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Universal Critical Heat Flux (CHF) Correlations for Cryogenic Flow Boiling in Uniformly Heated Tubes



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ABSTRACT

Experiments to determine critical heat flux (CHF) for cryogen flow in uniformly heated, round tubes have been performed throughout the globe during the past sixty years. However, experimental CHF data for cryogens are rarely published, remaining in the archives of authors, or in obscure technical reports of an organization or other inaccessible sources. In the present study, the Purdue University-Boiling and Two-Phase Flow Laboratory (PU-BTPFL) Cryogen Flow Boiling CHF Database is consolidated from world literature dating back to 1959. With 2312 data points for LH₂, LHe, LN₂ and LCH₄, it represents the largest cryogen CHF database assembled to date. The database encompasses diameters from 0.5 to 14.1 mm, critical length-to-diameter ratios from 2.5 to 230.8 (term 'critical' refers to axial location where CHF is detected), system pressures from 0.01 to 4.07 MPa, reduced pressures from 0.1 to 0.93, mass velocities from 2.2 to 8203.9 kg m⁻² s⁻¹, inlet subcoolings from 0 to 78.9 K, inlet qualities from -2.06 to 0.95, critical subcoolings from 0 to 48.5 K, critical qualities from -1.23 to 1.00, critical void fractions from 0 to 1, and CHF values from 0.05 to 8203.9 kW m^{-2} . The consolidated database represents an invaluable tool for development of CHF correlations - a primary goal for the present study - as well as future analytic and computational models. Using this database, new universal CHF correlations are constructed for two distinct CHF mechanisms, Departure from Nucleate Boiling (DNB) and Dryout, after careful physics-based segregation of the data. With mean absolute errors below 30%, the new CHF correlations are shown to provide good predictive agreement with the database.

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1. Introduction

1.1. Applications of Cryogenic Fluids

Cryogenic fluids are prevalent in numerous daily applications. For example, Liquid Nitrogen (LN_2) is used to fast freeze food, to preserve tissues and blood, and to destroy unhealthy tissues in cryosurgery. Liquid Oxygen (LOX) is used in the medical industry, life support systems, and fuel cells, while Liquid Hydrogen (LH_2) is used to cool superconducting magnets.

Cryogens, especially LOX, LH₂, Liquid Methane (LCH₄), and Liquid Helium (LHe) are also vitally important to space applications, which are the primary focus of the present study. Liquid Helium (LHe), for example, is used to chill down Earth-orbiting telescopes and satellites as well as cool space experiments. In nuclear thermal propulsion systems, LOX/LCH₄ or LOX/LH₂ are used in ascent stages, descent stages, and in-space fuel depots. LH_2 has also been proposed for use in several other advanced propulsion systems, where it may be used as both propellent and coolant. Figure 1 shows examples of the space applications of cryogens.

1.2. Fluid Physics unique to Cryogens

Cryogens constitute a unique class of fluids which are clearly distinguishable from water and refrigerants by virtue of their low saturation temperatures, as shown in Fig. 2 (calculated using REF-PROP 10 [1]). But in addition to low saturation temperatures, cryogens also exhibit general thermophysical property trends, including (a) low surface tension, σ , (b) low latent heat of vaporization, $h_{\rm fg}$, (c) low liquid viscosity, $\mu_{\rm f}$, and, to a lesser extent, (d) low liquid-to-vapor density difference, $\rho_{\rm f} - \rho_{\rm g}$ (also calculated using REFPROP 10 [1]). These trends are clearly captured in Fig. 3, where saturated liquid property values for commonly used cryogens are plotted against reduced pressures ranging from 0 to 1 and density difference is normalized in terms of the Atwood number, *At*.

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Nomencla	ature
At	Atwood number $(a_2 - a_3)/(a_2 + a_3)$
Ro	holing number $a_{min}/(Ch_f + \rho_g)$
D0 Ro*	modified boiling number defined in Eq. (18)
<u>Б</u> о СС-	empirical constants in CHE correlations
$C_1 - C_5$	confinement number $\sqrt{\sigma/((\rho_c - \rho_a)\sigma D^2)}$
D	inner tube diameter
f	Fanning friction factor
Fr _*	modified Froude number.
	$G\cos\theta / (\rho_{\epsilon} / gD(\rho_{\epsilon} - \rho_{\sigma}) / \rho_{\epsilon})$
G	mass velocity
g	gravitational acceleration
h	enthalpy of fluid; heat transfer coefficient
h _{in}	inlet enthalpy of the fluid
h _{CHF}	enthalpy of fluid at CHF location
$h_{\rm f}$	enthalpy of saturated liquid
$h_{\rm fg}$	latent heat of vaporization
$k_{\rm f}$	thermal conductivity of liquid
kw	thermal conductivity of tube wall
L _H	heated length of tube
L _{CHF}	critical length of tube from inlet to CHF location
MAE	mean absolute error
Nu	Nusselt number
Р	system pressure
ΔP	pressure drop
$P_{\rm R}$	reduced pressure, <i>P</i> / <i>P</i> _{crit}
q	heat flux based on tube's inside area
$q_{\rm CHF}$	critical heat flux (CHF) based on tube's inside area
Re _{fo,D}	liquid-only Reynolds number based on tube diam-
P	eter, $GD/\mu_{\rm f}$
Re _{go,D}	vapor-only Reynolds number based on tube diam-
DMC	eter, GD/μ_g
KIVIS T	root mean squared error
T T	bulk fluid temperature
T _f	bulk liquid temperature at inlet
T _{in} T _{out}	bulk liquid temperature at outlet (defined only if
rout	$x_{\text{a out}} < 0$
Тсыр	local bulk liquid temperature at CHF location (de-
- Chr	fined only if $x_{e,CHF} < 0$
T_{1}	Lambda point temperature (2.17K) for Liquid He-
λ	lium transitioning from LHe I to LHe II
$\Delta T_{\rm sub}$	liquid subcooling, $T_{sat} - T_{f}$
$\Delta T_{\rm sub in}$	inlet liquid subcooling based on pressure at inlet
540,111	of heated length, $T_{\text{sat in}} - T_{\text{in}}$
$\Delta T_{\rm sub out}$	outlet liquid subcooling based on inlet tempera-
subjout	ture, energy balance for entire heated length, and
	pressure at outlet of heated length, $T_{sat,out} - T_{out}$
$\Delta T_{\rm sub, CHF}$	local liquid subcooling based on inlet tempera-
	ture, energy balance for entire critical length of the
	tube, and pressure at CHF location, $T_{sat,CHF} - T_{CHF}$
T _{sat}	saturation temperature
t _w	tube wall thickness
We _{fo,D}	Weber number based on tube diameter, $G^2D/(\rho_f \sigma)$
x	flow quality
x _e	thermodynamic equilibrium quality, $(h - h_f)/h_{fg}$
x _{e,in}	inlet thermodynamic equilibrium quality based on
	pressure at inlet of heated length, $(h_{in} - h_{f,in})/h_{fg,in}$
x _{e,out}	outlet thermodynamic equilibrium quality deter-
	mined from $x_{e,in}$, energy balance for entire heated
	length, and pressure at outlet of heated length,
	$(n_{\text{out}} - n_{\text{f,out}})/n_{\text{fg,out}}$

x _{e,CHF}	local thermodynamic equilibrium quality deter- mined from $x_{e,in}$, energy balance for entire criti- cal length, and pressure at CHF location, $(h_{CHF} - h_{f,CHF})/h_{fg,CHF}$ axial location
Greek S	vmbols
α	void fraction
α _{che}	void fraction at CHF location
E	height of surface roughness element
θ	percentage of data points predicted within $\pm 30\%$;
	angle of inclination from horizontal plane
μ	dynamic viscosity
ξ	percentage of data points predicted within $\pm 50\%$
ρ	density
σ	surface tension
Subscrip	ots
Α	accelerational component
CHF	critical heat flux
crit	fluid's critical point
f	liquid
F	frictional component
G	gravitational component
g	vapor
H	heated section
in	inlet of heated length
meas	measured/experimental
out	outlet of heated length
pred	predicted
sat	saturated conditions
sp	single-phase
тр	two-phase
W	lube wall

The consequence of these thermophysical property trends are reflected in the physics of both fluid flow and heat transfer for cryogens. Figure 4 shows the effects of these property trends in terms of magnitudes of three dimensionless parameters: (a) Reynolds number based on saturated liquid viscosity and tube diameter, Refo,D, (b) Weber number, also based on saturated liquid density and tube diameter, Wefo,D, and (c) modified Froude number, Fr*. As shown in Fig. 4(a), very low viscosity causes cryogens to acquire much higher Reynolds numbers, especially for LHe and LH₂, compared to other fluid classes, causing cryogen flows to be predominantly turbulent and therefore enhancing single-phase liquid forced convection, albeit at the expense of higher pressure drop. Similarly, Fig. 4(b) shows how very low surface tension causes cryogens to acquire much higher Weber numbers compared to those for water and refrigerants, which causes initiation of nucleate boiling and critical heat flux (CHF) at lower wall superheats for cryogens. As to gravity effects, Fig. 4(c) shows values of modified Froude number of Fr* greater than 6 causing fluid flow and heat transfer for cryogens to be mostly independent of flow orientation relative to Earth gravity [2]; this issue will be addressed further in a subsequent section. The three important trends captured in Fig. 4 imply correlations for cryogens are best pursued separately from those of other fluid classes.

In addition to unique fluid physics, cryogens pose appreciable challenges in experimental temperature measurements. This particularly is the case for values of wall superheat, $T_w - T_{sat}$, or wallto-fluid temperature difference, $T_w - T_f$, approaching or below 0.5 K (which is more commonly encountered with cryogens than with water or refrigerants). In these situations, Nusselt number might exhibit erroneous trends in the form of large artificial spikes or

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Rocket Fuel Transfer System (LH₂, 20.3K)



Nuclear Thermal Propulsion Systems (LH₂, 20.3K)

Fig. 1. Examples of space applications of cryogens.



Fig. 2. Classification of coolants into water, refrigerants, and cryogens based on variation of saturation temperature with reduced pressure.

even unphysical values below zero. The rationale behind this inference can be explained as follows.

Assuming an uncertainty in wall temperature measurements of $dT_{\rm w}$, the experimentally determined Nusselt number can be expressed as

$$Nu = \frac{hD}{k_f} = \frac{q}{T_w + dT_w - T_f} \frac{D}{k_f} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{dT_w}{T_w - T_f}} \frac{q}{T_w - T_f} \frac{D}{k_f}.$$
 (1)

Hence, situations where $dT_w >> (T_w - T_f)$, the calculated Nusselt number will exhibit very high measurement uncertainly, which increases with increasing dT_w and/or decreasing $T_w - T_f$. This is applicable particularly for fluids like LHe whose sub-critical

operating temperatures are as low as 2.17 K (Lambda Temperature, T_{λ} , corresponding to transition from LHe I to LHe II).

Two important inferences regarding these temperature measurement challenges are:

- (1) Investigators should always be mindful of the potential for high uncertainties when using cryogen data.
- (2) These high uncertainties are certain to create appreciable scatter when aiming to develop a cryogen correlation from experimental data.

1.3. Flow Boiling Critical Heat Flux (CHF)

Critical heat flux (CHF) is arguably the most important design parameter for systems utilizing boiling to cool surfaces. This is especially the case for applications involving heat-flux-controlled heat input, where CHF can trigger a rapid unsteady rise in surface temperature, often culminating in damaging, overheating or burnout of the surface. A common design strategy is set operating conditions to achieve nucleate boiling while maintain heat flux within a safe margin below CHF. Achieving this goal requires accurate determination of CHF through all means possible, theoretical, empirical or computational.

Understanding interfacial behavior, tackling high-heat-flux removal from surfaces, and determination of CHF have been crucial cornerstones for investigations at the Purdue University Boiling and Two-phase Flow Laboratory (PU-BTPFL) dating back to the mid-1980s [3]. These efforts encompass all possible two-phase cooling schemes, including pool boiling [4-7], falling films [8-10], macro-channel flow boiling [11-14], mini/micro-channel flow boiling [15,16], jet impingement [17,18] and spray cooling [19,20]. The



Fig. 3. Variations of (a) latent heat of vaporization, (b) surface tension, (c) saturated liquid viscosity, and (d) Atwood number with reduced pressure for cryogens compared to those of other fluid classes.



Fig. 4. Variations of (a) Reynolds number, (b) Weber number, and (c) modified Froude number (also Hall and Mudawar's [2] criterion for neglecting orientation effects) with reduced pressure for cryogens along with those of other fluid classes for D = 10 mm and $G = 1000 \text{ kg/m}^2$.s.

reader is advised to refer to the interfacial physics interpretations provided in these studies, especially in regard to CHF determination.

For flow boiling in tubes two main types of CHF are commonly encountered: Dryout and Departure from Nucleate Boiling (DNB) [21]. As shown in Fig. 5, Dryout is typically encountered in channels where the coolant is supplied with low subcooling and at low mass velocity and subjected to low wall heat flux. Assuming the channel in sufficiently long, these conditions lead to a gradual increase in vapor void fraction along the channel, encompassing bubbly, slug and annular flow regimes. Here, CHF is associated with eventual dryout of the annular liquid film. Because of the combination of low wall heat flux and axial conduction in the wall, Dryout is comparatively a mild form of CHF. Owing to low latent heat



Fig. 5. Heat transfer flow patterns associated with flow conditions leading to CHF due to Dryout and Departure from Nucleate Boiling (DNB) in a uniformly heated tube. Adapted from Mudawar and Bowers [21].

of vaporization and low surface tension, the nucleate boiling region for cryogens ends up occupying a comparatively smaller fraction of the entire heated length compared to water and refrigerants. It is for the same reasons that much higher exit qualities are achieved with cryogens.

On the other hand, DNB, which is also depicted in Fig. 5, is generally encountered when the coolant is supplied to the channel in highly subcooled state and at high mass velocity and is subjected to high wall heat flux. Here, bubbles are unable to penetrate towards the liquid because of strong condensation effects in the core. CHF is triggered along the wall because of localized coalescence of vapor bubbles into an oblong vapor blanket, even at axial locations with abundant liquid flow in the core. The vapor blanket serves to preclude liquid access from the core to the wall and, because of high wall heat flux, cause the wall temperature to escalate in a rapid unsteady fashion. This is why DNB is often associated with high probability of physical damage to the heating wall compared to Dryout. However, it can be argued that since cryogens, unlike other fluid classes, are associated with relatively low heat fluxes, as well as low CHF values, physical burnout is unlikely with cryogens.

Figure 5 clearly shows how CHF in both its forms is influenced by the coolant's mass velocity, *G*, inlet subcooling, $\Delta T_{sub,in}$, tube diameter, *D*, and heated length, *L*_H, in addition of course to the coolant's thermophysical properties, which in turn are dictated by operating pressure, *P*. Different functional forms have been recommended to correlate CHF data [22]. The first involves relating CHF to local (or outlet) conditions where CHF is encountered,

$$q_{CHF} = f(D, G, P, h_{CHF}).$$
⁽²⁾

Another is based on inlet conditions and axial location for CHF occurrence, *L*_{CHF},

$$q_{CHF} = f(D, L_{CHF}, G, P, h_{in}).$$
(3)

Yet, a third form, similar to the second except that CHF is assumed to occur at the exit of the heated length (*i.e.*, $L_{CHF} = L_H$) is,

$$q_{CHF} = f(D, L_H, G, P, h_{in}).$$

$$\tag{4}$$

In nondimensional form, Eqs. (2) and (3) can be written, respectively, as [22]

$$Bo = \frac{q_{CHF}}{Gh_{fg}} = f\left(We_{fo,D}, \frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}, x_{e,CHF}\right).$$
(5)

$$Bo = \frac{q_{CHF}}{Gh_{fg}} = f\left(We_{fo,D}, \frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}, x_{e,in}, \frac{L_{CHF}}{D}\right).$$
(6)

Most of the seminal correlations reported in the literature (see Hall and Mudawar [22] and Katto and Ohno [23]) do obey the

functional forms of Eqs. (5) and (6). On close inspection, it can be seen that CHF correlation generally exhibit dependence on Weber number, either density ratio or reduced pressure (which also dictates thermophysical property values for saturated liquid and saturated vapor), and either outlet quality (or outlet subcooling) or a combination of inlet quality (or inlet subcooling) and tube geometry.

Since the flow physics and CHF mechanism are fundamentally different for the two CHF types, it imperative to make a distinction between them when using any data to develop a CHF correlation. This notion will be carefully addressed in a subsequent section.

1.4. Flow Boiling CHF in Cryogenic Fluids

There is presently a pressing need to acquire accurate predictive tools for cryogen two-phase flow and heat transfer in tubes in many of the aforementioned space applications. Prevalence of twophase flow in these applications can be easily explained using LH_2 as example. Used both as propellent and coolant, low boiling point LH_2 is stored in liquid state but must be transferred to a variety of systems in gaseous form. This implies the LH_2 will undergo flow boiling during the transfer process.

The importance of acquiring accurate predictive tools for cryogens is evident from concerted efforts by the National Aeronautics and Space Administration (NASA) (also the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST)) involving use of cryogens for a variety of applications, with conditions ranging from sub-critical to super-critical, and from pool boiling (nucleate boiling heat transfer coefficient and CHF) to flow boiling (two-phase pressure drop, two-phase heat transfer coefficient, and CHF [24,25]).

Overall, fluid class has a very strong influence on magnitude of CHF in flow boiling situations. For water, measured CHF values range from ~ 1 to over 200 MW/m² [20]. On the other hand, CHF for refrigerants, especially for applications involving thermal management of electronic devices in such applications as supercomputers, hybrid vehicle power electronics and both commercial and military avionics, ranges from ~ 1 to 10 MW/m² [2]. However, cryogenic fluids, which exist in liquid state at extremely low temperatures, because of their weak thermophysical properties (as shown earlier in Fig. 3), exhibit comparatively much lower CHF values. Examples include (as will be discussed later in the present study) ~10 kW/m² for LHe, ~100 kW/m² for LH₂, ~100 – 1000 kW/m² for LN₂, and ~1 MW/m² for LCH₄. These low CHF values limit the application of cryogens to a unique set of applications.

For both water and refrigerants, a primary focus of experimental studies is to distinguish the mechanism for CHF (Dryout versus DNB) as well as obtain quantitative measurements of interfacial behavior at conditions just preceding CHF occurrence. Aside from heat transfer measurements, flow visualization plays a vital role is terms of capturing dominant flow patterns and clearly distinguishing DNB type CHF from Dryout. Unfortunately, flow visualization in cryogenic experiments is extremely limited, rendering any systematic confirmation of CHF type quite elusive. However, a few exceptions do exist, where flow visualization is conducted concurrently with the heat transfer measurements to aid in determination of CHF type.

The mechanism of DNB in associated with several interrelated processes, including detailed evolution of the two-phase flow along the channel, initial formation of localized vapor blankets, and most importantly, hydrodynamic instability (Helmholtz type) governing when the interface of the vapor blanket switches from unstable state (condition allowing bulk liquid to contact the heated wall and therefore avoid DNB) to stable state (condition where liquid is no longer able to access the heated wall, therefore resulting in CHF). These concepts are fairly well known from prior works by one of the authors and widely disseminated in the heat transfer literature since the early 1990s (see ref. [14]) and therefore not elaborated upon here. However, it is obvious that every aspect of the two-phase flow that culminates in DNB is dependent on the fluid's thermophysical properties, which is captured in relevant dimensionless groups. Therefore, while the DNB mechanism might be similar for different fluid types, both the DNB trends and details are quite different. This is especially the case for cryogens, given their property values deviate markedly from those of other fluid types.

Predicting two-phase flow and heat transfer for cryogens can be achieved using (a) experimental correlations, (b) analytic models, and (c) CFD models. While PU-BTPFL investigators have successfully developed both analytic models [26–29] and CFD models [30,31] for both flow boiling and flow condensation (these are all specific to thermal management of space systems), these efforts required very systematic and exhaustive validation using a variety of flow visualization and flow measurement techniques, which are extremely limited for cryogens, especially in terms of determining CHF type. This leaves experimental correlations as the primary rational means for predicting two-phase transport behavior for cryogens.

Developing reliable correlations requires first amassing available databases for different cryogens into a single, unified database this represents the first primary goal of the present study in terms of CHF prediction. A key question in pursuing this goal is determine whether to employ 'universal correlations' for all fluid types (water, refrigerants and cryogens) or cryogens alone. Developing universal correlations has been the target of several recent efforts at PU-BTPFL based on massive databases for all fluid types and very broad ranges of key operating conditions, such as pressure, mass velocity, quality, and tube geometry (e.g., [32]). The difficulty in adopting the same methodology for cryogens is large bias in terms of high data count for both water and refrigerants compared a relatively small count for cryogens. This implies that, even when a universal correlation does achieve good overall accuracy in predicting data for all three fluid classes, predictive accuracy might be compromised for fluids with low data count. This implies a better strategy might be to pursue three separate universal correlations, one for water, one for refrigerants, and one for cryogens. Developing a universal CHF correlation for cryogens represents the second primary goal of the present study.

But even when aiming to develop a universal CHF correlation using a large database for multiple cryogens, it is of paramount importance to first demarcate data based on three primary classifiers: (1) fluid, (2) CHF mechanism (Dryout versus DNB), and (3) flow orientation in order to assess major data trends associated with each classifier. This strategy will be systematically adopted in the present study before developing a universal correlation applicable to the entire database.

1.5. Objectives of Present Study

The present study is motivated by the lack of a large, reliable, error-free cryogen CHF database for developing correlations and mechanistic models to predict CHF in flow boiling. Another motivation was the lack of a simple, accurate, universal CHF correlation for cryogenic flow in a uniformly heated tube.

Following are key objectives of the present study:

- (1) Amass cryogenic fluid flow boiling CHF databases available from the world literature for uniformly heated tubes.
- (2) Carefully assess the accumulated data on a point-by-point basis to exclude for any inaccurate data or data or missing vital information such as operating conditions and apply systematic criteria for data exclusion.

- (4) Carefully segregate the compiled data based on fluid (LH₂, LHe, LN₂, and LCH₄), flow orientation (vertical upflow, downflow or horizontal flow), and CHF mechanism (Dryout or DNB).
- (5) Using the CHF Database, develop new 'Universal CHF Correlations' for cryogens.
- (6) Using the CHF Database, test the performance of existing CHF correlations.
- (7) Ascertain the accuracy of the new correlation for each fluid and against each primary variable (mass velocity, system pressure or reduced pressure, diameter, and critical quality).
- (8) Identify 'gaps' in the available CHF data which warrant further experimental investigation.
- (9) Recommend a methodology for acquiring future CHF data in a manner that is conducive to refining CHF correlations and mechanistic models.

2. Compilation of Cryogen Flow Boiling CHF Database

As indicated earlier, the present study involved exhaustive data mining of Flow Boiling cryogen CHF data from all literature sources available to the present authors. This included (1) major cryogen journals (*e.g.*, Cryogenics (Elsevier), Advances in Cryogenic Engineering (Springer), (2) major cryogen conferences (*e.g.*, International Cryogenic Engineering Conference, Cryogenic Engineering Conference (early papers published in Advances in Cryogenic Engineering)), (3) NASA and NIST technical reports, and (4) other sporadic publications, reports and theses from across the globe.

Unless CHF data was explicitly specified in a given reference, the database was amassed by finding CHF information using one of three methods: (1) extracting maximum nucleate boiling heat flux data from boiling curves, (2) locating the point of wall temperature excursion from wall temperature versus heat flux plots, and (3) locating the point of heat transfer coefficient deterioration from heat transfer coefficient versus heat flux plots.

The data mining effort was complicated by difficulty acquiring certain references because of such factors as (a) lack of availability from international interlibrary services, (b) reluctance of a few investigators to share their own database, and (c) duplicate data. Avoidance of duplicate data was a thorough and time-consuming effort, necessitated by the fact that many published works lacked clear indication of sources for the data presented. Overall, the possibility of data duplication in the CHF database was prevented by careful point-by-point inspection of the acquired data.

After completing the initial data mining effort and making certain of absence of duplicate data, efforts shifted to excluding data that did not strictly conform to the following uniformity requirements:

- (1) Only single-component cryogens, therefore excluding data for binary or higher order mixtures.
- (2) Flow in only straight circular tubes; data for non-circular test sections (*e.g.*, rectangular, square, annular, rod, bundle) or helical tubes are excluded.
- (3) Flow in only stationary tubes; data for rotating tubes are excluded.
- (4) Flow not involving use of swirl flow promotor (*e.g.*, twisted tape insert) within the tube or upstream of the tube's inlet.
- (5) Flow not involving use of abnormal test section inlet or outlet (*e.g.*, orifice plate, inlet expansion, outlet expansion).
- (6) Flow in tubes whose inner walls are not modified (*e.g.*, finned) for the purpose of enhancing heat transfer performance.

- (7) Only data for vertical upflow, vertical downflow, and horizontal flow; data for inclines tubes are excluded.
- (8) Only uniformly heated circular tubes; data for axially or circumferentially nonuniform wall heat flux are excluded.
- (9) CHF data obtained from quenching experiments, which are prone to appreciable measurement error due mostly to fast temperature transients, are excluded.
- (10) Only CHF data presented by original authors with documented values for every parameter necessary for correlating the data (*e.g.*, operating pressure, mass velocity, inlet or outlet subcooling, tube geometry, heat flux, *etc.*).

This exclusion strategy, summarized in Table 1, resulted in an initial database suitable for developing correlations (also future models) for the complex CHF phenomenon specific to cryogens. However, it is important to note that the above do not constitute a complete list for data exclusion as other considerations, discussed in a later section, preclude inclusion of certain additional datapoint. These constitute additional fundamental exclusions, achieved through further assessment of the amassed data, in pursuit of the final PU-BTPFL Cryogen Flow Boiling CHF Database.

3. Assessment of World CHF Data

3.1. Experimental Methods used by Prior Investigators

3.1.1. Wall material, thickness and roughness

Test section material, wall thickness, surface roughness, and surface aging are all the effects that may influence flow boiling heat transfer and CHF. Tube material information and to a lesser extent wall thickness are mentioned in most references covered in the current study. Unfortunately, surface roughness is rarely described in research publications. Exceptions of studies that do provide ample description of surface roughness are those by Zhang *et al.* [64], Steiner and Schlünder [67], Müller [93], and Hilderbrandt [56].

Because of overall lack of complete information in many of the references on wall related issues, especially surface roughness and surface aging, a thorough investigation of these on CHF for cryogens is not possible at the present time.

3.1.2. Pressure measurement and pressure drop considerations

The majority of the studies were found to lack mention of whether the reported system pressure is the measured inlet or outlet pressure, perhaps because of relatively large diameter of tube tested and therefore negligible pressure drop. Only Van Noord [97] provided both inlet and outlet pressure information.

Fortunately, some authors do provide pressure drop data as well. It is found for most studies that provided pressure drop data that maximum pressure drop along the tube is quite small, which allows use of constant pressure assumption as suggested by Katto and Yokoya [98] using the criterion $\Delta P_{max}/P < 0.1$, where *P* is the quoted system pressure. This, and absence of mention whether quoted system pressure was measured at inlet or exit, justifies using system pressure alone (*i.e.*, assuming constant pressure) as basis for determining values for saturated thermophysical properties when correlating CHF data. This approach is used throughout the present correlation effort, where either inlet or outlet pressures are provided.

To systematically verify this assumption of constant pressure, the present authors employed a conservative (high) estimate for ΔP_{max} between the inlet and axial location where CHF was reported to occur. For axial locations where $x_e < 0$, the portion of pressure drop associated with single-phase liquid is calculated using Colebrook's friction factor relation [99], with any applicable gravitational pressure drop included as well,

Exclusion strategy for cryogen flow boiling CHF data in uniformly heated straight tubes.

Reference	Deviations from standard configuration ^a	Data points missing values for crucial parameters	Presence of duplicate data	Excluded due to other factors	Remarks
(a) Complete Exclusion					
Dean & Thompson [33]	•				Annular circular test section with heater in the core
Walters [34]		•			Only overall range for mass velocity provided
Lehongre <i>et al.</i> [35]	-	•			Inlet quality information missing
Jergel & Stevenson [36]	•				Rectangular channel test section with only a small fraction of test section heated
Jergel & Hlasnik [38]					Rectangular channel test section with only a small fraction of test section heated
Grigoriev et al [39]	•		•		Current data with additional new data found in Grigoriev <i>et al.</i> [54]
Subbotin <i>et al.</i> [40]		•			Inlet quality information missing
Lu [41]	•				Rectangular channel test section with discrete heat sources
Klimenko et al. [42]		•			Only overall ranges for mass velocity, pressure and quality provided
Klimenko		•			Only overall range for pressure provided and inlet quality information missing
& Sudarchikov [43]					
Qi et al. $[44]$		•			Only overall range for inlet quality provided
QI et al. $[45]$ Treio at al. $[46]$	•	•			Square and rectangular channel test sections
Mustafi [47]	•				Dry-out occurring in helically shaped pre-heater
Shiotsu <i>et al.</i> [48]	•				Annular circular test section with heater in the core
Tatsumoto <i>et al.</i> [49]	•				Annular circular test section with heater in the core
Yoneda et al. [50]	•				Rectangular duct test section with single-sided heating
Matsumoto et al. [51]	•				Annular circular test section with heater in the core
Shirai et al. [52]	•				Annular circular test section with heater in the core
An et al. [53]		•			Pressure and inlet quality information missing
(b) Partial Exclusion ^b					
Lewis et al. [55]		•			Inlet quality information missing for certain data points
Hilderbrandt [56]		•			Only overall ranges for mass velocity and pressure provided for certain data points
Ogata & Sato [57]				•	Certain data points difficult to extract due to similarity in symbols used
Ogata & Sato [58]		•			Only overall ranges for pressure and mass velocity provided for certain data points
Petuknov et al. [59]		•			only overall ranges for mass velocity and inlet quality provided for certain data points
Petukhov et al. [60]	•				Certain tests performed using rotating test section
Yun et al. [61]	•				Certain tests performed using circular test section with wire coil inserts
Zhang & Fu [62]		•			Wall temperature not provided to extract CHF data from certain heat transfer coefficient data points
Zhang et al. [63]		•			Only overall range for pressure provided for certain data points
Zhang et al. [64]		•			Only overall range for pressure provided for certain data points and inlet quality
					information missing for certain data points

^a Standard flow conforming to all requirements stated in section 2.

^b Select data points are excluded while are deemed acceptable for inclusion in final CHF Database.

$$\frac{dP_{sp,f,F}}{dz} = \frac{2}{D} f_{sp,f} \frac{G^2}{\rho_f},\tag{7}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{4f_{sp,f}}} = -2\log_{10}\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{3.7D} + \frac{2.51}{Re_{fo,D}\sqrt{4f_{sp,f}}}\right),\tag{8}$$

and
$$\frac{dP_{sp,f,G}}{dz} = \rho_f gsin\theta$$
. (9)

Whereas, for the axial locations where $x_e \ge 0$, pressure drop includes frictional, accelerational and gravitational components. The accelerational and gravitational gradients are determined, respectively, according to

$$-\frac{dP_{tp,A}}{dz} = G^2 \frac{d}{dz} \left\{ \frac{x_e^2}{\alpha \rho_g} + \frac{(1-x_e)^2}{(1-\alpha)\rho_f} \right\},$$
(10)

and
$$-\frac{dP_{tp,G}}{dz} = (\alpha \rho_g + (1 - \alpha)\rho_f)gsin\theta,$$
 (11)

where the void fraction α is calculated using Zivi's [100] relation

$$\alpha = \left[1 + \left(\frac{1 - x_e}{x_e}\right) \left(\frac{\rho_g}{\rho_f}\right)^{2/3}\right]^{-1} .$$
(12)

Finally, total pressure drop ΔP is determined by integrating the pressure gradient relations for single-phase and two-phase region over the respective axial span for each. Notice that, for the two-phase region, frictional pressure gradient is bound on the lower

side by that for pure saturated liquid and on the upper side pure saturated vapor, both calculated using Colebrook's friction factor relation [99], *i.e.*,

$$0 \leq \frac{\Delta P_{tp,F} - \Delta P_{sp,f,F}}{\Delta P_{sp,g,F} - \Delta P_{sp,f,F}} \leq 1.$$
(13)

Therefore, a conservative high estimate for total pressure drop, ΔP_{max} , is found by replacing the two-phase frictional pressure drop for axial locations where $x_e > 0$ by that corresponding to single-phase saturated vapor.

$$\frac{dP_{sp,g,F}}{dz} = \frac{2}{D} f_{sp,g} \frac{G^2}{\rho_g},\tag{14}$$

and
$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{4f_{sp,g}}} = -2\log_{10}\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{3.7D} + \frac{2.51}{Re_{go,D}\sqrt{4f_{sp,g}}}\right).$$
 (15)

Owing to the conservative nature of the maximum pressure drop (which definitely exceeds the actual pressure drop), the constant pressure assumption as suggested by Katto and Yokoya [98] is slightly relaxed to $\Delta P_{max}/P < 0.2$. A key advantage of this method is lack of reliance on the myriad of possible models or correlations for calculating the two-phase frictional pressure gradient.

Overall, the criterion $\Delta P_{max}/P < 0.2$ is valid for almost all cases, excepting a few data points by Grigoriev *et al.* [54], Shirai *et al.* [65], and Wright and Walters [66], where $\Delta P_{max}/P > 0.2$, which are excluded from the CHF database. Table 2 provides more details on

Summary of data points excluded from the CHF database for violating constant pressure assumption.

Reference	Total CHF data points	High $\Delta P_{max}/P^a$ Low Co	High $\Delta P_{max}/P^b$ High Co	ΔP_{max} out of bounds ^c	Acceptable CHF data points
Liquid Hydrogen					
(a) Vertical Upflow					
Shirai et al. [65]	381	1			380
(b) Horizontal Flow					
Wright and Walters ^d [66]	2	1			1
Liquid Nitrogen					
(a) Vertical Upflow					
Grigoriev et al. [54]	23	2	3	11	7
Shirai et al. [65]	122	1			121
		5	3	11	

^a Data with $\Delta P_{max}/P > 0.2$ and $Co \le 1.5$

 $^{\rm b}$ Data with $\Delta P_{\textit{max}}/P >$ 0.2 and Co > 1.5

 $^{\rm c}$ High Co data (> 1.5 and in some cases > 3) with high pressure drop causing pressure to go out of bounds for evaluation of

thermophysical properties in REFPROP 10 [1]

^d Data extracted from Steiner and Schlünder [67]

data points violating the constant pressure assumption and therefore excluded from the CHF database.

3.2. Energy Balance Verification

The first law of thermodynamics requires that the energy content of a unit mass of fluid at any axial location along the tube (local enthalpy) equals the energy content at the inlet (inlet enthalpy) plus the heat supplied from the tube wall from the inlet to the same axial location. For the axial location L_{CHF} where CHF occurs, the energy balance can be written as

$$h_{CHF} = h_{in} + 4 \frac{L_{CHF}}{D} \frac{q_{CHF}}{G}.$$
 (16)

By employing the aforementioned constant pressure assumption, Eq. (16) can be re-written as

$$x_{e,CHF} = x_{e,in} + 4Bo \frac{L_{CHF}}{D}.$$
(17)

It is important to note here that $x_{e,CHF}$ is not necessarily equal to the exit quality since L_{CHF} is not always equal to the total heated tube length L_{H} .

By carefully examining the available data sources for cryogens, it was observed that CHF data were presented in individual studies in one of four kinds: (a) data having both inlet quality, $x_{e,in}$, and critical thermodynamic equilibrium quality, $x_{e,CHF}$, (b) data with only inlet thermodynamic equilibrium quality, $x_{e,in}$, along with either entire heated length, L_H , where CHF occurs at the outlet, or critical length, L_{CHF} , (c) data with only critical thermodynamic equilibrium quality, $x_{e,CHF}$, along with axial location of CHF, L_{CHF} , and (d) data with only critical thermodynamic equilibrium quality, $x_{e,CHF}$, along with the entire heated length, L_{H} , and thermodynamic equilibrium quality operational range ($x_{e,min} - x_{e,max}$). All four data kinds do include information concerning pressure, mass velocity, and tube diameter, providing sufficient information to develop CHF correlations. For the first data kind, all parameters provided are experimentally measured and therefore readily available for assessment of any anomalies. For the second kind of data, critical thermodynamic quality is found using Eq. (17) and checked to make certain $x_{e,CHF} \leq 1$. Data which do not obey this requirement are presented in Table 3. For the third kind of data, the inlet thermodynamic quality and inlet temperature are found using Eq. (17) and finding $T_{in} = f(P,h_{in})$. For certain LHe data points from Ogata and Sato [57], inlet temperature was found to be smaller than the Lambda Temperature (2.17 K), the transition temperature between He I and He II, the latter being a zero viscosity "superfluid" whose complex physical behavior is beyond the scope of the

present study. Since Ogata and Sato [57] were concerned with He I data alone, the He II data were excluded, as indicated in Table 3. Before addressing the fourth kind of data, it is important to note that, for a fixed mass velocity, diameter and pressure, $x_{e,CHF}$ is unique for a given CHF value, with inlet quality, $x_{e,in}$, and critical length, L_{CHF} , acting as dependent variables governed by Eq. (17). Hence, the unknown information of L_{CHF} and $x_{e,in}$ is determined by (a) either *fixing* L_{CHF} to be the same as the entire heated length, L_{H} , and determining $x_{e,in}$ using Eq. (17) and checking if $x_{e,in} \ge x_{e,min}$, or (b) *fixing the* $x_{e,in}$ to be the same as $x_{e,min}$ if $x_{e,in}$ from the previous method is less than $x_{e,min}$ specified in the operational range, then determining L_{CHF} using Eq. (17) and checking if $L_{CHF} \leq L_{H}$. It can be seen that irrespective of the different permutations of $x_{e,in}$ and L_{CHF} , until they obey Eq. (17) and give the same $x_{\text{e,CHF}}$ as reported in the literature for a given combination of mass velocity, diameter and pressure, and satisfy the inequalities, $x_{e,min} \leq x_{e,CHF} \leq x_{e,max}$ and $L_{CHF} \leq L_{H}$, they will have a CHF value identical to that reported in the literature. No data were found that showed any anomalies or failed to satisfy either method (a) or method (b) while adhering to all the inequalities, in addition to satisfying constant pressure assumption.

CHF for flow in a uniformly heated tube is generally believed to occur near the outlet. However, a significant number of data points were found where CHF occurred at a location between the inlet and outlet. However, a few deviations have been observed in some of the data by Yarmak and Zhukov [70], Romanov *et al.* [69], and Petukhov *et al.* [60], which had both $x_{e,in}$ and $x_{e,CHF}$ reported, in which case L_{CHF} was found using Eq. (17). In the present CHF Database, it is mandated that $L_{CHF} \leq L_H$ and, for CHF occurring at the outlet, $L_{CHF} = L_H$. Table 3 indicates data that are excluded because the indicated L_{CHF} was listed in original references as exceeding L_H .

3.3. Final PU-BTPFL Cryogen Flow Boiling CHF Database

The final PU-BTPFL Cryogen Flow Boiling CHF Database, which includes all data deemed acceptable for development of CHF correlations, is arrived at after applying all the exclusion criteria outlined in the previous section. Details of the database are provided in Table 4. Overall, the CHF database has 2312 useable CHF data points conforming to the functional forms of Eqs. (5) and (6) and therefore acceptable for correlation development. Overall, the database encompasses four different fluids: liquid hydrogen, LH₂, liquid helium, LHe, liquid nitrogen, LN₂, and liquid methane, LCH₄. In Table 4, the upper and lower numbers for each parameter represent minimum and maximum values, respectively, for accept

Summary of data points deemed unreliable and therefore excluded from the CHF Database due to energy balance related violations.

Reference	Total CHF data points	$x_{e,CHF} > 1^{a}$	$L_{CHF} > L_H^{b}$	$T_{in} < T_{\lambda}^{c}$	Acceptable CHF data points
Liquid Hydrogen (a) Vertical Upflow Lewis et al. [55]	92	16			76
Liquid Helium (a) Vertical Upflow					
Ogata and Sato [57]	27			3	24
Beliakov et al. [68]	89	1			88
Romanov et al. [69]	28		1		27
Petukhov et al. [60]	2		1		1
Yarmak and Zhukov [70]	11		2		9
Liquid Nitrogen (a) Vertical Upflow					
Grigoriev et al. [54]	7	2			5
Petukhov et al. [60]	2		1		1
		19	5	3	

^a Applicable to data points where exit quality is determined from prescribed inlet conditions

^b Applicable to data points where CHF location is determined from prescribed inlet and critical (local) qualities

^c Applicable to only LHe data points where inlet quality is evaluated from prescribed CHF location and critical quality



Fig. 6. Timeline for cryogen flow boiling CHF data measurements over past 60 years.

able CHF data corresponding to a particular reference. It is important to re-emphasize that the entire database is (a) for uniformly heated round tubes (excludes any quenching data), and (b) includes only horizontal, vertical upflow, and vertical downflow, and therefore excludes all other intermediate flow orientations. With a total of 2,312 data points, it is the largest database ever consolidated from the literature for cryogens.

4. Parametric Distribution of PU-BTPFL Cryogen CHF Database

As indicated in the previous section, the PU-BTPFL Cryogen CHF Database, referred to hereafter as CHF Database, contains over 2,312 CHF data points, segregated according to different cryogens.

Figure 6 shows a 60-year timeline during which cryogen flow boiling CHF data (from the present CHF Database) were measured. Despite seemingly fairly well distributed efforts over this period, notice how more emphasis has been placed on specific cryogens during relatively shorter time spans. This trend can be explained by applications of interest during a particular duration. For example, after initial period of academic research interest in LHe I heat transfer in West Germany [56], United States of America [89], and Japan [57,58] in the early 1970s, the decade of 1975-85 was a golden age for LHe flow boiling research in the Soviet Union in connection with the development of forced convective cooling of superconducting systems [59,68,69,83,84,85,87,60]. The decade post 2008 saw a surge in LH₂ flow boiling research primarily done in Japan with the objective of cooling large scale high temperature superconductor (HTS) magnets [65,72,73,74,75,76,77,78,79,80]. Apart from the conscious work carried out in Japan to compare the results of LH₂ and LN₂ [65,92,94], research on LN₂ has been more academic in nature, performed with varied importance throughout the years. And, following some work around 1960, LCH₄, received renewed interest in the late 2010 at the NASA Glenn Research Center [97] as part of their Propulsion and Cryogenics Advanced Development (PCAD) project, where nontoxic propellants such as LOX/LCH₄ were being tested for spacecraft applications. Another obvious feature of the data in Fig. 6 is the greater overall emphasis investigators have placed on LN₂, followed, in order, by LH₂ and LHe, with LCH₄ receiving the least emphasis. It must be mentioned that flow boiling research of cryogenics has not been limited to these four fluids as there are heat transfer coefficient and pressure drop data available sporadically in the literature for Liquid Neon, LNe, Liquid Carbon Monoxide, LCO, Liquid Argon, LAr, and Liquid Oxygen, LOX. Unfortunately, the authors were not able to find CHF data for these fluids in the open literature, though some data might be available in proprietary databases of national laboratories or research organizations across the globe.

Discussed next are operating conditions where few CHF data points exist. Figures 7(a)-(j) show distribution of data (within the CHF Database) based on the basic operational parameters of (a) system pressure, (b) reduced pressure, (c) inlet subcooling, (d) inlet quality, (e) mass velocity, (f) tube inner diameter, (g) heated length-to-diameter ratio, (h) tube wall thickness, (i) tube wall thermal conductivity, and (i) flow orientation angle. For each of these parameters, the data distribution is segregated based on fluid. Figure 7(a) shows, for all cryogens, far more data are available for lower pressures. However, this might be misleading given the large variations in critical pressure for the different cryogens. The pressure distribution is better presented by plotting the data against reduced pressure, Fig. 7(b), which shows more overall data uniformity in terms of the reduced pressure distribution. But, Fig. 7(b) also shows more emphasis for LN₂ on lower reduced pressures, compared to a more uniform distributions for LH₂ and LCH₄, and

Table 4 Parameter ranges of acceptable CHF data with prescribed inlet conditions and/or critical (local^a) conditions

		Tub	e dimensi	ons	Operati	ng Conditions	Inlet Con	ditions	C	Critical (local ^a)	Conditions		CHF	
Reference	Acceptable CHF data	D x 10 ³ [m]	L _H /D [-]	L _{CHF} /D [-]	P x 10 ⁻⁶ [N m ⁻²]	G [kg m ⁻² s ⁻¹]	$\Delta T_{sub,in}$ [K]	x _{e,in} [-]	$\Delta P_{max}/P$ [-]	$\Delta T_{sub,CHF}$ [K]	x _{e,CHF} [-]	α _{CHF} ^b [-]	$q_{CHF} \ge 10^{-3}$ [W m ⁻²]	Remarks
Liquid Hydrogen														
(a) Vertical Upflow														
von Glahn and Lewis [71]	21	14	29.3	2.8	0.34	5.6	1.4	-0.04	0	0	0.12	0.45	19.1	SS 347 Tube
		14	29.3	29.3	0.34	13.3	1.4	-0.04	0	0	0.96	0.99	78.5	$t_{\rm W} = 0.9 {\rm mm}$
Lewis et al. [55]	76	14.1	29.1	2.5	0.21	3.9	0	-0.18	0	0	0.04	0.2	18.6	SS 304 Tube
		14.1	29.1	29.1	0.54	23	5.5	0	0	0	1	1	76.8	$t_{\rm W} = 0.9 \rm mm$
Tatsumoto et al. [72]	23	3	33.3	33.3	0.7	156.5	0	-0.33	0	0	-0.26	0	34.9	SS 304 Tube
		3	33.3	33.3	0.7	1663.4	8	0	0.08	5.9	0.1	0.27	391.1	$t_{\rm W} = 0.5 \rm mm$
Shirai et al. [73]	3	6	16.8	16.8	0.4	63.6	5.2	-0.16	0	1.1	-0.07	0	39.4	SS Tube
		6	16.8	16.8	0.4	282.6	5.2	-0.16	0	2.1	-0.04	0	141	$t_{\rm W} = 0.2 \rm mm$
Tatsumoto et al. [74]	3	6	16.7	16.7	0.7	106	8	-0.33	0	2.4	-0.26	0	105.3	SS 304 Tube
		6	16.7	16.7	0.7	897.8	8	-0.33	0	5.7	-0.13	0	324.4	$t_{\rm W} = 0.2 \rm mm$
Shirai et al. [75]	21	6	16.8	16.8	0.7	65.3	0	-0.33	0	0	-0.26	0	54.5	SS 304 Tube
		6	16.8	16.8	0.7	897.2	8	0	0	5.7	0.16	0.39	339	$t_{\rm W} = 0.2 \rm mm$
Shirai et al. [76]	41	6	16.7	16.7	0.4	61.2	0	-0.55	0	0	-0.47	0	28.7	SS 304 Tube
		6	16.7	16.7	1.1	897.5	8	0	0	5.8	0.16	0.4	339.7	$t_{\rm w} = 0.2 \rm mm$
Tatsumoto et al. [77]	14	6	33.3	33.3	0.7	68.1	0	-0.33	0	0	-0.23	0	23.3	SS 316 Tube
		6	33.3	33.3	0.7	832.3	8	0	0.01	5	0.14	0.36	218.7	$t_{\rm W} = 0.2 \rm mm$
Tatsumoto et al. [78]	112	4	8.3	8.3	0.4	26	0	0	0	0	0.02	0.05	7.5	SS 316 Tube
		6	41.8	41.8	1.1	903.1	0	0	0.04	0	0.18	0.44	155.8	$t_{\rm W} = 0.5 \rm mm$
Shirai et al. [65]	380	3	8.3	8.3	0.4	17.3	0	-0.89	0	0	-0.8	0	9.6	SS 316L Tube
		9	50	50	1.1	2620.2	11	0	0.16	9	0.28	0.51	429.6	$t_{\rm W} = 0.2 - 0.5 \ {\rm mm}$
Matsumoto <i>et al.</i> [79]	2	8	25	25	0.7	140	0	0	0	0	0.05	0.17	45.6	SS 310S Tube
	-	8	25	25	0.7	340	0	0	0	0	0.1	0.28	60.6	
	696	-					-	-	-	-				
(b) Horizontal flow														
Wright and Walters ^c [66]	1	64	24	24	0.16	418	0	0.01	0.08	0	0.04	0.31	60.4	Copper Tube
Thight and Tratters [00]	•	64	24	24	0.16	418	0	0.01	0.08	0	0.04	0.31	60.4	$t_{\rm w} = 64 \text{ mm}$
Tatsumoto et al [80]	32	3	16.7	16.7	0.10	138 5	Ő	-0.33	0.00	0	-0.28	0	74	SS 304 Tube
	52	6	33.3	33.3	0.7	2642.9	8	0.55	011	63	0.11	03	483.4	$t_{\rm W} = 0.2 \text{ mm}$
	33	0	55.5	55.5	0.7	2012.5	0	0	0.11	0.5	0.11	0.5	105.1	tw = 0.2 mm
LH ₂ CHF data points	729													
	-													
(a) Vertical Upflow														
Johannes [81]	10	2.1	139.6	139.6	0.11	58.9	0.1	-0.17	0	0	0.2	0.39	1.3	Monel Tube
		2.1	139.6	139.6	0.15	245.7	0.5	-0.03	0.02	0	0.58	0.83	2.8	$t_{\rm W} = 0.1 {\rm mm}$
Hilderbrandt [56]	3	1	20	20	0.08	5.6	0	0	0	0	0.09	0.3	1	Silver Block
		1	20	20	0.08	76.3	0	0	0	0	0.66	0.9	1.8	$\varepsilon = 0.1 \ \mu m$
Ogata and Sato [57]	24	1.1	78	78	0.11	79.3	0	-1.11	0	0	-0.16	0	0.1	SS Tube
		1.1	78	78	0.2	321.5	2.8	0.84	0.01	0.1	1	1	5.5	$t_{\rm W} = 0.3 \rm mm$
Ogata and Sato [58]	8	1.1	78	51.4	0.11	78.8	0	-0.39	0	0	0	0	0.5	SS Tube
C		1.1	78	51.4	0.19	92.2	0.7	0.5	0	0	0.57	0.78	3.9	$t_{\rm w} = 0.3 \rm mm$
Keilin [82]	3	2	50	50	0.12	39.8	0	0	0	0	0.88	0.96	0.9	Copper Tube
11	-	2	50	50	0.12	39.8	0	0.65	0	0	0.97	0.99	3.6	

(continued on next page)

Table 4 (continued)

		Tub	e dimensio	ons	Operatii	ng Conditions	Inlet Con	ditions	C	ritical (local ^a)	Conditions		CHF	
Reference	Acceptable CHF data	D x 10 ³ [m]	L _H /D [-]	L _{CHF} /D [-]	P x 10 ⁻⁶ [N m ⁻²]	G [kg m ⁻² s ⁻¹]	$\Delta T_{sub,in}$ [K]	x _{e,in} [-]	$\Delta P_{max}/P$ [-]	$\Delta T_{sub,CHF}$ [K]	x _{e,CHF} [-]	α _{CHF} ^b [-]	$q_{CHF} \ge 10^{-3}$ [W m ⁻²]	Remarks
Grigoriev et al. [54]	15	0.7 0.7	194 194	194 194	0.01 0.1	13.8 181.5	0 0	0 0	0 0.13	0 0	0.59 1	0.85 1	0.4 2.5	SS Tube $t_{\rm W} = 0.2 \rm mm$
Arkhipov et al. ^d [83]	36	1.6	110.4	19.9 110 4	0.1	83 314	0.2	-0.25	0	0	-0.07	0	1.2	SS Tube
Beliakov et al. [68]	88	4.1	-	5 34	0.12	2.2	0	0 84	0	0	0.02	0.05	0.7	SS Tube $t_{\rm m} = 0.2 \rm mm$
Deev et al. [84]	108	1.6 1.6	110.4 110.4	30 107	0.11	92 305	0 21	-0.32 0.89	0	0	-0.05	0	0.2 7.2	SS Tube
Petukhov et al. [59]	4	0.8	226.3 226.3	67.2 192.9	0.1	60 300	0	-0.01 0.45	0	0	0.25 0.48	0.56	0.1	SS Tube $t_{w} = 0.1 \text{ mm}$
Petukhov et al. ^d [59]	55	0.8	226.3 226.3	8.1 226.3	0.1	60 313	0	0	0	0	0.05	0.17	0.1	SS Tube $t_w = 0.1 \text{ mm}$
Romanov et al. [69]	27	0.5	212.8 212.8	15.4 209.5	0.1	22 275	0	0	0	0	0.07	0.23	0.5 4.4	-
Subbotin <i>et al.</i> ^d [85]	92	1.6	110.4 110.4	37.2 110.4	0.1	85 315	0	-0.25 0.67	0	0	0.02	0.05	0.05	SS Tube
Katto [86]	138	1	25 200	25 200	0.2 0.2	10.5 107.6	0 1.1	-0.62 0.32	0	0 0.2	-0.19 0.93	0	0.1 3.5	SS Tube $t_{\rm w} = 0.3 \rm mm$
Subbotin <i>et al.</i> ^d [87]	29	1.6 1.6	110.4 110.4	34.8 110.4	0.12 0.18	86 211	0 1.3	-0.25 0.95	0 0.01	0 0.1	-0.05 0.96	0 0.99	0.05 4.3	SS Tube
Petukhov et al. [60]	1	1.8 1.8	72.2 72.2	67.2 67.2	0.1 0.1	90 90	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0.36 0.36	0.68 0.68	2.5 2.5	SS Tube $t_w = 0.1 \text{ mm}$
Yarmak and Zhukov [70]	12	0.8 0.8	187.5 187.5	3 121.8	0.1 0.1	78 235	0 0	0 0	0 0.02	0 0	0.02 0.45	0.07 0.75	1.5 4.5	SS Tube $t_{\rm W} = 0.1 \rm mm$
(b) Horizontal flow	653													
Bredy ^e [88]	1	10 10	10 10	10 10	0.1 0.1	76.4 76.4	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0.27 0.27	0.59 0.59	10.7 10.7	SS Tube
(c) Vertical Downflow	1													
Giarrantano <i>et al.</i> [89]	15	2.1 2.1	46.9 46.9	16.7 45.4	0.11 0.21	48 636	0 0.2	-0.38 0.02	0 0.03	0	-0.05 0.38	0 0.69	1.6 5.3	SS Tube $t_{\rm W} = 0.2 \rm mm$
Giarrantano et al. [90]	20	2.1 2.1	46.9 46.9	2.5 45.1	0.11 0.2	45 630	0 0.3	-0.3 0	0	0 0.2	-0.22 0.4	0 0.7	1.6 6.9	$t_{\rm W} = 0.2 \rm mm$
LHe CHF data points	689													
Liquid Nitrogen														
Lewis et al. [55]	27	14.1 14.1	29.1	3 29 1	0.33	21 73	0.7	-0.04	0	0	0.08	0.54	28 81.4	SS 304 Tube $t_{\rm m} = 0.9$ mm
Papell et al. [91]	170	12.8 12.8	23.8 23.8	23.8 23.8	0.39 0.34 1.65	103 2553	6.7 28.3	-0.51 -0.08	0 0.02	0 20.7	-0.39 0.89	0.99 0 0.99	79.1 430	Nickel Alloy Tube $t_{\rm W} = 0.3 \text{ mm}$
														(continued on next page)

Table 4 (continued)

		Tub	oe dimensio	ons	Operati	ng Conditions	Inlet Con	ditions	(Critical (local ^a)	Conditions	;	CHF	
Reference	CHF data	D x 10 ³ [m]	L _H /D [-]	L _{CHF} /D [-]	P x 10 ⁻⁶ [N m ⁻²]	$G \ [kg m^{-2} s^{-1}]$	$\Delta T_{sub,in}$ [K]	x _{e,in} [-]	$\Delta P_{max}/P$ [-]	$\Delta T_{sub,CHF}$ [K]	x _{e,CHF} [-]	α _{CHF} ^b [-]	$q_{CHF} \ge 10^{-3}$ [W m ⁻²]	Remarks
Grigoriev et al. [54]	5	0.7	104	104	0.1	38.9	0	0	0.01	0	0.92	1	19.4	-
Katto and Yokoya [86]	18	1.3 1	194 200	194 200	0.1 0.22	135.9 109	0 0.8	0 -0.05	0.12	0	1 0.79	1 0.99	59.7 21.1	SS 304 Tube
Petukhov et al. [60]	1	1 1.8	200 72.2	200 69.9	0.22 0.1	328 170	4.5 0	-0.01 0	0.17 0.06	0 0	0.99 0.33	1 0.94	79.4 40.3	$t_w = 0.3 \text{ mm}$ SS Tube
Zhang and Fu [62]	1	1.8 1	72.2 96	69.9 96	0.1 0.12	170 185.8	0 1.7	0 -0.02	0.06 0.06	0 0	0.33 0.13	0.94 0.81	40.3 14	$t_w = 0.1 \text{ mm}$ SS 304 Tube
Tatsumoto et al. [92]	30	1 5.4	96 18.5	96 18.5	0.12 0.5	185.8 80.9	1.7 4.9	-0.02 -0.76	0.06 0	0 0	0.13 -0.65	0.81 0	14 44.5	SS 304 Tube
Shirai et al. [65]	121	5.4 3	18.5 16.7	18.5 16.7	2 0.5	3504 309.5	37.5 0	-0.06 -0.37	0.01 0	31.1 0	0.3 -0.31	0.82 0	330.9 29.6	$t_{\rm W} = 0.3 \rm mm$ SS 316L Tube
Zhang et al. [63]	1	6 1.3	41.8 230.8	41.8 230.8	1 0.9	8203.9 2010	25.7 25.2	0 -0.35	0.17 0.02	21.2 10.7	0.11 -0.15	0.49 0	1012.4 65.6	$t_{\rm W} = 0.2 - 0.5 \rm mm$ SS 304 Tube
Zhang et al. [64]	3	1.3 2	230.8 148.2	230.8 129.8	0.9 0.63	2010 680	25.2 16.2	-0.35 -0.29	0.02 0.01	10.7 0	-0.15 0.48	0 0.85	65.6 149.2	$t_{\rm W} = 0.9 \text{ mm}$ SS 321 Tube
	377	2	148.2	129.8	1.08	680	19.2	-0.21	0.04	0	0.65	0.94	187.4	$t_{\rm W} = 1$ mm, $\varepsilon = 7.2 \ \mu {\rm m}$
(b) Horizontal flow														
Steiner and Schlünder ^d [67]	5	14	37.5	34.7	0.91	44	0	0.02	0	0	0.5	0.87	23.7	Copper Tube
Müller et al ^d [93]	144	14	37.5	93	0.91	452	0	0.45	0	0	0.7	0.94	35.5 11.5	$\iota_W = 5$ IIIII, $\varepsilon = 0.1 \mu III$
maner et an [88]		14	37.5	37.5	3.06	470	0	0.86	0.14	0	0.99	1	111.1	$t_{\rm W} = 3$ mm, $\varepsilon = 0.1 \ \mu {\rm m}$
Yun et al. [61]	3	10.6	155.7	26	0.17	56.2	0	0	0	0	0.32	0.91	33.6	SS Tube
Tatawarda at al [04]		10.6	155.7	103.7	0.17	85.6	0	0	0.01	0	0.84	0.99	33.6	CC 204 Tube
Tatsumoto et al. [94]	22	5.4 5.4	18.5	18.5	0.5	59.1 2700.8	4.9 25.6	-0.36	0	19.8	-0.29	0.85	29.8	55 304 Tube
Liu et al. [95]	33	2.9	205	205	0.2	134.4	0	-0.00	0.01	0	0.63	0.96	19.3	SS Tube
	240	2.9	205	205	0.35	343.7	0	0.01	0.13	0	0.73	0.98	56.1	
(c) Vertical Downflow														
Papell et al. [91]	224	12.8 12.8	23.8 23.8	23.8 23.8	0.34 1.65	110.3 2589.2	6.7 28.3	-0.51 -0.08	-0.01 0	0 22.3	-0.41 0.25	0 0.82	15 427.7	Nickel Alloy Tube $t_W = 0.3 \text{ mm}$
	224													
LN ₂ CHF data points Liquid Methane	841													
(a) Vertical Upflow Glickstein	30	8.5	98.5	18.1	1.03	225.8	42.6	-1.06	0	1.2	-0.73	0	342	Inconel 600 Tube
and Whitesides ^a [96]		85	08.5	08 5	2 00	3702.6	71.6	0.38	0.02	46	0.01	0	1755 8	$t_{\rm m} = 0.4 \mathrm{mm}$
Van Noord [97]	23	0.5 1.4 2.1	60.2 89.3	60.2 89.3	2.39 1.75 4.07	2858.8 7017	42.4	-0.38 -2.06 -0.45	0.02	40 0 48 5	-1.23 0.21	0	2010.1	Inconel 600 Tube $t_w = 0.5 - 0.6 \text{ mm}$
LCH ₄ CHF data points Grand Total	53 2312	2.1	00.5	00.5	1.07	,01,	70.5	0.15	0.01	10.5	0.21	0.51	0203.5	t _w = 0.5 0.0 mm

^a Local condition are specified at axial location of CHF. For CHF occurring at the exit, exit conditions are the same as local conditions.

^b Evaluated using Zivi's void fraction equation, Eq. (12). Test cases with critical void fraction equal to zero signify occurrence of DNB type CHF.

^c Data extracted from Steiner and Schlünder [67]

^d Data with known critical quality, heated length, and minimum value of local thermodynamic equilibrium quality in experiments. See section 3.2 for details.

^e Tube at an orientation of 4° from the horizontal plane and considered (quasi-) horizontal in this study



Fig. 7. Distribution of data in the CHF Database relative to (a) system pressure, (b) reduced pressure, (c) inlet subcooling, (d) inlet quality, (e) mass velocity, (f) tube diameter, (g) heated length to diameter ratio, (h) tube wall thickness, (i) tube wall thermal conductivity, and (j) flow orientation angle.

higher reduced pressure emphasis for LHe. Figure 7(c) shows relatively narrow distribution for inlet subcooling (below 10 K) for both LH₂ and LHe, compared to a broader range of up to \sim 30 K for LN₂ and much higher subcoolings (some exceeding 70 K) for LCH₄. Better representation of inlet thermodynamic state is provided in Fig 7(d) which shows the data encompassing both subcooled and saturated inlet conditions. Figure 7(e) shows more data available for mass velocity values up to \sim 3,000 kg/m²s and far less above this value. Figure 7(f) shows a broad distribution versus tube diameter, with LHe data clustered towards small diameters of



Fig. 8. Distribution of data in the CHF Database relative to (a) critical length to diameter ratio, (b) critical subcooling, (c) critical quality, (d) critical void fraction, and (e) measured CHF.

less than ~ 4 mm, versus broader distributions for the other three cryogens. Figure 7(g) shows the vast majority of data is available for heated length to diameter ratios below ~ 100. Figures 7(h) and 7(i) are included here for completeness though tube wall thickness and thermal conductivity information provided little guidance in terms of correlating CHF data. Figure 7(h) shows most studies employed tube wall thicknesses below 1 mm, except for some LN₂ data, which used tubes with ~ 3-mm thickness. Figure 7(h) shows

almost all the data were obtained using tubes made from a variety of stainless steel alloys (~ 16.2 W/m-K), while some data employed nickel alloys (~ 100 W/m-K) and fewer used copper or silver (~ 400 W/m-K). Finally, Fig. 7(j) shows the majority of CHF data were obtained in vertical upflow, with LN₂ data present in all three flow orientations and LCH₄ data only vertically upflow.

Figures 8(a)-(e), show distribution of the data based on the parameters closely associated with CHF: (a) critical length to diame-

ter ratio, (b) critical subcooling, (c) critical quality, (d) critical void fraction, and (e) measured CHF. Figures 8(a) shows the vast majority of data is available for critical length (axial location where CHF is experimentally identified) to diameter ratios below \sim 100. Figure 8(b) shows that all the data for LH₂ and LHe have either zero or very low critical subcooling (defined using fluid temperature at the axial location where CHF is experimentally identified), and LN₂ and LCH₄ associated with high subcooling at CHF location. Figure 8(c) shows critical quality distribution encompassing both subcooled and saturated conditions. Figure 8(d) shows a quantitative representation of void fraction at the CHF location, evaluated using Eq. (12). Except for LCH₄ data, which has mostly near-zero void fraction all along, all other fluids show uniform scatter for all positive void fraction range. Since there are data points with negative critical qualities, signifying DNB-type CHF, the void fractions for these data pointed are noted as having zero value. Finally, Fig. 8(e) shows increasing CHF values for LHe, LH₂, and LN₂, in order, over a range well below $\sim 100 \text{ W/m}^2$, compared to much broader range for LCH₄.

Figures 9(a)-(c) show distribution of data based on (a) maximum pressure drop ratio, (b) confinement number, and (c) modified Froude number. Figure 9(a) shows all data in the CHF Database satisfy the constant pressure drop criteria of $0.1 \le \Delta P_{max}/P \le 0.2$. Figure 9(b) shows that almost all of the CHF data are associated with Confinement numbers below 0.5, while a few LN₂ and LCH₄ data points do exceed this value. Notice that, with *Co* inversely dependent on tube diameter, high *Co* values are also reflected in high pressure drop across the tube. Figure 9(c) highlights the ability of LH₂ to exhibit high values of modified Froude number, *Fr**, compared to other fluids, an inference which was also made in conjunction with Fig. 4(c). The main implication of high *Fr** for LH₂ is strong dominance of inertial effects over gravity/buoyancy effects, rendering the flow physics, including CHF, independent of flow orientation.

Aside from insight into details of the CHF database, Table 4 and Figs. 7-9 serve to guide future experimental research into filling significant gaps in cryogen data in an effort to both maximize new data yield and minimize unnecessary future experimental expenditures. Following is a summary of major experimental needs based on the gaps identified in the CHF Database:

- 1 Critical need for more CHF data for Liquid Oxygen, LOX, along with additional data for LCH_4 .
- 2 Additional data for Horizontal flow and vertical downflow.
- 3 Additional data for Dryout-type CHF.
- 4 Additional data for large heated length-to-diameter ratios.
- 5 More high mass velocity data.
- 6 Systematic tests to investigate the parametric effects of wall thickness, wall thermal conductivity, surface roughness and surface ageing on CHF.

5. Development of Universal CHF Correlations

With the CHF data now vetted against all possible physics violations and tested for constant pressure approximation, a detailed plan is adopted to develop universal CHF correlations. As mentioned in section 1.4, three classifiers: (1) fluid, (2) CHF type (Dryout versus DNB), and (3) flow orientation, will affect the magnitude of CHF. As seen from Table 4, CHF values for LHe are orders of magnitude lower than for LH₂ and LN₂ which, in turn, are lower than for LCH₄. Similarly, for low mass velocities, orientation effects play a major role in either preponing or postponing CHF. But the most important classifier is the CHF mechanism since the flow regimes and associated fluid physics leading to CHF are completely different for different fluids and different flow orientations. Hence, it is imperative to classify the data



Fig. 9. Distribution of data in the CHF Database relative to (a) maximum pressure drop ratio, (b) confinement number, and (c) modified Froude number.



Fig. 10. Distribution of data in the CHF Database relative to modified boiling number, *Bo**.

based on CHF mechanism before proceeding with the correlation development.

5.1. Segregation of Database into DNB versus Dryout

As seen from Fig. 5, DNB is characterized by high mass velocity, high magnitude of CHF, high inlet subcooling or low inlet quality, and low critical length to diameter ratio; these conditions lead to high CHF magnitude for DNB. On the other hand, Dryout is characterized by parameter trends opposite to those for DNB, *i.e.*, low mass velocity, low magnitude of CHF, low inlet subcooling or high inlet quality, and high critical length to diameter ratio, which lead to comparatively low CHF magnitude for Dryout.

One drawback in using Boiling number ($Bo = q_{CHF}/(Gh_{fg})$) to distinguish the two CHF types is that it tends to cancel out the effects of high CHF and high mass velocity for DNB, as well as low CHF and low mass velocity for Dryout. With the limited value of *Bo* in aiding to determination of the CHF mechanism, a modified Boiling number, *Bo*^{*}, is proposed which is arrived at by re-arranging Eq. (17),

$$Bo^* = \frac{4Bo\frac{L_{CHF}}{D}}{1 - x_{e,in}} = \frac{x_{e,CHF} - x_{e,in}}{1 - x_{e,in}},$$
(18)

which varies from 0 - 1. The denominator in Bo^* allows this dimensionless parameter to acquire higher values for Dryout versus lower values for DNB. It is therefore an effective tool for distinguishing the CHF types. Figure 10 shows the distribution of data in the CHF Database relative to the modified Boiling number.

Rearranging Eq. (18) results in a linear function of critical quality,

$$Bo^* = \frac{1}{1 - x_{e,in}} x_{e,CHF} + \frac{-x_{e,in}}{1 - x_{e,in}}.$$
(19)

Both the slope and the intercept of this linear function are dependent on inlet quality alone. In the limiting case of saturated liquid inlet, $x_{e,in} = 0$, Eq. (19) reduces to $Bo^* = x_{e,CHF}$.

The effectiveness of Eq. (19) is put to test by plotting measured *B*o^{*} versus measured critical quality in Figs. 11(a)-(d) for LH₂, LHe, LN₂, and LCH₄, respectively. Clear demarcation lines are captured in these figures: (i) $Bo^* = x_{e,CHF}$ which is the locus for data with $x_{e,in} = 0$, (ii) $x_{e,CHF} = 0$, which identifies all data points definitely undergoing DNB by satisfying the criteria $x_{e,CHF} \le 0$, and (iii) $Bo^*_{\text{DNB,max}}$, which is the maximum value for DNB data ($x_{e,CHF} \le 0$),



Fig. 11. Technique for distinguishing DNB-type CHF data from Dryout-type CHF data in Bo^* versus $x_{e,CHF}$ coordinates for (a) LH₂, (b) LHe, (c) LN₂, and (d) LCH₄.

the latter based on the reasoning Bo^* is lower for DNB than Dryout as mentioned earlier. A fourth demarcation line (iv), referred to as $x_{e,DNB,max}$, is the critical quality corresponding to $Bo^*_{DNB,max}$, and is found from the intersection of lines (i) and (iii). The significance of $x_{e,DNB,max}$ is that it indicates the minimum value of critical quality for Dryout. Using the four demarcation lines, two distinct regions for DNB and Dryout can be carved out along with an overlap region.

An alternate method to separating DNB data from Dryout data is to plot modified boiling number against measured CHF; results from which are shown in Figs. 12(a)-(d) for LH₂, LHe, LN₂, and LCH₄, respectively. Here, two demarcation lines are used: (i) $Bo^*_{\text{DNB,max}}$ from Fig. 11, which signifies the maximum value of *Bo* exhibited by DNB data, and (ii) $q_{\text{Dryout,max}}$, which is the maximum heat flux value exhibited by Dryout data. Figure 12 shows remarkable separation of CHF data, with Dryout data exhibiting a combination of low q_{CHF} and high Bo^* , while DNB data are concentrated in a region having a combination of high q_{CHF} and low Bo^* . Here too, there is an overlap region in between. Notice that the effectiveness of separating CHF types depends largely on the number of data points for a given fluid, with LCH₄ providing the least amount of separation.

Unable to segregate data within the overlap region using the coordinates in Figs. 11 and 12, a third method is put to use in which Bo^* , is plotted against critical void fraction, α_{CHF} , as shown in Fig. 13, which is found from Zivi's relation, Eq. (12), using the critical quality, $x_{e,CHF}$. The rationale adopted here is that, unlike $x_{e,DNB,max}$, the density ratio present in the void fraction correlation, Eq. (12), would tackle differences among different fluids by providing a threshold for α_{CHF} which would demarcate the DNB data from Dryout data. Using this method, a 'conservative' DNB correlation is constructed for each fluid using the data points with $x_{e CHF}$ \leq 0 as such data are definitely associated with DNB. This conservative DNB correlation is then tested for the same fluid against all the CHF data with $x_{e,CHF} > 0$ over the entire spectrum of α_{CHF} of 0 – 1. The goal here is to identify a threshold α_{CHF} value that is consistent for all four fluids, where the conservative DNB correlation starts to fail by either producing unreasonably high values of mean absolute error (MAE) and root mean squared error (RMS) or show extremely low percentages of data points predicted within $\pm 30\%$ (θ) and $\pm 50\%$ (ξ). The definitions of MAE and RMS are as follows,

$$MAE = \frac{1}{N} \sum \frac{\left| q_{CHF, pred} - q_{CHF, meas} \right|}{q_{CHF, meas}} \times 100\%.$$
(20)

and
$$RMS = \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum \left(\frac{q_{CHF, pred} - q_{CHF, meas}}{q_{CHF, meas}}\right)^2} \times 100\%.$$
 (21)

Based on the Bo^* expression in Eq. (18), a general power-law functional form is proposed to correlate the CHF data.

$$\frac{4Bo\frac{L_{CHF}}{D}}{1 - x_{e,in}} = c_1 W e_{f_{0,D}}^{c_2} \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}\right)^{c_3} (1 - x_{e,in})^{c_4} \left(\frac{L_{CHF}}{D}\right)^{c_5}.$$
 (22)

Values of both coefficient C_1 and exponents $C_2 - C_5$ in Eq. (22) are varied for each CHF Database classifier, *i.e.*, fluid, orientation, and CHF type. Notice that, when rearranged, Eq. (22) obeys the functional form given earlier by Eq. (6).

$$Bo = \frac{q_{CHF}}{Gh_{fg}} = 0.25c_1 W e_{fo,D}^{c_2} \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}\right)^{c_3} (1 - x_{e,in})^{1 + c_4} \left(\frac{L_{CHF}}{D}\right)^{c_5 - 1},$$
(23)

which is similar to the CHF form proposed by Hall and Mudawar [101] to correlate water data,

$$Bo = \frac{q_{CHF}}{Gh_{fg}} = \tilde{c}_1 W e_{fo,D}^{\tilde{c}_2} \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}\right)^{\tilde{c}_3} \left(1 - \tilde{c}_4 \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}\right)^{\tilde{c}_5} x_{e,in}\right) \left(\frac{L_{CHF}}{D}\right)^{\tilde{c}_6},$$
(24)



Fig. 12. Technique for distinguishing DNB-type CHF data from Dryout-type CHF data in Bo^* versus q_{CHF} coordinates for (a) LH₂, (b) LHe, (c) LN₂, and (d) LCH₄.



Fig. 13. Technique for distinguishing DNB-type CHF data from Dryout-type CHF data in Bo^* versus a_{CHF} coordinates for (a) LH₂, (b) LHe, (c) LN₂, and (d) LCH₄.



Fig. 14. Comparison of DNB data for all fluids and all flow orientations (with α_{CHF} < 0.6) against predictions of the universal DNB correlation.

except their use of another density ratio term as multiplier to inlet quality. In this study, these two terms have been decoupled, thereby satisfying the limiting case of $q_{CHF} \rightarrow 0$ for $x_{e,in} \rightarrow 1$.

An initial step-by-step procedure is first adopted whose sole purpose is to determine a threshold value for α_{CHF} which would demarcate DNB data from Dryout data, hence paving the way for development of separate universal correlation for each CHF type. The procedure for determining the threshold value for α_{CHF} is as follows. Using Eq. (22), 'conservative' initial correlations are first attempted for DNB data for each of LH2, LHe, LN2, and LCH4 individually in section 5.1(a), 5.2(a), 5.3(a) and 5.4(a), respectively, of Table 5. These correlations are deemed conservative because they correspond to only a subset of the data for each fluid corresponding to $\alpha_{CHF} = 0$, which undoubtedly correspond to DNB CHF. Subsequently, the same conservative correlations are tested in parts 5.1(b), 5.2(b), 5.3(b) and 5.4(b) of Table 5 against the remaining CHF data spanning the entire spectrum of α_{CHF} . The predictive performance of the conservative DNB correlation for each fluid is also provided in Table 5. For LH₂, the MAE and RMS are shown fluctuating until $\alpha_{CHF} = 0.5$, beyond which both appear to undergo a sharp rise. But, more evident in 5.1(b) of Table 5 is how, beyond $\alpha_{CHF} = 0.6$, none of the data are predicted within even $\pm 50\%$ of predictions. This clearly points to a drastic change in physics. There are two possibilities for such a drastic change: (i) change in flow orientation or (ii) change in CHF mechanism. As can be seen in Fig. 13(a), beyond $\alpha_{CHF} = 0.6$, LH₂ data are is predominantly associated with vertical upflow, therefore the drastic change is attributed to a change in CHF mechanism rather than to orientation. Hence, the threshold to demarcate DNB data from Dryout data is narrowed down to $\alpha_{CHF} = 0.5 - 0.7$ for LH₂. For LHe, similar drastic increases in MAE and RMS are observed above $\alpha_{CHF}\!=\!0.6.$ For LN₂, however, no such increases in MAE and RMS are observed, and the conservative DNB correlation works reasonably well over the entire span of α_{CHF} with fluctuating MAE and RMS. For LCH₄, there are no Dryout data and the conservative CHF correlation performs well for all the LCH₄ data. Combining these trends, it can be inferred with reasonable confidence that the threshold value of α_{CHF} for demarcating DNB data from Dryout data is 0.6. A graphical representation of this demarcation was shown earlier in Figs. 13(a)-(d).

Conservative correlations first developed for DNB-type data for each of LH₂, LHe, LN₂, and LCH₄ separately and then tested for remaining CHF data spanning entire spectrum of critical void fraction.

5.1(a) LH₂ conservative DNB-type CHF correlation, with $x_{e,CHF} \le 0$, developed using CHF Database with prescribed inlet and critical conditions Application: LH₂, DNB, vertical upflow, vertical downflow **Correlation constants:** $C_1 = 0.15$, $C_2 = -0.17$, $C_3 = -0.25$, $C_4 = 0.73$, $C_5 = 0.47$ Accuracy: MAE (%) = 17.6, RMS (%) = 31.0, θ (%) = 87, ξ (%) = 95 Parameter ranges

P _R [-]	D x 10 ³ [m]	L _{CHF} /D [-]	<i>P</i> x 10 ⁻⁶ [N m ⁻²]	G [kg m ⁻² s ⁻¹]	x _{e,in} [-]	$\Delta P_{\max}/P$ [-]	x _{e,CHF} [-]	α_{CHF}^{a} [-]
0.31	3	8.3	0.4	42	-0.89	0	-0.8	0
0.85	9	50	1.1	2642.9	-0.07	0.04	0	0

5.1(b) LH₂ comparison of performance of conservative DNB-type CHF correlation for LH₂ from 5.1(a) over entire spectrum of void fractions irrespective of flow orientation

Void fraction range	No. data points	MAE	RMS	θ	ξ
		%	%	%	%
$\alpha_{\rm CHF} = 0$	352	17.6	31.0	87	95
$0 < \alpha_{\mathrm{CHF}} \leq 0.1$	25	29.5	40.6	68	76
$0.1 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.2$	94	19.2	22.5	85	97
$0.2 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.3$	79	21.4	31.7	80	95
$0.3 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.4$	64	20.8	27.5	78	92
$0.4 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.5$	20	26	31.8	60	85
$0.5 < \alpha_{\text{CHF}} \le 0.6$	4	47.8	50	25	25
$0.6 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.7$	5	61.1	61.2	0	0
$0.7 < \alpha_{\rm CHF}^{2} \le 0.8$	13	67.2	67.2	0	0
$0.8 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.9$	21	72.7	72.7	0	0
$0.9 < \alpha_{CHF} \leq 1$	52	74.7	74.7	0	0

5.2(a) LHe conservative DNB-type CHF correlation, with $x_{e,CHF} \leq 0$, developed using CHF Database with prescribed inlet and critical conditions

Application: LHe, DNB, vertical upflow, vertical downflow

Correlation constants: $C_1 = 0.17$, $C_2 = -0.26$, $C_3 = -0.31$, $C_4 = 0.2$, $C_5 = 0.8$ **Accuracy:** MAE (%) = 8.6, RMS (%) = 11.9, θ (%) = 100, ξ (%) = 100

Parameter ranges

P _R [-]	D x 10 ³ [m]	L _{CHF} /D [-]	P x 10 ⁻⁶ [N m ⁻²]	$G \ [kg \ m^{-2} \ s^{-1}]$	x _{e,in} [-]	$\Delta P_{\max}/P$ [-]	x _{e,CHF} [-]	α_{CHF}^{a} [-]
0.48	1	2.5	0.11	35	-1.11	0	-0.22	0
0.93	2.1	78	0.21	470	-0.11	0	0	0

5.2(b) LHe comparison of performance of conservative DNB-type CHF correlation for LHe from 5.2(a) over entire spectrum of void fractions irrespective of flow orientation

Void fraction range	No. data points	MAE	RMS	θ	ξ
		%	%	%	%
$\alpha_{\rm CHF} = 0$	23	8.6	11.9	100	100
$0 < \alpha_{\mathrm{CHF}} \leq 0.1$	33	17	26.5	82	88
$0.1 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.2$	52	22.3	29.3	75	92
$0.2 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.3$	71	24.4	30.6	70	91
$0.3 < \alpha_{CHF} \le 0.4$	61	29.9	37.2	59	82
$0.4 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.5$	72	38.1	52.8	43	74
$0.5 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.6$	83	73.1	92.1	25	40
$0.6 < \alpha_{CHF} \le 0.7$	119	132.8	189.5	22	34
$0.7 < \alpha_{CHF} \le 0.8$	94	196	286.7	19	29
$0.8 < \alpha_{CHF} \le 0.9$	41	226.5	327.6	10	17
$0.9 < \alpha_{\mathrm{CHF}} \leq 1$	40	120.6	172.7	12	25

5.3(a) LN₂ conservative DNB-type CHF correlation, with $x_{e,CHF} \leq 0$, developed using CHF Database with prescribed inlet and critical conditions

Application: LN₂, DNB, vertical upflow, vertical downflow, horizontal flow

Correlation constants: $C_1 = 0.11$, $C_2 = -0.18$, $C_3 = -0.4$, $C_4 = 0.67$, $C_5 = 0.75$

Accuracy: MAE (%) = 19.1, RMS (%) = 33.8, θ (%) = 84, ξ (%) = 94 Parameter ranges

P _R [-]	D x 10 ³ [m]	L _{CHF} /D [-]	<i>P</i> x 10 ⁻⁶ [N m ⁻²]	$\begin{bmatrix} G \\ [kg \ m^{-2} \ s^{-1}] \end{bmatrix}$	x _{e,in} [-]	$\Delta P_{\text{max}}/P$ [-]	x _{e,CHF} [-]	α_{CHF}^{a} [-]
0.1	1.3	16.7	0.34	78.4	-0.76	-0.01	-0.65	0
0.59	12.8	230.8	2	8203.9	-0.06	0.02	0	0

5.3(b) LN₂ comparison of performance of conservative DNB-type CHF correlation for LN₂, from 5.3(a) over entire spectrum of void fractions irrespective of flow orientation

Void fraction range	No. data points	MAE	RMS	θ	ξ
		%	%	%	%
$\alpha_{\rm CHF} = 0$	411	19.1	33.8	84	94
$0 < \alpha_{\mathrm{CHF}} \leq 0.1$	26	30	33.4	58	92
$0.1 < \alpha_{CHF} \le 0.2$	27	28.5	32.9	55	93
$0.2 < \alpha_{CHF}^{2} \le 0.3$	28	32	39.8	36	86
$0.3 < \alpha_{CHF} \le 0.4$	36	46.5	62.7	39	75
$0.4 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.5$	36	32.2	36.6	39	92
$0.5 < \alpha_{\text{CHF}} \leq 0.6$	35	41.8	43.9	26	63
$0.6 < \alpha_{CHF} \le 0.7$	31	48.7	50	10	42
$0.7 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.8$	34	55	55.7	0	26
$0.8 < \alpha_{\rm CHF} \le 0.9$	50	59.2	61.6	6	12
$0.9 < \alpha_{CHF}^{2.11} \le 1$	127	48.7	56.1	30	44
				(continu	ed on next page)

Table 5	
(continued)

5.4(a) LCH ₄ conservative DNB-type CHF correlation, with $x_{e,CHF} \le 0$, developed using CHF Database with prescribed inlet and critical conditions Application: LCH ₄ , DNB, vertical upflow Correlation constants: $C_1 = 0.21$, $C_2 = -0.21$, $C_3 = -0.42$, $C_4 = 0.14$, $C_5 = 0.73$ Accuracy: MAE (%) = 14.6, RMS (%) = 21.4, θ (%) = 87, ξ (%) = 98 Parameter ranges									
$P_{\rm R}$	D x 10 ³	L _{CHF} /D	<i>P</i> x 10 ⁻⁶	G	x _{e,in}	$\Delta P_{\text{max}}/P$	x _{e,CHF}	$\alpha_{\rm CHF}^{\rm a}$	
[-]	[m]	[-]	[N m ⁻²]	[kg m ⁻² s ⁻¹]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]	
0.22	1.4	18.1	1.03	225.8	-2.06	0	-1.23	0	
0.89	8.5	98.5	4.07	7017	-0.38	0.03	-0.01	0	
5.4(b) LCH ₄ comparison of performance of conservative DNB-type CHF correlation for LCH ₄ from 5.4(a) over entire spectrum of void fractions irrespective of flow orientation									
Void fraction	on range	No. data	No. data points		RMS		θ	ξ	
				%	%		%	%	
$\alpha_{\rm CHF} = 0$		45		14.6	21.4		87	98	
$0 < \alpha_{CHF} \leq$	≤ 0.6	8		37.9	38.7		25	100	

^a Evaluated using Zivi's void fraction, Eq. (12). Test cases with $\alpha_{CHF} = 0$ signify occurrence of DNB-type CHF.

Table 6

Universal DNB correlation for cryogens developed using data for all four fluids and all flow orientations with α_{CHF} < 0.6.

Application: LH ₂ , LHe, LN ₂ , LCH ₄ , vertical upflow, vertical downflow, horizontal flow Correlation constants: $C_1 = 0.17$, $C_2 = -0.21$, $C_3 = -0.32$, $C_4 = 1.07$, $C_5 = 0.59$ Accuracy: MAE (%) = 22.5, RMS (%) = 34.9, θ (%) = 77, ξ (%) = 92 Parameter ranges									
P _R [-]	D x 10 ³	$L_{\rm CHF}/D$	$P \ge 10^{-6}$ [N m ⁻²]	G [kg m ⁻² s ⁻¹]	x _{e,in} [-]	$\Delta P_{\text{max}}/P$	x _{e,CHF}	α_{CHF}^{a}	
0.1	0.5	2.5	0.08	4.2	-2.06	-0.01	-1.23	0	
0.93	14.1	230.8	4.07	8203.9	0.28	0.17	0.44	0.6	

^a Evaluated using Zivi's void fraction Eq. (12).

Table 7

Universal Dryout correlation for cryogens developed using data for all four fluids with $\alpha_{CHF} \ge 0.6$.

7(a) Correlation of Dryout data for all orientations combined Application: LH₂, LHe, LN₂, LCH₄, vertical upflow, vertical downflow, horizontal flow **Correlation constants:** $C_1 = 0.9$, $C_2 = -0.22$, $C_3 = -0.19$, $C_4 = 1.68$, $C_5 = 0.21$

Accuracy: MAE (%) = 28.7, RMS (%) = 40.5, θ (%) = 65, ξ (%) = 84

Parameter ranges

P _R	<i>D</i> x 10 ³	$L_{\rm CHF}/D$	<i>P</i> x 10 ⁻⁶	G	x _{e,in}	$\Delta P_{\rm max}/P$	x _{e,CHF}	$lpha_{ ext{CHF}}$ a				
[-]	[m]	[-]	[N m ⁻²]	[kg m ⁻² s ⁻¹]	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]				
0.03	0.5	3	0.01	2.2	-0.62	0	0.1	0.6				
0.9	14.1	226.3	3.06	680	0.95	0.17	1	1				
7(b) Correlation of Dryout data for horizontal flow												
Applicati	Application: LH ₂ , LHe, LN ₂ , LCH ₄ , horizontal flow											
Correlatio	Correlation constants: $C_1 = 1.1$, $C_2 = -0.25$, $C_3 = -0.28$, $C_4 = -0.6$, $C_5 = 0.29$											
Accuracy:	: MAE (%) = 20.1,	RMS (%) = 27.6,	θ (%)=78, ξ (%)=	97								
Paramete	er ranges											
P _R	D x 10 ³	$L_{\rm CHF}/D$	<i>P</i> x 10 ⁻⁶	G	x _{e,in}	$\Delta P_{\rm max}/P$	x _{e,CHF}	α_{CHF} a				
[-]	[m]	[-]	$[N m^{-2}]$	$[kg m^{-2} s^{-1}]$	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]				
0.03	2.9	11.3	0.11	44	-0.2	0	0.11	0.61				
0.9	14	205	3.06	470	0.86	0.14	0.99	1				
7(c) Corre	elation of Dryou	t data for vertic	al upflow and ver	tical downflow								
Applicati	on: LH ₂ , LHe, LN ₂	, LCH ₄ , vertical	upflow, vertical do	wnflow								
Correlatio	on constants: C_1	$= 0.85, C_2 = -0.22$	$C_3 = -0.22, \ C_4 = 1$.83, $C_5 = 0.22$								
Accuracy:	: MAE (%) = 26.1,	RMS (%) = 36.8,	θ (%) = 70, ξ (%) =	89								
Paramete	er ranges											
P _R	D x 10 ³	$L_{\rm CHF}/D$	<i>P</i> x 10 ⁻⁶	G	x _{e,in}	$\Delta P_{\rm max}/P$	x _{e,CHF}	$\alpha_{\rm CHF}$ a				
[-]	[m]	[-]	[N m ⁻²]	$[kg m^{-2} s^{-1}]$	[-]	[-]	[-]	[-]				
0.03	0.5	3	0.01	2.2	-0.62	0	0.1	0.6				
0.87	14.1	226.3	1.65	680	0.95	0.17	1	1				

^a Evaluated using Zivi's void fraction Eq. (12).



Fig. 15. Comparison of Dryout data (with $\alpha_{CHF} \ge 0.6$) against predictions of universal Dryout correlations for all fluids and (a) all flow orientations and (b) only vertical upflow and vertical downflow.

5.2. Universal Correlations for DNB and Dryout

5.2.1. Universal DNB correlation

Using the threshold value for α_{CHF} from above and the functional form in Eq. (22), a universal DNB correlation is developed by now considering data *for all four fluids* with $\alpha_{CHF} < 0.6$.

$$\frac{4Bo\frac{L_{CHF}}{D}}{1-x_{e,in}} = 0.17We_{fo,D}^{-0.21} \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}\right)^{-0.32} (1-x_{e,in})^{1.07} \left(\frac{L_{CHF}}{D}\right)^{0.59}.$$
 (25)

The performance of the universal correlation is detailed in Table 6 and illustrated graphically in Fig. 14. With a MAE of 22.5% *irrespective of fluid or flow orientation*, this correlation provides very good agreement with the data. The coefficient and exponents in Eq. (25) were found using the genetic algorithm-based optimization tool in the MATLAB Global Optimization Toolbox [102] which iteratively varies both the coefficient and exponents to find the global minimum as opposed to local minimum. The error which is chosen to be minimized is the MAE, Eq. (20).

5.2.2. Universal Dryout correlation

Similarly, using the MATLAB Global Optimization Toolbox [102], a universal correlation for the Dryout data ($\alpha_{CHF} \ge 0.6$) is devel-

oped for all four fluids and all orientations,

$$\frac{4Bo\frac{L_{CHF}}{D}}{1-x_{e,in}} = 0.9We_{fo,D}^{-0.22} \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}\right)^{-0.19} (1-x_{e,in})^{1.68} \left(\frac{L_{CHF}}{D}\right)^{0.21}.$$
 (26)

The performance of this correlation is detailed in part 7(a) of Table 7 and illustrated graphically in Fig. 15(a). With a MAE of 28.7% irrespective of fluid or flow orientation, this correlation also provides good agreement with the data, with an exception of few LN₂ data points. These LN₂ data points are associated with horizontal flow data and available from Steiner and Schlünder [67] and Müller et al. [93], who employed the same test section. Müller et al. [93] reported that CHF was mainly influenced by system pressure and flow quality, and the influence of mass velocity on CHF was rather small. Since flow boiling CHF data throughout the literature are strongly correlated to We_{fo,D}, which, in turn, is proportional to G^2 , deviation of the LN₂ data from Müller *et al.* are not readily explainable. Nonetheless, these deviations appear to be responsible for the data departure observed in Fig. 15(a). Additionally, the departure of a few LHe data points in Fig. 15(a) might be attributed, as discussed earlier, to the high measurement errors associated with this particular cryogen at extreme low temperatures. Departure of these LHe data points from the majority of LHe data (including similar operating conditions) appears to point to much higher measurement inaccuracies for these specific data points.

Further examination of the CHF Database showed more pronounced flow orientation effects on CHF for the Dryout data compared to relatively insignificant for the DNB data as discussed in the previous section. This is particularly the case for LN_2 horizontal flow data [67,93] corresponding to values of modified Froude number, Fr^* , below 1.7. In fact, slightly better predictions are observed by constructing a Dryout correlation for horizontal flow, Table 7(b), separate from that for vertical upflow and vertical downflow combined, Table 7(c). Figure 15(b) shows the performance of the Dryout correlation for combined vertical upflow and vertical downflow.

5.2.3. Comparative predictions with previous CHF correlations

Table 8 compares predictive accuracy of the present correlations with those of prior correlations available for a multitude of fluids, some including cryogens. The following prior correlations are examined: (1) Hall and Mudawar's [22] inlet and outlet based subcooled DNB-type correlations, (2) Shah's [103] universal correlation for both DNB and Dryout, and (3) Katto and Ohno's [23] seminal correlation for both DNB and Dryout.

For the DNB data, Table 8 shows Hall and Mudawar's inletbased subcooled CHF correlation provides good predictions of the cryogen data, followed in turn by Hall and Mudawar's outlet-based correlation, Shah's correlation, and Katto and Ohno's correlation, with the latter showing lowest predictive accuracy. Interestingly, both the Shah and the Katto and Ohno correlations were constructed using some cryogen data.

For the Dryout data, Table 8 shows Shah's correlation provides reasonable results, but that of Katto and Ohno shows appreciable scatter.

Table 8 also shows how the present correlations, developed specifically for cryogens, while providing somewhat similar predictions for upflow DNB as Hall and Mudawar's inlet-based correlation, is superior in terms of overall agreement for both vertical and horizontals flows. The present correlation also provides significant improvements over the Shah and the Katto and Ohno correlations. As to Dryout predictions, the present correlations provides predictions somewhat comparable to those of Shah but far more superior than those of Katto and Ohno. Overall, the present correlations for both DNB and Dryout CHF provide very good predictions consistently for both vertical and horizontal flows.

Performance of existing CHF correlations against the PU-BTPFL Cryogen Flow Boiling CHF Database. _

			1685 ро	DNB t ints (a	ype CHF 2 _{CHF} < 0	F data 1.6)	627 E po)ryout pints (c	type CH $v_{CHF} \ge 0$	ype CHF data $_{CHF} \ge 0.6$)	
Author(s)	Equation(s)	Remarks	Vertical Flows		Horizonta Flow		ntal Vertica v Flows		Hori: Fl	zontal ow	
			MAE (%)	RMS (%)	MAE (%)	RMS (%)	MAE (%)	RMS (%)	MAE (%)	RMS (%)	
Hall & Mudawar [22] (Outlet)	$\frac{q_{CHF}}{Gh_{fg}} = c_1 W e_{fo,D}^{c_2} \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}\right)^{c_3} \left[1 - c_4 \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}\right)^{c_5} x_{e,CHF}\right]$ $c_1 = 0.0722, \ c_2 = -0.312, \ c_3 = -0.644, \ c_4 = 0.9, \ c_5 = 0.724$ $q_{CHF} c_1 W e_{fo,D}^{c_2} \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}\right)^{c_3} \left[1 - c_4 \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}\right)^{c_5} x_{e,in*}\right]$	5544 data points Fluid(s): H ₂ O CHF Type: DNB Vertical and	37.7	68.9	44.7	68.9					
[22] (Inlet)	$\frac{1}{Gh_{fg}} = \frac{1}{1 + 4c_1 c_4 W e_{f_0,D}^{c_2} \left(\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g}\right)^{c_3 + c_5} \left(\frac{L_{CHF}}{D}\right)}$	Horizontal Flows	21.0	32.7	26.2	35.2					
Shah [103]	$c_{1} = 0.0722, c_{2} = -0.312, c_{3} = -0.644, c_{4} = 0.9, c_{5} = 0.724$ Calculate $x_{e,CHF}$: Evaluate Shah's correlation parameter: $Y = \left[\frac{GDc_{p,f}}{k_{f}}\right] \left[\frac{G^{2}}{\rho_{f}^{2}gD}\right]^{0.4} \left[\frac{\mu_{f}}{\mu_{g}}\right]^{0.6}$ For LHe, use Upstream Conditions Correlation $(q_{CHF,UCC})$. For all other fluids: if $Y \le 10^{6}$, $q_{CHF} = q_{CHF,UCC}$ if $Y > 10^{6}$ and $L_{E} \le \frac{160}{p_{E}^{1.14}}, q_{CHF} = min(q_{CHF,UCC}, q_{CHF,LCC})$, where $q_{CHF,LCC}$ is the Local Conditions Correlation. Upstream Conditions Correlation: $\frac{q_{CHF,UCC}}{Gh_{fg}} = 0.124 (\frac{D}{L_{E}})^{0.89} (\frac{10^{4}}{Y})^{n} (1 - x_{e,in,E})$ Where, if $x_{e,in} \le 0, L_{E} = L_{CHF}, x_{e,in,E} = x_{e,in}$ if $x_{e,in} > 0, L_{E} = L_{B}, x_{e,in,E} = 0$ and, $\frac{L_{B}}{D} = \frac{x_{e,CHF}}{ABO} = \frac{L_{CHF}}{D} + \frac{x_{e,in}}{ABO}$ For LHe, $n = (\frac{D}{L_{E}})^{0.33}$ For all other fluids: if $Y \ge 10^{4}$, $n = 0$ if $Y > 10^{6}$, $n = \frac{0.12}{(1 - x_{e,in,E})^{0.5}}$ Local Conditions Correlation: $\frac{q_{CHF,LCC}}{Gh_{fg}} = F_{E}R_{BO}x_{e,CHF} = 0$ Where, $F_{E} = max\{1, (1.54 - 0.032(\frac{L_{CHF}}{D}))\}$ $15Y^{-0.612}$ $Bo_{x_{e,CHF}} = 0$, $F_{x} = F_{3}[1 + \frac{(F_{3}^{-0.29} - 1)(P_{R} - 0.6)}{0.35}]^{C}$ if $P_{R} \ge 0.6, c = 1$ $F_{3} = \left(\frac{1.25 \times 10^{5}}{Y}\right)^{0.833x_{e,CHF}}$ For $x_{e,CHF} < 0$, $F_{x} = F_{1}\left[1 - \frac{(1 - F_{2})(P_{R} - 0.6)}{0.35}\right]^{b}$ if $P_{R} \ge 0.6, b = 0$ if $P_{R} \ge 0.6$	1443 data points Fluid(s): H ₂ O, R-11, R-12, R-21, R-22, R-113, R-114, LHe, LH ₂ , LN ₂ , Ammonia, Hydrazine, Acetone, Benzene, Diphenyl, Ethanol. Ethylene Glycol, N ₂ O ₄ , CO ₂ CHF Type: DNB and Dryout Vertical Upflow	48.9	95	98.4	141.9	27.7	43.5	20.6	28.3	
	$F_1 = 1 + 0.0052(-x_{e,CHF}^{0.88})(\min\{1.4 \times 10^7, Y\})^{0.41}$ if $F_1 \le 4$, $F_2 = F_1^{-0.42}$ if $F_1 > 4$, $F_2 = 0.55$										

Table 8 (continued)

			1685 ро	DNB ty ints (α	ype CHF _{CHF} < 0	⁷ data .6)	627 Dryout type Cl points ($\alpha_{CHF} \ge$			HF data 0.6)	
Author(s)	Equation(s)	Remarks	Vertical Flows		Horizontal Flow		l Vertical Flows		Horiz Flo	ontal w	
			MAE (%)	RMS (%)	MAE (%)	RMS (%)	MAE (%)	RMS (%)	MAE (%)	RMS (%)	
Katto & Ohno [23]	$\begin{split} \frac{q_{chi}}{Ch_{fg}} &= \frac{R_{chi}}{Ch_{fg}} (1 - Kx_{e,in}) \\ \text{if } \frac{\rho_g}{\rho_f} < 0.15, \\ \text{if } q_{co,2} < q_{co,3}, q_{CHF,x_{e,in}=0} = q_{co,2} \\ \text{if } q_{co,3} < q_{co,4}, q_{CHF,x_{e,in}=0} = q_{co,3} \\ \text{if } q_{co,3} > q_{co,4}, q_{CHF,x_{e,in}=0} = q_{co,4} \\ \text{if } K_6 > K_7, K = K_7 \\ \text{Where,} \\ \frac{q_{co,2}}{Ch_{fg}} = C \left(\frac{\sigma \rho_f}{G^2 L_H}\right)^{0.043} \frac{1}{(L_H/D)} \\ \frac{q_{co,3}}{Gh_{fg}} = 0.1 \left(\frac{\rho_g}{\rho_f}\right)^{0.133} \left(\frac{\sigma \rho_f}{G^2 L_H}\right)^{1/3} \frac{1}{1 + 0.0031(L_H/D)} \\ \frac{q_{co,4}}{R_{fg}} = 0.098 \left(\frac{\rho_g}{\rho_f}\right)^{0.133} \left(\frac{\sigma \rho_f}{G^2 L_H}\right)^{0.433} \frac{(L_H/D)^{0.27}}{1 + 0.0031(L_H/D)} \\ K_6 = \frac{1.043}{4C \left(\frac{\sigma \rho_f}{G^2 L_H}\right)^{0.043}} \\ \frac{K_7 = 5}{6} \left[\frac{0.0124 + (D/L_H)}{\left(\frac{\rho_g}{\rho_f}\right)^{0.133} \left(\frac{\sigma \rho_f}{G^2 L_H}\right)^{1/3}} \right] \\ \text{if } L_H/D < 50, C = 0.25 \\ \text{if } 50 \leq L_H/D \leq 150, C = 0.25 + 0.0009\{(L_H/D) - 50\} \\ \text{if } L_H/D > 50, C = 0.34 \\ \text{if } \frac{\rho_g}{\rho_f} > 0.15, \\ \text{if } q_{co,2} < q_{co,13}, q_{CHF,x_{e,in}=0} = q_{co,2} \\ \text{if } q_{co,2} < q_{co,3}, q_{CHF,x_{e,in}=0} = q_{co,5} \\ \text{if } K_6 > K_7, \\ \text{if } K_6 > K_7, \\ \text{if } K_6 > K_7, \\ \text{if } K_7 < K_9, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_6 < K_7, \\ \text{if } K_7 < K_9, K = K_7 \\ \text{if } K_8 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_8 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_8 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_8 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_8 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_8 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_8 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_8 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_9 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_9 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_9 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_9 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_9 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_9 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_9 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_9 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_9 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_9 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_9 < K_7, K = K_6 \\ \text{if } K_9 < K_7, K = K_9 \\ \frac{q_{co,13}}{Ch_{fg}} = 0.234(\frac{\rho_g}{\rho_f})^{0.513}(\frac{\sigma \rho_f}{G^2 L_H})^{0.433} \frac{(L_H/D)^{0.27}}{1 + 0.0031(L_H/D)} \\ \frac{q_{co,13}}{R_{fg}} = 1.12[\frac{1.52(\frac{\sigma \rho_f}{G^2 L_H})^{0.233}}{(\frac{\rho_f}{G^2 L_H})^{0.6173}} + (D/L_H) \\ \frac{L_{cur}}{R_{fg}} \end{bmatrix}$	Fluid(s): H ₂ O, LHe, R-12, R-22, R-115 CHF Type: DNB and Dryout Vertical Upflow	53.7	89.4	98.1	141.3	58.1	137.5	36.6	46.5	
Present Study	$\frac{4Bo}{D} \frac{c_{LHP}}{D} = c_1 W e_{f_{0,D}}^{c_2} (\frac{\rho_f}{\rho_g})^{c_3} (1 - x_{e,in})^{c_4} (\frac{L_{CHF}}{D})^{c_5}$ DNB Type Vertical Flows: $c_1 = 0.19, c_2 = -0.22, c_3 = -0.29, c_4 = 1.11, c_5 = 0.57$ DNB Type Horizontal Flows: $c_1 = 0.32, c_2 = -0.24, c_3 = -0.60, c_4 = 0.48, c_5 = 0.69$ Dryout Type Vertical Flows (see Table 7(c)): $c_1 = 0.85, c_2 = -0.22, c_3 = -0.22, c_4 = 1.83, c_5 = 0.22$ Dryout Type Horizontal Flows (see Table 7(b)): $c_1 = 1.1, c_2 = -0.25, c_3 = -0.28, c_4 = -0.6, c_5 = 0.29$	2312 data points Fluid(s): LH ₂ , LHe LN ₂ and LCH ₄ , CHF Type: DNB and Dryout Vertical and Horizontal Flows	21.9 ,	36.5	16.5	21.7	26.1	36.8	20.1	27.6	

^a Under constant pressure assumption, $x_{e,in^*} = x_{e,in}$

6. Conclusions and Recommendations

The present study was motivated by the absence of a large, reliable, error-free CHF database for developing and validating CHF correlations as well as future analytic and computational models. An exhaustive literature search identified nearly 50 useful individual CHF databases for four different fluids, LH₂, LHe, LN₂, and LCH₄, and acceptable data were consolidated into a single PU-BTPFL Cryogen Flow Boiling CHF database - CHF Database for short. An exhaustive parametric study of the Database was performed to gain insight into the fluid physics unique to cryogens, and to aid future investigators into important operating conditions where there is a dearth of data. Finally, using the Database, universal CHF correlations are constructed for two distinct CHF mechanisms, DNB and Dryout, which required careful physics-based segregation of the data. The new CHF correlations, intended specifically for cryogens, were found to provide good agreement with the data in terms of both predictive accuracy and trends.

A detailed assessment of the CHF Database illuminated key oversights researchers sometimes make when performing cryogen experiments. The present authors propose the following strategy for acquiring useful CHF data:

- 1 Local wall temperatures should be measured along the flow direction using temperature sensors to determine local heat transfer characteristics. Methods such as using a Wheatstone Bridge to find average wall temperature with respect to a reference bath temperature can strongly jeopardize both quality and accuracy of the data.
- 2 Inlet and outlet pressure should both be measured as close as possible to the inlet and outlet, respectively, of the heated length. Further, where a pressure drop model is employed to calculate outlet (or inlet) pressure from an upstream (or downstream) measurement, details of the model should be provided.
- 3 Both inlet temperature and either outlet quality or subcooling should be tabulated. The outlet conditions must be calculated from an energy balance based on fluid enthalpy (not specific heat, which varies with pressure).

Declaration of Competing Interest

NONE 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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