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BUBBLE GROWTH ON A GLASS SURFACE DURING BOILING
OF ETHYL ALCOHOL AND TOLUENE

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To My Father John W. McSweeney

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NOMENCLATURE

a	Constant in equation (16)
A	Area
At	Constant in equation (8)
b	Constant in equation (8)
B	Constant in equation (8)
C	Constant in equation (16)
Cp	Specific heat
C1	Constant in equation (1)
C2	Constant in equation (22)
C3	Constant in equation (23)
C4	Constant in equation (24)
C5	Constant in equation (25)
C6	Constant in equation (21)
d	Thermal layer thickness
D_d	Departure diameter
f	Frequency
g	Acceleration due to gravity
h	Heat transfer coefficient
H_b	Height of bubble base above the solid surface
H_c	Height of point on a bubble where the bubble radius equals the maximum radial bubble radius
H_{t-c}	Height of bubble cap above H_c
i	Current
ie	Element current
I	Integer
J	Mechanical equivalent of heat

JA	Jakob number
k	Thermal conductivity
k_{δ}	Constant in equation (18)
k_{ϵ}	Eddy diffusivity
K	Constant in equation (3)
Kw	Constant defined by equation (8)
l	Length
L	Latent heat of vaporization
n	Number of active sites
P	Pressure
Pr	Prandtl number
q	Average heat flux
q_r	Initial gradient of the heat flux before nucleation based on the observed experimental surface temperature recovery
Q	Rate of heat transfer
r	Radial distance
R	Bubble radius
R_b	Visual bubble contact radius
$R_b \text{ max}$	Maximum base contact radius
R_{cm}	Optimum cavity size
Re	Element resistance
R_m	Maximum radial bubble radius
Rn	Input resistance of Null detector
Rnull	Resistance of the Null point
Ro	Element resistance at 0°C
Rs	Resistance of standard
Rw	Resistance when wet
ΔR	Change in resistance

Se	Potentiometer setting for element
Ss	Potentiometer setting for standard
t	Time
te	Time for complete vaporization
tp	Time of second break in temperature curve after primary fluctuation
tw	Waiting time between bubbles
t_{wm}	Minimum waiting time
t_m	Time of the occurrence of $R_{b \max}$
T	Temperature
Tcu	Copper temperature
Te	Heating element temperature
\bar{T}	Average temperature
ΔT	Temperature difference
u	Radial velocity
U	Free stream radial velocity
v	Vertical velocity
ΔV	Voltage drop
Vs	Voltage across standard
Ve	Voltage across a surface element
x	Dimensionless radial distance or dummy variable of integration
y	Vertical distance from the wall
y_b	Distance into solid below which the influence of the microlayer vaporization is not observed
Z	Dimensionless vertical dimension

Greek Letters

α	Thermal diffusivity
β	Volumetric coefficient of thermal expansion
βt	Temperature coefficient of resistance
δ	Dimensionless microlayer thickness
Δ_1	Evaporating microlayer thickness calculated from equation (20) using liquid thermal properties
Δ_s	Evaporating microlayer thickness calculated from equation (35) using solid thermal properties
Δ^*_s	Evaporating microlayer thickness calculated from equation (35) using solid thermal properties and an initial temperature gradient before nucleation based on q_r
Δ	Microlayer thickness
ϵ	Constant defined by equation (8)
ϵ_1	Liquid eddy diffusivity
η	Initial bubble growth parameter defined by equation (26)
θ	$T - T_{sat} / (T_n - T_{sat})$
μ	Viscosity
ν	Kinematic viscosity
ρ	Density
σ	Surface tension
τ	Dimensionless time
ψ_s	Constant in equation (4)
ψ_b	Constant in equation (4)
ψ_n	Constant in equation (4)
ψ_c	Constant in equation (4)

Subscripts

avg	Average
b	Bulk or base
c	Critical
d	Departure
e	Evaporating
l	Liquid
m	Maximum
o	Initial or zero order
s	Solid
sat	Saturation
v	Vapor
w	Wall

ABSTRACT

A study of boiling heat transfer on a glass surface was undertaken to determine the boiling characteristics of ethyl alcohol and toluene and to estimate the contribution of microlayer vaporization to both the overall heat transfer rate and the amount of energy in a departing bubble.

An experimental procedure was developed utilizing thin-film circuitry on the boiling surface, a single site heater, an electronic synchronization between photographs of the boiling process and temperature traces displayed on an oscilloscope. The use of the single nucleating site is an excellent method for the study of the boiling process. For instance, the base contact radius, which has been previously neglected and yet was found to be an important parameter, is easily observed.

A theory of microlayer formation, based on experimentally determined bubble growth rate, was developed in the course of this investigation which successfully explains the phenomena associated with the boiling of ethyl alcohol and toluene. This theory predicts surface temperature fluctuations and nucleation characteristics which agree reasonably well with those experimentally observed. Bubble formation in toluene was irregular over the pressure range studied whereas ethyl alcohol exhibited a change from regular to uneven bubble formation. This change in the boiling characteristics was explained by microlayer vaporization theory. The bubble growth rates, which were higher than predicted by previously published theories, were also explained using this theory.

With the microlayer theory, and the experimentally determined variation in the base contact radius, the contribution of microlayer vaporization to heat transfer processes was determined. It was found that about 30% of the energy in a departing bubble arose from microlayer vaporization. The latent heat transport was found to account for 10 percent of the total heat transfer; ninety percent was due to bubble induced boundary layer agitation. Thus, microlayer vaporization accounts for only 3% of the total heat transfer. However, small as it may be, it controls nucleation and since boundary layer agitation is caused by nucleation, growth, and departure, it can be stated that under the conditions studied in this investigation, microlayer vaporization processes govern boiling heat transfer.

INTRODUCTION

Boiling is a very efficient process for transferring heat. This fact has been realized for a long time and many studies have been carried out to investigate the variables governing boiling heat transfer.

Recently, a novel heat transfer mechanism has been suggested as a partial explanation of boiling efficiency. It is called microlayer vaporization. This liquid layer has been shown to exist in a region which was long thought to play no active role in boiling heat transfer. A normal photograph of a bubble boiling on a solid surface shows an apparent contact region between the bubble and the solid. This region, which until recently was assumed to be dry, actually is coated by a thin liquid layer. At the present time, the heat transfer resulting from the evaporation of the microlayer has not been adequately defined. The obvious variables are the amount of the surface covered by bubbles, the thickness of the film under the bubble, and the time interval that the bubble is on the surface. The way these variables control microlayer vaporization has not been investigated in sufficient detail to validate the hypothesis.

The influence of the thermal properties of the solid is another factor which has not been clarified. In fact, it is not included in any presently available theory of bubble growth, departure, or nucleation. Except for one very general correlation, the effect of the solid's thermal properties on the overall rate of heat transfer has not been defined.

In the present investigation, the boiling of ethyl alcohol and toluene from a glass surface is studied. On the surface of the glass plate, vapor-deposited resistors serve as temperature sensors. Several such resistors, located at radial distances from a central resistor, are used to study heat transfer around a single active site. A single-site heater, located under the glass boiling plate, serves as a power source. Electronic synchronization between an oscilloscope, which displays the surface temperature, and two electronic flash units provide a way of relating boiling photographs to the temperature traces.

The goals of this study are to investigate the way boiling occurs on a glass surface, and to develop a theoretical method for estimating the contribution of microlayer vaporization to the amount of energy associated with a departing bubble.

LITERATURE REVIEW

1. Introduction

The studies of boiling heat transfer can be broken down into three distinct areas. First, a general boiling study, termed quantitative study, determines the amount of vapor generated at the boiling surface. Then secondly, from this information, a theoretician can study areas which seem important. The detailed explanation of the boiling process requires a knowledge of bubble nucleation, growth, and departure, and also the number of active boiling sites. The temperature distributions in the solid and liquid as well as the velocity distribution in the liquid can affect bubble parameters. The importance of these variables must also be estimated. Finally, general correlations tie the bubble parameters back to the quantitative studies. Only the variables which have been shown to be important need be included in these general correlations.

2. Quantitative Studies

The investigations of Jakob and his co-workers, summarized in his books "Heat Transfer" (29), were the first quantitative studies of how heat is transferred during boiling. Several terms, first defined by Jakob, are still used. He stated that the amount of energy associated with the vapor in the bubble at departure is removed by latent heat transport; the remaining energy is transferred by a bubble agitation mechanism.

In an effort to discover the relative importance of latent heat transport, Jakob performed three experiments. These experiments were conducted at a low heat flux, just above the flux level where boiling began. By using high speed motion picture photography, he followed a single bubble as it nucleated, grew, departed from the surface, and rose through the liquid. He found that less than 10% of the total bubble growth occurred before bubble departure from the surface. Next, Jakob looked at the region close to the surface and counted the number of active nucleation sites. At each site, he determined the frequency of nucleation and the bubble size at departure. Once again, less than 10% of the energy was transported from the surface as latent heat. Finally, using a movable temperature probe, Jakob observed that the liquid above the boiling plate was superheated a few tenths of a degree. These three studies showed the latent heat transport was not important at low heat fluxes. Since the liquid was found to be superheated slightly, there was the possibility of bubble growth after the bubble left the surface. Since so much of the bubble growth occurred after departure, he concluded that agitation of the thermal boundary layer was important since it provided a mechanism for transferring heat into the liquid.

The experimental techniques developed by Jakob were applied to subcooled boiling by Rohsenow and Clark (41). Their results indicated that only 1-2% of the heat was transferred as latent heat. This figure assumed no condensation of vapor until after the bubble left the surface.

Rallis and Jawurek (38) experimentally determined the contribution of latent heat transfer in saturated boiling as a function of the total

heat transfer rate through the surface. At low fluxes, in the region studied by Jakob, they also found that latent heat transport accounted for only a small percentage of the total heat flux. They measured the latent heat contribution as the heat flux was increased until they were no longer able to discern individual bubble departure due to the large number of bubbles existing on the surface. At this highest heat flux the amount of energy removed by latent heat transfer reached 80% of the total amount of heat transferred.

These results show that bubble-induced agitation controls heat transfer at low heat fluxes and that latent heat transport becomes important at high heat fluxes.

The understanding of the interaction between bubble parameters and heat transfer comes from the experimental and theoretical analysis of bubble growth rates, bubble departure criteria, the nature of an active boiling site, and the temperature and velocity profiles around an active site.

3. Bubble Size and the Rate of Bubble Growth

The growth of a vapor bubble in a uniformly superheated liquid of infinite extent was analyzed theoretically by Plesset and Zwick (37), and by Forster and Zuber (12). Both these investigations assumed that the rate of bubble growth was limited by the rate at which heat can be transferred to the liquid vapor interface. The final equation obtained by both sets of investigators was:

$$R = 2C_1 \sqrt{\alpha_1 t} \cdot \quad (1)$$

The value of C_1 was: $(\sqrt{\pi}/2)$ JA (Forster and Zuber), and $\sqrt{3/\pi}$ JA (Plesset and Zwick). JA is the Jakob number defined by $\rho_1 C_{p1} \Delta T / \rho_v L$. The difference in C_1 for the two investigations was explained by the approximations used to get the final result. Forster and Zuber included a liquid inertia term which Plesset and Zwick neglected. Scriven (44) and Birkhoff(2) solved exactly the same equations used by Plesset and Zwick. In the exact solution the value of C_1 must be obtained from the following expression:

$$JA = 2C_1^2 \exp [C_1^2 (3 + \rho_v / \rho_1)] \int_{C_1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{x} \exp \left[\frac{-x^3 - 2(1 - \rho_v / \rho_1) C_1^3}{x} \right] dx \quad (2)$$

For large values of JA, equation (2) yields the same coefficient reported by Plesset and Zwick.

The more difficult problem of bubble growth on a solid surface with non-uniform temperature field surrounding the bubble has also been studied. Griffith (18) analyzed the problem of a bubble nucleating in the superheated layer close to the surface and then growing into the bulk liquid with the base of the bubble still in the superheated layer. He showed by dimensional analysis that the bubble radius at any time can be expressed in the following form:

$$\frac{R}{d} = K JA f \left(\frac{t \alpha_1}{d^2}, \frac{T_b - T_{sat}}{T_w - T_b} \right) \quad (3)$$

The dimensionless bubble size (R/d), expressed in equation (3) was calculated on a digital computer. The functional relationship was not specified in Griffith's report. As the dimensionless group $(T_b - T_{sat}) / (T_w - T_b)$

becomes more negative the bubble size shows an effect of the bulk liquid temperature. The effect is one of slowing the growth rate because a greater percentage of the bubble is in the liquid bulk, which is sub-cooled.

Zuber (52) analyzed the problem of bubble growth when all the heat is transferred at the base of the bubble according to the error function relationship, $(\partial T/\partial y)_{y=0} = (T_w - T_{sat})/\sqrt{\pi\alpha_1 t}$. Assuming also that the bubble grows as a hemisphere, the solution is the same as equation (1) with $C_1 = 1/\sqrt{\pi} JA$.

The validity of using the error function relationship over the whole solid surface at the same time is certainly an approximation. Even so, the solution does agree with some experimental bubble growth data for bubbles growing on a solid surface.

Han and Griffith (21) started with the same problem analyzed earlier by Griffith (18) but in this case they assumed the superheated liquid layer was carried out into the bulk as the bubble grows. Using this assumption, the bubble radius as a function of time became:

$$R - R_c = \frac{\psi_c \psi_s}{\psi_v} \left\{ \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} JA(\alpha_1 t)^{1/2} - \left(\frac{T_w - T_b}{T_w - T_{sat}} \right) \frac{d JA}{4} \left[\frac{4\alpha_1 t}{d^2} \operatorname{erf} \left(\frac{d}{2\sqrt{\alpha_1 t}} \right) + \frac{4}{d} \sqrt{\frac{\alpha_1 t}{\pi}} \exp \left(\frac{-d^2}{4\alpha_1 t} \right) - 2 \operatorname{erfc} \left(\frac{d}{2\sqrt{\alpha_1 t}} \right) \right] \right\} + \frac{\psi_b h_w (T_w - T_b) t}{\psi_v \rho_v L} \quad (4)$$

where

$$\psi_s = \text{surface factor} = (1 + \cos \theta) / 2,$$

$$\psi_b = \text{base factor} = \sin^2 \theta / 4,$$

$$\psi_v = \text{volume factor} = [2 + \cos \theta (2 + \sin^2 \theta)] / 4,$$

$$\psi_c = \text{curvature factor where } 1 < \psi_c < \sqrt{3}$$

Han and Griffith also compared their theory to experimental data. They concluded that there is general agreement between theoretical and experimental results.

Golovin et. al. (17) experimentally measured bubble growth rates for several fluids as a function of pressure. They found a value of $C_1 = \sqrt{12 JA}$ correlated the experimental bubble size data from 1 to 30 atmospheres.

The difference between the results of Golovin and the previous investigators has not been clarified. Except for the exact solution, which both Scriven and Birkhoff reported (Equation (2)), every other theoretical solution results in a linear dependence of Jakob number on the bubble size. This is the only solution that includes second order density effects, so it is the only one that has a chance of predicting anything but a linear relationship between R and JA.

4. The Nature of An Active Site

a. Role of Surface Conditions

Jakob (29) reported that boiling is affected by the surface conditions of the solid. When the surface was coated with oil, the bubble size at departure increased. The following equation, derived by Fritz (13), was used to explain the increased bubble size:

$$D_d = .0148\theta \sqrt{\frac{2\sigma}{g(\rho_1 - \rho_v)}} . \quad (5)$$

He stated that θ increased when the surface was coated with oil. Based on equation (5), D_d increased accordingly. Jakob also reported that when

the surface was artificially roughened, the number of active sites per unit area, n/A , increased. This also affected the heat transfer. Both these effects are attributed to a change in surface conditions.

Corty and Faust (9) measured the heat flux, wall superheat, and number of active sites on artificially roughened surfaces. In a quantitative manner they showed the importance of surface roughness. Clark, Streng, and Westwater (6), observing the boiling surface with a low power microscope, found that pits with a diameter between 10^{-2} and 10^{-3} cm. were very active. Bubble nucleation was also observed from some scratches, a metal-plastic interface, and a mobile speck of material. Neither grain boundaries nor the various crystal faces of zinc (which is an anisotropic material) had any apparent effect on the nucleation characteristics of the surface.

If a vapor cavity is completely surrounded by a superheated liquid, thermodynamics requires that the equilibrium cavity radius be specified by the following relationship:

$$\frac{2\sigma}{R} = \frac{JL(T_1 - T_{\text{sat}})\rho_v \rho_l}{T_{\text{sat}}(\rho_l - \rho_v)} \quad (6)$$

Equation (6) is strictly applicable only if the vapor bubble is completely surrounded by a liquid. It is not evident what radius should be used if a bubble of radius R_0 is in contact with a solid surface at a cavity of radius R_c . Using artificial cavities of known geometry, Griffith and Wallis (19) showed that R_c was the correct radius to use in equation (6). They also found that even though equation (6) was valid when R_c was used, there was no assurance that the cavity would be stable or even active at all.

Young and Hummel (51) distributed Teflon* spots randomly on a stainless steel surface. The spots covered only a small percentage of the surface area and each spot had a radius of between 10^{-2} to 10^{-3} cm. When water was boiled from the treated surface, the surface superheat required for bubble nucleation was less than 5°F.; whereas on the untreated portion, nucleation did not occur until the wall superheat was greater than 20°F. Gaertner (14) reported a similar result when Teflon spots of uniform size were distributed over the surface in a regular pattern.

b. Bubble Nucleation Criteria

Griffith and Wallis (19) stressed the importance of vapor existing at the surface but concluded that this condition alone does not insure the stability of the active site. The theories developed to judge the stability of a cavity originate from one of two initial assumptions. If liquid enters the cavity on the surface, then a valid criterion for stability can be based on the attainment of vapor-liquid equilibrium within the cavity. If, however, the departing bubble leaves sufficient vapor behind, so the liquid never enters the cavity, then the criterion for future nucleation depends on the recovery of the thermal boundary layer removed by the preceding bubble.

Bankoff (1) and Marto and Rohsenow (32) investigated the stability of a cavity containing both liquid and vapor. Bankoff proposed that a liquid could not rush into a stable cavity faster than a critical rate, which allowed time for thermal equilibrium to occur. He assumed that the wall was at a constant temperature; the liquid entering the cavity was initially at bulk liquid temperature. As the liquid rushed down the

*DuPont Trademark

cavity, slowed only by viscous drag, it began heating up to the wall temperature. Based on this analysis, the cavity with the optimum stability has a radius defined by the following equation:

$$R_c = \left\{ \frac{4k_1 \mu \sigma \rho_1 C_{p1} \cos\theta}{J^2} \left[\frac{T(\rho_1 - \rho_v)}{L \rho_v \rho_1} \right]_{\text{avg}} \right\}^{1/3} \quad (7)$$

Marto and Rohsenow, by similar analysis, but with the knowledge that the wall temperature fluctuated in the region around an active site, derived the following expression:

$$\frac{y}{\ell} = \frac{2At}{\pi \ell B K_w}, \text{ where}$$

$$At = \left(1 + \frac{\epsilon}{2}\right) C \left(\frac{q \sqrt{f}}{\alpha_w} \right)^{-a} \frac{q T_{\text{sat}} 2\sigma \cos\theta}{k_w \rho_w L R_c}, \quad (8)$$

$$B = \frac{bq}{\sqrt{\pi k_w \rho_w C_{p_w}}},$$

$$K_w = \frac{\rho_v L (1 + \sin\theta)}{2\sqrt{\pi k_1 \rho_1 C_{p1}}}$$

In equation (8), the constants ϵ , a , b , and C define the nature of the wall temperature recovery, ℓ is the depth of the cavity, and y is the maximum penetration depth of the liquid.

Hsu (28), and Han and Griffith (21) investigated nucleation controlled by the redevelopment of the liquid thermal boundary layer which was destroyed by the previous bubble. Hsu's analysis began with the departure of the bubble from the surface. At that time, the surface temperature is a

constant and the thermal layer thickness $d(0)$ is zero. Due to the difference between the bulk liquid temperature T_b and the wall temperature T_w , the thermal layer thickness $d(t)$ gradually builds up. The temperature distribution in the thermal layer as a function of time and position can be specified by a solution of the heat conduction equation with the previous boundary conditions. Hsu assumed that at every point around a vapor cavity, which is connected to the surface at a cavity of radius R_c and has a spherical radius R_0 , must be above the equilibrium temperature specified by equation (6) with $R=R_0$ before the cavity will nucleate. The maximum and minimum cavity size which can be active are specified by the following equation:

$$R_c \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{max} \\ \text{min} \end{array} \right. = \frac{d \cos \theta}{2(1+\sin\theta)} \left[\left(\frac{T_w - T_{\text{sat}}}{T_w - T_b} \right) \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{T_w - T_{\text{sat}}}{T_w - T_b} \right)^2 - \frac{4\sigma T_{\text{sat}} (1+\sin\theta)}{JL\rho_v d(T_w - T_b)}} \right] \quad (9)$$

If a cavity has a critical radius between the two values given by this equation, Hsu concluded it will be active and will only take a finite amount of time to nucleate. The solution for the maximum and minimum cavity radius when the boundary condition at the wall is a constant heat flux, can be obtained by replacing $T_w - T_b$ by qd/k_1 in equation (9).

Han and Griffith, using an approach similar to Hsu's, assumed the wall temperature was constant, the critical vapor bubble was a hemisphere, and the thermal boundary layer developed was governed by the following linear approximation to the heat conduction equation applied to an infinite liquid layer:

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right)_{y=0} = \frac{T_w - T_b}{(\pi\alpha_1 t)^{1/2}} = \frac{T_w - T_b}{d(t)} \quad (10)$$

The first part of equation (10) is the exact definition of the temperature gradient at the wall when the liquid layer is of infinite extent. The

second part of the equation is a convenient approximation for the thermal layer recovery. Using this approximation, the temperature profile becomes linear. The size range of active cavities is then given by the following maximum and minimum values:

$$R_c \left| \begin{array}{l} \text{max} \\ \text{min} \end{array} \right. = \frac{d_m}{3} \left(\frac{T_w - T_{\text{sat}}}{T_w - T_b} \right) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} + \\ - \end{array} \left[1 - \frac{12(T_w - T_b)T_{\text{sat}}}{(T_w - T_{\text{sat}})^2 d_m \rho_v L} \right]^{1/2} \right\} \quad (11)$$

For values of R_c between the maximum and minimum, the waiting time between bubble departure and the next nucleation is then:

$$t_w = \frac{9}{4\pi\alpha_1} \left[\frac{T_w - T_{\text{sat}} (1 + 2\sigma/R_c \rho_v LJ)}{(T_w - T_b) R_c} \right]^{-2} \quad (12)$$

The minimum waiting time and the corresponding optimum cavity size which can be obtained by differentiation of equation (12) are:

$$t_{wm} = \frac{144 (T_w - T_b)^2 T_{\text{sat}} \sigma^2}{\pi J^2 \rho_v^2 L^2 (T_w - T_{\text{sat}})^4 \alpha_1} \quad (13)$$

$$R_{cm} = \frac{4T_{\text{sat}} \sigma}{(T_w - T_{\text{sat}}) \rho_v LJ} \quad (14)$$

c. Active Site Density

The effect of the number of active sites per unit area (n/A) on the overall rate of heat transfer is based almost entirely on experimental findings. The common method of determining the value of n/A as a function of other heat transfer variables consists in taking a series of photographs and counting the number of bubbles on the surface. At low fluxes, where the population of active sites is small, this method has been quite

successful. Once the population density becomes greater than 5000 sites/ft² this method cannot be used because the surface is hidden by bubbles in various stages of the bubble cycle. Gaertner and Westwater (16) circumvented this problem by using electrolysis. At an active site, they found the metal plated on the surface at a much slower rate than over the remaining portion of surface where bubbles never interfere with the plating process. They reported the population density as a function of the total rate of heat transfer until the density became greater than 100,000 sites/ft². The results showed the effectiveness of each individual site continually decreased as the number of sites increased.

Summarizing the present research on the nature of an active site, it can be said that vapor must be present on the surface if a site is to become active at any reasonable temperature difference. If vapor is present, then the theories for predicting site activity can be used. On a normal boiling surface, even with the theories for predicting site activities, it is not possible to predict n/A because the number of vapor containing sites is much different from the number of possible vapor containing sites. On a specially prepared surface this is not the case because certain sites are made much more active than any naturally occurring sites.

5. Bubble Departure Criteria

Equation (5) has been used by many investigators to correlate bubble departure data. Cole and Shulman's (7) experiments at subatmospheric pressures and Semaria's (42) experiments at pressures up to 20 atmospheres both showed unexpected deviations from equation (5). The departure size

at subatmospheric pressure was bigger than the size predicted by equation (6); the departure size at high pressure was smaller. Cole and Shulman suggested the following equation, which will correlate both sets of data:

$$D_d = \left[\frac{\sigma}{g(\rho_l - \rho_v)} \right]^{1/2} \left(\frac{1000}{P} \right), \quad P \text{ is in mm of Hg} \quad (15)$$

Cole and Shulman discussed the corrections to the Fritz equation (5) that have been proposed by previous investigators. Except for a set of equations derived by Han and Griffith (20), Cole and Shulman found no equation which could correlate the existing data. They stated, "Han's equation is the most useful from the point of view of predicting the relative importance of departure velocity and acceleration, however its use to predict departure volumes is limited owing to the fact that Griffith (21) published another article almost concurrently with that of Cole and Shulman. In their report, Han and Griffith did not use the system of equations for departure. Instead they showed a plot of the receding bubble contact angle with the surface as a function of the bubble growth rate just before departure. The Fritz equation and this figure are used to determine when a bubble will depart in the second section of Han and Griffith's report (22). When they discussed proposed corrections to the Fritz equation they stated: "that these deviations were a result of an attempt to use a single mean contact angle for the whole bubble growth and departure process."

6. Boiling Temperature Distributions

a. Temperatures in the Solid

When two thermocouples are placed at known depths below the surface of a solid through which heat is being transferred, the heat flux can be determined from the recorded temperatures. If one temperature and the heat flux are known, then the temperature at the other point can be found by the same equation. This last procedure has been commonly used to obtain the surface temperature when the flux through a solid and the temperature at a certain depth below the surface is known.

Hsu and Schmidt (26), attempting to measure the surface temperature, by using a .040 in. thermocouple pressing against the surface, observed not only the surface temperature but also temperature fluctuations. They correlated the magnitude of the temperature fluctuations by the following expression:

$$\Delta T_{\text{avg}} = C \left[q \left(\frac{f}{\alpha_w} \right)^{1/2} \right]^{-a} q \frac{(T_w - T_{\text{sat}})}{k_w} \quad (16)$$

They reported, in tabular form, the values of "C" and "a" for water boiling on several materials with known surface finishes. In an effort to explain the temperature fluctuations, Hsu and Schmidt proposed an efficient bubble departure mechanism as the cause.

Moore and Mesler (34) used a small cylindrical thermocouple with an outside diameter of .015". The second element of the thermocouple was a .005" diameter wire and was placed inside the outer tube. They press-fitted the thermocouple into the surface, ground it flat, and then plated

metal on the surface to form a junction. By using the small sensing element and by displaying the temperature on an oscilloscope they discerned a regular, periodic temperature fluctuation. The analysis of the fluctuations showed the existence of a very high heat transfer rate for short time intervals. They concluded the only satisfactory explanation was a thin film vaporization model.

Three separate investigations show the correctness of Moore and Mesler's proposal. By synchronizing a strobe light with the temperature trace, Rodgers and Mesler (40) showed that the beginning of the fluctuation corresponded to bubble nucleation. Hendrichs and Sharp (24) obtained the same result in a motion picture study. They also observed almost no indication of either nucleation or departure in the region that never comes in contact with the bubble. Bonnet, Morin, and Macke (3) observed boiling off a small oil-heated tube in which a small thermocouple was brazed. Both an indication of the temperature being sensed by the thermocouple and photographs of the bubble above the temperature sensor were recorded on the same motion picture film; the results showed that Moore and Mesler's proposal is correct. Furthermore, they proposed the following equations as an explanation of the observed temperature fluctuations:

$$\Delta T_w(t) = \frac{-2 \Delta q}{\sqrt{\pi k_w \rho_w C_{p_w}}} \sqrt{t} \quad \text{when } t \leq t_e, \quad (17A)$$

$$\Delta T_w(t) = \frac{-2 \Delta q}{\sqrt{\pi k_w \rho_w C_{p_w}}} (\sqrt{t} - \sqrt{t - t_e}) \quad \text{when } t \geq t_e \quad (17B)$$

Part A of equation (17) is the temperature at the surface of an infinitely thick slab initially at a constant temperature after it is subjected

to a constant surface heat flux Δq during the time interval $[0, t_e]$. The variable t_e is the time interval between nucleation and the occurrence of the minimum surface temperature. The second part of equation (17) is the temperature recovery of the surface after Δq has been removed and the surface is insulated.

Torikai et al. (47) photographed boiling from the undersurface of a glass plate. A conductive coating on the glass plate was used to generate the heat required for boiling. Since there is a difference in the critical angle for the reflection of light at glass-liquid and glass-vapor interfaces, they were able to show the existence of the liquid film photographically. They presented a theory for the microlayer thickness under a bubble. In the solution they assumed a linear velocity under the bubble, laminar flow, a hemispherical bubble shape, and a layer thickness determined by the diameter of the bubble adhesion area. The dynamic terms were grouped in a constant k_δ and a solution for just the surface tension force was given as:

$$\Delta(R_b) = R_b \sqrt{\frac{\mu_l U_b}{2\sigma(1+k_\delta)}}, \text{ and}$$

$$\Delta(R) = \frac{R}{R_b} \Delta(R_b) \tag{18}$$

Sharp (45) used interference fringes, resulting from the reflection of monochromatic light off both the liquid-vapor interface and the liquid-solid interface. A flint glass plate, which was heated by a hot air jet, was used to boil water and methanol at various heat fluxes. The experimental measurements were obtained by observing a bubble through a piece of plastic mounted above the surface. After the bubbles grew to the

height of the top plate, the base of the bubble was observable and the measurements were made. The height of the plate above the boiling surface was varied from .15 to .28 inches. The maximum bubble radius was between .25 and .37 inches. No estimate of the surface temperature could be obtained. Sharp concluded that the microlayer does exist, that no observable drying out of the film occurs at low fluxes, and that at high heat fluxes, it becomes the major contributor to heat transfer. At an average flux of 42,000 Btu/ft²-hr, he graphically showed the motion and the thickness of the layer.

Cooper and Lloyd (8) studied the boiling of toluene from a glass plate on which thermistors had been vapor-deposited. The liquid and the solid were superheated using radiant energy and then nucleation was induced by passing a small current through a thermistor of known distance from the thermistors being monitored. In addition to the initial temperature fluctuation associated with bubble growth, as others have also reported, they observed a smaller secondary fluctuation which started as the liquid-vapor interface passed back across the temperature sensor. From the temperatures at each of the four points being monitored, they calculated the amount of heat transfer and the amount of liquid evaporated. Two methods were used to calculate the liquid film thickness. A heat balance over the liquid layer gives the following differential equation:

$$\rho_1 L \frac{d \Delta(t)}{dt} \approx - \frac{k_1 (T_w - T_{sat})}{\Delta(t)} \quad (19)$$

Integration over the duration of the temperature decrease results in the following equation for the initial film thickness:

$$\Delta_o = \left[\frac{2k_1}{\rho_1 L} \int_0^{te} (T_w(t) - T_{sat}) dt \right]^{1/2} \quad (20)$$

The other method, based on the properties of the solid, is not presented in the report. It is based on the observed temperature fluctuation of the wall being used as the boundary condition in the heat conduction equation, as applied to the solid. Tables, comparing the two methods of calculating microlayer thickness, are shown in their report.

Hospeti and Mesler (25) measured the average amount of vaporization under a bubble by measuring the amount of radioactive calcium deposited on the surface after 5000-10,000 bubbles have nucleated and departed. They found the average thickness of the layer evaporated was $120 \mu\text{cm} \pm 100\%$.

b. Temperature Measurements in the Liquid

Knowledge of the temperature patterns in the liquid around an active site is based entirely on experimental findings. Using Schlieren photography, Hsu and Graham (27), showed that the influence of an active site extended out to one bubble departure diameter away from the point of nucleation. Gaertner (15) saw interference patterns under a departing bubble in his photographs and concluded that a departing bubble sucks the liquid layer off the surface. A small moveable temperature probe enabled Marcus and Dropkin (31) to observe the behavior of the liquid thermal boundary layer as water boiled on the surface. They reported the thermal boundary layer thickness was a function of the surface heat transfer coefficient alone. When h_w was below $700 \text{ Btu/ft}^2\text{-hr}$, they found $h_w d = .619$; when h_w was above $700 \text{ Btu/ft}^2\text{-hr}$, they found $h_w d = .0224 h_w^{1/2}$. Marcus and Dropkin reported the thermal boundary layer was linear out to $.575d$ and then decreased according to an inverse power law. A maximum in the size of the temperature fluctuations in the boundary layer was observed at $.64d$.

It is difficult to imagine a more conclusive set of evidence to show the existence of the microlayer under a bubble growing on the surface. Sharp and Torikai have both developed the technique of showing the presence of the microlayer. Sharp has been able to measure the thickness of the layer. Cooper and Lloyd have presented two techniques for measuring the microlayer thickness from experimental surface temperature fluctuations. Torikai has presented a theory for predicting the microlayer thickness. Perhaps the only limitation of the theory is the absence of specific dynamic terms. The dynamic terms have to be important since surface tension has been overcome by the hydrodynamics when the bubble starts to grow.

Outside the region on the surface covered by a bubble, Hendricks and Sharp reported no temperature fluctuations. The study of liquid heat transfer during boiling by Marcus and Dropkin led to the same conclusion. The maximum in the temperature fluctuation in the liquid occurred at $.64d$ and the fluctuation decreased as the probe was moved closer to the wall.

7. Nucleate Boiling Correlations

There are numerous boiling correlations available from the literature. Earlier correlations are summarized in a book by Tong (48), "Boiling Heat Transfer and Two Phase Flow."

Of all the equations Tong summarizes, only one correlation, by Rohsenow, even considers an effect of the liquid-solid combination on the overall heat transfer. This equation is:

$$\frac{C_{p1} \Delta T}{h_w} = C_6 \left(\frac{q}{\mu_1 L} \sqrt{\frac{\sigma}{g (\rho_1 - \rho_v)}} \right)^{1/3} \left(\frac{C_{p1} \mu_1}{k_1} \right)^{1.7} \quad (21)$$

The values of C_6 for glass-alcohol and glass-toluene have never been determined. A lot of other data has been summarized by adjusting the value of C_6 in equation (21).

Correlations by Chang (5) and Zuber (53) have used analogies between boiling and other heat transfer phenomena. Chang modified the natural convection equation to take account of turbulent agitation induced by boiling. Instead of using the molecular thermal conductivity in the natural convection equation, $Nu = .145 Gr^{1/3}$, he suggested the use of the effective thermal conductivity defined by the equation: $k_\epsilon = k_1 (1 + \epsilon_1/\alpha_1)$. The ratio ϵ_1/α_1 was specified by the following equation which was derived using a dimensional analysis technique:

$$\frac{\epsilon_1}{\alpha_1} = \frac{C_2 q}{(T_w - T_{sat})} \left(\frac{\Delta P v_1^2}{C_{p1} \mu \sigma k_1 \beta (T_w - T_{sat})} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{C_{p1} T_{sat} (\rho_1 - \rho_v) \Delta P}{L^2 \rho_v^2 J} \right)^{1/5} \quad (22)$$

A value of $C_2 = .343$ was suggested by Chang after the equation was compared to experimental boiling data. Zuber presented a theory based on the turbulent natural convection investigations of Malkas (30) and Thomas and Townsend (46), (49). In the natural convection equation, Zuber modified the $\beta \Delta T$ term in the Grashof number to account for the additional buoyancy induced by the bubbles. The final result is:

$$\frac{h_w \ell}{k_1} = C_3 \left[\frac{g \ell^3}{\nu \alpha_1} \left(\beta (T_w - T_{\text{sat}}) + \frac{8nJA^2 \alpha_1 D_d}{3A U_t} \right) \right]^{1/3}, \quad (23)$$

$$\text{where } U_t = C_4 \left[\frac{g(\rho_1 - \rho_v)}{2 \rho_1} \right]^{1/4} \quad (24)$$

The equation for the rate of rise of lenticular-shaped bubbles, equation (24), has been reported in two articles: Peebles and Garber (36) suggested $C_4 = 1.18$; Harmathy (23) suggested $C_4 = 1.53$. A value of $C_3 = .34$, which Zuber used, is based on the turbulent natural convection studies.

Zuber (52) presented another correlation, which was an attempt to summarize some of the known experimental boiling facts. In this correlation, Zuber divided the surface into a region covered by bubbles and a region where only convection occurred. By assuming all the energy in the bubble comes from the surface, he obtained the following expression for the rate of heat transfer:

$$Q = C_5 k_1 (T_w - T_{\text{sat}}) JA \text{Pr}^{1/3} \sqrt{\frac{n/A}{\pi \text{Pr} D_d} \left(1 - \frac{\pi D_d^2 n/A}{4} \right)} + \frac{\pi}{6} (n/A) L \rho_v D_d^2 f \quad (25)$$

He states that: "this equation is valid as long as there is no lateral bubble interference on the surface." The experiments of Hsu and Graham (27) have shown that lateral interference occurs whenever $2(n/A)^{1/2} D_d > 1$. This is the upper limit on equation (25). The first part of equation (25) is the amount of energy transferred by agitation; the second part is the amount of energy transferred as latent heat. Thus, Zuber can show, from the equation (25), the effect of n/A on both agitation and latent heat transport.

8. Discussion of the Literature

Quantitative studies have never been reported for boiling off a glass surface. The major reason is probably because until recently it has been impossible to measure a surface temperature on a glass plate.

The theories for bubble growth presently assume that only liquid and vapor properties control bubble growth. The effect of the superheated liquid layer on the surface has been considered but only insofar as it contributes to vaporization on the outer bubble surface. The microlayer under the bubble, which has been shown to exist by physical measurements, has not been included in the bubble growth theories in any precise manner.

The effect of a glass substrate on the stability and activity of a site has been indirectly discussed. Since a glass surface is very smooth, there are very few vapor traps and therefore very few potentially active sites. Therefore, boiling might be unstable and in all likelihood it might be very difficult to nucleate on the glass surface at low superheats.

General correlations predict no effect of the thermal properties of the solid. The general feeling is that since a liquid has very poor heat transfer properties when compared to a solid, and since most of the heat transfer, until high fluxes, goes through the liquid, the major resistance to heat transfer is in the liquid layer.

Thus far, the studies of microlayer vaporization have been limited to describing the phenomenon and analyzing the temperature fluctuations

induced by the evaporation of the microlayer. It has been shown that the sharp primary fluctuation, corresponding to microlayer vaporization, starts at the time the bubble spreads across a radial point on the surface. A smaller, secondary fluctuation has also been reported. This fluctuation can be interpreted as an indication of the liquid spreading back across the radial point if the microlayer has completely evaporated.

The total contribution of microlayer vaporization to the bubble volume at departure has not been calculated. In order to calculate the microlayer contribution, it is necessary to know the departure time, and the variation of the base contact radius with time. Until the microlayer theory was proposed, the region inside the base contact radius was not considered to be important. It has, therefore, not been well tabulated in the literature. The one theory which has been proposed for the microlayer thickness has never been compared with experimental data.

This study will attempt to determine if boiling heat transfer can be limited by a solid that does not have good heat transfer properties. The contribution of the microlayer will be estimated from experimental determinations of the bubble growth rate and the bubble base contact radius and from a theoretical study of microlayer thickness.

III. DESCRIPTION OF EQUIPMENT

1. Introduction

The goals of this study are to investigate the amount of heat transfer which occurs around a single active site. Microlayer vaporization is to be considered.

The temperature-time curves, for surface temperature sensors, are recorded from an oscilloscope screen and still photography gives the bubble size at a particular instant. An electrical measuring circuit pinpoints the time that these pictures are taken on the temperature-time curve. Based on at least 30 pictures of the boiling process, taken under the same experimental conditions, the geometric properties of the typical bubble are obtained as a function of time.

The following sections give a detailed description of the component parts which, when acting together, give all the necessary experimental information. The component elements are: the vapor-deposited surface resistors which serve as temperature sensors, the single-site heater which generates heat underneath the boiling plate, the boiling vessel which controls the environment around the single-site heater, the electrical triggering and measuring circuits which are used to relate the temperature trace to bubble size, and finally, the optical equipment for obtaining the boiling pictures.

2. Boiling Surface

The boiling surface is a piece of soda lime glass, .020" thick, and .460" square. On the top surface, as figure (1) shows, four nickel resistors, consisting of four parallel elements spaced .008" apart, are vapor deposited. Each element is .002" wide, .020" long, and nominally 200 Å thick. Each is connected in series to the other elements by gold conductor strips. From the end elements, gold bars are deposited out to square gold tabs at the edge of the plate. Two additional resistors with a different geometry are also deposited. A resistor located at the geometric center of the surface is similar to the previous resistors; the spacing between the two central elements is spread to .011" instead of a .008" spacing. In addition, a circular resistor is deposited, which has a radius of .043" about the geometric center of the surface. The resistance of each of the square resistors are nominally 7000Ω; the resistance of the circular resistor is about 14,000Ω. The centers of the square resistors are located at the following distances from the geometric center: .000", .065", .081", .125" and .153".

Beneath the resistors, which will be used as temperature sensors, is a layer of silicon monoxide followed by a strip of tantalum .154" wide. The direction of the strip which coats the central region is perpendicular to the gold leads connecting the temperature sensors to the side tabs. All but a square central region of this strip .154" square is overcoated with gold. The remaining tantalum square has

VAPOR DEPOSITED SURFACE TEMPERATURE MEASURING CIRCUITS

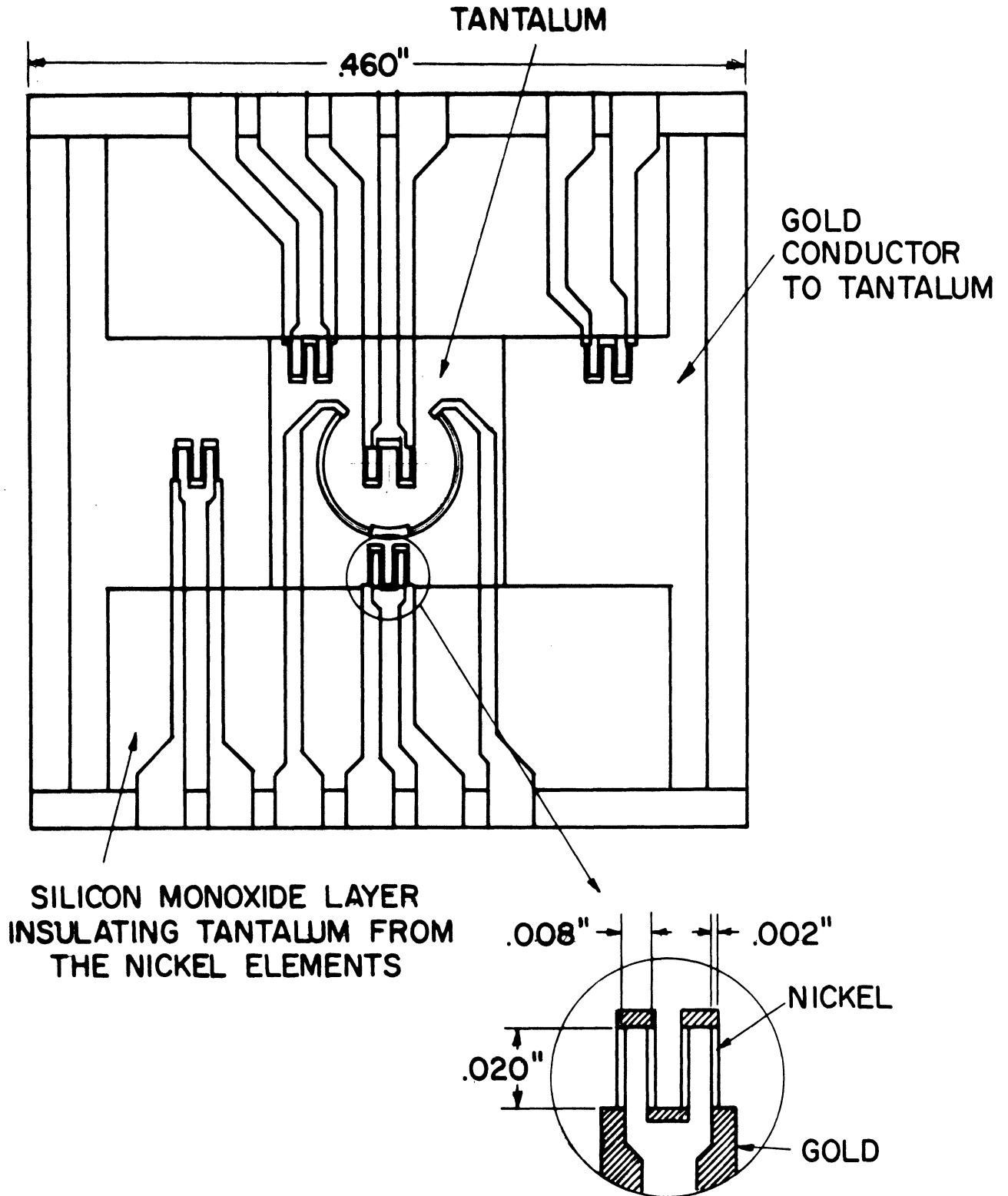


Figure 1 Geometric Arrangement of Vapor Deposited Resistors

CROSS-SECTIONAL VIEW OF THE SINGLE SITE HEATER

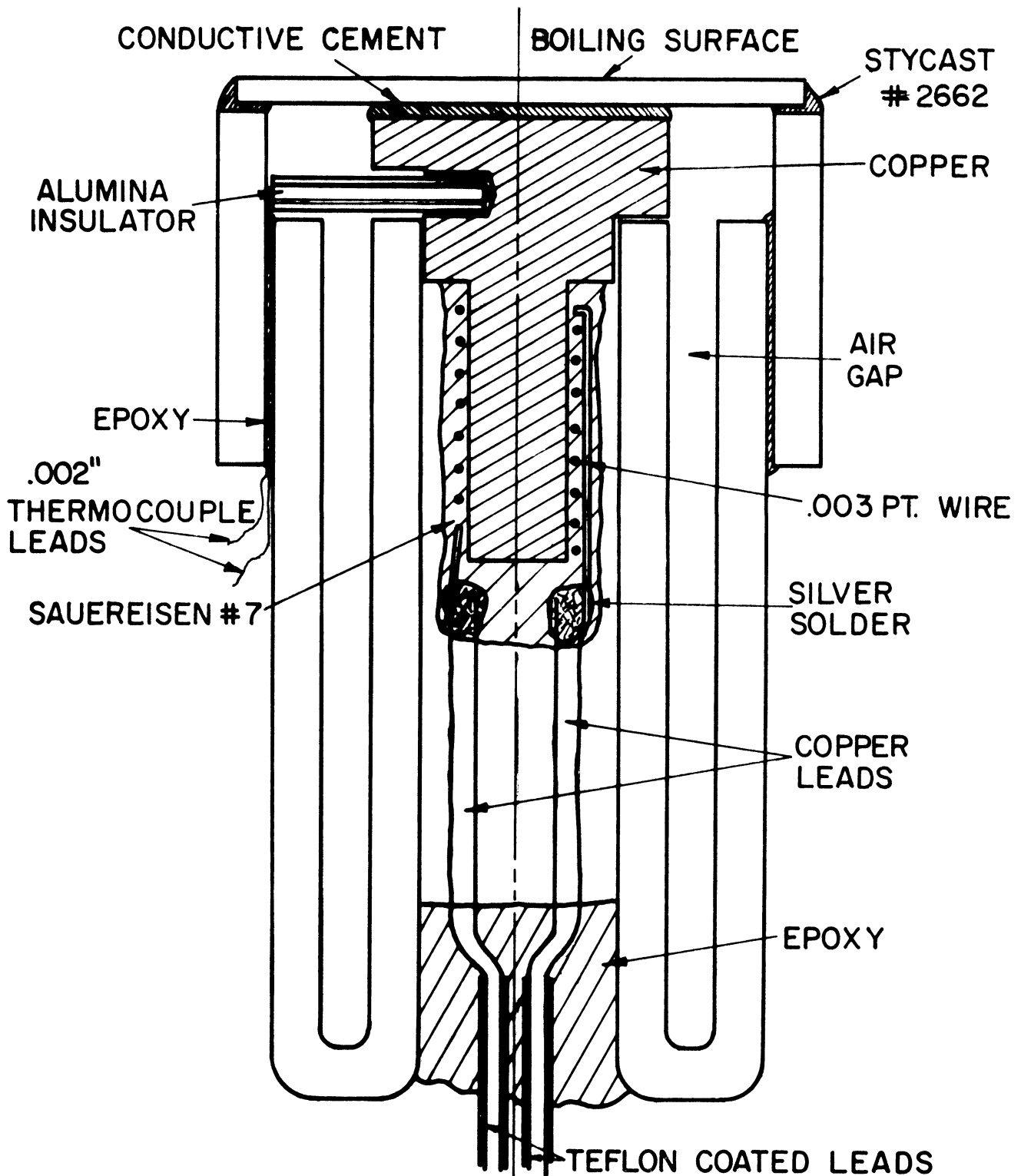


Figure 2 Cross-Sectional View of the Single Side Heater

a nominal resistance of 50Ω and it can serve as a surface heater. Above the temperature sensors was another layer of silicon monoxide, electrically insulating the surface resistor from the boiling fluid. Both insulating layers are about 1000 \AA thick.

3. Single-Site Heater

A heating element, figure (2), capable of generating enough heat to boil the fluid on the glass plate, is glued to the bottom of the plate. The element consists of a copper core in the shape of a rivet. The head of the rivet, glued to the glass plate, is .350" in diameter; the shank is slightly under .100" in diameter. Electrical heat generation around the shank of the rivet is provided by a .003" platinum wire, embedded in Sauereisen cement. The cement insulates the wire from the copper core and serves as a heat transfer medium to transfer heat to the core. A glass fitting seals the heater from the boiling fluid. The fitting consists of two concentric pieces of glass tubing fused together at one end. The annular space between the tubes reduces the radial flow of heat from the heating element mounted in the inner tube. The heat must either flow up to the top surface or down the copper leads silver soldered to the platinum wire.

The glass fitting is not glued directly to the sides of the boiling surface. Instead, a piece of glass tubing with an ID slightly greater than the OD of the fitting is roughened and glued to the plate with Stycast* #2662. The heating element is then glued to the bottom of the glass plate. Several different materials are used to cut down the thermal resistance of this joint: Conductalute**, mercury, and a

*Emerson Cummings Tradename

**Sauereisen Tradename

silver filled epoxy glue made by Electro-Science Laboratories. After the heater is mounted to the boiling surface, the glass fitting is telescoped into the outer glass tube bonded to the top surface. The hole at the base of the glass fitting, where the leads to the heater enter, and the space between the outer tube and the glass base are sealed with epoxy.

Except for one heater, where the temperature of the heating element is determined by the resistance of the platinum wire, a .002" thermocouple, made by Omega, is placed in the head of the heating element. The leads from the thermocouple exit through the space between the outer glass tube and the glass fitting.

4. Boiling Chamber and Related Equipment

The completed heater, which includes lead wires which have been soft soldered to the tabs on the boiling surface, rests on the male end of a 16 hole, 3/4" diameter Conax gland. Four of the holes in the gland contain leads from two Chromel-Alumel thermocouples, two contain leads to the heating element, and ten contain leads connected to five of the six surface resistors. The assembled gland, figure (3) is inserted into the bottom part of a jacketed stainless steel test chamber.

The test chamber, as figure (4) shows, is a cylinder 2 1/4" in diameter and 3 1/4" long. The wall of the cylinder is a piece of 1/16" thick tubing; the ends are 1/2" thick, 3" diameter teflon sealed sight glasses, held by sets of 6" OD, 3/4" thick flanges.

The side of the cylinder is surrounded by a 3 1/2" diameter cylinder which is also welded to the end flanges. A top and a

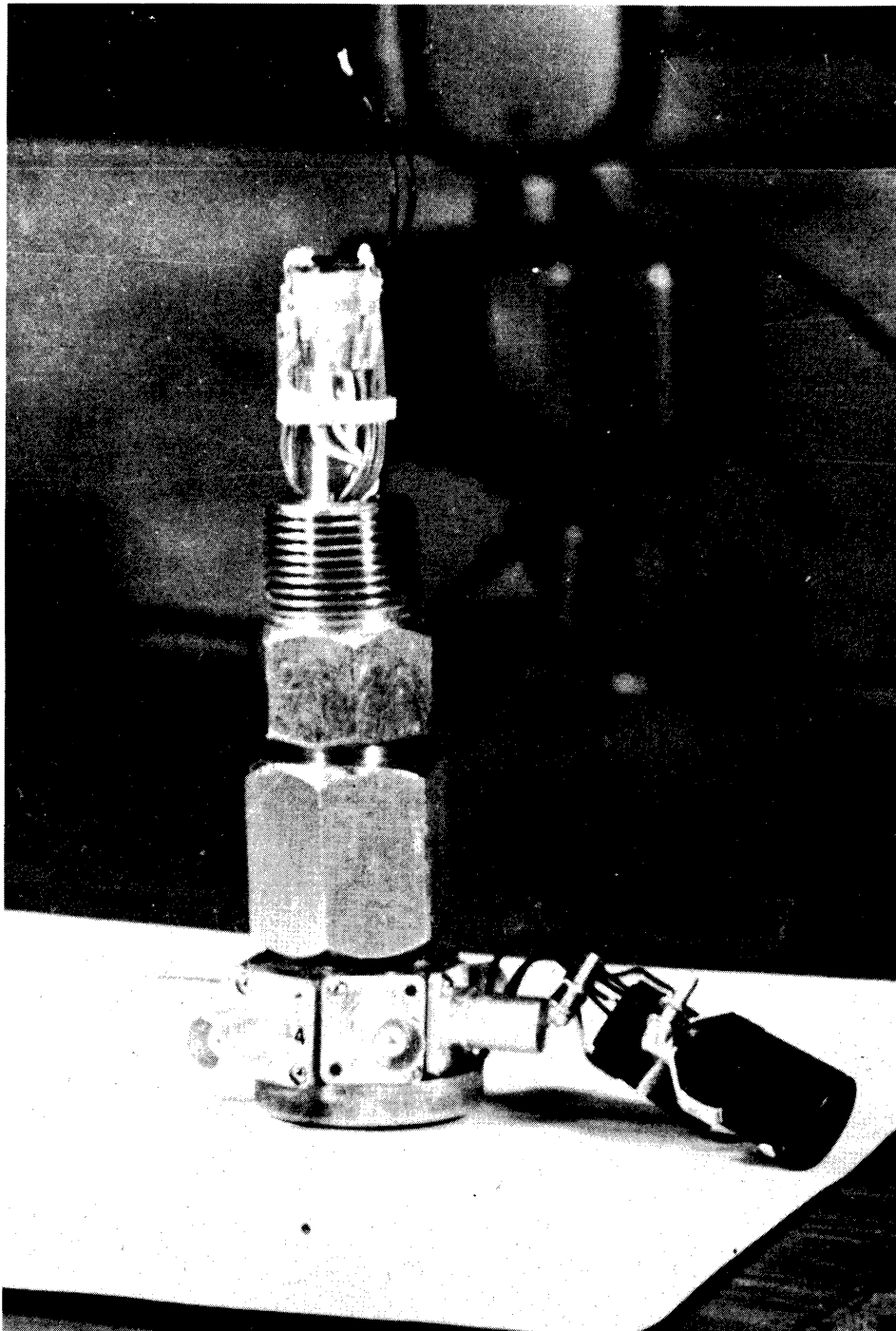


Figure 3 Photograph of the Assembled Conax Gland

TEST VESSEL CROSS SECTION

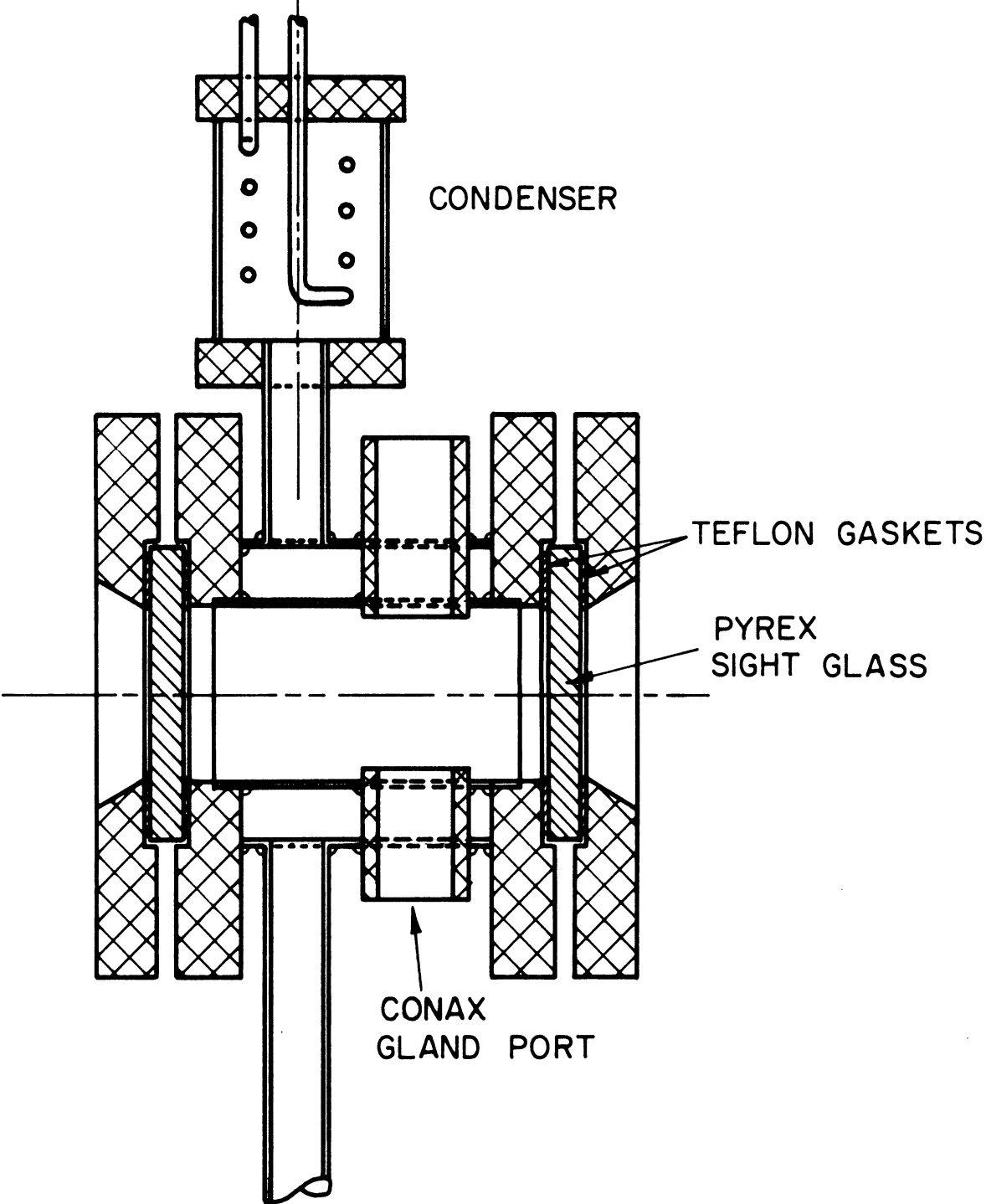


Figure 4 Cross-Sectional View of the Test Chamber

bottom part with an ID of 29/32" pierce both the inner and outer tubes 1" from the end flanges. These port tubes, welded to both the inner and outer cylinders, provide the only quick access into the inner chamber. The outer jacket is pierced by two additional 3/4" tubes. Heat, generated along the tube joined to the underside of the jacket, boils the fluid in the jacket. The tube welded to the top of the jacket, leads to a water cooled condenser containing 6' of 1/4" stainless steel tubing.

Since the rate of heat generation in the inner chamber is less than 10 watts, no direct connection between the condenser and the inner chamber is required. Heat losses in the auxiliary piping can balance for the small amount of heat generated. Additional heating tapes are required around the flanges to compensate for the heat loss at these extended surfaces.

In addition to a condenser, a filling vessel controls the environment above the fluid during storage. High purity nitrogen from a gas cylinder supplies pressure; a water aspirator provides subatmospheric pressure. A schematic showing the valves and auxiliary equipment in relation to the boiling chamber is shown in figure (5).

5. Auxiliary Equipment

a. Electrical

A Tektronix, 502 oscilloscope is the basic instrument. On the screen of the oscilloscope, any two of the five surface resistors can be displayed. In addition, a modification kit from Tektronix provides a 25 volt square wave signal lasting for the duration of

AUXILIARY EQUIPMENT

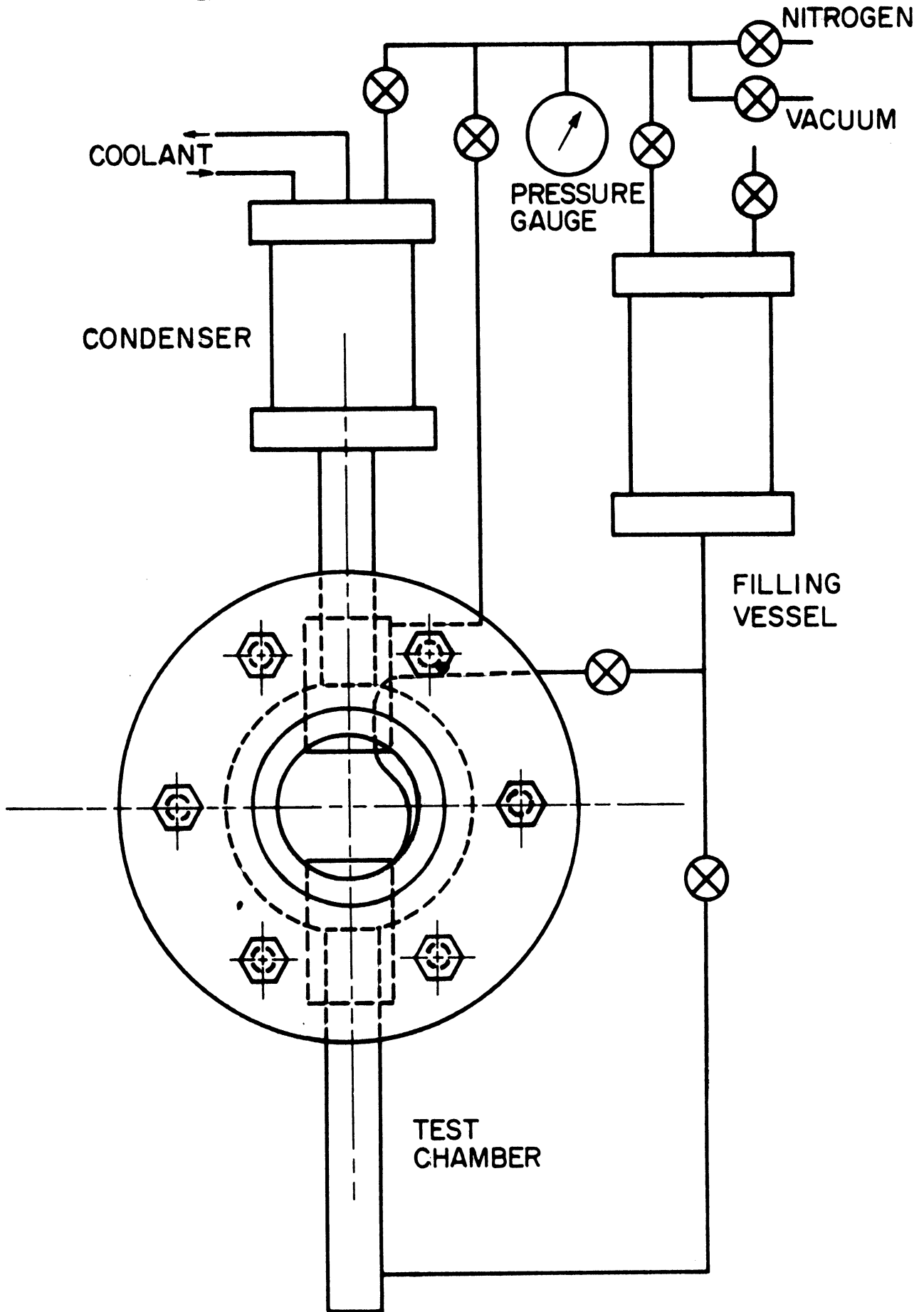


Figure 5 Auxiliary Equipment

any sweep across the oscilloscope screen. This provides a means of synchronizing other electrical equipment with the sweep of the oscilloscope.

The scope only measures voltage so the resistance of the temperature sensor has to be converted. Across a 10 volt mercury battery, a .9 meg Ω resistor is connected in series with one surface resistor. A change in resistance of the temperature sensor has a small effect on the current flow; a resistance change of 1000 Ω is 1/1000 of the total current resistance. The voltage across the temperature sensor is proportional to the resistance of the element. The voltage fluctuation is only a small part of the total voltage drop across the element. A known amount of the total voltage drop across the surface film is bucked using a variable voltage source. The design of this voltage source differs between the first and last data obtained. The principle is the same; a resistor in series with a 10 turn potentiometer is connected across a mercury battery. In the original design, the battery is Zener stabilized and the resistance of the potentiometer is 100K Ω . After use, the Zener stabilization has been discarded as unnecessary and the total resistance of the potentiometer has dropped to 25 Ω .

Two Edgerton, Gremehausen and Grier (EGG) microflash units are used to obtain doubly exposed boiling pictures. After the input signal is received, the occurrence of the flash can be delayed up to 1 msec. Another time delay unit, based on the same design principles used in the EGG units, provides time delays up to 20 msec. The auxiliary unit is placed electrically in front of one of the EGG units. Two phototubes, one in front of each flash unit, control a

Hewlett Packard interval timer which is capable of measuring the time interval between flashes to within .01 milliseconds.

The sweep trigger in the oscilloscope provides a way of starting the beam sweep across the screen only when two preset conditions are satisfied simultaneously on the monitored channel. The preset conditions are a voltage level and the slope of the voltage-time curve.

During boiling, the surface temperature is fluctuating rapidly. The conditions necessary to trigger the oscilloscope are satisfied soon after the last sweep is completed. This means almost a continuous stream of 25 volt pulses, separated only by the time necessary for the beam to sweep across the oscilloscope screen, are emitted by the modification put on the oscilloscope. Only one of these pulses must trigger the flash tubes if doubly exposed pictures are to be obtained. A single pulse generator, figure (6) shows the schematic, is placed between the oscilloscope output and the flash units. The single pulse generator operates in the following way. Once the DC voltage is applied to the thyratron tube, the next pulse emitted by the oscilloscope fires the tube which in turn generates an output pulse. Subsequent incoming signals do not change the state of the tube since it will continue to fire until the DC voltage is removed.

The power supply to the single site boiler is an 8 amp. 8 volt DC source with a .25% ripple. The current and voltage applied to the heater are measured by calibrated meters with mirror backed scales and knife edge pointers.

A Leeds and Northrup potentiometer measures the output signal from Chromel-Alumel thermocouples placed in the test assembly.

SINGLE PULSE GENERATOR

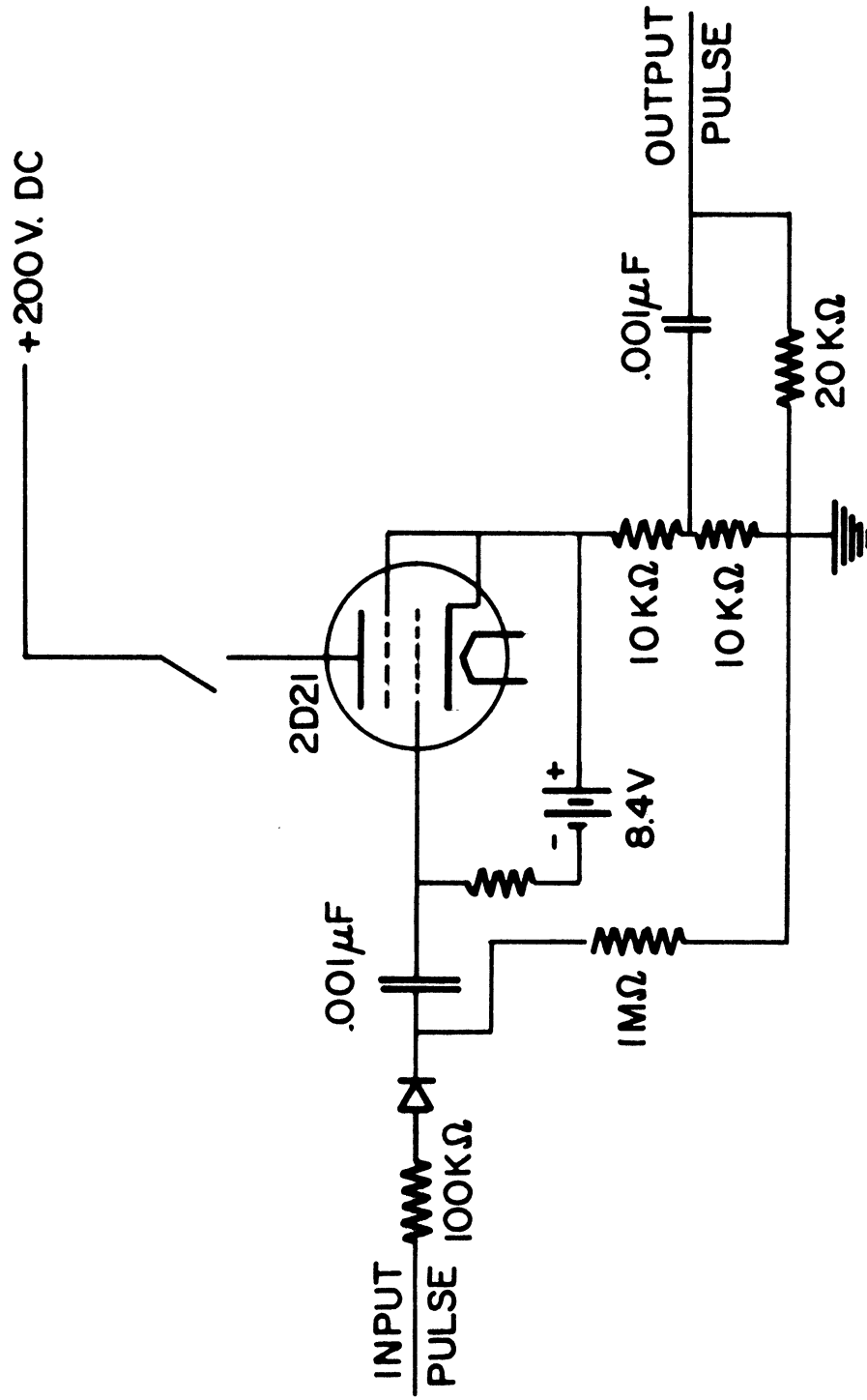


Figure 6 Electrical Circuit for the Single Pulse Generator

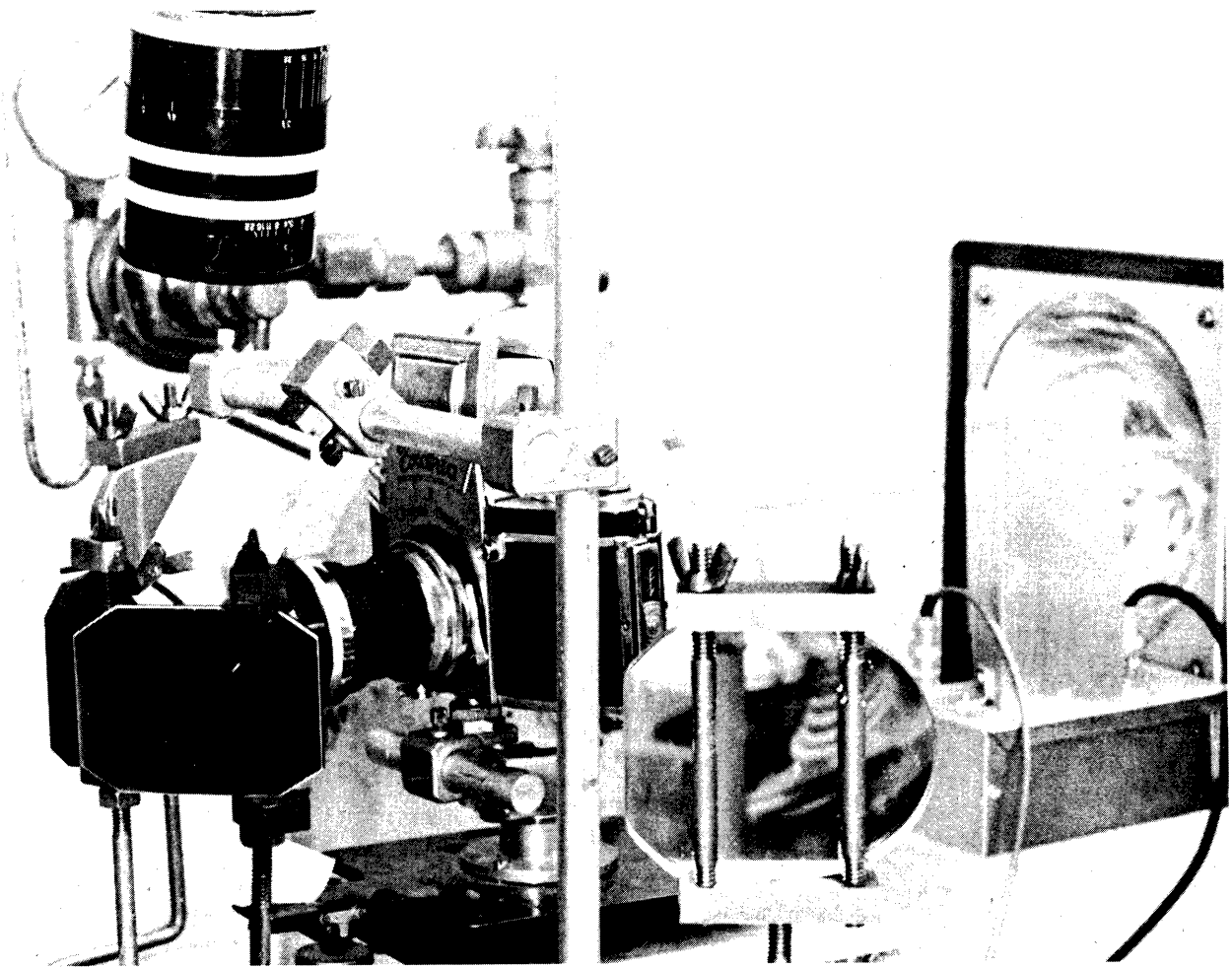


Figure 7 - Mirror Arrangement: Extreme Right - One of the flash units, Lower Right - Front surface mirror converging light from a flash unit toward test chamber, Lower Left - Second front surface mirror in optical path directing light onto the boiling surface, Center - Side view camera, Upper Left - Top view camera below which is the final mirror in the light path which directs the reflected light off the bubbles into the camera lens.

b. Optical Equipment

Pictures of the oscilloscope screen are taken with a 35 mm oscilloscope camera. Photographs of the boiling surface are obtained by an Exacta camera. Aluminum overcoated, flat, front surface mirrors are used to direct the light from the flash units into the test chamber. The arrangement of the mirrors, as figure (7) shows, serves two purposes; the test chamber is illuminated and the cameras are shielded from the flashes. A piece of polished nickel about 3/4" square is mounted within the test chamber. This polished surface provides a top view of the boiling surface. Initially, one camera was switched between side and top view. Later, a second camera and another front surface mirror, permit both views to be recorded at the same time. The arrangement of the flash units, cameras, mirrors, and test vessel on the optical bench is shown in figures (8) and (9).

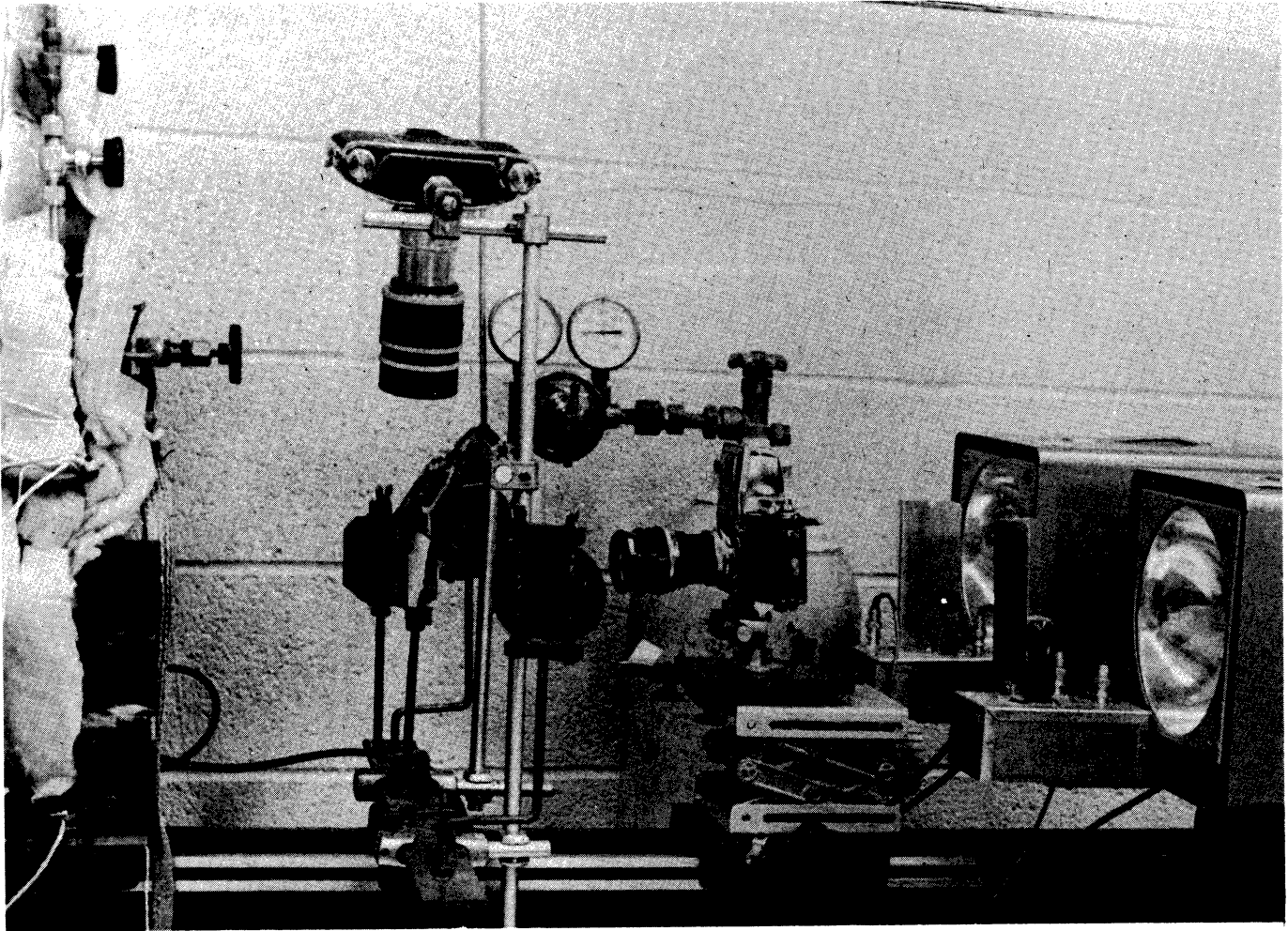


Figure 8 Photograph Showing the Mirror, Camera and Flash Mounts

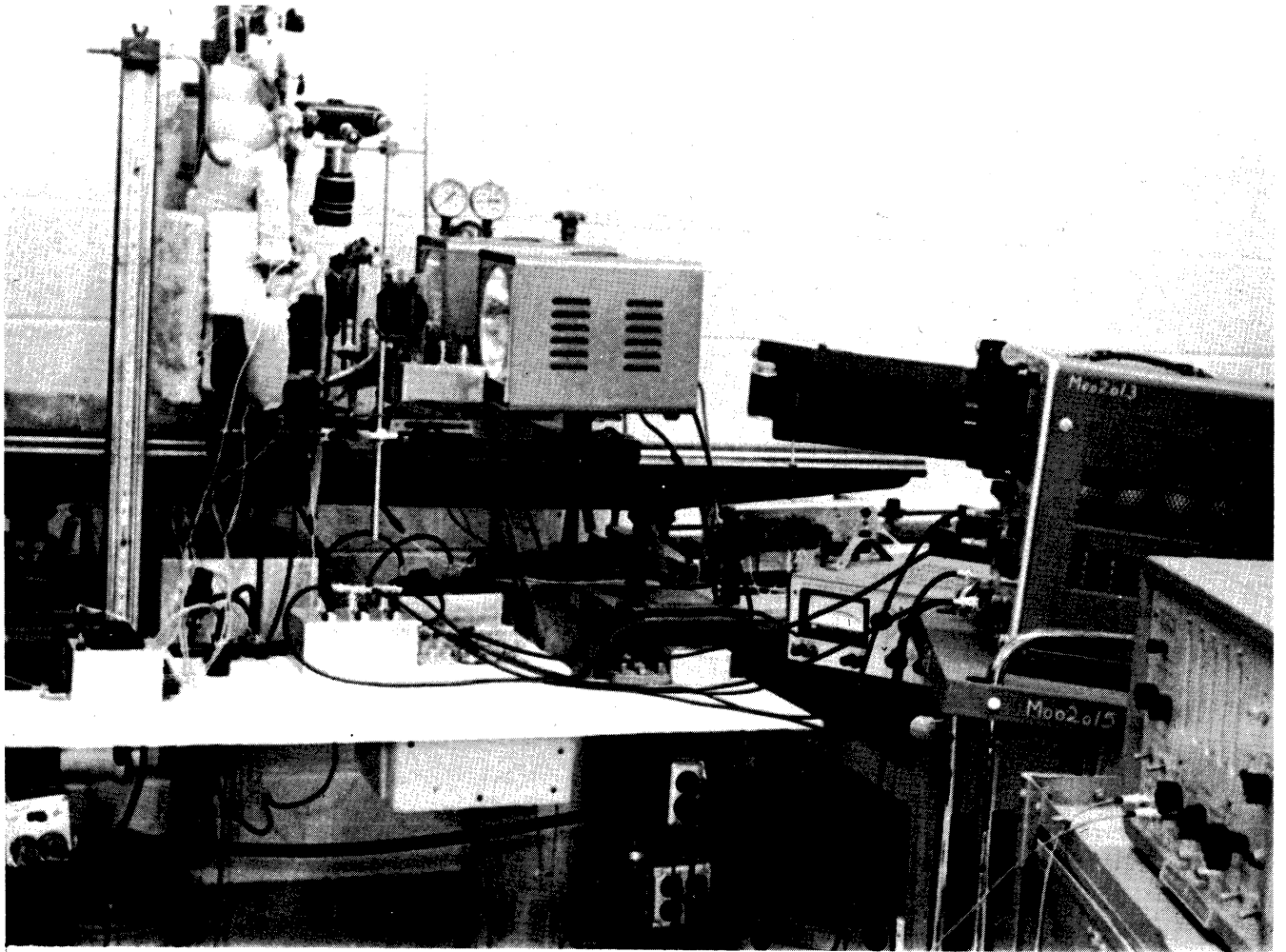


Figure 9 Photograph Showing the Relative Position of the Mirrors, Cameras, Flash Units and Auxiliary Equipment in Position for Taking Data

IV. EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

The electrical circuit for the measurement of element resistance is shown in figure (10). The method of calibrating each surface element is explained in Appendix A. This calibration procedure continues until the surface is replaced.

Before boiling data is obtained, the equipment has been preheated and the liquid in the supply tank has been degassed by pulling a vacuum on it for 15 minutes. The liquid is then charged into the inner chamber of the test vessel. Normally the depth of the liquid is 1" above the boiling surface if the mirror showing the top view is used. The power to the single-site heater is turned on and gradually increased until nucleation occurs on the surface. After the start of nucleation, the power to the heater is turned down until only a few active sites are nucleating on the surface. An attempt is made to get only one active site but this is not always possible. During this adjustment period the cameras are positioned, and focused and all the remaining electronic equipment is turned on. A steady temperature in the inner chamber signals the completion of the startup procedure.

All the settings on the power supply to the heater, the resistance measuring circuit, and the oscilloscope are recorded. The pressure and bulk liquid temperature are also recorded. Two additional thermocouples, one in the vapor and another within the heater, are also noted in the log book.

The room is darkened, the camera shutters are opened, and the oscilloscope trigger level is adjusted. Simultaneously the voltage to the single pulse generator is applied and the shutter on the oscilloscope camera is opened. The next sweep of the oscilloscope triggers the flash

ELECTRICAL CIRCUIT FOR RESISTANCE MEASUREMENT

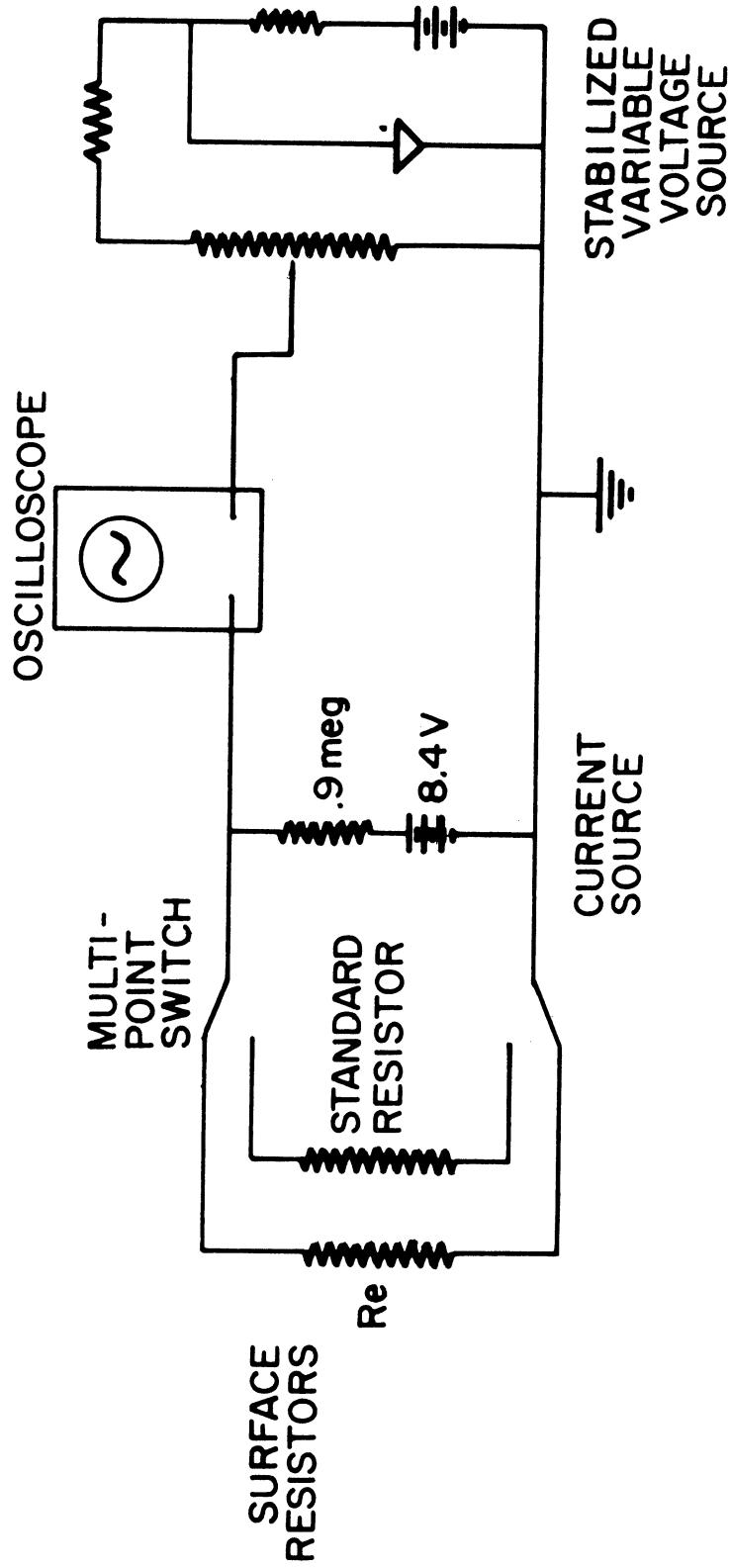


Figure 10 Electrical Circuit for Measuring Resistance

units and exposes the film in the cameras focused on the boiling surface. The voltage to the single pulse generator is removed only after all the camera shutters are closed and the reading on the interval timer is recorded. The winding of the camera starts the process again.

After a series of six to ten pictures have been taken, the cameras are indexed twice. This produces a blank space on all three rolls of film so the relation between the rolls is clear. At this time all the temperatures, pressure, surface resistor settings, power input to the single site heater, and the oscilloscope adjustments are recorded.

Each 35 mm roll of film contains about 39 frames. When the rolls are completely exposed, the power to the heater is turned off and another resistivity value for each element at the bulk liquid temperature is obtained.

The rolls of film are developed and printed using standard procedures. All the results are obtained from the enlarged prints.

V. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

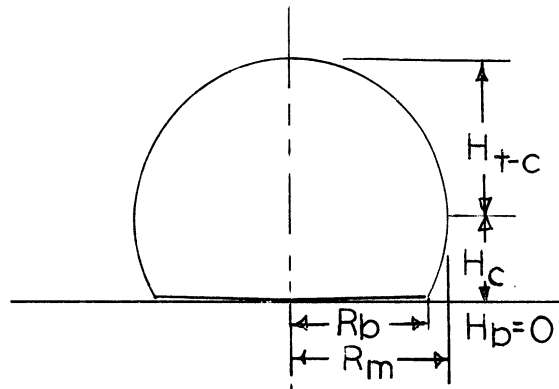
1. Analysis of Boiling Photographs

The boiling photographs and corresponding pictures of the oscilloscope screen are obtained from 35 mm negatives. The boiling photographs which are to be analyzed, are enlarged to about eight times actual size during the printing process. The exact degree of enlargement, which is the same for each series of pictures on one roll, is determined by measuring the amount of enlargement of objects in the prints whose actual size is known.

From the photographs, the bubble shape is determined by tabulating five bubble measurements. The parameters which have been tabulated are shown in Figure (11A). In addition, the bubble volume has been obtained by numerically integrating the expression $2\pi R\Delta H(R)$. This expression assumes axial symmetry. If the photograph is a double exposure then bubble size and volume are calculated for both bubbles.

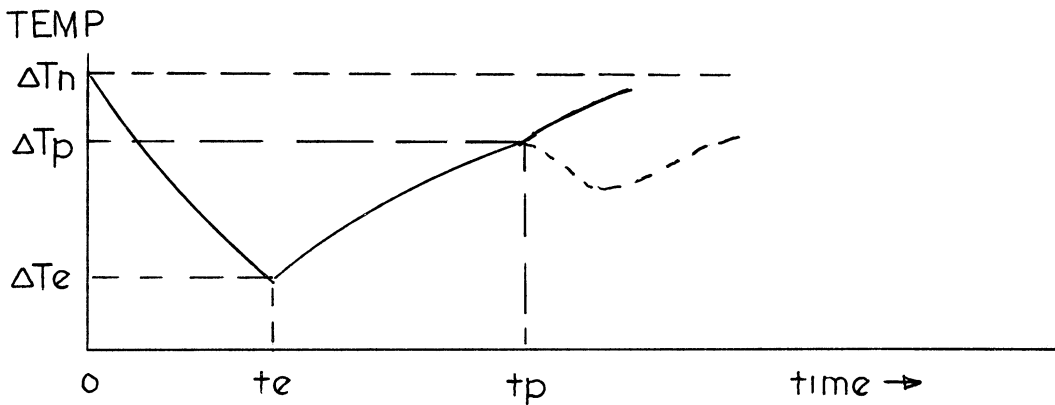
The oscilloscope photographs have subdivided grid lines superimposed on the traces so it is never difficult to determine a time or voltage level from any size enlargement. It is necessary to convert the voltage-time traces to temperature-time traces. This procedure is explained in Appendix B. Once the converted traces have been obtained they are processed in two ways. There are several variables that can be used to characterize the temperature trace. Figure (11B) shows the parameters that have been used in analyzing the temperature traces. In addition, the initial sharp decrease in temperature is tabulated by determining the temperature every 1/4 msec. from the start of the

temperature decrease until the minimum temperature occurs. This is necessary if calculations of the microlayer thickness are to be made.



(11A)

Bubble Parameters



(11B)

Temperature Trace Characteristics

It is necessary to mark the temperature trace to indicate the time the pictures are taken. Fortunately, it was not required to build a special electronic device. The first oscilloscope pictures showed there is an inductive effect imposed on the measuring circuit at the time the flash tubes discharged. The flash tubes operate by storing charge in two $10 \mu\text{f}$ capacitors at a potential difference of 20,000 volts. When the capacitors discharge in $1/2$ microsecond, there is an inductive effect observed which temporarily blanks out the millivolt level trace on the oscilloscope.

This marking of the temperature trace for every flash, as Figure (39) on page 12⁸ shows, not only indicates the time of the flash but also distinguishes which trace on the oscilloscope corresponds to the picture when several traces are shown. In the case of double exposures, it is possible even to measure the time delay between flashes independently of the interval timer, but the accuracy is not as great.

Tables I and II summarize the values for bubble size and the temperature trace characteristics for boiling ethyl alcohol. Toluene boiling data is summarized in Table III. The system variables: pressure, liquid bulk temperature, saturation temperature, and average heat flux from the single-site heater are also noted in tables whenever they are changed. The method of calculating the average heat flux is shown in Appendix C.

2. Relation Between Bubble Parameters and the Temperature Trace Characteristics

Based on one still photograph of the boiling process, it is very difficult to draw conclusions. Each picture tells only part of the story. A few have some real significance. For example, the picture designated as 9-3-32 and its companion temperature trace show a very small bubble and also the start of the temperature fluctuation. The actual temperature trace is reproduced in Appendix B as Figure (39). This trace shows that the point of nucleation corresponds to the start of the dip in temperature. Without this information, the estimated time after nucleation could not have been estimated. For all other pictures, the time after nucleation can now be estimated from the temperature traces. In many cases, the nucleation temperature is missing because the oscilloscope trigger is usually set just below the nucleation temperature. Since the initial temperature decrease is sharp,

TABLE II. BOILING DATA FOR ETHYL ALCOHOL

Notation	Time After Nucleation (msec)	BUBBLE GROWTH PARAMETERS				TEMPERATURE TRACE CHARACTERISTICS										Flux $\frac{\text{cal}}{\text{cm}^2\text{-sec}}$					
		R_b cm	R_m cm	H_c cm	ΔH_{t-c} cm	H_b cm	Volume mm^3	ΔT_n	te	ΔT_e	tp	ΔT_p	ΔT_n	te	ΔT_e		tp	ΔT_p	P	Tsat	Tb
14-8-7A	3.5	.169	.185	.082	.162	0	20.2	30	10	27	31	42	14	18	463	66	65.5	.70			
7B	14.0	.191	.310	.224	.199	0	91.0														
10A	3.0	.131	.152	.059	.129	0	10.5	30	10	19	29	42	42	42							
10B	14.0	.161	.218	.145	.178	0	36.10														
29A	2.0	.145	.148	.040	.119	0	7.65	40	1.5	20	25	42	14	25							1.11
29B	12.5	.222	.310	.191	.198	0	82.60														
30A	2.0	.092	.102	.040	.080	0	2.79	38	2.5	19	19.5	40	14	38	18	42	42				
30B	12.8	.204	.262	.145	.145	0	51.30														
31A	1.7	.119	.125	.041	.110	0	5.41	38	2.3	19	16.5	39	43	43							
31B	12.3	.159	.250	.172	.178	0	45.00														
33A	5.0	.092	.110	.059	.076	0	3.94	28	7	9	15.7	18	40	40	40	40					
33B	15.7	0	.109	.158	.076	.079	4.63														
36A	4.0	.080	.108	.073	.080	0	4.40	24	10	5		34	34	34	34	34					
36B	14.7	0	.125	.178	.112	.105	6.90														
37A	3.0	.066	.095	.073	.069	0	3.10	24	8	13.6	18	33	33	33	33	33					
37B	13.6	0	.092	.171	.069	.105	2.54														
14-9-2	11.4	.293	.336	.192	.244	0	106.00	**33	1.4	15	15.5	40	45	15	40	15	42	439	64.8	62.5	1.17
7B	11.0	.324	.390	.211	.278	0	156.00	**36	1.3	18	26	43	45	20	18						
9A	.5	.077	.102	.063	.058	0	2.84	**30	1.3	12	26	45	39	20	8						
9B	11.0	.306	.378	.304	.178	0	158.10														
11A	5.5	.119	.185	.119	.132	0	19.78	23	7.9	5	16	18	32	32	32	32	32	448	65	62.5	1.09
11B	16.0	.119	.240	.198	.218	0	46.50														
16B	11.5	0	.092	.172	.086	.099	2.61	18	3.0	10		39	39	40	40	41	472	66	63	1.37	
23A	7.8	.158	.212	.132	.158	0	28.80	**19	9.2	2		15	15	18	20	20					
28A	6.2	.132	.139	.066	.112	0	8.55	25	(7.0)	7		48	48	48	48	48					
14-9-30A	2.0	.108	.132	.069	.103	0	7.03	18	6.9	0	16.5	7	38	38	38	38					
30B	12.5	.105	.238	.198	.182	0	42.40														
34A	1.5	.086	.116	.060	.075	0	3.83	18	7.0	2		39	39	39	39	39					
34B	12.2	(.092)	.170	.204	.088	0	17.55														
35	2.0	.092	.099	.053	.079	0	3.10	20	3.8	5		42	42	42	42	42					
36	2.0	.092	.106	.040	.066	0	2.92	18	7.5	4		42	42	42	42	42					

** Point of Nucleation on Side Resistor (Center-Side Columns Switched)

* Oscilloscope Sweep Triggered on Side Resistor Fluctuation

TABLE III. BOILING DATA FOR TOLUENE

Notation	Time After Nucleation (msec)	BUBBLE GROWTH PARAMETERS										TEMPERATURE TRACE CHARACTERISTICS										Flux $\frac{\text{cal}}{\text{cm}^2\text{-sec}}$
		RADIATION					CONDUCTION					CENTER RESISTOR					SIDE RESISTOR					
		R_b cm	R_m cm	H_c cm	ΔH_{t-c} cm	H_b cm	Volume mm^3	ΔT_h $^{\circ}\text{C}$	te msec	ΔT_e $^{\circ}\text{C}$	tp msec	ΔT_p $^{\circ}\text{C}$	ΔT_n $^{\circ}\text{C}$	te msec	ΔT_e $^{\circ}\text{C}$	tp msec	ΔT_p $^{\circ}\text{C}$	P mm	Tsat $^{\circ}\text{C}$	Tb $^{\circ}\text{C}$		
14-3-8	3.5	.089	.089	.051	.064	0	2.15	47	2.00	34	5.0	39	54	54	54	54	531	98	90	1.09		
11A	1.2	.084	.084	.028	.076	0	1.94	0	0	0	11.0	37	51	51	51	51						
11B	11.0	.077	.109	.125	.082	0	4.74	0	0	0	3.05	47	51	51	51	51						
14A	1.2	.097	.079	.028	.111	0	19.30	0	0	0	14.0	47	51	51	51	51						
14B	11.0	.167	.160	.167	.117	0	.28	0	0	0	1.50	31	51	51	51	51						
20A	7.5	.026	.036	.036	.048	0	.89	0	0	0	8.2	42	51	51	51	51						
20B	17.0	.070	.070	.097	.069	.028	15.80	45	1.50	31	31	40	50	50	50	50						
23	8.2	.084	.170	.164	.114	0	11	0	0	0	1.50	33	51	51	51	51						
26A	1.2	.055	.063	.035	.064	0	3.70	42	1.75	28	14.5	41	48	48	48	48						
26B	9.5	0	.090	.160	.082	.014	7.96	43	1.50	33	33	40	49	49	49	49						
27	2.3	.128	.139	.063	.111	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0						
34	2.8	.070	.070	.031	.066	0	1.25	0	0	0	1.50	33	43	43	43	43						
14-4-2	7.0	.073	.090	.044	.080	0	2.48	36	1.50	20	10.0	33	48	48	48	48	523	98	96	.825		
4	9.5	.124	.190	.131	.131	0	18.25	32	1.50	18	12.5	32	43	43	30	30						
5	10.6	0	.088	.161	.101	.070	3.48	32	1.25	19	19	34	48	48	48	48	514	97	95	.825		
12	9.2	.117	.313	.102	.066	0	6.30	32	1.25	19	19	34	48	48	48	48						
17A	---	.117	.137	.058	.108	0	6.90	33	2.00	18	11.3	31	47	47	47	47						
17B	---	.058	.160	.161	.109	0	14.12	34	1.50	18	12.5	32	48	48	48	48						
17C	---	0	.204	.248	.136	.146	20.78	34	1.50	18	12.5	32	48	45	3.5	8.0	44					
19A	6.0	.088	.133	.102	.120	0	9.20	34	1.50	18	12.5	32	48	45	3.5	8.0	44					
19B	6.0	.083	.146	.102	.121	0	9.50	34	1.50	18	12.5	32	48	45	3.5	8.0	44					
21	11.0	.029	.088	.117	.095	0	3.03	32	1.25	23	7.0	28	46	46	46	46	490	96	94	.77		
26	8.6	0	.073	.117	.137	.073	1.23	30	1.75	19	15.0	33	46	46	46	46						
39	3.6	.131	.146	.058	.137	0	8.50	37	1.75	25	4.0	30	47	47	47	47						
31	1.0	.045	.065	.022	.036	0	.35	33	2.00	18	11.3	31	43	43	43	43						
33	9.3	.073	.124	.107	.098	0	6.82	33	2.00	18	11.3	31	43	43	43	43						
14-5-5	11.0	.114	.123	.038	.114	0	5.42	31	1.2	17.5	23	36	48	48	48	48	413	90	87	.71		
20A	4	.089	.089	.019	.081	0	1.93	31	1.2	17.5	23	36	44	44	22	19	39.5				.64	
20B	9.2	.218	.260	.128	.179	0	49.40	31	1.0	18	18	36	45	45	28	11	38					
17A	5	.089	.114	.102	.076	0	5.88	31	1.0	18	18	36	45	45	28	11	38					
17B	9.0	.153	.203	.146	.133	0	25.60	30	1.0	15	15	30	40	40	31.5	9	34.5					
25A	8.4	.164	.206	.114	.140	0	26.10	30	1.0	15	15	30	40	40	31.5	9	34.5					
25B	17.0	0	.210	.204	.140	.102	23.20	30	1.0	15	15	30	40	40	31.5	9	34.5					
26A	5	.067	.074	.025	.051	0	.94	30	1.0	15	15	30	40	40	31.5	9	34.5					
26B	9.1	.146	.186	.108	.120	0	17.90	31	1.2	17	16	33	39.5	39.5	6.0	36.5	7	38				
27	10.0	.074	.076	.070	.108	0	4.16	31	1.0	17	18	33.5	43	43	5.5	31	11	37				
29A	5	.064	.082	.064	.047	0	1.90	31	1.0	17	18	33.5	43	43	5.5	31	11	37				
29B	9.1	.127	.172	.089	.114	0	13.95	31	1.0	18	19	35	41	41	7.0	23	12	32				
31	5	.076	.082	.025	.070	0	1.535	31	1.2	18	15	34	46	46	5.5	30	11	40				
33A	5	.066	.069	.025	.051	0	.78	31	1.2	18	15	34	46	46	5.5	30	11	40				
33B	8.9	.127	.127	.144	.085	0	11.72	26	1.9	13	13.5	19	46	46	46	46	553	100	98	.87		
14-6-11	2.5	.092	.079	.038	.071	0	2.62	28	1.0	14	13.5	24	42	42	41	41	503	97	92	.77		
21	9.4	.089	.089	.076	.102	0	6.38	28	1.0	13	19	28	43	43	5.5	22	13.5	37				
23A	5	.127	.121	.076	.102	0	6.20	28	1.0	13	19	28	43	43	5.5	22	13.5	37				
23B	11.0	.102	.216	.165	.165	0	25.35	32	1.0	19	19	35	51	51	4.5	28.8	17	47				
26A	6	.102	.103	.038	.084	0	10.40	32	1.0	19	19	35	51	51	4.5	28.8	17	47				
26B	10.7	.287	.305	.076	.290	0	71.40	30	1.6	20	14	32	46	46	46	46						
29A	3.5	.311	.311	.127	.254	0	82.10	30	1.6	20	14	32	46	46	46	46						
29B	13.5	0	.333	.248	.278	.076	93.50	30	1.6	20	14	32	46	46	46	46						
32	6.5	.175	.203	.114	.146	0	25.20	30	1.6	20	14	32	46	46	46	46						

it is only a slight error to draw a straight line up to the average nucleating temperature and from the intersection of the two lines estimate the time the pictures are taken.

Thus far, the cause of the initial rapid decline in temperature has been related to the bubble nucleation and growth. To be consistent with the microlayer theory, the time interval, measured by t_e in Figure (11B), is the period during which microlayer vaporization exists. Also, the value of t_e must either measure the time required to vaporize the microlayer completely or it must measure the interval before the base contact radius R_b passes back across the temperature element.

The variable t_p has been tabulated as a temperature-trace characteristic. For ethyl alcohol, an abrupt change in slope of the smooth recovery rate is frequently observed. The surface temperature difference, $\Delta T_p = (T_w - T_{sat})$, and the time after nucleation, t_p , when this break is observed are tabulated in Tables I and II. For toluene, an actual secondary fluctuation is observed. This fluctuation is much smaller and slower than the primary fluctuation, which has been related to bubble growth. It will be shown that t_p can be interpreted in the same way for both toluene and ethyl alcohol.

Consider first, the large toluene bubbles for which fluctuations on two surface elements are observed. In data point # 14-5-26 shown in Table III, R_b is .146 cm when the "B" picture is taken. The start of the secondary fluctuation began .1 msec. before this picture. The outer resistor lies between .140 cm and .190 cm from the center, with an average distance of .165 cm. Therefore, the fluctuation starts with the vapor-liquid interface, measured by R_b , passing over the temperature sensor. A detailed

sketch of a similar temperature trace is shown in Figure (19) on page 62 . This sketch shows that the secondary fluctuation lasts several milliseconds. Since it starts with the passing of the liquid-vapor interface and lasts for several milliseconds, secondary fluctuation is due to liquid flow and not vaporization. The same conclusion also explains the fluctuations of the center resistor. For the pictures labeled #14-4-26, the secondary fluctuation in the temperature curve at the center resistor occurs at 7 msec; the time of departure for this bubble, as indicated by the value of H_b , is some time before 8.6 msec. The composite photographs labeled 14-4-21, show the bubble at the time the secondary fluctuation begins; the value of R_b indicates the bubble is very close to departure. These two photographs are within 1 msec. of t_p ; in one, the bubble has almost departed and in the other the bubble has departed. Figure (21) on page 64 shows that this secondary fluctuation also lasts several milliseconds. Therefore, the secondary fluctuations of the center element are induced by bubble departure. Suction of the liquid from the surface would be the most reasonable force for inducing this heat transfer at departure.

The cause of the break in the recovery of the ethyl alcohol temperature fluctuations can be investigated in the same way. First, note that a break cannot always be observed. Several pictures have been taken at a point close to where the temperature break can be seen. Data points 14-7-19, 22, 23, and 31 all occur close to the observed break in the temperature curve. In every case, the bubble has departed. Therefore, although the break is a measure of bubble departure time, in all likelihood the bubble departs slightly before the change in the slope of the central element is observed.

There are some cases, such as 9-1-36, no break in temperature of the central element can be observed. Since it has been found that t_p is a measure of departure, then t_e should equal t_p , if the microlayer has not completely vaporized. In the case of 9-1-36, $t_e = 8.8$ msec the bubble is still on the surface at 11.5 msec. and R_b at that time is .158 msec. This must simply be a case of the two curves matching perfectly so no change in slope can be observed.

For the large ethyl alcohol bubbles which cover the outer sensor .165 cm from the center, a value of t_p can seldom be obtained. The most reasonable explanation in this case is that the microlayer vaporization is stopped by the vapor-liquid interface passing back across the point. Data point #14-8-7 shows that the minimum surface temperature of the outer element occurs at 14 msec. At that time R_b is .191 cm, which closely corresponds to the maximum radial distance of the outer element from the center. The outer element senses an averaged temperature between .140 and .190 cm for the center. Since t_p cannot be noted, it must be concluded that $t_p = t_e$ and an unknown fraction of the microlayer has evaporated.

The temperature trace characteristics and the bubble parameters, shown in Figure (11), can be related in the following manner. The temperature trace characteristic t_p measures the interval that elapses after nucleation for the bubble base contact radius, measured by R_b , to recede back across the temperature element. At the central temperature sensor, t_p can be associated with bubble departure. The curve characteristic t_e is the interval of time required to evaporate the microlayer completely providing that t_e is less than t_p . Finally, if the microlayer has vaporized completely, it is usually possible to determine t_p from the temperature curves.

3. Boiling and Nucleation Characteristics of Ethyl Alcohol and Toluene on Soda Lime Glass.

In the previous section, the temperature trace characteristics have been linked to bubble parameters. Hence, it is possible to explain the nature of boiling on a glass surface. In this section, the composite photographs which are made up of one or two views of the boiling surface and the transposed temperature traces will be used. The voltage-time curves have been changed to temperature-time curves by the method explained in Appendix B. In addition, the disturbances caused by the flash discharges have been smoothed and then replaced by a cross-hatch and an arrow at the bottom of the sketch. The arrows therefore indicate the time when the pictures have been taken. The vertical scale has just been converted to a temperature scale so the fluctuations are as close as possible to the original voltage-time traces.

Experimentally it has been found that wall superheats of 40-50°C are required to initiate boiling of ethyl alcohol on a glass plate; toluene requires an even higher superheat. A spot of Floro Glide, made by Chemplast, has been dropped onto the surface in an effort to start nucleation. The spot, shown in Figure (12), covers most of the center resistor with a thin flaky coating. All the toluene and ethyl alcohol data for heater #14 have been taken with this spot on the center resistor. After looking at all the photographs and temperature traces for toluene, it may be concluded that nucleation occurs only from the Teflon*like material.

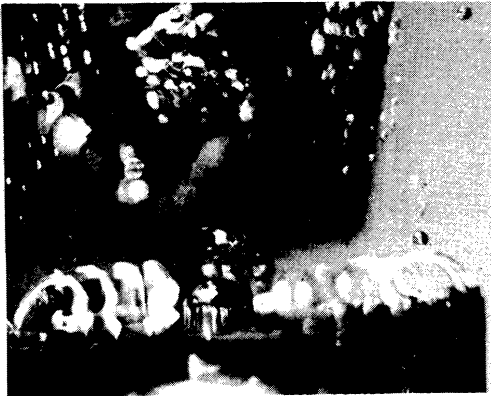
The toluene data show two characteristic temperature traces. At an average heat flux of $1.10 \text{ cal/cm}^{-2} \text{ sec}$, a pressure of 504 mm, and 8°C sub-cooling these two types of traces are shown in Figures (13) and (14).

* DuPont Tradename



Figure 12 Floro Glide Spot Over the Center Resistor

Side View



Side View

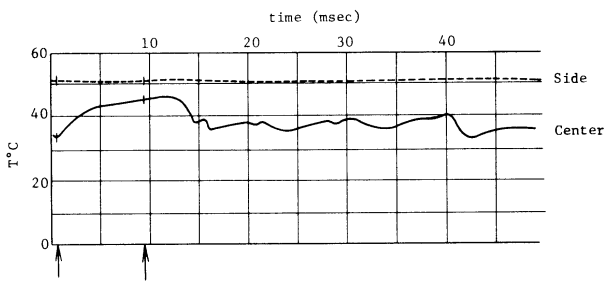
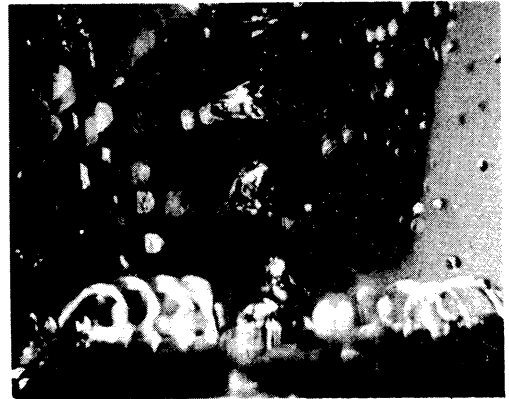


Figure 13 Boiling of Toluene #14-3-19, $P = 531$, $q = 1.09$ and $T_{sat} - T_b = 8^\circ C$

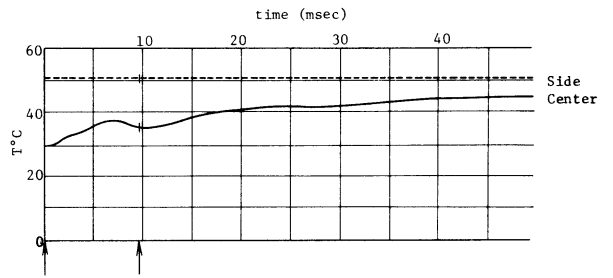


Figure 14 Boiling of Toluene #14-3-11, $P = 531$, $q = 1.09$ and $T_{sat} - T_b = 8^\circ C$

Both photographs show a double exposure of large bubbles growing on the surface. The rate at which the temperature recovers after the minimum temperature is quite different. In Figure (13), the rate of recovery is very high and departure is followed by a sharp temperature drop which could only be secondary nucleation. In Figure (14) the temperature recovery after the minimum temperature is very slow and no secondary nucleation occurs. The small fluctuations in Figure (13) closely resemble the fluctuations shown in Figure (15). Judging from this figure, the small fluctuations in Figure (13) are due to many small bubbles nucleating on the surface. Figure (16) shows the smallest bubbles which have been observed in 14-3. It indicates there is quite a size range of bubbles growing from the same region on the surface.

Run #14-4 shows toluene boiling at from 1-2°C subcooling, 500mm of pressure, and at a heat flux of $.75 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$. The same two types of temperature traces, which have been described in 14-3, appear at these conditions also. Figure (17) shows the surface temperature recovering very rapidly (at departure, $\Delta T_p \approx \Delta T_n$) and Figure (21) shows a much slower recovery rate. Figure (18) indicates the secondary nucleation, which occurs whenever the surface temperature recovery is very rapid, thus increasing the value of ΔT_p . It is impossible to tell the interaction of the bubbles within this picture; it is definite that there is vertical interference between bubbles.

The difference between Run #14-4 and #14-5 is a change in pressure and a slight change in the heat flux. In 14-5, where the pressure and the heat flux are lower, the tendency to form large irregular bubbles greatly

SIDE VIEW



SIDE VIEW



TEMPERATURE TRACES

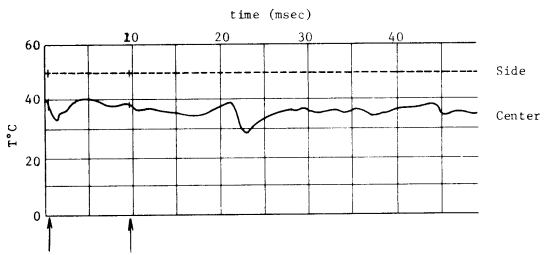


Figure 15 Boiling of Toluene #14-3-26, $P = 504$, $q = 1.09$ and $T_{sat} - T_b = 6^\circ C$

TEMPERATURE TRACES

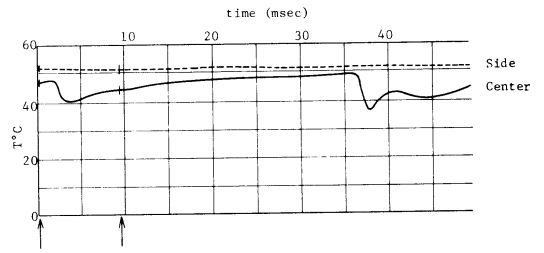
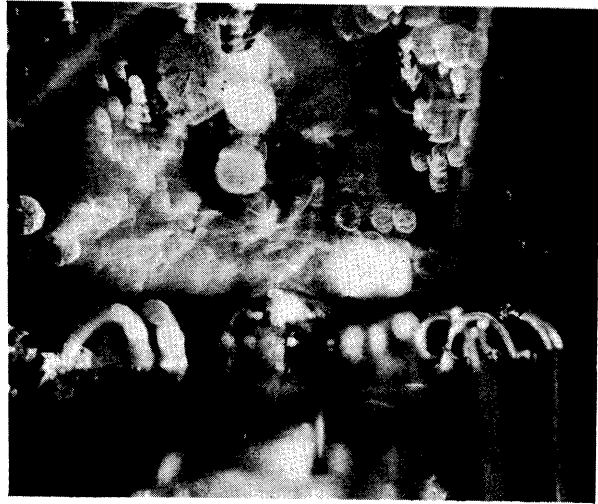


Figure 16 Boiling of Toluene #14-3-20, $P = 504$, $q = 1.09$ and $T_{sat} - T_b = 6^\circ C$

TOP VIEW



SIDE VIEW



TEMPERATURE TRACES

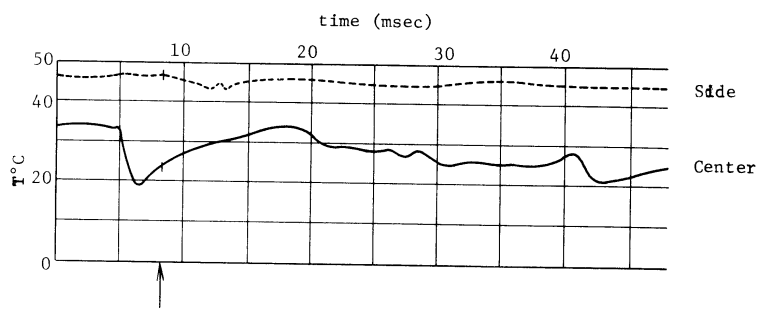


Figure 17 Boiling of Toluene #14-4-39, $P = 490$, $q = .77$
and $T_{sat} - T_b = 2 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$

TOP VIEW

SIDE VIEW



TEMPERATURE TRACES

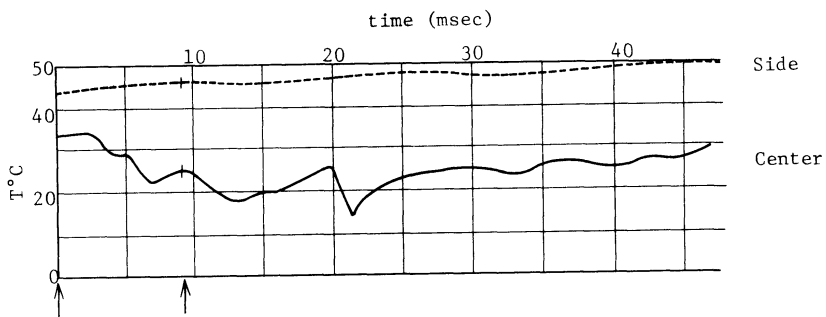


Figure 18 Boiling of Toluene #14-4-17, $P = 514$, $q = .82$
and $T_{sat} - T_b = 2 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$

TOP VIEW



SIDE VIEW



TEMPERATURE TRACES

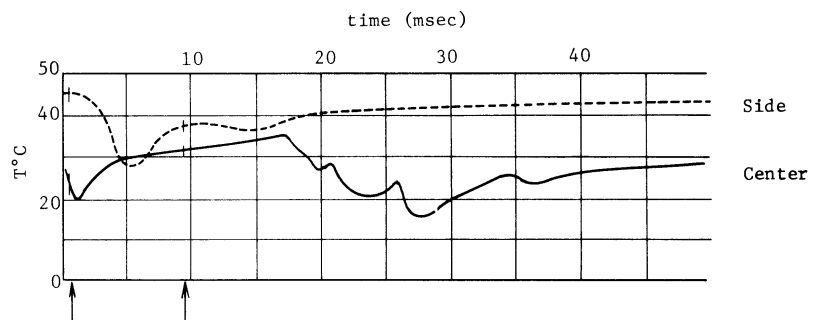
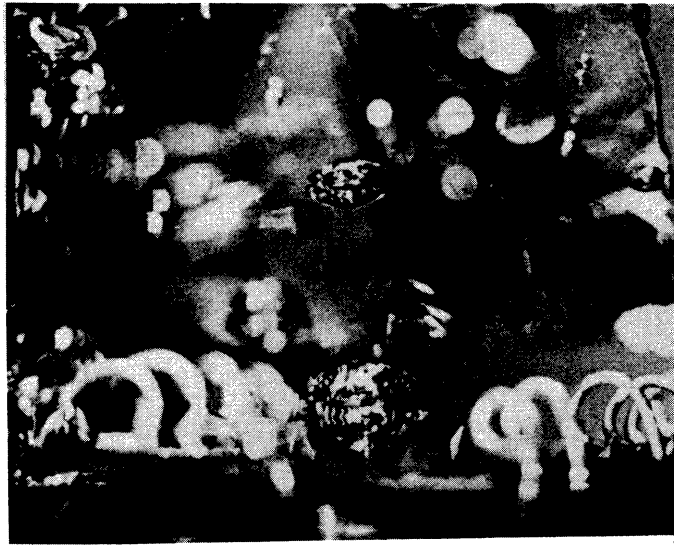


Figure 19 Boiling of Toluene #14-5-17, $P = 413$, $q = .64$ and $T_{sat} - T_b = 3 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$

TOP VIEW



SIDE VIEW



TEMPERATURE TRACES

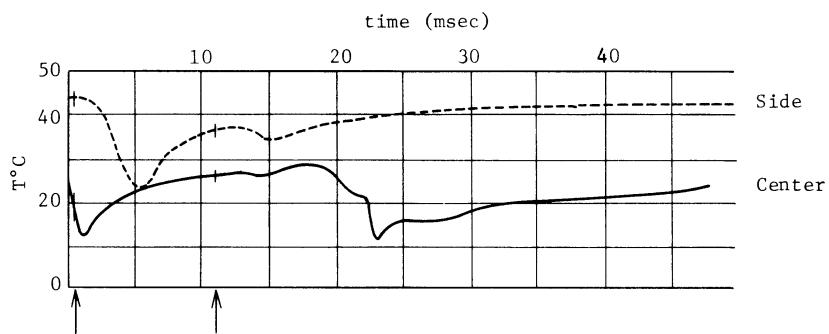
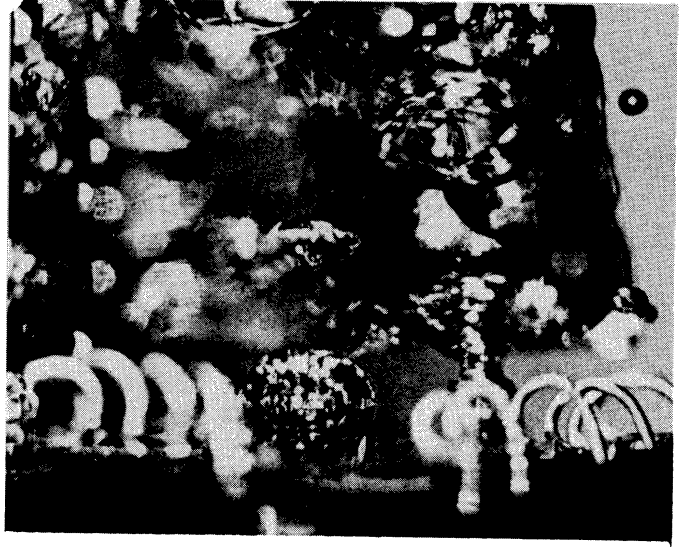


Figure 20 Boiling of Toluene #14-6-23, $P = 503$, $q = .75$
and $T_{sat} - T_b = 4 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$

TOP VIEW



SIDE VIEW



TEMPERATURE TRACES

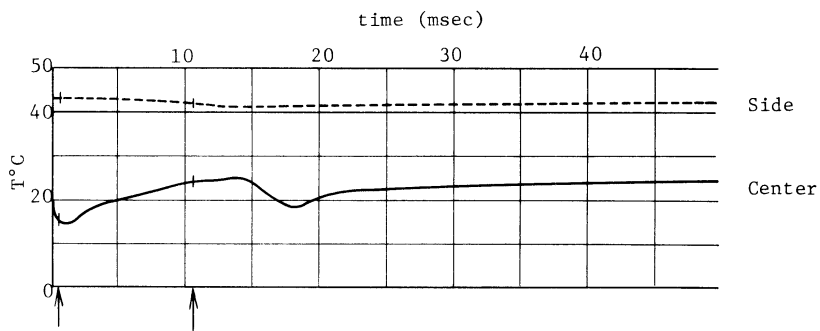


Figure 21 Boiling of Toluene #14-6-21, $P = 503$, $q = .77$
and $T_{sat} - T_b = 5 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$

increases. Figure (19) shows a typical bubble which is observed in 14-5. Figure (20) has been included to show that the big bubbles are occasionally observed at higher pressures. The interaction of pressure and heat flux, which appears in the differences between #14-4 and #14-5, is not well understood. Certainly, if the heat flux is not sufficient to sustain continuous boiling at a nucleating temperature at around 30°C above the saturation temperature, the boiling, if it exists, would have to be intermittent. These results show there is an interaction of pressure and heat flux on the bubble size which up to now has not been clearly described. At the same time in Run # 14-6, the last series of photographs, pressure is the same as #14-5 and the flux almost equal to #14-4. This shows the bigger bubbles are caused predominately by the change in pressure.

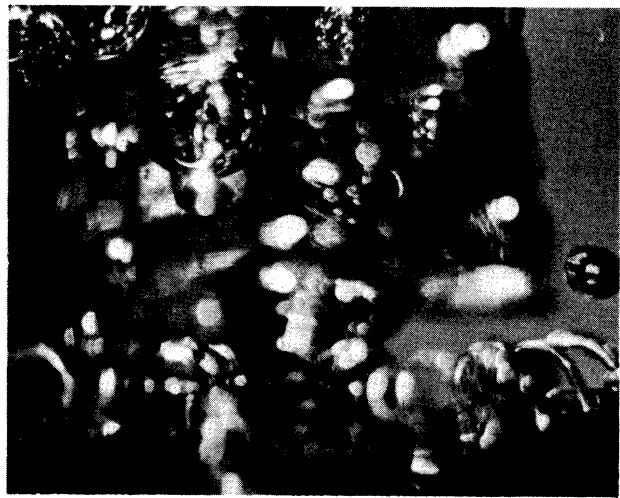
In summary, it has been found that at the pressures, heat fluxes, and degrees of subcooling which have been studied, the boiling of toluene is a very irregular process. Secondary nucleation is likely if at departure, the surface temperature has almost fully recovered from the primary temperature fluctuation. Bubble size can be affected by changes in pressure and heat flux by a mechanism which is not well defined.

The ethyl alcohol data at one pressure and heat flux are very extensive. At a pressure of 500 mm of Hg and a flux of $1.2 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$ a regular form of boiling has been observed. Figures (22) and (23) show this type of regular boiling. Under the bubble in Figure (23), interference fringes can be seen. These indicate strong temperature gradients. If the liquid temperature is 4°C subcooled, the interference fringes become very evident as Figure (24) shows. The temperature trace shown in Figure (25) indicates there are to active sites existing within .165 cm of each other. This condition lasted for 10-15 seconds.

TOP VIEW



SIDE VIEW



TEMPERATURE TRACES

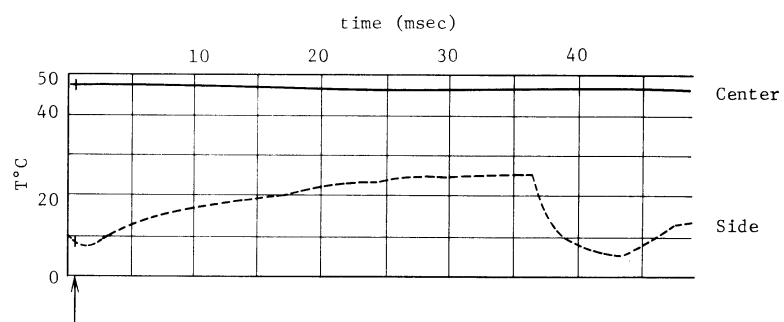
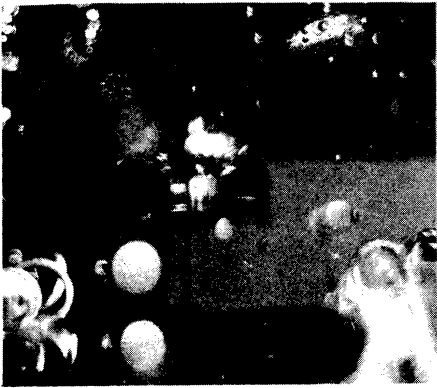


Figure 22 Boiling of Ethyl Alcohol #14-9-28, $P = 492$, $q = 1.23$
and $T_{\text{sat}} - T_b = 1.5$ °C

SIDE VIEW



TEMPERATURE TRACES

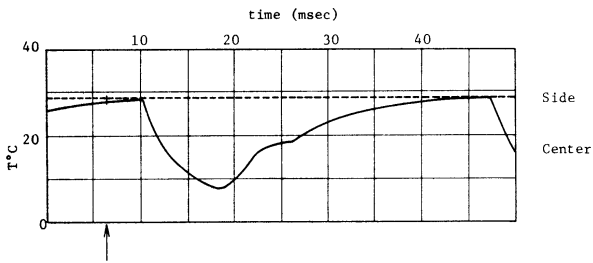
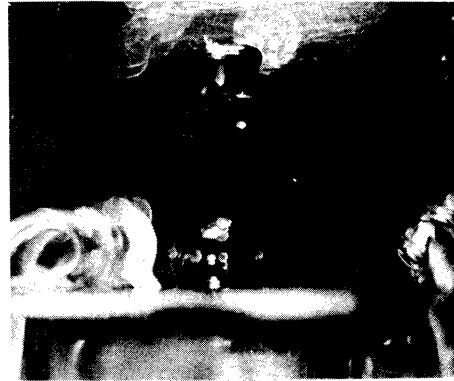


Figure 23 Boiling of Ethyl Alcohol #9-1-13, $P = 500$, $q = 1.17$ and $T_{\text{sat}} - T_b = 2^{\circ}\text{C}$

SIDE VIEW



TEMPERATURE TRACES

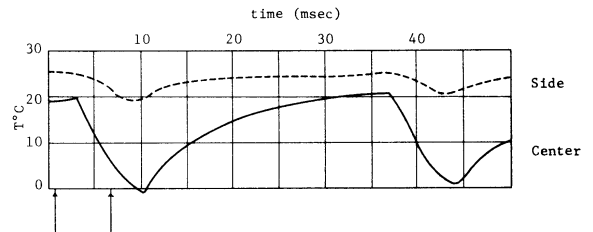


Figure 24 Boiling of Ethyl Alcohol #9-7-19, $P = 500$, $q = 1.2$ and $T_{\text{sat}} - T_b = 4^{\circ}\text{C}$

TOP VIEW



SIDE VIEW



TEMPERATURE TRACES

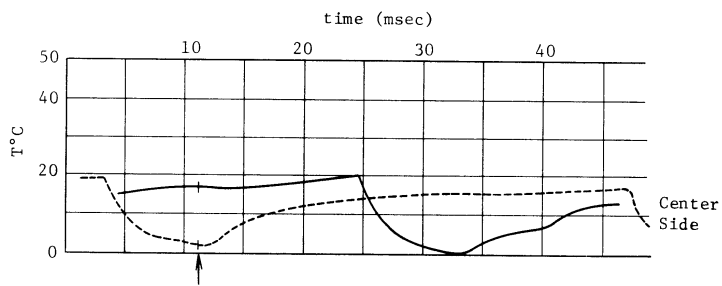
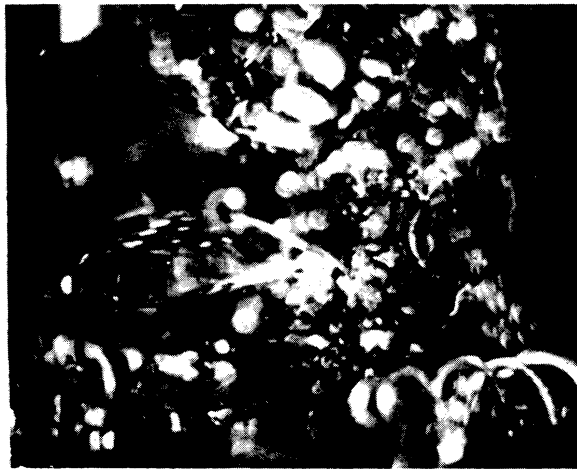


Figure 25 Boiling of Ethyl Alcohol #14-9-23, $P = 472$, $q = 1.37$
and $T_{\text{sat}} - T_b = 3 \text{ } ^\circ\text{C}$

SIDE VIEW



TEMPERATURE TRACES

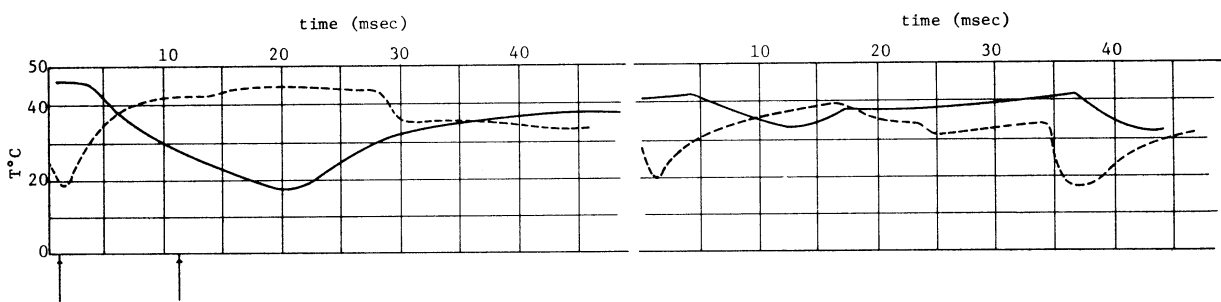


Figure 26 Boiling of Ethyl Alcohol #14-9-7, $P = 439$, $q = 1.17$
and $T_{\text{sat}} - T_b = 2.5$ °C

This regular boiling has been observed at pressures above 500 mm of mercury also. At higher pressures there is more of a tendency toward multiple sites on the surface. At pressures below 500 mm of Hg, there is a much greater tendency toward big irregular bubbles. Figure (26) shows the trace that triggered the picture and another which occurred some time afterward. It can be seen that the bubble is very large.

As with toluene, the tendency to form the large irregular bubble is probably the interaction between heat flux and pressure which prevents the surface from maintaining boiling at the temperature differences required for nucleation.

In summary, the ethyl alcohol data are significantly different from the toluene data. First, there is an absence of secondary nucleation, even in the case of the big alcohol bubble shown in Figure (26). Secondly the boiling of ethyl alcohol is extremely regular. The only apparent similarity is the effect of lowering the pressure and heat flux which once again increases the bubble size.

VI. ANALYSES OF RESULTS

1. Introduction

A great deal has been learned by looking at the many composite bubble photographs and temperature-time curves. A more complete understanding of boiling can only be obtained by grouping series of photographs taken at the same experimental conditions and then studying how the bubble parameters and temperature-trace characteristics change as the experimental conditions are varied.

The next section summarizes in graphical form the two bubble parameters $R_b(t)$ and $R_m(t)$. These two variables, $R_b(t)$ in particular, are important in any consideration of heat transfer at the surface. The following section contains an analysis of the observed surface temperature fluctuations. These fluctuations will be related to an evaporating micro-layer thickness.

2. Bubble Parameters

Based on Tables I, II and III, graphs for the various bubble growth parameters can be drawn. Figure (27) gives the maximum bubble diameter as a function of time for ethyl alcohol boiling at a system pressure of 500 mm of Hg and at an average heat flux of $1.2 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$. The solid line drawn through the data points in this figure is assumed to have the following form.

$$R_m(t) = \eta\sqrt{t} \quad (26)$$

In this case $\eta = 2.34 \text{ cm/sec}^{1/2}$. For very short times after nucleation the bubble grows as a hemisphere. Thereafter the base contact radius

begins to lag behind the maximum. It reaches a maximum and then decreases to zero at departure. An equation which behaves in this manner is:

$$R_b(t) = \eta\sqrt{t} \left[1 - \frac{1}{2n+1} \left(\frac{t}{t_m} \right)^n \right] \quad (27)$$

At " t_m ," $R_b(t)$ is forced to be a maximum by the $(2n+1)$ term. At very small times, relative to " t_m ," $R_b(t) = R_m(t)$. A value of $n = 1$ fits the data presented here. The equation which is used to correlate the data is:

$$R_b(t) = \eta\sqrt{t} \left[1 - 1/3 (t/t_m) \right] \quad (28)$$

where η is the same value which correlates the maximum bubble radius expression. It should be noted that equation (28) forces $R_b(t_m)$ to be equal to $2/3 R_m(t_m)$ and it also requires the time of departure to equal $3t_m$. The data for the base contact radius vs time for ethyl alcohol, which is a companion to figure (27) showing the data for $R_m(t)$, is shown in figure (28). The value of $\eta = 2.34 \text{ cal/sec}^{1/2}$ and $t_m = .007 \text{ sec}$ are used to correlate the data.

Figures (29) and (30) show the maximum and base radii as a function of time after nucleation for toluene boiling at 520 mm of Hg and at an average heat flux of $.75 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$. The correlating parameters are $t_m = .004 \text{ sec}$ and $\eta = 2.6 \text{ cm/sec}^{1/2}$. Figures (31) and (32) show the maximum and base radii as a function of time for toluene boiling at 410 mm of Hg and at an average heat flux of $.64 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$. The correlating parameters are $t_m = .005 \text{ sec}$ and $\eta = 4.25 \text{ cm/sec}^{1/2}$.

Figures (27) to (32) summarize most of the data in Tables I, II and III. There are several isolated conditions where only a few pictures have been taken. These isolated points are not used.

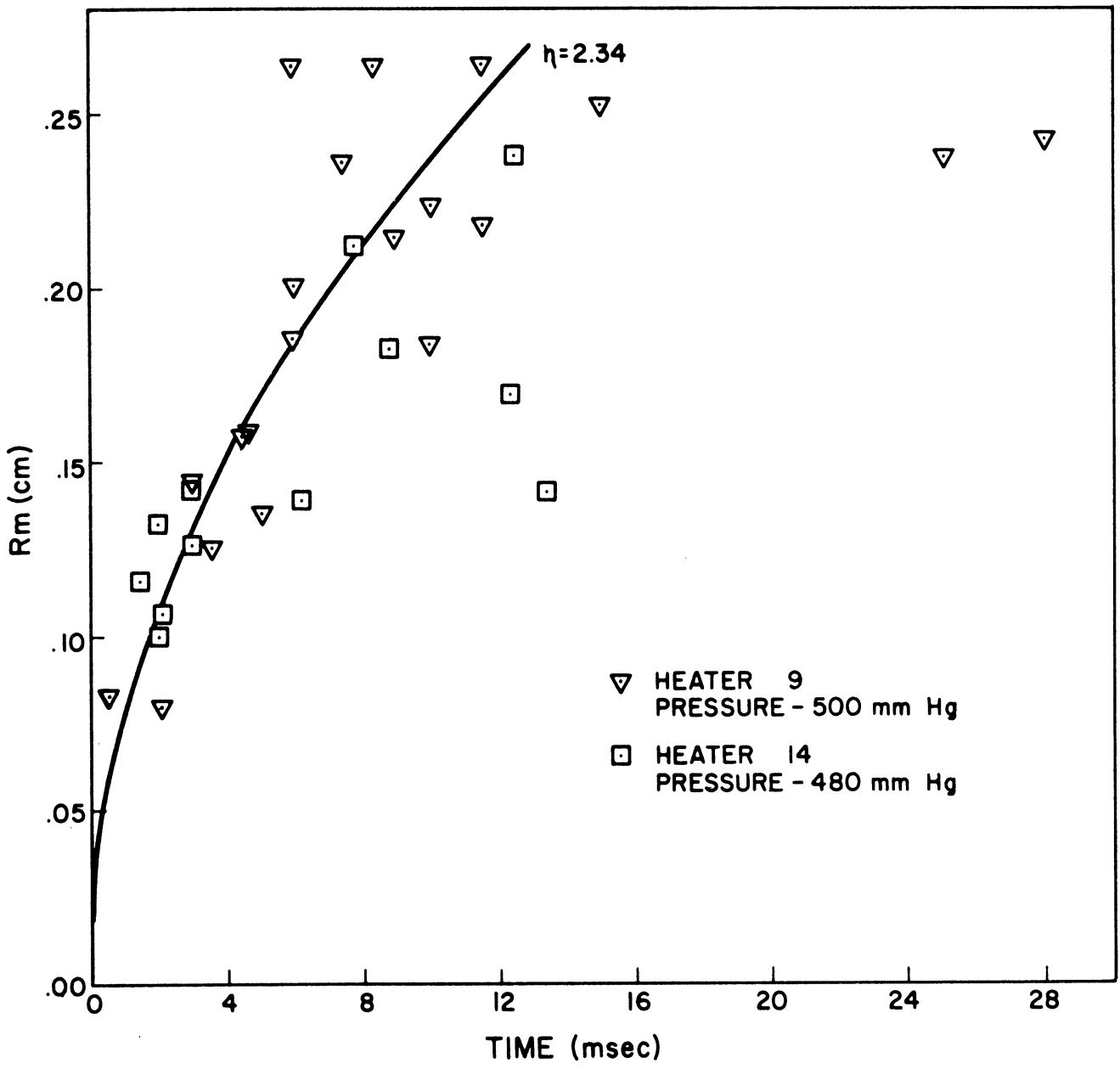


Figure 27 **MAXIMUM BUBBLE RADIUS**
 ETHYL ALCOHOL
 HEAT FLUX - 1.2 cal/cm²-sec

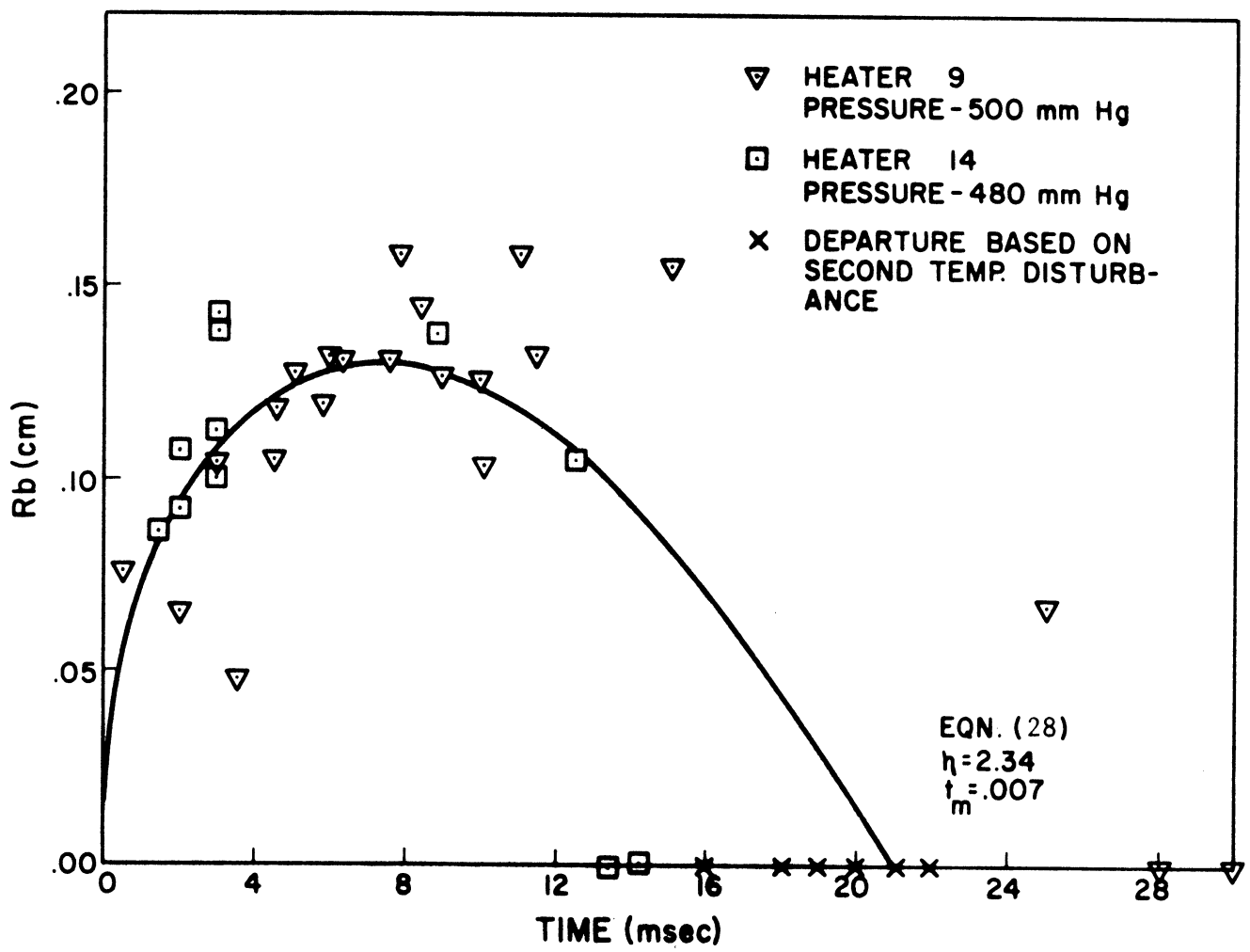


Figure 28 **BASE CONTACT RADIUS**
ETHYL ALCOHOL
HEAT FLUX - 1.2 cal/cm²-sec

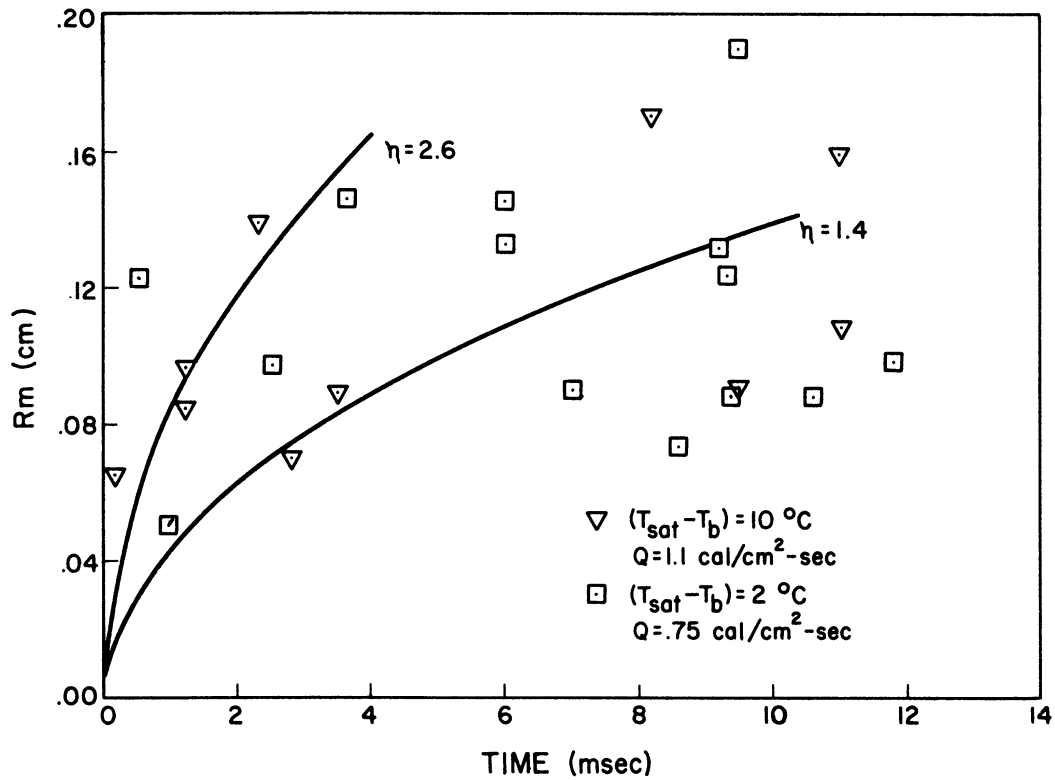


Figure 29 **MAXIMUM BUBBLE RADIUS**
TOLUENE at 520 mm Hg

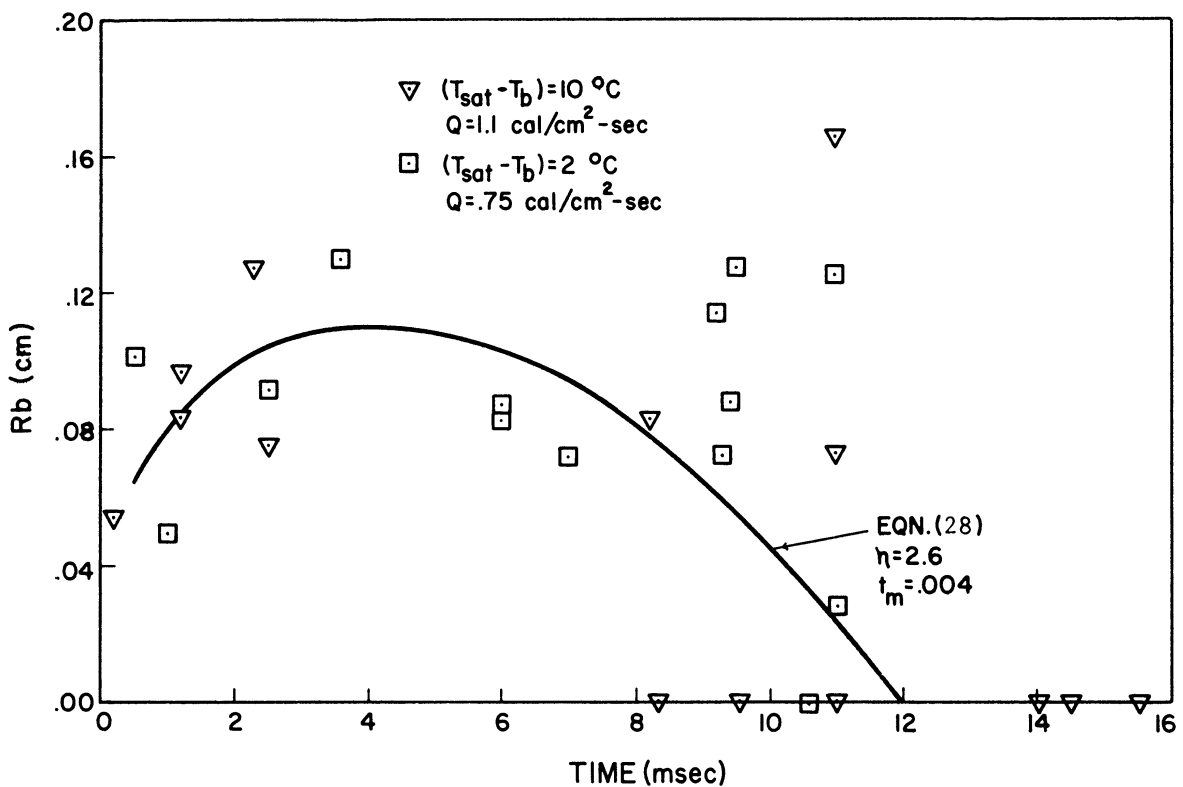


Figure 30 **BASE CONTACT RADIUS**
TOLUENE at 520 mm Hg

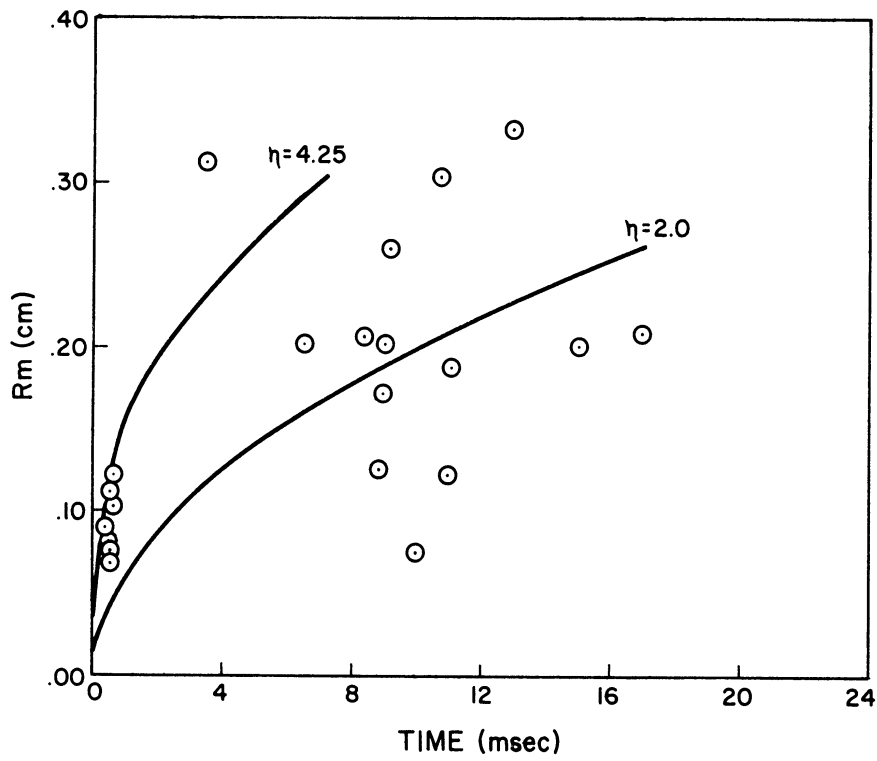


Figure 31 **MAXIMUM BUBBLE RADIUS**
 TOLUENE at 410 mm Hg
 $Q = .64 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$

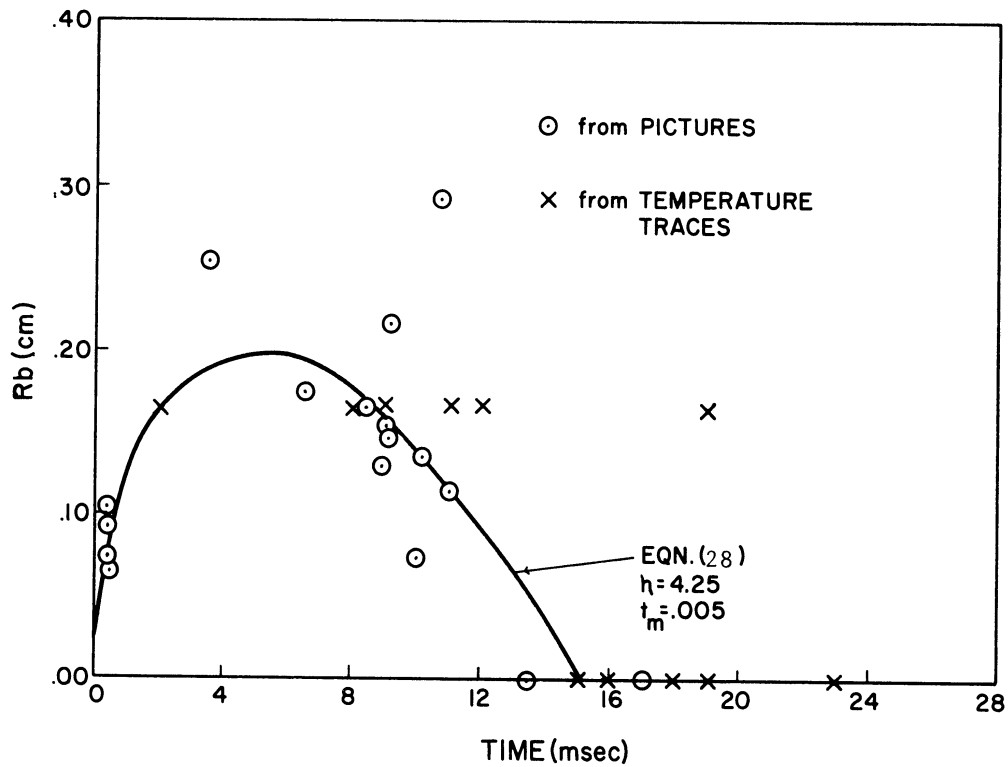


Figure 32 **BASE CONTACT RADIUS**
 TOLUENE at 410 mm Hg
 $Q = .64 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$

Figures (27) to (32) reveal several unexpected features. In Figures (29) and (30), the data seems to be independent of the amount of subcooling. Referring to Table III, the subcooled data comes from Run #14-3 and the data at a very slight subcooling is from #14-4. The nucleating temperature is at least 10°C higher for the subcooled boiling. Any effect of subcooling must be compensated for by the higher nucleation temperature. In this data there seems to be a difference between the initial rate of bubble growth, measured by equation (26), and the average rate of bubble growth based on the maximum radial bubble size at departure. This effect is so pronounced in Figures (29) and (31) that two curves are shown on the graph. The higher value of η on the top curve is the initial rate of bubble growth and that on the lower curve is an average bubble growth rate. A good curve through the data for $R_m(t)$ would result from specifying the maximum radial bubble size by the initial growth rate up until the base contact radius is a maximum, and then specifying no further radial growth until departure.

The following table compares the theories for experimental growth rate.

TABLE IV

COMPARISON OF THEORETICAL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROWTH RATES

Fluid	Pressure mm of Hg	η Experimental	η Forster & Zuber	η Plesset & Zwick	η Zuber
Ethyl Alcohol	500	2.34	2.4	2.6	1.5
Toluene	520	2.6	3.0	3.3	1.9
Toluene	410	4.3	3.5	3.8	2.2

Based on the Table IV, none of these theories predict the pressure effect which has been observed for Toluene. The equation derived by Han and Griffith, equation (4), requires an additional experimental variable - the liquid thermal layer thickness; d - even with this additional variable, which is unknown, the initial growth rate from the equation is the same as the last column in Table IV.

It is very difficult to obtain any correlation with the bubble departure theories because of the scatter in the experimental data and also the lack of enough pictures at departure to obtain the departing contact angle. Based on the experimental equation proposed by Cole and Shulman, equation (15), the departure radii for the three cases summarized in the graphs are: $R_d = .14$ cm at 500 mm of Hg for ethyl alcohol, $R_d = .13$ cm at 520 mm of Hg for toluene, and $R_d = .17$ cm at 410 mm of Hg for toluene. The equation approximately predicts the departure size but no real agreement is present.

Once nucleation begins, the power has to be turned down to get bubbles which nucleate more uniformly. Even if the site becomes inactive, it is never necessary to go above the original power setting before the site will reactivate. Therefore, vapor in some form must be present on the surface. At the observed nucleating temperature, the critical bubble dimension can be obtained from equation (6). For toluene, the critical radius at 30°C superheat is 6×10^{-4} cm; for ethyl alcohol at 20°C superheat the critical radius is 8×10^{-4} cm. The theories for predicting the active cavity radius show that any cavity between 10^{-4} cm and 10^{-2} cm could be active.

The comparisons of the experimental results with the theories for bubble growth, nucleation, and departure show some agreement but the theories are unable to describe fully the experimental results that are summarized in this section.

From the experimental results, it is possible to also check the general boiling correlations, described in the Literature Review, at a single active site. Since most of these equations assume the liquid flow controls boiling heat transfer, the ΔT which will be used in checking the validity of these correlations at a single active site will be the difference between the surface temperature outside the maximum bubble base contact radius ($R_{b \text{ max}}$) and saturation temperature. For ethyl alcohol boiling at 500 mm of Hg, the wall temperature outside $R_{b \text{ max}}$, is around 30°C superheated. The equation by Chang, equation (22), predicts $q = 1.25 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$. The equation by Zuber, which is based on buoyancy, equation (23), predicts $q = 1.38 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$. The experimental value is: $q = 1.20 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$. These equations both predict the liquid heat-transfer rate in the liquid quite well.

3. Analysis of the Experimental Temperature Fluctuations

The primary temperature fluctuations indicate microlayer vaporization. Cooper and Lloyd (8) devised two methods of relating the temperature fluctuations to a microlayer thickness. Both require the surface temperature to be known as a function of time. The first method, based on the thermal resistance of the liquid, assumes all the liquid film evaporates. The second method, based on the thermal reaction of the solid to the change in surface temperature is not limited by the

assumption that all the liquid film evaporate but does require that the temperature not only at the surface but also within the solid be known at the time of nucleation. The microlayer thickness which is calculated from the liquid thermal resistance is designated as Δ_1 . The deviation starts with the equation governing the rate of evaporation of the film:

$$k_1 \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right) \Big|_{\Delta} = \rho_1 L \left(\frac{d\Delta(t)}{dt} \right) \quad (29)$$

If the specific heat of the liquid is neglected then:

$$k_1 \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \right) \Big|_{\Delta} \cong - k_1 \frac{[T_w(t) - T_{sat}]}{\Delta(t)} \quad (30)$$

When equation (30) is substituted into equation (29), the resulting differential equation can be integrated over the following limits: at $t = 0$, $\Delta = \Delta_0$, and at $t = t_e$, $\Delta = 0$. The final equation is:

$$\Delta_0 = \sqrt{\frac{2k_1}{\rho_1 L} \int_0^{t_e} [T_w(t) - T_{sat}] dt} \quad (20)$$

In all subsequent references to equation (20), this value of the initial microlayer thickness will be referred to as Δ_1 since it is based on the liquid properties and the experimental surface temperature fluctuation.

The other method of calculating a microlayer thickness is based on calculation of the total heat flow to the surface from within the solid

Assume the heat flow in the solid can be described by one dimensional heat conduction equation, i.e., :

$$\frac{\partial T(y,t)}{\partial t} = \frac{k_s}{\rho_s C_p s} \frac{\partial^2 T(y,t)}{\partial y^2} \quad (31)$$

The boundary conditions are:

$$T(0,t) = T_w(t) \quad (32)$$

$$T(y,0) = T_o(y) \quad (33)$$

$$T(y_b,t) = T(y_b,0) \quad (34)$$

Equation (32) is the experimental wall temperature fluctuation, equation (33) is the initial temperature distribution in the solid at the time of nucleation, and equation (34) specifies that the temperature at some depth within the solid does not change with time. Of these boundary conditions, the last two cannot be specified experimentally during boiling. First assume it is possible to specify all the boundary conditions. Then equation (31), subject to the three boundary conditions given as equations (32) through (34), can be solved and the temperature at any point in the solid at any time can be determined. The heat flux at the wall can also be determined from temperature solution. The following equation relates the wall heat flux to the evaporated microlayer thickness during the fluctuation.

$$\rho_1 L \Delta_s = \int_0^{te} - \left[k_s \left(\frac{\partial T(y,t)}{\partial y} \right) \Big|_{y=0} \right] dt \quad (35)$$

Whenever equation (35) is used to calculate a microlayer thickness the subscript "s" is used. If it is possible to specify the initial temperature distribution down to a point where the temperature is constant, it is possible to calculate Δ_s .

In the case where boiling initiates, it is possible to select an initial temperature distribution from a measured heat flux. The initial distribution would be:

$$T(y,0) = T_w(0) - qy/k_s. \quad (36)$$

This equation also specifies the temperature at y_b . Once boiling begins, it is not possible to specify an initial temperature distribution unless the complete history of the surface from the first bubble onward is known. Of the infinite number of possible initial conditions two linear profiles are used. The first uses the average heat flux in equation (36) and the value Δ_s , which is calculated after solving the temperature problem, is just designated as Δ_s . The second solution is obtained by changing q in equation (36) until the temperature, at some time after the microlayer has evaporated, matches the experimental temperature at that time. This value of q is designated as q_r ; the value of Δ_s obtained from equation (35) is designated as Δ_s^* .

Table V summarizes the analysis of many of the toluene and ethyl alcohol temperature traces. The microlayer thicknesses Δ_1 , Δ_s and Δ_s^* have been calculated by a computer program which is shown in Appendix E. The method of solving the one dimensional transient heat conduction equation is a simplification of a method described in Appendix D. A sample set of results is shown in Appendix G.

In this table, the notation is slightly different from the first three tables. The final number, added to the original notation designates the temperature trace. The number "1" represents the fluctuation of the center channel which triggered the flash. The number "2" is the

Table V. Estimation of the Microlayer Thickness Evaporated from the Temperature Traces

<u>FOR TOLUENE</u>					
Notation	Δl cm x 10 ⁶	Δs cm x 10 ⁶	q cal/cm ² -sec	Δs^* cm x 10 ⁶	q_r cal/cm ² -sec
14-3-23-1	647	123	1.09	113	1.075
27-1	672	129	1.09	95	0.762
14-4-1-1	515	87	.82	100	0.950
2-1	582	150	.82	121	0.700
19-1	506	123	.82	99	0.700
24-1	479	116	.77	89	0.575
29-1	529	129	.77	107	0.638
30-1	448	92	.77	99	0.825
32-1	525	130	.77	140	0.825
39-1	523	128	.77	110	0.638
14-5-26-1	397	64	.64	87	0.850
26-2	1112	82	.64	39	0.284
29-1	442		.64	120	1.100
29-2	1256	167	.64	166	0.639
29-3	524	119	.64	140	0.725
29-4	1118			290	0.725
30-1	408		.64	124	1.600
30-2	1143		.64	288	0.350
30-3	413	54	.64	32	0.936
33-1	458	76	.64	102	0.850
33-2	1287	171	.64	166	0.618
14-6-9-1	505	161	.87	68	0.288
11-1	501	125	.87	97	0.600
21-3	410	140	.76	121	0.600
21-4	1020	166	.76	233	1.084
21-5	400	104	.76	76	0.475
26-1	555		.76	85	1.100
26-2	1210	222	.76	250	0.979
27-1	939	110	.76	116	0.795
27-3	626		.76	101	1.100
27-4	1266			325	1.178
27-5	495	75	.76	84	0.850
32-1	579	61	.76	40	0.475
<u>FOR ETHYL ALCOHOL</u>					
14-7-1-1	679	170	1.13	59	.25
22-1	830	285	1.11	142	.32
27-1	615	212	1.11	90	.19
27-2	1027*	233*	1.11	170*	.69
28-1	649	261	1.11	170	.49
30-1	631	339	1.11	163	.28
14-9-9-1	321		1.17	162	2.00
9-2	1430*	743*	1.17	536*	.55
23-2	436	410	1.37	258	.36
36-1	446	272	1.23	139	.29
9-9-3-13-1	514	406	1.2	118	.10
18-1	804	432	1.2	233	.33
28-1	870	392	1.2	291	.65
28-2	809*	451*	1.2	212*	.30
36-1	750	393	1.2	324	.73
9-7-8-1	538	315	1.2	145	.29

*No evidence of complete vaporization

fluctuation of the side channel corresponding to number "1". In like manner "3" and "4" are companion traces which are shown on the negatives of the temperature traces but have no corresponding boiling pictures. The odd number always designate fluctuations of the center resistor.

A comparison of Δ_1 with the Δ_s 's shows that Δ_1 is always higher. The assumption that a linear profile in the solid represents the actual situation partially explains the difference. The physical size of the temperature sensor can also have an effect when the fluctuations are very sharp. If the parts of the sensor are exposed to different conditions, the resistor indicates only an average. Figure (33) shows an assumed fluctuation for two parts of the element. The dotted line is the average value.

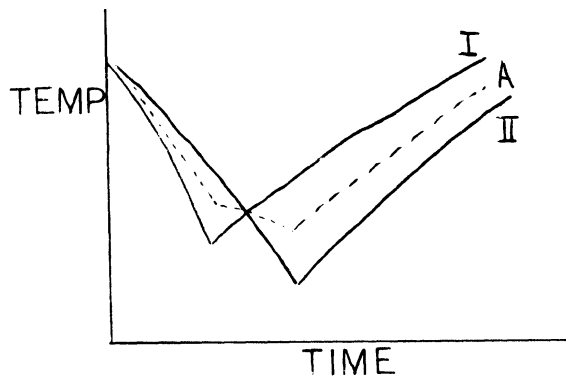


Figure (33)

Effect of the Sensor Size on the Measurement of Temperature Fluctuations

It can be seen that the averaging not only broadens the curve but also raises the minimum. If the minimum is raised, then the gradient in the solid, evaluated at the wall is underestimated because of the reduced driving force for heat flow in the solid. Furthermore, $(T_w(t) - T_{sat})$ is overestimated. It can also be seen that if the heat removed from the wall is too small, the wall will recover faster. This can partially explain the low values of Δ_s^* . This effect can also explain the difference between Δ_s and Δ_1 .

Since Δ_1 appears to overestimate the evaporated microlayer thickness and Δ_s underestimates the thickness, the actual evaporated microlayer thickness should be between Δ_1 and Δ_s .

VII. THEORETICAL MICROLAYER THICKNESS

1. Introduction

The theoretical analysis of the microlayer thickness is based on the following mechanism of bubble growth in saturated boiling. Nucleation of a bubble on the surface is followed by rapid growth of the bubble both across the surface and up into the liquid. As the bubble travels across the surface, a thin film, called the microlayer, is left behind. The vaporization of this layer plus vaporization at the remaining bubble surface facilitates growth. As the microlayer evaporates it may vanish altogether in a particular region under the bubble.

This physical model of the bubble growth mechanism is based on a number of previous investigations. Moore and Mesler (34) postulated the existence of the microlayer to explain some experimentally observed temperature traces. Sharp (45) and Torikai (47) observed a microlayer under a bubble. Hence, in the classical picture of a bubble growing on the surface, as figure (11A) shows, the base contact radius $R_b(t)$ must be interpreted as indicating the maximum extent of the microlayer, not as a dry region.

The following theoretical analysis evaluates the microlayer thickness from experimental growth rate data and then proceeds to show that the vaporization rates from such a microlayer, as interpreted by wall temperature measurements, are consistent with the observed bubble growth rates and temperature traces.

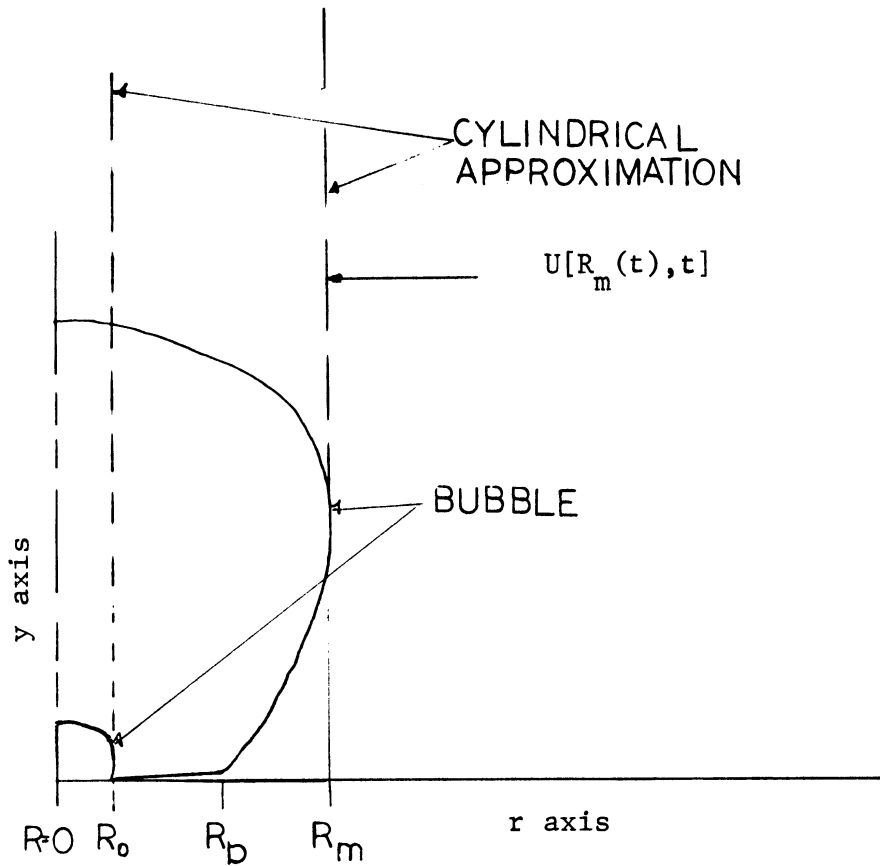


Figure (34) Mathematical Boundary Layer Model

2. Assumptions

Figure (34) shows the hydrodynamic model which is assumed to govern the formation of the microlayer. It is based on the following assumptions:

(1) The actual bubble growth on a solid surface can be analyzed in cylindrical coordinates by substituting a cylindrical tube of vapor for the bubble at all points above the height, H_c (see Figure (11A)), where the bubble radius is a maximum. (2) Only radial axisymmetrical flow of liquid exists. (3) An incompressible one-fluid model can be substituted for the actual two-phase model for studying development of the viscous boundary layer constituting the microlayer. The position of the vapor-liquid interface is obtained by following

the motion of a fluid particle. (4) The boundary layer approximation is valid. (5) Initially, the fluid is at rest and the vapor cavity has a radius R_0 . Subsequently, the free stream velocity imposed on the boundary layer is governed by the growth of the maximum radius $R_m(t)$.

3. Mathematical Formulation

The formulation is in terms of the continuity equation and the unsteady boundary layer equation for axisymmetrical flow. These equations are 11.3 and 11.1 in Schlichting's book on "Boundary Layer Theory" (43) and are shown as equations (37) and (38).

$$\frac{\partial u}{\partial t} + u \frac{\partial u}{\partial r} + v \frac{\partial u}{\partial y} = - \frac{1}{\rho} \frac{\partial p}{\partial r} + \nu \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial y^2} \quad (37)$$

$$\frac{\partial (ur)}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial (vr)}{\partial y} = 0 \quad (38)$$

These equations can be simplified for small values of time by ignoring, to a good approximation, the convective terms. Only the first perturbation will be considered here. The equations become:

$$\frac{\partial u(r,y,t)}{\partial t} - \nu \frac{\partial^2 u(r,y,t)}{\partial y^2} = \frac{\partial U(r,t)}{\partial t} \quad (39)$$

$$\frac{\partial [ru(r,y,t)]}{\partial r} = 0 \quad (40)$$

In these equations, $u(r,y,t)$ is the velocity of a particle in the fluid and $U(r,t)$ is the free stream velocity. Equation (39) and (40) are subject to the following initial and boundary conditions:

$$u(r, y, 0) = 0 \quad (41)$$

$$u(r, 0, t) = 0 \quad (42)$$

$$u(r, \infty, t) = U(r, t) \quad (43)$$

$$R(y, 0) = R_o \quad (44)$$

$$R(\infty, t) = R_m(t) = R_o + \eta\sqrt{t} \quad (45)$$

The first three equations specify the boundary and initial conditions on velocity. Initially, the fluid is at rest, for all times the velocity at the wall is zero, and the velocity at infinity is specified by the free stream velocity. Equations (44) and (45) describe the position of particles which serve to indicate the liquid-vapor interface in the one-fluid model.

The free stream velocity $U(r, t)$ is obtained from the fluid motion resulting from the expansion of the vapor cavity radius $R_m(t)$ which is initially at R_o . From the continuity equation (40) the free stream velocity is given by:

$$U(r, t) = \frac{R_m(t) \dot{R}_m(t)}{r} \quad (46)$$

Substituting equation (45) gives:

$$U(r, t) = \frac{\eta R_o}{2r\sqrt{t}} + \frac{\eta}{2r} \quad (47)$$

This equation, when substituted into equation (39) produces:

$$\frac{\partial u(r, y, t)}{\partial t} - \nu \frac{\partial^2 u(r, y, t)}{\partial y^2} = - \frac{R_o \eta}{4r(t)^{3/2}} \quad (48)$$

The boundary conditions on $u(r, y, t)$ are:

$$\begin{aligned} u(r, y, 0) &= 0 \\ u(r, 0, t) &= 0, \text{ and} \\ u(r, \infty, t) &= \frac{R_o \eta}{2r\sqrt{t}} + \frac{\eta}{2r} \end{aligned} \quad (49)$$

Equation (48) is solved by Laplace transforms after introducing the substitution,

$$u_1(r,y,t) = u(r,y,t) - \frac{R_o \eta}{2r\sqrt{t}} - \frac{\eta^2}{2r} \quad , \quad (50)$$

yielding the solution for $u(r,y,t)$ as:

$$u(r,y,t) = \frac{\eta^2}{2r} \left[1 - \operatorname{erfc} \left(\frac{y}{2\sqrt{vt}} \right) \right] + \frac{R_o \eta}{2r\sqrt{t}} \left[1 - \exp \left(\frac{-y^2}{4vt} \right) \right] \quad . \quad (51)$$

Equation (51) is a general equation which holds for every point in the fluid at anytime. If $R(y,t)$ is the radial position of a particle indicating the liquid vapor interface, then the velocity of this particle is given by substituting $R(y,t)$ for r in equation (51). Since $u[R(y,t), y,t] = \partial R(y,t)/\partial t$, equation (51) may be integrated directly after rearranging to yield the particle position $R(y,t)$ as a function of time. The resulting integral is:

$$\int_0^t \left[R(y,t) \frac{\partial R(y,t)}{\partial t} \right] dt = \int_0^t \left\{ \frac{\eta^2}{2} \left[1 - \operatorname{erfc} \left(\frac{y}{2\sqrt{vt}} \right) \right] + \frac{R_o \eta}{2r\sqrt{t}} \left[1 - \exp \left(\frac{-y^2}{4vt} \right) \right] \right\} dt \quad (52)$$

The right-hand side of equation (52) can be integrated by Laplace Transforms (see for example Roberts and Kaufman (39)). The final result is:

$$\begin{aligned} R^2(y,t) - R_o^2 &= \eta^2 t \left[1 - \left(1 + \frac{y^2}{2vt} \right) \operatorname{erfc} \left(\frac{y}{2\sqrt{vt}} \right) + \frac{y}{\sqrt{\pi vt}} \exp \left(\frac{-y^2}{4vt} \right) \right] \\ &+ R_o \eta \sqrt{t} \left[1 - \exp \left(\frac{-y^2}{4vt} \right) + \frac{y\sqrt{\pi}}{2\sqrt{vt}} \operatorname{erfc} \left(\frac{y}{2\sqrt{vt}} \right) \right] \quad (53) \end{aligned}$$

Based on the one-fluid model, the value of y which satisfies equation (53) at $R = R(y,t)$ is the definition of $\Delta(R,t)$. The one-fluid model imposes a restriction on the flow in the microlayer which is not realistic. In the physical case, once the interface passes above any point R , the shear stresses imposed by fluid flow must be replaced by normal forces since the liquid-vapor interface can impart only very small shear stresses. Therefore, it is assumed that once the interface passes, the flow in the microlayer can be neglected.

It is not possible to solve equations (53) explicitly for $\Delta(R_p(t),t)$. This would be the microlayer thickness at the radial point R when the base contact radius passes over the point. An approximate, linear solution, is obtained by an indirect method. First, all the terms of order y^2 or greater are neglected in equation (53). This makes it possible to obtain an expression for $\Delta(R,t)$ in terms of the radial position, time, and R_o . Then R_o is neglected and the equation for $\Delta(R,t)$ is evaluated at $R_m(t)$. It can then be shown by substituting the final equation back into equation (53), exactly what the above approximations infer.

Neglecting all the terms of order y^2 or greater in equation (53) results in:

$$\Delta(R,t) = \frac{(R^2 - R_o^2) \sqrt{\pi \nu}}{2\eta^2 \sqrt{t} + \pi R_o \eta} \quad (54)$$

The values of R much greater than R_o , the terms containing R_o can be neglected. The equation becomes:

$$\Delta(R,t) = \frac{R^2 \sqrt{\pi \nu}}{2\eta^2 \sqrt{t}} \quad (55)$$

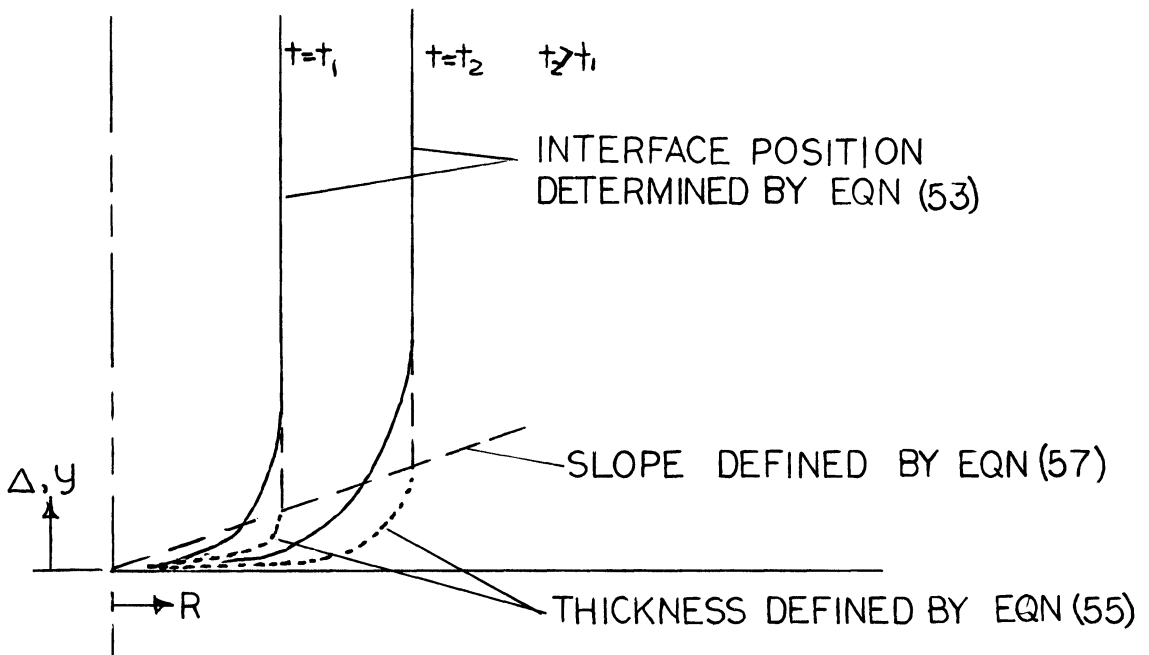
The thickness at $R_m(t)$ based on the first term approximation for $\Delta(R,t)$ is:

$$\Delta[R_m(t),t] = R_m(t) \frac{\sqrt{\pi\nu}}{2\eta} \tag{56}$$

A comparison of equation (56) with the exact equation is made by expressing $R_m(t)$ as $\eta\sqrt{t}$ in equation (56). The resulting equation can be expressed as: $\Delta[R_m(t),t] / 2\sqrt{\nu t} = \sqrt{\pi}/4$. When this equation is substituted into equation (53), neglecting the R_o part, all the non-linear terms can be evaluated and the equation becomes: $R = .81 R_m(t)$. Based on the experimental equations for $R_b(t)$ and $R_m(t)$, the average amount $R_b(t)$ lags behind $R_m(t)$ is $.80 R_m(t)$. Thus, in an approximate manner, an expression which takes into account the slower motion of $R_b(t)$ has been obtained. The equation for the thickness of the liquid film left behind at a radial point R , where $R < R_b(t)$ is therefore:

$$\Delta(R) = R\sqrt{\pi\nu}/2\eta \tag{57}$$

The following diagram summarizes the results of this analysis:



Film Thickness Approximations

Figure (35)

The above model considers shear stress to control the flow in the microlayer up to the time when the bubble base passes the point. After this time flow is neglected because of the inability of a liquid-vapor interface to impart shear forces. The results of this analysis will now be compared with experimental results.

4. Comparison with Experimental Results

Based on equation (57) it is possible to compare the microlayer thickness, measured by the temperature trace, to the theoretical microlayer thickness. The average experimental microlayer thickness is based on Table V, shown on page (83). For the center resistor, the average radial distance from the point of nucleation has been determined by consideration of the resistor geometry. The resistor bars of the temperature sensor are spaced at .011 and .032 cm. from the point of nucleation. The average value, which will be used to calculate the experimental microlayer thickness, is $R = .021$ cm. The values of n and $R_{b \text{ max}}$, which are needed in order to obtain the slope of equation (57), are based on the experimental data summarized by figures (27) through (32). The comparison of experimental and theoretical results are shown in Table IV. The data of Cooper and Lloyd (Run #1) are also shown. In their data, a value of $n = 9.5$ and $R_{b \text{ max}} = 1.00$ cm. appears to fit their sketches of bubble size as a function of time.

TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF EXPERIMENTAL AND THEORETICAL FILM THICKNESS MEASUREMENTS

Fluid	Experimental Notation	Radial Portion of Temperature Sensor From Point of Nucleation		Average Experimental Microlayer Thickness from Temperature Traces			Theoretical Microlayer Thickness
		R	$R/R_{b \text{ max}}$	Δ_1	Δ_s	η	
	(Run #)	cm		$\text{cm} \times 10^6$	$\text{cm} \times 10^6$		$\text{cm} \times 10^6$
Toluene	14-3,14-4	.021	.18	542	120	2.6	450
Toluene	14-5	.021	.10	436	78	4.3	250
	14-5	.0165	.80	1183	140	4.3	2000
Ethyl Alcohol	14-7,14-9 9-3,9-7	.020	.14	627	338	2.3	570
Toluene Cooper & Lloyd	Run #1	.038 .190 .340	.038 .190 .340	575 1065 1990	340 1020 1620	9.5 9.5 9.5	236 1180 2100

There are several ways of checking for agreement between the theoretical and experimental results. At the same radial distance from the point of nucleation, the theory agrees with the theoretical results over a three fold change in η . Since the kinematic viscosity of ethyl alcohol is about 50% higher than toluene, the microlayer should be thicker for ethyl alcohol films when the bubble grows at the same rate. Within the Δ_1 's and Δ_s 's, the results show this trend.

In this investigation, some measurements of the microlayer have been computed at values of R very close to the maximum extent of the bubble base contact radius $R_{b \text{ max}}$. It is only at this point where the experimental measurements, which are based on temperature fluctuations, differ from the theory. The use of the linear expression for the microlayer thickness as a function of radius could be inaccurate at this point. As Figure (19) indicates, the temperature at this radial point is 45°C . above the saturation temperature. Since the analysis of the temperature traces neglects liquid superheat, an error of 25% in the experimental results is possible.

The results of Sharp (45) have shown that at low superheats, only a small amount of the film vaporizes completely. At low fluxes, most of the vaporization occurs in the central region. It is in this region that the theory agrees with the experimentally determined film thickness.

5. Microlayer Vaporization

a. Introduction

In the previous section, ignoring vaporization, an expression has been derived for the microlayer thickness. In the present analysis, when vaporization is allowed, the microlayer thickness, defined by equation (57), is an initial condition. The evaporating microlayer thickness, $\Delta_e(R,t)$, is a boundary condition on the heat transfer problem. The previous section showed that from temperature measurements, the microlayer thickness agrees with the theory; in this section, the theory is used to show that starting with the microlayer thickness and known experimental bubble growth parameters, it is possible to approximate the observed fluctuations. Based on these results, it is then possible to extend the results to show the influence of microlayer vaporization on boiling heat transfer at low fluxes.

b. Assumptions

1. The liquid thermal inertia in the microlayer can be neglected.
2. Heat transfer in the solid is governed by the two dimensional axisymmetric radial heat conduction equation.
3. The surface is insulated after the microlayer has evaporated.
4. The maximum extent of the microlayer is $R_b(t)$.
5. In the region not covered by the microlayer, the heat transfer rate can be described using a constant heat transfer coefficient at the surface.
6. No flow in the microlayer is allowed.
7. Bubble growth begins whenever the temperature of the surface at the point of nucleation exceeds a specified value.

c. Mathematical Formulation

The radial axisymmetric heat conduction equation in the solid is:

$$\rho_s C_{p_s} \frac{\partial T(r,y,t)}{\partial t} = k_s \left[\frac{\partial^2 T(r,y,t)}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial T(r,y,t)}{\partial r} + \frac{\partial^2 T(r,y,t)}{\partial y^2} \right] \quad (58)$$

The initial and boundary conditions are:

$$k_s \frac{\partial T(r,y,t)}{\partial y} \Big|_{y=0} = 0 \quad \text{Whenever } \Delta_e(r,t) = 0 \text{ and } r < R_b(t) \quad (59)$$

$$k_s \frac{\partial T(r,y,t)}{\partial y} \Big|_{y=0} = k_s \frac{[T(r,0,t) - T_{\text{sat}}]}{\Delta_e(r,t)} \quad \text{Whenever } \Delta_e(r,t) > 0 \text{ and } r < R_b(t). \quad (60)$$

$$k_s \frac{\partial T(r,y,t)}{\partial y} \Big|_{y=0} = h_w [T(r,0,t) - T_b] \quad \text{Whenever } r > R_b(t) \quad (61)$$

$$k_s \frac{\partial T(r,y,t)}{\partial y} \Big|_{y=0} = \rho_1 L \frac{d \Delta_e(r,t)}{dt} \quad \text{Whenever } \Delta_e(r,t) > 0 \text{ and } r < R_b(t) \quad (62)$$

$$R_b(t) = \eta \sqrt{t} (1 - t/t_d) \quad (63)$$

$$\Delta_e[r, t^{-1}(R_b)] = r \sqrt{\pi \nu} / 2 \eta \quad \text{Whenever } t \leq t_d/3 \quad (64)$$

$$\frac{\partial T(r,y,t)}{\partial r} \Big|_{r=0} = 0 \quad (65)$$

$$\frac{\partial T(r,y,t)}{\partial r} \Big|_{r=r_{\text{max}}} = 0, \text{ where } r_{\text{max}} \gg R_{b \text{ max}} \quad (66)$$

$$T(r, y_b, t) = T_{\text{base}} \quad (67)$$

$$T(r, y, 0) = T(r, y, t_n) \text{ , Whenever } t_n > t_d \text{ and } T(0, 0, t_n) \geq T_n \quad (68)$$

The first three boundary conditions describe the rate of heat transfer from the top surface. These conditions depend on whether the microlayer has evaporated completely and whether the bubble contact radius $R_b(t)$ still extends beyond the radial point. The rate of microlayer vaporization can be related to the thermal gradient in the solid at the surface as equation (62) shows. Equation (63) is the experimentally determined equation for $R_b(t)$. The boundary condition described by equation (64) is the initial film thickness which is formed at the time $R_b(t)$ passes r . Thus, $t^{-1}(R_b)$ is the inversion of equation (63) for $R_b(t)$. Equations (65) and (66) give the boundary conditions governing the radial flow of heat. The temperature at the base of the plate is a constant as equation (67) specifies. The final boundary condition is the initial temperature distribution, which is specified only by the initial condition for the start of bubble growth.

One of the assumptions is that a bubble nucleates whenever the temperature at the point of nucleation exceeds a specified temperature T_n . The variable t_n is the first time after departure, t_d , where this condition is satisfied. It is still necessary to specify an initial temperature before the first bubble nucleates. The actual choice depends on the method of solution. In this case, a finite-difference technique is used on the digital computer. It is therefore important to specify any known temperatures. Experimentally, a temperature outside $R_b(t)$ is

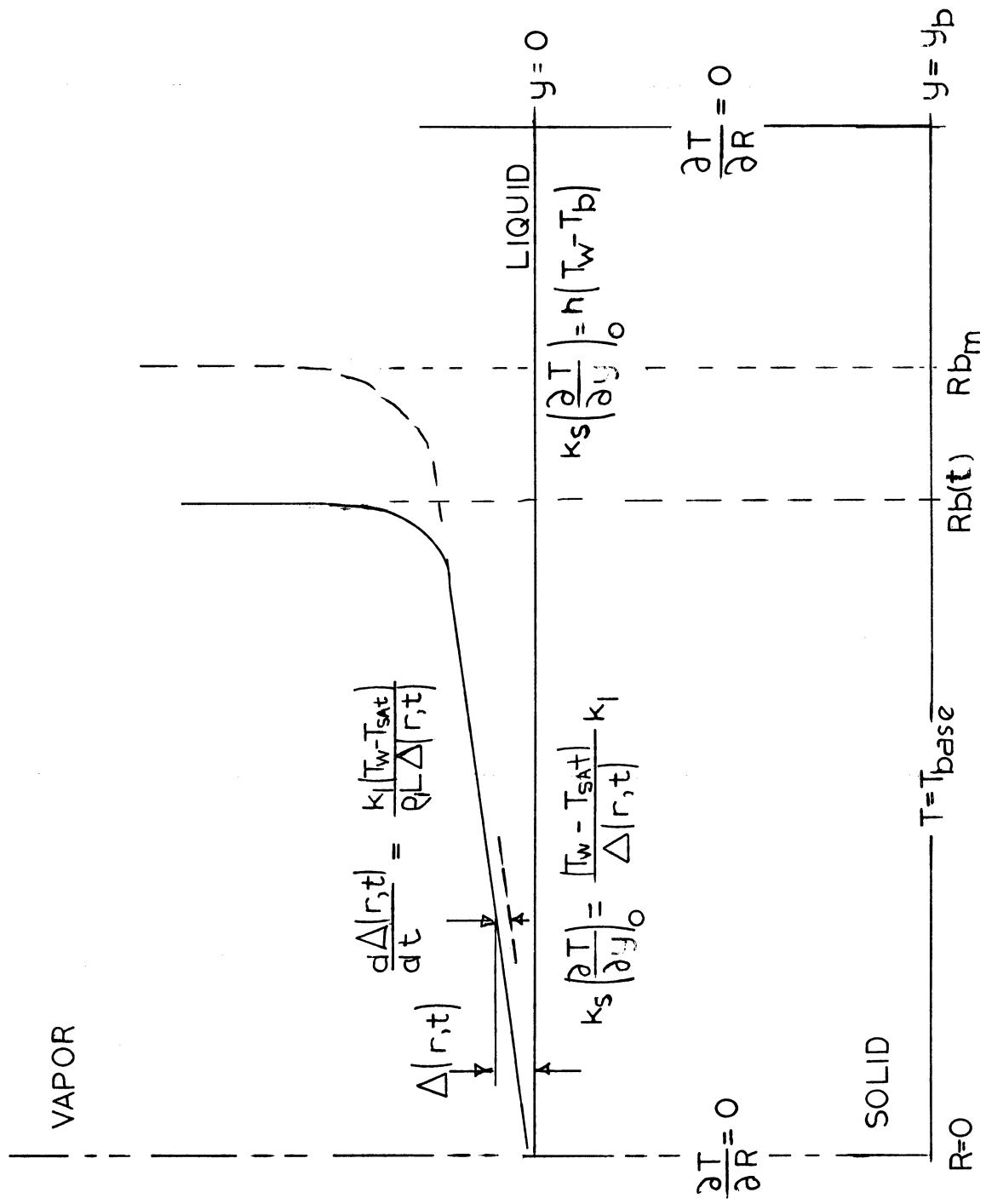


Figure 36 Heat Transfer Model Governed by the Liquid Film

known. Since the base temperature is also known or can be specified from a known average heat flux, the initial condition which is used is that of a uniform surface temperature equal to temperature of the outer resistor. At any intermediate point in the solid, linear interpolation between the base temperature and the outer surface temperature is used. Figure (35) summarizes the boundary conditions governing heat transfer and vaporization.

d. Dimensional Analysis

The equations governing heat transfer in the solid can be made dimensionless by defining the following variables: $\theta = (T - T_{sat}) / (T_n - T_{sat})$, $z = y / y_b$, $\tau = t / t_m = 3t / t_d$, $x = r / R_{b \max}$, and $\delta[x, \tau^{-1}(x_b)] = \Delta[r, t^{-1}(R_b)] / \Delta_o$ where $\Delta_o = \Delta[R_{b \max}, t^{-1}(R_{b \max})]$.

The equation governing heat transfer in the solid becomes:

$$\left(\frac{\rho_s C p_s}{k_s} \right) \left(\frac{9\eta^2}{4} \right) \frac{\partial \theta(x, z, \tau)}{\partial \tau} = \frac{R_{b \max}^2}{y_b^2} \frac{\partial^2 \theta(x, z, \tau)}{\partial z^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \theta(x, z, \tau)}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{x} \frac{\partial \theta(x, z, \tau)}{\partial x} \quad (69)$$

The initial and boundary conditions become:

$$\left. \frac{\partial \theta(x, z, \tau)}{\partial z} \right|_{z=0} = 0 \quad \text{Whenever } \delta(x, \tau) = 0 \text{ and } x < x_b(\tau) \quad (70)$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial \theta(x, z, \tau)}{\partial z} \right|_{z=0} = - \left(\frac{k_l y_b}{k_s \Delta_o} \right) \frac{\theta(x, 0, \tau)}{\delta(x, \tau)} \quad \text{Whenever } \begin{cases} \delta(x, \tau) > 0 \\ x < x_b(\tau) \end{cases} \quad (71)$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial \theta(x, z, \tau)}{\partial z} \right|_{z=0} = \frac{h_w \Delta T}{k_s} \eta \left[\theta(x, 0, \tau) - \theta_b \right] \text{ Whenever } x > x_b(\tau) \quad (72)$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial \theta(x, z, \tau)}{\partial z} \right|_{z=0} = \left(\frac{k_1 y_b}{k_s \Delta_o} \right) \left(\frac{9 \rho_1 v_1 L}{\pi k_1 \Delta T_n} \right) \frac{d\delta(x, \tau)}{dt} \text{ Whenever } \delta(x, \tau) > 0 \text{ and } x < x_b(\tau) \quad (73)$$

$$x_b(\tau) = \frac{3}{2} \sqrt{\tau} (1 - \tau/3) \quad (74)$$

$$\delta_e [x, \tau^{-1}(x_b)] = x \quad (75)$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial T(x, z, \tau)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=0} = 0 \quad (76)$$

$$\left. \frac{\partial T(x, z, \tau)}{\partial x} \right|_{x=x_{\max}} = 0 \quad \text{Where } x_{\max} \gg \frac{1}{\underline{\quad}} \quad (77)$$

$$\theta(x, -1, \tau) = \theta_{\text{base}} = (T_{\text{base}} - T_{\text{sat}}) / (T_n - T_{\text{sat}}) \quad (78)$$

$$\theta(x, z, 0) = \theta(x, z, \tau_n), \text{ Whenever } \tau_n > 3 \text{ and } \theta(0, 0, \tau_n) > 1 \quad (79)$$

The order in the list of boundary conditions is identical to the original dimensional set of equations, thus equation (70) is the dimensionless form of equation (59), etc.

There are two relationships that are implied by realizing that $x[1, t^{-1}(1)] = 1$ and $\delta_e(1, 1) = 1$. They are: $R_b \max \eta / \sqrt{t_m} = 3/2$, and $\Delta_o = \sqrt{\pi v_1 t_m} / 3$. With these relationships it is possible to eliminate Δ_o and t_m

from all equations. In equations (71) and (73), the Δ_o is actually specified when $R_{b \text{ max}}$ is set. The dimensionless group in equation (80) can be written as:

$$\left(\frac{k_1 y_b}{k_s \Delta_o} \right) = \left(\frac{k_1 y_b}{k_s R_{b \text{ max}}} \right) \left(\frac{3\eta}{\sqrt{\pi v_1}} \right) \quad (80)$$

Equation (69), subject to the boundary conditions described by equations (70) through (80), is solved by finite-difference techniques on a digital computer. The difference equations and the method of solving the equations are shown in Appendix D; the actual program, written in MAD, is shown in Appendix F.

e. Comparison of Temperature Traces with Experimental Traces

Two of the three cases described in the experimental results section have been programmed into the computer. These are the boiling of ethyl alcohol at a pressure of 500 mm of Hg and a heat flux of 1.2 cal/cm²-sec, and boiling of toluene at a pressure of 500 mm of Hg and a flux of .75 mm of Hg.

Because of the size of the temperature sensors in relation to the grid size, which has been used in the computer solution, the central sensor averaged the heat flux from zero to 1.6 grid spaces for both cases studied. An area average has been used to obtain the average surface temperature for the computer results. For the zero, first and second grid space the area average is:

$$\bar{T} = \frac{T_o A_o + T_1 A_1 + T_2 A_2}{A_o + A_1 + A_2} \quad (81)$$

TABLE VII

COMPARISON OF THE THEORETICAL RESISTOR AVERAGED TEMPERATURE
WITH AN EXPERIMENTAL TEMPERATURE CURVE FOR ETHYL ALCOHOL

t	T_o	T_1	T_2	\bar{T}	Experimental
msec	Temperature at Grid Space #0	Temperature at Grid Space #1	Temperature at Grid Space #2	Area Averaged Temperature	Curve 9-1-13
0	20	18.8	20.4	19.8	18.6
1	11.3	17.5	20.0	17.4	11.6
2	.01	11.4	16.3	10.2	8.4
3	5.2	8.3	14.0	8.9	5.9
4	8.9	6.6	12.4	7.6	4.1
5	10.0	5.5	11.3	6.7	2.7
6	12.4	4.6	10.7	6.1	2.0
7	13.5	3.9	9.9	5.7	1.6
8	14.3	3.3	9.3	5.2	1.3
9	14.8	2.7	8.9	4.6	1.1
10	15.2	2.1	8.4	4.2	1.0
11	15.5	1.5	8.1	3.7	1.6
12	15.8	.4	7.3	2.9	2.0
13	15.9	.8	7.0	3.1	
14	16.1	4.0	6.7	5.5	
15	16.3	6.3	6.4	7.3	3.4
16	16.6	8.1	6.1	8.7	
17	16.8	9.6	5.9	9.9	
18	17.1	10.7	5.9	10.7	
19	17.3	11.6	7.6	11.7	
20	17.6	12.3	9.4	12.5	
21(departure)	17.6	12.5	9.4	12.7	

TABLE VIII

COMPARISON OF THE THEORETICAL AVERAGED TEMPERATURE AT THE
CENTER RESISTOR WITH AN EXPERIMENTAL TEMPERATURE-TIME CURVE
AT THE CENTER RESISTOR FOR TOLUENE

t	T_o	T_1	T_2	\bar{T}	T_{exp} 14-6-21-3
0	30.8	24.8	13.1	23.8	26.0
1	25.4	17.8	13.2	18.0	11.2
2	26.0	9.6	12.6	11.5	12.1
3	26.7	13.1	12.1	14.3	
4	27.2	15.6	11.6	16.2	17.4
5	27.7	17.6	11.0	18.5	
6	28.2	19.1	10.3	19.0	22.0
7	28.4	20.2	9.4	19.6	
8	28.8	21.2	8.3	20.3	
9	29.0	22.0	6.7	20.6	
10	29.2	22.6	4.8	20.8	
11	29.4	23.2	6.6	21.6	
12(departure)	29.6	23.6	9.3	22.4	
14	29.3	24.1	14.3	23.4	
16	29.0	24.2	15.3	23.5	

The area of the zero grid space is $\pi(\Delta R)^2/4$, the area of the first is $2\pi(\Delta R)^2$, and the area used for the second grid space is $2\pi(1.55)(.1)(\Delta R)^2$ (this being the area between 1.5 and 1.6 grid spaces). Tables VII and VIII compare the values of T_0 , T_1 , T_2 , and \bar{T} with the experimental curves for ethyl alcohol and toluene respectively. Because of the large value of A_1 , the value of T_1 is a good approximation to the average temperature. A finer grid size would show the averaging of the temperature sensor discussed in the experimental results section. There is good agreement between \bar{T} and T_{exp} , when the assumptions which have been made are considered. For both cases shown in the tables the computer results are for the temperature traces resulting after several bubbles have nucleated from the surface. After this time there was almost no change from one bubble to the next.

6. Implications of the Film Theory

In addition to the comparison of temperature traces it is possible to compute the total volume of the microlayer evaporated. The thermal effects of bubble growth, nucleation and departure can also be discussed.

Starting with the initial uniform surface temperature, equal to the outer resistor temperature, it is possible to compute the total volume of the microlayer evaporated for successive bubbles. In addition, the dry spot area, and the waiting time, t_w , between bubble departure and the next nucleation, can be calculated. These results for ethyl alcohol and toluene are shown in Tables VIII and IX.

TABLE IX

BOILING OF ETHYL ALCOHOL P=500 mm of Hg, $q=1.2 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$

Bubble #	Nucleation Temperature ΔT_n °C	Departure Temperature ΔT_d °C	Dry Spot Radius R/R_b max	Center $\bar{\Delta}_e$ $\times 10^6$ cm	Center t_e msec	Evaporated Volume $\times 10^6$ cm ³	t_w msec
1	30°C	25.5	.23	590	7	20.4	0
2	26.5	21.8	.14	590	10	16.3	0
3	21.8	18.5	.14	590	15	15.2	23.0
4	20.0	17.6	.15	590	11	16.4	27.6
5	20.0	17.8	.15	590	11	16.4	30.7
6	20.0	17.8	.15	590	13.6	16.4	30.7
7	20.0	17.8	.15	590	14	16.4	31.2

TABLE X

BOILING OF TOLUENE P=500 mm of Hg, $q=.75 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$

Bubble #	Nucleation Temperature ΔT_n °C	Departure Temperature ΔT_d °C	Dry Spot Radius R/R_b max	Center $\bar{\Delta}_e$ $\times 10^6$ cm	Center t_e msec	Evaporated Volume $\times 10^6$ cm ³	t_w msec
1	37.5	38	.76	450	1.00	23.2	0
2	38	36.4	.40	450	1.05	18.7	0
3	36.4	31.5	.40	450	1.45	17.8	0
4	31.5	30.7	.40	450	1.51	17.1	0
5	30.7	29.6	.30	450	2	16.3	70
6	30.0	--	--	450	1.6	--	--

For the first few bubbles, the temperature recovery of the surface is very rapid and at departure the surface temperature at the point of nucleation has almost completely recovered to its initial value. After several bubbles the recovery is much slower and a finite waiting time between bubbles is observed. This is exactly what has been experimentally observed in this study.

Based on the total volume of liquid evaporated in the microlayer, it is possible to estimate the total contribution of microlayer vaporization to the volume of vapor in a departing bubble. For toluene, at departure, the bubble volumes are close to spheres and have a radius approximately equal to .165 cm. The total volume of vapor in the bubble is therefore $19 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^3$. Since the density at 500 mm of Hg at saturation is $.0020 \text{ gm/cm}^3$ and the latent heat of vaporization is 89 cal/gm, the total heat content in a departing bubble is $3.36 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cal}$. Based on the computer analysis the volume of liquid evaporated in the microlayer is: $16.3 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^3$. The mean density of the liquid is $.784 \text{ gm/cm}^3$, thus, the heat content from the microlayer is: $1.14 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cal}$. This says that for toluene, about 34% of the heat within the bubble comes from microlayer. The most uncertain variable in the entire calculation is the experimental departure volume.

The same calculation can be made for ethyl alcohol. For ethyl alcohol the departure radius is about .25 cm at 500 mm of Hg. The volume at departure is $36 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cm}^3$. The density and latent heat at saturation are: $.0010 \text{ gm/cm}^3$ and 208 cal/gm respectively. The heat content of a departing bubble is therefore $7.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cal}$. Based on

the computer analysis, the volume of liquid evaporated in the microlayer is $16.4 \times 10^{-6} \text{ cm}^3/\text{gm}$. The mean density of ethyl alcohol is $.739 \text{ gm/cm}^3$. Therefore the total heat content in a departing bubble arising from microlayer vaporization is $2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ cal}$. This means that for ethyl alcohol, boiling off glass, the total percentage of heat in a bubble resulting from microlayer vaporization is 33%.

The computer analysis also shows that the maximum extent of the dry spot area for these two cases is: toluene .40 of $R_{b \text{ max}}$ and ethyl alcohol .15 of $R_{b \text{ max}}$. This means that for these two cases very little of the total microlayer actually evaporates. Even so, it can be seen that the contribution of the microlayer to vapor formation is considerable. It is easy to see that if the whole microlayer vaporized, a very efficient boiling process would be the result.

The nucleation theories, based on the thermal layer recovery, usually assume a constant surface temperature. In addition it is assumed that a bubble will nucleate when the temperature at some point in the fluid exceeds a specified temperature level. The theories are inadequate to explain the nucleation characteristics observed in this investigation because of the large surface temperature fluctuations which were present. At the present time, the assumption that nucleation occurs when a given surface temperature level is reached seems to be the only justifiable nucleation criterion.

One of the assumptions in this theory is a constant heat transfer coefficient outside $R_b(t)$. The break in the temperature time curve can be explained in two ways. If the surface is completely insulated, a temperature fluctuation of a sensitive surface element could be caused simply by the change in heat transfer rates between the presence of vapor and then liquid on the surface. It appears that since the fluctuations are larger than those observed in the computer solution at departure (see Table VIII, column under T_0) there must be an increase in the heat transfer coefficient at departure. It is very difficult to analyze because the ΔT driving force is unknown. Since the glass has such a large radial thermal gradient it is quite possible that cool and then hot fluid moves across the surface at departure. This flow and temperature pattern is not understood at present. This makes it difficult to estimate the heat transfer induced by departure under a bubble.

The calculation for other surfaces was not attempted mainly because the microlayer formation is very dependent on bubble dynamics. The dynamics of other fluids on other surfaces could be quite different and such data is not presently available in the literature, in sufficient detail.

VIII. DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

1. Experimental Techniques

Three new concepts have been used in this investigation of boiling from a glass surface. First, the study utilized a single-site heater. This permitted an excellent view of the bubble base. The heater design was feasible because the low thermal conductivity of the glass plate which allowed negligible radial heat flow. Since one site was used, the heat flux setting was adjusted until one site predominated in activity. At high heat fluxes, even if all the bubbles emanated from a single site, it was impossible to discern individual bubbles.

The second feature, which was successful only in the last series of runs, was the use of both a top and side view. The side view permitted the observation of the important bubble parameters. The top view served to scale and position the bubble relative to the resistor pattern. Although this view was frequently obscured by departed bubbles, there were a sufficient number of pictures to locate the nucleation center at a point within the boundaries of the central temperature sensor.

Finally, the temperature traces have been used successfully to determine when nucleation occurred. An estimate of the response time can be obtained by assuming that when the bubble completely covers the temperature sensor, the sensor will indicate the bubble's presence. The response time can be found from $R = n\sqrt{t}$. With the outer limit of the sensor at $R = .031$ cm, and n set equal to 2.34 (the value for ethyl alcohol), the response time is found to be

.17 msec. This is equivalent to using a motion picture camera filming the process at a rate of almost 8000 frames/sec. Thus the error in the use of the temperature trace for determining the nucleation time is very small.

2. Bubble Growth Rates During Boiling on a Glass Surface

For both toluene and ethyl alcohol, the bubble growth rate radically increased as the pressure decreased. The decrease in pressure also resulted in a slight (about 3%) decrease in heat flux which was not significant. As yet, no published bubble growth theory predicts such an effect. These bubble growth theories proceed along the following lines. Consider a vapor bubble in the shape of a hemisphere on a surface which is completely surrounded by a uniformly superheated liquid. If the base is insulated and the effect of the wall drag can be neglected, this bubble will grow at the same rate as a sphere in a uniformly superheated liquid. This sphere problem has been solved for the case where heat transfer from the liquid controls growth. The solution predicts bubble growth rates which are too high when compared to actual data obtained on a metal surface. In order to bring the theory into better agreement with the experimental results, a correction for the thermal gradient existing above the boiling surface has been considered. This results in the necessary six-tenths reduction in the spherical solution. Thus the theories require a rather arbitrary coefficient to agree with the data.

Such a line of reasoning cannot explain the growth rates which are observed in this investigation. The thermal gradient certainly

exists and yet the results of the calculations show the bubble growing in some cases at a faster rate than the spherical bubble growth theory would predict. The only logical explanation is that the base of the hemisphere, which is assumed to be insulated so the spherical solution can be used, is, in fact, not insulated. A microlayer has been observed under a bubble but its contribution to bubble growth has not previously been estimated.

The analysis developed in this investigation, based on impulsive microlayer formation, has been shown to agree with the experimental temperature fluctuations under a bubble; and further the microlayer contribution to the rate of bubble growth has been shown to be significant. This analysis thus explains experimental growth rates which are higher than predicted by the spherical solutions.

3. Nature of Boiling from a Glass Surface

As many theories predict, it is very difficult to initiate boiling from a glass surface. The boiling of toluene was observed to start only at a small region covered by a flaky coating of Teflon*like material. Ethyl alcohol, boiling on the same surface, exhibited nucleation both from the Teflon-like material and other naturally occurring sites.

Once boiling began, toluene and ethyl alcohol exhibited completely different boiling characteristics. Toluene nucleated many bubbles in quick succession and then the site deactivated. The secondary bubbles in such processes were smaller than the first one.

*DuPont Tradename

Ethyl alcohol, on the other hand, showed a form of periodic boiling which existed for long periods of time. It was observed in this investigation that by lowering the pressure this regular boiling changed to the type of boiling toluene exhibited.

From the microlayer theory, developed in this investigation, it is possible to theoretically explain the boiling phenomena which were observed for both toluene and ethyl alcohol. Microlayer vaporization is the controlling factor. For toluene the microlayer vaporizes rapidly and the surface is dry and essentially insulated for long periods of time before departure. After the bubble departs, the surface is above the required nucleation temperature and secondary nucleation follows immediately. Thus a rapid string of bubbles followed by a long recovery time is the result. For ethyl alcohol, again based on the microlayer theory, the microlayer extracts a great deal of energy from the area around the point of nucleation and at departure the surface temperature is below the required nucleation temperature. A waiting time before the next nucleation allows both the surface and the superheated liquid layer a chance to recover. The decrease in pressure causes the regular boiling of ethyl alcohol to become irregular and the bubbles grow much more rapidly. The theory explains this phenomenon as due to the thinner microlayer which, as with toluene, gives the surface a chance to recover almost fully from the initial fluctuation before departure. Since the surface cannot sustain the required nucleation temperature for rapidly nucleating bubbles, the site deactivates after several bubbles. In this way microlayer vaporization controls nucleation.

In the theoretical solution, the contribution of microlayer vaporization for the regular boiling of ethyl alcohol is about 30% of the energy within a departing bubble. The other 70% comes from the superheated liquid surrounding the bubble. However, considering the entire heat transfer process in boiling, roughly 90% of the heat transfer occurs through the agitated boundary layer outside the region contacted by the bubble base. This figure of 90% can be arrived at in several ways. One of the easiest is to consider the ratio of the heater area to the area contacted by the bubble base. That area ratio is 11:1 in favor of the liquid agitation mechanism in the case of ethyl alcohol. To make the point clear, two processes are occurring. The first is heat transfer to an agitated boundary layer. The second is latent heat transport by means of the bubble (about 10% of the total). In the latent heat transport process, 30% is transferred by microlayer vaporization and 70% from the superheated liquid. Thus even though only 3% of the total heat transfer comes from the microlayer, it is the microlayer which controls the nucleation characteristics.

In summary, the microlayer thickness is an important variable which controls the boiling characteristics on a glass surface; the microlayer theory, which is based on experimentally determined bubble growth rate and the kinematic viscosity of the liquid explains the boiling characteristics of both ethyl alcohol and toluene on a glass plate.

IX. CONCLUSIONS

1. A theory of microlayer vaporization was developed during the course of this investigation which successfully explains the phenomena associated with the boiling of ethyl alcohol and toluene from a glass surface. The theory predicts the surface temperature fluctuations and the nucleation characteristics, which agree reasonably well with those experimentally observed. Furthermore, the theory explains why the bubble growth rates observed in this investigation exceed those expected from previously published growth theories.
2. The technique of utilizing a single nucleating site on a surface, coupled with thin film instrumentation is an excellent method for the study of the boiling process. For instance, the base contact radius of the growing bubble, which has been previously neglected and yet was found to be an important parameter, is easily observed.
3. The use of the microlayer theory in conjunction with experimentally observed base contact radii permits the calculation of the contribution of microlayer vaporization to bubble growth. This calculation has not previously been possible.
4. The processes occurring during microlayer vaporization has been found to be of prime importance in predicting the stability of nucleation from an active site on a glass surface.
5. Only about 10% of the total heat transfer during nucleate boiling at low heat fluxes occurs via latent heat transport, with the remainder

being due to bubble induced agitation of the boundary layer. Thirty percent of this latent heat transport, i.e. 3% of the total heat transfer, is due to microlayer vaporization. The remaining 70% of the latent heat transport is due to superheated liquid surrounding the bubble. However, small as the microlayer contribution to boiling heat transfer may be, it is the controlling mechanism for nucleation. In addition, since the boundary layer agitation is caused by nucleation, growth, and departure of bubbles, it can be stated that at least under the conditions used in this investigation, microlayer vaporization processes govern boiling heat transfer.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Future investigations in the study of boiling heat transfer should be directed toward:

1. Including microlayer vaporization in a bubble growth theory.
2. Theoretically analyzing the variation of the base contact radius as a function of time and the experimental conditions.
3. Determining the contribution of microlayer vaporization to boiling heat transfer on various surfaces as a function of heat flux, pressure, and degree of bulk liquid subcooling.

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APPENDIX A

Calibration of Surface Resistors

1. Resistance Measurement

The room temperature resistance of the square, vapor deposited resistors varies from $6K\Omega$ to $11K\Omega$. Since all the resistors on one substrate are deposited simultaneously, all have nominally the same value and the same temperature sensitivity.

A comparison technique is used to determine the resistance of the surface elements at any temperature. A constant current is applied to a surface element and then to a standard resistor. The voltage drop across each resistor is balanced against the output of a 10 turn potentiometer which provides a variable voltage. Ohm's law requires that:

$$R_e = R_s \frac{\Delta V_e}{\Delta V_s} \quad (A-1)$$

Equation (A-1) assumes the current through both the surface element and the standard resistor is constant. The current source has an internal resistance of $.9 \text{ Meg}\Omega$. The change in current between the two resistors can be related by the following equation:

$$\Delta i \approx \Delta R / .9M\Omega \quad (A-2)$$

The standard resistors have a resistance of $9480.\Omega$ and $9472.\Omega$. If the surface element has a resistance of $11,000\Omega$, then $\Delta i \approx 2000/900,000 = 1/450$. The constant current assumption results in a $.2\%$ error.

If the potentiometers are linear and if the input resistance of the null detector is much greater than the total potentiometer resistance, then the potentiometer settings relate the element resistance to the standard by the equation

$$R_e = R_s \left(\frac{S_e}{S_s} \right) \quad (A-3)$$

The first variable voltage sources used have a total potentiometer resistance of $100K\Omega$; the null detector, a Tektronix 502 oscilloscope, has an input resistance to ground of $1 \text{ Meg}\Omega$. It is necessary to correct for the current drain through the oscilloscope for this resistance ratio. Equation (A-3) corrected to account for this current drain, becomes:

$$R_e = R_s \left(\frac{R_n/R_v + S_s}{R_n/R_v + S_e} \right) \left(\frac{S_e}{S_s} \right) \quad (A-4)$$

The ratio of the null detector resistance (R_n) to the potentiometer resistance (R_v) is 10. Since the potentiometer setting (S) varies from 0 to 1, the correction to equation (A-3) is at most 10%. The potentiometer is linear to .25% so no correction for non-linearity is needed.

Throughout the course of this investigation, equations (A-1) and (A-4) are used. The assumptions behind the use of each equation have to be realized. When this is done, the results and the accuracy are the same.

2. The Temperature Coefficient of Resistivity

Theoretically, the change in resistance with temperature can be expressed by the equation:

$$\frac{\Delta R_e}{\Delta T} = R_e \beta t \quad (A-5)$$

This equation can be rearranged to obtain:

$$R_e = R_{e_0} [1 + \beta t (T_e - T_{e_0})] \quad (A-6)$$

Equation (A-5) can also be integrated exactly, which results in the following expression:

$$R_e = R_{e_0} \exp[\beta t (T_e - T_{e_0})] \quad (A-7)$$

If the exponential factor in equation (A-7) is expanded into an infinite series, the neglect of every term after the first order term simplifies the expression to equation (A-6). Both equations (A-6) and (A-7) have been used to correlate the resistance of the elements as a function of temperature. In every surface resistor the value of βt is very close to $8.6 \times 10^{-4} (\text{C}^\circ)^{-1}$. With this value of βt , the deviation from linearity of equation (A-7) between 30 and 100°C is almost undetectable. Equation (A-6) is used to correlate the total element resistance as a function of temperature.

The standardization process involves determining the resistance of the surface elements at various temperatures with the surface covered with liquid and with it dry. Figures (36) and (37) show the calibration of two of the resistors on surface #14. When the liquid is toluene, no difference between the wet and dry resistance determinations can be noted. Ethyl alcohol does show a lower resistance of the elements at every temperature. This is explained by the electrical conductivity of the liquid. Since the surface resistors are insulated from the fluid by silicon monoxide, any current leakage through the parallel liquid circuit must exist at the lead wires. All but the ends of the lead wires, i.e. the region where the leads are soldered to the surface, are covered with teflon tubing. Since the magnitude of the current drain is a function of the liquid temperature, the correction for current flow is corrected using the resistance of the liquid at the bulk liquid temperature. By rearranging the parallel resistance formula, the liquid resistance at T_b is:

$$R_1 (T_b) = \frac{R_e (T_b) R_w (T_b)}{R_e (T_b) - R_w (T_b)} \quad (\text{A-8})$$

The temperature of the surface during boiling is desired. The resistance observed is $R_w (T)$, where T is not known. The resistance of the surface

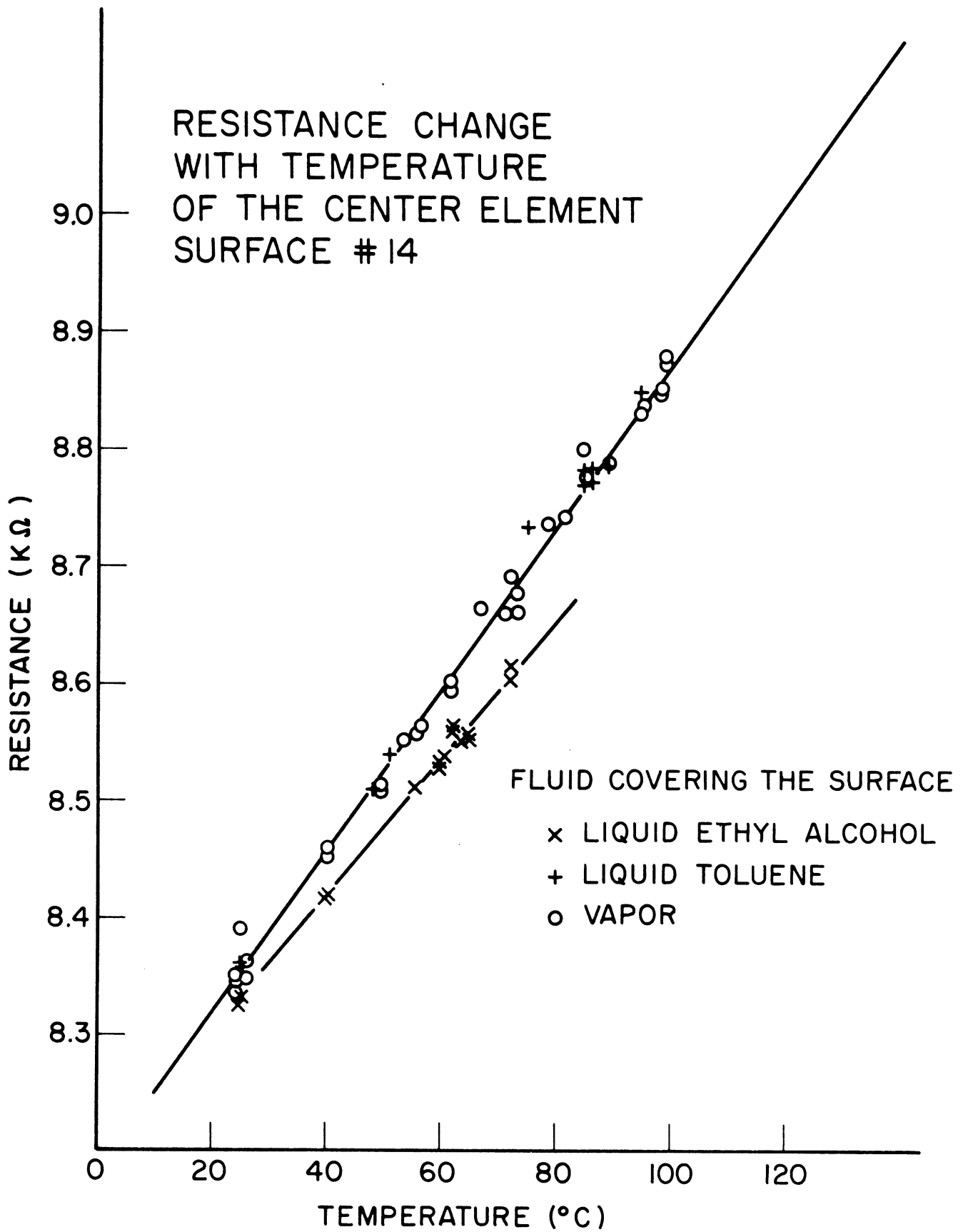


Figure 37 Calibration of Center Surface Resistor on Heater #14

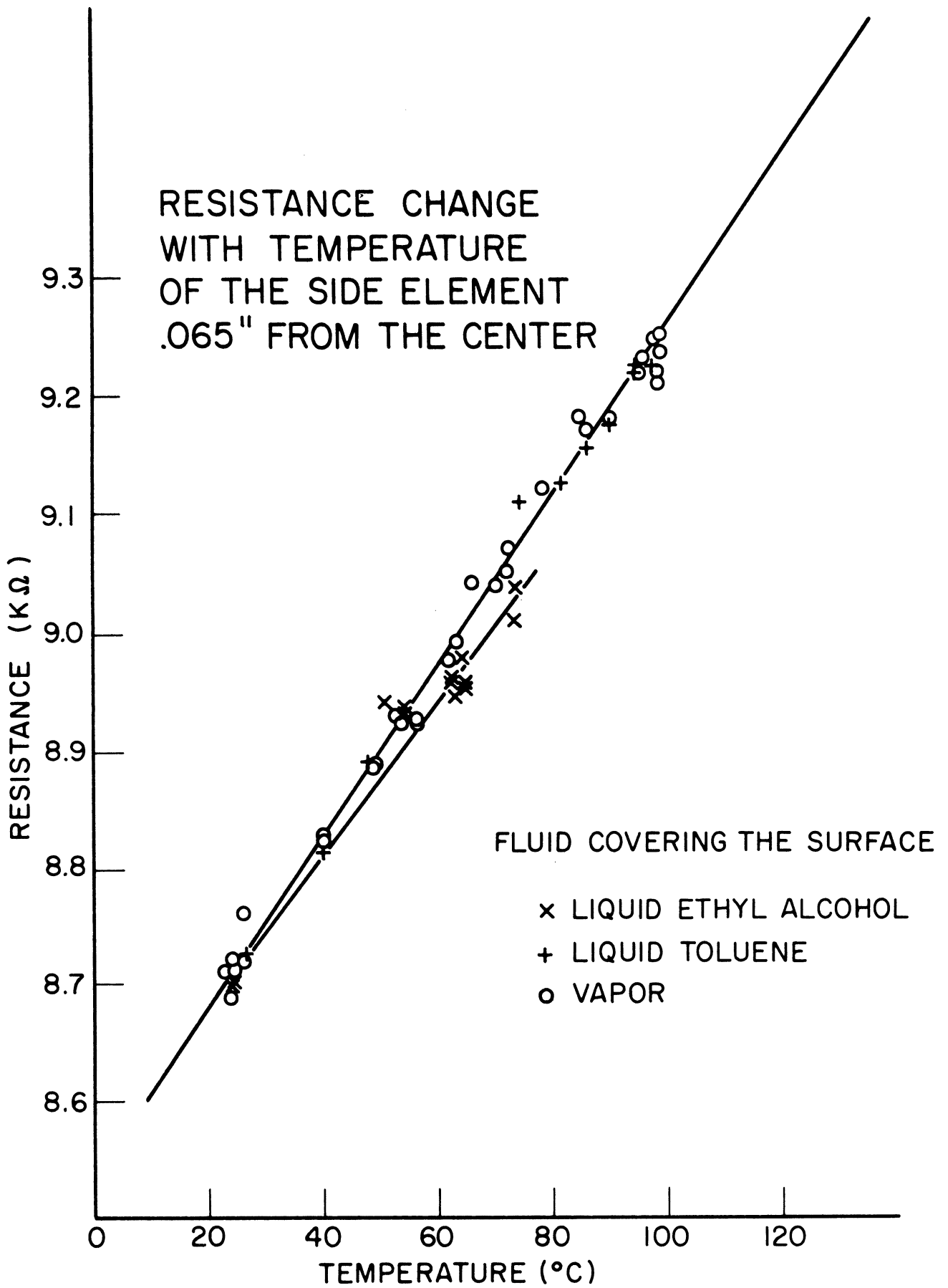


Figure 38 Calibration of Side Resistor (.165 cm away from center) on Heater #14

element, which takes into account liquid conductivity is:

$$Re(T) = \frac{Rw(T)}{1 - \frac{Rw(T)}{Rw(Tb)} \frac{Re(Tb) - Rw(Tb)}{Rw(Tb)}} \quad (A-9)$$

Since $Rw(T)$ is quite close to $Rw(Tb)$, this equation simplifies to:

$$Re(T) = \frac{Rw(T)}{1 - \frac{Re(Tb) - Rw(Tb)}{Rw(Tb)}} \quad (A-10)$$

Equation (A-10) is used to obtain T from a known resistance of the surface element and the fluid acting together.

APPENDIX B

Conversion of Voltage Levels Displayed on the Oscilloscope Screen to Temperatures

Figure (40) shows a typical photograph of the oscilloscope screen during boiling. The center resistor is always displayed on the top channel and one of the other temperature sensors is displayed on the bottom channel. The balance point, on the top channel between the voltage across the resistor and the voltage bucking it, is the top subdivided horizontal grid line. The bottom subdivided grid line is the balance point between the other surface resistor and its bucking voltage. The vertical oscilloscope amplification on each channel is one centimeter of deflection for each millivolt of imbalance. The oscilloscope sweep rate across the screen is 1 cm/5 msec.

The conversion of the null point to a reference temperature closely follows the standardization procedure described in Appendix A. The null voltage is converted to a resistance which is not corrected for any effects of liquid conduction. Before and after each run, the voltage drop across the element at the liquid bulk temperature is also recorded. This reading is also not corrected for liquid conduction. The temperature difference $(T_w - T_b)$ at the null point is determined from the slope of the resistance calibration curves, i.e.:

$$(T_w - T_b)_{\text{null}} = \frac{(R_{\text{null}} - R_b)}{(\beta t R_{\text{null}})} \quad (\text{B-1})$$

The temperature difference $(T_n - T_{\text{sat}})$ is obtained from knowledge of the difference between the liquid bulk temperature and the saturation temperature.

Any imbalance away from the null point, measured on the oscilloscope as a voltage, can be related to a temperature by the temperature coefficient of resistivity through the following equation



Figure 39 Photograph of an Oscilloscope Temperature Trace
for Ethyl Alcohol

$$\frac{\Delta T}{\Delta V} = \frac{\Delta T}{ie\Delta R} = \frac{1}{ie(\beta t) R_{null}} \quad (B-2)$$

In this equation ie is determined from the measured voltage drop across the standard resistor. If the units on $\Delta T/\Delta V$ are $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{mV}$, the temperature level is linearly related to the deflection.

In picture #3, heater #14, run #7, the voltage setting at the null point is 82.60 mV. The voltage drop across the standard 9480. Ω resistor is 86.06 mV. This means the null resistance by equation (A-1) is 9110.6 Ω . The resistance of the central resistor at a bulk liquid temperature 73 $^{\circ}\text{C}$, based on figure (36), is 9020 Ω . From the slope of the temperature-resistance curve shown in figure (36); $\beta t R_1 = 7\Omega/^{\circ}\text{C}$. The null temperature is 12.8 $^{\circ}\text{C}$ above the bulk liquid temperature. Therefore $(T_w - T_{sat}) = 13.8^{\circ}\text{C}$ for this picture. Based on a current flow through the standard resistor of 9.02 μA , the value of $\Delta T/\Delta V$ in equation (B-2) is 15.9 $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{mV}$. Thus 1 cm of deflection on the oscilloscope corresponds to a change in temperature of 15.9 $^{\circ}\text{C}$.

In heater #9, the same analysis gives a sensitivity of 11 $^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{mV}$. In this case the room temperature resistance of the element is 3K Ω higher. This gives rise to the greater sensitivity.

APPENDIX C

Heat Loss Calculations

The single site heater has been designed to minimize radial heat flow. Heat conduction down the lead wires cannot be eliminated. This loss is determined by applying power to the heater with only the base submerged in liquid and the wires from the surface resistors disconnected. Natural convection from the top surface is minimized by lowering the pressure in the chamber to the vapor pressure of the liquid. Essentially all the heat is lost down the lead wires.

Except for heater #9, a thermocouple has been placed in the copper core of the heater. The difference in temperature between the copper core and the liquid could be used to correlate heat losses. The temperature of the platinum wire, indicated by its resistance could be used. Which temperature difference is the correct one to use?

A Leeds and Northrup Portable Wheatstone Bridge gives a resistance of 4.13Ω at 30°C for heater #14. Figure (38) is a theoretical plot of the platinum resistance as a function of temperature for this heater. The equation for the curve, which the Metals Handbook (33) gives, is

$$R_e = R_o (1 + .0039788 T_e - 5.88 \times 10^{-7} T_e^2). \quad (\text{C-1})$$

In this equation T_e is in $^\circ\text{C}$ and R_o is the resistance of the element at 0°C . Figure (39) summarizes a heat loss experiment by plotting both $(T_{\text{Cu}} - T_b)$ and $(T_e - T_b)$ on the abscissa. The ordinate is the amount of heat dissipated.

This figure shows the two temperature differences are not equivalent. Above a ΔT_e of 100°C the copper rivet is lower in temperature. This indicates the beginning of convective losses within the heater. This gives rise to heat flow in the rivet and thus the difference

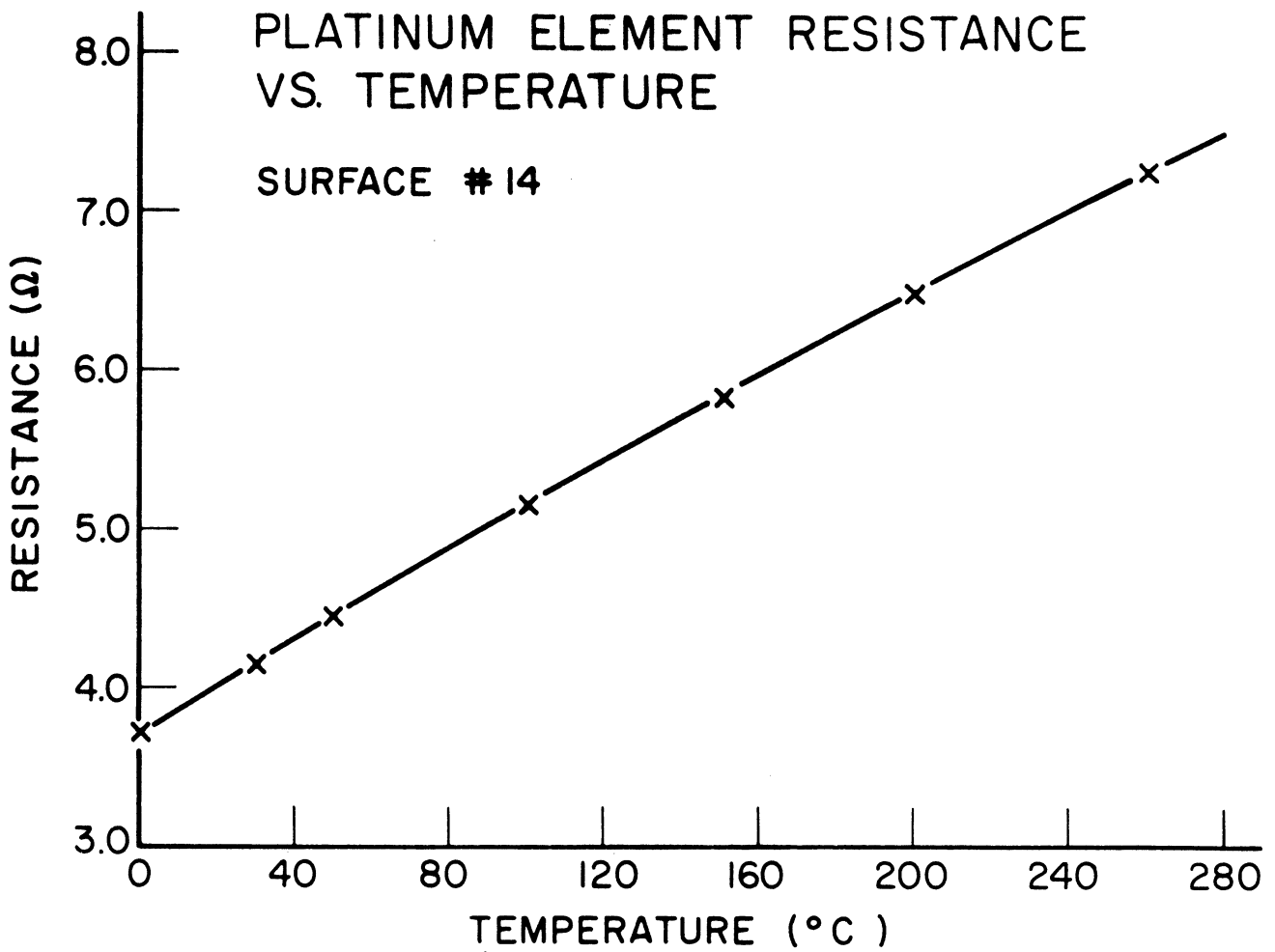


Figure 40 Change in the Resistance of Platinum Wire vs. Temperature

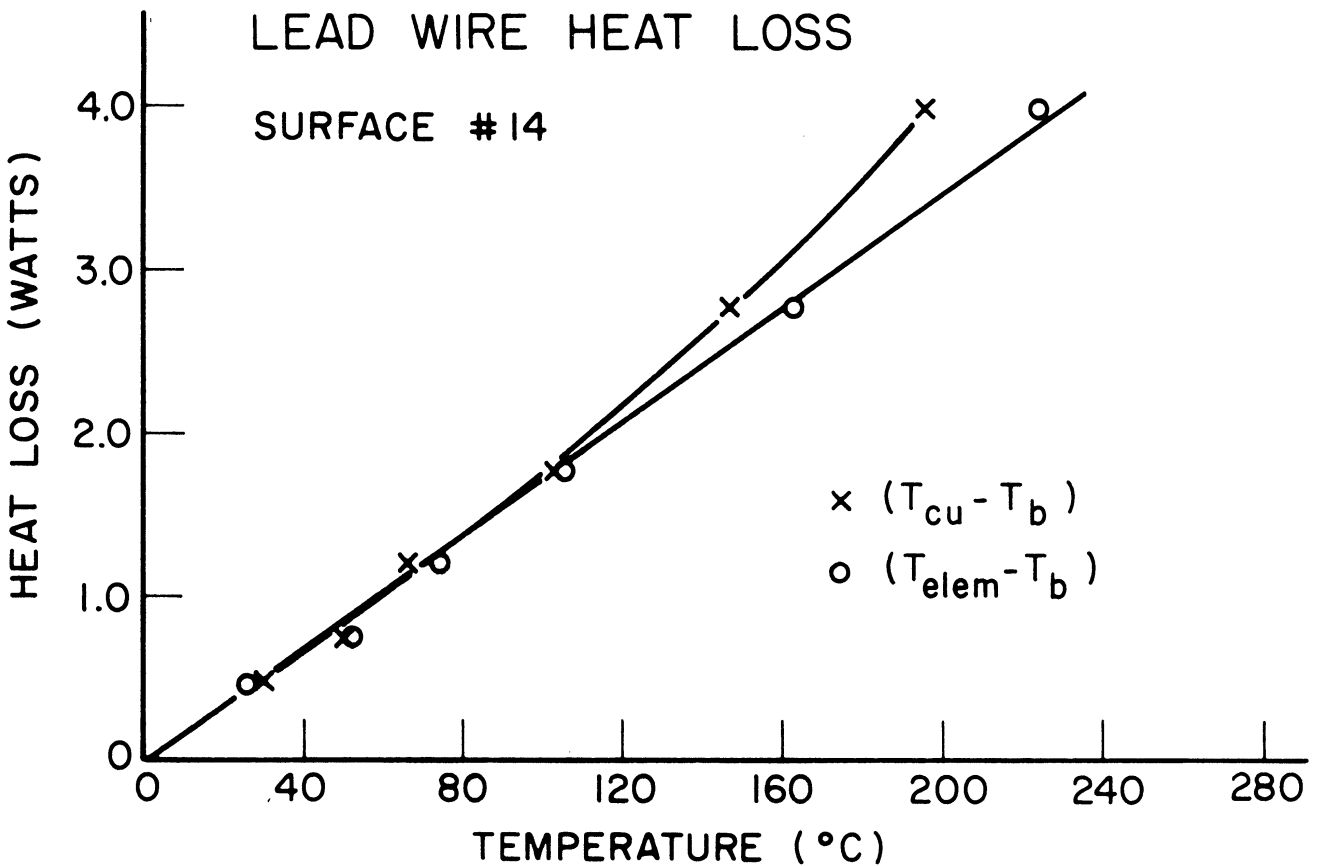


Figure 41 Calibration of Heater #14 for Lead Wire Heat Loss

in temperature between the wire and the copper core. When a fluid is being boiled on the surface this difference would be greater. Heat flow down the lead wires is not affected by any upward flow of heat. For these reasons the platinum element resistance is used to determine lead wire losses.

Table (C-I) is a summary of all the heat loss calculations. The notation appearing in this table refers to the series of pictures taken at a particular power setting. As an example, take the last entry in the table. In pictures #27 through 36 in run #9 on heater #14, the average heat flux through the surface is $1.23 \text{ cal/cm}^2\text{-sec}$.

Since the thermal resistance of the glass and the glue which binds the copper to the glass is constant, there is a check on the assumptions used to obtain Table (C-I).

A measure of the thermal resistance is:

$$\frac{\Delta x}{k_s} = \frac{\Delta T}{q} = \frac{123}{1.23} = 100 \quad (\text{C-2})$$

In other pictures, the resistance is between 111 and 86. Since the actual average surface temperature is not known, this calculation shows the uncertainty in the heat flux calculation. Of the three materials used, Conductalute * was the most successful. Unfortunately it was also quite difficult to use. Heater #9 used Conductalute* and it can be seen from Table C-1 that it gave a lower resistance of the glass and glue by a factor of almost four. Mercury worked extremely well for a while until it had all transferred to cooler areas leaving a gap between the heater and the glass plate.

*Sauereisen Tradename.

TABLE C-I

The Determination of the Average Boiling Heat Flux Transferred through the Glass Plate

Notation	Amps	Volts	Power Watts	Tcu °C	Power Less Watts	Power Up Watts	Flux cal/cm^2 -sec
9-1-1 to 9-3-30	1.31	3.06	4.00	146*	.96	3.04	1.17
14-3-0 to 14-3-36	.89	6.90	6.15	233	3.55	2.60	1.00
14-4-0 to 14-4-20	.895	6.55	5.52	240	3.28	2.24	.82
14-4-21 to 14-4-39	.818	6.30	5.15	233	3.18	1.98	.77
14-5-1 to 14-5-14	.808	6.00	4.85	201.2	3.02	1.83	.71
14-5-15 to 14-5-30	.795	5.95	4.73	212.2	3.07	1.66	.64
14-6-4 to 14-6-12	.84	6.6	5.55	243.5	3.30	2.25	.87
14-6-13 to 14-6-20	.84	6.6	5.55	239.5	3.32	2.23	.86
14-6-21	.82	6.14	5.03	221.8	3.04	1.99	.77
14-6-22 to 14-6-35	.82	6.19	5.06	227.5	3.17	1.95	.75
14-7-1 to 14-7-26	.92	6.90	6.40	223.0	3.48	2.92	1.13
14-7-26 to 14-7-34	.94	7.31	6.90	227.8	4.03	2.87	1.11
14-8-1 to 14-8-10	.96	7.51	7.23	228.8	3.84	3.39	1.31
14-8-11 to 14-8-17	1.01	8.31	8.40	247.5	4.65	3.75	1.45
14-8-27 to 14-8-36	.93	7.11	6.60	220.0	3.71	2.89	1.11
14-9-1 to 14-9-10	.93	7.05	6.60	222.8	3.56	3.04	1.17
14-9-11 to 14-9-26	.98	7.76	7.65	232.5	3.78	2.83	1.09
14-9-27 to 14-9-36	.94	7.11	6.68	220.8	3.52	3.16	1.23

*Heater element temperature

APPENDIX D

The Solution of the Heat Conduction Equation in Cylindrical Coordinates by Finite Difference Techniques

1. Basic Equations

The heat conduction equation in cylindrical coordinates is:

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \alpha_s \left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial R^2} + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial T}{\partial R} + \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial Z^2} \right). \quad (D-1)$$

The finite difference expression for the distance derivatives can be obtained by the use of Taylor series expansions for $T(x+\Delta x)$ and $T(x-\Delta x)$ based on the temperature and the derivatives at $T(x)$. The Taylor series expansion for $T(x+\Delta x)$ is:

$$T(x+\Delta x) = T(x) + \Delta x \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right)_x + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} \left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} \right)_x + O(\Delta x^3). \quad (D-2)$$

For $T(x-\Delta x)$ the expansion is:

$$T(x-\Delta x) = T(x) - \Delta x \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right)_x + \frac{\Delta x^2}{2} \left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} \right)_x + O(\Delta x^3). \quad (D-3)$$

The addition of equations (D-2) and (D-3) results in an finite difference expression for $(\partial^2 T / \partial x^2)_x$:

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} \right)_x = \frac{T(x+\Delta x) - 2T(x) + T(x-\Delta x)}{\Delta x^2}. \quad (D-4)$$

The subtraction of equation (D-3) from (D-2) gives an equation which can be solved for $(\partial T / \partial x)_x$:

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} = \frac{T(x+\Delta x) - T(x-\Delta x)}{2\Delta x}. \quad (D-5)$$

These equations are used to approximate both the derivatives in the R and Z direction shown in equation (D-1). The time derivative has been

approximated as a forward difference, i.e.:

$$\frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \frac{T(t+\Delta t) - T(t)}{\Delta t} . \quad (D-6)$$

It is quite easy to substitute equations (D-4), (D-5) and (D-6) into equation (D-1). There are, however, many techniques for solving the finite difference equivalent of equation (D-1). The solution techniques can be divided into implicit and explicit methods. The explicit methods solve the heat conduction equation at one point and then move to the next. With implicit methods, the temperature at a whole row of points is obtained at the same time. This temperature field solves the heat conduction equation exactly at each point in the row. An implicit method, called the implicit alternating direction (I.A.D.) method, has been used to solve the heat conduction equation with two distance coordinates. A method, which is a simplification of the I.A.D. method, is used for the one distance coordinate equation.

2. The Implicit Alternating Direction Method

The I.A.D. method has been discussed by Peaceman and Rachford (35), Douglas (10), Douglas and Rachford (11), and Wilkes (50). This method divides the time step between $T(t)$ and $T(t+\Delta t)$ into two half steps. An array $T^*(r,z)$ is an intermediate solution at the half time step between $T(t+\Delta t)$ and $T(t)$. At the half time step, the derivatives of either R or Z are evaluated based on the old temperature field. The coefficients of the difference derivatives in the other direction then form an array. When this array is solved for the whole perpendicular row of points, the temperature T^* at these points is the new solution. After successive rows have been solved, the T^* field is complete. The procedure switches to the other coordinate direction to obtain $T(t+\Delta t)$ from T^* .

The mathematical model divides the Z coordinate direction into N + 1 grid points from 0 to N; "J" is the general point. The R direction is divided into L + 1 points from 0 to L; "I" is defined as a general point in the R direction. At the point (I,J), the difference approximation to equation (-1) is:

$$\frac{T^*(I,J) - T(I,J)}{\Delta t/2} = \frac{\alpha_s}{\Delta R^2} \left\{ \left[\left(1 + \frac{1}{2I} \right) T(I+1,J) - 2T(I,J) + T(I-1,J) \left(1 - \frac{1}{2I} \right) \right] + \left(\frac{\Delta R}{\Delta Z} \right)^2 \left[T^*(I,J-1) - 2T^*(I,J) + T^*(I,J+1) \right] \right\}. \quad (D-7)$$

As the starred quantities indicate, the derivatives in the R direction are specified but the Z derivatives will be based on the new T* temperature field at (t+Δt/2). When the unknown temperatures, the T*'s, are taken to the left hand side of the equation, and the known temperature, the T's placed on the right, an equation containing the three unknowns. T*(J-1,I), T*(J,I), and T*(J+1,I) is obtained. It can be written as:

$$AC(J)T^*(J-1,I) + (BC(J)+1)T^*(J,I) + CC(J)T^*(J+1,I) = DC(J), \quad (D-8)$$

where $Cr = \alpha_s \Delta T / 2 \Delta R^2$ and $Cz = \left(\Delta R / \Delta Z \right)^2 C_r$

$$DC(J) = -AR(I)T(I-1,J) + [1-BR(I)]T(I,J) - CR(I)T(I+1,J), \quad (D-9)$$

the coefficients are defined as: $AC(J) = -Cz$, $BC(J) = 2Cz$, $CC(J) = -Cz$, $AR(I) = -(1-1/2I)Cr$, $BR(I) = 2Cr$, and $CR(I) = -(1+1/2I)Cr$. The same procedure at all the points between 0 and N produces a set of N - 1 equations and N + 1 unknowns. The inclusion of the boundary conditions at the end points provides the two additional equations. The array can be expressed in the following form after the boundary conditions are included.

$$\begin{bmatrix}
 [B(0)+1] & C(0) & 0 & \dots & \dots & \dots \\
 A(1) & [B(1)+1] & C(1) & \dots & \dots & \dots \\
 \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\
 \dots & 0 & A(J) & [1+B(J)] & C(J) & 0 \\
 \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\
 \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\
 \dots & \dots & 0 & A(N-1) & [1+B(N-1)] & C(N-1) \\
 \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\
 \dots & \dots & \dots & 0 & A(N) & [1+B(N)]
 \end{bmatrix}
 \begin{bmatrix}
 T^*(I,0) \\
 \dots \\
 T^*(I,J) \\
 \dots \\
 T^*(I,N)
 \end{bmatrix}
 =
 \begin{bmatrix}
 D(0) \\
 \dots \\
 D(J) \\
 \dots \\
 D(N)
 \end{bmatrix}
 \tag{D-10}$$

The coefficient matrix is called tri-diagonal and can be solved by an elimination procedure described in section 5 of this Appendix. The process is similar for the second time step except this time the T^* array is known and the T array at the $t+\Delta t$ is obtained by going across rows of constant J . The general equation is:

$$AR(I)T(I-1,J) + [1+BR(I)]T(I,J) + CR(I)T(I+1,J) = DR(I), \tag{D-11}$$

where

$$DR(I) = -AC(J)T^*(I,J-1) + [1-BC(J)]T^*(I,J) - CC(J)T^*(I,J+1). \tag{D-12}$$

The definitions of the coefficients of both the T 's and T^* 's is the same as shown in equation (D-8). Once again the conditions at 0 and L provide the necessary number of equations to solve for the temperature along each successive row.

3. Boundary Conditions

- a. Constant temperature: reduce the order of the matrix one unit
- b. Constant heat flux or heat transfer coefficient

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial x^2} \right)_0 = 2 \left[\frac{T(I,1) - T(I,0)}{\Delta x^2} \right] - \frac{2}{\Delta x} \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \right)_0 \tag{D-13}$$

The heat flux specifies the gradient. The BC(0) coefficient remains the same. However CC(0) becomes $-2Cz$ and DC(0) becomes:

$$DC(0) = -T(I-1,0)AR(I) + [1-BR(I)]T(I,0) - CR(I)T(I+1,0) + 2Cz(q/k)\Delta Z. \quad (D-14)$$

The condition of a constant heat flux transfer coefficient adjusts BC(0) by inclusion of an additional term:

$$BC(0) = 2Cz(1-h\Delta Z/k). \quad (D-15)$$

If the heat transfer coefficient cannot be expressed as:

$$\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial Z}\right)_0 = \frac{h}{k} T(I,0) \quad (D-16)$$

Then an additional term is also added to the other side, in the D(0) term. This defines all the boundary conditions except for $R=0$ in cylindrical coordinates. As the R approaches 0 the $1/R(\partial T/\partial R)$ term is evaluated by L'Hospital's rule to obtain:

$$\frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial R^2} + \frac{1}{R} \frac{\partial T}{\partial R} = 2 \frac{\partial^2 T}{\partial R^2} \quad (D-17)$$

The condition that $\partial T/\partial R = 0$ is a simplification of the constant flux case where $Q = 0$. At the center $BR(0) = 4Cr = -CR(0)$.

4. Solution of the One Dimensional Equation

The one dimensional problem uses all the methods which are used to approximate the boundary conditions at the end points. The use of a T^* matrix is unnecessary. The D(J) array becomes equal to the last temperature at T(J) for a general point.

5. Solution of the Tri-Diagonal Matrix

The matrix shown in equation (D-10) can be solved by the following scheme.

$$\beta_0 = 1 + BC(0) \quad (D-18)$$

$$\gamma_0 = DC(0)/(1+BC(0)) \quad (D-19)$$

At intermediate points advancing up the column successively

$$\beta_J = AC(J) CC(J)/\beta_{J-1} + 1 + BC(J) \quad (D-20)$$

and

$$\gamma_J = [DC(J) - AC(J)\gamma_{J-1}]/\beta_J. \quad (D-21)$$

At the last point N

$$T^*(I,N) = \gamma_N \quad (D-22)$$

Then going successively from N down to 0

$$T^*(I,J) = \gamma_J - CC(J)T(N,J+1)/\beta_J. \quad (D-23)$$

The solution for $T^*(I,J)$ is then complete.

APPENDIX E

Computer Program for Determining the
Amount of Liquid Evaporated
from Temperature Traces

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THE ANALYSIS OF THE EXPERIMENTAL TEMPERATURE FLUCTUATIONS
DURING BOILING

THE LIQUID BASED CONTRIBUTION, CALCULATED BY INTEGRATING
THE SURFACE TEMPERATURE FLUCTUATIONS, IS CALLED LOELT
THE SOLID BASED CONTRIBUTION, CALCULATED FROM THE TEMPER-
URE GRADIENT IN THE SOLID, IS CALLED EDELT
FAC IS A SCALING FACTOR WHICH DETERMINES HOW MUCH OF THE
SOLID IS ALLOWED TO CHANGE, FAC=1 CALCULATES THE CHANGE
IN TEMPERATURE DOWN TO A DEPTH OF 2* NUC TEMP. THIS IS THE
TEMPERATURE AT N=0.
A IS A VARIABLE WHICH SPECIFIES HOW MUCH OF THE SOLID
FROM C TO N IS INCLUDED IN THE TEMPERATURE SOLUTION

P IS THE NUMBER OF POINTS OF THE TEMPERATURE TIME CURVE
THEY MUST BE AT EQUAL INCREMENTS APART
RATIO IS THE VARIABLE SPECIFYING THE NUMBER OF POINTS
BETWEEN THE GIVEN POINTS TO BE SPECIFIED BY LINEAR
INTERPOLATION
S IS THE TOTAL NUMBER OF TEMPERATURE POINTS USED, THIS
DOES NOT INCLUDE THE FIRST POINT AT ZERO TIME
EVAPTM IS THE TIME INTERVAL BETWEEN NUCLEATION AND THE
OCURRENCE OF THE MINIMUM TEMPERATURE

THE TEMPERATURE GRADIENT IN THE SOLID, MEASURED BY THE FLUX
Q, IS ITERATED UNTIL THE TEMPERATURE OF THE SURFACE
IS LESS THAN MIN AWAY FROM TEMPF AT TOTALT
BETWEEN EVAPTM AND TOTALT (TIME) THE SURFACE IS INSULATED

FTRAP.
REFERENCES ON
PRUGRAN COMMON AC,BC,CC,DDC,T,X,L,M,N
DIMENSION T(6000),X(200),AC(80),BC(80),CC(80),DDC(80)
INTEGER X,L,M,N
DIMENSION TIME(200),IF(200),FLUX(200),B(10),Y(200)
INTEGER P,S,RATIO,TAU,I,J,K,INC,INCMX,MAX,INCR,INCRM,INCRMX,
1 FL,A,INCR1
INTEGER HEATN,ROLLN,DATAPT,SPECD,FLUID(2)
FORMAT VARIABLE FL
VECTOR VALUES HEADTN=$1H ,H* THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADD=$1H ,H* THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADT=$1H ,H* AT THESE TIMES**$
VECTOR VALUES HEAD1=$S3,I2,S7,I2,I2,I3,I2,S6,3C6**$
VECTOR VALUES HEAD2=$S3,I2,S7,I2,I2,I3,I2,S6,3C6,2F12.8**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADM=$1H+,S36,H* DATA POINT NUMBER*S3,I2,I2,I3,I2**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADN=$1H1,H*BOILING OF *3C6**$
VECTOR VALUES SIPUNH=$S1,I2,(5E15.7)**$
VECTOR VALUES HEAD=$1H2*$
VECTOR VALUES SPRT=$1H ,S5,*FL*F10.6**$
BOOLEAN POLY,CHECK
SCALE=1000.
POLY=0B
CHECK=0B
A=1
FAC=1.
IF(0)=0.
X=2
TSAT=0.
TLIQ=1.
PART READ FCRMAT HEAD1,P,HEATN,ROLLN,DATAPT,SPECD,FLUID(0)...FLUID(2)
READ AND PRINT DATA
INC=0
S=RATIO*(P-1)
DT=EVAPTM/S
IL THROUGH CAL, FOR K=S,1,DT*K.G.TOTALT
L=K
THROUGH SET, FOR K=1,1,K.G.200
X(K)=(L+1)*K+2
SET IF(K)=IF(K-1)+1.
FL=INCRMX+1
ZERO.(T(0)...T(6000),FLUX(0)...FLUX(200))
WHENEVER POLY

FILL IN TEMP BY LINEAR REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS
READ FORMAT SIPUNH,MAX,B(0)...B(MAX)
TSURF=B
THROUGH SETP, FOR K=0,1,K.G.S
T(X(N)+K)=B
THROUGH SETP, FOR J=1,1,J.G.MAX
SETP T(X(N)+K)=T(X(N)+K)+B(J)*(IF(K)*DT*SCALE).P.J
OTHERWISE

FILL IN TEMP BY LINEAR INTERPOLATION
T(X(N))=Y(1)
TSURF=Y(1)
THROUGH SETT, FOR K=1,1,K.E.P
T(X(N)+RATIO*K)=Y(K+1)
THROUGH SETT, FOR J=1,1,J.E.RATIO
SETT T(X(N)+RATIO*K-J)=Y(K+1)-(Y(K+1)-Y(K))*IF(J)/IF(RATIO)
END OF CONDITIONAL

SPECIFICATION TO THE INITIAL TEMPERATURE GRADIENT IN THE
SOLID
DX=1./IF(N)
THROUGH SETA, FOR I=0,1,I.G.N
SETA T(X(N-I))=TSURF*(1.+IF(I)*DX*FAC)
THROUGH SETC, FOR K=1,1,K.G.L
SETC T(X(A-1)+K)=T(X(A-1))

LOOP FB=DT/DX/DX/KS/ROS/CPS*(Q/TSURF/FAC).P.2
TAU=0
INC=INC+1
FLUX=Q

```

```

      CALCULATION OF THE MATRIX COEFFICIENTS FOR THE TRI-DIAGONAL
      MATRIX SOLUTION

      THROUGH SET1, FOR I=1,1,I.E.N
      AC(I)=-F*B
      BC(I)=2.*F*B
      CC(I)=-F**2
      SET1 AC(N)=-2.*F*B
          BC(N)=2.*F*B
          CC(N)=C.

      CALCULATION OF THE TEMPERATURE GRADIENTS IN THE SOLID FOR
      THE NEXT TIME INTERVAL BASED ON THE SPECIFIED SURFACE
      TEMPERATURE AT THAT TIME

      CYCLE TAU=TAU+1
          TIME(TAU)=DT*IF(TAU)
          WHENEVER TAU.G.S
              M=N
              OTHERWISE
                  M=N-1
          END OF CONDITIONAL
      THROUGH SET2, FOR I=A,1,I.G.M
      SET2 DDC(I)=T(X(I)+TAU-1)
          DDC(A)=DDC(A)-AC(A)*T(X(A-1)+TAU)
          DDC(M)=DDC(M)-CC(M)*T(X(M+1)+TAU)
          COLS.(A,M,X+TAU,T)

      CALCULATION OF THE RATE OF HEAT TRANSFER FOR THE TIME
      INTERVAL DT

      WHENEVER TAU.G.S
          FLUX(TAU)=0.
          OTHERWISE
              FLUX(TAU)=FLUX*(T(X(N-1)+TAU)-T(X(N)+TAU))/FAC/DX
          END OF CONDITIONAL
      WHENEVER TAU.L.L,TRANSFER TO CYCLE

      CALCULATION OF THE TOTAL AMOUNT OF HEAT TRANSFERED FROM
      THE SOLID DURING A TEMPERATURE FLUCTUATION

      TFLUX=0.
      THROUGH FIN, FOR K=0,1,K.G.TAU
      FIN TFLUX=TFLUX+FLUX(K) *DT
          EDEL= TFLUX /LL/ROL
          PRINT RESULTS INC,Q,TFLUX,FDEL,T(X(N)+TAU),TEMPF
          WHENEVER INC.G.1
              CONTINUE
          OTHERWISE
              WHENEVER T(X(N)+TAU).G.TEMPF
                  F1=1.
              OTHERWISE
                  F1=-1.
              F=-F
          END OF CONDITIONAL
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      WHENEVER INC.G.INCRMX, TRANSFER TO OUT
      WHENEVER .ABS.(T(X(N)+L)-TEMPF).G.MIN
      WHENEVER (T(X(N)+TAU)-TEMPF)*F1.G.0.
          Q=Q-F
      OTHERWISE
          TRANSFER TO LOOP
      OTHERWISE
          TRANSFER TO OUT
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      OUT PRINT FORMAT HEADN,FLUID(0)...FLUID(2)
          PRINT FORMAT HEADM,HEATN,ROLLN,DATAPT,SPECD
          PRINT RESULTS INC,Q,TFLUX,EDEL,T(X(N)+TAU),TEMPF

      CALCULATION OF LDEL

      INTGRT=0.
      THROUGH CALT, FOR J=0,1,J.G.S
      CALT INTGRT=INTGRT+T(X(N)+J)*DT
          LDEL=SQRT.(2.*KL*INTGRT/ROL/LL)
          PRINT RESULTS EDEL,LDEL
          INCRL=0
          INCRM=INCRMX
          THROUGH SET3, FOR K=0,1,K.G.TAU
          WHENEVER K.E.TAU,INCRM=K
          WHENEVER K.E.INCRM
              PRINT FORMAT HEADT
              PRINT FORMAT SPRT,TIME(INCRL)...TIME(K)
              PRINT FORMAT HEADD
              PRINT FORMAT SPRT,FLUX(INCRL)...FLUX(K)
              PRINT FORMAT HEADTN
              THROUGH SET4, FOR I=N,-1,I.E.A
              SET4 PRINT FORMAT SPRT,T(X(I)+INCRL)...T(X(I)+K)
                  PRINT FORMAT HEAD
                  INCRM=INCRM+1
                  INCRM=INCRM+INCRMX+1
              OTHERWISE
                  END OF CONDITIONAL
          PUNCH FORMAT HEAD2,P,HEATN,ROLLN,DATAPT,SPECD,FLUID(0)...FLUI
          D(2),EDEL,LDEL
          WHENEVER CHECK
              ERROR.
          OTHERWISE
              TRANSFER TO START
          END OF CONDITIONAL
      END OF PROGRAM

```


SOLUTION OF THE TRI-DIAGONAL MATRIX

```

EXTERNAL FUNCTION(B,P,XZ,Q)
PROGRAM COMMON AC,BC,CC,DDC,T,X,L,M,N
DIMENSION T(6000),X(200),AC(80),BC(80),CC(80),DDC(80)
INTEGER X,L,M,N
INTEGER K,F,R,I,P,B,XZ
DIMENSION BETA(80),GAMMA(80),VAR(80)
ENTRY TO COLS.
F=B
R=P
K=XZ
BETA(F)=1.+BC(F)
GAMMA(F)=DDC(F)/BETA(F)
THROUGH FIVE,FOR I=F+1,1,I.G.R
BETA(I)=1.+BC(I)-AC(I)*CC(I-1)/BETA(I-1)
FIVE GAMMA(I)=(DDC(I)-AC(I)*GAMMA(I-1))/BETA(I)
VAR(R)=GAMMA(R)
THROUGH SIX,FOR I=R-1,-1,I.L.F
SIX VAR(I)=GAMMA(I)-CC(I)*VAR(I+1)/BETA(I)
THROUGH SEVEN,FOR I=F,1,I.G.R
SEVEN Q(I*(L+1)+K)=VAR(I)
FUNCTION RETURN
END OF FUNCTION

```

APPENDIX F

Computer Program for Determining the
Total Contribution of the Micro-
layer During Boiling

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PROGRAM FOR CALCULATION THE AMOUNT OF LIQUID EVAPORATED
FROM UNDERNEATH A BOILING BUBBLE

DELT IS THE FILM THICKNESS ALLOWING FOR VAPORIZATION
NDELT IS THE FILM THICKNESS BASED ON NO VAPORIZATION
EDELTA IS THE TOTAL AMOUNT OF VAPORIZATION
TUELTA IS THE TOTAL AMOUNT OF THINNING OF THE VAPORIZING
FILM
DDELTA IS THE AMOUNT OF VAPORIZATION PER TIME INCREMENT
DELTA IS THE AMOUNT OF THINNING PER TIME INCREMENT

RBMAX IS THE MAXIMUM EXTENT OF THE BUBBLE ON THE SURFACE
DELZER IS THE THICKNESS OF THE LIQUID FILM AT RBMAX
ZB IS THE THICKNESS OF THE SOLID
TIMEZ IS THE TIME INTERVAL FROM NUCLEATION TO THE TIME
WHEN THE BUBBLE REACHES RBMAX
TAURM IS THE INTEGER VALUE OF TAU WHEN THE TIME=TIMEZ
TAURD IS THE INTEGER VALUE OF TAU AT DEPARTURE
IF THINNING OF THE MICRO LAYER IS ASSUMED, THIN=18
IF THE PHYSICAL PROPERTIES OF THE SOLID AND LIQUID ARE USED
CAL MUST BE SET EQUAL TO 18
ALF IS THE VARIABLE RELATING THE MAXIMUM BUBBLE RADIUS
TO THE SQUARE ROOT OF TIME

FTRAP.
REFERENCES ON
PROGRAM COMMON T, TSTAR, IF, JF, KF, X, AR, BR, CR, AC, BC, CC, DDR, DDC, Y
1 ,BUB, DELT, DDELTA, TAURM, IMAX, N, L, TAURD, TTMAX, TAUFIN, TAU, EDELTA
2 ,NDELTA, DELTIN, TDELTA
- INTEGER TAURM, IMAX, N, X, L, Y, TAURD, TTMAX, TAUFIN, TAU
DIMENSION T(1071), TSTAR(1071), IF(40), JF(40), KF(40), X(40), AR(4
1 0), BK(40), CR(40), AC(40), BC(40), CC(40), DDR(40), DDC(40), Y(800),
2 BUB(800), DELT(9900), DDELTA(40), EDELTA(40), NDELTA(40), DELTIN(40),
3 TDELTA(40)
DIMENSION LDELTA(40)
INTEGER INCR, RDATA, A, COUNT, K, I, J, XJ, P, PERIOD, INCRMX, TLMAX
INTEGER IMA, TTMA, TLMAX1
BOOLEAN CHECK, CAL, STOP, READAT, UNKN, THIN
DIMENSION AREA(40)
CHECK=08
CAL=18
THIN=18
STOP=08
READAT=08
UNKN=08
INCR=0
TIME=0.
TAU=0
RDATA=-10
TTMAX=0
TINIT=1.
TZERO=0.
A=1
COUNT=0
ERC=1.
ERAF=1.
ZERO.(T(0)...T(1071), TSTAR(0)...TSTAR(1071), DELT(0)...DELTA(60
1 00), DDELTA(0)...DDELTA(40))
ZERO.(EDELTA(0)...EDELTA(40), NDELTA(0)...NDELTA(40), DELTIN(0)...D
1 ELTIN(40), TDELTA(0)...TDELTA(40))
READ AND PRINT DATA
WHENEVER CAL

CALCULATION OF DIMENSIONLESS GROUPS

NUT=VISC/RODT

PRANDT=NUT*RODT*CPT/KT
SUPH=CPT*TEMPZ/HFG
RATO=TOUT/TEMPZ
JA=RODT*CPT*TEMPZ/VAPORD/HFG
WHENEVER UNKN
ALF=ERAF*1.77245*JA*SQRT.(KT/RODT/CPT)
END OF CONDITIONAL
WHENEVER THIN
DELZER=ERC*2./9.*(SQRT.(3.14159*NUT*TIMEZ))
OTHERWISE
DELZER=ERC*1./3.*(SQRT.(3.14159*NUT*TIMEZ))
END OF CONDITIONAL
NUB=4.*ALF*ALF/9.
PRANDB=NUB*CPB*ROB/KB
ROZ2=RBMAX/ZB*RBMAX/ZB
SUPT=SUPH/PRANDT
NU=FLUX*DELZER/KT/TEMPZ
NUS=FLUX*ZB/KB/TEMPZ
OTHERWISE
CONTINUE
END OF CONDITIONAL

PRINT COMMENT $1$
PRINT RESULTS ALF, DELZER
PRINT COMMENT $0 THE DIMENSIONLESS GROUPS ARE$
PRINT RESULTS PRANDT, HOK, NUB, PRANDB, ROZ2, SUPT, NU, NUS, JA, RATO
DT=1./TAURM
DR=1./IMAX
DZB=1./N
FF=DT/2./DZB/DZB/PRANDB*ROZ2
CF=DT/2./DR/DR/PRANDB
WHENEVER THIN
EVAP=SUPT/3.14159/ERC/ERC*81./4.
OTHERWISE
EVAP=SUPT/3.14159/ERC/ERC*9.
END OF CONDITIONAL
COEF=DT/DZB*ROZ2/PRANDB*HCK
COEFIN=DT/DZB*ROZ2/PRANDB/NU*NUS
PRINT COMMENT $0 THE FACTORS CONTROLLING VAPORIZATION ARE $
PRINT RESULTS FF, CF, EVAP, COEF, COEFIN
X(0)=0
IF(0)=0.
THROUGH SET2, FOR K=1, 1, K.G.40
IF(K)=IF(K-1)+1.
JF(K)=1.+1./2./IF(K)
KF(K)=1.-1./2./IF(K)
X(K)=X(K-1)+L+1

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CALCULATION OF MATRIX COEFFICIENTS

THROUGH SET3, FOR I=1,1,I.E.L
AR(I)=-CF*KF(I)
BR(I)=2.*CF
CR(I)=-CF*JF(I)
THROUGH SET4, FOR J=1,1,J.E.N
AC(J)=-FF
BC(J)=2.*FF
CC(J)=-FF
AC(N)=-2.*FF
BC(N)=2.*FF
CC(N)=0.
BC(O)=2.*FF
CC(O)=-2.*FF
AC(O)=0.
AR(L)=-2.*CF
BR(L)=2.*CF
CR(L)=0.
AR(O)=0.
BR(O)=4.*CF
CR(O)=-4.*CF

AREA=3.1416/4.*DR*DR
THROUGH SETAF, FOR I=1,1,I.G.IMAX
AREA(I)=IF(I)*2.*3.1416*DR*DR

SPECIFICATION OF THE INITIAL TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IN
THE SOLID

THROUGH SETT, FOR J=0,1,J.G.N
XJ=X(J)
THROUGH SETT, FOR I=0,1,I.G.L
T(XJ+I)=TBASE-(TBASE-RATO)*DZB*IF(J)
TSTAR(XJ+I)=T(XJ+I)

Y(O)=0
THROUGH SETY, FOR K=1,1,K.G.PERIOD
Y(K)=Y(K-1)+IMAX*1
THROUGH SETB, FOR P=0,1,P.G.PERIOD
WHENEVER P.L.TAURD

BUB(P) IS THE DIMENSIONLESS BUBBLE CONTACT RADIUS VS TIME

BUB(P)=3./2.*SQRT.(DT*P)*(1.-1./3.*DT*P)
OTHERWISE
BUB(P)=0.
END OF CONDITIONAL
WHENEVER L.L.IMAX
IMA=L
OTHERWISE
IMA=IMAX
END OF CONDITIONAL
PRINT COMMENT $O THE MATRIX COEFFICIENTS ARE$
PRINT RESULTS AR(O)...AR(L),BR(O)...BR(L),CR(O)...CR(L)
PRINT RESULTS AC(O)...AC(N),BC(O)...BC(N),CC(O)...CC(N)
CONTINUE
WHENEVER THIN
ZERO.(DELTY(C...))...DELTY(TAURD+1)),EDELTO)...EDELTO(IM
1 AX),TDELTO)...TDELTO(IMAX),NDELTO)...NDELTO(IMAX))
OTHERWISE
ZERO.(EDELTO)...EDELTO(IMAX))
THROUGH SETF, FOR P=0,1,P.G.TAURD
DELTY(P...)=DR/3.
THROUGH SETF, FOR I=1,1,I.G.IMA
DELTY(P...+I)=IF(I)*DR*(1.+1./IF(I)/IF(I)/12.)
END OF CONDITIONAL
TTMAX=0
BCYCLE READ AND PRINT DATA

WHENEVER READAT PUNCHED DATA IS READ IN FOR T,DELTA,ETC

PRNT.(TIME,VOLUME,STOP,READAT)
TZERU=TIME-LT*TAU
READAT=0B
WHENEVER TAU.L.TAURD
THROUGH SETE, FOR K=0,1,IF(K).G.BUB(TAU)/DR-.5
TLMAX=K
TTMAX=K
END OF CONDITIONAL
TAU=TAU+1
INCR=INCR+1
TIME=TZERU+DT*TAU
COUNT=COUNT+1
WHENEVER TAU.G.TAURD
TTMAX=L
OTHERWISE
BUBB=BUB(TAU)/DR
TLMAX=TTMAX
THROUGH SETA, FOR K=C,1,IF(K).G.BUBB-.5
TTMAX=K
AREAB=BUBB*BUBB-(IF(K-1)+.5)*(IF(K-1)+.5)
AREAF=AREAB/2./IF(TTMAX)
END OF CONDITIONAL
WHENEVER TAU.LE.TAURM
WHENEVER TTMAX.G.L
ITMA=L
OTHERWISE
ITMA=TTMAX
END OF CONDITIONAL
WHENEVER THIN
LDELTA=NDLLT
NDELTA=DR*DR/8./SQRT.(DT*TAU)
THROUGH SETM, FOR I=1,1,I.G.ITMA
LDELTA(I)=NDELTA(I)
NDELTA(I)=IF(I)*IF(I)*DR*DR/SQRT.(DT*TAU)*(1.+1./16./IF(I)/IF(
1 I))
THROUGH SETP, FOR I=TLMAX,1,I.G.ITMA
LDELTA(I)=NDELTA(I)
DELTY(I+1)=NDELTA(I)
DELTY(TAU)+I)=NDELTA(I)
THROUGH SETN, FOR I=0,1,I.G.ITMA
DELTA(I)=DELTA(Y(TAU)+I)*1.-NDELTA(I)/LDELTA(I)
TDELTA(I)=TDELTA(I)+DELTA(I)
DELTA(Y(TAU)+I)=DELTA(Y(TAU)+I)-DELTA(I)
OTHERWISE
END OF CONDITIONAL
OTHERWISE
END OF CONDITIONAL

```

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      SOLUTION FOR TEMPERATURE BY THE ALTERNATING DIRECTION
      METHOD

      THROUGH SIX, FOR I=0,1,I.G.L
      THROUGH SEVEN, FOR J=A,1,J.G.N
      XJ=X(J)
SEVEN  DDC(J)=-AR(I)*T(XJ+I-1)+(1.-BR(I))*T(XJ+I)-CR(I)*T(XJ+I+1)
      DDC(A)=DDC(A)-AC(A)*TSTAR(X(A-1)+I)
      WHENEVER I.G.TTMAX
      BC(N)=2.*FF+CCEF
      OTHERWISE
      DELTTI=DEL(TAU)+I
      WHENEVER DELTTI.L.MIN
      BC(N)=2.*FF
      OTHERWISE
      WHENEVER I.L.TTMAX
      BC(N)=2.*FF+CCEFIN/DELTTI
      OTHERWISE
      BC(N)=2.*FF+COEFIN/DELTTI*AREAF+COEF*(1.-AREAF)
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      COLS.(A,N,X+1,TSTAR)
      BC(N)=2.*FF
      THROUGH FIVE, FOR J=A,1,J.G.N
      XJ=X(J)
      THROUGH FOUR, FOR I=0,1,I.G.L
      DDR(I)=-AC(J)*TSTAR(X(J-1)+I)+(1.-BC(J))*TSTAR(XJ+I)-CC(J)*T
1      TAR(X(J+1)+I)
      WHENEVER J.L.N
      CONTINUE
      OTHERWISE
      WHENEVER I.G.TTMAX
      DDR(I)=DDR(I)-COEF*TSTAR(XJ+I)
      OTHERWISE
      DELTTI=DEL(TAU)+I
      WHENEVER DELTTI.L.MIN
      CONTINUE
      OTHERWISE
      WHENEVER I.L.TTMAX
      DDR(I)=DDR(I)-COEFIN*TSTAR(XJ+I)/DELTTI
      OTHERWISE
      DDR(I)=DDR(I)-COEFIN*TSTAR(XJ+I)/DELTTI*AREAF-COEF*TSTAR(XJ+I
1      )*(1.-AREAF)
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      ROWS.(O,L,X(J),T)
      FIVE  CONTINUE

      DETERMINATION OF THE AMCUNT OF VAPORIZATION

      WHENEVER TAU.G.TAURD
      CONTINUE
      OTHERWISE
      THROUGH EIGHT, FOR I=0,1,I.G.IMA
      DELTTI=DEL(TAU)+I
      WHENEVER I.G.TTMAX
      DDELTI=0.
      OTHERWISE
      WHENEVER DELTTI.G.MIN
      DDELTI=(EVAP*DT*T(X(N)+I)/DELTTI
      OTHERWISE
      DDELTI=0.
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      DDELTI(TMAX)=DDELTI(TTMAX)*AREAF
      THROUGH NINE, FOR I=0,1,I.G.TTMA
      DELTTI=DEL(TAU)+I
      WHENEVER DELTTI-DDELTI.L.MIN
      EDELTI=DELTTI+DDELTI
      DELT(Y(TAU+1)+I)=0.
      OTHERWISE
      EDELTI(I)=EDELTI(I)+DDELTI(I)
      DELT(Y(TAU+1)+I)=DELTTI-DDELTI(I)
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      WHENEVER TAU.E.TAURD
      INCR=INCRMX
      NINE

      CALCULATION OF THE AMOUNT OF LIQUID EVAPORATED

      ACTUAL VOLUME MUST BE OBTAINED BY MULTIPLYING BY RBMAX
      SQUARED TIMES DELZER

      WHENEVER L.L.IMAX,PRINT COMMENT $O ONLY PART OF THE BUBBLE FILM IS
1      IS BEING CALCULATED $

      VOLUME=0.
      THROUGH SETV, FOR I=0,1,I.G.IMAX
      VOLUME=VOLUME+AREA(I)*EDELTI(I)
      OTHERWISE
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      WHENEVER INCR.E.INCRMX
      INCR=0
      PRNT.(TIME,VOLUME,OB,OB)
      OTHERWISE
      CONTINUE
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      WHENEVER COUNT.L.TAUFIN
      WHENEVER TAU.E.RDAT,TRANSFER TO BCYCLE
      WHENEVER TAU.G.TAURD
      WHENEVER T(X(N)).G.TINIT
      PERIOD=TAU
      PRNT RESULTS PERIOD
      TZCRU=TZERO+DT*TAU
      TAU=0
      TRANSFER TO LOOP
      OTHERWISE
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      OTHERWISE
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      TRANSFER TO CYCLE
      OTHERWISE
      PRNT.(TIME,VOLUME,IB,OB)
      END OF CONDITIONAL
      WHENEVER CHECK.ERROR.
      END OF PROGRAM

```

```

PRINT SLROUTINE

EXTERNAL FUNCTION (TIME1,VCL1,STCP1,RECA1)
PROGRAM CCMCN T, TSTAR, IF, JF, KF, X, AR, BR, CR, AC, EC, CC, CDR, CDC, Y
1 ,BUB, DELT, CDELT, TAURM, IMAX, N, L, TALRC, TTMAX, TALFIN, TAU, EDELT
2 ,NDEL, DELTIN, TDELTN
DIMENSION T(1071), TSTAR(1071), IF(40), JF(40), KF(40), X(40), AR(4
0), BR(40), CR(40), AC(40), EC(40), CC(40), CDR(40), CDC(40), Y(800),
2 BUB(800), DELT(9900), DDELT(40), EDELT(40), NDEL(40), DELTIN(40),
3 TDELTN(40)
INTEGER TAURM, IMAX, N, X, L, Y, TALFD, TTMAX, TAUFIN, TAL
INTEGER J, L1, TSMAX, M, IMA
INTEGER JX1, JXL
FORMAT VARIABLE L1
BOOLEAN STOP, STOPI, RECA1, RECAT
VECTOR VALUES HEADN=$1HC, H* THE LIQUID THICKNESS ASSUMING NO EVAPCRATIC
1 N WOULD BE**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADTM=$1HC, H* THE AMOUNT OF MICROLAYER THINNING DUE TO B
1 UBBLE GROWTH DURING THE LAST TIME INCREMENT IS**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADT=$1H0, H* THE TOTAL THICKNESS OF THE MICROLAYER NO
1 T EVAPORATED BUT MOVED BECAUSE OF THINNING IS**$
VECTOR VALUES INITAT=$94H THE ASSUMED BUBBLE INITIATION TEMPERATURE FA
1 S BEEN EXCEEDED AND THE BUBBLE WILL START TO GROW**$
VECTOR VALUES HEACV=$73H THE TOTAL DIMENSIONLESS VOLUME OF LIQUID EVAPC
1 RATED DURING THIS CYCLE IS F10.8**$
VECTOR VALUES DEPART=$29H THE BUBBLE HAS JUST DEPARTED**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADS=$58H THE TOTAL DEPTH OF LIQUID EVAPORAT
1 ED UP TO THIS TIME IS**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADE=$66H DURING THE LAST TIME INCREMENT THE A
1 MOUNT OF LIQUID EVAPORATED IS**$
VECTOR VALUES NATCV=$55H THE TOP SURFACE IS UNDERGOING NATUR
1 AL CONVECTION ONLY**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADD=$38H THE BUBBLE COVERS THE SURFACE OUT TO
1 R.5**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADC=$1HC, H* THE DIMENSIONLESS FILM THICKNESS UNDER THE B
1 UBBLE AT RADIAL DISTANCES FROM THE POINT OF NUCLEATION IS**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADC=$4H J=13**$
VECTOR VALUES SIPUNH=$S1,6F13.5/(S1,6F12.5)**$
VECTOR VALUES SIPRT=$1H, L1*F 9.6**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADT=$1C0 AT TIME=F12.6**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADT1=$1H+, S25, H* THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IN THE SC
1 LID IS**$
VECTOR VALUES HEADJ=$S10, F1C.6, S1C, I4**$
ENTRY TO PRINT.
M=N
TIME=TIME1
STOP=STOPI
RECAT=RECA1
WHENEVER RECAT
READ FORMAT HEACJ, TIME, TAU
THROUGH THREE, FOR J=0,1, J.G.M
JX1=X(J)
JXL=X(J+1)-1
THREE READ FORMAT SIPUNH, T(JX1)...T(JXL)
READ FORMAT SIPUNH, DELT(Y(TAU+1))...DELT(Y(TAU+1)+IMAX)
READ FORMAT SIPUNH, EDELT(O)...EDELT(IMAX)
READ FORMAT SIPUNH, NDEL(C)...NDEL(IMAX)
READ FORMAT SIPUNH, TDELTN(C)...TDELTN(IMAX)
TIME1=TIME
OTHERWISE
END OF CONDITIONAL
WHENEVER STOP
PUNCH FORMAT HEADJ, TIME, TAU
THROUGH TWO, FOR J=C,1, J.G.M
JX1=X(J)
JXL=X(J+1)-1
TWC PUNCH FORMAT SIPUNH, T(JX1)...T(JXL)
PUNCH FORMAT SIPUNH, DELT(Y(TAU+1))...DELT(Y(TAU+1)+IMAX)
PUNCH FORMAT SIPUNH, EDELT(O)...EDELT(IMAX)
PUNCH FORMAT SIPUNH, NDEL(C)...NDEL(IMAX)
PUNCH FORMAT SIPUNH, TDELTN(C)...TDELTN(IMAX)
OTHERWISE
END OF CONDITIONAL
WHENEVER TAU.G.TAURD
PRINT FORMAT NATCV
OTHERWISE
WHENEVER TAU.G.O
WHENEVER TAU.L.TAURD
WHENEVER TTMAX.G.L
L1=L+1
TSMAX=L
OTHERWISE
L1=TTMAX+1
TSMAX=TTMAX
END OF CONDITIONAL
BUBT=BUB(TAU)*IF(IMAX)
PRINT FORMAT HEAD, BUBT
PRINT FORMAT HEAD
PRINT FORMAT SIPRT, DELT(Y(TAU+1))...DELT(Y(TAU+1)+TSMAX)
PRINT FORMAT HEADE
PRINT FORMAT SIPRT, DDELT(O)...DDELT(TSMAX)
WHENEVER TAU.G.TAURM
CONTINUE
OTHERWISE
PRINT FORMAT HEADN
PRINT FORMAT SIPRT, NDEL(O)...NDEL(TSMAX)
PRINT FORMAT HEADTM
PRINT FORMAT SIPRT, DELTIN(O)...DELTIN(TSMAX)
END OF CONDITIONAL
OTHERWISE
PRINT FORMAT DEPART
VOLUME=VCL1
PRINT FORMAT HEADV, VOLUME
END OF CONDITIONAL
OTHERWISE
PRINT FORMAT INITAT
END OF CONDITIONAL
END OF CONDITIONAL
WHENEVER TAU.LE.TAURD
PRINT FORMAT HEADS
WHENEVER L.G.IMAX
IMA=IMAX

```

```

L1=IMAX+1
CTHERWISE
IMA=L
L1=L+1
END OF CONDITIONAL
PRINT FORMAT SIPRT,EDEL(T(0)...EDEL(T(IMA )
PRINT FORMAT HEADTT
PRINT FORMAT SIPRT,TDEL(TN(C)...TDEL(TN(IMA )
OTHERWISE
END OF CONDITIONAL
PRINT FORMAT HEADT ,TIME
PRINT FORMAT HEADT1
L1=L+1
THROUGH EPS5,FCR J=M,-1,J.L.0
JXI=X(J)
JXL=X(J)+L
PRINT FORMAT HEADG,J
EPS5 PRINT FORMAT SIPRT,T(JXI)...T(JXL)
FUNCTION RETURN
END OF FUNCTION

```

SOLUTION OF THE TRI-DIAGONAL MATRIX

```

EXTERNAL FUNCTION(B, P, XZ, Q)
PROGRAM COMMON T, TSTAR, IF, JF, KF, X, AR, BR, CR, AC, BC, CC, DDR, DDC, Y
1 ,BUB, DELT, DDELT, TAURM, IMAX, N, L, TAURC, TTMAX, TAUFIN, TAU, EDEL(T
2 ,NDEL(T, DEL(TIN, TDEL(TN
DIMENSION T(1071), TSTAR(1071), IF(40), JF(40), KF(40), X(40), AR(4
1 0), BR(40), CR(40), AC(40), BC(40), CC(40), DDR(40), DDC(40), Y(800),
2 BUB(800), DELT(9900), DDELT(40), EDEL(T(40), NDEL(T(40), DEL(TIN(40),
3 TDEL(TN(40)
DIMENSION BETA(40), GAMMA(40), VAR(40)
INTEGER K, F, R, P, B, XZ, W, I
INTEGER TAURM, IMAX, N, X, L, Y, TAURC, TTMAX, TAUFIN, TAU
BOOLEAN DEC
ENTRY TO RCWS.
DEC=1B
F=B
R=P
K=XZ
TRANSFER TO ONE
ENTRY TO COLS.
DEC=0B
F=B
R=P
K=XZ
ONE WHENEVER DEC
BETA(F)=1.+BR(F)
GAMMA(F)=DDR(F)/BETA(F)
THROUGH TWO, FOR I=F+1, 1, I.G.R
BETA(I)=1.+BR(I)-AR(I)*CR(I-1)/BETA(I-1)
TWO GAMMA(I)=(DDR(I)-AR(I)*GAMMA(I-1))/BETA(I)
VAR(R)=GAMMA(R)
THROUGH THREE, FOR I=R-1, -1, I.L.F
THREE VAR(I)=GAMMA(I)-CR(I)*VAR(I+1)/BETA(I)
THROUGH FOUR, FOR I=F, 1, I.G.F
FOUR Q(K+I)=VAR(I)
OTHERWISE
BETA(F)=1.+BC(F)
GAMMA(F)=DDC(F)/BETA(F)
THROUGH FIVE, FOR I=F+1, 1, I.G.R
BETA(I)=1.+BC(I)-AC(I)*CC(I-1)/BETA(I-1)
FIVE GAMMA(I)=(DDC(I)-AC(I)*GAMMA(I-1))/BETA(I)
VAR(R)=GAMMA(R)
THROUGH SIX, FOR I=R-1, -1, I.L.F
SIX VAR(I)=GAMMA(I)-CC(I)*VAR(I+1)/BETA(I)
THROUGH SEVEN, FOR I=F, 1, I.G.R
SEVEN Q(I*(L+1)+K)=VAR(I)
END OF CONDITIONAL
FUNCTION RETURN
END OF FUNCTION

```

APPENDIX G

Analysis of Temperature Trace 9-1-13 for
 Δl and Δs

BOILING OF ETHYL ALCOHOL DATA POINT NUMSER 9 1 13 1

INC = 3, Q = .085000, TFLUX = .018108, EDEL = 1.171684E-04
T(4713) = 3.410573, TEMPF = 3.400000

EDEL = 1.171684E-04, LGELT = 5.146253E-04

Table with 10 columns: AT THESE TIMES, THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS, THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS. Rows include values like .000000, .000099, .000199, .000298, .000398, .000497, .000597, .000696, .000796, .000895.

Table with 10 columns: AT THESE TIMES, THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS, THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS. Rows include values like .000995, .001094, .001194, .001293, .001393, .001492, .001592, .001691, .001791, .001890.

Table with 10 columns: AT THESE TIMES, THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS, THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS. Rows include values like .001990, .002089, .002189, .002288, .002388, .002487, .002587, .002686, .002786, .002885.

Table with 10 columns: AT THESE TIMES, THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS, THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS. Rows include values like .002985, .003084, .003184, .003283, .003383, .003482, .003582, .003681, .003781, .003880.

Table with 10 columns: AT THESE TIMES, THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS, THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS. Rows include values like .003980, .004079, .004179, .004278, .004378, .004477, .004577, .004676, .004776, .004875.

Table with 10 columns: AT THESE TIMES, THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS, THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS. Rows include values like .004974, .005074, .005173, .005273, .005372, .005472, .005571, .005671, .005770, .005870.

Table with 10 columns: AT THESE TIMES, THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS, THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS. Rows include values like .005969, .006069, .006168, .006268, .006367, .006467, .006566, .006666, .006765, .006865.

AT THESE TIMES										
.006964	.007064	.007163	.007263	.007362	.007462	.007561	.007661	.007760	.007860	
THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS										
2.229278	2.230340	2.231485	2.232527	2.233479	2.234353	2.235160	2.235909	2.236612	2.237275	
THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS										
1.681267	1.640515	1.616535	1.585533	1.555115	1.525294	1.495990	1.467128	1.438639	1.410462	
17.995783	17.972265	17.946765	17.925295	17.901845	17.874420	17.855919	17.831644	17.808295	17.784973	
19.849584	19.848037	19.846058	19.844048	19.842006	19.839932	19.837827	19.835690	19.833523	19.831324	
20.527824	20.527734	20.527640	20.527543	20.527444	20.527341	20.527236	20.527127	20.527015	20.526900	
21.151731	21.151729	21.151726	21.151723	21.151719	21.151716	21.151712	21.151709	21.151705	21.151700	
21.773501	21.773501	21.773502	21.773502	21.773502	21.773502	21.773502	21.773502	21.773502	21.773502	
22.396006	22.396008	22.396008	22.396009	22.396009	22.396009	22.396009	22.396010	22.396010	22.396010	
23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	
23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	
24.262345	24.262346	24.262346	24.262346	24.262347	24.262347	24.262347	24.262347	24.262347	24.262347	
AT THESE TIMES										
.007959	.008059	.008158	.008258	.008357	.008457	.008556	.008656	.008755	.008855	
THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS										
2.237907	2.238915	2.239105	2.239681	2.240249	2.240812	2.241372	2.241932	2.242492	2.243053	
THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS										
1.382535	1.355221	1.327265	1.299830	1.272486	1.245208	1.217974	1.190771	1.163593	1.136434	
17.761677	17.738408	17.715167	17.691952	17.668765	17.645605	17.622472	17.599366	17.576287	17.553234	
19.829094	19.826824	19.824544	19.822223	19.819871	19.817489	19.815078	19.812636	19.810165	19.807664	
20.526781	20.526695	20.526635	20.526466	20.526274	20.526139	20.526000	20.525858	20.525713	20.525563	
21.151692	21.151692	21.151687	21.151682	21.151677	21.151671	21.151666	21.151661	21.151656	21.151654	
21.773503	21.773503	21.773503	21.773503	21.773503	21.773503	21.773503	21.773503	21.773503	21.773503	
22.396010	22.396011	22.396011	22.396011	22.396011	22.396012	22.396012	22.396012	22.396012	22.396013	
23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	
23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	
24.262348	24.262348	24.262348	24.262348	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	
AT THESE TIMES										
.008954	.009054	.009153	.009253	.009352	.009452	.009551	.009651	.009750	.009849	
THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS										
2.243114	2.244173	2.244725	2.245277	2.245815	2.246338	2.246839	2.247313	2.247752	.000000	
THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS										
1.109304	1.082212	1.055173	1.028211	1.001355	.974638	.948103	.921796	.895772	.869081	
17.530208	17.507269	17.484236	17.461290	17.438370	17.415478	17.392612	17.369772	17.346961	17.324205	
19.805133	19.802573	19.799984	19.797366	19.794719	19.792043	19.789338	19.786605	19.783864	19.781054	
20.525411	20.525254	20.525094	20.524930	20.524762	20.524590	20.524415	20.524236	20.524053	20.523865	
21.151642	21.151635	21.151628	21.151621	21.151614	21.151606	21.151598	21.151590	21.151582	21.151573	
21.773902	21.773903	21.773903	21.773903	21.773903	21.773903	21.773903	21.773903	21.773903	21.773903	
22.396013	22.396013	22.396013	22.396013	22.396013	22.396014	22.396014	22.396014	22.396015	22.396015	
23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	
23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	
24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	
AT THESE TIMES										
.009949	.010048	.010148	.010247	.010347	.010446	.010546	.010645	.010745	.010844	
THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS										
.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	
THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS										
1.002144	1.034962	1.107537	1.159870	1.211962	1.263814	1.315428	1.366805	1.417947	1.468853	
17.301809	17.279459	17.252766	17.225221	17.197335	17.169159	17.140705	17.112054	17.083270	17.054336	
19.778236	19.775392	19.772520	19.769625	19.766696	19.763745	19.760767	19.757765	19.754737	19.751684	
20.523674	20.523479	20.523279	20.523076	20.522888	20.522697	20.522441	20.522221	20.521997	20.521769	
21.151564	21.151555	21.151546	21.151536	21.151525	21.151515	21.151504	21.151493	21.151482	21.151470	
21.773903	21.773903	21.773902	21.773902	21.773902	21.773902	21.773901	21.773901	21.773901	21.773901	
22.396015	22.396015	22.396016	22.396016	22.396016	22.396016	22.396017	22.396017	22.396017	22.396017	
23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	
23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	
24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	
AT THESE TIMES										
.010944	.011043	.011143	.011242	.011342	.011441	.011541	.011640	.011740	.011839	
THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS										
.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	
THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS										
1.519527	1.569968	1.620178	1.670159	1.719911	1.769436	1.818735	1.867809	1.916659	1.965287	
17.085122	17.064266	17.043554	17.022985	17.002558	16.982273	16.962128	16.942123	16.922257	16.902529	
19.748607	19.745506	19.742380	19.739231	19.736059	19.732863	19.729645	19.726404	19.723142	19.719857	
20.521536	20.521299	20.521058	20.520812	20.520562	20.520308	20.520049	20.519785	20.519518	20.519246	
21.151458	21.151446	21.151433	21.151420	21.151406	21.151392	21.151378	21.151363	21.151348	21.151333	
21.773901	21.773900	21.773900	21.773900	21.773899	21.773899	21.773898	21.773898	21.773897	21.773897	
22.396018	22.396018	22.396018	22.396018	22.396019	22.396019	22.396019	22.396019	22.396019	22.396020	
23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	
23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	
24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	
AT THESE TIMES										
.011939	.012038	.012138	.012237	.012337	.012436	.012536	.012635	.012735	.012834	
THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS										
.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	
THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS										
2.013693	2.061875	2.109847	2.157596	2.205128	2.252445	2.299548	2.346437	2.393113	2.439579	
16.882939	16.863484	16.844165	16.824981	16.805931	16.787014	16.768229	16.749575	16.731052	16.712659	
19.716551	19.713223	19.709875	19.706506	19.703116	19.699707	19.696277	19.692828	19.689359	19.685871	
20.518969	20.518688	20.518402	20.518112	20.517817	20.517518	20.517213	20.516905	20.516591	20.516273	
21.151317	21.151301	21.151284	21.151268	21.151250	21.151232	21.151214	21.151195	21.151176	21.151156	
21.773896	21.773896	21.773896	21.773895	21.773894	21.773894	21.773893	21.773892	21.773891	21.773891	
22.396022	22.396020	22.396020	22.396023	22.396023	22.396022	22.396021	22.396021	22.396022	22.396022	
23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	23.018106	
23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	23.640226	
24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	24.262349	
AT THESE TIMES										
.012934	.013033	.013133	.013232	.013332	.013431	.013531	.013630	.013730	.013829	
THE FLUX THROUGH THE SURFACE IS										
.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	.000000	
THE TEMPERATURE DISTRIBUTION IS										
2.485834	2.531881	2.577720	2.623352	2.668778	2.714000	2.759018	2.803834	2.848448	2.892862	
16.694395	16.676259	16.658251	16.640369	16.622613	16.604983	16.587476	16.570094			

APPENDIX H

Analysis of 9-1-13 Based on the Film Theory

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN



3 9015 03466 1762