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## Liquid film boiling on plain and structured tubular surfaces with and without hydrophobic coating

Pu-Hang Jin<sup>a</sup>, Ibrahim Mostafa<sup>a</sup>, Peng He<sup>a</sup>, Zhuo Zhang<sup>a</sup>, Chuang-Yao Zhao<sup>b</sup>, Wen-Tao Ji<sup>a</sup>, Wen-Quan Tao<sup>a,\*</sup><sup>a</sup> Key Laboratory of Thermo-Fluid Science and Engineering of Ministry of Education, Xi'an Jiaotong University, Xi'an 710049, PR China<sup>b</sup> School of Building Services Science and Engineering, Xi'an University of Architecture and Technology, Xi'an 710055, PR China

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## ABSTRACT

In this study, thin liquid film boiling heat transfer characteristics of R134a on a plain and two finned tubular surfaces were experimentally investigated. The dependence of heat transfer coefficient (HTC) on the composite effects of microstructure and hydrophobic coating was characterized. It is found that HTC increases monotonously with increasing heat flux until reaching a threshold heat flux (THF), beyond which the HTC starts to descend. The THF is highest for the plain surface and lowest for the boiling-enhanced surface due to the effect of reentrant cavities. The boiling-enhanced surface shows larger HTC under low heat fluxes (less than  $60 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ ) compared with the condensation-enhanced counterpart, whereas the latter one is superior when the heat flux exceeds  $60 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ . Hydrophobic coating can substantially intensify the liquid film boiling heat transfer on boiling-enhanced finned surface with reentrant cavities. The intensification of heat transfer is more prominent in cases of high heat flux.

## 1. Introduction

Boiling is ubiquitous in heat dissipation devices due to its high efficiency brought out by the large latent heat of phase change [1]. The boiling heat transfer intensification is one of the dynamic research topics to meet the challenges of the cooling requirement in electronics industry, petrochemical engineering, refrigeration and power generation system, etc. [2]. In large-scale water chillers, tubular surfaces are always served as the heat transfer interface of flooded or falling-film type evaporators [3]. Taking a falling-film evaporator as an example, chilled water goes inside the tubes and refrigerant evaporates at the tubes' outside surfaces, and usually refrigerant (shell) side presents the dominant thermal resistance. An increase in shell-side heat transfer coefficient (HTC) enables a reduced size of evaporator and is favorable to increase system coefficient of performance (COP).

Among many strategies to enhance nucleate boiling heat transfer, the techniques based on surface modification, including changing surface morphology by adopting micro/nano structures, changing surface wettability by surface coatings and both [2,4–13], have obtained a great attention [1,14–17]. These modified surfaces have been shown to be conducive to improving the crucial aspects of nucleate boiling heat

transfer like earlier onset of nucleate boiling (ONB), larger heat transfer coefficient (HTC) and higher critical heat flux (CHF) [18–20]. Followings are some examples reported in literature. Hydrophobic surfaces with low surface energy coatings usually provide higher HTCs but lower CHF than those of the hydrophilic ones [1,18,19]. At small wall superheat, less free energy is required for nucleation, inducing earlier ONB and larger bubble release frequency on hydrophobic surfaces [21,22]. Whereas, at larger wall superheat, coalescence of neighboring bubbles on the heated surface results in an inferior heat dissipation efficiency for the hydrophobic surfaces compared with hydrophilic ones. Superhydrophilic surface, with the apparent contact angle with water close to  $0^\circ$ , can increase the CHF by improving the liquid supply to nucleate sites and enhancing capillary-driven evaporation [16]. Lower boiling incipience temperature was achieved on micro-porous copper surfaces and the HTC and CHF was enhanced by 50–270% and 33–60%, respectively, as compared with the plain counterpart [13]. The apparent contact angle (CA) between refrigerant and metal/silicon surface is usually close to  $0^\circ$ , showing an intrinsic super-philic property [23,24]. The hydrophobic coatings can hardly change the apparent CA between low surface tension fluids and solid substrate. For this reason, less attention has been given to low-surface-tension fluids like refrigerants compared with water. However, low surface energy coatings are shown to influence the

\* Correspondent author.

E-mail address: [wqtao@mail.xjtu.edu.cn](mailto:wqtao@mail.xjtu.edu.cn) (W.-Q. Tao).<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.icheatmasstransfer.2021.105284>

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Nomenclature		Greek	
$c$	Enhancement factor of internal surface	$\Delta$	Variable differential
$D$	Diameter of tube, mm	$\Gamma$	Liquid film flow rate on one side of the tube per unit length, $\text{kg m}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$
$F_{pi}$	Fin density or fins per inch	$\mu$	Dynamic viscosity, $\text{kg m}^{-1}\text{s}^{-1}$
$H$	Fin height, mm	$\delta$	Tube wall thickness, mm
$h$	Heat transfer coefficient / HTC, $\text{W m}^{-2}\text{K}^{-1}$	<i>Subscript</i>	
$k$	Enhancement factor of outer surface	Gni	Gnielinski equation
$L$	Tube length, mm	i	Inside of tube
$q$	Heat flux, $\text{kW m}^{-2}$	o	Outside of tube
$R$	Thermal resistance, $\text{m}^2\text{K W}^{-1}$	sat	Saturation
$Re_r$	Film Reynolds number	w	Wall
$T$	Temperature, $^{\circ}\text{C}$		
$U$	Overall heat transfer coefficient, $\text{W m}^{-2}\text{K}^{-1}$		

wetting and evaporation at thin film meniscus region though the apparent CA is hardly changed [25,26] and enhance the refrigerant condensation heat transfer in micro channels [27]. The study and application of the above-mentioned enhanced methods to the thin film boiling of refrigerants are still very limited.

Thin liquid film boiling has been shown an effective way to further enhance nucleate boiling heat transfer. Ji et al. [28,29] indicated that the HTCs of falling film evaporation with nucleate boiling are higher than those of pool boiling on the same enhanced surface in cases with low heat flux. Wang and Chen [30,31] found that the nucleate boiling can be greatly intensified when the liquid film thickness was decreased to the range from hundreds of microns to a few tens of microns. The effects of some key parameters (like surface material, roughness and microstructure, heat flux, saturation temperature, low GWP refrigerant and lubrication oil) on refrigerant liquid film boiling heat transfer have been investigated in [32–37]. However, the effects of each parameter are highly dependent on the concurrent variations of other parameters, making the heat transfer characteristics extremely puzzling, especially for enhanced surface. Commercial pool-boiling enhanced tube with open microstructures or re-entrant tunnels may enhance the thin film boiling heat transfer by extending heat transfer area, increasing nucleation site density, altering the vapor-liquid interaction behaviors within the tunnels or creating more micro-layer vaporization [3]. The interconnected cross channels may also provide extra capillary force, making the the liquid be sucked into the tunnel space, which provides better liquid replenishment to the active nucleation sites. As for the reentrant cavity, a larger cavity mouth offers a longer three-phase contact line, inducing larger heat transfer rate [21]. Given that the most commercial boiling enhanced tubes used in previous studies [28,29] are originally designed for pool boiling evaporator, some 3D integral finned condensation tubes may perform better in liquid film boiling heat transfer than the pool-boiling enhanced tubes [32].

Although numerous results have been published with mostly positive influences for water, there still is a large room to apply the surface modification techniques to low surface tension fluids. Especially, few studies have illuminated the effects of hydrophobic coatings on thin liquid film boiling heat transfer. In this case, the research focus of the present paper is paid on the HTC intensification of refrigerant thin liquid film boiling to unravel the composite effects of micro-scale structures and nano-scale coatings. The remaining part of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the methods for surface preparation and characterization. Section 3 exhibits the experimental facilities and data reduction methods. Section 4 presents the experimental results and discussions. Finally, some conclusions are summarized in Section 5.

## 2. Surface preparation and characterization

Taking the falling film evaporator as an applicable candidate, three

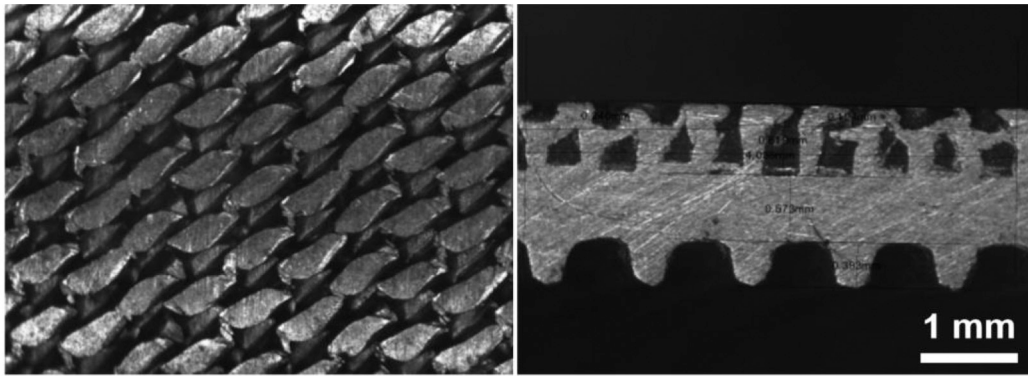
copper tubes (plain, boiling and condensation) with nominal outer diameter of 3/4 in. were used as the test samples. Both sides (internal and outside) of the plain tube (termed as P tube in following parts) are smooth, while for the boiling enhanced tube (B tube) and condensation enhanced tube (C tube), there are helical micro-fins on their inner surfaces to improve the water-side single phase convective heat transfer. Reentrant cavities and 3-D integral fins were machined on the outside of the B and C tubes, respectively. Detailed specifications of the tubes and the microstructure scanning pictures of the enhanced surfaces can be found in Table 1 and Fig. 1, respectively. It should be noted that the boiling-enhanced (B) tube is originally designed for pool-boiling and the condensation-enhanced (C) tube is commonly used for enhancing film-wise condensation. However, when applied to thin liquid film evaporation/boiling, C tube is shown to possess better heat transfer performance than B tube [32]. Apart from the specific geometries, the fin shapes of B and C tube have great differences. Fins on B tube are bent with smaller outlet width of each cavity (to create reentrant cavities) compared with that of the C tube, where micro fins are vertical to the tube wall with some pointy tip on top of them, as shown in Fig. 1.

To study the composite effects of micro-structure and hydrophobic coating on thin liquid film boiling heat transfer, the three tubes' outer surfaces were modified by low surface energy coatings. To this end, each of the three tubes were equally cut into five pieces by wire-electrode cutting. After cutting, the five pieces of each tube were numbered in order and their connection positions were carefully marked for soldering after coating. Then the sample tubes were cleaned with acetone in an ultrasonic bath for 15 min and rinsed with ethanol, isopropyl alcohol, and deionized water (DI water) in sequence. The tubes were then dried with nitrogen gas. Shieldex (Fig. 2, supplied by Integrated Surface Technologies) was used as the coating material. The coating process was performed in the plasma-assisted chemical vapor deposition (CVD) system (Integrated Surface Technologies BL200, Fig. 2) for 17 min with the chamber pressure of 200 mTorr and the electrode power of 105 W. The halocarbon gas was dissociated by plasma (76 kHz), then the generated  $\text{CF}_2\text{-CF}_3$  polymer material was deposited onto the tubes' surfaces to form hydrophobic coatings. The thickness of the coating, based on the information given by the plasma system provider (Integrated Surface Technologies), is around 20 nm, having negligible influence on the heat conduction through the tube wall. Static water CA

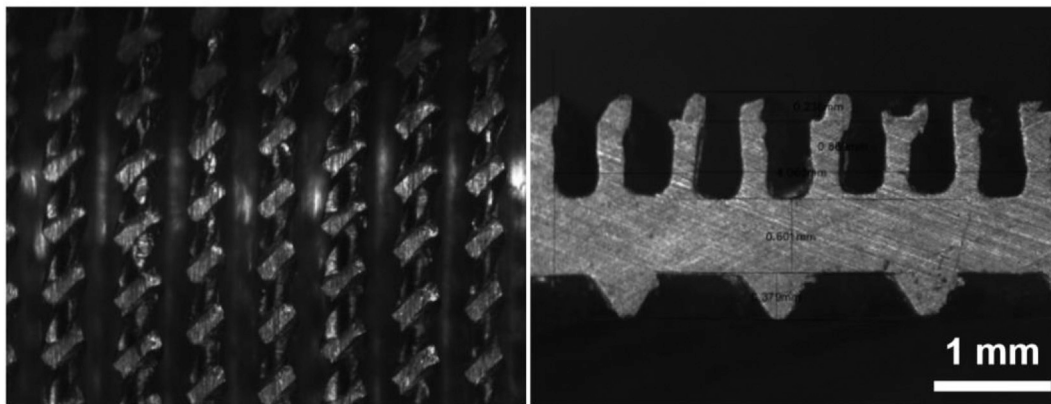
**Table 1**  
Parameters of the tested tubes (unit: mm).

	$L$	$\delta$	$D_i$	$D_o$	Fpi	$H$
P tube	1520	1.1	16.66	19.02	/	/
B tube	1520	1.14	16.33	18.86	56	0.65
C tube	1520	1.14	16.33	18.86	50	0.66

Note: For B and C tubes,  $D_i$  and  $D_o$  are their embryo tube diameters.



(a) Tube B (Boiling enhanced tube)



(b) Tube C (Condensation enhanced tube)

Fig. 1. Doubly enhanced structures of the boiling and condensation enhanced tubes.

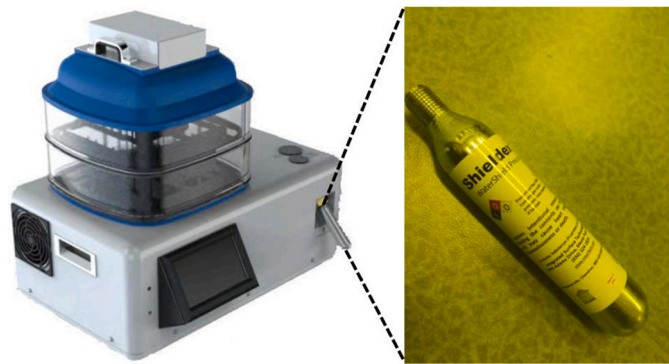


Fig. 2. The plasma system for chemical vapor deposition (CVD).

was also measured on the coated plain tube after the boiling test to check the hydrophobic coating is intact or not. It's shown that the coated surface still exhibited a repellent property to water after refrigerant boiling test. During the coating process, the two ends of the tubes were capped to avoid the coating on inner surfaces. Finally, the individual samples were connected in sequence by cold welding which ensured the minimum heat-affected zone along the tube length. The connection angle was regulated carefully to ensure the same condition as the uncoated tubes as much as possible.

Since the CA of low-boiling-point refrigerant (like R134a) should be measured at vacuum environment, high-boiling-point fluid FC72 with surface tension of 10 mN/m, similar with that of R134a (9 mN/m), is used for characterizing the variation of the contact angle with and

without the hydrophobic coating. For the convenience of CA measurement, a plain copper plate was prepared with the same way as the tested tubes. Static CA between the coated copper plate and a sessile FC72 droplet (with a volume of 2.5  $\mu$ l) was measured with the contact angle meter (OCAH200, Data physics, Germany) at ambient temperature. The average value of static CA was acquired by measuring 5 times at different places for the same sample. The hydrophobic coating changes the apparent static contact angle from  $CA = 2 \pm 2^\circ$  for the uncoated Cu surface to  $CA = 4 \pm 2^\circ$  for the coated surface (Fig. 3). It worth noting that for the low surface tension fluids, the CA is close to  $0^\circ$  and the advancing and receding CA are both very close to  $0^\circ$ . That is why here the static CA is taken to characterize the surface wettability. In this study only the most important parameter, CA, was measured, no further sophisticated

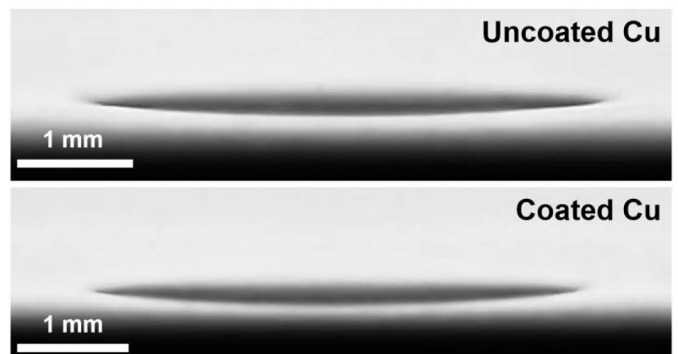


Fig. 3. Static contact angle between FC-72 droplet and the uncoated/coated copper surface.

detection such as EDS image was conducted.

It is interesting to note that hydrophobic coating will make surface more repellent. As presented above that more repellent surfaces induce an earlier ONB point and increase the HTC at low heat flux [21,22]. In this paper the maximum heat flux tested is around  $150 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ , which is in the low heat flux regime of thin liquid boiling of refrigerant. That's why the more repellent surfaces are studied.

### 3. Test setup and data reduction method

#### 3.1. Test setup

The heat transfer coefficient of thin liquid film evaporation/boiling was measured with the same test setup as that in [34]. It is comprised of three main circulations, i.e., hot water (red arrow line in Fig. 4), cold water (blue arrow line in Fig. 4) and refrigerant (black arrow line in Fig. 4) circuits, and two chambers (evaporator and condenser). The liquid film was formed by pumping liquid refrigerant in the condenser to the liquid distributor in the evaporator and spraying it onto the test tube. The falling liquid film was heated by hot water flowing inside the test tube. Temperatures of the two water tanks can be controlled by the evaporator and heaters set.

Absolute pressure in the evaporator was regarded as the saturation boiling pressure ( $P_{\text{sat}}$ ) and its corresponding saturation temperature ( $T_{\text{sat}}$ ) was used in calculating the temperature difference of heat transfer. Flow rates of in-tube water and liquid refrigerant were measured with electromagnetic and Coriolis flowmeter, respectively. Water inlet and outlet temperatures were detected by platinum resistance temperature detectors (RTDs). Specifications of instruments can be found in our previous work [34].

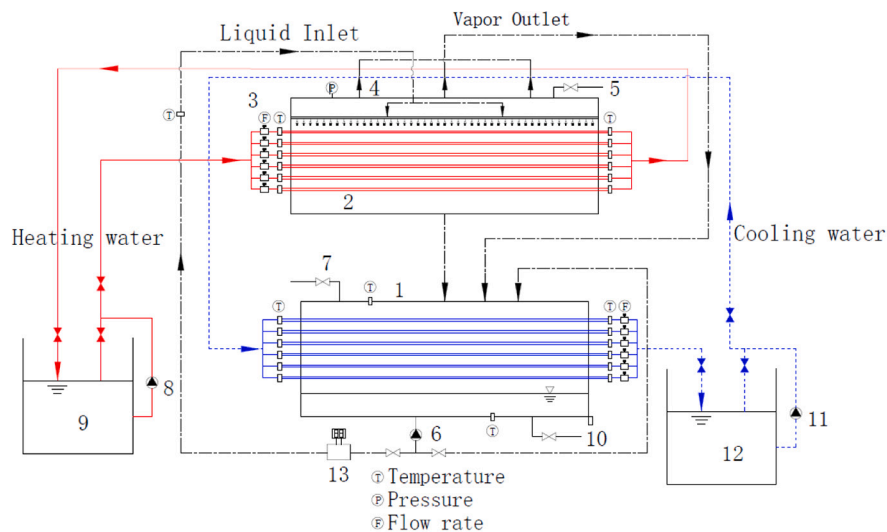
The test section was constructed in the evaporator vessel (2 in Fig. 4). Three tube positions (Fig. 5(a)) were arranged for the heat transfer test and each of them owned the same-type of liquid distributor. Each liquid distributor is comprised of a preliminary and a secondary distributor and their top-view design drawings are shown in Fig. 5(c) and (d). The tubes

were fixed on two end cover flanges and the liquid distributors were fixed on the inner surface of the vessel by welding (Fig. 5(b)). The distance between tube center and bottom surface of liquid distributor is 15 mm (see Fig. 5(a)). The three secondary distributors are firstly welded on the mounting plate and then the three preliminary distributors are soldered on the secondary distributors. The diameter and pitch of the draining holes (black dots on two liquid distributor) on the bottom surfaces of the boxes are 2 mm and 10 mm, respectively. 20 venting holes are drilled on the mounting plate since the vapor outlets of the evaporator are arranged on the top of the vessel.

#### 3.2. Test procedure

The RTDs were calibrated within the temperature range from  $6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  to  $40 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  before the test. When the refrigerant was charged into the system, the heat exchange between the hot water inside the tube and the environment was examined by tests without evaporation on the tube. The environmental temperature was around  $25 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  and the temperature of heating water varies from  $6 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  to  $40 \text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , the temperature difference of inlet and outlet was within 0.03 K indicating that the test chamber and tested tube were well-insulated from the ambient environment.

During the test, the heating and chilling waters were first heated or cooled to the desired temperature. Then three pumps would circulate the water in the tubes and pump the liquid refrigerant to the liquid distributor in evaporator. For the test of a single curve, saturation temperature ( $T_{\text{sat}}$ ) and film Reynolds number ( $Re_f$ ) were kept constant with varied heat flux by adjusting the temperature of hot water. To make the nucleate sites on the tubes' outer surface be fully activated, the hot water was firstly heated to reach the heat flux of  $70 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  for half an hour, then the temperature of hot water was decreased step by step until the minimum heat flux condition was reached. After this, the hot water was heated again to continue the following tests from  $80 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  to the maximum heat flux. 10 data at each point will be saved when the deviation of saturation temperature ( $T_{\text{sat}}$ ) is less than 0.03 K and heat flux within  $0.3 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ .



1. Condenser (reservoir); 2. Evaporator; 3. Electromagnetic flowmeter; 4. Pressure gauge; 5. Exhausting valve; 6. Refrigerant magnetic pump; 7. Refrigerant charging valve; 8. Heating water pump; 9. Hot water tank; 10. Refrigerant outlet; 11. Cooling water pump; 12. Cooling water tank; 13. Refrigerant mass flow meter.

Fig. 4. Schematic diagram of the test system.



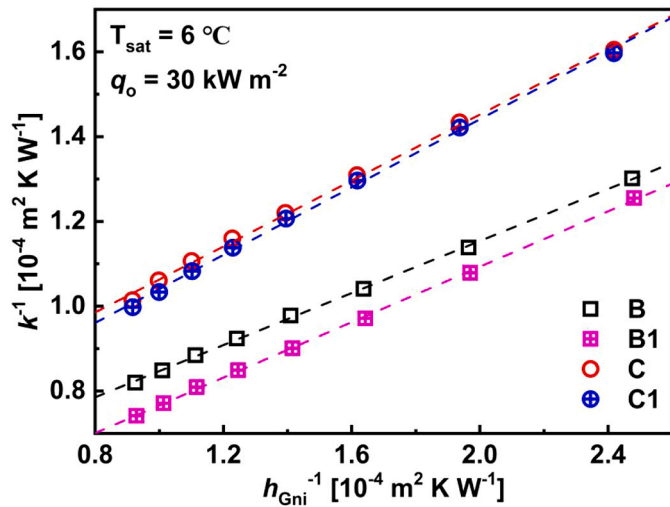


Fig. 6. Wilson plot for the calculation of internal enhancement factor of doubly-enhanced boiling and condensation tubes.

Table 2  
Enhancement factors of the water-side enhanced surfaces.

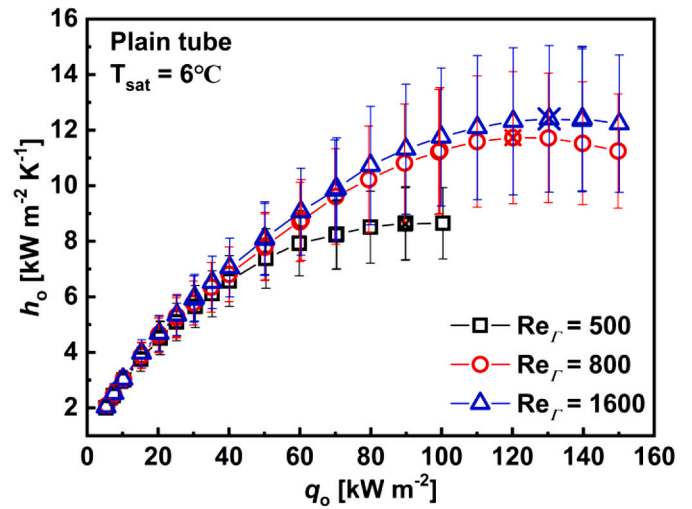
Tube number	B	B1	C	C1
Enhanced factor $c_i$	3.20	3.10	2.90	2.85

heat flux (THF, marked by the symbols with a cross) beyond which HTC begins to decline. When  $q_o$  is lower than  $40 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ , film Reynolds number has trivial influence on HTC. This implies that even the heat flux is less than  $40 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ , nucleate boiling within the thin liquid film dominates the heat transfer. At higher heat fluxes (larger than  $40 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ ), the variations of HTCs exhibit following features. First, the effect of film Reynolds number becomes appreciable, and at the same heat flux the higher the film Reynolds number ( $Re_f$ ) the larger the HTCs. Second, for the lowest film Reynolds number tested, 500, increase of HTCs with heat flux soon becomes mild and HTC reaches its maximum value at  $90 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  (marked by the black square symbol with a cross in Fig. 7(a)). Third, for other two film Reynolds numbers, 800 and 1600, enough liquid flow rate makes the HTC further increase until the heat flux reaches  $120 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  (red circle symbol with a cross in Fig. 7(a)) and  $130 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  (blue triangular symbol with a cross in Fig. 7(a)), respectively. Beyond the THF points, partial dryout on the heated surface becomes more prominent with increasing heat flux and HTCs begin to decline.

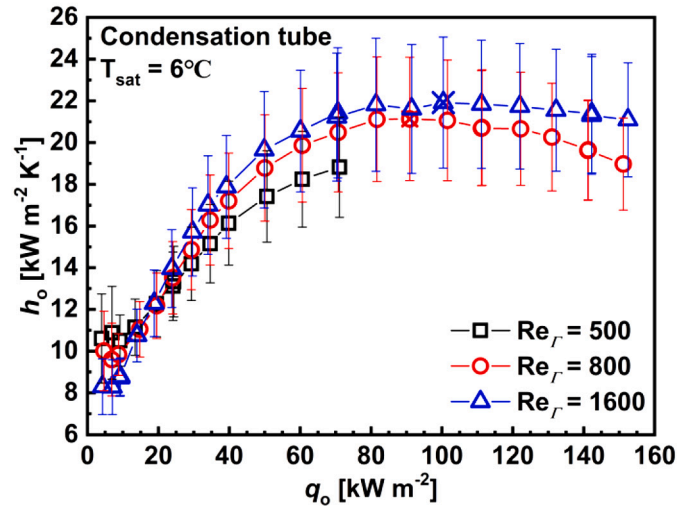
The condensation enhanced surface (Fig. 7(b)) shows similar dependence of HTC on heat flux and film Reynolds number. While the THF point occurs at lower heat fluxes compared with the plain surface: THF is around  $100 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  for C tube when  $Re_f = 1600$  ( $130 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  for P tube). This is probably resulted from the extended surface area which causes a higher possibility of dryout under the same film Reynolds number as the plain surface.

For the boiling enhanced surface, the effects of heat flux and film flow rate on HTC show more or less similar characteristics as the plain and condensation-enhanced surfaces, as shown in Fig. 7(c). Nonetheless, the THF points are much smaller than those of the plain and condensation surfaces, and their values are  $35 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ ,  $30 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  and  $25 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  for  $Re_f = 1600$ , 800, and 500, respectively (marked by symbols with a cross in Fig. 7(c)). It should be noted that as far as the HTC is concerned, the HTC values of the boiling tube are much higher than those of the plain one. Within the test conditions, the maximum HTC value of the P tube is less than  $13 \text{ kW m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$  while for the B tube the minimum value is larger than  $14 \text{ kW m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-1}$ .

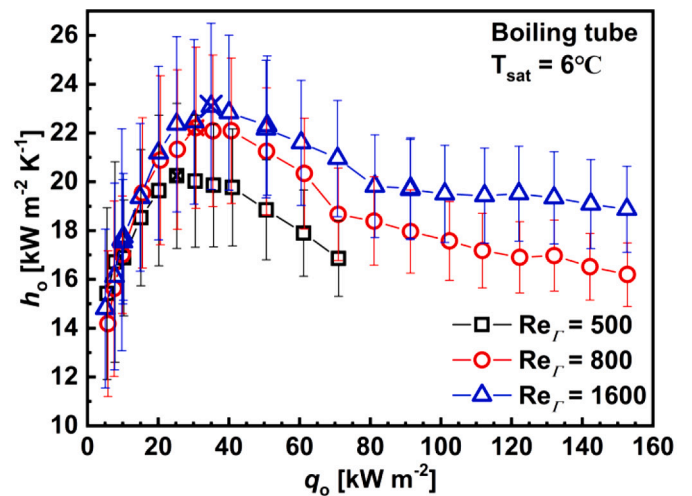
It is interesting to compare the HTC variation trends between boiling-enhanced and condensation-enhanced surfaces, and the results



(a) Plain tube



(b) Condensation tube



(c) Boiling tube

Fig. 7. HTC variation trend with heat flux.

are depicted in Fig. 8 for the film Reynolds number of 800. The boiling tube shows superior heat transfer performance over the condensation tube when the heat flux is lower than  $60 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ , while the trend reverses beyond this heat flux. The large differences in the HTC variation trend may be attributed to different micro-structures of the surface fin geometries. As shown in Fig. 1, the fins on the condensation-enhanced tube is straightly vertical to the tube surface, extending the heat transfer area, so that very similar HTC variation trend was observed as the plain surface. On the other hand, the reentrant cavities on boiling-enhanced tube behaved differently at low and high heat flux conditions. When the heat flux is not high, the reentrant cavities on the boiling enhanced tube can sustain the liquid and vapor seed after bubble departure which facilitate the activation of the subsequent nucleation cycle. In this way, the reentrant microcavities can enhance the wetting within the cavities and increase nucleate site density and bubble release frequency, inducing a larger HTC under lower heat fluxes. While at higher heat flux conditions, the reentrant cavities may impede the vapor escaping from the cavities because of the narrow cavity outlet, which leads to partial dryout in cavities and hence deteriorates thin liquid film boiling heat transfer behavior.

### 4.3. HTC of the coated surfaces

This section shows the HTC comparison between the original surfaces (later they are termed as uncoated surfaces) and coated ones. Tests for coated surfaces were conducted with decreasing heat flux from  $80 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  to  $10 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  at the same saturation temperature ( $6^\circ\text{C}$ ) as that of the uncoated surfaces. The coated plain surface shows almost identical HTC to that of the uncoated surface (Fig. 9(a)). This can easily be understood since the hydrophobic coating can only change the apparent contact angle of refrigerant R134a a little. For the open-channel 3-D integral fin surface, some discrepancy appears with slightly higher HTCs on the coated one, as shown in Fig. 9(b). However, the authors would rather to attribute it to the measurement uncertainty since the largest deviation is only 9.9%. These results indicate that the hydrophobic coating can hardly affect the nucleate boiling heat transfer for low surface tension fluids.

Intriguingly, thing changes for the boiling enhanced surface. Prominent heat transfer enhancement can be observed from Fig. 9(c). The HTC enhancement ratio ranges from 21.0% to 60.4% with respect to the uncoated tube (see Fig. 10), which is far beyond the measurement uncertainty. It should also be noted that the enhancement ratio ( $k$ , the ratio of falling film evaporation HTC between coated and uncoated tube)

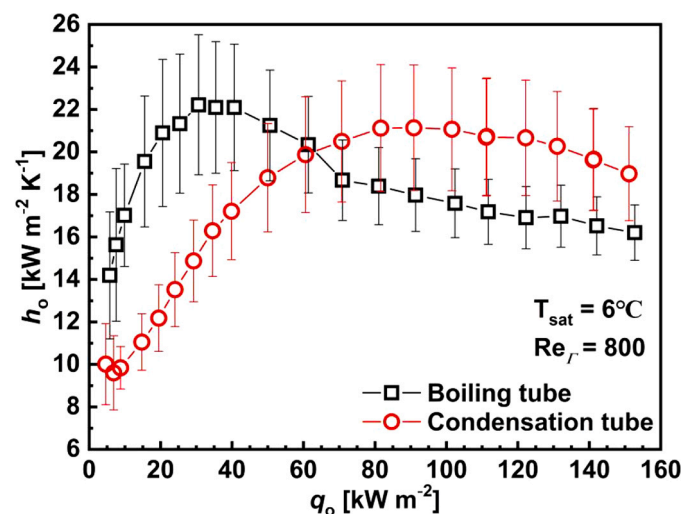
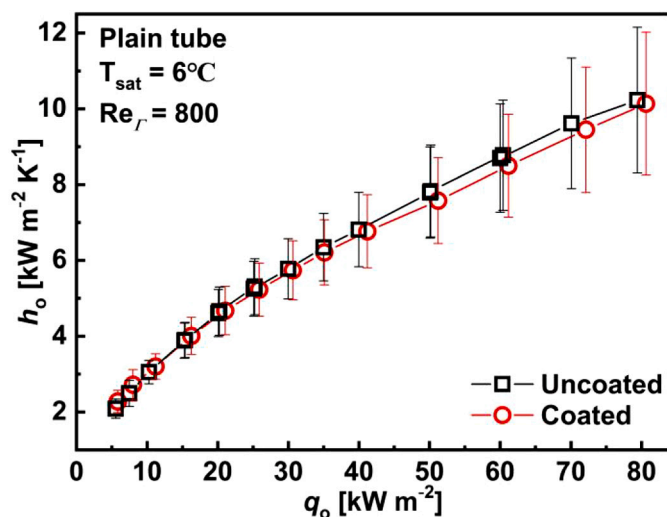
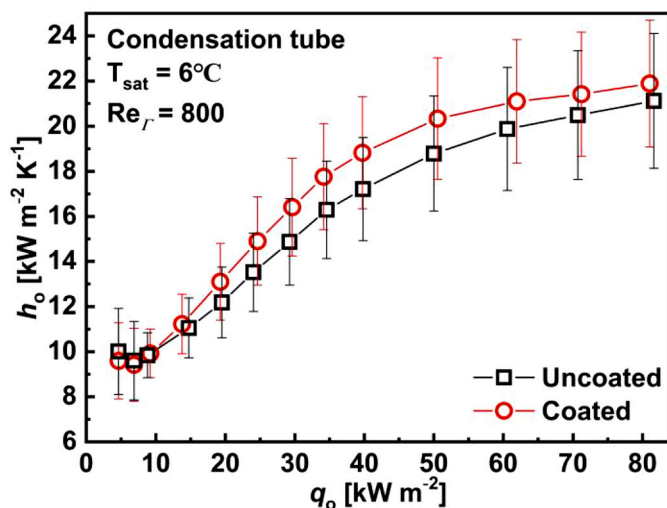


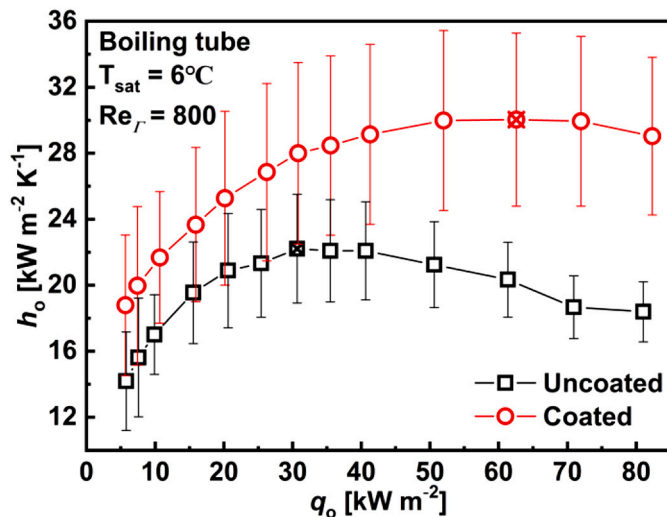
Fig. 8. HTC comparison between boiling-enhanced and condensation-enhanced tubes.



(a) Plain tube



(b) Condensation tube



(c) Boiling tube

Fig. 9. Comparison of HTCs between the coated and uncoated surfaces.

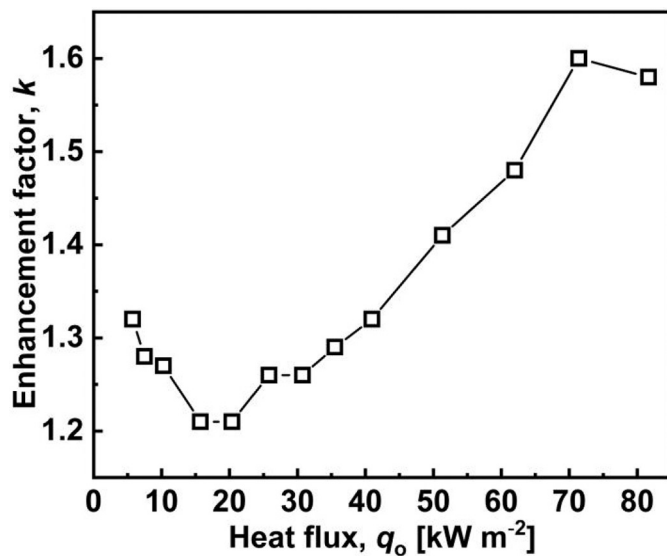


Fig. 10. Enhancement factor of the coated boiling-enhanced tube versus heat flux.

becomes even higher at larger heat fluxes (Fig. 10) and the THF where the maximum HTC is achieved becomes larger ( $60 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ ) compared with the uncoated surface ( $30 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ ) when  $Re_f = 800$  (see Fig. 9(c)).

Fig. 11 shows the HTC variation trends versus heat flux in log-log coordinate of the uncoated and coated P and B tubes. Within the whole test range of heat flux for plain surface, the HTC shows an exponential relationship with the heat flux with a constant power of 0.6, which is similar to that of spraying cooling through a thin liquid film in [43] and very close to 0.67 for pool boiling curve as shown by the Cooper Eq. [44]. This indicates that for the cases studied nucleate boiling predominates the falling film evaporation heat transfer. However, for boiling enhanced surface, the exponential relationship exists only for low heat fluxes ( $< 30 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ ) cases with a much smaller exponent of 0.28, even though the HTC values are 1.43–6.8 times larger than those of the plain tube. This demonstrates that remarkable dryout is happening during phase change within reentrant microcavities not only at large heat flux regime ( $35 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  or larger) but also at very low heat fluxes (from  $5 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$  to  $30 \text{ kW m}^{-2}$ ).

The intensification of thin film boiling heat transfer by the hydrophobic coating on boiling enhanced surface may be understood as follows. When bubbles are nucleated in the micro structured tunnels, they induce a two-phase channel flow in the phase of bubble growth and breakage, making the cavities being partially occupied by vapor. Within reentrant cavities, the bubble path is much more convoluted compared with the plain surface and the condensation enhanced surface, inducing more thin film meniscus region. In this case, a significant portion of the vapor needs to penetrate the narrow outlet of the reentrant cavities to escape from the cavities. In addition, the micro fins can create capillary force to enhance the liquid supply to nucleate sites. These two actions lead to two-phase flow within the micro structures of the boiling-enhanced surface studied in this paper. The hydrophobic coating with lower surface energy may reduce the friction loss of two-phase flow in microchannels created by reentrant cavities and can accelerate the vapor escaping from reentrants, thus enhancing thin film boiling heat transfer.

## 5. Conclusions

Thin film boiling heat transfer characteristics on a tubular plain surface and two finned surfaces were studied in this paper. The composite effects of microstructure and hydrophobic coating on HTC were studied. The main findings of this study are as follows:

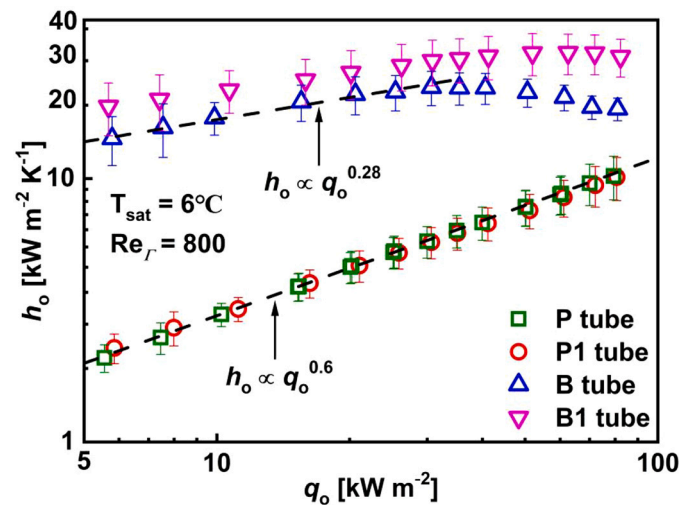


Fig. 11. HTC variation curve versus heat flux in log-log coordinate.

1. For all three surfaces tested, HTC increases monotonously with increasing heat flux under all film Reynolds numbers until a threshold heat flux, beyond which HTC begins to decline. THF is largest for the plain surface and smallest for the boiling surface with reentrant cavities.
2. The boiling-enhanced surface exhibits superior heat transfer performance at lower heat fluxes than the condensation-enhanced surface, while the latter is more prominent in cases of higher heat fluxes.
3. Hydrophobic coating can hardly influence the liquid film boiling heat transfer on both the plain and the condensation-enhanced finned surface.
4. Hydrophobic coating substantially intensify the thin liquid boiling heat transfer on boiling-enhanced surface with reentrant cavities. The enhancement factor is larger at high heat fluxes, inducing a larger transitional heat flux where maximum HTC is achieved.

## Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

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