		•	91.300	7.90	6,169	1.6	
28.110		~	89.550	7.25	5.776	2.3	
19,350		-	87.950	6.45	5.362	3.9	
12,370		_	86.259	4.95	4.824	ı,	
96.9			83.460	3.00	3.933	9	
49.350		~	92.800	8.20	8.115	1.2	
37.810			90.900	7.50	7.743	٠,	
28.110			88.650	6.15	7.349	0.7	
19.350		-	86.100	4.30	999•5	2.6	
12,376			84.050	2.75	6.024	r	
096.9		-	79.350	8.85	4.451	ı,	
49.350		-	92.000	7.60	10.061	9.2	
37.810		-	89.600	6.20	9.357	4	
28.110		F3	87.150	4.85	8.799	9.3	
19,350		-	84.250	2.35	7.763	1.5	
12,370		~	82.150	1.05	7.349	9	
096.9		"	75.250	4.55	4.658	m	
49.350		13	006.06	6.70	-	7.5	
37.810		-	88.500	5.30	11.386	4	
28,110		-	85.650	3.35	0	7.7	
19,350		-	82.750	1.05	9.502	ಹ	
12,370	58.000	78.200	78.600	77.800	8.198	4.172	415.815
096.9		000-69	69.250	68.750	4.451	2.509	460.503

Ethanol-benzene system - 100% mole fraction of ethanol

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