

# Evaporation of a liquid droplet on a hot plate

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**Abstract**—The evaporation of a small liquid droplet impinging on a hot stainless steel plate is investigated. The liquids include water, various pure and mixed hydrocarbon fuels with drop sizes ranging from 0.07 to 1.8 mm. The wall temperatures varying from 63 to 605°C cover the entire spectrum of heat transfer characteristics from film evaporation (below boiling temperature) to spheroidal vaporization (above Leidenfrost temperature). A strobe-video visual system is used to record the transient process and to measure the droplet lifetime. Qualitatively, the droplet lifetime curve as a function of wall temperature is similar for all liquids and all drop sizes. The maximum heat transfer rate occurs at 50–60°C above the boiling temperature for all pure liquids and the Leidenfrost heat transfer rate occurs at about 120°C for pure fuels and 180°C for water above the boiling temperature. The maximum evaporation rate can significantly exceed the burning rate of fuel droplets. Visual observations show that beyond the maximum heat transfer point, larger droplets levitate above the surface whereas smaller droplets bounce up and down to many diameters above the surface. Thus for the smallest droplets beyond the Leidenfrost temperature, the droplet lifetime actually increases with wall temperature which is in contrast to the larger droplets. The maximum heat transfer rate is independent of drop sizes for all fuels and shows a small decrease with increasing drop sizes in the case of water. At the Leidenfrost temperature, the data show that the heat transfer rate is maximum at a droplet diameter of approximately 0.5 mm.

## 1. INTRODUCTION

THE EVAPORATION and ignition of liquid droplets impinging on a hot surface are of interest in a number of areas related to various types of combustion engines, cooling systems as well as many fire safety situations. In all of the above applications, the dynamic behavior of the impinging droplets, the heat and mass transfer between droplets and the hot surface, and the ignition characteristics of fuel droplets are important phenomena requiring fundamental investigation.

The first observation of the behavior of a droplet levitated over a hot, horizontal surface was reported by Leidenfrost in 1756 and hence the behavior is known as the Leidenfrost phenomenon. However, a systematic study of the phenomenon began much later with Tamura and Tanasawa [1]. They measured the evaporation lifetime of liquid droplets levitated over a hot surface at atmospheric pressure. As shown in Fig. 1, they classified the dynamics and heat transfer of droplet evaporation into four regimes: film evaporation (a–b), nucleate boiling (b–c), transition (c–d) and spheroidal vaporization ( $>d$ ). The temperature at point b is the boiling temperature and at point d the Leidenfrost temperature, where the heat transfer reaches a local minimum. Of particular interest is point c where heat transfer is maximum. Since then much progress has been made in extending the work of ref. [1] (e.g. see refs. [2–12]). These include exper-

imental studies, as well as theoretical and numerical analyses on the effect of ambient pressure, types of liquids, surface conditions (roughness, temperature and material) and initial drop sizes.

In all of the previous experimental studies, the impinging droplets were produced by a hypodermic syringe. Therefore, the droplet diameters were, in general, larger than 1 mm, which is much larger than the typical droplets in sprays. Because there exist significant effects of droplet sizes on the dynamics and thereby the thermochemistry of a droplet impinging

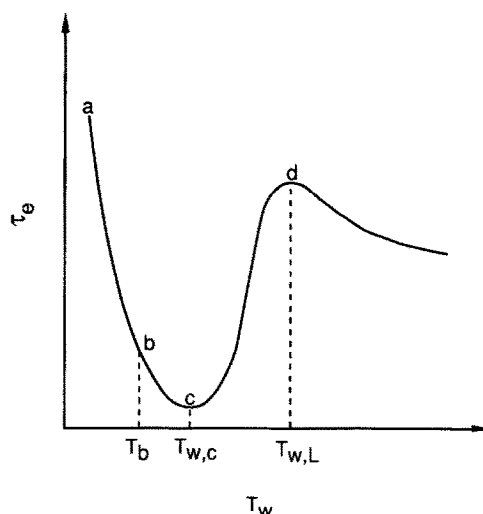


FIG. 1. Schematic of the dependence of evaporation lifetime of a droplet on surface temperature.

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## NOMENCLATURE

$a$	radius	$We$	Weber number
$A_a$	Antonie coefficient, equation (A5)	$y$	distance above hot surface
$B$	mass transfer number	$Y$	mass fraction.
$B_a$	Antonie coefficient, equation (A5)	Greek symbols	
$C_a$	Antonie coefficient, equation (A5)	$\rho$	density
$c_p$	specific heat at constant pressure	$\sigma$	surface tension
$D_g$	diffusion coefficient	$\tau_e$	droplet evaporation lifetime.
$D^*$	equivalent diameter	Subscripts	
$D_0$	initial droplet diameter	a	air
$E_0$	Eotros number, $g(\rho_l - \rho_g)D^{*2}/\sigma$	b	boiling
$f$	frequency	c	critical
$h$	height	d	droplet
$H$	effective heat of vaporization, $L + c_p(T_d - T_x)$	g	gas
$L$	latent heat of vaporization	i	image
$\dot{m}$	mass frequency rate	l	liquid
$M$	molecular weight	L	Leidenfrost
$p$	pressure	v	vapor
$\dot{q}$	heat transfer rate per unit area	w	wall
$T$	temperature	0	initial
$U$	velocity	$\infty$	ambient.
$V$	volume		

on a hot surface, applications of results obtained for larger droplets are limited.

The objective of the present study is to focus on droplets over a wide range of sizes with emphasis on smaller diameters comparable to droplet sizes in sprays. Diameters of the droplets produced in the present experiment range from 0.068 to 1.8 mm. A strobe-video visual system was developed to observe, record and measure the dynamics, evaporation and ignition of droplets.

## 2. EXPERIMENTS

In this section, the experiment and measurement technique will be briefly presented; the detail is described in ref. [13].

Figure 2 shows the schematic of the present exper-

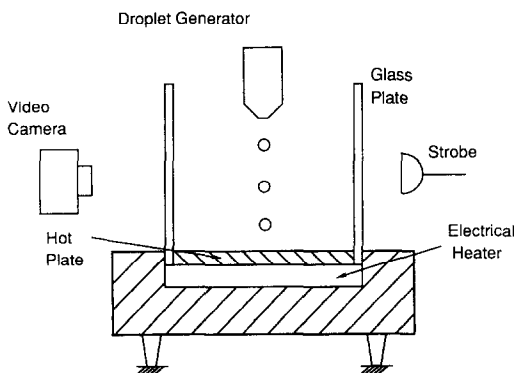


FIG. 2. Schematic of the experimental set-up.

imental set-up. The hot plate consists of a rectangular (156 mm  $\times$  56 mm) 304 stainless steel plate with a thickness of 12.7 mm sitting on top of an electric heater with a power capacity of 450 W. Six pairs of chromel-alumel thin foil (0.013 mm thickness) thermocouples were cemented to both sides of the plate to measure both the surface temperatures as well as heat flux. The sides of the plate and heater are insulated. In addition, natural convection induced by the hot plate is restricted to be two-dimensional by installing two glass plates 90 mm in height along the long sides of the hot plate. As a result of insulation, surface temperature is uniform to within  $\pm 1\%$  in a 20 mm square at the center of the plate. Examples of vertical temperature distribution above the plate along the centerline are shown in Fig. 3. As shown, there was a significant temperature variation within 10 mm above the surface. The vertical velocity profile at the center of the plate obtained by the LDV method is shown in Fig. 4. Figure 4 indicates that the vertical velocity reaches a maximum at about 6–10 mm above the hot plate. Since a small droplet can rebound to about 10 mm above the hot surface, it is expected that there is significant interaction between the droplet and natural convection.

The water-cooled droplet generator can be moved both vertically and horizontally to control precisely the location of the droplet impinging on the surface. Two droplet generators were used. For drop sizes between 0.068 and 0.45 mm the droplets were generated by the deformation of a piezoelectric element. This apparatus was adopted from the one developed by Wang [14]. For a larger droplet (above 0.4 mm

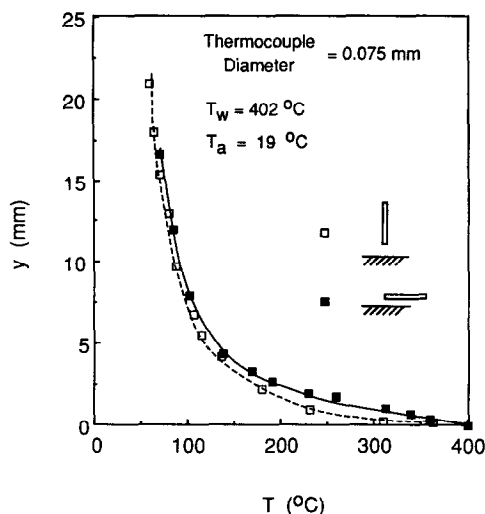


FIG. 3. Temperature profiles above the hot surface at  $T_w = 402^\circ\text{C}$ .

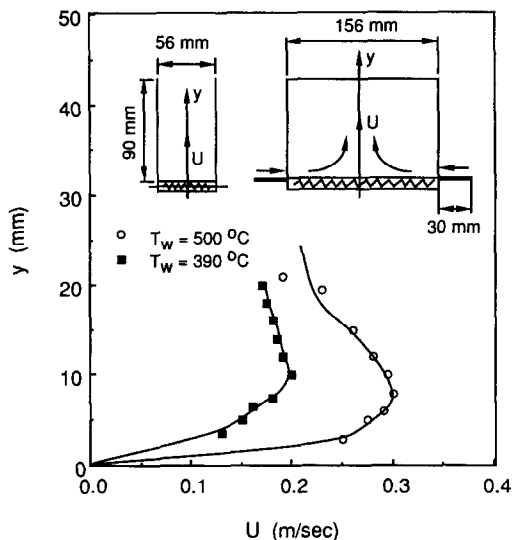


FIG. 4. Velocity profiles above the horizontal hot surface.

diameter), a high voltage (2–8 kV) was applied between a hypodermic needle and the hot plate to dislodge the suspended droplet from the capillary tip. This apparatus was adopted from the one developed in ref. [15]. For the droplet used in this experiment, the Weber number is between 1 and 10 which is much smaller than the threshold of  $We = 30$  for sphericity. In the present study, the droplet generator was fixed at around 26 mm above the plate surface, resulting in a maximum impinging velocity of  $0.4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$  at room temperature. For a smaller droplet, the generating frequency is varied between 0.7 and 22 Hz so that the interval between two droplets is longer than the lifetime of the droplet on the hot surface.

Conventional photographic methods used for most previous experiments on free droplet motion and gase-

fication may not be able to record the history of very small droplets in detail. For example, the residence time for a droplet of 0.1 mm impinging on a hot surface can be as short as 0.1 ms. In order to achieve this kind of resolution, a visual system was developed by using a video camera together with a strobe flash which would slow the time scale of a stable-repeatable process and then record the process on video tape for subsequent analysis. If the frequency of droplet generation and the frequency of the flash is perfectly synchronized, the droplet will appear stationary. If the frequency of the flash is slightly less than the droplet generation frequency, the droplet will appear to descend slowly. One can show that

$$U_i/U_d = f_i/f_d \quad (1)$$

where subscript  $i$  denotes the image as it appears on the video and  $f_i$  is the frequency of the droplet image appearing on the screen which is the difference between droplet generation frequency and strobe frequency. For example, at a droplet generation frequency of  $20 \text{ s}^{-1}$  and a strobe frequency of  $19.9 \text{ s}^{-1}$ , the period of the droplet image appearing on the screen can be as long as 60 s. Furthermore, using the advanced frame control of the video system where the visual images can be displayed frame by frame at  $1/30 \text{ s}$  interval, the actual time interval between two images can be as short as 0.03 ms. Detailed analysis shows that the accuracy of time scale transformation depends only on the accuracy of  $f_d$  which is  $\pm 1\%$ . The magnification of the video camera with various extension tubes and lenses is in the range of 33–205 and the accuracy of the magnification factor is  $\pm 2\%$ .

For larger droplets, the lifetime of droplets is of the order of seconds, thus measurement directly by the video system with a time resolution of  $1/30 \text{ s}$  is satisfactory.

Figures 5–8 are typical examples of using the above techniques to record the history of a heptane droplet impinging on a hot surface at different surface temperatures. Figure 9 shows the typical measurement of trajectories of impinging droplets. Good repeatability of the trajectories for different impinging droplets on the screen demonstrates the capability of the present experimental technique.

### 3. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

The evaporation modes of a liquid droplet impinging on a hot surface have been investigated and droplet lifetimes have been measured. Table 1 is a summary of the range of experimental data including the types of liquids, drop sizes and plate temperatures. All experiments were performed at atmospheric pressure in air. Most of the droplet sizes were between 0.07 and 0.4 mm with some data in water and hexadecane where drop sizes were as large as 1.8 mm.

#### 3.1. Effect of wall temperature

Figures 10–13 show typical experimental results of the evaporation lifetime of hexadecane, heptane,

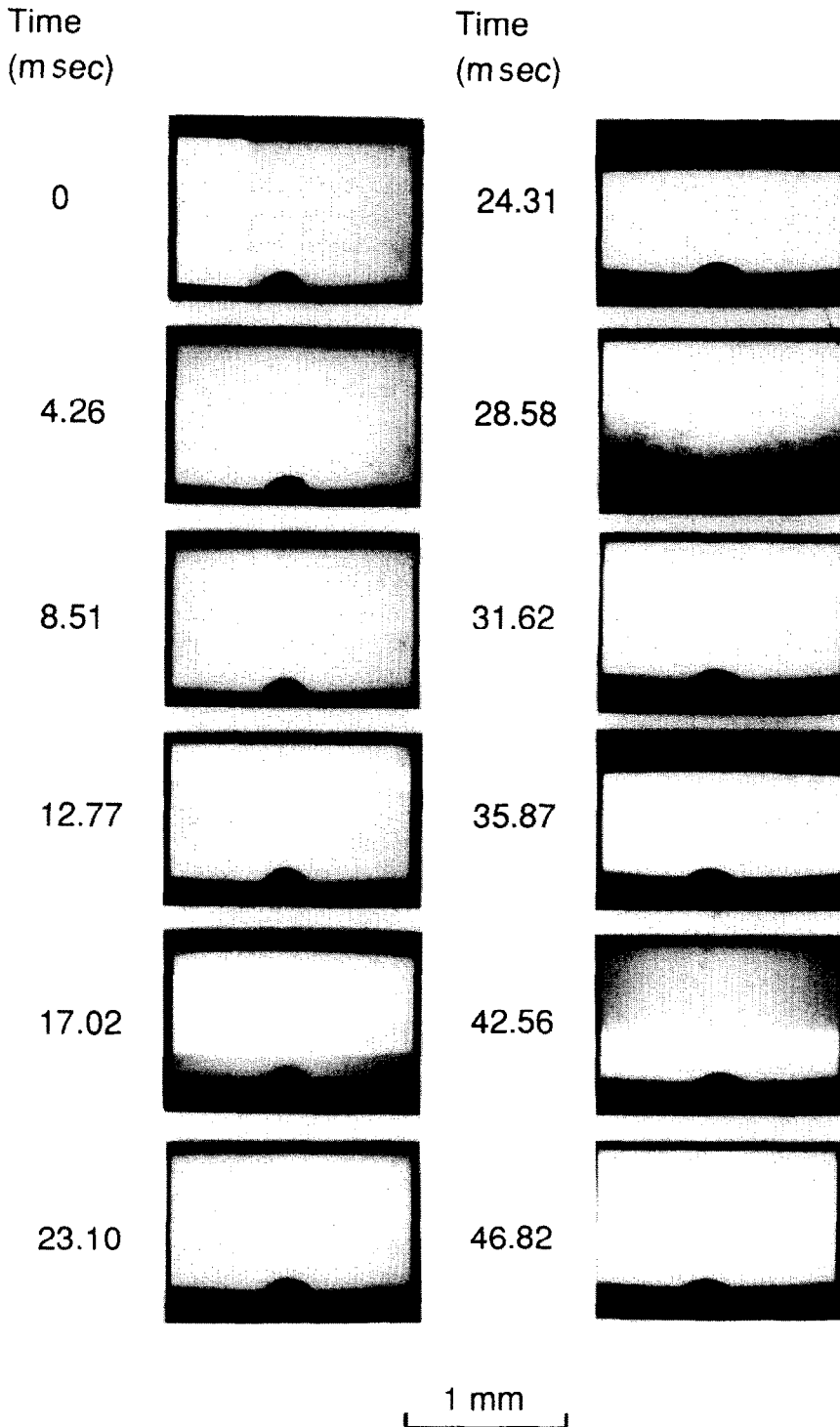


FIG. 5. Time history of a heptane droplet impinging on a hot surface at  $T_w = 95^\circ\text{C}$ .

water droplets and diesel, respectively, as a function of wall temperature and drop sizes. Qualitatively the shapes of the curves are similar to that shown in Fig. 1.

For  $T_w - T_b$  less than  $20\text{--}30^\circ\text{C}$ , droplets always adhere to the wall surface and attain a stable lens shape as shown in Fig. 5. Experimental measurement

of fuel droplets shows that the configuration ratio of the height to the diameter of the 'drop lens' is close to a constant during most of the droplet lifetime except during the initial distortion period. An example of such a measurement for the case of hexadecane is shown in Fig. 14. Because the shape of the droplet resting on a surface depends on the equilibrium

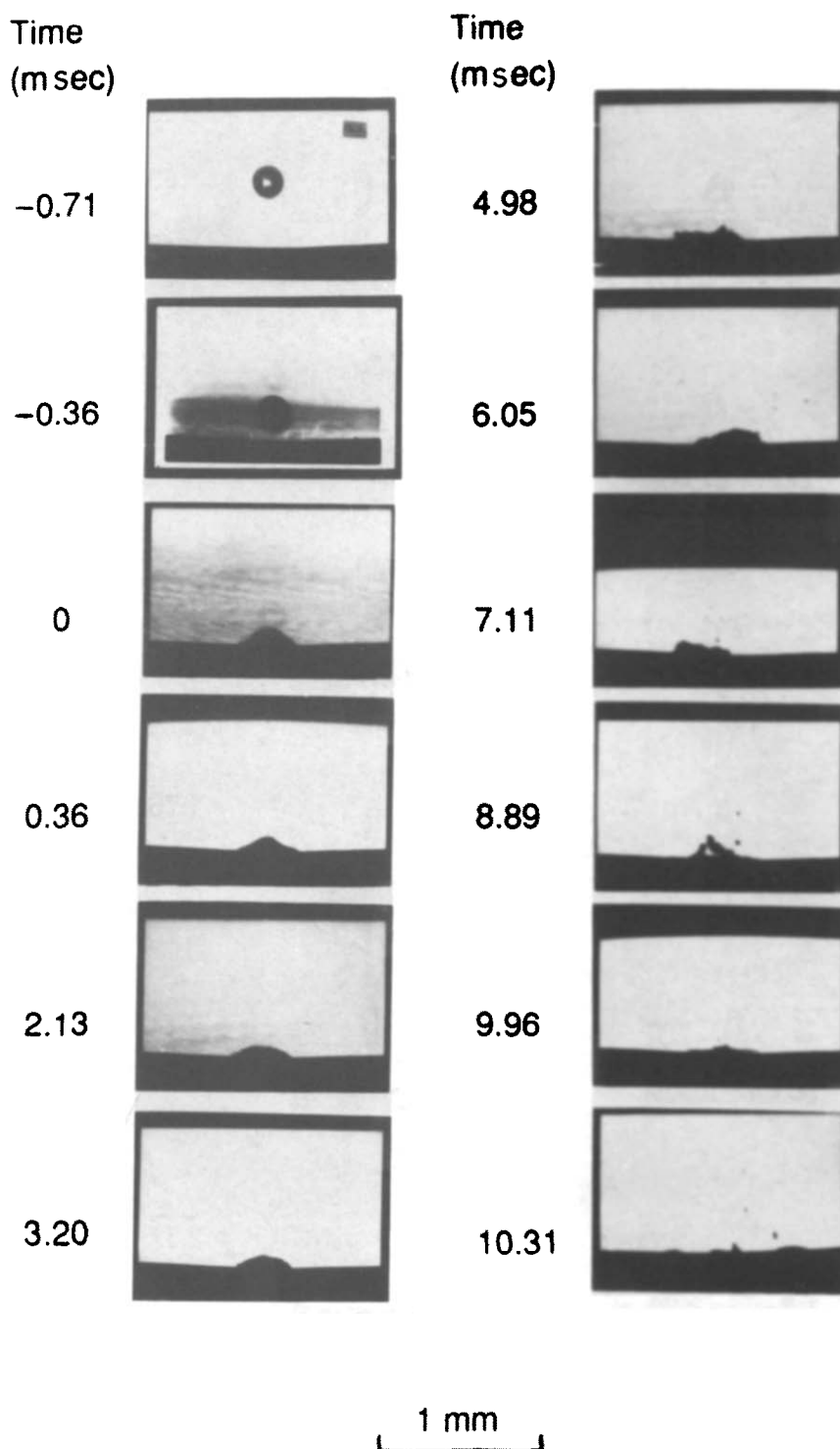


FIG. 6. Time history of a heptane droplet impinging on a hot surface at  $T_w = 141^\circ\text{C}$ .

between gravity and the effects of its surface tension, Fig. 15 shows the correlation of  $h/2a$  as a function of  $E_0$  (Eotvos number) for selected hydrocarbon fuels. For the case of water, ref. [12] shows that for a larger droplet the wetted surface remains constant for most of the droplet lifetime. In this regime, heat conduction is the dominant mode of heat transfer. As a result,  $\tau_c$

decreases rapidly with an increase in  $T_w$ . This is because both the temperature difference between the surface and the liquid and the wetted area of the droplet increase with  $T_w$ .

With increasing  $\Delta T = T_w - T_b$ , heat transfer intensifies notably due to liquid boiling. As  $T_w$  reaches a value of about  $50\text{--}60^\circ\text{C}$  above boiling which we

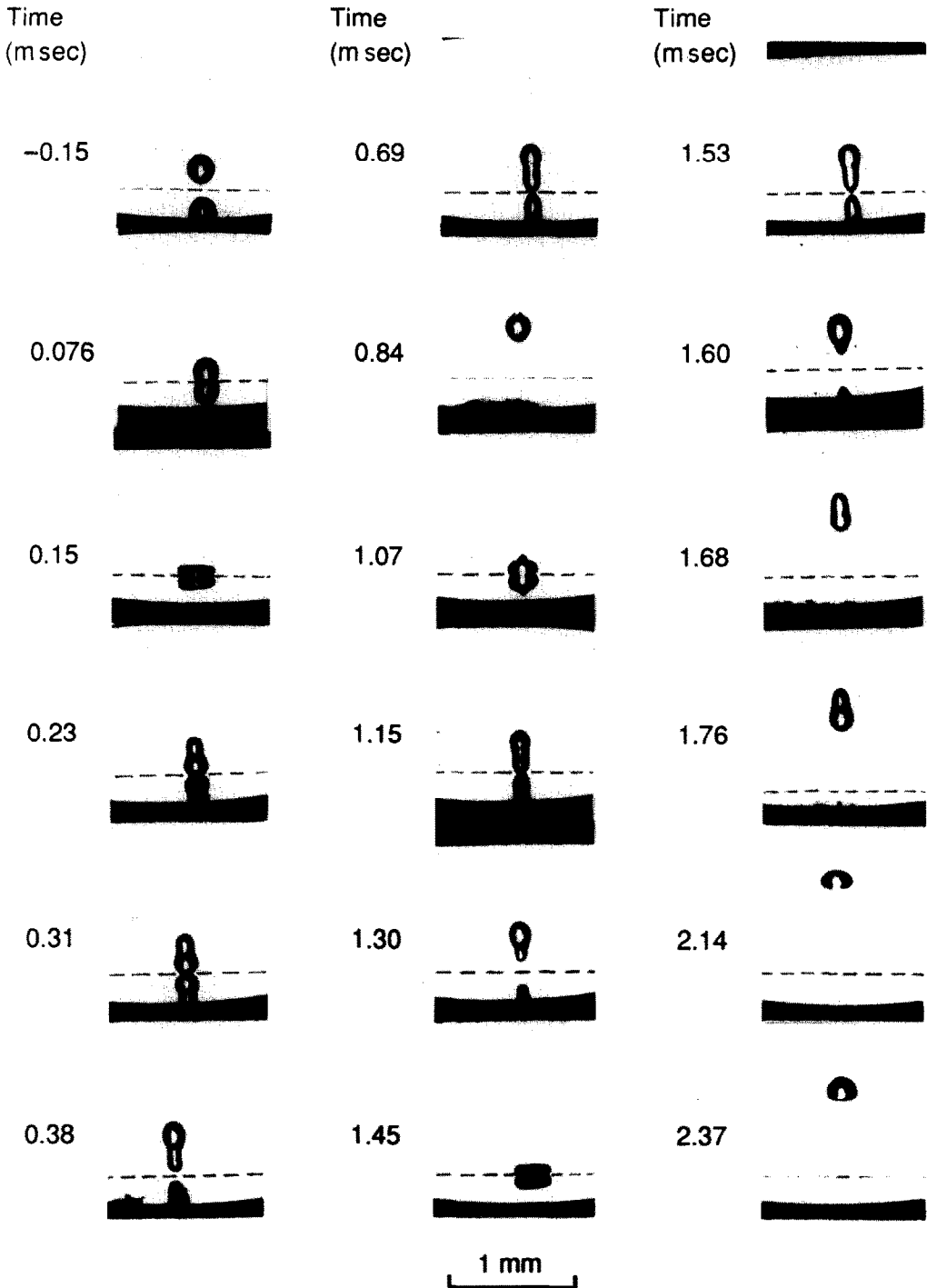


FIG. 7. Time history of a heptane droplet impinging on a hot surface at  $T_w = 155^\circ\text{C}$ .

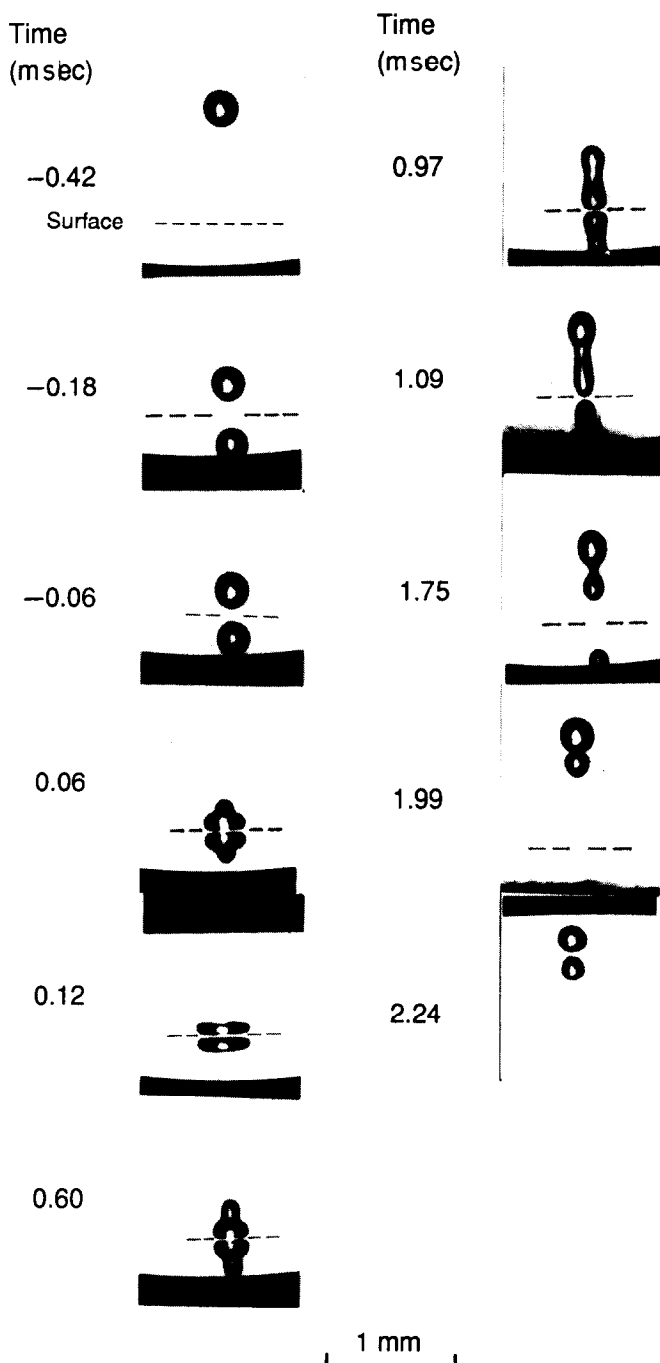
denote as  $T_{w,c}$  rapid local boiling at the liquid–solid interface causes droplet distortion and ultimately disintegration, as shown in Fig. 6. The result of the disintegration of the droplet is almost instantaneous evaporation of all the liquid. Thus the evaporation lifetime  $\tau_e$  approaches a minimum value which is of the order of several milliseconds depending on drop sizes and type of liquids. In this situation heat transfer rate reaches a maximum which can exceed the value

of droplet burning in normal atmosphere. For example, the maximum evaporation rate, which can be estimated from  $D_0^2/\tau_e$  is  $4.4 \text{ mm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$  for a heptane droplet of 0.21 mm diameter and  $T_{w,c}$  of  $145^\circ\text{C}$ , while the burning rate constant of a heptane droplet is only  $1 \text{ mm}^2 \text{ s}^{-1}$ . The values of  $T_{w,c}$  of the present experiment as shown in Table 1 are generally about  $10^\circ\text{C}$  above the values shown in ref. [1].

For  $T_w$  exceeding  $T_{w,c}$ ,  $\tau_e$  increases drastically

Table 1. Summary of experimental data

Liquid	$D_0$ (mm)	$T_w$ ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	Data size	$T_b$ ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	$T_{w,c}$ ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )	$T_{w,L}$ ( $^{\circ}\text{C}$ )
Heptane	0.068–0.314	63–450	262	98	155	200–220
Octanol	0.142	148–550	72	195	258	295–315
Mesitylene	0.152	90–532	62	163	232	270–290
Hexadecane	0.094–1.40	166–570	335	287	335	390–430
Water	0.25–1.80	71–520	256	100	155	280–310
Diesel	0.191–0.422	200–605	230	—	356	430–440
Octanol (90%) Heptane (10%)	0.105–0.242	110–550	284	—	270	310–330

FIG. 8. Time history of a heptane droplet impinging on a hot surface at  $T_w = 605^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

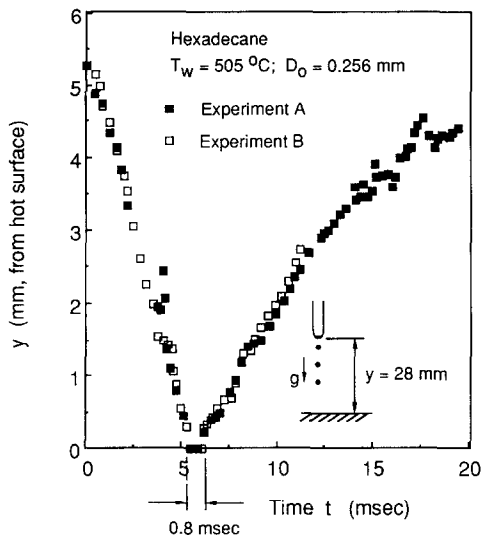


FIG. 9. Typical impinging droplet trajectory.

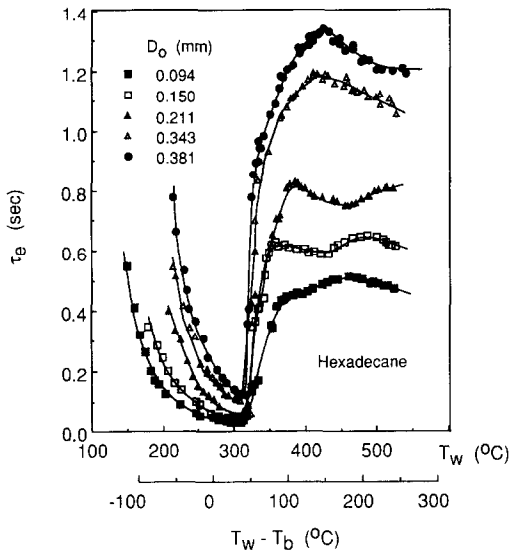


FIG. 10. Dependence of  $\tau_e$  on  $D_0$ ,  $T_w$  and  $(T_w - T_b)$  for hexadecane droplets.

because the impinging droplet does not adhere to the surface but will start to bounce with increasing  $T_w$ . Observation shows that the larger droplets (diameter above 1 mm) barely bounce above the surface with a thin vapor film between the droplet and the surface. The dominant heat transfer mechanism is conduction. For a smaller droplet, however, diffusion-convection between the droplet and the environment plays a more important role because the droplet bounces many droplet diameters above the surface, as shown in Fig. 7. When  $T_w - T_b$  approaches 100–120°C,  $\tau_e$  attains a local maximum value in the transition mode for liquid fuels. For water, the local maximum  $\tau_e$  corresponds to  $T_w - T_b$  of approximately 180–210°C.

It has been found that for a larger droplet ( $D_0 > 1$  mm) the Leidenfrost temperature  $T_{w,L}$  is equal to 90–120°C above the boiling point of liquid fuels and 180–210°C above the boiling point for water. Thus the present data shows that the Leidenfrost temperature is mostly independent of drop sizes even for a mixture of fuels. The values of  $T_{w,L}$  as shown in Table 1 for liquid fuels are generally 20°C higher than the values shown in ref. [1].

When  $T_w > T_{w,L}$ , the general trend for  $\tau_c$  is to decrease as  $T_w$  increases for a larger droplet. This is because for a larger droplet, the droplet floats above the surface with a gap which is basically independent of  $T_w$  as long as  $T_w > T_{w,L}$ . Thus as  $T_w$  increases, both conduction and radiation heat transfer increase resulting in a decrease in  $\tau_c$ .

For a smaller droplet which can bounce up and down many times and many diameters above the hot surface, the situation is complicated by the interactions of the droplet with the hot surface as well as the natural convection above the hot horizontal surface. As  $T_w$  increases, the induced air velocity above the hot surface increases which tends to keep the droplet away from the surface. Thus for a smaller droplet,  $\tau_c$  tends to decrease only slowly or not at all with increasing  $T_w$ . In this situation,  $T_{w,L}$  is not sharply defined. If the maximum induced air velocity reaches the terminal velocity of the falling droplet, the droplet may be stagnated much above the surface where the air temperature is quite low as shown in Fig. 3. As a result, the evaporation lifetime of the droplet may actually increase with  $T_w$  as shown in Figs. 10 and 11.

At very high  $T_w$ , mass efflux from evaporation is sufficient to prevent the droplet from physically touching the hot surface. This phenomenon is shown in the photographs of Fig. 8.

### 3.2. Effect of liquid type

To compare the lifetime of droplets of different liquids, Figs. 16 and 17 show typical data of  $\tau_c$  vs  $(T_w - T_b)$  of the same droplet size. The data show that  $(T_{w,c} - T_b)$  and  $(T_{w,L} - T_b)$  are about 55 and 110°C, respectively, for all fuels. Figure 16 shows that the maximum  $\tau_c$  at  $T_{w,L}$  is within 15% of each other for all fuels. This is because both the heat capacity and latent heat of vaporization are about the same for most hydrocarbon fuels. Since at  $T_{w,L}$  evaporation time dominates the heating time, therefore  $\tau_c$  remains the same for all fuels. On the other hand at  $T_{w,c}$ , heating time is more important because the droplet will disintegrate shortly after significant boiling occurs at the liquid-solid interface. Since heating time depends on both heat capacity and boiling temperature of the liquid, therefore fuels with the lowest boiling temperature would have the shortest  $\tau_c$  as shown in Fig. 16 for heptane.

In the case of a mixture of heptane (10%)/octanol (90%), the data in Fig. 17 show that at  $T_{w,L}$ ,  $\tau_c$  of the mixture is slightly lower than both pure heptane and octanol, whereas at  $T_{w,c}$ ,  $\tau_c$  of the mixture is the same



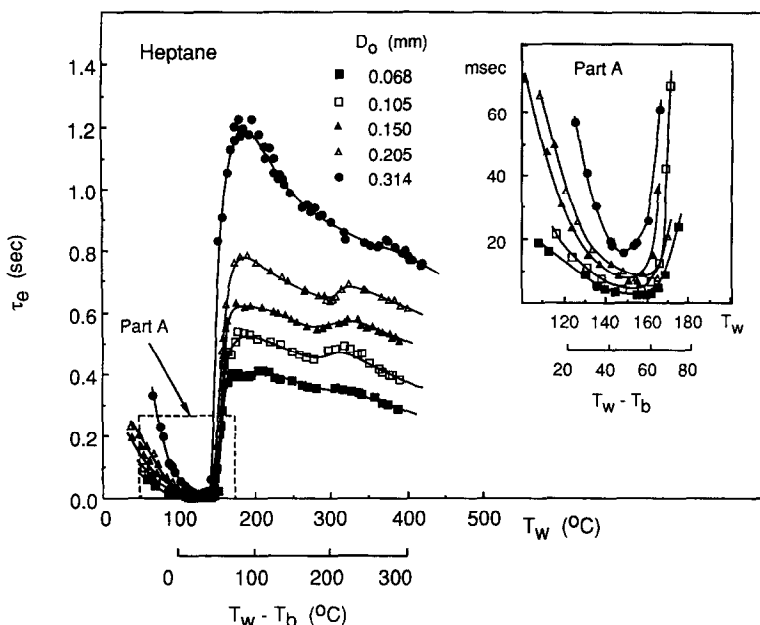


FIG. 11. Dependence of  $\tau_e$  on  $D_0$ ,  $T_w$  and  $(T_w - T_b)$  for heptane droplets.

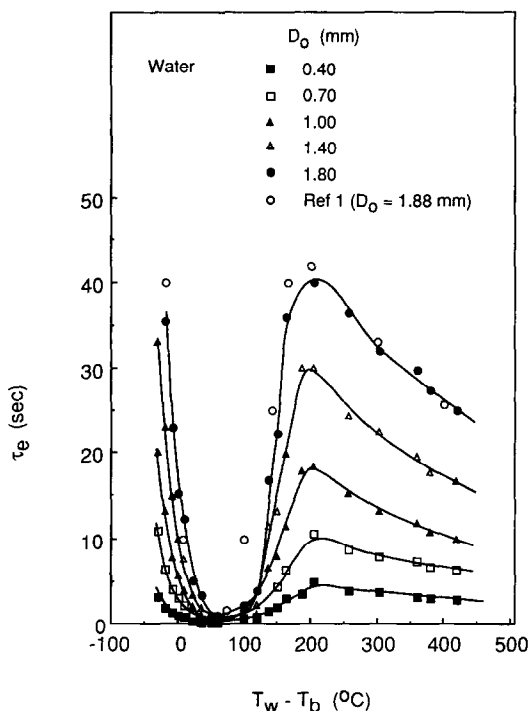


FIG. 12. Dependence of  $\tau_e$  on  $D_0$  and  $(T_w - T_b)$  for water droplets.

as heptane. This is expected because the  $T_{w,L}$  of the mixture is much higher than the  $T_{w,L}$  of heptane and is quite close to the  $T_{w,L}$  of octanol, thus the enhanced evaporation of heptane results in a lower  $\tau_e$ . Similarly because  $T_{w,c}$  of the mixture is much higher than the corresponding  $T_{w,c}$  of heptane, rapid boiling of the

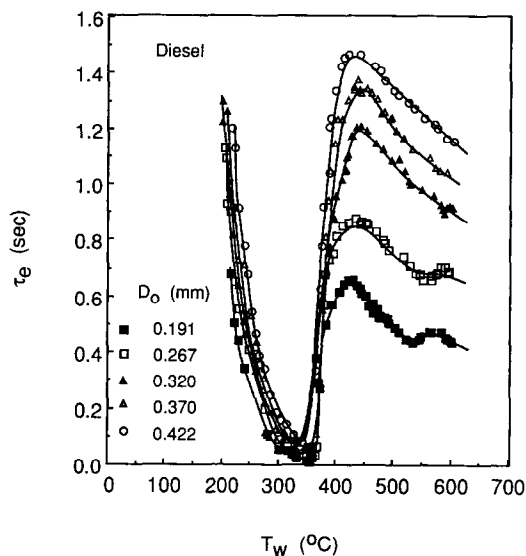


FIG. 13. Dependence of  $\tau_e$  on  $D_0$  and  $T_w$  for diesel fuel droplets.

heptane in the mixture would cause a rapid disintegration of the droplet.

Even for a blended fuel such as diesel fuel as shown in Fig. 13, the behavior of the  $\tau_e$  vs  $T_w$  curves is very similar to the pure fuel. For example, the difference between  $T_{w,L}$  and  $T_{w,c}$  for diesel fuel is between 75 and 85°C which is well within the range of other pure hydrocarbon fuels.

Even though the  $\tau_e$  vs  $(T_w - T_b)$  curves are similar for hydrocarbon fuels, the curve of  $\tau_e$  vs  $(T_w - T_b)$  for water droplets is different. Figure 12 shows that for water droplets  $T_w - T_b$  is around 180°C compared

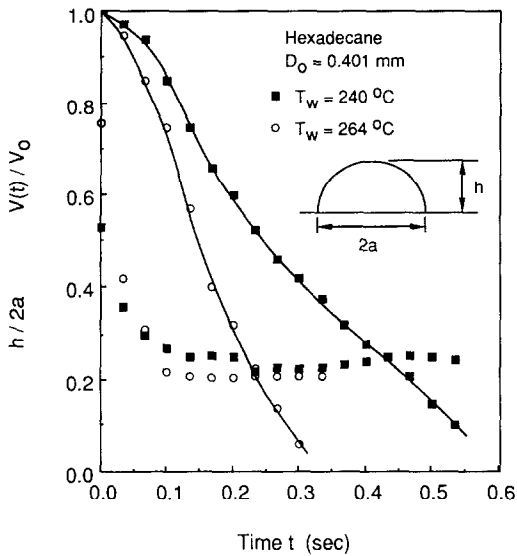


FIG. 14. Configuration ratio ( $h/2a$ ) and volume variation ratio of droplets adhering to the hot surface.

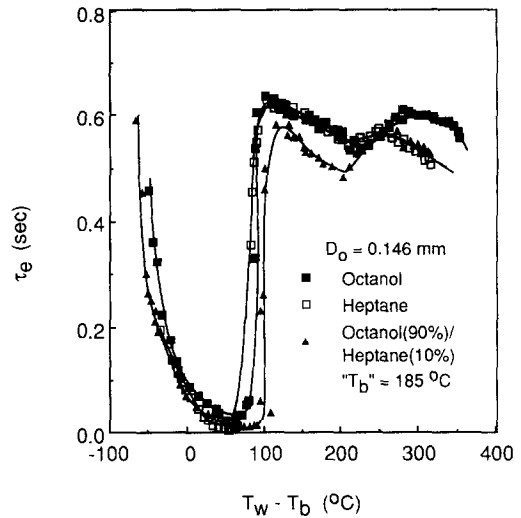


FIG. 17. Comparison of pure and mixed fuels of the same droplet size.

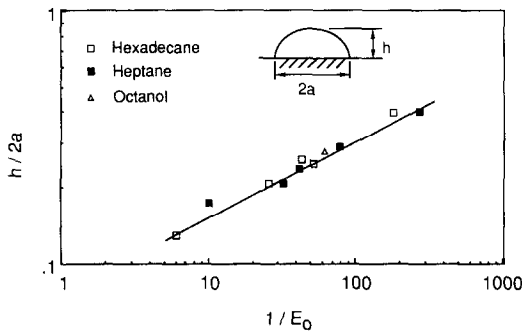


FIG. 15. Correlation of the configuration ratio ( $h/2a$ ) as a function of Eotvos number  $[g(\rho_l - \rho_g)D^{*2}/\sigma]$  where  $D^*$  is the equivalent diameter.

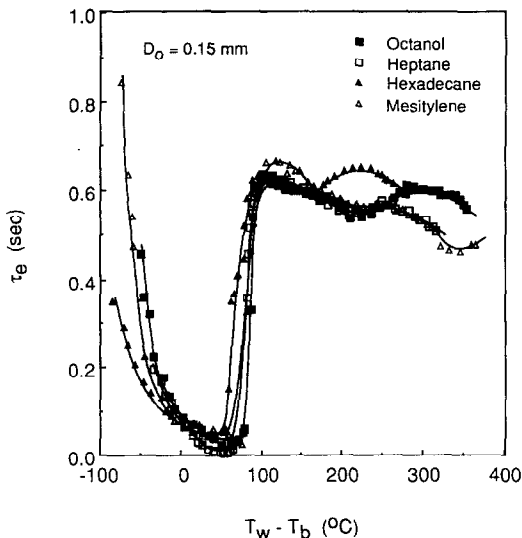


FIG. 16. Comparison of various fuels of the same droplet size.

with 120°C for hydrocarbon, and the transition from  $T_{w,c}$  to  $T_{w,L}$  for water droplets is much wider than that for hydrocarbon fuels. For the same drop size, the maximum  $\tau_e$  for water is much larger than hydrocarbon fuels reflecting the larger value of the heat of vaporization of water.

3.3. Effect of droplet size

The previous data of droplet lifetime as a function of wall temperature can be replotted to show the effect of droplet sizes at a constant wall temperature. Typical plots for hexadecane, heptane and water are shown in Figs. 18–20, respectively. In a log–log plot of  $\tau_e$  vs  $D_0$ , the slope of the curve represents the exponential factor  $n$  of  $D_0$ . Thus the data show that in all cases where the droplets adhere to the surface (film evaporation and nucleate boiling) or levitate close to the surface (larger droplet), the exponential factor  $n$  is between 1 and 2. For the smaller droplets in the transition and spheroidal evaporation modes,  $n < 1$ . The exact values of  $n$  depend on drop sizes, wall temperatures and the type of liquids.

It is well known from the  $D^2$ -law that for an isolated droplet evaporating in a quiescent atmosphere,  $\tau_e$  is proportional to  $D_0^2$ . Thus the experimental data shows that the  $D^2$ -law is not valid for droplet–wall interaction.

In the case where the droplets either adhere to the surface or levitate close to the surface, heat transfer from the wall dominates. Thus, in a steady state,  $n$  should be close to 1. In a real situation, the unsteady effect may be important, radiative heat transfer and heat transfer from the cap to the droplet may be substantial, rendering  $n$  to be between 1 and 2.

A plausible reason why the smaller droplets in the transition and spheroidal modes have  $n < 1$  is because

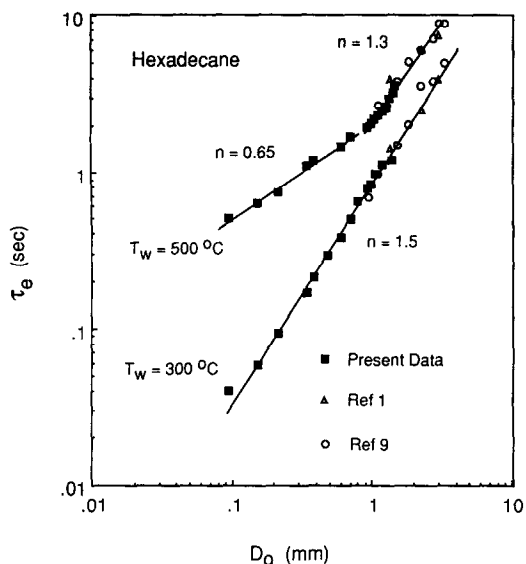


FIG. 18. Logarithmic plots of  $\tau_e$  vs  $D_0$  for hexadecane droplets.

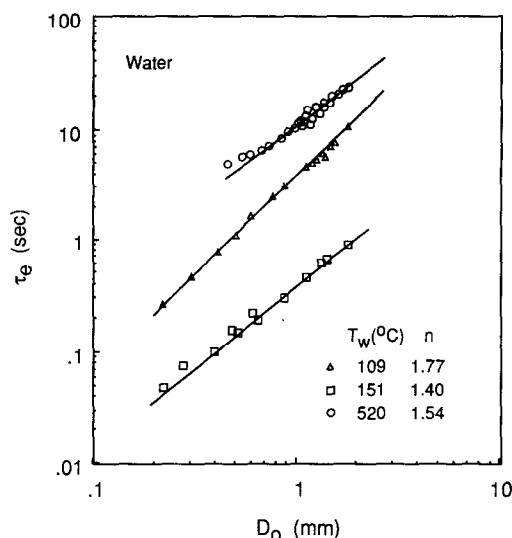


FIG. 20. Logarithmic plots of  $\tau_e$  vs  $D_0$  for water droplets.

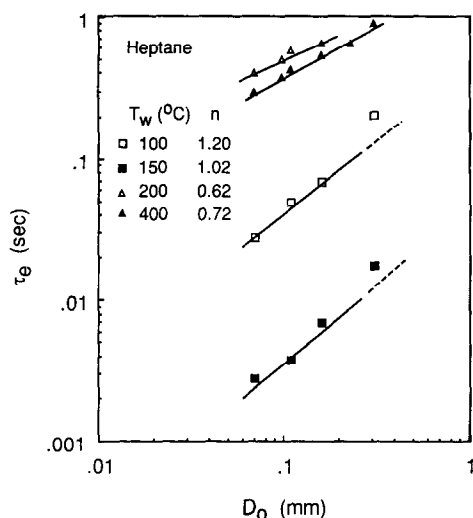


FIG. 19. Logarithmic plots of  $\tau_e$  vs  $D_0$  for heptane droplets.

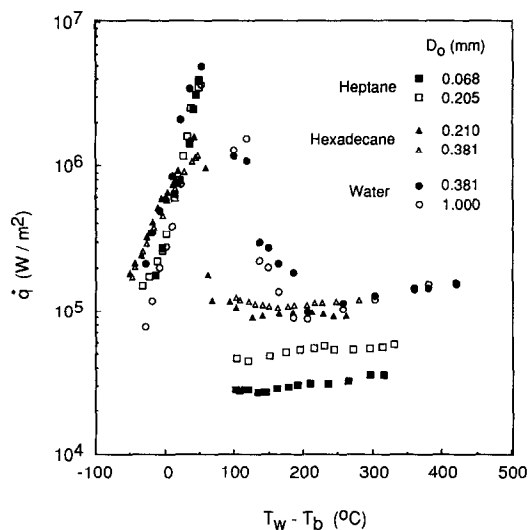


FIG. 21. Dependence of heat transfer rate  $\dot{q}$  of heptane, hexadecane and water droplets on  $(T_w - T_b)$ .

there is a significant vertical temperature gradient near the wall surface. The smaller droplets which can bounce up to tens of diameters above the surface (function of diameters) experience a much cooler environment than those closer to the surface, thus it takes a relatively longer time to evaporate the smaller droplets. The net effect is the exponential factor  $n < 1$ .

Figure 18 shows a comparison of present data with that obtained by Tamura and Tanasawa [1] and Mizomoto *et al.* [9]. The results for larger droplets agree with each other.

### 3.4. Heat transfer rate

For the present problem, the average specific heat transfer rate  $\dot{q}$ , which is defined as the amount of heat

transfer per unit cross-sectional area of the droplet per unit time, can be expressed as

$$\dot{q} = (2D_0\rho_1 H)/(3\tau_e) \tag{2}$$

where  $H = L + C_p(T_d - T_\infty)$  is the effective heat of evaporation and the calculation of  $T_d$  is shown in the Appendix.

Figure 21 shows the dependence of  $\dot{q}$  on wall temperature above boiling  $(T_w - T_b)$  and initial drop size  $D_0$  for heptane, hexadecane and water. As expected the data demonstrate that the maximum heat transfer rate  $\dot{q}_{max}$ , corresponding to the minimum lifetime of the droplet, appear at a wall temperature 50–60°C above the boiling point for all three types of liquids. Figure 21 also shows the  $\dot{q}_{min}$  at Leidenfrost tem-

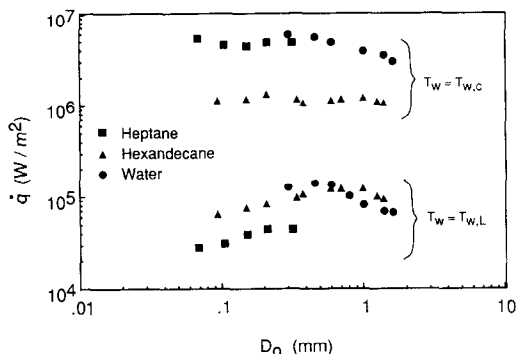


FIG. 22. Dependence of heat transfer rate  $\dot{q}$  on droplet diameter  $D_0$  at  $T_{w,c}$  and  $T_{w,L}$ .

peratures which are roughly about 120°C above boiling for the fuels and 180°C above boiling for water.

To examine a little closer  $\dot{q}_{max}$  at  $T_{w,c}$  and  $\dot{q}_{min}$  at  $T_{w,L}$ , we have plotted in Fig. 22  $\dot{q}$  as a function of  $D_0$  at  $T_{w,c}$  and  $T_{w,L}$ . The data show that  $\dot{q}_{max}$  at  $T_{w,c}$  for hexadecane is significantly lower than that for heptane and water. This is because basically  $\dot{q}_{max}$  depends on the transient heating time of the droplet residing on the surface to be heated to the boiling temperature of the droplet. Since the boiling temperature of hexadecane is much higher than heptane and water, therefore  $(\tau_c)_{min}$  is also higher resulting in lower  $\dot{q}_{max}$ . Figure 22 also shows that  $\dot{q}_{max}$  is independent of  $D_0$  for heptane and hexadecane which implies that  $n$  is equal to or close to 1. The water data shows a decreasing  $\dot{q}_{max}$  with  $D_0$  indicating that  $n$  is larger than one. At the Leidenfrost temperature  $T_{w,L}$ , for a larger droplet  $n$  is always larger than one, thus  $\dot{q}$  decreases with increasing  $D_0$ . For smaller droplets where droplets can bounce ten or more diameters from the wall,  $n$  is smaller than one and thus  $\dot{q}$  increases with increasing  $D_0$ . It appears that the maximum  $\dot{q}$  occurs at about 0.5 mm diameter. At  $T_{w,L}$  it appears that  $\dot{q}$  for heptane is lower than that for hexadecane and water. A plausible explanation is that because  $T_{w,L}$  of hexadecane which is about 400°C is much higher than that of heptane, which is at about 210°C, therefore radiation heat transfer renders  $\dot{q}$  of hexadecane to be higher. In the case of water, because of the large heat of vaporization, the effect of vaporization is much less. Thus, for the same drop size, the water droplet will bounce with a much smaller amplitude thus experiencing a much higher temperature environment. As a result,  $\dot{q}$  for water is higher than that for heptane at  $T_{w,L}$ .

#### 4. CONCLUSION

The evaporation of a small liquid droplet impinging on a hot stainless steel plate has been investigated. The evaporation lifetime curves as a function of wall temperatures for several fuels, mixture of fuels and water have been obtained. Qualitatively the droplet

lifetime curves as a function of wall temperature are similar for all liquids and all drop sizes. Quantitatively there are significant differences. The maximum heat transfer rate, which can significantly exceed the value of the burning droplet, occurs at 50–60°C above the boiling temperature for all pure liquids and Leidenfrost heat transfer rate, occurs at about 120°C for fuels and 180°C for water above boiling. Physically, beyond the maximum heat transfer point, larger droplets levitate above the surface whereas smaller droplets bounce up and down to many droplet diameters above the surface. Thus for the smallest droplets beyond the Leidenfrost temperature,  $\tau_c$  actually increases with wall temperature which is in contrast to the larger droplets. The maximum heat transfer rate is independent of drop sizes for fuels and shows a slight decrease with increasing drop sizes in the case of water. At the Leidenfrost temperature, the data shows that the heat transfer rate is maximum at  $D_0$  of approximately 0.5 mm.

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$$B = \frac{Y_d - Y_\infty}{1 - Y_d} \quad (\text{A2})$$

where  $Y$  is the mass fraction.

For the present calculation, we shall assume that  $\dot{m}$  can be calculated from the measured droplet lifetime  $\tau_c$  by

$$\dot{m} = \rho_1 \pi D_0^3 / 6\tau_c. \quad (\text{A3})$$

Substituting equations (A2) and (A3) into equation (A1) and with  $Y_\infty = 0$ , one can then solve for the mass fraction of the vapor at the droplet surface in terms of  $\tau_c$  and  $D_0$ . By assuming the mixtures of vapor and air as ideal gases, one can then solve for vapor pressure at the droplet surface as

$$p_{v,d} = (p_t Y_d) / (M_v) [Y_d / M_v + (1 - Y_d) / M_a] \quad (\text{A4})$$

where  $p_t$  is the total pressure and  $M$  the molecular weight. Finally, the droplet temperature is calculated from the Antoine equation

$$T_d = \frac{B_a}{A_a - \ln p_{v,d}} - C_a \quad (\text{A5})$$

where  $A_a$ ,  $B_a$  and  $C_a$  are Antoine coefficients as in ref. [16].

#### APPENDIX. CALCULATION OF DROPLET TEMPERATURE ( $T_d$ )

For quasi-steady spherical droplet evaporation in a quiescent atmosphere, the total mass flow rate can be shown to be

$$\dot{m} = \pi d_0 \rho_g \ln(1 + B) \quad (\text{A1})$$

where  $D_0$  is the binary diffusion coefficient,  $\rho$  the density and  $B$  the mass transfer number defined as

#### EVAPORATION D'UNE GOUTTELETTE DE LIQUIDE SUR UNE PLAQUE CHAUDE

**Résumé**—On étudie l'évaporation d'une gouttelette liquide frappant une plaque chaude en acier inoxydable. Les liquides sont l'eau, des combustibles hydrocarbures purs ou en mélange avec des tailles de goutte allant de 0,07 à 1,8 mm. Les températures de paroi varient de 63 à 605°C, couvrant le spectre complet des caractéristiques de transfert thermique entre l'évaporation en film (au dessous de la température d'ébullition) jusqu'à la vaporisation sphéroïdale (au dessus de la température Leidenfrost). Un système de visualisation stroboscopique-vidéo est utilisé pour enregistrer le mécanisme variable et pour mesurer la durée de vie de la goutte. Qualitativement, la courbe de durée de vie en fonction de la température de paroi est semblable pour tous les liquides et toutes les tailles de goutte. La densité de flux maximale se produit à 50-60° au dessus de la température d'ébullition pour tous les liquides purs et le point de Leidenfrost à environ 120°C pour les combustibles purs et 180° pour l'eau au dessus de la température d'ébullition. Le taux d'évaporation maximal peut excéder la vitesse de combustion des gouttelettes. Les visualisations montrent qu'au delà du point de transfert thermique maximal, les plus grosses gouttes se soulèvent au dessus de la surface tandis que les plus petites sautent et descendent de plusieurs diamètres. La densité de flux thermique maximale est indépendante des dimensions des gouttes pour tous les combustibles et elle décroît légèrement avec un accroissement de taille dans le cas de l'eau. A la température de Leidenfrost, les données montrent que la densité de flux thermique est maximale pour un diamètre de 0,5 mm environ.

#### VERDAMPFUNG EINES FLÜSSIGKEITSTRÖPFCHENS AUF EINER HEISSEN PLATTE

**Zusammenfassung**—Die Verdampfung eines kleinen Flüssigkeitströpfchens auf einer heißen Platte aus rostfreiem Stahl wird untersucht. Als Flüssigkeiten werden Wasser sowie verschiedene reine Kohlenwasserstoffe und Kohlenwasserstoffgemische verwendet. Die Tröpfchengröße liegt im Bereich von 0,07 bis 1,8 mm. Die Wandtemperaturen liegen im Bereich zwischen 63 bis 605°C und decken den gesamten Bereich der Wärmeübergangs-Mechanismen von der Filmverdunstung (unterhalb der Siedetemperatur) bis zur Verdampfung von Flüssigkeitskügelchen (oberhalb der Leidenfrost-Temperatur) ab. Ein Stroboskop/Video-System wird verwendet, um den zeitlich veränderlichen Prozeß aufzuzeichnen und um die Lebensdauer der Tröpfchen zu messen. Die Lebensdauerkurve der Tröpfchen in Abhängigkeit von der Wandtemperatur ist für alle Flüssigkeiten und für alle Tröpfchengrößen ähnlich. Der beste Wärmeübergang tritt bei allen reinen Flüssigkeiten 50-60°C oberhalb der Siedetemperatur auf, das Leidenfrost-Phänomen wird bei reinen, brennbaren Stoffen ungefähr 120°C und bei Wasser ungefähr 180°C oberhalb der Siedetemperatur beobachtet. Die maximale Verdampfungsrate kann die Verbrennungsrate von Kohlenwasserstofftröpfchen deutlich übersteigen. Visuelle Beobachtungen zeigen, daß oberhalb des Punktes für maximalen Wärmeübergang größere Tropfen auf der Oberfläche tanzen, während kleine Tröpfchen sich um bis zu mehrere Tröpfchen-Durchmesser über der Platte auf- und abbewegen. Das bedeutet, daß oberhalb der Leidenfrost-Temperatur die Lebensdauer kleinster Tröpfchen mit der Wandtemperatur zunimmt—im Gegensatz zu größeren Tropfen. Der maximale Wärmeübergang ist für alle brennbaren Stoffe von der Tropfengröße unabhängig und zeigt bei Wasser eine leichte Abnahme mit wachsender Tropfengröße. Bei der Leidenfrost-Temperatur zeigen die Meßwerte ein Maximum des Wärmeübergangs bei einem Tropfendurchmesser von ungefähr 0,5 mm.

## ИСПАРЕНИЕ КАПЛИ ЖИДКОСТИ НА НАГРЕТОЙ ПЛАСТИНЕ

**Аннотация**—Исследуется испарение небольшой капли жидкости, ударяющейся о нагретую пластину из нержавеющей стали. В качестве жидкостей используются вода, различные чистые и смешанные углеводородные топлива с размером капли в диапазоне от 0,07 до 1,8 мм. Температуры стенки, изменяющиеся в пределах 63–605°C, охватывают весь спектр характеристик теплопереноса, от пленочного (ниже температуры кипения) до сфероидального испарения (выше точки Лейденфроста). Для регистрации нестационарного процесса и измерения времени жизни капли применяется стробоскопическая телевизионная визуализация. Кривая времени жизни капли как функция температуры стенки качественно аналогична для всех жидкостей и размеров капель. Максимальная скорость теплопереноса наблюдается при температурах, превышающих на 50–60°C точку кипения чистых жидкостей, а скорость теплопереноса, характерная для точки Лейденфроста, наблюдается при температурах, превышающих на 120°C точку кипения чистых топлив и на 180°C—точку кипения воды. Максимальная скорость испарения может значительно превышать скорость горения капель топлива. Визуальные наблюдения показывают, что за пределами точки максимального теплопереноса более крупные капли всплывают над поверхностью, в то время как мелкие подскакивают вверх на много диаметров над поверхностью и опускаются вниз. Таким образом, для капель минимальных размеров при температуре выше температуры Лейденфроста время жизни фактически возрастает с ростом температуры стенки, в случае же более крупных капель наблюдается обратная картина. Максимальная скорость теплопереноса для всех топлив не зависит от размеров капель и несколько снижается с увеличением их размеров в случае воды. Данные, полученные при температуре Лейденфроста, показывают, что скорость теплопереноса достигает максимума при диаметре капли, равном, примерно, 0,5 мм.