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Citation: Strotos, G., Malgarinos, I., Nikolopoulos, N. & Gavaises, M. (2016). Aerodynamic breakup of an n-decane droplet in a high temperature gas environment. *Fuel*, 185, pp. 370-380. doi: 10.1016/j.fuel.2016.08.014

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23 temperature. The present results are also compared against previously published ones for a
24 more volatile n-heptane droplet and reveal that fuels with a lower volatility are more prone to
25 breakup. A 0-D model accounting for the temporal variation of the heat/mass transfer
26 numbers is proposed, able to predict with sufficient accuracy the thermal behavior of the
27 deformed droplet.

28 **Keywords:** droplet breakup; VOF; heating; evaporation

29

30 **1 Introduction**

31 The efficiency of spray combustion systems is determined by the dispersion of the spray
32 droplets which increase the surface area and subsequently the rates of heat and mass transfer.
33 Following the primary jet breakup, the produced droplets are subjected to secondary breakup
34 which further enhances the heat/mass transfer rates. The coupled problem of secondary
35 droplet breakup under the influence of heating and evaporation is of major engineering
36 interest, but due to its complexity has not been yet addressed in detail and the vast majority of
37 relevant works examine these two phenomena independently.

38 Droplets under the influence of aerodynamic forces are subjected to different breakup modes,
39 namely the bag breakup, the transitional breakup, the sheet-thinning breakup and the
40 catastrophic breakup; for details see Guildenbecher et al. [1] among many others. The
41 outcome of the breakup is determined by the relative strength of the aerodynamic, surface
42 tension, viscous and external body forces acting on the droplet. These are grouped into
43 dimensionless numbers, forming the Weber number (We), the Reynolds number (Re), the
44 Ohnesorge number (Oh), the density ratio (ε) and the viscosity ratio (N), as shown in Eq. 1,
45 while under certain flow conditions other parameters such as the Froude number, the Mach
46 number and the turbulence levels may become important.

$$We = \frac{\rho_g U_{rel,0}^2 D_0}{\sigma} \quad Re = \frac{\rho_g U_{rel,0} D_0}{\mu_g} \quad Oh = \frac{\mu_l}{\sqrt{\rho_l \sigma D_0}} \quad \varepsilon = \frac{\rho_l}{\rho_g} \quad N = \frac{\mu_l}{\mu_g} \quad (1)$$

47

48 The phenomena observed during droplet breakup have been addressed in review studies such
 49 as those of [1-5] among others; it is generally considered that the We number is the most
 50 influential parameter, while viscous effects become important when $Oh > 0.1$. The breakup
 51 process requires some finite time to be established and the duration of the phenomenon is in
 52 the order of the shear breakup timescale t_{sh} proposed by Nicholls and Ranger [6]:

$$t_{sh} = \frac{D_0}{U_{rel,0}} \sqrt{\varepsilon} \quad (2)$$

53

54 Many works have studied either experimentally or numerically the droplet breakup, aiming to
 55 enlighten the conditions leading to the different breakup regimes and the underlying physics.
 56 Selective experimental studies on droplet breakup are those of [7-22] but generally, there is a
 57 scattering of the experimental findings which is probably due to the variety of the
 58 experimental techniques used and the experimental uncertainties. Numerical works aiming to
 59 fill the gap in knowledge such as those of [23-32]; they have examined the isothermal droplet
 60 breakup in 2-D and 3-D computational domains and they have provided useful information
 61 into the detailed processes inside and in the vicinity of the droplets during droplet breakup,
 62 which are difficult to be determined with experimental techniques. More specifically, [7-10]
 63 provided breakup maps in the $We-Oh$ plane, [11-13, 16] further clarified the boundaries
 64 between different breakup regimes, [14, 15, 20, 23, 25, 30, 31] clarified the physical
 65 mechanisms behind the breakup regimes, [13, 18] examined the size distribution of the child
 66 droplets after the parent droplet disintegration, [22] identified experimentally the gas flow
 67 structure during droplet breakup, [15, 24, 26, 32] examined the effect of density ratio and [26,

68 27, 29, 31] examined the droplet drag coefficient. For a detailed presentation of the works
69 referring to droplet breakup, see Strotos et al. [33].

70 Regarding the evaporation studies, in addition to 0-D or 1-D models (see details in the review
71 articles of [34-37] among others), detailed CFD works solving the complete Navier-Stokes
72 and heat/mass transfer equations have also been published. Selectively, the works of [38-47]
73 refer to single component evaporation and [48-53] refer to multicomponent droplet
74 evaporation, providing detailed information in the transport processes between the liquid and
75 the gas phase. More specifically, [39, 40] were the first who solved the complete set of the
76 governing equations, [42, 47] modelled the presence of the suspender, [43] examined the
77 effect of thermocapillary flow, [44] studied the effect of turbulence and [46] proposed
78 numerical improvements for the evaporation modelling. Similarly, in multicomponent studies
79 the first ones were those of [48, 49], followed by [50] who included variable thermophysical
80 properties and [52, 53] which conducted parametric studies. The aforementioned studies were
81 restricted to the modelling of isolated spherical droplets and a detailed presentation of the
82 works referring to droplet evaporation, was given in Strotos et al. [54].

83 Regarding the coupled problem of droplet breakup and evaporation, this has not yet been
84 studied in detail except in the CFD works of [55-60]. Haywood et al. [55, 56] showed that for
85 droplets under steady or unsteady (oscillatory) deformation, the quasi-steady correlations for
86 Nusselt (Nu) and Sherwood (Sh) numbers are still valid when a volume-equivalent diameter is
87 used, Mao et al. [57] showed that the mass transfer from deformed droplets is mainly
88 controlled by the Peclet (Pe) number, while the We number has a small impact only at high
89 Pe numbers. Hase and Weigand [58] studied the effect of droplet deformation on the heat
90 transfer enhancement and they found that this increases due to the oscillatory droplet motion
91 and the increased surface area of the deformed droplets; moreover, the steady-state classical
92 correlations for the Nu number, under-predict the heat transfer at the beginning of the
93 simulation. Later, Schlottke et al. [59] included the evaporation in their model and they found

94 that the droplet heating is affected by the flow field inside the droplet which transfers hotter
95 fluid from the droplet surface towards inside. Cerqueira et al. [60] studied spherical and
96 deformed rising bubbles and proposed new correlations for the Nu and Sh numbers.

97 The aforementioned studies were restricted to We number below 10, which limits the results
98 to small droplet deformation without breakup. Recently, Strotos et al. [61] examined the
99 effect of heating and evaporation in cases undergoing breakup for $We=15-90$. They examined
100 volatile n-heptane droplets and they showed that the droplet heating becomes increasingly
101 influential during breakup for lower We number and higher gas temperature. The present
102 numerical work is a continuation of this work and examines an n-decane droplet with
103 substantially lower volatility than the n-heptane; this promotes the higher heating of the
104 droplet. This work is the first examining the combined effect of heating and breakup solving
105 the Navier-Stokes, energy and transport of species equations coupled with interface capturing,
106 for a wide range of We numbers, gas phase temperatures for this particular fuel while it
107 compares it with the less volatile one for similar flow conditions. The structure of the paper
108 includes a brief description of the numerical model and the cases examined, followed by the
109 results, while the most important conclusions are summarized at the end.

110

111 **2 Numerical model and methodology**

112 The continuous field representation of the two-phase flow with the VOF methodology is used
113 to study the droplet breakup. The problem is assumed to be 2-D axisymmetric and an
114 automatic local grid refinement technique [62, 63] enhances the accuracy of the computations
115 at the interface region, while achieving low computational cost compared to a simulation with
116 a uniform grid of the same density. The droplet heating and evaporation are accounted for by
117 solving the energy and vapor transport equations, while the local evaporation rate is obtained
118 by using a model based on Fick's law, which is independent of the droplet shape. The species

119 properties depend on the local temperature [64, 65] and mass averaging rules are used for the
120 gaseous mixture assuming incompressible ideal gas. For the complete presentation of the
121 equations solved, the reader is referred to Strotos et al. [54]. The simulations were performed
122 with the commercial CFD tool ANSYS FLUENT v14.5 [66] and the numerical settings
123 adopted as also the User Defined Functions (UDFs) are identical to those used in Strotos et al.
124 [61].

125 The model has been successfully validated in [33, 54, 63, 67, 68] for cases including the
126 motion of a free falling droplet, droplet breakup, droplet evaporation and droplet impact onto
127 a solid substrate.

128

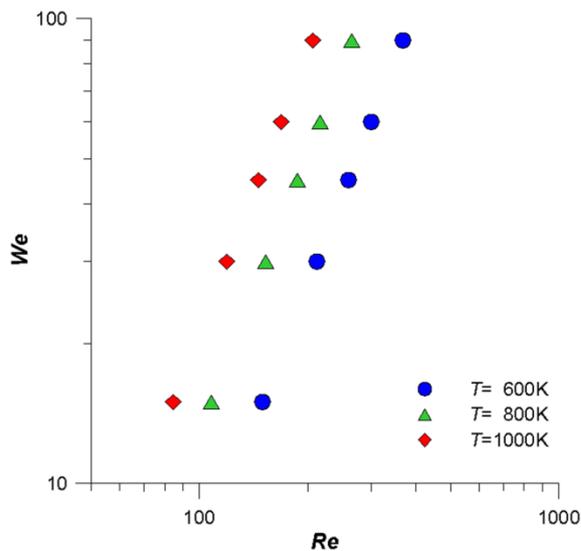
129 **3 Results and discussion**

130 **3.1 Cases examined and numerical setup**

131 The cases examined are similar to those presented in Strotos et al. [61] for a volatile n-
132 heptane droplet (C07), but this time an n-decane (C10) droplet is examined which has a much
133 lower volatility (i.e. vapor pressure) than the n-heptane. The cases examined refer to a small
134 100 μ m diameter droplet with an initial temperature of $T_0=300$ K, corresponding to $Oh=0.02$
135 which is low enough to guarantee breakup process almost independent from the Oh number.
136 The droplet is assumed to be initially motionless and it is subjected to a step change of the gas
137 phase velocity leading to We numbers in the range 15-90. The ambient air has a high
138 temperature in the range 600-1000K ($T_{cr,C10}=617.7$ K) which correspond to high density and
139 viscosity ratios ($\epsilon>1200$ and $N>20$ respectively) and thus the breakup outcome is not affected
140 by them since $\epsilon>32$ [24]. The aforementioned combination of We numbers and gas phase
141 temperatures corresponds to gas phase velocities in the range 77-243m/s; these in turn
142 correspond to Re numbers in the range 84-367 which ensures that the flow remains laminar

143 and axisymmetric [69, 70]; the Mach numbers are below 0.38, which implies that the
 144 compressibility effects can be ignored. For all cases examined, the ambient pressure is
 145 atmospheric; thus no modifications capturing high pressure effects are required in the
 146 evaporation model. A graphical representation of the cases examined is shown in Fig. 1 on the
 147 $We-Re$ map. These cases were examined both for evaporating and isothermal conditions. For
 148 the latter, the energy equation and the evaporation source terms were not accounted for, while
 149 the species properties were kept constant at their reference temperature values, i.e. at
 150 $T_0=300K$ for the liquid droplet and at T_∞ for the surrounding air; the isothermal runs
 151 correspond to a parametric study for the effect of We and Re numbers.

152



153

154 Fig. 1: Cases examined on the $We-Re$ plane.

155

156 Regarding the computational domain and the boundary conditions, these are the same as in
 157 Strotos et al. [33, 61, 68], in which a step change of the gas phase velocity is applied around
 158 the initially motionless droplet; the 2-D axisymmetric computational domain is moving with
 159 the average translational droplet velocity. Upwind the droplet, Dirichlet boundary conditions

160 were applied (i.e. fixed velocity and temperature for the non-isothermal cases) and downwind
 161 Neumann boundary conditions (i.e. zero first gradient for all variables) were used. A locally
 162 refined grid with 192 cells per radius was used, able to resolve the boundary layers at the
 163 interface region as explained in Strotos et al. [61]. It has to be noted that the 2D simulations
 164 performed in this work are considered reliable up to the breakup instant, since after that,
 165 three-dimensional phenomena appear.

166 In an effort to relate and also distinguish the simulations performed in Strotos et al. [61] for
 167 the volatile n-heptane droplet, from the present simulations referring to n-decane, the heat and
 168 mass transfer Spalding numbers (B_T and B_M respectively) are considered (Eqs. 3 and 4). These
 169 are calculated by using the initial surface temperature $T_{s,0}$ (Eq. 5) which corresponds to the
 170 contact temperature between semi-infinite solids [71]; this concept was also used in [72-74]
 171 for droplet impact on hot substrates and agrees well with the CFD predictions at the first time-
 172 step.

$$B_{T,\infty} = \frac{c_{p,g,\infty}(T_\infty - T_0)}{L(T_{s,0})} \quad (3)$$

$$B_{M,0} = \frac{Y_s(T_{s,0}) - Y_\infty}{1 - Y_s(T_{s,0})} \quad (4)$$

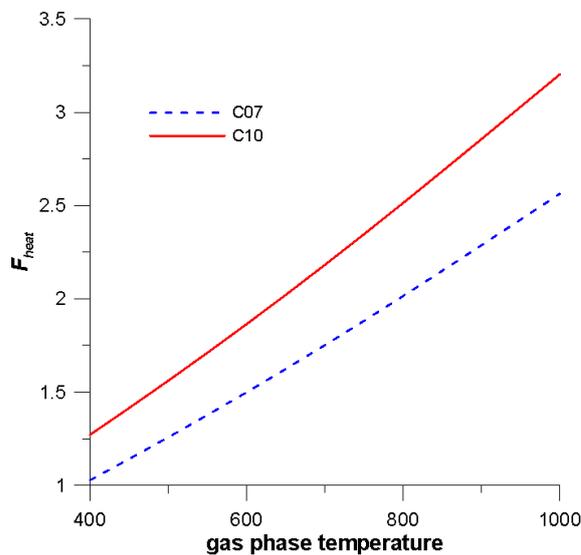
$$T_{s,0} = \frac{\gamma_l T_0 + \gamma_g T_\infty}{\gamma_l + \gamma_g} \quad (5)$$

$$F_{heat} = \frac{1 + B_{T,\infty}}{1 + B_{M,0}} \quad (6)$$

173 The droplet's tendency to increase its temperature is proportional to B_T and inversely
 174 proportional to B_M , since the evaporation absorbs heat and tends to decrease the droplet
 175 temperature. An indicator of the droplet heat-up is the heating factor F_{heat} (Eq. 6); large values
 176 imply a high tendency to increase the temperature. A comparison of the heating factor for the
 177 n-heptane (C07) and the n-decane (C10) is shown in Fig. 2 as a function of the gas phase

178 temperature for $T_0=300\text{K}$ (note that this is independent of the flow conditions). It is evident
179 that the n-decane has a higher possibility to heat-up due to its lower vapor pressure; the
180 heating factor increases with the gas phase temperature and decreases with increasing initial
181 fuel temperature (not shown in Fig. 2). It has to be noted that the heating factor has a
182 qualitative character and for the isothermal cases it was assumed that $F_{heat}=1$, which
183 corresponds to infinite latent heat and zero vapor pressure. Note that the definition of the
184 heating factor adopted here is suitable for the present conditions, but might not be suitable for
185 low ambient temperatures close to the droplet temperature in which $F_{heat}<1$.

186



187

188 Fig. 2: Heating factor as a function of the gas phase temperature for two different fuels
189 ($T_0=300\text{K}$).

190

191 Finally, prior to the presentation of the results of the present work, it has to be noted that the
192 isothermal simulations conducted in Strotos et al. [61] for an n-heptane and the present
193 simulations for an n-decane are in close agreement between them since they both have low
194 Oh numbers (0.01 and 0.02 respectively) and similar Re number ranges (77-337 and 84-367

195 respectively for $T_\infty=600-1000\text{K}$). On the other hand, the evaporating simulations for these two
196 fuels are exhibiting large variations due to the species thermal properties.

197

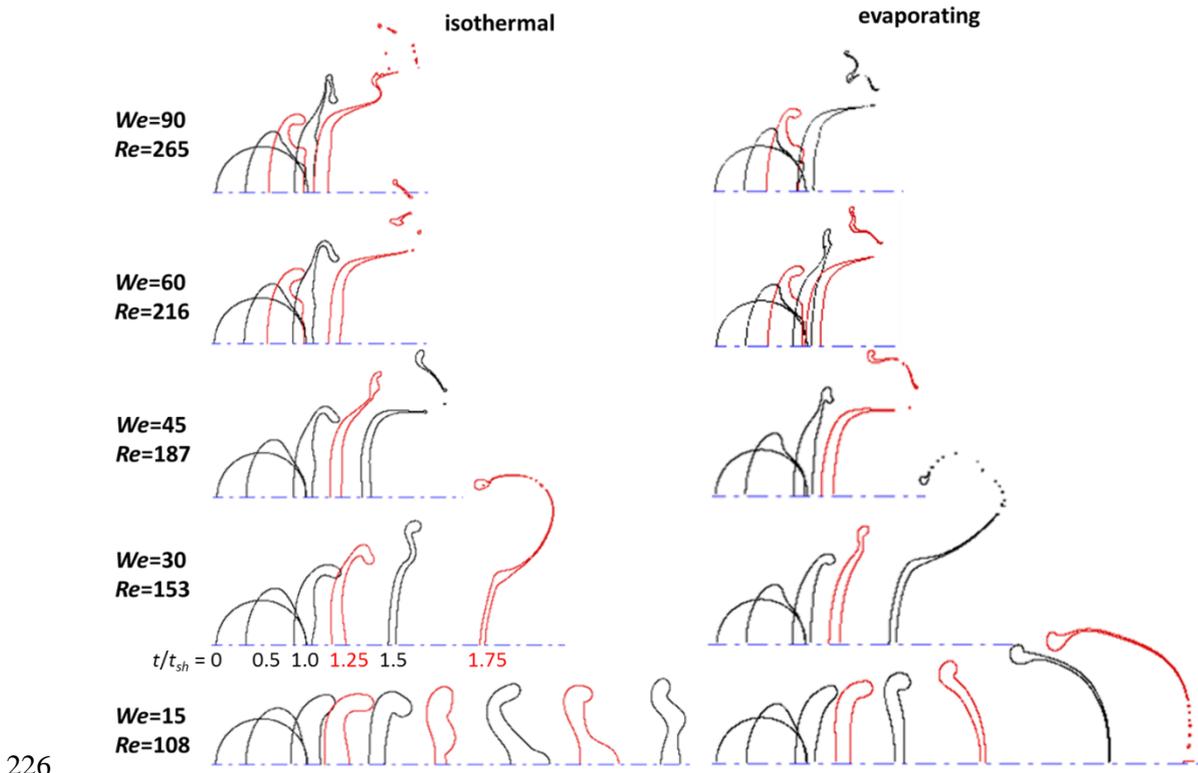
198 **3.2 Hydrodynamic effect of heating**

199 The results obtained for the droplet shapes are shown in Fig. 3 and Fig. 4 for the cases with
200 free stream temperature 800 and 1000K respectively. In these figures the left part corresponds
201 to the isothermal predictions and the right part to the evaporating simulations; the cases with
202 $T_\infty=600\text{K}$ are not presented since the differences between isothermal and evaporating
203 simulations were small. The droplet shapes drawn in black correspond to time intervals of
204 $0.5t_{sh}$ (i.e. 0.0, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, $2.0t_{sh}$) and the droplet shapes drawn in red correspond to
205 intermediate instances i.e. 0.75, 1.25, 1.75, $2.25t_{sh}$ (the time instant of $0.25t_{sh}$ has been
206 omitted); the last droplet shape corresponds to the instant of breakup. From figures Fig. 3 and
207 Fig. 4 it is evident that the We number is the most influential parameter leading to different
208 breakup regimes as the We number increases, namely the bag breakup for low We numbers,
209 the transitional breakup for intermediate We numbers and the sheet-thinning breakup for the
210 highest We number examined. Nevertheless, the sheet-thinning breakup is not clear due to the
211 low Re number and the continuous transition between the different breakup regimes; the
212 effect of Re number and the existence of a critical Re number leading to bag breakup at
213 $We=15$ was in detail discussed in Strotos et al. [61] and similar comments were also made in
214 Han and Tryggvason [23] and Guildenbecher et al. [1].

215 Apart from the dominant role of We number, the droplet heating is playing an important role
216 for the low We number cases. Under isothermal conditions, droplets with $We=15$ and
217 $T_\infty>800\text{K}$ are not breaking up due to the low Re number. At the same We number when
218 heating is accounted for with $T_\infty=800\text{K}$ (Fig. 3), a clear bag breakup is predicted; this is even
219 more emphatic for the case of $T_\infty=1000\text{K}$ (Fig. 4) in which the droplet not only breaks up, but

220 the breakup regime predicted is the transitional breakup. To the authors best knowledge, no
 221 previous study has reported transitional break-up at such a low We number; this is purely due
 222 to the droplet heating which reduces the surface tension coefficient and subsequently the
 223 forces tending to resist the droplet deformation. Note that the effect of heating was not so
 224 profound in the high volatility n-heptane examined in Strotos et al. [61].

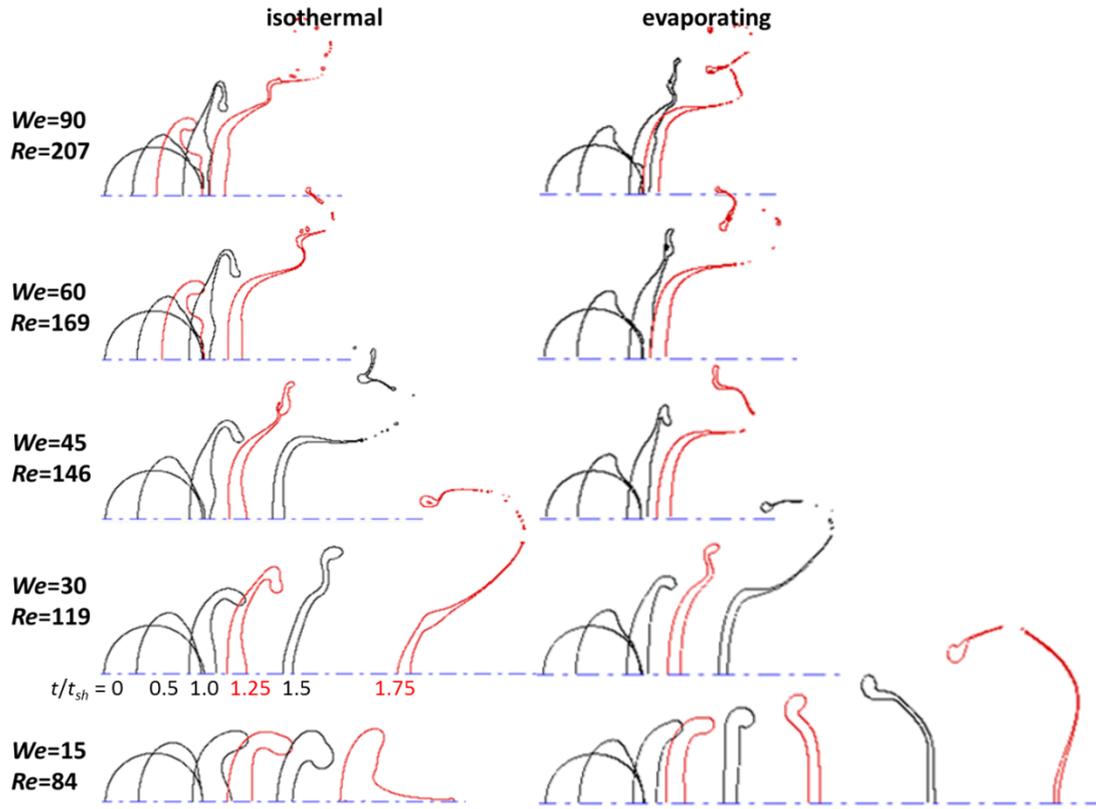
225



226

227 Fig. 3: Droplet shape evolution for the cases with $T_{\infty}=800K$. The droplet shapes drawn black
 228 (see the online version) correspond to time intervals of $0.5t_{sh}$ and the droplet shapes drawn red
 229 correspond to representative intermediate instances of $0.25t_{sh}$. The last droplet shape
 230 corresponds to the instant of breakup. Differences are observed at the lower We number case.

231



232

233 Fig. 4: Droplet shapes for the cases with $T_\infty=1000\text{K}$. The droplet shapes drawn black (see the
 234 online version) correspond to time intervals of $0.5t_{sh}$ and the drawn red correspond to
 235 representative intermediate instances of $0.25t_{sh}$. The last droplet shape corresponds to the
 236 instant of breakup. Differences are observed at the lower We number case.

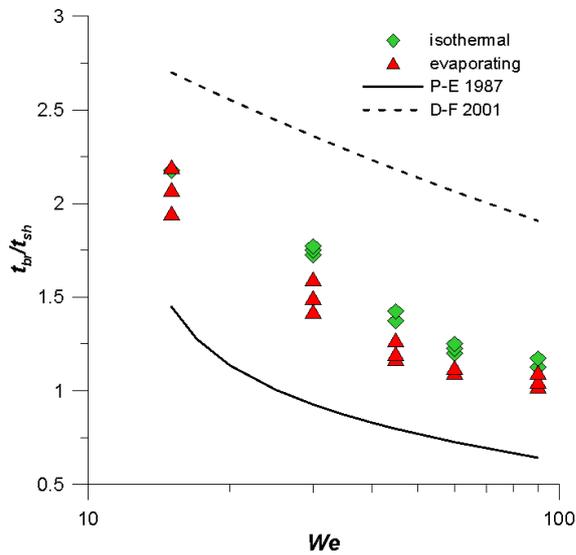
237

238 The predicted onset of breakup t_{br} (termed also as “initiation time”) for all cases examined is
 239 shown in Fig. 5, along with the corresponding experimental correlations given by Pilch and
 240 Erdman [2] and Dai and Faeth [13], abbreviated as “P-E 1987” and “D-F 2001” respectively;
 241 the present data for the breakup time are subjected to error of the order of $0.05t_{sh}$ (2.5-5%) due
 242 to the estimation of the breakup time by examining post-processed images. The experimental
 243 correlations differ between them due to several experimental uncertainties [25]. The trends
 244 are correctly captured by predicting faster breakup with increasing We number. The
 245 isothermal cases exhibit a weak dependency on Re number when the We is kept constant,

246 while in the evaporating cases the reduction of the surface tension coefficient acts as if the We
 247 number was higher; subsequently the droplet breaks up is faster. A best fit curve of the
 248 breakup time for both evaporating and isothermal cases is given in Eq. 7 valid for the entire
 249 range of conditions examined, i.e n-decane fuel, $Oh=0.02$, $We=15-90$, $Re=84-367$ and
 250 $T_\infty=600-1000K$.

$$t_{br}/t_{sh} = 8.628We^{-0.352}Re^{-0.086}F_{heat}^{-0.116} \quad (7)$$

251



252

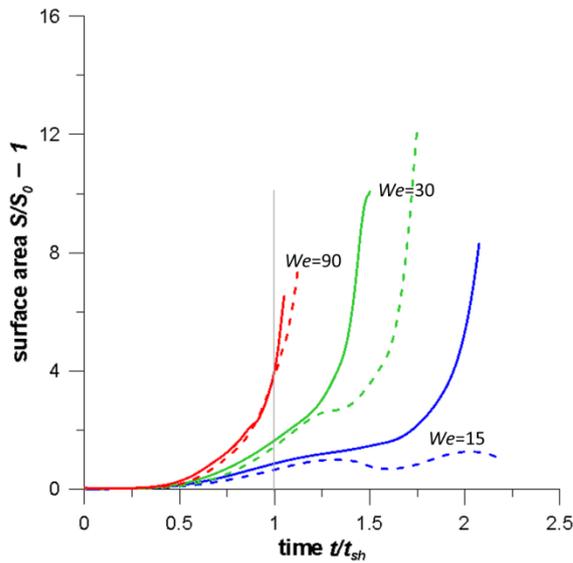
253 Fig. 5: Predicted dimensionless breakup time for the isothermal and the evaporating n-decane
 254 cases.

255

256 One of the most important magnitudes determining the combustion efficiency is the droplet
 257 surface area (S) which deviates significantly from the corresponding of the initial spherical
 258 shape (S_0) during the droplet deformation and breakup and it is difficult to be measured
 259 experimentally. The temporal evolution of this quantity is presented in Fig. 6 for selected
 260 cases ($T_\infty=800K$ and $We=15, 30, 90$); note that for the isothermal case with $We=15$, the

261 droplet is not breaking up. In all cases, after an initial non-deforming period of $\sim 0.3t_{sh}$, the
 262 droplet surface area starts to increase with a fast rate (1.6-5.7 in terms of non-dimensional
 263 units) proportional to the We number, which is in accordance with the findings of Han and
 264 Tryggvason [23]. Up to $t=t_{sh}$ the variation of the surface area is smooth, but at subsequent
 265 times the rate of deformation may change due to surface instabilities appearing even in the
 266 isothermal cases. For that reason, the maximum surface area at the instant of breakup is not
 267 following a smooth variation as the We number is changing and a local maximum is observed
 268 at $We=30$ (as it was also shown in [61]) reaching values of $12S_0$. This point needs further
 269 investigation by performing 3-D simulations since 3-D phenomena may appear before the
 270 breakup instant and alter both the rate of deformation as also the breakup instant. Regarding
 271 the effect of heating (see the solid lines in Fig. 6), it is evident that it is important for low to
 272 medium We numbers and $t>t_{sh}$ by further increasing the rate of deformation.

273



274

275 Fig. 6: Temporal evolution of the dimensionless droplet surface area for selected cases with
 276 $T_\infty=800K$. The dashed lines correspond to the isothermal cases and the solid lines to the
 277 evaporating cases.

278

279 As explained in Strotos et al. [61] it is difficult to find a mathematical expression predicting
280 the temporal evolution of the surface area for the entire phenomenon up to the breakup instant
281 and covering the entire range of We numbers leading to different breakup regimes. This
282 becomes even more complex when heating is included since the surface area evolution is
283 implicitly coupled with the variation of the surface tension coefficient due to heating. On the
284 other hand, the evolution of the surface area can be predicted for $t < t_{sh}$ with Eq. 8a, which has
285 been slightly modified relative to the one used in [61] by using in the denominator on the
286 right hand side of Eq. 8a the term $\sinh(c_2)$. Now, the coefficient c_1 expresses the surface area
287 at $t=t_{sh}$ and c_2 characterizes the form of the curve connecting the initial and the “final” state at
288 $t=0$ and $t=t_{sh}$ respectively; a low c_2 value implies a smoother (closer to the linear) variation.
289 An important improvement of the present fitting curve relative to the one in [61], is the
290 inclusion of the effect of heating by using the correction factor f_{corr} in the adjustable
291 coefficients c_1 and c_2 (see Eqs. 8b and c). Eq. 8 is valid for the entire range of conditions
292 examined in the present work, the correlation coefficient for the fitting of the surface area
293 evolution is above 0.98 and the prediction of the surface area at $t=t_{sh}$ is within the 15% error
294 for most of the cases examined; nevertheless this can reach values of 30% for specific cases at
295 the highest temperature of 1000K.

296

$$\frac{S}{S_0} - 1 = c_1 \frac{\sinh(c_2 \cdot t/t_{sh})}{\sinh(c_2)}, \quad t < t_{sh} \quad (8a)$$

$$c_1 = 0.1484We^{1.092}Re^{-0.284}f_{corr}, \quad f_{corr} = 1 + 4.152We^{-1.06}(F_{heat} - 1)^{0.84} \quad (8b)$$

$$c_2 = 4.5234We^{0.294}Re^{-0.198}f_{corr}, \quad f_{corr} = 1 - 0.013We^{-0.50}(F_{heat} - 1)^{0.289} \quad (8c)$$

297

298 For the isothermal cases ($f_{corr}=1$) the surface area increases with increasing We number and
 299 decreasing Re number; this is clearly derived from the sign of the exponents of c_I (Eq. 8b).
 300 When heating is included, the phenomenon becomes more complicated and the correction
 301 factor f_{corr} depends both on the We number and the heating factor F_{heat} . The correction factor
 302 for the coefficient c_I is always $f_{corr}>1$ which means that heating tends to increase the surface
 303 area at $t=t_{sh}$. As stated in [61], the extrapolation of this curve up to t_{br} should be done with
 304 caution and limit the maximum value not to exceed $10-12S_0$, otherwise unphysical values may
 305 be obtained.

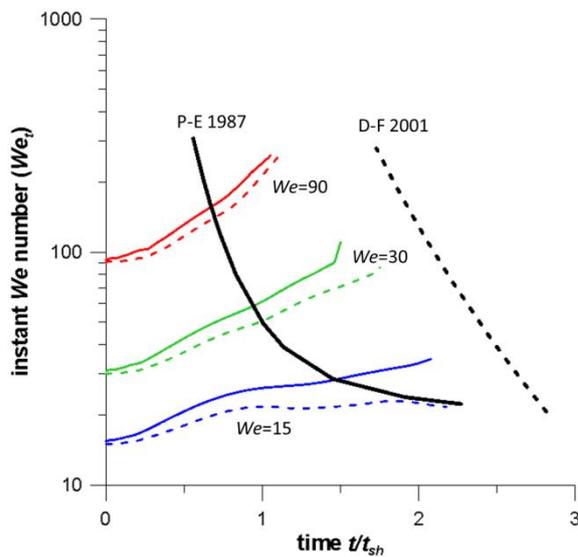
306 The droplet breakup is governed by the relative strength of the forces acting on the droplet,
 307 which vary dynamically as the droplet shape, dimensions and velocity change during the
 308 whole process. The instantaneous deforming forces scale with $\rho_g u_{rel,t}^2 D_{c,t}^2$ where $u_{rel,t}$ is the
 309 instantaneous relative drop-gas velocity (obtained by subtracting the average droplet velocity
 310 from the free-stream velocity) and $D_{c,t}$ is the instantaneous cross-stream diameter, while the
 311 instantaneous restorative forces scale with $\sigma D_{c,t}$ in which the viscous forces have been ignored
 312 since $Oh<0.1$. The ratio of these forces represents an instantaneous We number (see Eq. 9)
 313 which changes during the breakup process and includes the effects of heating, deformation
 314 and velocity change:

$$We_t = \frac{\rho_g u_{rel,t}^2 D_{c,t}}{\sigma} = We_0 \left(\frac{\sigma_0}{\sigma}\right) \left(\frac{D_{c,t}}{D_0}\right) \left(\frac{u_{rel,t}}{U_0}\right)^2 \quad (9)$$

315 The predicted transient We number based on Eq. 9 is plotted in Fig. 7 for selected isothermal
 316 and evaporating cases with $T_\infty=800K$. The transient We number increases in time implying
 317 that the deforming forces become progressively stronger, except of the isothermal case with
 318 $We=15$. In this case the droplet is not breaking up and after reaching a maximum, the
 319 instantaneous We number decreases, implying that the restorative forces become stronger.
 320 Generally, the instantaneous We number (as defined in Eq. 9) increases by a factor of 2-3
 321 relative to the initial We number which is mainly ought to the increase of the cross sectional

322 diameter; the reduction of the relative drop-gas velocity (no more than 10% for the cases
 323 examined) and the reduction of the surface tension coefficient play a secondary role. In Fig. 7
 324 the curves derived from Eq. 9 by using either the experimental breakup time of Dai and Faeth
 325 [13] or that of Pilch and Erdman [2] for $Oh=0.02$ are also shown; these were derived by
 326 processing the experimental data of [13] and more details can be found in [61]. These curves
 327 represent the critical instantaneous condition for breakup and when crossed, breakup occurs.
 328 The present simulations qualitatively agree with these curves.

329



330

331 Fig. 7: Predicted instant We number for selected isothermal (dashed lines) and evaporating
 332 (solid lines) cases with $T_{\infty}=800K$.

333

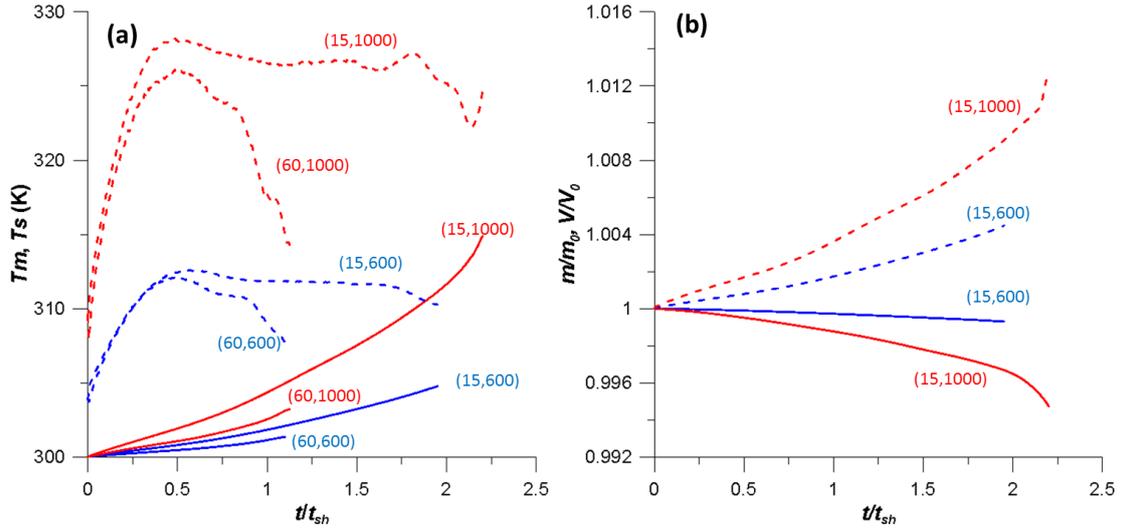
334 3.3 Thermal behavior of the droplet

335 The temporal evolution of the mean volume averaged droplet temperature T_m and the spatially
 336 averaged surface temperature T_s are shown in Fig. 8a with the solid and dashed lines
 337 respectively, for two cases combining different We numbers and gas phase temperatures;

338 these are indicated inside the parentheses as (We, T_∞) . Both the mean droplet temperature and
339 the surface temperature increase with increasing ambient temperature, as expected. The mean
340 droplet temperature T_m increases continuously in time and may reach a heat-up of 15K by the
341 onset of breakup, while the average surface temperature T_s exhibits a quite transient behavior;
342 during the flattening phase ($t < 0.6-0.8t_{sh}$) the surface temperature increases until reaching a
343 maximum, followed by a decrease until coming closer to the volume averaged temperature.
344 This behavior is mainly attributed to the flow patterns induced by the shape distortion which
345 exchange hotter fluid from the droplet surface with the colder fluid from the droplet interior
346 (see also Schlottke et al [59]). Additional to that, the increased surface temperature results in a
347 high evaporation rate which tends to further suppress the surface heating.

348 In Fig. 8b the dimensionless droplet mass and droplet volume (solid and dashed lines,
349 respectively) are shown for the cases $(We, T_\infty) = (15, 600)$ and $(15, 1000)$. Up to the breakup
350 instant, the evaporated mass is less than 0.5%, while the droplet volume increases up to 0.1%
351 due to the thermal expansion effect. Note that in the corresponding cases with n-heptane
352 presented in [61], the maximum heat-up was 7K, the evaporated mass was reaching 2% and
353 the thermal expansion effect was absent. The aforementioned differences are mainly affected
354 by the different volatility between the n-heptane and n-decane.

355



356

357 Fig. 8: (a) Temporal evolution of mean droplet temperature T_m (solid lines) and spatially
 358 averaged surface temperature T_s (dashed lines). In (b) temporal evolution of dimensionless
 359 droplet mass (solid lines) and dimensionless droplet volume (dashed lines). The cases shown
 360 in parentheses correspond to (We, T_∞) .

361

362 The heat and mass transfer processes are usually characterized by the dimensionless Nusselt
 363 (Nu) and Sherwood (Sh) numbers respectively, which express the heat/mass transfer
 364 enhancement relative to a purely diffusive process. These are defined as the dimensionless
 365 temperature/concentration gradient at the droplet interface, but their calculation is not
 366 applicable with the VOF methodology due to the continuous variation of the field magnitudes
 367 across the interface as explained in [60]. Inspired by Hase and Weigand [58] an indirect
 368 method is used to estimate them, through the Eqs. 10-12:

$$\rho_l V \frac{d(c_{p,l} T_m)}{dt} = S \left(\frac{Nu \cdot k_{g,\infty}}{D_0} (T_\infty - T_s) - \dot{m}'' L \right) \quad (10)$$

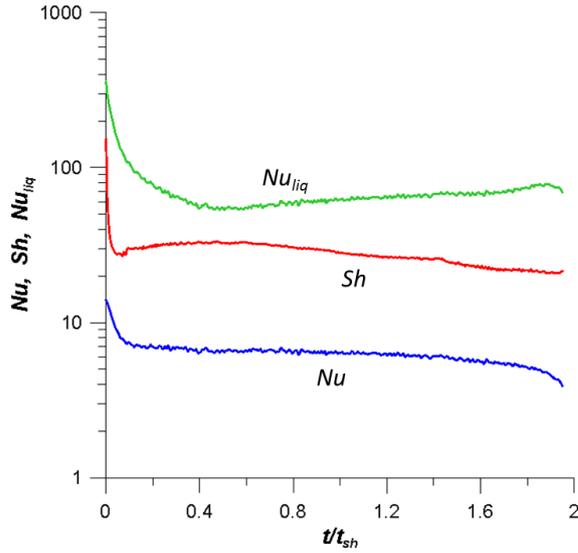
$$\dot{m} = S \frac{Sh \cdot \rho_{g,\infty} D_{AB,\infty}}{D_0} \ln(1 + B_M) \quad (11)$$

$$Nu_l \cdot k_{l,0} \frac{T_s - T_m}{D_0} = Nu \cdot k_{g,\infty} \frac{T_\infty - T_s}{D_0} - \dot{m}'' L \quad (12)$$

369

370 Eq. 10 is the droplet energy balance, Eq. 11 is a widely used relationship for the evaporation
 371 rate of spherical droplets and Eq. 12 represents the heat flux continuity at the droplet's
 372 surface, in which Nu_l is the dimensionless temperature gradient inside the liquid; this equation
 373 connects the average droplet temperature T_m with the surface temperature T_s . The set of Eqs.
 374 10-12 also forms a variant of the 0-D model for spherical droplet evaporation proposed by
 375 Rensizbulut et al. [75]. Solving Eqs. 10-12 for Nu , Sh and Nu_{liq} and using the CFD data for
 376 the mean droplet temperature T_m , the space averaged surface temperature T_s and the
 377 evaporation rate dm/dt , the temporal variation of the dimensionless transfer numbers is
 378 obtained; this is shown in Fig. 9 for the case $(We, T_\infty)=(15, 600)$, which can be regarded as
 379 representative, since the qualitative behavior observed is similar in all cases examined. For
 380 the Nu and Sh numbers, there is a short initial transitional period as the one observed in [39,
 381 40, 58]; after that, they exhibit small fluctuations in time. The Sh number seems to oscillate
 382 around a steady-state value, while the Nu number decreases continuously in time with a slow
 383 rate. On the other hand, the Nu_{liq} number exhibits a more unsteady behavior. The initial
 384 transitional period is longer compared to the other numbers and its magnitude exhibits almost
 385 one order of magnitude larger variations with time.

386



387

388 Fig. 9: Temporal variation of Nu , Sh and Nu_l for the case of $(We, T_\infty)=(15,600)$.

389

390 It is of engineering interest to find expressions for the Nu , Sh and Nu_{liq} numbers and use them
 391 in 0-D or 1-D models aiming to predict the droplet temperature and the evaporation rate.
 392 Earlier CFD works on spherical droplets (see [39, 40] among many others) provided such
 393 expressions as a function of the instantaneous Re , B_T and B_M numbers. Nevertheless, this is
 394 not applicable in the case of droplet breakup due to the short duration of the phenomenon and
 395 more importantly due to shape distortion from the spherical one. In [61] time-averaged
 396 transfer numbers (being a function of the initial reference conditions) were used and they
 397 could adequately capture the thermal behavior of droplets undergoing breakup. Following this
 398 approach, the time-averaged transfer numbers fitting the present data are given in Eqs. 13-15;
 399 the Re_l appearing in Eq. 15 ($Re_l = Re_\infty \varepsilon^{2/3} N^{-4/3}$) was taken from [38] and it is derived by
 400 equating the tangential shear stresses at the droplet surface:

401

$$\overline{Nu} = \frac{2 + 6.83 Re_\infty^{0.07} Pr_{g,\infty}^{1/3}}{(1 + B_{T,\infty})^{0.75}} \quad (13)$$

$$\overline{Sh} = \left(2 + 1.608We_0^{0.591}Sc_{g,\infty}^{1/3}\right)(1 + B_{T,\infty}) \quad (14)$$

$$\overline{Nu}_l = 55.95 + Re_l Pr_l^{1.6}/1429 \quad (15)$$

402

403 The set of Eqs. 10-15 forms a 0-D model which can be used to predict the average droplet
 404 heating and evaporation, but not the transient variation of the surface temperature, which
 405 decreases after reaching a maximum (see Fig. 8a). The reason for that discrepancy is that the
 406 time-averaged expressions ignore the transient behavior of the transfer numbers. In the
 407 present work, the Nu and Nu_{liq} numbers are expressed as a function of the non-dimensional
 408 time and this is an improvement of the model used in [61]; the correlations used are shown in
 409 Table 1 and they are valid for the conditions examined in the present work.

410

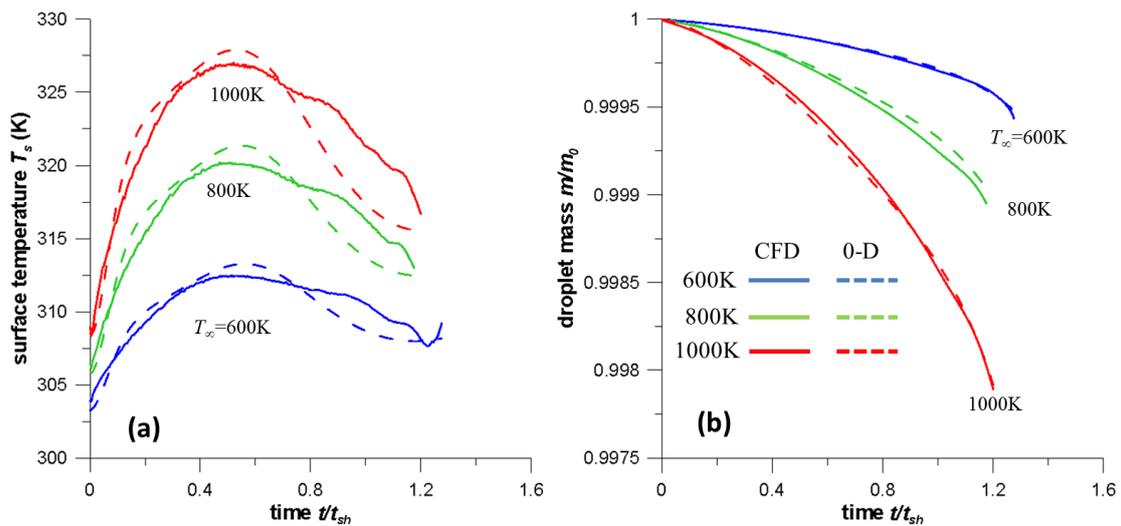
411 Table 1: Transient Nu and Nu_{liq} numbers. The time t corresponds to the dimensionless time
 412 t/t_{sh} .

	$Nu = c_0 - c_1 t + c_2 \exp(-c_3 t)$	$Nu_l = c_0 + c_1 \exp(-c_2 t) + c_3 \cos(2\pi t/c_4)$
c_0	$1.326 Re_\infty^{0.3647} (1 + B_{T,\infty})^{-0.236}$	$56.47 + 7.65 \cdot 10^{-4} Re_l^{1.707} (1 + B_{T,\infty})^{-0.432}$
c_1	$3 \cdot 10^{-6} Re_\infty^{2.212} (1 + B_{T,\infty})^{2.226}$	$201 + 1.99 \cdot 10^{-4} Re_l^{2.25} (1 + B_{T,\infty})^{-0.5285}$
c_2	3	$15.59 + 1.65 \cdot 10^{-6} Re_l^{2.64} (1 + B_{T,\infty})^{-0.623}$
c_3	60	$5.786 \cdot 10^{-5} Re_l^{2.226} (1 + B_{T,\infty})^{-0.825}$
c_4	—	1.2

413

414 The results of the 0-D model by using the transient correlations for Nu and Nu_{liq} are shown in
 415 Fig. 10 for the case of $We=45$ and three different gas phase temperatures; the solid and the
 416 dashed lines correspond to the CFD and the 0-D model predictions, respectively. As seen, the
 417 time dependent expressions for the transfer number can adequately predict the transient
 418 behavior of the surface temperature, with a less than 4K error. The model predictions
 419 presented in Fig. 10 have assumed that the temporal evolution of the surface area is known
 420 and this is a limitation of the proposed model. On the other hand, the Eq. 8 for the surface
 421 area evolution can be used to predict the thermal behavior for $t < t_{sh}$; in this case, the errors are
 422 mainly determined by the effectiveness of the curve reproducing the surface area evolution.

423



424

425 Fig. 10: Predictions of the 0-D model for (a) the spatially averaged surface temperature and
 426 (b) the droplet mass for the case of $We=45$. The solid lines are the CFD data and the dashed
 427 lines are the 0-D model predictions.

428

429 In Strotos et al. [61] it was shown that droplet breakup is affected by heating when the We
 430 number is low and the ambient temperature is high. This conclusion was drawn both by

431 considering the associated timescales (either in a macroscopic or a microscopic level) and by
432 implementing the aforementioned 0-D model with the time-averaged expressions for the
433 transfer numbers. These comments are also verified by the present simulations for an n-
434 decane droplet. Relating the n-heptane CFD simulations performed in [61] and the present
435 ones for the n-decane, the surface temperature at $t=t_{sh}$ is well represented by Eq. 16. This
436 equation clearly demonstrates the effect of We number, gas phase temperature and species
437 volatility through the heating factor F_{heat} :

438

$$T_s(t_{sh}) = T_0(1 + 0.0195We^{-0.2532}F_{heat}^{2.053}) \quad (16)$$

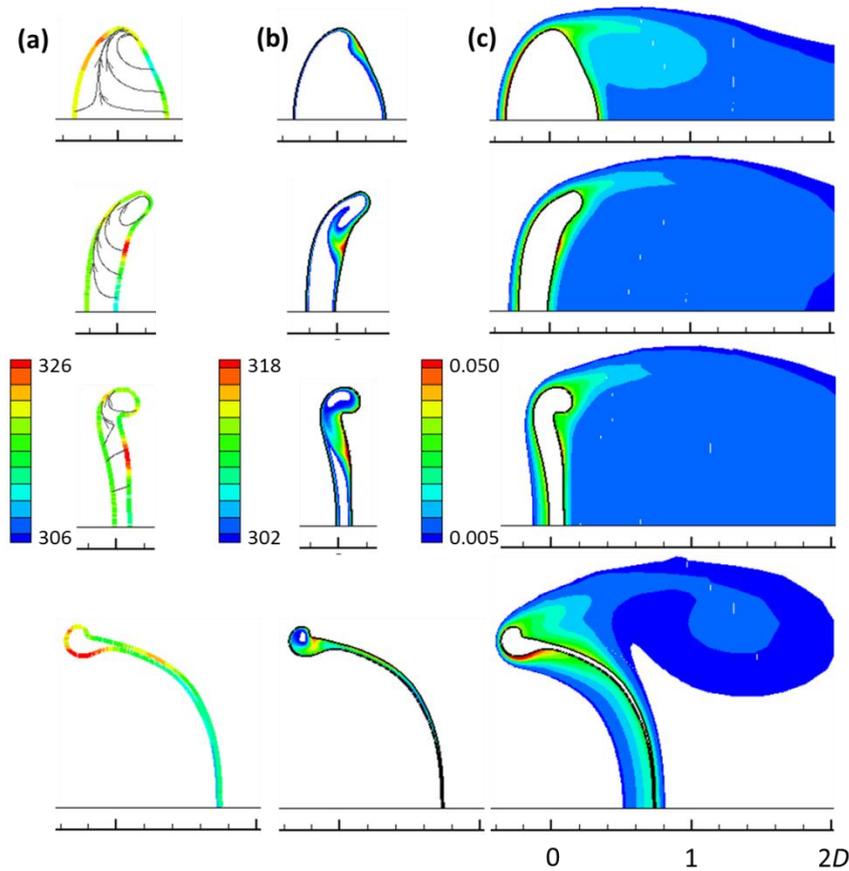
439

440 **3.4 Spatial distribution of the flow variables**

441 The spatial distribution of surface temperature, inner droplet temperature and vapor
442 concentration field are shown in Fig. 11 and Fig. 12 for the cases with $T_\infty=800K$ and We
443 number 15 and 30, respectively. The surface temperature (denoted with a thick line colored
444 with the corresponding temperature values) is not spatially uniform; along the droplet surface
445 differences of 15K can be observed. In the initial flattening phase, hot spots are observed on
446 the front side of the droplet in an off-axis location; at subsequent instances hot spots are
447 observed at the rear of the droplet. In a spherical droplet case these temperature differences
448 along the surface could induce secondary flow (due to surface tension gradients) and form
449 cellular vortices. The present work has included the effect of surface tension variation along
450 the interface through the CSS surface tension model [76]. Nevertheless, no secondary flow
451 was observed in the present cases (see characteristic streamlines in the left column), since the
452 flow patterns are determined by the droplet shape. Regarding the inner temperature field and

453 the vapor concentration field in the gas phase, these follow similar patterns to the ones
454 observed in [61], as affected by the local velocity field and the droplet deformation.

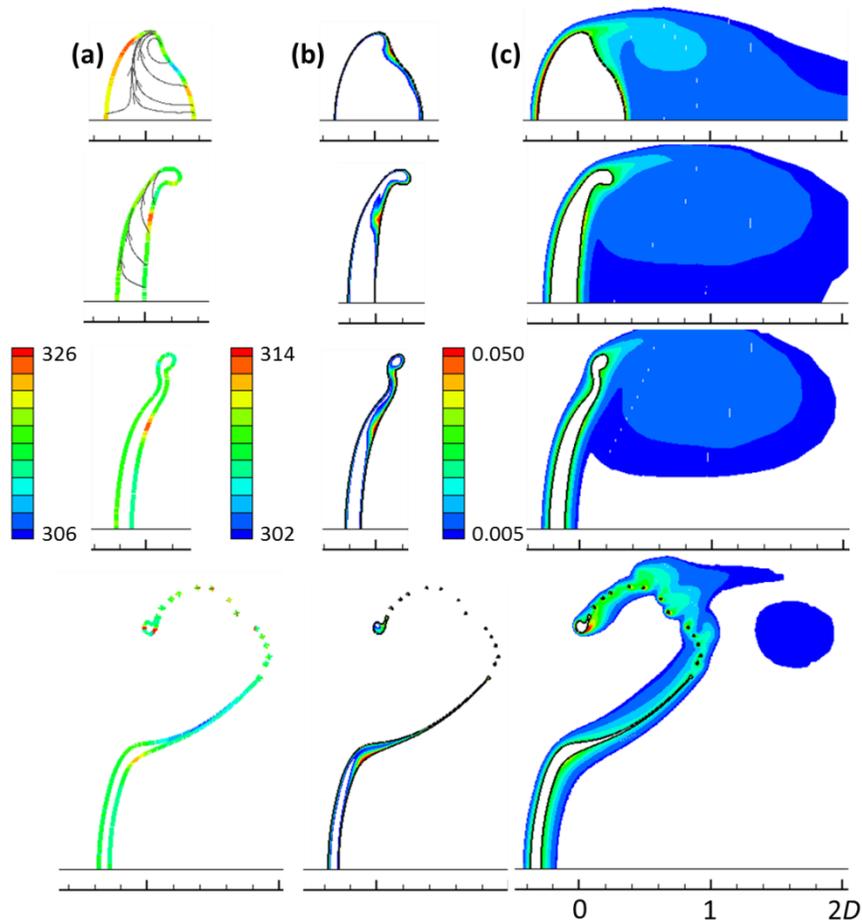
455



456

457 Fig. 11: Spatial distribution of (a) surface temperature, (b) droplet temperature and (c) vapor
458 concentration for the case $(We, T_\infty) = (15, 800)$. The time instances presented are 0.5, 1.0, 1.5
459 and $2.0t_{sh}$. In (a) characteristic streamlines are also shown. For color interpretation, see the
460 online version.

461



462

463 Fig. 12: Spatial distribution of (a) surface temperature, (b) droplet temperature and (c) vapor
 464 concentration for the case $(We, T_\infty) = (30, 800)$. The time instances presented are 0.5, 1.0, 1.25
 465 and $1.5t_{sh}$. In (a) characteristic streamlines are also shown. For color interpretation, see the
 466 online version.

467

468 4 Conclusions

469 The Navier-Stokes, energy and transport of species conservation equations together with the
 470 VOF methodology have been utilized to study the coupled problem of aerodynamic droplet
 471 breakup under the influence of heating and evaporation for We numbers in the range 15-90
 472 and gas phase temperatures 600-1000K. To quantify the effect of heating, the same cases

473 were also studied under isothermal conditions assuming constant species properties.
474 Combining the results obtained from the present work for an n-decane fuel droplet with those
475 for a more volatile n-heptane droplet presented in Strotos et al. [61], it seems that droplet
476 heating affects the overall breakup performance for low We numbers, high gas phase
477 temperatures and low volatility fuels. For a non-breaking-up case with constant properties,
478 heating may decrease the surface tension coefficient in such a way, that droplet not only
479 breaks up in the bag breakup regime, but also in the transitional breakup regime.
480 Nevertheless, at high We numbers the surface tension still decreases but without altering the
481 breakup performance. During droplet breakup, despite the fact that the liquid evaporated mass
482 is very low (especially for low volatility fuels), one has to consider the evaporation source
483 terms since they play an important role by suppressing the droplet heat-up; this is evident for
484 high volatility fuels which seem to be less affected by heating.

485 The concept of “heating factor” was introduced which provides an indication of the droplet
486 tendency to heat-up by combining the terms tending to increase and decrease the droplet
487 temperature. Useful correlations were provided for an a-priori estimation of the breakup
488 instant, surface area evolution and droplet heat-up. Additional to them, an enhanced 0-D
489 model able to predict the thermal behavior of the droplet is proposed. In relevance to our
490 previous work [61], it uses time-dependent transfer numbers instead of time-averaged and it is
491 able to capture the transient behavior of the spatially average surface temperature. The latter
492 is not spatially uniform and peak values are observed in the front of the droplet in the initial
493 flattening phase and at the rear of the droplet in the subsequent stages.

494

495 **5 Acknowledgements**

496 The research leading to these results has received funding from the People Programme (Marie
 497 Curie Actions) of the European Union’s Seventh Framework Programme FP7-PEOPLE-
 498 2012-IEF under REA grant Agreement No. 329116.

499

500 **6 Nomenclature**

501 **Roman symbols**

Symbol	Description	Units
B_M	Mass transfer Spalding number	-
B_T	Heat transfer Spalding number	-
c_p	Heat capacity	J/kgK
D	diameter	m
D_{AB}	Vapor diffusion coefficient	m ² /s
F_{heat}	heating factor	-
Oh	Ohnesorge number $Oh = \mu_l / \sqrt{\rho_l \sigma D_0}$	-
k	Thermal conductivity	W/mK
L	Latent heat of vaporization	J/kg
m	mass	kg
\dot{m}''	Evaporation rate per unit area	kg/m ² s
Nu	Nusselt number	-
Pr	Prandtl number	-
R	radius	m
Re	Reynolds number $Re = \rho_g U_{rel,0} D_0 / \mu_g$	-
S	surface area	m ²
Sc	Schmidt number	-
Sh	Sherwood number	-
t	time	s
t_{sh}	Shear breakup timescale $t_{sh} = D\sqrt{\varepsilon}/U$	-
T	temperature	K
U	reference velocity	m/s
u	instantaneous droplet velocity	m/s
V	volume	m ³
We	Weber number $We = \rho_g U_{rel,0}^2 D_0 / \sigma$	-
We_t	instantaneous We number	-
Y	vapor concentration	kg/kg

502

503

504 **Greek symbols**

Symbol	Description	Units
a	thermal diffusivity	m ² /s
γ	thermal effusivity $\gamma = \sqrt{k\rho c_p}$	J/m ² Ks ^{0.5}

ε	density ratio $\varepsilon = \rho_l/\rho_g$	-
μ	viscosity	kg/ms
N	viscosity ratio $N = \mu_l/\mu_g$	-
ν	kinematic viscosity	m ² /s
ρ	density	kg/m ³
σ	surface tension coefficient	N/m

505

Subscripts

Symbol	Description
0	initial
c	cross-stream
cr	critical
g	gas
l	liquid
rel	relative
s	at surface
t	instantaneous magnitude
x,y,z	coordinates
∞	free-stream conditions

506

Abbreviations

Symbol	Description
C07	n-heptane C ₇ H ₁₆
C10	n-decane C ₁₀ H ₂₂
CFD	Computational Fluid Dynamics
cpR	Cells per Radius
CSS	Continuum Surface Stress
UDF	User Defined Function
VOF	Volume of Fluid

507

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509

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