ELECTROHYDRODYNAMIC CONDUCTION PUMPING IN MICRO-SCALE WITH TWO PHASE FLOW

A Major Qualifying Project

Submitted to the

Department of Mechanical Engineering

in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree of

Bachelor of Science in Mechanical Engineering at the

Worcester Polytechnic Institute

March 2016

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Abstract

The heat transfer requirements in order to regulate operating temperatures in high power electronics stems from the technological advancements of miniaturizing systems. Traditional coolant pumps, which have moving parts, do not provide cooling solutions in micro-scale due to complex designs. Electrohydrodynamic (EHD) conduction pumps can be utilized for micro-scale thermal control. The phenomenon of EHD conduction occurs when dissociated electrolyte constituents in a dielectric fluid interact with an applied electric field. This allows a net force in the working fluid, which provides a net flow in a particular direction. EHD conduction pumps are advantageous in the sense that they are simple in design, have no moving parts, require lower power to operate, and is able to be used in microgravity. There are previous experiments that prove that effective heat transfer enhancement in single phase can be achieved for systems in both macro- and meso- scales. This project offers performance characteristics such as pressure and flow rate generation in micro-scale for a single phase flow based on an EHD pump consisting of three electrode pairs. These electrode pairs comprise of a flush ring ground electrode and two 400 micron perforated high voltage electrodes. The working fluid was chosen to be HCFC-123 that operated within an ambient environment.

Acknowledgements

We would like to first thank the Mechanical Engineering Department of WPI for providing us with the necessary funds and resources, especially the Multi Scale Heat Transfer Laboratory, where we conducted our experiment. We appreciate greatly the support of our advisor, Professor Jamal Yagoobi, for providing supervision of the project and for helping us explore the new field of electrohydrodynamics on a micro-scale. We would also like to thank Michal Talmor and Lei Yang, two of Professor Yagoobi's PhD students, for their time and concern regarding this project at every step.

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Chapter 1 – Introduction

1.1 Introduction to EHD Pumping

Electrohydrodynamics (EHD) studies the interactions between an applied electrical field and any resulting fluid flow. In the presence of an electric field, a set of EHD forces resulting from the presence of charged elements in the fluid will cause fluid motion. This gives the EHD its most valuable application, EHD pumping. The three major types of EHD pumping driven by Coulomb Force are conduction, induction, and ion drag, the modifications between which is the procedure used to produce charges in the fluid. Conduction has just been of greater interest in recent years because it is reliable and simpler than the other types listed. One important use that has been previously demonstrated for EHD pumping is to improve heat transfer capabilities [7]. A system consisting of the pump and fluid circulation can allow the fluid to carry away heat produced from an operating electronic or piece of hardware cooling it down. Other uses involve terrestrial applications, in high power electronics cooling, and for aerospace, because EHD works in zero gravity [8] and has low mass designs with no moving parts. The purpose of this Major Qualifying Project was to take the EHD Pumping concept in mind and to take the pump to micro-scale to study the magnified effects on heat transfer. The effects will be compared to EHD Pumps run in Meso Scale to understand the improved efficiency [4]. To show the effective generation of flow and pressure of the fluid, a complete loop was assembled using a complex system of sensors and data acquisition modules. This report underlines the entire design, fabrication and testing and provides research to study the improved performance of a Micro-scale EHD Pump. The conclusions from this study could be directly applied to solve a wide range of fundamental problems in the engineering industry.

1.2 Overview of EHD pumping

The EHD phenomena involve the interaction of electric fields and flow fields in a fluid medium. Three forces are present in this interaction: Coulomb, Dielectrophoretic, and Electrostriction, as shown as three terms respectively in this equation [13]:

$$\vec{F}_e = q\vec{E} - \frac{1}{2}E^2\nabla\epsilon + \nabla\left[\rho\frac{E^2}{2}\left(\frac{\partial\epsilon}{\partial\rho}\right)_T\right]$$

For an isothermal, incompressible dielectric fluid medium, the Coulomb force is solely responsible for flow generation in EHD pumping [3].

1.3 Types of EHD Pumping

ION DRAG

Among the complex phenomena of EHD Pumping, Ion Drag is one of the primary and earliest found methods to successfully create fluid flow with net charge distribution. Ion-drag EHD pump uses the interaction of an electric field with electric charges, dipoles or particles injected



from the emitter in a fluid in order to generate a net flow (Fig. 1) [7]

Fig.1: Ion-Drag pumping mechanism [7]



Fig 2: Ion Drag Design [7]

In the Ion Drag design (Fig 2), injection of ions in the working fluid come from the emitter using the Corona discharge effect. Free charge will drag the adjacent fluid along electric field lines. The primary reason, it is not the preferred method of pumping is because of deterioration of the fluid's electrical properties because of the charges being pumped into it. Electrical conductivity in a fluid is a measure of how many charge carriers there are and the relative speed of their flow. This is effected in Ion drag pumping. Also that data cannot be very reliable since operation may be inconsistent.

INDUCTION

The concept of Induction pumping comes from charges induced in a liquid caused by a gradient or discontinuity of the electrical conductivity. Often an AC traveling electric wave attracts or repels these induced charges which causes the motion in the working fluid. The electric wave is controlled by varying voltage and frequency. The rate of heat transfer is directly related to the combination of heat flux and voltage. For alternate conditions between heat flux and voltage, the frequency determines the heat transfer rate. The disadvantages for this method are High power consumption and a Complex Design Structure. So it is not the ideal method in running Micro-scale EHD Pumping experiments [10]

CONDCUTION

The interface between electric fields and dissociated ionic charges in dielectric fluids is referred to as EHD conduction pumping. In EHD conduction pumping, when an electric field is applied to a fluid, dissociation and recombination of electrolytic species produces heterocharge layers in the vicinity of electrodes. Attraction between electrodes and heterocharge layers induces a fluid motion and a net flow is generated if the electrodes are properly designed [3]. At high electric fields, the rate of dissociation exceeds the rate of recombination. A heterocharge layer is where the dissociation-recombination reactions is not in equilibrium. Oppositely charged ions are attracted to oppositely charged electrodes (ground and high voltage). This exerts a force on the fluid for each ionic species (positive and negative). For symmetric electrodes these forces will cancel each other out. Net flow is generated when the electrode geometry allows for a net force in the desired flow direction.



Fig 3: Molecular Dissociation/Recombination and net flow [4]

1.4 Applications of EHD Pumping

There are a number of advantages to EHD conduction pumping with regards to mass transport (control and distribution) and effective heat transfer. This allows it to be used in multiple applications across various engineering industries. Some the advantages include [2]:

- a) Non-mechanical (no moving parts)
- b) Lightweight
- c) Low noise
- d) Suitable for special environments (e.g. space)
- e) Applicable for single and multiphase flows
- f) Ability to enhance control of fluid using electric fields

The key advantage to EHD conduction pumping is its flexibility. The EHD conduction pumping phenomenon is receptive, i.e. pumping changes almost immediately when changing the forced electric field. Most fluids in thermal systems, namely refrigerants, happen to be dielectrics, which makes flow distribution and control in thermal systems using EHD conduction pumps entirely achievable. Although with all these benefits in hand, the high voltage requirement makes EHD pumps dangerous to operate.

The above following properties have allowed EHD conduction technology to improve the heat transport properties of cooling systems that use refrigerants [11]. The Non-mechanical system combined with the lightweight property have made EHD conduction pumping an attractive technology in space environments since it can work under microgravity conditions [8] and other applications (see Fig. 4). EHD conduction pumping can also successfully pump thin fluid films, which can be used to pump vapor phases that can be carried by an EHD driven liquid phase [12]. As a relatively new field, it is also developing to reach the technology for use in autonomous actuation [5].



Fig 5: Applications of EHD Conduction Pumping

1.5 Operating Conditions and Goals in EHD Pumping Experiments

The goal of this project was to characterize the performance of an innovative, micro scale EHD conduction pump for heat transfer enhancement in single and two-phase flows. For this purpose an experimental setup had to be constructed to test the pressure and flow rate generation capabilities of the micro scale pump. The experimental setup was a loop similar to HVAC systems [reference], which includes an evaporator section to heat the fluid and a condenser section to cool the fluid back to single phase so it can be circulated back into the evaporator.

To run an experiment involving an EHD conduction pump, the primary variable to take into concern, the nominal electric field strength. For EHD conduction to work this field strength cannot exceed the dielectric strength of the working fluid (given in volts per some gap in mm), but must still be on the order of 10^6 V/m. The nominal field is the voltage supplied to the pump times the gap distance between the high voltage and ground electrodes. For a micro scale EHD conduction pump, the allowable voltage magnitude is directly related to the gap between the electrodes. The electrodes themselves can have many shapes, as illustrated below [12]:



Figure 6: Different Electrode Geometries [12]

For this project, the allowable range theoretically set to run the high voltage electrode for EHD conduction pump was within 700V-1200V. This was decided from a comparison based on the ratio of values from the meso scale experiment to study EHD conduction pumping. The performance curve to study mass flow rate, differential pressure and heat transfer was all done based within the range provided above. The purpose of the experimental setup was to use input voltages to the EHD conduction pump and heater to generate flow and control the vapor quality, and measure the resulting pressure and flow rate at different voltage and quality levels. Due to time constraints, data for single and two phase flow could not be obtained. Therefore this report details the design and construction efforts only.

For any EHD conduction pump in a loop experiment, the primary goal is to use the pump to successfully create a complete circulation of the fluid in the loop. This can only be possible by creating a sustainable change in pressure between the electrodes in the pump. This pressure gain must be higher that the pressure loss due to friction and resistance along the loop. For a micro scale pump, the pressure gain is not significant enough. As a result, the pressure loss must be kept to a minimal value. For two phase operations, characterization of a successful operation with evaporation based on vapor quality is the goal. For both single phase and two phase operations, the saturated temperature and saturated pressure control is an essential step to calculate. EHD conductions use very small currents so even though they require high voltages, the overall power consumption is very low. Fully capturing the performance of the micro-scale pump will provide in-depth knowledge of how EHD conduction can control single and twophase flows at such a small scale for future studies

1.6 Microscale EHD Pump

The experimental study to be performed using the experimental setup detailed in this report will observe the central behavior and performance of EHD conduction pumping at the micro scale where the single-phase flow and pressure generation of the pump will be characterized. The EHD pumping of single phase flow in micro-channel in the presence of heat transfer will also be studied and the enhancement of heat transfer due to the EHD conduction pump will be quantified. The primary reasons for studying micro scale EHD conduction pumping is that thermal conductivity is increased for reduced area. This is because increased ratio between surface area and volume, which is achieved by reducing the characteristic size of the flow channels:

$$k = \frac{Q\Delta x}{A(T_2 - T_1)}$$

Along with this, lower voltages can be applied to the EHD conduction pump to achieve the required electric field strength. This is possible since the distance between the electrodes in the pump is very small. The lower voltage low current used therefore results lower power consumption. This creates an ideal technology that can be applied to multiple aspects of the engineering industry. The change of scale from meso to micro generates significant pressure and flowrates allowing enhanced fluid circulation and heat transfer [3]. Due to specific environmental requirement needs for any given engineering system, micro scale pumps producing low noise and low vibration makes EHD conduction pumps an attractive piece of instrument to be used.

The micro scale pump design for our experiment consisted of a pump with two high voltage and two ground voltage electrodes, with an additional electrode pair downstream with a high voltage electrode embedded in an evaporator for phase change. The space between each high voltage and ground electrode was 1 mm. The tube that allows the fluid to flow through the pump is approximately 1mm in diameter. As shown in Fig. 8, the 3d model of the EHD Pump and evaporator is displayed:



Fig 7: 3D Model of Micro-Scale EHD Pump and Evaporator

The big housing tube on the bottom of this image is exactly 60mm long

The pump was designed with a simple housing, shown on the bottom in Fig 8. to hold the individual components in it. It was then closed from both ends to ensure the pump will not come apart during operation. The wiring for the High Voltage and ground electrodes were separately pulled out and connected to a power supply. Fig. 6 shows the actual model of the pump installed into the loop. This pump was design in collaboration with the NASA Goddard Space Flight Center, and that the pieces were manufactured there and assembled at WPI.



Fig 8: Micro-scale EHD Pump and Evaporator

The voltage set for the heater was only set to create a pressure differential in the evaporator next to the pump to create a higher flow rate and study different flow rate based heat transfer only for single phase. To maintain a proper standard for a fluid conditions, a Saturation Temperature and Pressure must be set from the reservoir. This provides the exact boiling point of the fluid at that corresponding temperature and pressure to carry out single and two phase experiments. Other variables include a needle valve in the loop to vary the flow rate in the system and multiple ball vales to isolate certain portions of the circulation to study static and dynamic pressure values.

Chapter 2 – Theoretical Calculations

Preliminary calculations for the amount of pressure generation and pressure loss experienced in a system in both single and two phase flows are significant before designing the experimental loop. The pressure generation occurs in the pump and in the evaporator, which are both located within an integrated housing. Pressure losses arise at any location where the working fluid is flowing. For a two phase experiment, it is necessary to calculate the amount of power applied to evaporator for a phase change. In order to achieve subcooling conditions of the working fluid, an additional calculation must be made to solve for the length of a condenser.

2.1 EHD Pump Performance Estimates

In single phase, theoretical calculations for pressure generation in the test loop rely on various parameters. The pressure generation calculation is based on a previous experiment conducted in 2004 by Yinshan Feng and Jamal Seyed-Yagoobi on "understanding [the] electrohydrodynamic conduction pumping phenomenon." The principle equation that was used is shown below:

$$\Delta P_{generation} = (0.85c)m\epsilon \frac{V^2}{d^2}$$

Where c is a constant based on the closeness of the electrode, m is the number of electrode pairs, ϵ is the permittivity of the working fluid (HCFC-123), V is the applied voltage, and d is the distance between electrode pairs. The openness of the electrodes was calculated to be approximately 31.25%, which constitutes a closeness of 68.75%. It is important to note that there are separate voltage sources for the pump and the evaporator although they are within an integrated configuration. Different pressure generations will arise from the different applied voltages. In the pump setup, as previously mentioned, there are two electrode pairs whereas in the evaporator section, there is only one electrode pair. The resulting pressure generation, with varying voltages, for each section of the setup is shown in the graph below:



From theoretical calculations, the pressure generation at the maximum applied voltage of 1240 V for the pump and evaporator are approximately 77 Pa and 38.5 Pa, respectively.

Since there are issues with the previous pressure generation equation, which assumes an ideal set of conditions, better estimates are provided when analyzing previous experimental values. The analysis was broken down into how much pressure that each electrode pair was capable of generating. This was done in order to better compare data to other experiments that may have greater or fewer number of electrode pairs. One experiment, conducted by Lei Yang, used a macro-scale 10 electrode, perforated pump at 10 kV. The second experiment, conducted by Viral Patel, used a meso-scale 20 electrode, flush ring pump at 1 kV. Shown below are two tables summarizing each pump's pressure generation (P) and corresponding flow rate (F):

Total P (Pa)	P Per Pair (Pa)	Total F (mL/min)	F Per Pair (mL/min)
437.5	43.75	102.5	10.25
656.2	65.62	78.7	7.87
875	87.5	60.7	6.07

1000	100	41.8	4.18
1125	112.5	18.8	1.88
1203	120.3	0.82	0.082

Total P (Pa)	P Per Pair (Pa)	Total F (mL/min)	F Per Pair (mL/min)
39.68	1.984	2.284	0.1142
62.26	3.113	2.115	0.1058
86.52	4.326	1.896	0.0948
135.0	6.752	1.499	0.0750
198.6	9.930	0.723	0.0362
216.2	10.81	0.0473	0.0024

In order to generate a pressure generation curve for the current pump configuration, it is compared to both previous experiments based on how closely related they are to one another. The majority of characteristics for the current pump, which includes operating voltage, size of pump, predicted pressure and flow rate ranges, can be attributed to Viral's meso-scale pump. The only difference is that the current pump uses a perforated pump as seen in Lei's experiment rather than the flush ring pump seen in Viral's experiment. Based on weighted slopes of curves and characteristics of the pumps, a graph shown below displays the current pump's pressure generation curve alongside curves of previous experiments:



Based on the estimated curve of the current pump, a table shown below better displays

Total P (Pa)	P Per Pair (Pa)	Total F (mL/min)	F Per Pair (mL/min)
29.2	9.73	3.37	1.12
42.5	14.2	3.00	1.00
55.9	18.6	2.68	0.895
63.3	21.1	2.41	0.804
71.3	23.8	2.04	0.680
96.0	32.0	0.14	0.045

the numerical values of the pump's pressure generation (P) and corresponding flow rate (F):

Compared to the previous maximum pressure generation of 115.5 Pa, the newly estimated

maximum pressure generation value of 96 Pa is relatively lower.

2.2 Single Phase Pressure Loss Theoretical Calculations

In order to decide whether or not the pressure generation in the loop is significant, it is important to calculate the pressure loss in the loop. For a system that is purely in single phase, the pressure loss can be calculated using the Darcy-Weisbach equation shown below:

$$\Delta P_{loss} = \frac{fL\rho V^2}{2D}$$

Where f is the friction factor, L is the length of pipes in different sections of the loop, ρ is the density of the working fluid (HCFC-123), V is the fluid velocity, and D is the inner diameter of pipes. To calculate the total pressure loss in the system, the loop is broken into three sections consisting of the pump, evaporator, and remaining pipe. Shown below is a table summarizing the significant parameters in each section of the loop:

Section	Length (m)	Diameter (m)	Cross Sectional Area (m ²)
Pump	39.58 x 10 ⁻³	1.61 x 10 ⁻³	2.04 x 10 ⁻⁶
Evaporator	11.46 x 10 ⁻³	1.61 x 10 ⁻³	2.04 x 10 ⁻⁶
Remaining Pipe	3	4.57 x 10 ⁻³	1.64 x 10 ⁻⁵

A desired flow rate range is used to calculate the fluid velocity in sections of the loop with different diameters. Shown below is a table with various mass and volumetric flow rates, and the corresponding fluid velocity:

Section	Volumetric Flow	Mass Flow rate (kg/s)	Fluid Velocity (m/s)
	rate (mL/min)		
Pump	0.1 – 5	$2.43 \times 10^{-6} - 1.22 \times 10^{-4}$	8.18 x 10 ⁻⁴ - 4.09 x 10 ⁻²
Evaporator	0.1 – 5	$2.43 \times 10^{-6} - 1.22 \times 10^{-4}$	$8.18 \times 10^{-4} - 4.09 \times 10^{-2}$

Remaining Pipe	0.1 – 5	2.43 x 10 ⁻⁶ - 1.22 x 10 ⁻⁴	$1.02 \text{ x } 10^{-4} \text{ - } 5.10 \text{ x } 10^{-3}$

The last variable to account for is the friction factor, which can be calculated using the equation shown below:

$$f = \frac{64}{Re}$$
 with $Re = \frac{\rho V D}{\mu}$

Where *Re* is the Reynolds number, ρ is the density of the working fluid, V is the fluid velocity, D is the inner diameter of the pipes, and μ is the dynamic viscosity of the working fluid. The corresponding Reynolds numbers and friction factors for each section of the loop are shown below:

Section	Reynolds Number	Friction Factor
Pump	4.7 – 235.5	13.6 - 0.27
Evaporator	4.7 – 235.5	13.6 - 0.27
Remaining Pipe	1.7 - 83.0	38.6 - 0.77

With all variables solved for, the pressure loss in each section of the loop can be

calculated. These values are shown in the table below:

Section	Pressure Loss (Pa)
Pump	0.16 - 8.16
Evaporator	0.047 – 2.36
Remaining Pipe	0.19 – 9.52
Total System	0.40 - 20.0

Based on the theoretically calculated pressure generation and pressure loss values, the net pressure can be calculated using the equation:

$$\Delta P_{net} = P_{pump} + P_{evaporator} - P_{loss}$$

Shown below is a graph depicting the net pressure as a function of the applied voltage:



From theoretical calculations, the net pressure at the lowest applied voltage of 750 V is 41.8 Pa. In addition, the net pressure at the highest applied voltage of 1240 V is 95.3 Pa. It is important to note that these values are estimates, which inherently contain a 20% error.

2.3 Two Phase Pressure Loss Theoretical Calculations

In a two phase flow, the calculations for pressure loss are more extensive. This is due to separate calculations for liquid and vapor phases that exhibit turbulent flow in various sections of the loop. Based on the Reynolds number in single phase, it was valid to assume that laminar flow was only present. This assumption is no longer valid for a two phase experiment. To decide whether or not the pressure generation in the loop is significant for a two phase flow, it is important to calculate the experienced pressure loss. The equation for the total pressure loss in a system with two phases is shown below:

 $\Delta P_{total} = \Delta P_{static} + \Delta P_{momentum} + \Delta P_{frictional}$

Static pressure losses can be ignored because the channels in the loop are assumed to be at the same height.

One way that pressure losses can arise in two phase flow is by momentum. The equation for this pressure loss is shown below:

$$\Delta P_{momentum} = G^2 \left\{ \left[\frac{(1-x)^2}{\rho_l(1-\epsilon)} + \frac{x^2}{\rho_g \epsilon} \right]_{outlet} - \left[\frac{(1-x)^2}{\rho_l(1-\epsilon)} + \frac{x^2}{\rho_g \epsilon} \right]_{inlet} \right\}$$

Where G is the mass flow rate flux, x is the vapor quality, ϵ is the drift flux void fraction, ρ_l is the density of the working fluid in the liquid phase, and ρ_g is the density of the working fluid in the gas phase. The equation for calculating the drift flux void fraction is shown below:

$$\epsilon = \frac{x}{\rho_g} \left[\left\{ \left(1 + 0.12(1-x)\right) \left(\frac{x}{\rho_g} + \frac{(1-x)}{\rho_l}\right) \right\} + \left\{ \frac{1.18(1-x) \left[g\sigma(\rho_l - \rho_g)\right]^{0.25}}{G\rho_l^{0.5}} \right\} \right]^{-1}$$

Where g is the acceleration due to gravity, σ is the surface tension of the working fluid, and all other variables were previously mentioned in the momentum pressure loss equation. The drift flux void fraction is used for separated flows due to different velocities in the liquid and gas phases in horizontal tubes.

Another way that pressure losses occur in two phase flow is by friction. The equation for this pressure loss is shown below:

$$\Delta P_{frictional-liquid} = 4f_l \left(\frac{L}{D}\right) \frac{G^2(1-x)^2}{2\rho_l}$$
$$\Delta P_{frictional-gas} = 4f_g \left(\frac{L}{D}\right) \frac{G^2(x)^2}{2\rho_g}$$

Where L is the length of the channel, D is the diameter where the fluid is exposed to, f_l is the friction factor of the liquid phase, f_g is the friction factor of the gas phase, and all other variables were previously mentioned in the momentum pressure loss equation. The friction factor in a two

phase flow is a conditional equation based on the flow regime that is present. This equation is shown below:

$$f_l \text{ or } f_g = \begin{cases} \frac{16}{Re_l \text{ or } Re_g} & Re_l \text{ or } Re_g < 1000\\ \frac{0.046}{(Re_l \text{ or } Re_g)^{0.2}} & Re_l \text{ or } Re_g > 2000\\ w \frac{16}{Re_l \text{ or } Re_g} + (1-w) \frac{0.046}{(Re_l \text{ or } Re_g)^{0.2}} & 1000 < Re_l \text{ or } Re_g < 2000 \end{cases}$$

where:

$$w = \frac{\left(Re_l \text{ or } Re_g - 1000\right)}{(2000 - 1000)}$$

The equations for calculating the Reynolds number in the liquid or gas phase is shown below:

Gas phase:

$$Re_g = \frac{GxD}{\mu_g}$$

Liquid phase:

$$Re_l = \frac{G(1-x)D}{\mu_l}$$

Where μ_g is the viscosity of the working fluid in the gas phase, μ_l is the viscosity of the working fluid in the liquid phase, and all other variables were previously mentioned. Once the frictional pressure loss is calculated for, a corrective frictional pressure loss must be calculated as shown in the equations below:

$$\Delta P_{frictional-liquid-total} = (\Delta P_{frictional-liquid})(\phi_l)$$
$$\Delta P_{frictional-gas-total} = (\Delta P_{frictional-gas})(\phi_g)$$

Where $\Delta P_{frictional-liquid}$ is the frictional pressure drop due to the liquid phase, $\Delta P_{frictional-gas}$ is the frictional pressure drop due to the gas phase, ϕ_l is the liquid multiplier, and ϕ_g is the gas multiplier. The liquid and gas multiplier can be calculated using the equations shown below:

Gas Multiplier:

 $\phi_g = 1 + C\chi + \chi^2$

Liquid Multiplier:

$$\phi_l = 1 + \frac{C}{\chi} + \frac{1}{\chi^2}$$

Where χ is the Lockhart-Martinelli Parameter and *C* is the Lockhart-Martinelli Constant. Both parameters can be solved for with the equations shown below:

Lockhart-Martinelli Parameter:

$$\chi = \sqrt{\frac{\Delta p_{frictional-liquid}}{\Delta p_{frictional-gas}}}$$

Lockhart-Martinelli Constant:

$$C = \begin{cases} 20 & Re_l > 1500, \quad Re_g > 1500, \\ 12 & Re_l < 1500, \quad Re_g > 1500, \\ 10 & Re_l > 1500, \quad Re_g < 1500, \\ 05 & Re_l < 1500, \quad Re_g < 1500, \end{cases}$$

A table below summarizes the important values in a two phase flow experiment:

Minimum Case				
Pressure	Momentum	Frictional Pressure	Total Pressure	Net Pressure
Generation (Pa)	Pressure Loss (Pa)	Loss (Pa)	Loss (Pa)	(Pa)

Maximum Case				
Pressure	Momentum	Frictional Pressure	Total Pressure	Net Pressure
Generation (Pa)	Pressure Loss (Pa)	Loss (Pa)	Loss (Pa)	(Pa)
96.0	3.64	31.95	35.6	60.4

From the table above, it can be concluded that the pressure losses experienced in a two

phase flow are much greater than those in single phase. Shown below is a graph depicting the net pressure as a function of the applied voltage in a two phase experiment:



2.5 Evaporator Power Input Calculations

To initiate the phase change from the liquid phase to the vapor phase, the applied power to the evaporator must be calculated; the applied power will vary based on the working fluid. This calculation can be done by the equation shown below:

 $Q_{evaporator} = \dot{m}Lx$

Where \dot{m} is the mass flow rate, L is the latent heat of the working fluid at room temperature, and x is the vapor quality. The vapor quality is assumed to be 1 since a full phase change is desired in the evaporator. Based on this calculation for various flow rates, the maximum applied power to the evaporator is approximately 4.1 W.

2.6 Condenser Length Calculations

In order to change from the vapor phase to the liquid phase, it is important to calculate the length of a condenser. Now that the maximum power is accounted for, a maximum length can be calculated for the condenser, which initiates the condensation stage in the loop. The amount of energy required to evaporate a working fluid is the same as the amount of energy needed to condense a working fluid as shown below:

$Q_{condenser} = Q_{evaporator}$

To calculate the required length of the condenser, it is important to include all forms of heat transfer in the overall heat transfer equation. There are three instances where heat transfer is present: convection between the iced bath and the condenser, conduction in the metal pipe, and convection between the working fluid and the pipe walls. One assumption that can be made is that the iced bath is cold enough that the surface temperature throughout the entire condenser is at 273.15 K. As a result, the overall heat transfer equation is shown below:

$$Q_{condenser} = \frac{\pi D_i (T_c - T_b) L}{\frac{1}{h_i} + \frac{\ln \left(\frac{r_2}{r_1}\right) D_i}{2k}}$$

Where D_i is the inner diameter of the pipe, T_c is the subcool temperature of the working fluid (298.15 K), T_b is the overheated temperature of the working fluid (302.15 K), L is the length of the condenser, h_i is the average heat transfer coefficient of the working fluid, r_1 is the inner radius of the pipe, r_2 is the outer radius of the pipe, and k is the thermal conductivity of the pipe. To avoid errors when calculating the heat transfer coefficient, the inlet of the pipe is considered to be at 99% vapor quality while the outlet of the pipe is at 1% vapor quality. Almost all variables in the heat transfer equation are known besides the length of the condenser and the heat transfer coefficient. Shown below is the equation used to solve for the heat transfer coefficient in a two phase flow:

$$h(x) = h_L \left((1-x)^{0.8} + \frac{3.8x^{0.76}(1-x)^{0.04}}{(p^+)^{0.38}} \right)$$

Where h_L is the liquid heat transfer coefficient, x is the vapor quality, and p^+ is the ratio between the saturated and critical pressures of the working fluid. The liquid heat transfer coefficient can be solved for by using the equation shown below:

$$h_L = 0.023 \left(\frac{GD_i}{\mu_f}\right)^{0.8} Pr_f^{0.4} \frac{k_f}{D_i}$$

Where G is the mass flow rate flux, D_i is the inner diameter of the pipe, μ_f is the dynamic viscosity of the working fluid as a saturated liquid, Pr_f is the Prandtl number of the working fluid as a saturated liquid, and k_f is the thermal conductivity of the working fluid as a saturated liquid. The Prandtl number can be calculated by using the equation:

$$Pr_f = \frac{c_p \mu_f}{k_f}$$

Where c_p is the specific heat at constant pressure and all other variables were previously mentioned in the liquid heat transfer coefficient equation. The average heat transfer coefficient can be calculated by averaging the heat transfer coefficient between the inlet and outlet of the condenser. At the highest flow rate of 1 mL/min, the yielded average heat transfer coefficient was 44.15 W/m²K. The remaining value that has not been calculated for is the condenser length. By manipulating the heat transfer equation, the condenser length can be solved for:

$$L = \frac{(Q_{condenser})\left(\frac{1}{h_i} + \frac{\ln\left(\frac{r_2}{r_1}\right)D_i}{2k}\right)}{\pi D_i(T_c - T_b)}$$

Based on this equation, the condenser length was calculated to be 0.168 m. However, to ensure that the working fluid fully condenses, a safety factor of approximately 2 is set to increase the condenser length to 0.336 m.

Chapter 3 – Experimental Setup 3.1 Preliminary Loop Design – 2D Sketch

The initial phase of this design was based off a previous experiment's test loop [5], but with modifications. Shown below is a 2D sketch of the test loop:



The reservoir tank provides a means of filling and extracting the working fluid. In addition, the fill and vacuum ports provide the same function. An external pump is located upstream of the pump and evaporator configuration to overcome large pressure losses that may arise during experimentation. Both pump and evaporator are located in an integrated simple housing, each with different high voltage sources for pressure generation. There is an additional wire

connection to power the heater for two phase experimentation. There is a condenser located downstream of the simple housing to initiate another phase change. A viewing channel is located at the end of the loop to ensure that the working fluid, after the condenser, is only in single phase.

There are three absolute pressure transducers (APTs) in experiment, each located at various sections of the loop exposed to drastic changes. One APT is located after the reservoir to ensure that the saturation pressure corresponds to the saturation temperature. Another APT is located after the evaporator exit to detect the pressure levels after a phase change. Since an additional phase change occurs in the condenser, an APT is conveniently located after the condenser exit. A flowmeter is located upstream of the integrated simple housing to monitor the flow rates entering that portion of the loop. Two differential pressure transducers (DPTs) are located at the heart of the experiment; one between the pump and another between the evaporator. These DPTs will provide experimental data for the amount of pressure generation taking place in each section of the integrated pumping system. Lastly, thermoprobes are widely used in the loop and strategically placed where a temperature change in the system may be present. In order to receive feedback from these sensors, all of their connections are made on one or more data acquisition boxes.

3.2 Loop Design – 3D Model

Based on the 2D sketch of the loop, a 3D model was created in SolidWorks to better understand how connections would come together. Shown below are the isometric and top views of the 3D model loop design:





The majority of the tubes that exist in this assembly have an outer diameter of 6.35 mm in order stay relatively close to the intended micro-scale. Other sections of the loop are slightly larger in diameter to accommodate for the insertion of the simple housing. Stainless steel fittings are used to withstand the corroding effects of the working fluid. In addition, these steel fittings are Yor-Lok compression fittings that prevent large amounts of leaking. To further secure the simple housing in the large tee channel, o-rings are placed at each end. A visual representation of this is shown below:



Based on this configuration, the majority of the working fluid will be forced to flow axially. However, some of the fluid can flow out of the simple housing. As a solution, the fluid flowing outside of the simple housing will all flow to a junction shared by both differential pressure transducers. Due to the time constraints, the MQP assembly was not fully completed. Therefore, there is no experimental data. Shown below are different views of the current assembly:







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Appendices

Appendix A – MATLAB Scripts

Single Phase Pressure Generation and Pressure Loss:

%---Code written by: Darien Nate Khea, Date written on: 11/01/2015---% %---Pressure Generation Calculation (Feng Paper)---% V pump = [750:10:1240]; %Voltage range applied at pump section [V] d electrode = 0.001; %Distance between electrodes [m] epsilon R123 = 42.8*10^-12; %Permittivity of R123 [Farads/m] m p = 2; %Number of electrode pairs in Pump Section m e = 1; %Number of electrode pairs in Evaporator Section P pump generation = (0.6875*0.85)*m p*epsilon R123.*((V pump.^2)./(d electrode^2)); %Pressure generation from pump [Pa] P evaporator generation = (0.6875*0.85)*m e*epsilon R123.*((V pump.^2)./(d electrode^2)); %Pressure generation from evaporator [Pa] plot(V pump, P pump generation, V pump, P evaporator generation); %plots graph xlim([750 1240]); %limits axis xlabel('Applied Voltage (V)'); %labels x-axis ylabel('Pressure Generation (Pa)'); %labels y-axis title('Theoretical Pressure Generation With Varying Voltages'); %labels title legend('Pump','Evaporator'); %labels legend %---Pressure Loss Calculation (Purely Darcy-Weisbach Equation) ---% l pump = 39.58*10^-3; %Length of pump[m] l evaporator = 11.46*10^-3; %Length of evaporator [m] 1 channel = 3; %Length of remaining channel (condenser included) [m] -Max Value-D pump = 1.61×10^{-3} ; %Diameter of pump [m]

D evaporator = 1.61*10^-3; %Diameter of evaporator [m] D channel = 4.57*10^-3; %Diameter of remaining channel (condenser included) [m] - 0.18 inch. rho R123 = 1458.8; %Density of R123 [kg/m^3] mu R123 = 4.0805*10^-4; %Dynamic viscosity of R123 [kg/(m*s)] a pump = (pi*D pump^2)/4; %Area of pump [m^2] a evaporator = (pi*D evaporator^2)/4; %Area of evaporator [m^2] a channel = (pi*D channel^2)/4; %Area of remaining channel (condenser included) [m^2] m dot = [2.43*10^-6:2.43*10^-6:1.22*10^-4]; %Desired mass flowrate range [kg/s] (0.1 mL/min:0.1 mL/min:5 mL/min) vel pump = m dot./(rho R123*a pump); %Velocity range in pump [m/s] vel evaporator = m dot./(rho R123*a evaporator); %Velocity range in evaporator[m/s] vel channel = m dot./(rho R123*a channel); %Velocity range in remaining channel (condenser included) [m/s] Re pump = (rho R123*D pump.*vel pump)./mu R123; %Reynolds number of fluid in pump [dimensionless] Re evaporator = (rho R123*D evaporator.*vel evaporator)./mu R123; %Reynolds number of fluid in evaporator [dimensionless] Re channel = (rho R123*D channel.*vel channel)./mu R123; %Reynolds number of fluid in channel [dimensionless] f pump = 64./Re pump; %Friction factor of pump [dimensionless] f evaporator = 64./Re evaporator; %Friction factor of evaporator [dimensionless] f channel = 64./Re channel; %Friction factor of channel [dimensionless] P loss pump = (f pump.*l pump.*rho R123.*(vel pump.^2))./(D pump*2); %Pressure Loss in Pump [Pa] P loss evaporator = (f evaporator.*l evaporator.*rho R123.*(vel evaporator.^2))./(D pump*2); %Pressure Loss in Evaporator [Pa]

P_loss_channel =
(f_channel.*1_channel.*rho_R123.*(vel_channel.^2))./(D_channel*2); %Pressure
Loss in Channel (condenser included) [Pa] -Over EstimatingTotal_Pressure_Loss = P_loss_pump+P_loss_evaporator+P_loss_channel; %Total
Pressure Loss in Loop [Pa]
%---Net Pressure Calculation---%
Net_Pressure = P_pump_generation+P_evaporator_generation-Total_Pressure_Loss;
%Net pressure in loop [Pa]
plot(V_pump, Net_Pressure); %plots graph
xlim([750 1240]); %limits axis
xlabel('Applied Voltage (V)'); %labels x-axis
ylabel('Net Pressure (Pa)'); %labels y-axis
title('Net Pressure With Varying Voltages'); %labels title
<u>Two Phase Pressure Loss:</u>

%---Code written by: Darien Nate Khea, Date written on: 11/01/2015---% %---Pressure Generation Calculation (Feng Paper)---% V pump = [750:10:1240]; %Voltage range applied at pump + evaporator section [V] d electrode = 0.001; %Distance between electrodes [m] epsilon R123 = 42.8*10^-12; %Permittivity of R123 [Farads/m] m = 3; %Number of electrode pairs in pump + evaporator section P pump generation = (0.6875*0.85) *m*epsilon R123.*((V pump.^2)./(d electrode^2)); %Pressure generation from pump + evaporator [Pa] %---Pressure Loss Calculation in Single Phase Sections (Darcy-Weisbach Equation) ---% l pump = 39.58*10^-3; %Length of pump[m] 1 channel single = 1.5; %Length of channel with single phase flow [m] -Max Value-D pump = 1.61×10^{-3} ; %Diameter of pump [m]

D channel single = 5.08*10^-3; %Diameter of channel with single phase flow [m] - 1/5 inch. rho R123 = 1458.8; %Density of R123 [kg/m^3] mu R123 = 4.0805*10^-4; %Dynamic viscosity of R123 [kg/(m*s)] a pump = (pi*D pump^2)/4; %Area of pump [m^2] a channel single = (pi*D channel single^2)/4; %Area of channel with single phase flow [m^2] m dot = [2.43*10^-6:2.43*10^-6:1.22*10^-4]; %Desired mass flowrate range [kg/s] (0.1 mL/min:0.1 mL/min:5 mL/min) vel pump = m dot./(rho R123*a pump); %Velocity range in pump [m/s] vel channel single = m dot./(rho R123*a channel single); %Velocity range in channel with single phase flow [m/s] Re pump = (rho R123*D pump.*vel pump)./mu R123; %Reynolds number of fluid in pump [dimensionless] Re channel single = (rho R123*D channel single.*vel channel single)./mu R123; %Reynolds number of fluid in single phase flow in channel [dimensionless] f pump = 64./Re pump; %Friction factor of pump [dimensionless] f channel single = 64./Re channel single; %Friction factor of channel with single phase flow [dimensionless] P loss pump = (f pump.*l pump.*rho R123.*(vel pump.^2))./(D pump*2); %Pressure Loss in Pump [Pa] P loss channel single = (f channel single.*l channel single.*rho R123.*(vel channel single.^2))./(D c hannel single*2); %Pressure Loss in Channel with single phase flow [Pa] -Over Estimating-Total Pressure Loss single = P loss pump+P loss channel single; %Total Pressure Loss in single phase flow sections in loop [Pa] %---Pressure Loss Calculation in Two Phase Sections (Lockhart-Martinelli Equation) ---% %---Initial Parameters---% l evaporator = 11.46*10^-3; %Length of evaporator [m] l condenser = 0.3; %Length of condenser [m] 1 channel two = 0.2; %Length of channel with two phase flow [m] -Max ValueD evaporator = 1.61*10^-3; %Diameter of evaporator [m] D condenser = 6.35*10^-3; %Diameter of condenser [m] - 1/4 inch. D channel two = 5.08×10^{-3} ; %Diameter of channel with two phase flow [m] -1/5 inch. a evaporator = (pi*D evaporator^2)/4; %Area of evaporator [m^2] a condenser = (pi*D condenser^2)/4; %Area of condenser [m^2] a channel two = (pi*D channel two^2)/4; %Area of channel with two phase flow [m^2] g = 9.81; %Acceleration due to gravity [m/s^2] %---Momentun Pressure Loss---% %---Mass Flowrate Flux---% G evaporator = m dot./a evaporator; %Mass flowrate flux in evaporator [kg/(sm^2)] G condenser = m dot./a condenser; %Mass flowrate flux in condenser [kg/(sm^2)1 G channel two = m dot./a channel two; %Mass flowrate flux in channel with two phase $[kq/(s-m^2)]$ %---Vapor Quality---% x evaporator i = 0.001; %Vapor quality in evaporator inlet [dimensionless] x evaporator o = 0.05; %Vapor quality in evaporator outlet [dimensionless] x condenser i = 0.001; %Vapor quality in condenser inlet [dimensionless] x condenser o = 0.05; %Vapor quality in condenser outlet [dimensionless] x channel two i = 0.05; %Vapor quality in channel with two phase flow inlet [dimensionless] x channel two o = 0.05; %Vapor quality in channel with two phase flow outlet [dimensionless] %---Density of R123 for Saturated Liquid---% rho R123 liquid evaporator = 1457; %Density for liquid phase in evaporator [kg/m^3] -Midpoint between high and low temperaturesrho R123 liquid condenser = 1467; %Density for liquid phase in condenser [kg/m^3] -Midpoint between high and low temperatures-

```
rho R123 liquid channel two = 1457; %Density for liquid phase in channel
[kg/m^3] -Midpoint between high and low temperatures-
%---Density of R123 for Saturated Vapor---%
rho R123 vapor evaporator = 6.5; %Density for vapor phase in evaporator
[kg/m^3] -Midpoint between high and low temperatures-
rho R123 vapor condenser = 5.75; %Density for vapor phase in condenser
[kg/m^3] -Midpoint between high and low temperatures-
rho R123 vapor channel two = 6.5; %Density for vapor phase in channel
[kg/m^3] -Midpoint between high and low temperatures-
%---Surface Tension of R123---%
sigma evaporator = 0.015; %Surface tension of R123 in evaporator [N/m]
sigma condenser = 0.015; %Surface tension of R123 in condenser [N/m]
sigma channel two= 0.016; %Surface tension of R123 in channel with two phase
[N/m]
%---Void Fraction---%
epsilon evaporator i =
(x evaporator i/rho R123 vapor evaporator)*(((1+0.12*(1-
x evaporator i))*((x evaporator i/rho R123 vapor evaporator)+((1-
x evaporator i)/rho R123 liquid evaporator)))+((1.18*(1-
x evaporator i) * (g*sigma evaporator* (rho R123 liquid evaporator-
rho R123 vapor evaporator))^0.25)./(G evaporator.*(rho R123 liquid evaporator
)^0.5))).^-1; %Void fraction in evaporator inlet [dimensionless]
epsilon evaporator o =
(x evaporator o/rho R123 vapor evaporator) * (((1+0.12*(1-
x evaporator o))*((x evaporator o/rho R123 vapor evaporator)+((1-
x evaporator o)/rho R123 liquid evaporator)))+((1.18*(1-
x evaporator o)*(g*sigma evaporator*(rho R123 liquid evaporator-
rho R123 vapor evaporator))^0.25)./(G evaporator.*(rho R123 liquid evaporator
)^0.5))).^-1; %Void fraction in evaporator outlet [dimensionless]
epsilon condenser i = (x condenser i/rho R123 vapor condenser)*(((1+0.12*(1-
x condenser i))*((x condenser i/rho R123 vapor condenser)+((1-
x condenser i)/rho R123 liquid condenser)))+((1.18*(1-
x condenser i) * (g*sigma condenser* (rho R123 liquid condenser-
rho R123 vapor condenser))^0.25)./(G condenser.*(rho R123 liquid condenser)^0
.5))).^-1; %Void fraction in condenser inlet [dimensionless]
epsilon condenser o = (x condenser o/rho R123 vapor condenser)*(((1+0.12*(1-
x_condenser_o))*((x_condenser_o/rho_R123_vapor_condenser)+((1-
x condenser o)/rho R123 liquid condenser)))+((1.18*(1-
x condenser o) * (g*sigma condenser* (rho R123 liquid condenser-
```

```
rho R123 vapor condenser))^0.25)./(G condenser.*(rho R123 liquid condenser)^0
.5))).^-1; %Void fraction in condenser outlet [dimensionless]
epsilon_channel two i =
(x channel two i/rho R123 vapor channel two)*(((1+0.12*(1-
x channel two i))*((x channel two i/rho R123 vapor channel two)+((1-
x_channel_two_i)/rho_R123_liquid_channel_two)))+((1.18*(1-
x channel two i) * (g*sigma channel two* (rho R123 liquid channel two-
rho R123 vapor channel two))^0.25)./(G channel two.*(rho R123 liquid channel
two)^0.5))).^-1; %Void fraction in channel with two phase inlet
[dimensionless]
epsilon channel two o =
(x channel two o/rho R123 vapor channel two)*(((1+0.12*(1-
x_channel_two_o))*((x_channel_two_o/rho_R123 vapor channel two)+((1-
x channel two o)/rho R123 liquid channel two)))+((1.18*(1-
x channel two o) * (g*sigma channel two* (rho R123 liquid channel two-
rho_R123_vapor_channel_two))^0.25)./(G_channel_two.*(rho_R123_liquid_channel_
two)^0.5))).^-1; %Void fraction in channel with two phase outlet
[dimensionless]
%---Momentum Pressure Loss Calculation---%
M_pressure_loss_evaporator = G evaporator.^2.*((((1-
x evaporator o)^2./(rho R123 liquid_evaporator*(1-
epsilon evaporator o)))+(x evaporator o^2./(rho R123 vapor evaporator*epsilon
evaporator o)))-(((1-x evaporator i)^2./(rho R123 liquid evaporator*(1-
epsilon evaporator i)))+(x evaporator i^2./(rho R123 vapor evaporator*epsilon
evaporator i))); %Momentum pressure loss in evaporator [Pa]
M pressure loss condenser = G condenser.^2.*((((1-
x condenser o) ^2./(rho R123 liquid condenser*(1-
epsilon condenser o)))+(x condenser o^2./(rho R123 vapor condenser*epsilon co
ndenser o)))-(((1-x condenser i)^2./(rho R123 liquid condenser*(1-
epsilon condenser i)))+(x condenser i^2./(rho R123 vapor condenser*epsilon co
ndenser i)))); %Momentum pressure loss in condenser [Pa]
M pressure loss channel two = G channel two.^2.*((((1-
x channel two o)^2./(rho R123 liquid channel two*(1-
epsilon_channel_two_o)))+(x_channel two o^2./(rho R123 vapor channel two*epsi
lon_channel_two_o))) - (((1-
x channel two i)^2./(rho R123 liquid channel two*(1-
epsilon channel two i)))+(x channel two i^2./(rho R123 vapor channel two*epsi
lon channel two i)))); %Momentum pressure loss in channel with two phase [Pa]
%---Frictional Pressure Loss---%
%---Reynolds Number---%
%---Viscosity of R123 liquid---%
mu liquid R123 e = 4*10^-4; %Viscosity of saturated liquid in evaporator [Pa-
```

```
s] -Approximation-
```

mu liquid R123 con = 4.25*10^-4; %Viscosity of saturated liquid in condenser [Pa-s] -Approximationmu liquid R123 ch = 4*10^-4; %Viscosity of saturated liquid in channel with two phase flow [Pa-s] -Approximation-%---Viscosity of R123 gas---% mu vapor R123 e = 1.1*10^-5; %Viscosity of saturated vapor in evaporator [Pas] -Approximationmu vapor R123 con = 1.07*10^-5; %Viscosity of saturated vapor in condenser [Pa-s] - Approximationmu vapor R123 ch = 1.1*10^-5; %Viscosity of saturated vapor in channel with two phase flow [Pa-s] -Approximation-%---Reynolds Number for Saturated Liquid---% Re liquid evaporator i = (G evaporator.*(1x evaporator i) *D evaporator)./(mu liquid R123 e) ; %Reynolds number of liquid phase for evaporator entrance [dimensionless] Re liquid evaporator o = (G evaporator.*(1x evaporator o) *D evaporator)./(mu liquid R123 e); %Reynolds number of liquid phase for evaporator exit [dimensionless] Re liquid condenser i = (G condenser.*(1x condenser i) *D condenser)./(mu liquid R123 con); %Reynolds number of liquid phase for condenser entrance [dimensionless] Re liquid condenser $o = (G \text{ condenser.}^*(1$ x condenser o) *D condenser)./(mu liquid R123 con); %Reynolds number of liquid phase for condenser exit [dimensionless] Re liquid channel two i = (G channel two.*(1x channel two i) *D channel two)./(mu liquid R123 ch); %Reynolds number of liquid phase for channel entrance [dimensionless] Re liquid channel two o = (G channel two.*(1x channel two o) *D channel two)./(mu liquid R123 ch); %Reynolds number of liquidp hase for channel exit [dimensionless] %---Reynolds Number for Satured Vapor---% Re vapor evaporator i = (G evaporator.*(x evaporator i)*D evaporator)./(mu vapor R123 e) ; %Reynolds number vapor phase for evaporator entrance [dimensionless] Re vapor evaporator o = (G evaporator.*(x evaporator o)*D evaporator)./(mu vapor R123 e); %Reynolds number vapor phase for evaporator exit [dimensionless]

Re vapor condenser i = (G condenser.*(x condenser i)*D condenser)./(mu vapor R123 con); %Reynolds number vapor phase for condenser entrance [dimensionless] Re vapor condenser o = (G condenser.*(x condenser o)*D condenser)./(mu vapor R123 con); %Reynolds number vapor phase for for condenser exit [dimensionless] Re vapor channel two i = (G channel_two.*(x_channel_two_i)*D_channel_two)./(mu_vapor_R123_ch); %Reynolds number vapor phase for channel entrance [dimensionless] Re vapor channel two o = (G channel two.*(x channel two o)*D channel two)./(mu vapor R123 ch); %Reynolds number vapor phase for channel exit [dimensionless] %---Friction Factor (Conditional for 10% Vapor) For Saturated Liquid---% f liquid evaporator i = 16./Re liquid evaporator i; %Friction factor for liquid phase for evaporator entrance [dimensionless] f liquid evaporator o = 16./Re liquid evaporator o; %Friction factor for liquid phase for evaporator exit [dimensionless] f liquid condenser i = 16./Re liquid condenser i; %Friction factor for liquid phase for condenser entrance [dimensionless] f liquid condenser o = 16./Re liquid condenser o; %Friction factor for liquid phase for condenser exit [dimensionless] f_liquid_channel_two_i = 16./Re_liquid_channel_two_i; %Friction factor for liquid phase for channel entrance [dimensionless] f liquid channel two o = 16./Re liquid channel two o; %Friction factor for liquid phase for channel exit [dimensionless] %---Friction Factor (Conditional for 10% Vapor) For Saturated Vapor---% f vapor evaporator i = 16./Re vapor evaporator i; %Friction factor for vapor phase for evaporator entrance [dimensionless] f vapor evaporator o = 16./Re vapor evaporator o; %Friction factor for vapor phase for evaporator exit [dimensionless] f_vapor_condenser_i = 16./Re_vapor_condenser_i; %Friction factor for vapor phase for condenser entrance [dimensionless] f vapor condenser o = 16./Re vapor condenser o; %Friction factor for vapor phase for condenser exit [dimensionless] f vapor channel two i = 16./Re vapor channel two i; %Friction factor for vapor phase for channel entrance [dimensionless]

```
f_vapor_channel_two_o = 16./Re vapor channel two o; %Friction factor for
vapor phase for channel exit [dimensionless]
%---Frictional Pressure Loss - Intermediate For Saturated Liquid---%
f loss liquid evaporator i =
(4*f liquid evaporator i.*l evaporator.*G evaporator.^2.*(1-
x evaporator i)^2)/(2*rho R123 liquid evaporator*D evaporator);
f loss liquid evaporator o =
(4*f liquid evaporator o.*l evaporator.*G evaporator.^2.*(1-
x_evaporator_o)^2)/(2*rho_R123_liquid_evaporator*D_evaporator);
f loss liquid condenser i =
(4*f liquid condenser i.*l condenser.*G condenser.^2.*(1-
x condenser i)^2)/(2*rho R123 liquid condenser*D condenser);
f loss liquid condenser o =
(4*f liquid condenser o.*l condenser.*G condenser.^2.*(1-
x condenser o)^2)/(2*rho R123 liquid condenser*D condenser);
f loss liquid channel two i =
(4*f liquid channel two i.*l channel two.*G channel two.^2.*(1-
x channel two i)^2)/(2*rho R123 liquid channel two*D channel two);
f loss liquid channel two o =
(4*f liquid channel two o.*l channel two.*G channel two.^2.*(1-
x channel two o)^2)/(2*rho R123 liquid channel two*D channel two);
%---Frictional Pressure Loss - Intermediate For Saturated Vapor---%
f loss vapor evaporator i =
(4*f vapor evaporator i.*l evaporator.*G evaporator.^2.*(x evaporator i)^2)/(
2*rho R123 vapor evaporator*D evaporator);
f loss vapor evaporator o =
(4*f vapor evaporator o.*l evaporator.*G evaporator.^2.*(x evaporator o)^2)/(
2*rho R123 vapor evaporator*D evaporator);
f loss vapor condenser i =
(4*f vapor condenser i.*l condenser.*G condenser.^2.*(x condenser i)^2)/(2*rh
o R123 vapor condenser*D condenser);
f loss vapor condenser o =
(4*f vapor condenser o.*l condenser.*G condenser.^2.*(x condenser o)^2)/(2*rh
o R123 vapor condenser*D condenser);
f loss vapor channel two i =
(4*f vapor channel two i.*l channel two.*G channel two.^2.*(x channel two i)^
2)/(2*rho R123 vapor channel two*D channel two);
f loss vapor channel two o =
(4*f vapor channel two o.*l channel two.*G channel two.^2.*(x channel two o)^
2)/(2*rho R123 vapor channel two*D channel two);
```

```
%---Lockhart-Martinelli Parameter---%
X_evaporator_i = sqrt(f_loss_liquid_evaporator_i./f_loss_vapor_evaporator_i);
X condenser i = sqrt(f loss liquid evaporator o./f loss vapor evaporator o);
X channel two i = sqrt(f loss liquid condenser i./f loss vapor condenser i);
X_evaporator_o = sqrt(f_loss_liquid_condenser_o./f_loss_vapor_condenser_o);
X condenser o =
sqrt(f loss liquid channel two i./f loss vapor channel two i);
X channel two o =
sqrt(f loss liquid channel two o./f loss vapor channel two o);
%---Lockhart-Martinelli Constant---%
%Since both liquid and vapor Reynolds numbers are less than 1500%
C = 5;
%---Liquid Multiplier---%
phi_liquid_evaporator_i = 1+(C./X_evaporator_i)+(1./X_evaporator_i.^2);
phi liquid evaporator o = 1 + (C_X \text{ evaporator } o) + (1_X \text{ evaporator } o.^2);
phi liquid condenser i = 1+(C./X condenser i)+(1./X condenser i.^2);
phi liquid condenser o = 1+(C./X \text{ condenser } o)+(1./X \text{ condenser } o.^2);
phi liquid channel two i = 1+(C./X \text{ channel two i})+(1./X \text{ channel two i.^2});
phi liquid channel two o = 1+(C_X \text{ channel two } o)+(1_X \text{ channel two } o.^2);
%---Gas Multiplier---%
phi vapor evaporator i = 1+(C.*X evaporator i)+X evaporator i.^2;
phi vapor evaporator o = 1+(C.*X \text{ evaporator } o)+X \text{ evaporator } o.^2;
phi_vapor_condenser_i = 1+(C.*X_condenser_i)+X_condenser_i.^2;
phi_vapor_condenser_o = 1+(C.*X_condenser_o)+X_condenser_o.^2;
phi vapor channel two i = 1+(C.*X channel two i)+X channel two i.^2;
phi vapor channel two o = 1+(C.*X \text{ channel two } o)+X \text{ channel two } o.^2;
%---Frictional Pressure Loss Liquid---%
```

```
F loss liquid_evaporator_i =
(f loss liquid evaporator i.*phi liquid evaporator i);
F loss liquid evaporator o =
(f loss liquid evaporator o.*phi liquid evaporator o);
F loss liquid condenser i =
(f_loss_liquid_condenser_i.*phi_liquid_condenser_i);
F loss liquid condenser o =
(f loss liquid condenser o.*phi liquid condenser o);
F loss liquid channel two i =
(f loss liquid channel two i.*phi liquid channel two i);
F loss liquid channel two o =
(f_loss_liquid_channel_two_o.*phi_liquid_channel_two_o);
%---Frictional Pressure Loss Vapor---%
F loss vapor evaporator i =
(f loss vapor evaporator i.*phi vapor evaporator i);
F loss vapor evaporator o =
(f loss vapor evaporator o.*phi vapor evaporator o);
F loss vapor condenser i = (f loss vapor condenser i.*phi vapor condenser i);
F loss vapor condenser o = (f loss vapor condenser o.*phi vapor condenser o);
F loss vapor channel two i =
(f loss vapor channel two i.*phi vapor channel two i);
F loss vapor_channel_two_o =
(f loss vapor channel two o.*phi vapor channel two o);
%---Frictional Pressure Loss Actual Liquid---%
F loss liquid evaporator =
(F loss liquid evaporator i+F loss liquid evaporator o)/2;
F loss liquid condenser =
(F loss liquid condenser i+F loss liquid condenser o)/2;
F loss liquid channel two =
(F_loss_liquid_channel_two_i+F_loss_liquid_channel_two_o)/2;
%---Frictional Pressure Loss Actual Vapor---%
F loss vapor evaporator =
(F loss vapor evaporator i+F loss vapor evaporator o)/2;
```

```
F loss vapor condenser =
(F loss vapor condenser i+F loss vapor condenser o)/2;
F loss vapor channel two =
(F_loss_vapor_channel_two_i+F_loss_vapor_channel_two_o)/2;
%---Two Phase Total Pressure Loss---%
Total Pressure Loss two =
F loss liquid evaporator+F loss liquid condenser+F loss liquid channel two+F
loss vapor evaporator+F loss vapor condenser+F loss vapor channel two+M press
ure_loss_evaporator+M_pressure_loss_condenser+M_pressure_loss_channel_two;
%---Total Pressure Loss In Two Phase Experiment---%
Total Pressure Loss = Total Pressure Loss single+Total Pressure Loss two;
%---Net Pressure---%
Net Pressure = P pump generation-Total Pressure Loss;
plot(V pump,Net Pressure) %plots graph
ylim([41.67 60.4]) %limits y-axis
xlabel('Applied Voltage (V)'); %labels x-axis
ylabel('Net Pressure (Pa)'); %labels y-axis
title('Net Pressure With Varying Voltages'); %labels title
                  Evaporator Power Input and Condenser Length:
%---Code Written by: Darien Nate Khea, Date Written: 10/11/2015---%
%---Evaporator Calculations---%
m dot = [2.43*10^-6:1.215*10^-6:2.43*10^-5]; %Desired mass flowrate range
[kg/s] (0.1 mL/min:0.05 mL/min:1 mL/min)
lat heat R123 = 170.2*10^3; %Latent heat of R123 [J/kg]
vap q = 0.99; %Vapor Quality [dimensionless]
Q evaporator = m dot.*lat heat R123*vap q; %Heat Transfer for Evaporation [W]
%---Condenser Calculations---%
D condenser i = 4.572*10^-3; %Diameter of condenser inlet [m], 0.18"
D condenser o = 4.572*10^{-3}; %Diameter of condenser outlet [m], 0.18"
```

```
r condenser i = D condenser i/2; %Radius of condenser inlet[m]
r condenser o = D condenser o/2; %Radius of condenser outlet [m]
a condenser i = (pi*(D \text{ condenser } i)^2)/4; %Area of condenser inner [m^2]
a condenser o = (pi*(D \text{ condenser o})^2)/4; %Area of condenser outer [m^2]
%---Heat Transfer Coefficient of R123 liquid phase---%
G condenser = m dot./(a condenser i); %Mass flowrate flux of liquid in
condenser [kg/s-m^2]
mu liquid R123 = 4.25*10^-4; %Viscosity of saturated liquid in condenser [Pa-
s] -Approximation-
k R123 liq = 0.077; %Thermal conductivity of saturated liquid R123 [W/m-
Kelvin]
C p R123 = 729.4; %Specific heat of R123 [J/(kq-Kelvin)]
Pr liquid = (C p R123*mu liquid R123)/(k R123 liq); %Prandtl number of
saturated liquid R123 [dimensionless]
h l =
0.023.*(((G condenser.*D condenser i)./mu liquid R123).^0.8)*(Pr liquid.^0.4)
.*(k R123 liq/D condenser i); %Heat Transfer Coefficient for liquid phase
[W/(m^2-Kelvin)]
%---Heat Transfer Coefficient of R123 two phase inlet---%
p sat = 91; %Saturated pressure of R123 [kPa]
p crit = 3668; %Critical pressure of R123 [kPa]
p star = p sat/p crit; %Ratio of pressures [dimensionless]
h two i = h l.*(((1-vap q)^0.8+(((3.8*(vap q)^0.76)*(1-
vap q)^0.04)/(p star)^0.38))); %Heat Transfer Coefficient for two phase
[W/(m^2-Kelvin)]
%---Heat Transfer Coefficient of R123 two phase outlet---%
vap q o = 0.01;
h_two_0 = h_1.*(((1-vap_q_0)^0.8+(((3.8*(vap_q_0)^0.76)*(1-
vap_q_o)^0.04)/(p_star)^0.38))); %Heat Transfer Coefficient for two phase
[W/(m^2-Kelvin)]
k ss = 0.014*10^3; %Conductivity of stainless steel [W/m-k]
%---Average Heat Transfer Coefficient of R123 inlet/outlet---%
```

h_avg = (h_two_i+h_two_o)/2; %Average Heat Transfer Coefficient for two phase [W/(m^2-Kelvin)] %---Based on highest mass flow rate (1 mL/min), heat needed for evaporator is ~4.1 W---% %---Based on heat needed for evaporator/condenser for full phase change:---% %---Length of condenser is ~ 6.61 in. or 0.168 m---% %---Putting a safety factor of 2 should increase the overall condenser %length to ~13.2 in. or 0.335 m---%

Differential Pressure Transducer:

	P103 Ultra	a Low Range AC Output -Wet erential Pressure hsducer
	Features Full Scale Ranges as High Line Wet-Wet D Equal Pres Low Accel Field Repl	Differential Pressure Low as ±0.008 psid Pressure Capability Differential ssure Inlet Volumes leration Sensitivity aceable Sensing Diaphragms
Description The Validyne DP103 is designed for exceedingly low differential pressure applications where high accuracy is required under rough physical of 0.08 psid (-0.56 cm H/O), this instrument is being used in the measurement of very low rates of gases where symmetrical pressure avtiles are required for dynamic exceeding and pressure null detection such and pressure null detection system. Applications Involving corrosive liquids and pressure avtiles are required for dynamic exceeding the received of the media are corrosion psistant steel. Overpressure as high as 100 psid with received to the sensing diaphrage of whether exceeding the sensing diaphrage of the used. Used with a typical Validyne carrier for the electronics with no problem.	Specifications Standard Ranges: Standard Ranges: Accuracy": Hysteresis: Overpressure Limit: Line Pressure Inductance: Zero Balance: Zero Balance: Zero Balance: District Roted: Limits Sensitivity: Pressure Media: Temperature: Openting: Specified Thermal Sensitivity Shift: Pressure Connection: Electrical Connection: Electrical Connection: Size	 -0.008 to -12.5 paid FS See Disphragm Selection Chart on the following sheet. -0.25% Full Scale 0.1% pressure excursion -200% Full Scale with less than 0.5% Full Scale with less than 0.5% Full Scale and below 100 paid or -28 and below 100 paid or -28 and below 100 paid, less than 1% Zero Shift 20mH nominal, each coll -5mWV at rated excitation 5 Vims at SkHz 1 to 20 kHz with 20 mh colls 20mWV for Full Scale, nominal Corrosive fluids, compatible with 410ss, laconel, and Burns N O-Rings.** -85 to 2505 10 to 1805 1%FS/1005 typical 5X(10 ³ cubic inch (.57 cc) 3X(10 ³ cubic inch (.57 cc) 3X(10 ³ cubic inch (.57 cc) 3X(10 ³ cubic inch (.57 cc) 1%1005 typical 35X(10 ³ cubic inch (.57 cc) 1%1005 typical 1%27 NPTF Bendix (706A-1068 (SR) or equivalent, 10t. cubic provided 1.25CX 4(3X 4.375C) 39 cunces (1.11 Kg) Order PIN 8-XX Disphragm Dash Number from selection chart on the following sheet.



Flow Meter:

Datasheet

SLQ-HC60

Milliliter Flow Meter for Hydrocarbons

- Maximum flows up to 80 ml/min
- Sensitive to lowest flows
- Straight flow path, no moving parts
- Fast response time: < 50 ms
- Optimized for hydrocarbons

1 Introduction SLQ-HC60



SENSIRION

The SLO-HC60 Liquid Flow Meter enables fast, non invasive measurements of liquid flow up to 80 ml/min. This product line is especially suited for process monitoring applications in automation technology which require high sensitivity in the milliliter range. It is suited for use with almost all hydrocarbons, as for example, alcohols, oils, gasoline, diesel, etc. and many other chemicals. Excellent chemical resistance is ensured: The flow path of the SLO-HC60 Liquid Flow Meters is formed by a simple, streight glass capillary. This Swiss made, non invasive flow meter is based on Sensition's patented CMOSens* Technology (US Patent 6,813,944 B2). An internal fourth generation MEMS sensor chip combines a thermal high precision sensor element with amplification circuits and digital intelligence for linearization and temperature compensation on one single microchip – the product's core element.

2 Sensing Performance

In Table 1 the flow sensor's performance for use with Isopropyl Alcohol (IPA) is given. For other hydrocarbons the values will be slightly different as the performance depends on the medium used. Due to the optimized output signal the repeatability is nearly constant over a wide flow range. The repeatability depends on the integration time' of the analog signal acquisition. Longer integration time leads to better repeatability of the flow measurement (see table 1). The temperature compensation is optimized for use with IPA and shows very good performance for most hydrocarbons and other media.

Paramotor	Condition	SLQ-HCeo	Units
Maximum Dow Pate	Best Performance	80	
NOXIMUT FION NO.C	Reduced Performance	100	
	0.2 neclateration time	1.5	% m.v.
Repeatability ^b	ote sec megrooon one	0.2	% F.S.
(whichever is greater)	2 sec integration time	1	% m.v.
		0.07	% F.S.
Flow Detection Response Time		< 50	ms
Accurecy ⁴		10	% m.v.
Response Time On Power-Up		120	ms
Mounting Orientation Sensitivity ⁴	For IPA	0.25	mimin
Operating Temperature	Temperature Compensated	+10+40	•0
Operating remperature	Functional	+0 +55	•C
Ambient storage Temperature	(empty flow channel)	-10+60	°C

Table 1: Model specific performance of SLQ-HC60 for IPA (all data at 20*C. 1 banks unless otherwise noted)

⁴ Normal position: Horizontal Flow channel, connector horizontally.

^{*} This refers to the time over which the analog acquisition device averages the input signal. Refer to the datasheet of your device.

^b For medium IPA using 1 σ standard deviation of consecutive flow measurements.

⁴ With IPA, 2.5-80 milmin, after conversion of the Vout signal via the exponential relation. See section 3.1

3 Output Signal and Media Compatibility

3.1 Output Signal

The SLO-HC60 flow meter comes with an analog output (0...10V). Depending on the media used, the output will be about 5 Volt at zero flow. For positive flow rates the output signal increases logarithmically* with the flow rate for IPA (see figure 1). This signal characteristic has the advantage that the flow meter can be used at various flow rates with a constant relative error and makes measurements for a wide spectrum of liquids possible.



3.2 Signal for Other Media

For other media but IPA the form of the sensor signal will differ slightly as is demonstrated in figure 2. When using the sensor with other media but IPA, ask Sensition for advice on how to handle the sensor signal to suit your requirements.

Because of the drastically different sensor response the sensor is not suited for use with water or aqueous solutions.

3.3 Maximum Flow Rate for Common Media

Due to the measurement principle, the thermal properties of the medium determine the sensor characteristics and the dynamic range of the device. For most hydrocarbons and most other media this range extends to about 80 ml/min. With reduced performance even rates of 100 ml/min or higher can be

reached for some media. For low viscosity (< 1 Table 2: Examples for common media centipoise) media the dynamic range can be limited by turbulence.

The dynamic ranges for various media are given in Table 2. For other media similar values can be expected.

Attention: If unsure about your medium please contact Sensition for assistance.



$$= 1/3 * (e^{(Vout-5)/0.729}-1)$$



Figure 2: Sensor Signal for Various Media

1	Nedium	Maximum Flow Rate	Units
1	IPA	80 (100 ^b)	
:	Ethanol, Methanol, Gasoline	-50	
	Acetone	~ 40	mi/min
	Diesel, Petroleoum, Veg. Oils	80 (100 ^k)	
	Silicon Oil, Ether	< 100	

* The flow rate for IPA is given by Flow[mi/min] = (Exp[(Vout-5)/0.729]-1)/3 for positive flow rates, i.e. above 5V. For negative flow rates the signal is symmetric: Flow[milmin] = - (Exp](5-Yout)/0.729]-1)/3. In Excel or when programming one can use the following formula for the full flow range: Flow[mi/min] = SIGN(Vout -5)*(EXP[SIGN(Vout -5)*(Vout -5)/ 0.729]]-1)/3 where SIGN is -1 if the argument is negative and +1 if the argument is positive.

^b At reduced requirements on accuracy (repeatability for other media but IPA) and exchangeability of sensors. www.sensition.com April 2012 V2

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3.4 Exchangeability

Every SLO-HC60 is calibrated for IPA. This makes the sensors also exchangeable for use with other media, meaning that once the sensors are characterized for a particular medium the same values can be used for further sensors. Depending on the media, variations between sensors of 6–20% are typical.

4 Cleaning

Due to the measurement principle the sensor is sensitive to deposits on the inside of the sensor's capillary. Especially when changing from one liquid to another sufficient cleaning steps have to be performed to avoid nonsoluble remainders on the capillary wall. Inadequate cleaning can lead to an offset and low repeatability. The cleaning procedure has to efficiently remove contaminations from the borosilicate glass surfaces. This is the material which is used for the straight flow channel inside the flow meter.

Any form of mechanical cleaning has to be avoided. This will easily damage the internal capillary.

5 Electrical and Mechanical Specifications

5.1 Electrical Specifications

Table 2: DC Characteristics.

Parameter	Conditions	Min.	Тур.	Max.	Units
Power Supply DC, VDD		16	24	26	٧
Operating Current	V ₀₀ = 24 V		3	4	mA
Analog Out Voltage Range		0		10	v
Load at Analog Out		10		8	kΩ
Capacitive Load at Analog out				đ	pF

5.2 Electrical Connector and Pinout

Connector Type: Lumberg Pico (M8) male, 8-pole, threaded lock.

Pin	Function	Connect to	Color (pigtail cable)	
1	Power Supply 24V	(+) of Power Supply	white	
2			brown	6 5
3		Do not una i	green	_%•3
4		DO HOL COR-	yellow	7
5			grey	1.0.0
6	Analog Out 0-10 V	(+) of Signal Acquisition	pink	
7	GND	Connect to ground/(-) of Power	blue	-
8	GND	Supply and Signal Acquisition	red	

Note: Pins 7 and 8 have to be connected to ground of the Power Supply and the Signal Acquisition. Pins 2-5 are used in the calibration procedure, they have no functionality in normal use. Pins 2-5 cannot be used "as" the ground; they are not connected with Pins 7 and 8 inside the sensor.

5.3 Fluidic Connections

The repeatability of the measurement depends on a laminar flow of the liquid. Especially with low viscosity media improper connections to the sensor can unnecessarily reduce the maximum flow rate. Tubing with an inner diameter of less than 1.8 mm should be avoided. Make sure that the tubing has been cut property.

SENSIRION

5.4 Mechanical Specifications and Pressure Rating

Table 2 March 10 10	Contraction of Decision Define	
Table 3: Mechanical 3	Specifications and Pressure Nating	

Parameter	SLQ-HC60	
Fluid Connector Standard (Fittings)	%-28 flat bottom port for 1/8 ⁹ , 3mm OD tubing	
Wetted Materials:		
 Internal Sensor Capillary Material 	Duran [®] (borosilicate glass 3.3)	
 Fitting Material 	100% PEEK* (polyetheretherketone)	
 Additional Sealing Material 	Tefzel® (ETFE)	
Overpressure Resistance	3 ber 45 psl	
Maximum Pressure Drop (at 80 milmin flow rate for IPA)	40 mber	
Internal Sensor Capillary, Inner Diameter	1.8 mm	
Protection Class	IP 65	
Total Mass	53 g	

Attention

Mechanical shocks and connecting to the fittings with excessive force can lead to stress on the internal thin walled glass capillary and can cause it to break. Test for leakage after every time new connections are made. Refer to Handling Instructions for precise information.

6 Physical Dimensions



7 Ordering Info

The SLO-HC60 can be ordered in the Flow Meter Kit at quantities up to 3 units. The Flow Meter Kit contains the sensor, the suitable connecting cable, a set of compression fittings for 1/8" OD tubing and a set of various barb connectors for easy setup for testing.

When ordering the SLO-HC60 alone without the Flow Meter Kit it comes only with the cables but without fitting material.

Product	Article Number	
Flow Meter Kit SLQ-HC60	1-100870-01	
SLQ-HC60	1-100605-01	