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Publication Date

2022-04-01

DOI

10.1016/j.ijheatmasstransfer.2021.122320

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2 Alteration of Pool Boiling Heat Transfer on Metallic 3 Surfaces by In Situ Oxidation

4

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16 KEYWORDS

17 Critical heat flux, Heat transfer coefficient, Metal oxide nanostructures, Wettability

1 ABSTRACT

2 The critical heat flux during pool boiling has been investigated for a range of applications
3 including electrical power generation and thermal management. Reported experimental CHF
4 values during pool boiling of water on flat metallic surfaces, however, show a large discrepancy
5 across studies. Here, we address this discrepancy in CHF values by accounting for oxidation of
6 metallic surfaces during boiling. We studied the effect of in situ oxidation on flat Cu and Ni
7 surfaces by changing the duration that samples were held in saturated water before conducting
8 boiling experiments. The morphology and chemical composition of surfaces after the boiling
9 experiments were analyzed by atomic force microscopy and X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy,
10 respectively. Cu surfaces showed gradually increasing CHF values as the duration in saturated
11 water increased, which could be attributed to the increase in roughness due to the formation of
12 Cu_2O nanostructures. Conversely, Ni surfaces showed relatively stable CHF and morphology as
13 a nearly flat layer of NiO formed, with one exception: formation of a highly wetting hydroxide,
14 $\text{Ni}(\text{OH})_2$, on a Ni coupon held in saturated water for 24 h resulted in a uniquely high CHF value,
15 signifying the importance of surface chemistry in addition to morphology. The fundamental
16 mechanisms resulting in the wide spread of CHF values on metallic surfaces elucidated in this
17 work will lead to more accurate estimation of CHF as well as a deeper mechanistic
18 understanding of CHF values on engineered surfaces.

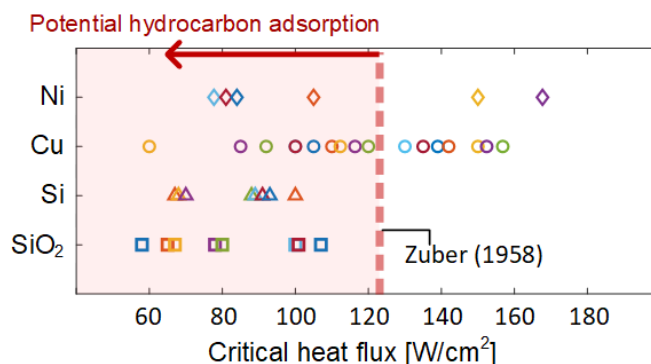
19

1 1. Introduction

2 Boiling is an essential process in many industrial applications, including electrical power
3 generation and high flux thermal management. A boiling performance parameter of particular
4 interest is the critical heat flux (CHF, q''_{CHF}), which represents the operational heat flux limit of
5 nucleate boiling. During nucleate boiling, vapor bubbles nucleate and coalesce with each other
6 before they detach from a boiling surface, but as the applied heat flux reaches the CHF, bubble
7 growth and coalescence events become too rapid for sustained departure, and an insulating vapor
8 layer forms over the surface. The abrupt increase in thermal resistance due to this vapor layer
9 causes thermal runaway and critical failure of the boiling system. While extensive efforts over
10 the past decades have focused on engineering boiling surfaces to achieve CHF enhancement
11 compared to that of a pristine and flat surface [1], CHF values of flat surfaces for pool boiling of
12 water show a large discrepancy across the literature, even for the same material (Figure 1). Note
13 that the literature data included in Figure 1 are based on horizontal and upward-facing heaters in
14 saturated water at the atmospheric pressure. For example, CHF values on flat silicon (Si) and
15 silicon dioxide (SiO₂) vary across the literature roughly from 60 to 110 W/cm². Metallic surfaces
16 such as copper (Cu) and nickel (Ni) show even wider spreads in CHF values, exceeding Zuber's
17 CHF prediction for a flat surface [2]. Understanding the cause of this discrepancy is important
18 for two reasons. First, an inaccurate CHF estimation could be detrimental for boiling applications
19 such as nuclear power plants, where safety is the foremost concern. Second, the flat surface CHF
20 is particularly important for a mechanistic understanding of CHF because the flat surface CHF is
21 used as a baseline value to which the enhancement of engineered surfaces is compared.
22 Previously, the spread in CHF values of flat SiO₂ surfaces was addressed by accounting for

1 airborne hydrocarbon adsorption [3]. Experimental results of CHF values and the amount of
2 adsorbed hydrocarbons on flat SiO₂ surfaces showed that the hydrocarbon adsorption on boiling
3 surfaces could lower the CHF values by decreasing the surface wettability.

4



5

6 **Figure 1.** Large spread in reported CHF values during saturated pool boiling of water at
7 atmospheric pressure on smooth, horizontal, and upward-facing nickel [4-9], copper [10-23],
8 silicon [24-31], and silicon dioxide surfaces [32-42]. Compared to Si and SiO₂, CHF values of
9 flat Cu and Ni surfaces show larger discrepancies across studies, where some results show even
10 higher CHF values compared to the Zuber's CHF estimation for a flat surface. All data used in
11 this plot are summarized in the Supporting Information Table S1.

12

13 However, the larger spread in CHF values of metallic surfaces, where some results show
14 even higher values than Zuber's CHF prediction (125 W/cm² for water), cannot be explained by
15 hydrocarbon adsorption. This is because Zuber's prediction is slightly higher than the CHF value
16 of a smooth and clean surface [3], while hydrocarbon adsorption only lowers CHF values. The
17 different methods of heat flux characterization and experimental measurement uncertainty could

1 contribute up to ~20% CHF uncertainty [43]; yet, literature CHF values reported for Cu and Ni
2 vary by a much larger range, up to 157 and 168 W/cm², respectively. Note that CHF values can
3 also vary with a heater size according to hydrodynamic instability-based explanations [44, 45].
4 Empirical literature data, however, have shown controversial results for the effects of heater size
5 [44-46], which may be attributed to experimental error or to a phenomenon that has not yet been
6 identified. In this work, we address one possible mechanism of the unexplained elevated CHF on
7 metals by accounting for oxidation of metallic surfaces during boiling by testing Cu and Ni
8 surfaces. Thermodynamically, both Cu and Ni are stable in pure, oxygen-free water; for
9 example, the chemical stability of Cu in 400 °C water has been experimentally demonstrated
10 [47]. Nonetheless, the oxidation, i.e., corrosion, of Cu and Ni in water has been reported because,
11 in practice, metals can react with dissolved oxygen in water and outgassing hydrogen from the
12 metal samples themselves or from the experimental apparatus [48-50]. In particular, Saadi et al.
13 tested the corrosion of various metals in water at 75 and 95 °C; they found that a wide range of
14 metals including Cu and Ni can corrode and form metal oxide nanostructures in hot water [48].
15 Because nanostructures on a boiling surface can increase CHF during pool boiling [5, 6, 13, 25,
16 27-30], the oxidation of metals and resulting formation of metal oxide nanostructures should be a
17 key contributing factor in the spread in reported CHF values depending on the degree of
18 oxidation.

19

1 2. Experimental

2 2.1 Sample preparation

3 To investigate the oxidation of metallic surfaces during boiling and its effects on pool
4 boiling heat transfer, we held Cu and Ni samples in saturated water for different periods of time
5 (30 min, 7 h, and 24 h) before conducting pool boiling experiments. We prepared two different
6 types of Cu and Ni samples that are commonly used for boiling research: (i) thin metal films
7 coated on silicon wafers and (ii) bulk metal coupons. The thin-film samples were prepared by
8 sputtering a 10 nm Ti adhesion layer followed by a 100 nm Cu or Ni layer on diced 650- μm -
9 thick silicon chips ($20 \times 20 \text{ mm}^2$) covered with thermally grown $1 \mu\text{m}$ SiO_2 layers. Cu and Ni
10 coupons were prepared by cutting metal sheets (813 μm -thick 110 copper and 483 μm -thick 200
11 nickel, McMaster-CARR) into $15 \times 15 \text{ mm}^2$ squares with a waterjet. Metal coupons were
12 smoothed with sandpaper (CarbiMet, Buehler) of up to 800 grit and subsequently polished with
13 diamond suspensions of 1 and 3 μm (MetaDi Polycrystalline Diamont Suspensions, Buehler) to
14 make the surface flat at the microscale. For convenience, we refer to each sample based on its
15 duration in saturated water before boiling, material, and surface type; for example, a “24 h Ni
16 thin film” means a Ni thin film surface left in saturated water for 24 h before boiling. Prior to
17 boiling, all samples were cleaned in 2.0 M hydrochloric acid solution for 10 minutes to remove
18 the native oxide and any organic contaminants.

19

20 2.2 Pool boiling experiment

1 We used two different pool boiling setups for the sputtered thin film samples and the
 2 metal coupons. For thin film samples, we created a 100 nm serpentine platinum (Pt) heater
 3 defining the heating area A_h of $10 \times 10 \text{ mm}^2$ on the backside of each sample, through which
 4 heating power was applied. The applied heat flux (q''_{in}) was characterized by measuring the
 5 voltage drop (V) and current (I) across the heater, i.e., $q''_{in} = IV / A$. The
 6 serpentine Pt heater also served as a resistive temperature detector for temperature
 7 characterization.

8 In the case of metal coupons, we soldered the samples to a copper block using solder
 9 paste. The copper block has the same cross-sectional area ($15 \times 15 \text{ mm}^2$) as the samples, which
 10 defines the heating area. At the center axis of the copper block, three K-type thermocouples were
 11 inserted with a 5 mm spacing (Δx). The bottom of the sample-mounted copper block was then
 12 attached to another copper block in which five 250 W cartridge heaters were embedded to
 13 provide power for the boiling heat flux. The heat flux (q'') was characterized from the
 14 temperature gradient of the three thermocouples using Fourier's law with a three-point backward
 15 finite difference approximation, i.e.,

$$q'' = k_{Cu} \left(\frac{T_1 - 4T_2 + T_3}{2\Delta x} \right)$$

17 , where T_1 , T_2 , and T_3 are the temperature measurements from the top, middle, and bottom
 18 thermocouples, respectively, from the sample. Here k_{Cu} is the temperature-dependent thermal
 19 conductivity of copper ($k_{Cu} = 2.83 \times 10^4 T^2 - 0.165 T + 378.1$ [W/m-K], where temperature T is in
 20 Kelvin) [43]. An additional thermocouple inserted beneath the sample was then used to calculate
 21 the wall superheat combined with the measured heat flux. Each boiling experiment took ≈ 30

1 minutes on average. Further details of pool boiling experiments and measurement uncertainty are
2 available in Section II of the Supporting Information.

3

4 3. Results and discussion

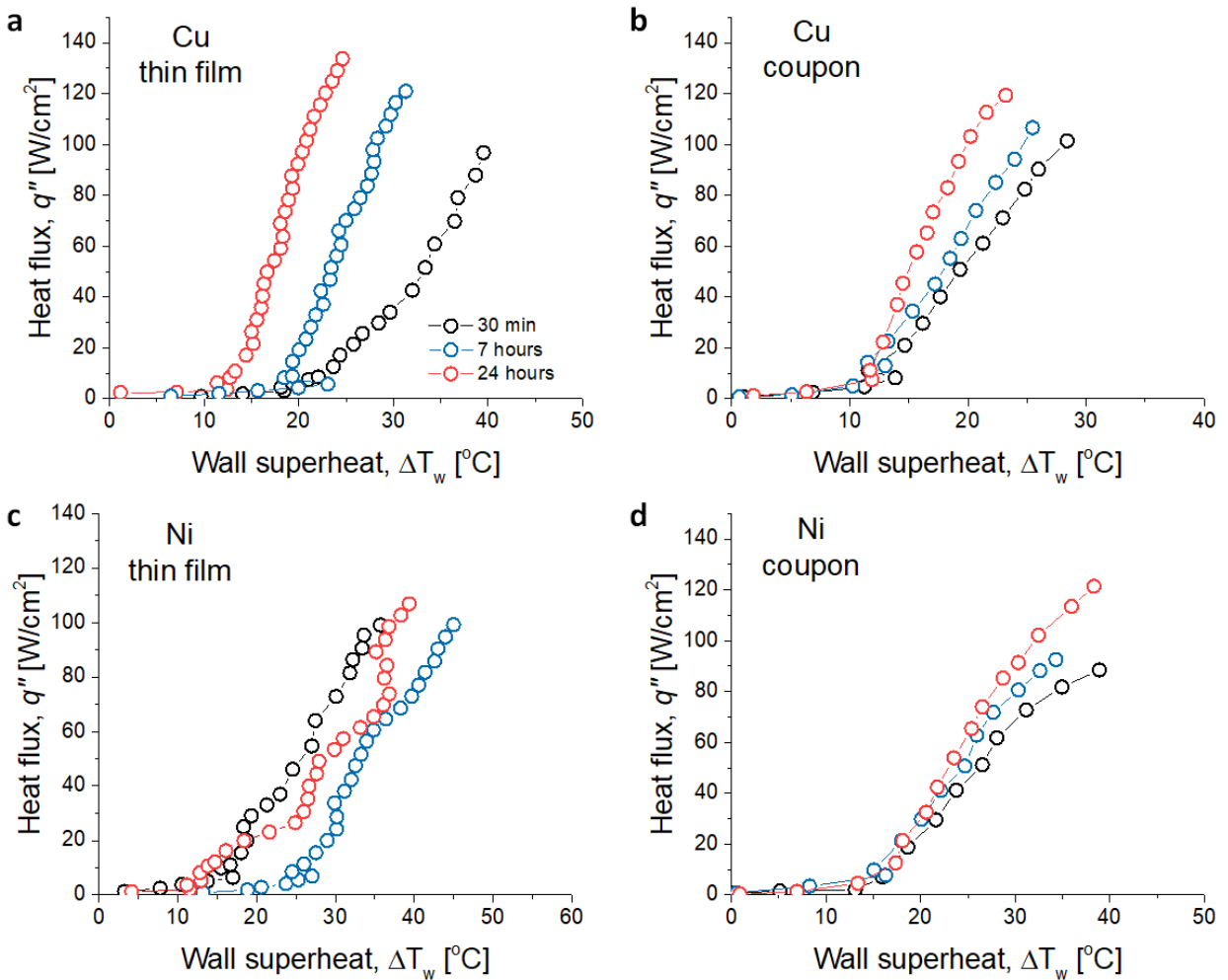
5 3.1 Pool boiling results

6 Figure 2 shows the pool boiling curves, i.e., heat flux (q'') as a function of wall superheat
7 (ΔT_w), of Cu and Ni samples. Here ΔT_w is the temperature difference between the boiling surface
8 and the saturated liquid. Both Cu thin films and Cu coupons showed apparent changes in pool
9 boiling heat transfer associated with the duration (Δt) left in saturated water before boiling
10 (Figure 2a, b). As Δt increased from 30 min to 24 h, pool boiling curves shifted upward to the
11 left monotonically, representing increasing CHF and heat transfer coefficient (HTC). Here HTC
12 is the slope of a boiling curve from the origin by definition, i.e., $HTC = q / \Delta T_w$. The
13 boiling curves of the Cu thin film samples (Figure 2a) showed more significant changes than the
14 coupons. For example, CHF values of Cu thin films were 96.8, 120.9, and 133.7 W/cm² for Δt of
15 30 min, 7 h, and 24 h, respectively, which increased 38% from Δt of 30 min to 24 h. In addition,
16 HTC values at CHF of Cu thin films increased from 24.5 to 54.4 kW/m²K from Δt of 30 min to
17 24 h, a 122% increase in HTC. While less significant compared to Cu thin films, Cu coupons
18 (Figure 2b) also showed increases in CHF and HTC at CHF values by 17.6 and 44%,
19 respectively, as Δt increased from 30 min to 24 h.

20 Conversely, Ni surfaces exhibited relatively stable boiling heat transfer compared to Cu
21 surfaces. CHF values of Ni thin films changed marginally, e.g., 99.0, 99.1, and 106.8 W/cm² for

1 Δt of 30 min, 7 h, and 24 h, respectively. Changes in HTC values were also insignificant, which
 2 showed HTC at CHF values of 27.7, 22.0, and 27.1 kW/m²K for 30 min, 7 h and 24 h,
 3 respectively. 30 min and 7 h Ni coupons followed the stable trend, where CHF values were 88.5
 4 and 92.5 W/cm², respectively. The 24 h Ni coupon, however, showed a noticeably higher CHF
 5 value of 121.3 W/cm² (we discuss the mechanism for this increase in Section 3.3).

6



7

8 **Figure 2.** Pool boiling curves of (a) Cu thin film, (b) Cu coupon, (c) Ni thin film, and (d) Ni

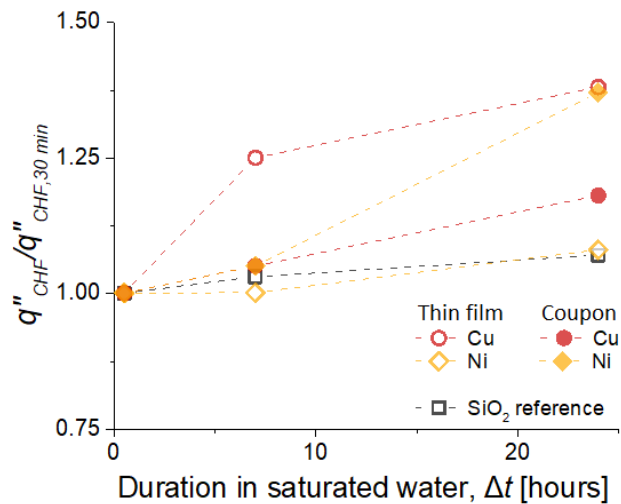
9 coupon surfaces. The surfaces were left in saturated water for different periods of time (30

1 minutes (black), 7 hours (blue), and 24 hours (red)) before measurements. The experimental
2 uncertainty is smaller than the marker size in the plots.

3

4 In addition to boiling curves, we plotted CHF values (q''_{CHF}) normalized by the CHF of a
5 corresponding material and type with 30 min Δt ($q''_{CHF,30min}$) as a function of Δt to investigate the
6 relative change in CHF values (Figure 3). Along with Ni and Cu, we also plotted the results of
7 chemically stable SiO_2 surfaces for reference. The plot shows clear increasing trends of CHF
8 values of Cu surfaces as Δt increased. CHF values of Ni thin films were as stable as those of SiO_2
9 reference surfaces, while the Ni coupon with 24 h Δt showed the relative change in CHF value as
10 significant as Cu thin films.

11



12

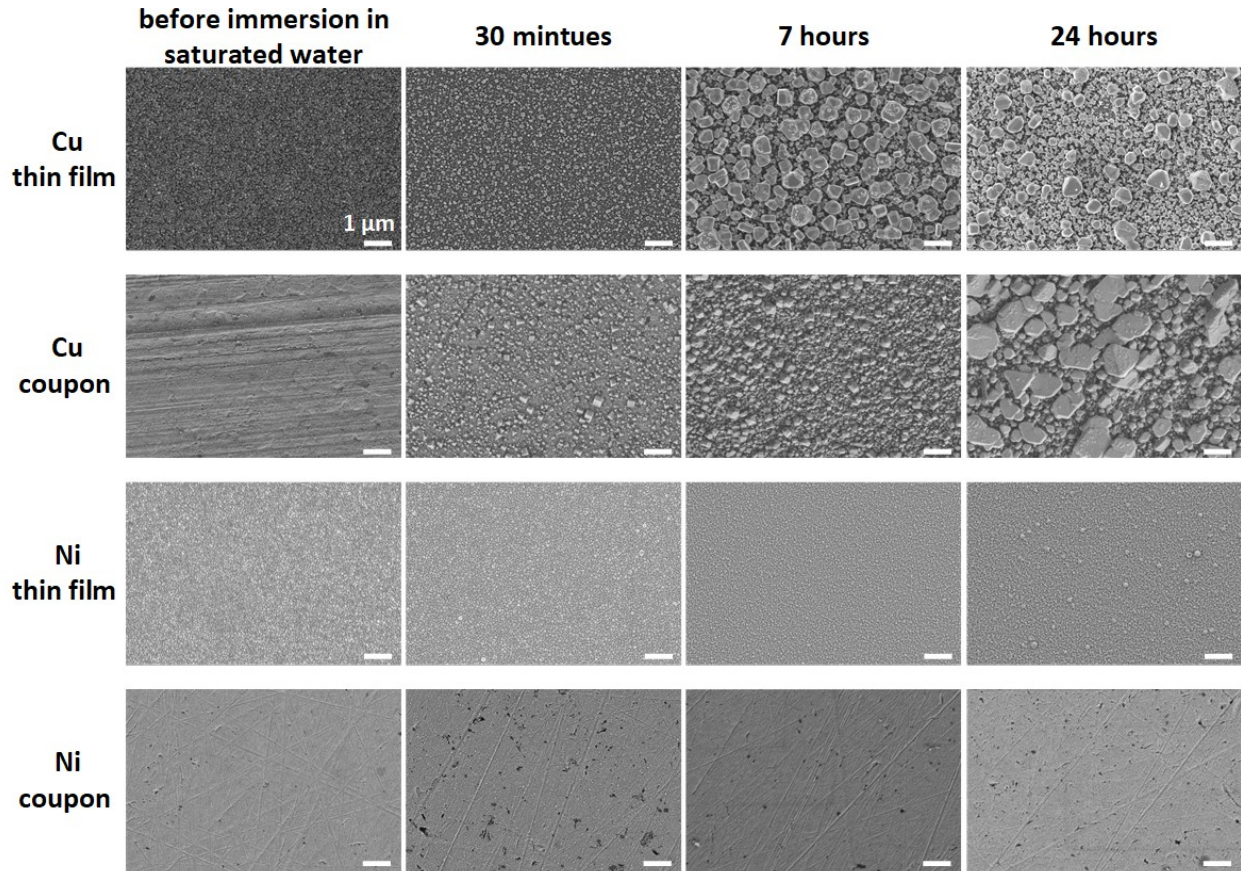
13 **Figure 3.** Relative change in CHF values as the duration in saturated water before boiling
14 increases.

1

2 3.2 Change in morphology

3 The changes in CHF values shown in Section 3.1 indicate that surface material and
4 structural properties were altered in a favorable way for pool boiling heat transfer as Δt
5 increases. In this section, we investigate the change in surface morphology using scanning
6 electron microscopy (SEM) and atomic force microscopy (AFM). Figure 4 shows the SEM
7 images of Cu and Ni surfaces before being immersed in saturated water and after boiling with
8 different Δt . SEM images of surfaces before being immersed in saturated water show the initial
9 surface conditions, where thin film surfaces represent fine grains resulting from sputtering and
10 coupons show sandpaper scratches. Although the kinetics of nanostructure growth seems
11 different for thin films and coupons, the SEM images of Cu surfaces show growing
12 nanostructures as Δt increased. The cube-like shape indicates that the nanostructures are cuprous
13 oxide (Cu_2O) rather than cupric oxide (CuO), where CuO usually exhibits sharp blade-like
14 shapes [50]. Conversely, there were no noticeable morphology changes on both Ni thin films and
15 coupons.

16



1

2 **Figure 4.** SEM images of Cu thin film, Cu coupon, Ni thin film, and Ni coupon surfaces before
3 being immersed in saturated water and after boiling with different Δt . Cu shows growth in
4 nanostructures as Δt increased, while changes in Ni surfaces were unnoticeable. All scale bars
5 are 1 μm .

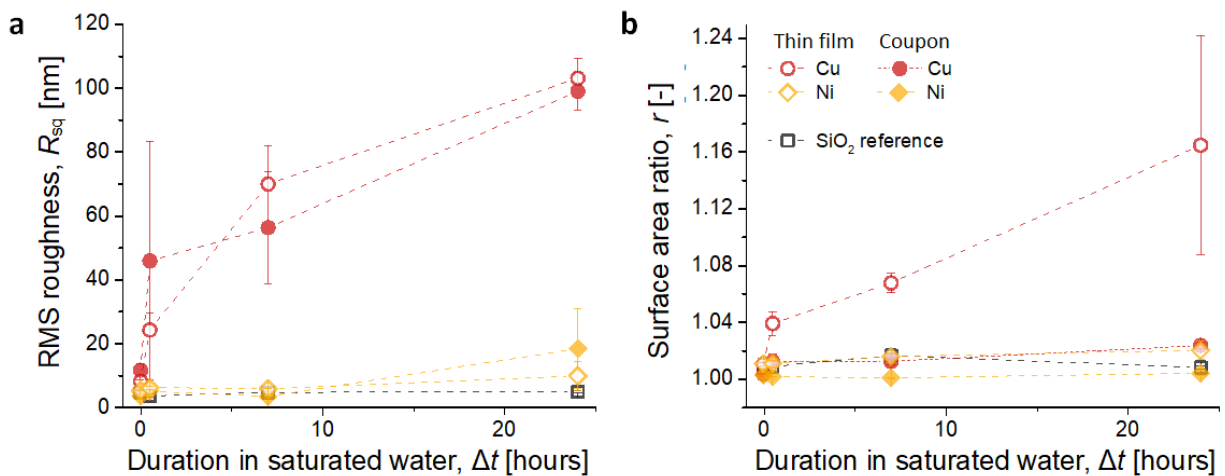
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7 For detailed analysis of surface morphology, we measured surface profiles using AFM
8 and characterized their root mean square roughness (R_{sq}) and surface area ratio (r) (Figure 5),
9 where r is defined as the ratio of actual surface area to the projected area. We also characterized
10 SiO_2 surfaces as a reference. The three-dimensional profile images of all samples appear in

1 Section III of the Supporting Information. The change in R_{sq} and r of Cu increased with Δt ,
2 similar to CHF. Specifically, Cu thin films showed significant increase in both R_{sq} and r , while
3 Cu coupons showed a significant change in R_{sq} but the change in r remained less than 2.5%. This
4 result implies that the shape of nanostructures on Cu thin films and coupons are different. A
5 similar R_{sq} between thin films and coupons suggests the height of nanostructures was similar on
6 both cases. The much higher r of thin films than coupons, on the other hand, indicates that the
7 characteristic lateral size of nanostructures formed on thin films was smaller than coupons, so
8 that the surface area increase on thin films was greater than that on coupons. This result was
9 consistent with the SEM observation, where the 24 h Cu thin film showed relatively smaller
10 lateral size of nanostructures than the nanostructures on the 24 h Cu coupon.

11 The morphology of Ni surfaces, as opposed to Cu, were stable for both thin films and
12 coupons, which can explain the stable CHF values on Ni thin films. However, despite an
13 observed change in CHF, the morphology of 24 h Ni coupon was not significantly changed as its
14 CHF value. Although R_{sq} of 24 h Ni coupon increased slightly, the relative increase of CHF was
15 more significant and comparable to that of Cu thin film sample, indicating that surface
16 morphology is not the only important parameter governing CHF. The change in CHF as a
17 function of R_{sq} and r area available in Section III of the Supporting Information.

18



1

2 **Figure 5.** Statistical roughness parameters of Cu and Ni surfaces characterized by AFM. SiO_2

3 surfaces were characterized as a reference. Changes in root mean square roughness (a) and

4 surface area ratio (b) as a function of Δt . Error bars represent standard deviations of

5 measurements in three different spots. The three-dimensional profile images measured with AFM

6 are available in Section IV of the Supporting Information.

7

8 3.3 Change in surface material composition

9 To observe the chemical oxidation states, we characterized surface material composition

10 after boiling experiments using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS) equipped with a

11 monochromated Al $K\alpha$ X-ray source (Versaprobe II XPS, Physical Electronics). The angle

12 between the surface plane and the analyzer was 45° . All samples were sputtered with argon ions

13 in the XPS chamber before the measurements to remove carbonaceous species from the surfaces.

14 We collected principal Cu LMM Auger peaks on Cu thin films (Figure 6a) and coupons (Figure

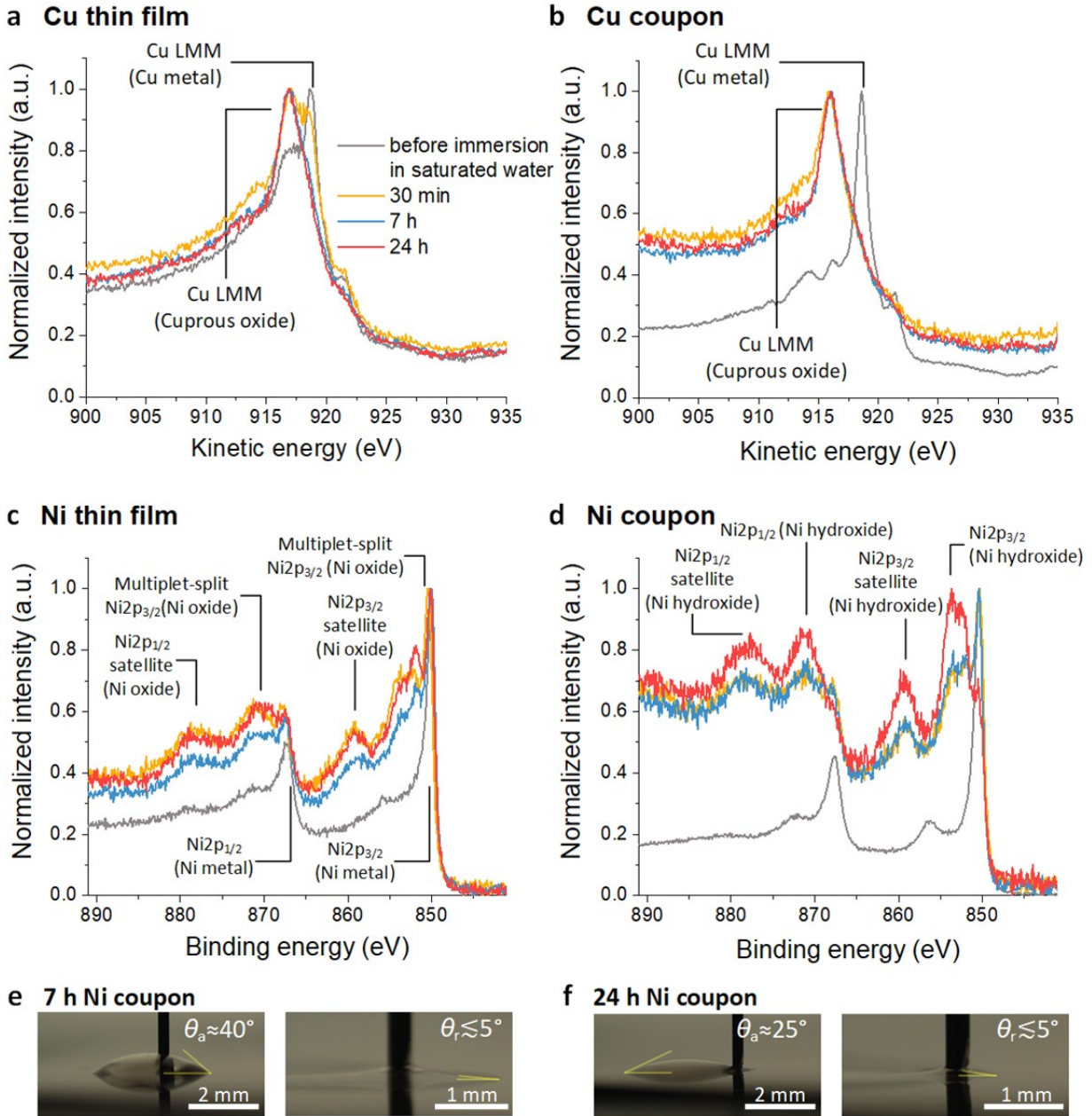
15 6b) and plotted the normalized intensity as a function of kinetic energy (KE) of ejected Auger

1 electrons. Here the kinetic energy was converted from the electron binding energy (BE) and the
2 energy of incident X-ray ($h\nu=1486.6$ eV), i.e., $KE=h\nu-BE$. Both Cu thin films and coupons
3 showed apparent shifts of Cu LMM peaks from Cu metal (~ 918.6 eV) to Cu_2O (~ 916.8 eV),
4 indicating all Cu surfaces were oxidized in boiling water. In particular, the broad Cu LMM peak,
5 spanning between Cu metal and Cu_2O peaks, of the 30 min Cu thin film represents the presence
6 of CuO (~ 917.7 eV), which implies that the oxidation of Cu thin film surfaces transitions from
7 CuO to Cu_2O as Δt increased.

8 The oxidation states of Ni thin films (Figure 6c) and Ni coupons (Figure 6d) were
9 analyzed by the Ni2p spectra. While it was difficult to distinguish Ni2p multiplet-split peaks of
10 Ni metal, Ni oxide (NiO), and Ni hydroxide ($Ni(OH)_2$), the clear appearance of NiO and $Ni(OH)_2$
11 satellite peaks on surfaces after boiling suggests that all Ni surfaces were oxidized in boiling
12 water. Interestingly, the 24 h Ni coupon showed the presence of $Ni(OH)_2$ on the surface, whereas
13 the other Ni surfaces showed the spectra of NiO only. This formation of $Ni(OH)_2$ could be
14 originated from outgassed hydrogen from the Ni coupons. Bulk metals usually have dissolved
15 hydrogens within their dislocation substructure [51], which can react with surface nickel to form
16 $Ni(OH)_2$ when there is sufficient time for hydrogen to diffuse towards the surface. Considering
17 that the 24 h Ni coupon also showed a notably higher CHF value than the other Ni surfaces, we
18 attributed this result to be related to the material property of $Ni(OH)_2$. The primary material
19 property that affects the CHF is known to be surface wettability. Specifically, the CHF model
20 based on a receding contact angle has shown a reasonable agreement with experimental data
21 [52]. To see the wettability difference between NiO and $Ni(OH)_2$, we measured advancing and
22 receding contact angles by infusing and withdrawing water through a syringe, respectively, on 7

1 h and 24 h Ni coupon surfaces (Figure 6e and 6f). While both surfaces showed extremely small
2 receding contact angles ($\leq 5^\circ$), the advancing contact angle on the 24 h Ni coupon ($\approx 25^\circ$) was
3 smaller than that of the 7 h Ni coupon ($\approx 40^\circ$), indicating that better wettability of Ni(OH)_2
4 compared with NiO could contribute to the increase in CHF observed on the 24 h Ni coupon.
5 Alternatively, the outgassing hydrogen could also affect the measured CHF value by disrupting
6 the nucleation behavior and bubble dynamics. Understanding this higher CHF value found on
7 Ni(OH)_2 than NiO warrants further investigation in future work.

8



1

2 **Figure 6.** XPS analysis of Cu and Ni surfaces before being immersed in saturated water and after
 3 boiling. (a, b) Cu LMM Auger peaks on Cu thin films and coupons. All Cu surfaces showed
 4 evidence of Cu₂O. The surface composition of 30 min Cu thin film was under transition from
 5 CuO to Cu₂O. (c, d) Ni2p peaks on Ni thin films and coupons. All Ni surfaces showed evidence
 6 of oxidation. Particularly, the surface of 24 h Ni coupon was found to be Ni(OH)₂, while the

1 other Ni surfaces were NiO. (e, f) Advancing and receding contact angles of water on the 7 h and
2 24 h Ni coupon surfaces.

3

4 4. Conclusions

5 In this work, we addressed the discrepancy in reported CHF values of pool boiling of
6 water on flat Cu and Ni surfaces by accounting for surface oxidation during boiling. We prepared
7 100 nm sputtered thin films and bulk metal coupons for Cu and Ni. Metallic surfaces were
8 immersed in saturated water for different periods of time before pool boiling experiments. Along
9 with pool boiling experiments, we analyzed the morphology of the surfaces using SEM and
10 AFM and the chemical composition using XPS. The experimental results showed that pool
11 boiling on metallic surfaces could be dependent on the samples' duration in saturated water. In
12 the case of Cu surfaces, the roughness increased with residence time in saturated water by
13 forming Cu₂O nanostructures, which led to an increase in CHF values due to the structural
14 effects. The CHF and morphology of Ni surfaces were stable compared to Cu samples, with the
15 exception of the 24 h Ni coupon, which exhibited a notably high CHF that could not be attributed
16 to morphology. XPS analysis suggested the difference in CHF was likely due to a different
17 surface chemical composition; the surface of the 24 h Ni coupon contained Ni(OH)₂, while the
18 surfaces of the other Ni samples were primarily NiO. The reason why the Ni(OH)₂ surface
19 exhibited a higher CHF than NiO surfaces could be attributed to its higher affinity for water, but
20 this phenomenon requires further investigation. The measured CHF values of Cu (96.8 – 133.7
21 W/cm²) and Ni (88.5 – 121.3 W/cm²) fall within the spread of CHF values of Cu (60 – 157

1 W/cm²) and Ni (78 – 168 W/cm²) reported in the literature. The results of our study confirm that
2 consistent control of samples' duration in saturated water is critical to achieve consistent
3 measurements of pool boiling of water on metallic surfaces. In addition, we recommend that
4 researchers characterize the morphology and chemical compositions of metallic surfaces before
5 and after boiling to further investigate how changes in surface conditions affect the boiling heat
6 transfer.

7

8 Authors' Contributions

9 Y. Song and D. J. Preston conceived the idea. Y. Song and H. Cha conducted pool boiling
10 experiments. Y. Song, Z. Liu, and L. Zhang conducted the literature survey and XPS analysis. Y.
11 Song and J. H. Seong prepared samples and analyzed morphology. Y. Song wrote the paper with
12 input from all other authors. E. N. Wang guided the work.

13

14 Acknowledgements

15 Y. Song and H. Cha acknowledge that the information, data, or work presented herein was
16 funded in part by the Advanced Research Projects Agency-Energy (ARPA-E), U. S. Department
17 of Energy, under Award Number DE-AR0000ABC. L. Zhang acknowledges the Singapore-MIT
18 Alliance for Research and Technology (SMART) program. Z. Liu and D. J. Preston
19 acknowledge funding provided by the Rice University Faculty Initiatives Fund.

20

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